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Account details
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Where to send articles
All correspondence concerning articles should be directed to natajes.holtzhausen@up.ac.za or:
Prof N Holtzhausen
University of Pretoria
School of Public Administration and Management
EMS building, Room 3-113
Pretoria
0002
South Africa
natasja.holtzhausen@up.ac.za
Tel: 012 420 3474
Fax: 012 362 5265
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During an address at the 2012 graduation ceremony of the Tertiary School in Business Administration (TSiBA), the Minister in The Presidency: National Planning, Trevor A Manuel, said that “… my generation is currently in positions of decision-making in governments, in business and in academia – and if all of us were sufficiently honest, we would recognise that our actions do not always inspire confidence. Knowing this is important, because we need to recognise in you the ability of a generation determined and inspired to replace us. Such replacement is, of course, part of the natural ordering of leadership – sometimes these transitions can be accelerated by the recognition of certain deficiencies in incumbents, and at other times it is fuelled by the need for change.”

The statement by Minister Manual sets the scene for this issue of *Administratio Publica*. In all of the articles, the critical need for effective leadership is identified—whether it is to address infrastructure challenges, address health needs or strategic leadership and key critical skills to the reform of financial management and reporting practices, the message remains the same. Strong, transformational and servant leaders are needed to address the vast number of challenges faced by the developmental state. As stated by Manual (2012) leadership positions should be occupied by individuals that want to serve and that is based on strong values. Leaders are expected to display values, skills and attributes that will drive transformation and change. These skills, attributes and competencies need to become part of Public Administration and Management curricula.

**ENHANCING INSIGHTS ON THE LEADERSHIP ROLE OF SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVANTS**

In his article, “Enhancing insights on the leadership role of South African public servants” Danny Sing provides an overview of the nature of a development-oriented public service. In his article he calls for public servants that are more conscious of their leadership role. It is imperative that the various leadership perspectives that include aspects such as servant leadership, trust as well as
e-leadership be understood and correctly applied. Blanchard in Sing (2012) argues that “… if you want to survive during this crisis you need to make sure you are a servant leader. In tough times and in good times, the first question you need to ask yourself is why you are leading? Are you here to serve or to be served?” This leads to an important and often forgotten aspect of leadership, namely emotional intelligence. Being an emotionally intelligent leader does not guarantee good leadership, but it helps to create a greater consciousness of not only the environment in which public sector leaders are functioning, but also the emotions of those working with him/her. Public sector leaders always need to bear in mind that they will be influenced by the nine dimensions of culture that differentiates societies and organisations (Sing 2012). As cautioned by Grindle in Sing (2012) leaders in a development-oriented public service must be aware that “inflating” the development mandate with “what must be done” without due regard to resource capacity and constraints may pose problems.

**TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE – A PUBLIC SECTOR PERSPECTIVE**

The article written by Vain Jarbandhan echoes the sentiments of the Sing article in so far as stressing the importance of leadership in a changing environment. Jarbandhan focuses on transformational leaders, as change agents, as the best suited to manage organisational change “in the face of daunting development challenges” (Kiyaga-Nsubunga in Jarbandhan 2012).

The article addresses the following question: “Whether a transformational leadership approach in the public sector can bring about meaningful organisational change?”

In order to address the question above, the following subsequent questions are asked:

- What is transformational leadership?
- What is organisational change?
- What are the models/theories of organisational change?
- What are the transformational leadership attributes that promote organisational change?

In his article, Jarbandhan provides conceptual clarifications on concepts such as “organisational change”, “public leadership”, “transformational leadership” as well as “model”, “process” and “theory”. The organisational change process shares the various change processes, models and theories relating to leadership
and change management in public sector organisations. This article argues that a transformational leadership philosophy could help organisations to refocus their priorities based on four key elements, namely purpose (public institution’s vision, mission and values); people; performance and focus on environmental factors (Jarbandhan 2012).

**LOCAL GOVERNMENT TURNAROUND STRATEGY – CHALLENGES, CONSTRAINTS AND BENEFITS**

The article written by Tryna van Niekerk, “Local Government Turnaround Strategy: challenges, constraints and benefits” states that the performance of local government in fulfilling its developmental role and delivering quality service is often questioned in light of alleged acts of corruption, political interference, maladministration, poor financial performance, and lack of leadership and management. In her article she specifically identifies institutional capacity, political interference, leadership challenges as well as effective communication as aspects that could hamper the successful implementation of the Local Government Turnaround Strategy (Van Niekerk 2012).

This article contains an analysis of selected literature, reports and legislation, while taking a descriptive and analytical approach to providing an overview of Integrated Development Planning and the Local Government Turnaround Strategy. Two case studies (Sol Plaatje Local Municipality and Mangaung Municipality) form the basis for a discussion of the current challenges, constraints and benefits of the tailor-made Municipal Turnaround Strategy (MTAS).

**THE CHALLENGES OF POTABLE WATER SERVICE DELIVERY SYSTEM IN THE CITY OF KWEKWE, ZIMBABWE**

In their article, ”The challenges of potable water service delivery system in the city of Kwekwe, Zimbabwe” Wiseman Mupindu and Reckson Dovhani Thakhathi provides a conceptual analysis of literature on potable water service delivery system in Zimbabwe focusing on three residential areas of Kwekwe City, namely Amaveni, Mbizo and Msasa Park. Valuable lessons can be learned from this article regarding the challenges in the provision of potable water as it relates to the Millennium Development Goals. Although the focus is on Zimbabwe, it can be applied to the whole of Southern Africa and beyond. Most municipalities in the developing countries are failing to
deliver water services to the consumers for a variety of reasons, and water scarcity in urban areas of Southern African countries is of particular concern (Khatri and Vairavamoorthy in Mupindu and Thakhathi 2012). The study employed interviews, questionnaires, observations and document analysis to establish reasons for the sub-standard service being rendered and found that a combination of general population increase, old reticulation water infrastructure, lack of expertise, electricity deficiency, lack of foreign currency and insufficient local funding play a role. The study presents a comprehensive analysis of the factors identified and provides possible solutions.

AN EMPIRICAL ASSESSMENT OF THE QUALITY OF HEALTH CARE AT DORA NGINZA HOSPITAL IN PORT ELIZABETH

The quality of health care at the Dora Nginza hospital is explored by Wela Manona and Xabisa Gqirana in their article “An empirical assessment of the quality of health care at Dora Nginza Hospital in Port Elizabeth”. According to section 27 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, everyone has the right to access health care service, including reproductive health care and no one can be refused emergency medical treatment. The Constitution compels the State to take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources to achieve the progressive realisation of each of those rights, hence the government in South Africa is faced with restructuring the health system (Cullian in Manona and Gqirana 2012).

The article provides an overview of the various factors impacting on health service delivery to determine the relative influence on the provision of efficient and effective quality health care. The overall aim of the article is to provide an understanding into inherent problems in the health sector that impede the delivery of quality health care. The variables on health service delivery that were analysed included the attitudes of health practitioners, provision of food, provision of blankets, response time, consultation time, porter services, passion for the nursing profession, access to resources, safety and security, grievance procedure, workload and absenteeism, as well as support services for health personnel. The findings of this study have shown the interdependency of contributory factors to health service delivery at Dora Nginza Hospital. These factors comprise of attitudes of health practitioners, provision of food and blankets, response and consultation time, porter services, passion for the nursing profession, access to resources, safety and security, grievance procedure, workload and absenteeism, as well as support services for health personnel (Manona and Gqirana 2012).
THE DISCONNECT BETWEEN LEGISLATION AND APPLICATION

The Influence of the Public Finance Management Act of 1999 on Financial Reporting and Management in the Department of Community Safety in the Western Cape

The article, “The Disconnect between Legislation and Application – The Influence of the Public Finance Management Act of 1999 on Financial Reporting and Management in the Department of Community Safety in the Western Cape” seeks to identify and understand the key challenges facing the in so far as compliance with the PFMA is concerned, and the findings highlight a number of key factors that should be taken into account in addressing such challenges. The factors identified by Allan Roman and Michelle Esau include strategic leadership and key critical skills, adequate resources and realistic time frames, and the need for alignment between pre-determined objectives and the expected outcomes of financial management and reporting. The findings of the case study will provide insights into some of the key problems inherent in the implementation of the PFMA, as well as ways of addressing them. The first section of the article discusses the rationale of the New Public Management (NPM) and the potential benefits for improved financial management and reporting. The second presents a detailed description and analysis of the case study findings. The third and final section presents the main conclusions. One of the interesting findings is that strategic leadership and key critical skills to the reform of financial management and reporting practices are needed and that there is no room for “empire building” (Roman and Esau 2012).

STATE INVOLVEMENT IN THE CONDUCT OF AND CONDITIONS PERTAINING TO THE LABOUR RELATIONSHIP

In the article, “State involvement in the conduct of and conditions pertaining to the labour relationship” Gera Ferreira discusses the extent of state involvement in the labour relationship, as well as international and universal acceptable labour practices and standards that should be complied with. The labour relationship (explored in the article) is a unique relationship between people mutually involved in a work situation. Although unique, it is also characterised by elements common to all other relationships such as social, friendship and political involvement (Bendix in Ferreira 2012).
relationship, like any other, needs to be based on trust, communication, support, integrity and shared goals and values. The labour relationship is dynamic and involves different parties with different needs, attitudes and perceptions of the environment within which it finds itself. In the article, different labour relations systems (for example Great Britain, Germany, Japan, Australia and Zimbabwe) are compared to gain a better understanding of the variables which determine developments within a particular system and to place a specific system into context. Ferreira (2012) recommends that the South African government needs to provide a sound labour environment and employment opportunities and that policy and regulations should be long-term oriented and should concentrate on investment and sound labour environments. Leaders will have to think long term and developmentally, rising above personal or political gain.

A CORE CURRICULUM FOR A MASTER OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION (MPA) QUALIFICATION – SOME CONSIDERATIONS FOR A DEVELOPMENTAL STATE

J S Wessels (Kobus) explores the possibility of a core curriculum for a MPA programme that would address the intellectual, educational and practical needs and demands of a public official functioning in the context of a developmental state such as South Africa. A comprehensive survey of scholarly literature on the MPA and on curriculum development, a study of curriculum documents of the various Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) offering the MPA (or related) programmes in South Africa, Australia and New Zealand, an analysis of the generic core management criteria and standards for the Senior Management Service (SMS) of the South African Public Service as well as inputs obtained from several Public Administration academics led Wessels to his finding that it is possible to identify a core curriculum with related competencies. He identified government in a developmental state; leadership and management in a changing public environment; public financial management; public policies for solving service delivery challenges; as well as research competencies as core modules. This article contributes to the discourse on professional education for public managers by proposing a core curriculum for a MPA programme in a developmental state. This article suggests that if a core curriculum be introduced by the various universities offering this programme, the MPA as a course work postgraduate university programme will improve its ability to give high quality professional education to practicing public servants in managerial positions (Wessels 2012).
REFERENCES


CHIEF EDITOR’S CONTACT DETAILS

Prof Natasja Holtzhausen
School of Public Administration and Management
University of Pretoria
Economic and Management Sciences Building
Room 3–113
Pretoria
0002
Tel: 012 420 3474
Fax: 012 362 5265
E-mail: natasja.holtzhausen@up.ac.za
Enhancing insights on the leadership role of South African Public Servants

Theoretical and conceptual perspectives

D Sing
School of Management, Information Technology and Governance
University of KwaZulu-Natal

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ABSTRACT

The constitutionally mandated development-oriented South African Public Service comprising over one million personnel and responsible for and accountable to just over fifty million people is currently seriously challenged by the changing and interconnected local, provincial, national and international environments. The 2000 Millennium Development Goals and the 2011 National Development Plan: Vision for 2030 are examples of challenges. Recent literature suggests that greater emphases ought to be placed on sustainable leadership effectiveness, thus requiring Public servants to be more conscious of their leadership role. This article is a value-enhancing attempt to highlight the nature of a development-oriented Public Service and the different emphases on the complimentary functions of management and leadership. It is the author’s view that having a holistic understanding of the different leadership theories including the legacy theories and modern theoretical approaches as well as basic inter-related concepts of influence, power and politics will add value to on-going efforts of the South African Public Service to achieve its development mandate. An additional contribution can be made by an integrated grasp of current and emerging leadership perspectives which include ethics, authenticity, trust, servant leadership, emotional intelligence, mentoring, e-leadership, the Globe model as well as leadership and governance.
INTRODUCTION

In order to approach the leadership role of South African public servants in a reasonable, comprehensive and systematic way, the initial part of the article will focus on the nature of the development-oriented Public Service followed by a discussion of the different concerns of management and leadership functions. Thereafter, an exposition is given on the different theories and the fundamental concepts underlying the leadership processes. In the final part of the article, emphasis will be placed on different and related current and emerging leadership perspectives.

THE DEVELOPMENT-ORIENTED PUBLIC SERVICE

In recent literature focusing on the role of public administration in demanding and changing local, provincial, national and global interconnected environments bedevilled with issues, complexities, paradoxes and contradictions, reference is made to public administration and, public administration being a manifestation of government as a system (Rosenbaum 2011:153; Kroukamp 2007:86; Fitzgerald 2007:125). The concepts underpinning systems thinking include the following: synergetic, adaptable, inter-related, interdependent and aligned parts of a complex whole; purpose-driven diverse organisational and environmental interactions and processes; and enabling activities and infrastructural subsystems such as human and information and communication technologies (Checkland 2008, Jackson 2000, Morgan 2006). The public administration system which is at the intersection of theory and practice can be approached from a variety of perspectives such as political-legal, social-cultural, philosophical, psychological, anthropological, management and governance (Peters and Pierre 2008:7). If in the South African context, the public administration system must be development-oriented then the Public Service which as part of the public administration system must openly, support, favour and enable development. For example, the 2000 Millennium Development Goals and the 2011 National Development Plan: Vision for 2030. Currently comprising over a million personnel, the South African Public Service is the implementation agency in a development-oriented state with a population just over 50 million (State of the Public Service Report 2010:72; Statistics South Africa 2011:2).

The term “development” has a number of connotations and senses (Thomas 2004:28). Some of the connotations include “favourable change”, “evolving from simple to complex”, “advancing away from inferior” and “a vision of transformation and salvation” (Coetzee 2001:129). The fact that development can occur at the level of society and at the individual level is relevant in the
Public Service context (Thomas 2004:48). In a development-oriented Public Service context “development” may be explained as an all-encompassing deliberate vision-based desirable state of human-wellbeing that has to be promoted and sustained by the enabling public administration system. The system is a prerequisite for the realisation of the 2000 Millennium Development Goals and the 2011 National Development Plan: Vision for 2030.

Leadership from public servants is essential because the Public Service system needs to be continuously mobilised, directed, galvanised and revitalised to accomplish its mandate. Leadership is a core component of the human activity subsystem and the relationship between management and leadership in terms of systems thinking is cogently explained by Checkland (2008:A46) as follows: “Anyone who has been a professional manager in an organisation knows it is a complex role, one that engages the whole person. It requires not only the ability to analyse problems and work out rational responses but also, if the mysterious quality of leadership is to be provided, the ability to respond to situations on the basis of feelings, and emotion”. Leadership can therefore be regarded as an art and craft (Berkley and Rouse 2004:7; Max De Pree in Daft 1999:42). The importance of this art and craft is stressed for the achievement of the various objectives set out in the National Development Plan: Vision for 2030. It emphasises that leadership must be “… devoted and dedicated, capable and committed, self-sacrificial and not self-serving” (National Planning Commission 2011:4).

FROM MANAGEMENT TO LEADERSHIP

Public servants have to lead and manage. Both are essential and complementary, but are two different processes with different purposes (Kramer 2003:143; Daft 1999:35). While management focuses on planning, organising, controlling objects and maintenance and conformity, leadership focuses on vision creation and strategy, creating and sharing values, inspiring and motivating people, driving paradigm shifts with the future in mind (Daft 1999:39; Broussine 2003:180). Leadership enables others to act, direct and model a journey, establish initiatives, release human energies and influence individuals (Kramer 2003:141). The human-centric dimension of leadership is aptly stressed by Max De Pree (in Daft 1999:12): “Leadership is much more of an art, a belief, a condition of the heart, than a set of things to do”. It is argued that leadership shapes and creates the future and it is the task of management to deliver (Broussine 2003:180).

Recent literature proposes that leadership is not a command and control position and not the prerogative of a few organisational members at the top of the organisational hierarchy (Kramer 2003:133; Broussine 2003:176). Gold
Thorpe and Munford (2010:11) state that leadership (“close leaders”) can be found at all levels of the organisation and is not the domain of a few “distant leaders”. Leadership can be exercised in teams, committees and in collaborative partners with external stakeholders and role players throughout the Public Service system, thus encompassing the shared leadership or distributed leadership thinking (Broussine 2003:176). The reasoning behind shared leadership as compared to traditional thinking is that the influence process is not only downwards and the domain of a single superior role. Centralisation is replaced by distributing leadership amongst a set of individuals (teams, committees and partnerships). The idea is to lead one another to reach both group and/or organisational goals (Schermherhorn, Hunt and Osborn 2008:209; Lemay 2009:1). The emphasis on shared leadership in the context of the reform of the public administration (Public Service) system is explained by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD 2001:16): “Leaders spread throughout the organization, can help to diffuse and maintain the new values that are necessary for successful public sector reform. Instead of being all-powerful authority figures, leaders in the future will need to be able to persuade people and to focus their efforts in a common cause”. It could therefore be argued that leadership is significant bedrock for the modernising and reforming a development-oriented Public Service (Broussine 2002:176).

**LEADERSHIP THEORIES**

The study of leadership includes what functions it should perform, what makes one leader more effective than another, and what qualities and personal characteristics they ought to possess thus, posing an ancient question (Fitzgerald 2007:123). The Bible makes various references as to what makes an effective leader. Some 400 years ago, Machiavelli “consultant” to princes and kings addressed the question of what makes a leader effective. The same can be applied to medieval kings, Egyptian pharaohs and leaders of cave dwellers (Dessler 2004:255; Lemay 2009:2) In 2005 in his book entitled: “Organizational Behavior”, Luthans (2005:548-572) (Chapter Seventeen: Effective Leadership Processes) distinguished between traditional/legacy theories of leadership and modern theoretical processes of leadership.

**Legacy theories**

In the legacy theory camp theories include trait, behaviour and style as well as a variety of situational and contingency theories. In terms of the trait theory, leadership effectiveness is pronounced and guaranteed by identifying
leadership traits which are innate in the individual, such as achievement-focus and perseverance. Focusing on what leaders do, and therefore being trained to increase competence is the domain of behaviour and style theories, stressing that this is, not what people are genetically encoded to do (Dattner 2003:90). For example, a team leader can be trained to be considerate and to create a pleasant working environment for individuals. The situational and contingency theories focus on an analytical and intense scrutiny of situations and what competencies the leader requires to enable positive outcomes and impacts. Emphasis is also on what contingencies can be developed when situations change (Dattner 2003:90-91; Schermerhorn et al. 2008:246). For example, awareness of cultural diversity is important for ensuring the achievement of a rural development project. While it can be argued that despite the relative acceptance of the legacy theories of leadership, considerable research and theory development is still necessary. Therefore, the emergence of modern theoretical approaches can be regarded as establishment of alternative theories of leadership (Luthans 2005:560). These theories suggest leadership is not only about personal traits, behaviour and style, and situational contingencies (Hellriegel, Jackson and Slocum 2005:434). The two theories in the modern theoretical approach are transactional and transformational theories which emerged as a research focus in the early 1980s (Northhouse 2004:169).

**Modern theoretical approaches**

It is argued that transactional and transformational leadership theories can be regarded as focusing on more inspirational aspects of leadership attributes and symbols and can be better understood in a comparative perspective (Schermerhorn, Hunt, Osborn 2008:257; Daft 1999:427).

- **Transactional theory**
  
  Transactional leadership focuses on an exchange process that is based on contingent reward and active and passive management by exception which is agreed upon for promoting and achieving routine performance (Northouse 2004:178; Schermerhorn et al. 2008:238). Engaging in transactional leadership involves a series of social and economic transactions which are essential to achieve specific objectives; and furthermore, the conditions of the transactions are clearly defined, tangible and measurable (Daft 1999:427; Jones and George 2003:463). The need for individual personal development is not the focus, however, as the exchange lasts as long as the needs of the leader and individual are met. It is not a relationship based on mutual understanding for the achievement of the overall goals of the organisation (Northhouse 2004:178; Brewster, Carey, Grobler, Holland and Wärnich 2010:58). Formal organisational authority is the main source of power for
transactional leadership and its focus lies in the basic management functions such as short-term planning, organising and controlling (Slocum and Hellriegel 2009:295). To enable total leadership effectiveness, transactional leadership is necessary, but not a sufficient condition. It brings stability in functions in terms of clarifying and dealing with ambiguous situations; however, it is not concerned with crossing the boundaries of routine accomplishment and performance. In a changing and demanding environment that supports innovation and reform at all levels of the Public Service system, a different type and a different dimension of leadership is essential (Daft 1999:427).

- **Transformational theory**
  Transformational theory is about a special ability that aims at bringing about change, innovation, renewal and revitalisation by inspiring individuals through creating and promoting achievable visions despite opposition (Daft and Marcic 2007:458; Hellriegel et al. 2005:434). It is future-driven and focused on encouraging, questioning and changing assumptions, attitudes and behaviour (Slocum and Hellriegel 2009:301; Dessler 2004:214). Unlike transactional leadership which focuses on tangible rewards and an exchange process, transformational leadership is embedded in ethics, authenticity, relationship building, personal development, trust and subordination of self-interests to the overall interests of the organisation (Daft 1999:427; Luthans 2005:562-563). Transformational leadership, unlike transactional leadership is not based on formal authority – it is based on informal personal positions. Transformational leadership exists at all levels, – teams, committees, directorates and partnerships and transformational leaders are described as “… assertive risk takers who seize or create new opportunities. They are thoughtful thinkers who understand the interactions of technology, culture, stakeholders and external environmental forces” (Slocum and Hellriegel 2009:301).

  The interconnection and application of both legacy theories and modern theoretical approaches to leadership is essential in a development-oriented Public Service if development is considered to be a process through which societies and communities enhance and increase individual and institutional capabilities and capacities in order to add value to their life, living and livelihoods which are consistent with their own aspirations and desires (Korten 1990:67).

**THE LEADERSHIP PROCESS – FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS**

Influence, power and politics underpin the leadership process. While influence is regarded as a behavioural response to the exercise of power, politics is regarded as power in action (Schermehorn et al. 2008:214).
Influence

Apart from the behavioural effect of influence, Daft and Marcic (2007:459) emphasise the impact on attitudes, values and beliefs which may be regarded as: “the degree of actual change” (Daft and Marcic 2007:459). While on the one hand, the exercise of power and political behaviour focuses on changing situational realities, influence on the other hand, focuses on the alteration of an individual’s perceptions for example, thoughts and feelings of the situation (Beeman and Sharkey in Bloisi, Cook and Hunsker 2003:546).

To ensure influencing is outcome-and impact-oriented, various strategies and tactics have been advocated. For example, Stott and Walker (1992:479-493) write about “Influencing People: Behaviour Strategies”. Wood, Wallace, Zeffane, Chapman, Formholtz, Morrison, Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2004:483) discuss examples of “some managers attempt to exercise influence”. Two 2009 publications refer to “Defining various influencing tactics” (Pietersen 2009:210) and “Influence Tactics used in Organizations” (Quick and Nelson 2009:376). Table 1 describes a select number of tactics with examples.

It is not easy to determine which influence tactic is more effective than the other. The target of the influence, the objective and the situation will all play a determining role (Quick and Nelson 2009:375). Wood et al. (2004:484) argue that to enable results-oriented influence, leaders must diagnose their power bases, sources and relationships thoroughly, to determine the most appropriate influence tactics or combination of tactics.

Power

If the core purpose of leadership is to influence individuals towards achieving organisational goals then the crucial requirement is that power must be carefully and appropriately used (Daft and Marcic 2007:459). Power is the potential ability to influence others towards the desired outcomes and impacts of the goals of the organisation. It is an exchange relationship between a target (the person affected by the power) and the agent (the person exercising the power) (Quick and Nelson 2009:364). It is also argued that although it is “an intangible force”, its effect and impact is tangible, that is, it can be felt (Daft 1999:470). In using power to facilitate the exercise of influence, it must be understood that the various interests in the organisation must be acknowledged and recognised. Also important is how different individuals and groups of individuals relate with each other, as well as how they perceive issues, which must be determined regularly (Robbins 2005:177; Wood et al. 2004:48).

Throughout civilisation the potential and exercise of power has fascinated and intrigued human beings. For example, in ancient Chinese writings, the
Table 1: Tactics with examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tactics</th>
<th>Descriptions</th>
<th>Examples</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pressure</td>
<td>Use of demands, threats and intimidation to obtain support and compliance (Quick and Nelson 2009:376). Frequently checking or persistent reminders are used (Pietersen 2009:210).</td>
<td>‘If all the personal development plans are not prepared by 10H00, then I will postpone the meeting with HR to after normal hours.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason</td>
<td>Rational persuasion is used based on factual data and information as well as logical reasoning to persuade acceptance of a proposal as contributing to organisational objectives (Wood et al. 2004:483).</td>
<td>‘Based on the statistics and information provided by the finance division, it makes sense that the programme is not viable and must be put on hold.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspiration</td>
<td>Making an emotional appeal to beliefs, values and conscience to establish confidence for the achievement of policy goals (Quick and Nelson 2009:376).</td>
<td>‘We all agree that sustained high quality service delivery is our nation’s calling.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appeals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coalition</td>
<td>Involves the mobilisation of various individuals to obtain their support and show why a certain proposal must be accepted by the targeted persons (Pietersen 2009:209).</td>
<td>‘All the other project team members agree that the completion date must be extended and you will be informed of the reasons at the next meeting.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>Participation is sought for involvement in the making and implementation of a policy (Quick and Nelson 2009:376).</td>
<td>‘What are your suggestions on establishing a monitoring and evaluation policy for all departmental contracts awarded to external service providers?’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upward</td>
<td>Persuading an individual that a proposal has the approval of higher authority or appealing to higher authority to gain support for a proposal (Pietersen 2009:209).</td>
<td>‘The Human Resources Manager approved of the training policy at the last meeting in 2010. ‘The director has indicated that this is an excellent proposal and must begin the implementation.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appeals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Quick and Nelson (2009:376); Wood et al. (2004:483); Pietersen (2009:208-210)
concern and importance of power is clearly highlighted and expressed – “the taming power of the great, the power of light, the power of the dark” (Gibson, Ivancervich and Donnelly 1994:372-373). In modern organisational life, leader power is regarded as the key to exercising influence (Jones and George 2003:445). Leader power bases can be classified into formal/position power and personal power. The five “classic” bases of power can be categorised into formal/position power and personal power. Formal/position power includes coercive, reward and legitimate power and personal power comprises expert and referent power (Roodt 2009 (a):351-352). These five “classic” power bases have been widely cited in the literature on management and organisational behaviour (Kreitner 1995:467). However, recent literature indicates the emergence of other forms of leader power bases which can be regarded as extensions of the “classic” power bases.

- Power as a function of dependence means that the greater Y’s (target) dependence is on Z (agent), the greater Z’s power is on the relationship (Robbins 2005:177). Therefore, if a leader is the only individual in a project team who has control of the funds which are needed to complete a project for which the completion date is set and completion is part of the performance agreement then the team members must become dependent upon the leader. In this way the leader gains power over the team members (Roodt 2009 (a):353). In an organisational context inter-organisational dependency is also a key to leader power (Daft 1999:472). Even though all leaders at a certain organisational level are supposed to have an equal amount of formal power, this may not be the case. The Human Resource director may have more power by virtue of being in control of an important resource department (Gibson et al. 1994:380). Dependency may be created by centrality, substitutability and coping with uncertainty (Robbins 2005:180-181; Roodt (a) 2009:353-354). With regard to centrality it is reasoned that a director’s role is primary in the department and can be measured in terms of the extent to which the activities of the leader’s department contribute to the final outputs and impacts of the department (Daft 1999:472). It is argued that the more pervasive the work flow of a leader’s directorate, the greater is the leader’s power within the department. The higher the immediacy of the work flow of a leader’s directorate, the greater the power of the leader (Hinnings et al. in Gibson et al. 1994:382).

- With regard to substitutability, the focus is on the ability of the leader’s directorate to carry out activities. The leader’s power is diminished if the department can obtain alternative sources of unique capacities and talent to perform the function of the leader’s directorate (Robbins 2005:181; Gibson et al. 1994:384). In terms of the uncertainty factor, the stronger the capability and capacity of a leader’s directorate to cope with events,
the more he/she can acquire power (Daft 1999:473). Hickson et al. (219-220) (in Gibson et al. 1994:382) aptly state: “Uncertainty itself does not give power: coping gives power. If organisations allocate to their various sub-units task areas that vary in uncertainty (leaders of) those sub-units that cope most effectively with the most uncertainty, have the most power within the organization”.

- The control and access to data or information and knowledge which others need to make optimal decisions can make them dependent on the leader – thus acquiring information power. Therefore, the leader of the HR directorate which has information on certain policies exercises information power because it is not accessible to organisational members (Roodt 2009 (a):353). This information power may be guarded jealously because it puts them in a position through which they can influence events as information holders (Schermersonh et al. 2008:219).

- Leaders in different directorates of a department may have social links with leaders in the higher echelons of the department and/or with influential politicians outside the department. This may result in the mutual exchange of private and confidential information enabling the leader to exercise this connection power to influence decisions in the directorate. (Roodt 2009 (a): 352).

- A leader of a directorate may acquire representative power by virtue of being requested to be a representative by an important group of individuals who are from various sectors within and/or outside the department. This leader may be required to facilitate a discussion on possible questions that may be put forward by an international donor agency. The requesting group becomes dependent on this leader and the influence that he/she holds is based on the fact that he/she was chosen and given this assignment to represent the requesting group and speak to such a high profile international agency (Schermersonh et al. 2008:219).

- A leader is regarded as possessing and exercising charismatic power because his/her sheer personal magnetism has an extraordinary impact on individuals in enthusiastically and confidently striving to achieve a clearly articulated vision (Robbins 2005:179; Hellriegel et al. 2005:436). This influence is based on charisma a Greek word meaning “divinely inspired gift” (Du Plessis 2009:436).

- Empowerment is the process by which leaders create conditions that enable others to acquire and exercise power so that they feel energised, confident and competent to make decisions within their own area of responsibility without getting approval from higher authority (Luthans 2005:422; Quick and Nelson 2009:381; Schermersonh et al. 2008:225). Enhancing self-concept, self-esteem and self-efficacy through meaningful empowerment
enables positive self-perception and dignity. This influence is based on the notion that individuals in organisations are leaders in their own right and are acknowledged by others in the organisational hierarchy (Bloisi et al. 2003:239; Wood et al. 2004:485). Kreitner (1995:469) cautions that empowerment can be difficult to understand for traditional authoritarian leaders who see this concept as a threat to their position of authority and having the power of control. He argues that in current leader power practice “…the issue is not empowerment versus no empowerment. Rather, the issue is how empowerment should take place” (Kreitner 1995:469).

Politics

Politics can be explained as the leader’s art of converting and using influence and power in organisations (Wood et al. 2004:487). An all embracing definition of organisational political behaviour is offered by Robbins (2005:184), which states that it involves “…those activities that are not required as part of one’s formal role in the organisation, but that influence or attempt to influence, the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organisation”. This definition is all embracing in that it explains what most people understand by organisational political behaviour, it is outside a leader’s job requirement and it requires the exercise of power bases. The distribution of advantages and disadvantages stresses the influence the leader has on decisions and the decision-making process in relation to the determination of goals and processes (Roodt 2009 (a):358). Leaders have to be aware of legitimate and illegitimate political behaviour. Legitimate political behaviour results from everyday internal situations such as bypassing communication channels, forming coalitions and strict and mechanical adherence to rules and regulations. Illegitimate political behaviour that impacts negatively on strategic overall organisational effectiveness include withholding vital information from policy-makers, empire building, leaking information to the media and distorting performance information required by the HR directorate (Roodt (a) 2009:358; Robbins 2005:184).

Leaders in their role of influencing the distribution of advantages and disadvantages have to be aware of the type of organisation they function in – is it a political system that consists of cliques and coalitions that compete for resources and influence, or is it a rational system that has formal organisational structures and legitimised roles and responsibilities and inflexible rules and regulations (Luthans 2005:427). The following factors can determine the degree to which the organisation is political rather than rational (Luthans 2005:428):

- A direct relationship exists between the degree of politics and the critical nature of the scarcity of resources.
• Ambiguous strategic decisions and the lack of agreement thereof will encourage more politics than routine decisions.
• More political activity will prevail if the goals are ambiguous, unclear and complex.
• The more complex the internal communication and information systems the more likelihood of political activity.
• Complex and turbulent external organisational environments will encourage political behaviour.
• Organisational restructuring or planned organisation development enabled by external forces will cause political manoeuvring and resistance.

A leader’s political behaviour can be enhanced by political tactics and political skills applied outside the formal organisational structures and process (Quick and Nelson 2009:377; Bloisi et al. 2003:548-549). Out of the four dimensions of the political skills of social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability and sincerity, sincerity, which is the last is a human value-based quality is in contrast to illegitimate political behaviour qualities (Quick and Nelson 2009:378). Sincere leader political behaviours “…portray forthrightness and authenticity in all... dealings. Individuals who can appear sincere inspire more confidence and trust, thus making them very successful among people” (Quick and Nelson 2009:378). An important requirement for effective leader political behaviour is awareness of people around you who use power in order to ensure that negative manipulation is avoided (Bloisi et al. 2003:548). Ten political tactics have been advocated by Bloisi et al. (2003:548-549). However, it may be argued that subtle and non-threatening use of political tactics are more effective than blatant use of political tactics that can result in negative reactions such as resistance and retaliation (Bloisi et al. 2003:549). Of the ten political tactics, avoidance of both decisive engagement and preliminary disclosure of preferences are cogent and instructional. To progress towards the achievement of pre-determined goals, leader political behaviour will have to be subtle and inconspicuous to prevent upsetting and arming others. Decisive engagement can be avoided by referring an adversary’s proposal which is gaining momentum to a committee for consideration rather than immediately thwarting it. Leader political behaviour must avoid overt eagerness and overt enthusiasm to force an outcome that results being placed in a vulnerable situation. If the outcome is uncertain, the leader should move towards supporting the aggressive efforts of others rather than taking the lead by himself/herself. If there is an impasse, the leader can emerge with a strategically timed new perspective that will cause others to compromise. This can occur because the leader did not overtly disclose his/her preferences (Bloisi et al. 2003:548).
Influence, power and politics are interdependent, interconnected and interrelated. They can be used, abused and misused. Holistic consciousness of the positive and negative consequences is fundamental to ensure that an effective and impact-driven leadership process achieves the ultimate purpose of a development-oriented Public Service which is a high quality of life, living and livelihood for all people.

EMERGING AND CURRENT LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVES


Ethics in leadership

Section 195 1(b) of The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 states that: “A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained”. The same principle must apply to the Public Service which is within public administration (Sections 195 (2) and 197 (1) of The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996).

Any discussion of ethics in whatever context is always related to morality and is often used interchangeably with this term (Bloisi et al. 2003:548). In simple terms, ethics refers to acknowledged and accepted principles and rules “….recognized in respect of a particular class of human actions or governing… a particular society, community (or) organization (Public Service) …” (Fox 2010:4). Conduct is defined in terms of wrongness or rightness of actions and badness and goodness of actions in terms of ends and motives (Fox 2010:4). Morality is concerned with the extent to which actions, ends and motives are in line with acceptable standards of conduct (Dessler 2004:25). Therefore, it can be stated that: “… ethics is behaviour that is morally accepted as good or right, as opposed to bad or wrong, in a particular setting” (Wood et al. 2004:23).

In using influence, exercising power and engaging in political behaviour, leaders require a test of ethical judgment based on the degree of importance applicable to a certain situation (Bloisi. et al. 2003:549). This ethical intensity
can be determined by a combination of several factors (Slocum and Hellriegel 2009:392; Wood et al. 2004:495):

- Does individual decision or behaviour cause harm or benefits to the individuals? This is the magnitude of consequences factor.
- Will it be possible to predict that a decision will be carried out and will it negatively or positively impact on individuals? This is the probability effect factor.
- What is the degree of public agreement that a decision or behaviour is good or bad? This is the social consensus factor.
- What is the length of time that has elapsed from the time the decision was made and the actual behaviour to the experience of the consequences of such actions? This is the temporal immediacy factor.
- What is the sense of closeness (physical, social, cultural or psychological) that the decision leader and actual behaviour have for the beneficiaries and victims of such action? This is the tangible or intangible proximity factor.
- To what extent the criteria used to make a decision and the actual behaviour are questionable means for achieving an objective? This is the conflicts within factor.
- What is the impact of a leader’s action or decision as a result of the incapacity to employ the criteria based on unreliable and incomplete data and information? This is the incapacity factor.

Leaders have to be aware that ethical leadership concerns “… distinguishing right from wrong and doing right, seeking the just, the honest, the good, and the right conduct in practice” (Daft 1999:369). Leaders in a development-oriented Public Service have to be conscious of the fact that the use of influence, the exercise of power, and political behaviour “… gives life to others and enhances the life of others” (Daft 1999:369).

**Authentic Leadership**

The concept has its origin in Greek philosophy (“To thine own self be true” and “to know thyself”), and various descriptions include genuineness, reliability, credibility and truthfulness. (Luthans 2005:566; Weekes 2003:37). Instilled with a strong value system, leaders are characterised as individuals who are highly confident, transparent, resilient, and infuse a level of respect, hope and enthusiasm in various situational realities (Quick and Nelson 2009:414; Luthans 2005:414). Armed with a collective caring spirit, authentic leaders engender a strong sense of collaboration, commitment and effervescence, and encourage tolerance and appreciation for different viewpoints (Slocum and Hellriegel 2009:296-297; Quick and Nelson 2009:414).
In a development-oriented Public Service authentic leadership is crucial because “... development efforts have to be based on the assumption that the people value respect and want to be treated as worthy individuals” (Coetzee 2001:122). These rights to equality and human dignity are entrenched in *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*.

**Trust and leadership**

Lexicon meanings of trust include the following – “... “confidence in the reliance on good qualities especially truth, honour or ability (and taking something or somebody on trust means) to accept ... as true and honest, without checking this is the case” (*ENCARTA: World English Dictionary* 1999:2003). Trust is essential to ensure effective leadership. The reliance, faith and confidence that exists relates to “the intention and actions of a person (leader) ... to be ethical, fair and non-threatening concerning the rights and interests of others (colleagues and members of the public) in (leadership) relationships” (Carnevale in Brewer and Hayllar 2005:476). There is also a risk element in trust in that trust expresses the willingness to become vulnerable to actions of others implying that an opportunity exists for disappointment through thoughts, actions and deeds (Quick and Nelson 2009:416; Schlechter 2009:329). In explaining the concept of trust, Sztompka (in De Vries 2005:407) distinguishes four levels of risk:

- **Risk one:** Others’ behaviour to us is bad.
- **Risk two:** People are untrustworthy because of their inability to act with someone’s interest in mind.
- **Risk three:** People in whom trust has been placed fail to comply because they do not have the moral obligation to act.
- **Risk four:** In situations where people have been awarded the discretionary powers, they will abuse them.

Trust, therefore concerns the belief and faith in integrity, consistency, reliability, dependability and interdependence of actions of individuals working towards organisational goals (Wooldrige 2007: 54). Coupled with these characteristics are the ability, capacity, loyalty, commitment and willingness to change and be influenced in order to ensure overall leadership effectiveness in realising organisational goals (Kreitner 1995:453-454; Robbins 2005:172). Kreitner (1995:453) cautions that: “Trust is not a free-floating variable. It affects, and in turn is affected by, other group processes”.

In building and establishing trust relations different models can be identified. The calculus-based trust model is based on the notion that people will do what they promise to do” (Lewicki and Bunker in De Vries 2005:407). In the
deterrence-based trust model relationships can be totally destroyed through inconsistent actions. The foundation of this form of trust is fear of consequences of violating trust by not acting; this form of trust is characterised by fragile relationships (Robbins 2005:173). Unlike deterrence based trust, knowledge-based trust is premised on predictability, consistency and knowledge. This form of trust is not based on deterrents such as penalties and other legal actions, but, rather on trustworthiness in terms of consistent and predictable behaviour and experience over time (Pröhl in de Vries 2005:407; Robbins 2005:173). The highest form of trust is embedded in the identification-based trust model which is underpinned by strong emotional ties amongst individuals. The connection is based on mutual understanding, appreciation, and acknowledgement of the wishes, desires and intentions of each other. This connection is so strongly developed that one can act as a substitute for the other (Robbins 2005:174).

Insights into the nature of trust and various trust building models are essential to ensure leadership effectiveness in a development-oriented Public Service. It is advocated that in the absence of trust “… you cannot get extraordinary things done” (Kouzes and Posner 2007:224). An extraordinary development challenge is posed to the Public Service by the Preamble to The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. The requirement is: “Respect those who have worked to build and develop our country; and Believe that South Africa belongs to all those who live in it, united in our diversity”.

**Servant leadership**

In an article entitled “Leading in uncertain times”, Blanchard (2009:20) argues that: “… if you want to survive during this crisis you need to make sure you are a servant leader. In tough times and in good times, the first question you need to ask yourself is why you are leading? Are you here to serve or to be served?” Servant leadership is regarded as a philosophical movement that stresses elements such as empathy, awareness of oneself and others in different situations and commitment to enhancing the growth of people and community building (Spears in Reinke 2004:32; Schermerhorn et al. 2008:282). The essential reasoning is that “…the way an individual emerges as a leader is by first becoming a servant” (Northhouse 2004:309). Thus, servant leadership is manifested at two levels. At level one it emphasises the fulfilment of the goals and the needs of individuals and at the second level it focuses on the achievement of the vision, mission and goals of the organisation (Daft and Marcic 2007:462). The principle of servant leadership is captured by Daft (1999:375-376) as follows: “Servant leaders help others find the power of the human spirit and accept their responsibilities. This requires an openness and willingness to share in the pain and difficulties of others. Being close to people
also means leaders make themselves vulnerable to others and are willing to show their own pain and humanity”. These requirements are implied in the Preamble of The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.

**Emotional intelligence and leadership**

Researchers and psychologists have recently provided insights into describing and explaining the personal characteristics of individuals who are particularly involved in leadership roles (Hellriegel et al. 2005:42; Daft and Marcic 2007:418). A seminal explanation of emotional intelligence is that it “… is a group of abilities that enable individuals to recognise and understand their own and others’ feelings and emotions and to use these insights to guide their own thinking and actions” (Hellriegel et al. 2005:421). Emotions, unlike moods are deep and intense feelings that are linked to and directed to an object (someone or something) (Schermerhorn et al. 2008:62). The eight categories of primary emotions are anger, sadness, fear, enjoyment, love, surprise, disgust and shame (Daft 1999:345). Without emotions, it can be argued that one cannot attach meaning to words. For example, meaning could not be attached to the word “care” in the term ‘health-care”: – the leader director of paramedic emergencies has grown to love his/her colleagues as they cope with one life threatening situation after another. As another example, one cannot attach meaning, to the word “failures” in the term “project failures”: – as repeated project failures have resulted in angry behaviour on the part of the leader of housing projects (Kramer 2003:130; Luthans 2005:283). Thus, the following statement by Kramer (2003:130) is apt: “(e)motional intelligence … focuses like a laser beam what is important to us”. However, the leader has to be aware that while positive primary emotions (love) may have a constructive impact on individuals and organisational goals, negative primary emotions (disgust) can have a destructive effect on individuals and organisational goals (Kramer 2003:130; Luthans 2005:283). Kemp (2005:4) asserts that “… emotional intelligence does not guarantee good leadership. From a moral standpoint, emotional intelligence is neither good nor bad. Emotionally intelligent leaders can be manipulative, selfish, and dishonest, just as they can be altruistic, focused on the general welfare and highly principled”. Awareness of one’s own emotions as well as those of others does not necessarily account for “intelligent” leadership effectiveness. Other qualities such as personal mastery, discernment, resilience, open mindedness, wisdom and spirituality need to be considered (Kemp 2005:4).

In a development-oriented Public Service both positive emotions (enjoyment) and certain primary negative emotions (shame) can conscientise leaders to terms such as poverty and infant mortality rates – examples of data that are
necessary to measure the Millennium Development Goals 1 (Eradicate poverty and hunger) and 4 (Reduce child mortality) (Millennium Development Goals 2010:7-10). As Kramer (2003:130) cogently asserts: “(w)ithout the signals communicated by emotions … I would care no more what happens to me or to you than does a machine”. Above all, the emotionally intelligent leader has to be aware that development is “… an alienable human right of every human person and all peoples” (Declaration on the Right to Development 2006 in Du Plessis 2007:218). This consciousness will empower the emotionally intelligent leader to respond proactively, flexibly and appropriately to different situations at different times and to determine similarities among situations despite being separated by differences as well as, discover distinctions among situations despite them being linked by similarities (Kramer 2003:136).

**Leadership and mentoring**

Kiyaga-Nsubuga (2007:143) recently stressed in a paper entitled: “Leadership Challenges in Mainstreaming Performance Enhancement in the Public Service”, the ability of leaders to mentor as a leadership competency and the rare application of mentoring in a structured and organised way in the Public Service. Leadership is about building and nurturing relationships and connections, establishing and maintaining human bonds and most importantly must be selfless service in response to a divine calling, as Spitzer (2000:83) cogently states: “… the human capacity to seek the ultimate, infinite, eternal, and unconditional in love, goodness, beauty, and being, is rooted in the presence of God within us”.

Mentoring is a formal and/or informal relationship between the leader as mentor and an individual employee as mentee. It is based on a practice through which: “… an experienced wiser and older employer (the leader mentor) hands to a junior employee (the mentee) in a very personal way, not just the skills, but also the experience, attitudes and attributes that create successful people in a given discipline” (Human Capital Management 2004/2005:69). As a psychosocial support (role modelling, enabling environment, social learning and friendship), it is facilitated by good personal qualities and/or “heavenly virtues” (Quick and Nelson 2009:593; Barker and Coy (eds.) 2003:vii).

Senge (in Jaworski 1998: 11) mentions that almost all religions of the world recognise and acknowledge that the power of love is accepting each other as legitimate human beings. For the ancient Greeks “agape” was one of the four words for love, which was embedded in deep awareness and recognition of the intrinsic dignity of the human being arising “… out of a call to serve the intrinsically dignified other … (and) (t)his purest form of love must be motivated out of a deep, transparent vision of the intrinsic dignity of the other …” (Spitzer
Love as a foundational ingredient of leadership can result in a meaningful influence in that it seeks to meet unspoken requests of employees which include those that say, accept me, listen to me and understand me, please do not regard me wrong even though you disagree with me, recognize and acknowledge my innate greatness and dignity, remember and be aware that I have loving intentions and let there be compassion when you tell me the truth (Daft 1999:352). Leaders have to be conscious of the fact that compassion as a virtue is measured by their abilities to understand realities from another perspective and to be mindful of what brings them joy, contentment, sadness and fear because compassion “… is about service not selfishness (and) (i)t is emotional alchemy – instead of the transformation of base metals into gold it is the transformation of human potential into shared, enabling outcomes for all” (Dattner 2003:87). Spitzer (2000:227-228) warns that forgiveness is one of the most challenging of virtues in that it attempts to deal with vengeance rationally, but, vengeance can always be justified and while attempting to redress an unjust action the perpetrator has to be cared for.

Ever since the times of Socrates, humility seemed to have emerged as one of the most important virtues (Spitzer 2000:226). It is argued that that the other virtues such as compassion and wisdom may become-parodies-without humility (Strom 2003:19). The outcomes could be patronising attitude, instilling fear and being pretentious, self-righteous, overbearing and boastful (Strom 2003:19). Wisdom as a facilitating virtue causes a wise leader to engage in holistic critical and practical thinking and not to be confined and restricted in judgement influenced by pride, ego, bias, prejudice and intellectual status (Dunphy and Pitsis 2003:170). Wisdom forms the foundation of intellectual stimulation in that individuals are encouraged to analyse and evaluate in terms of reasoning and evidence and to question assumptions, values and the status quo as well as develop ideas and solutions that are novel (Heath Row 1998: 50-52 in Daft 1999: 334).

The role of leadership in mentoring within a development-oriented Public Service is an essential ingredient for human potential to be realised because leadership “… is about the release of human possibilities enabling others to break free of limits- created organizationally or self-imposed” (Phill Carrol in Jaworski 1998: unnumbered).

E- leadership

E- leadership can be regarded as a social influencing process enabled and mediated by advanced information and communication technologies (for example, internet/intranet systems, desktop, video conference systems and collaborative software systems) to facilitate changes in thinking, acting, attitude,
behaviour and overall performance of individuals, virtual teams and virtual organisations – (provincial, national and global) (Brewster et al. 2010:323; Slocum and Hellriegel 2009:328).

Like all other leadership actions, e-leadership is also challenged by issues such as ethics, trust, servant leadership, mentoring and emotional intelligence (Schlechter 2009:334). The proactive e-leader must be able to define goals in an unambiguous manner and determine clear timelines and yet be flexible and open-minded and possess superb communication and relationship-building skills (Daft and Marcic 2007:465). Schlechter (2009:333) cautions that while nonverbal body language can assist in softening harsh conversations, this does not necessarily exist in virtual communication. E-mail for example, cannot fully convey emotions and it can be argued that an emerging interpersonal skill required by the e-leader is to be able to convey “...written words on a computer screen and to read emotions in others’ messages. (The reason being that in the world of virtual communication) … writing skills are likely to become an extension of interpersonal skills” (Schlechter 2009: 334). Above all, it must be remembered that e-leaders are human beings who adopt technology and not the organisation and therefore, they have to be conscious of the fact that it is people (human beings) who accomplish organisational goals and not technology (Daft and Marcic 2007:465). However, leaders in a development-oriented Public Service have to be conscious of the fact that development practice “… is often about power and interests, and access to information and means to communication is part of the field that power is played on” (Burton 2001:45).

**Globe model**

The Global Leadership and Organization Effectiveness (Globe Model) research project was established in 1993 with the aim of examining relationships that exist between the culture of society, the culture of an organisation and organisational leadership (Robbins 2005:22; Slocum and Hellriegel 2009:307). Some Globe findings include the following (Slocum and Hellriegel 2009:309; Schermerhorn et al. 2008:272):

- What leaders do is affected by society’s cultural values and practices.
- Leadership has a bearing on organisational culture and practices which also impacts on the leader’s behaviour and style as well as on broader societal culture.
- Interaction of a leader’s behaviour and attributes in relation to organisational and cultural factors impact on the effectiveness of the leader.
- A leader’s acceptance is a function of the interaction between organisational and cultural factors in relationship to the behaviours and attributes of the
leader. The more congruent the leadership attributes and behaviours to the organisational and cultural factors, the more acceptable the leader.

The nine dimensions of culture that differentiate societies and organisations includes power, distance, uncertainty avoidance, group collectivism, societal collectivism, future orientation, assertiveness, gender differentiation, performance orientation and human orientation (Luthans 2005:569; Roodt 2009 (b):106-107). The six broad-based leadership dimensions (which encompass a variety of attributes) includes the following: charismatic/value-based, team-oriented (focussed), self-protective, participative, (involvement), human-orientation and autonomous (independent), (Schermerhorn et al. 2008:273; Slocum and Hellriegel 2009:273).

Luthans (2005:572) asserts that the comprehensive Globe research project by focussing on similarities and differences within and across cultures aims to enhance the understanding of the nature of leadership effectiveness and the identification of both various universal and culture-specific factors that relate to the effectiveness of leadership processes. For example, the dimensions and attributes of charismatic-inspirational, charismatic-visionary and team-oriented were universally recognised as defining leadership effectiveness. Some ineffective leadership attributes that were identified included irritability, malevolence, non-cooperativeness and being dictatorial (Schermerhorn et. al. 2008:273).

In a development-oriented Public Service the Globe Model can be of great value in that it can conscientise individuals to universally effective leadership attributes and behaviours, the impact of disregarding of culturally preferred and endorsed leadership behaviour as well as the presence across cultures of consistent and specifically defined preferences for the behaviour of leaders (Luthans 2005:570).

**Governance and leadership**

One governance perspective of public administration suggests that it concerns the creation of balancing conditions and the establishment of enabling environments as well as rendering account for networked changing relationships between public institutions and society at a local, provincial, national and global level (Frederickson and Smith 2003:225; Stoker 1998:17; Bovaird 2005:217).

Implied in this perspective is that governance focuses on institutionalising a nation’s underlying rules and principles articulated in a country’s constitution. For example, *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* articulates these values in the Preamble, Founding Provisions, Bill of Rights and Chapter 10 which makes provisions for the basic values and principles governing public
administration (Preamble and Chapters 1, 2 and 10 of *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*). However, it is argued that to give meaning and to realise and actualise these values, public servants must be guided by public spirited leadership (OECD 2001:12). Therefore, as a social influencing process it is considered as “…the heart of good governance (and) …the flesh and the bones of the Constitution” (OECD 2001: 12). Kramer (2003:128:135) advocates that while governance is about relationships, leadership is about building relations among people (social capital). Therefore, in the “lead-up” activities the Public servant has to build social capital with legislators and political-office bearers. Building social capital with lower-level staff involves “lead down”. “Lead across” entails building social capital with peers. Building social capital with stakeholders and role players outside the public institutions for example, civil society, interest and pressure groups, media and the European Union (EU), African Union (AU) and United Nations (UN) officials, involves “lead out” (Kramer 2003:137).

In a development-oriented Public Service leaders have to be aware that “inflating” the development mandate with “what must be done” without due regard to resource capacity and constraints may pose problems. They also have to be cautious about giving prominence to good governance as a precondition for development to take place, rather than regarding good governance as a supporting process to enable development (Grindle 2010:7).

**CONCLUSION**

The development-orientation of the South African Public Service is mandated by *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. This constitutional mandate is being challenged and will be even more by the 2000 Millennium Development Goals and the objectives of the 2011 National Development Plan: Vision for 2030. Both effective management and leadership are essential to contribute to the achievement of this mandate. In the context of changing and interconnected local, provincial, national and global environments more emphasis is being placed on the importance of the leadership role of public servants. A joint understanding and collaborative application of various legacy leadership theories and modern theoretical approaches as well as the underlying interdependent concepts of influence, power and politics of the leadership process will enhance this role. In addition, an integrated grasp of the current and emerging perspectives of leadership will also make a meaningful contribution. These perspectives include ethics, authenticity, trust, servant leadership, emotional intelligence, mentoring, e-leadership, the Globe model and leadership as well as leadership and governance.
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**AUTHOR’S CONTACT DETAILS**

Prof Danny Sing  
Senior Professor and Senior Research Associate  
School of Management, Information Technology and Governance  
University of KwaZulu-Natal  
Westville Campus  
Private Bag X54001  
Durban 4000  
Tel: 031 260 7219 (W)  
Fax: 031 260 7757  
E-mail: singd@ukzn.ac.za
**Transformational leadership and organisational change**

**A public sector perspective**

D B Jarbandhan
Department of Public Governance
University of Johannesburg
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**ABSTRACT**

Public sector leadership functions within a dynamic environment. The shifting global landscape brings with it many changes. To manage public sector institutions in a global landscape, transformational leadership allows leaders to create a sense of heightened awareness among followers and the organisation within a change-based context. It also promotes growth and development. This article aims to clarify the concepts surrounding transformational leadership and organisational change. In addition, it provides a theoretical underpinning of organisational change in public sector institutions. Finally, this article examines the type of transformational leadership behaviour that is conducive to managing organisational change.

**INTRODUCTION**

Public institutions function within an ever-changing environment. This is encapsulated in the age-old adage that the “only constant is change”. The changing political culture, demographical changes, the legacy of past reforms and managing in times of austerity will have to be addressed. In Morse, Buss and Kinghorn (2007:69) Svara points-out that the “over-riding challenge (for public leadership) is finding ways to provide high level leadership and maintain commitment to core values in an uncertain environment”. The post-bureaucratic
paradigm that is relevant to new public organisations calls for public leaders to be agents of change and innovation.

This article will argue that transformational leadership is best suited to manage organisational change. According to Van Wart (2003:217), transformational leadership emphasises creating a vision and promoting organisational change. Bass and Avolio (1993:113) suggest that transformational leaders build on the following assumptions: Followers are trustworthy and purposeful; everyone has a ‘unique’ contribution to make; and complex problems are handled at the lowest possible level of the organisation. Bass and Avolio (1993:113) further indicate that, “leaders who build such cultures and articulate them to followers typically exhibit a sense of vision and purpose. They align others around the vision and empower others to take greater responsibility for achieving the vision. Such leaders facilitate and teach followers. They foster a culture of creative change and growth ...”

The above quotation succinctly indicates that transformational leaders are agents of change. As such, the first requirement of transformational leadership is that leaders must be able to recognise the need for change (Yukl 1971:335; Northouse 2001:143).

**RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Fernandez and Rainey (2006:168) are quick to point-out that literature on organisational change in public institutions is very limited when compared to literature that focuses on general management. However, the literature presented by the authors does admit that in their leadership capacities, managers are able to bring about change (Armenakis and Bedeian 1999; Kotter 1996; Yukl 2001 in Fernandez and Rainey 2006:168). Despite the availability of literature, the type of changes brought about is questioned. Furthermore, whether the public organisation had changed with the change-driven strategy is questionable.

The *World Public Sector Report: Globalisation and the State 2001* (2001:99) make the point that leaders need to possess the capacity to adjust to changing circumstances. Leaders need to possess, *inter alia*, the following capability: “Management of change in both peaceful and effective manner.” Kiyaga-Nsubunga (2007:142) heralds the African challenge, by pledging that African public sector leaders become “more effective agents of change in the face of daunting development challenges”.

Gingrich in Morse, Buss, Kinghorn (2007:27) summarises the transformational leadership dilemma, as opposed to the traditional forms of leadership as follows: “When you cross over to a transformational system, people understand every day that if we’re not transforming, we’re losing ground.”
Based on the above information, the research problem identified for this article questions the following:

**Whether a transformational leadership approach in the public sector can bring about meaningful organisational change?**

In order to address the question above, the following subsequent questions will be asked:

- What is transformational leadership?
- What is organisational change?
- What are the models/theories of organisational change?
- What are the transformational leadership attributes that promote organisational change?

**DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS**

The section below will provide an overview of the central concepts that are relevant to the article.

**The concept of organisational change**

Canter, Stein and Jick (in Van der Waldt and Du Toit 1999:253) and March (in Sergiovanni and Corbally 1986:20) are of the opinion that public institutions survive because they adapt to changing environments. Christensen, Laegried, Roness and Rovick (2007:122) add to the argument by indicating that the concept of organisational change is by no means new. According to the authors, change is “often a gradual process in organisations, taking place in the course of routine activities and in small increments, but sometimes it can take the form of abrupt and powerful upheavals, the potential for which has built-up over a long period of time”.

March (in Sergiovanni and Corbally 1986:67), Christensen et al. 2007:218 and Selman internet source: undated) are of the opinion that individuals, including leaders, can relate to change in six different ways, namely:

- resisting change;
- coping with change;
- responding to change;
- accepting change;
- bringing forth change (increased creativity in changing circumstances); and
- mastering change (innovative).
These factors will be discussed in detail later in the article.

Van der Waldt and Du Toit (1999:253) summarise the concept of change as moving away from a present/current situation. The Senior Management Service (SMS), that was developed to promote a cadre of dedicated senior managers and leaders to promote service delivery in South Africa. Notably, the SMS has embedded change management as one of its core leadership competencies. It views change management as central to the transformation of South African society in general and that of moving towards a service delivery-based culture in particular. According to the Leadership Development Strategic Management Framework for the SMS (2005:48), change is required to accelerate the transformation of all South Africans’ lives.

**The concept of public leadership**

The concept of leadership is difficult to define. However, this article does not aim to delve into the perennial debates on the subject. Consequently, the following definitions will suffice for this article.

According to Morse *et al.* (2007:4), public leadership focuses on leadership positions within public organisations, “from line supervisor on up – and how those leaders lead organisational change and produce results”. Van Wart’s (2003:216) scholarly article in *Public Administration Review, 2003*, examines the subject the author refers to as ‘administrative leadership’. He defines the concept to refer to those in leadership positions from the “frontline supervisor (or even lead worker) to the non-political head of the organisation”.

**The concept of transformational leadership**

In 1973, Downton first alluded to the concept of transformational leadership in his much-acclaimed publication, *Rebel Leadership* (Bennis and Nanus 1985). This form of leadership was influenced by the loss of American dominance in business, finance and science. Notably, there was a need to re-ignite American industries that had slipped into a mode of complacency (Van Wart 2009:15). Transformational leaders were expected to create change in “deep structures, major processes, or overall (organisational) culture” (Van Wart 2009:15). Three competencies for transformational leaders were required. They namely:

- had to possess a compelling vision;
- should have brilliant technical competence; and
- need a charismatic quality

Transformational leaders’ abilities were captured in the four ‘I’s’-dimension, as highlighted in the conceptualisation of Bass and Avolio (1993:3). These were
‘Idealised influence’; ‘Inspirational motivation’; ‘Intellectual stimulation’; and ‘Individualised consideration’. The value of each ‘I’ relates to the leader’s ability to inspire, create a desire in their followers to follow their example, generate enthusiasm and to stimulate creativity and a need for achievement.

Consequently, transformational leadership focuses more on the process rather than the task; motivates through cooperation rather than competition; considers people’s needs and feelings and encourages participative decision-making and problem solving.

The concept of change is closely related to transformational leadership. Through transformational leadership, leaders with a charismatic vision intend to inspire and change followers to behave in a certain way to help realise organisational goals. The following section will discuss theories of organisational change in public institutions.

This section will also define the concepts of a ‘model’, ‘theory’ and ‘process’, as these terms will be used in the course of this article.

**What is a model?**

Simply defined, a model is a pattern or a system of postulation (*Longman New Universal Dictionary* 1982:630). De Coning, Cloete and Wissink (2011:32) provide a much more comprehensive discussion of the term. The authors view the term as “a representation of a more complex reality that has been oversimplified in order to describe and explain the relationship among variables, and even sometimes to prescribe how something should happen”. In its most simplistic connotation, for the purpose of this article, a model is a mental image or a description in understanding phenomena.

**What is a process?**

A process is a natural phenomenon that is marked by gradual change, which leads to a particular result (*Longman New Universal Dictionary* 1982: 777).

**What is a theory?**

*The Longman New Universal Dictionary* (1982:1018) describes a theory as a scientifically acceptable body of principles offered to explain a phenomenon. While a model has a descriptive underpinning, a theory is much more complex in that it is a “comprehensive, systematic, and reliable explanation and prediction of relationships among specific variables” (De Coning et al. 2011:32). Although theories could be used descriptively, they are a synthesis of a well-tested hypothesis.
Organisational theories in general – and organisational change theories in particular – are rooted in the early works of Adam Smith (1776), Charles Babbage (1832), Andrew Ure (1835), Karl Marx (1867), Fredrick W Taylor (1911), Max Weber (1922), Elton Mayo (1933), Chester Barnard (1938), F J Roethlisberger and W J Dickson (1939) (in Morse et al. 2007). These authors wrote about organisational issues in general, but did not develop theoretical ideologies. In the middle of the twentieth century, American mechanical engineers gave much thought to organisational thinking. They were interested in motivating their organisations and optimising efficiency, which saw an emergence of an interest in organisational theories (Jacques, Shenhav, Shenhav and Weitzer in Boxall, Purcell and Wright 2007:110). A formal growth in organisational theory emerged in the 1960s. During this time, business degree programmes that universities offered expanded considerably – especially in the United States of America (Starbuck in Boxall et al. 2007:111).

Internationally, public institutions have undergone – and are still undergoing – change. Most of these changes stem from the external environment. However, the literature review also indicates that some of the changes emanate from the internal environment. Therefore, public sector managers need to be able to manage these changes. A literature survey on organisational change indicates various theories, such as the Bureaucratic Approach, the Behaviour-Oriented Models, the Action Research Model, the Contingency Model and the Contemporary Model. Before discussing these theories/models, a brief overview of the Change Process will be outlined.

**The Change Process**

The change process should be planned carefully. Public institutions could fail to deliver goods and services at large if senior managers do not plan for changes within the institutions (internal change). An institution that has not planned for proposed change will often find itself compromised. Smit, Cronje, Bevis and Vrba (2007:217) list the following reasons why managers may not respond to change:

- Mistrust.
- Lack of teamwork.
- Lack of leadership skills.
- Internal politics.
- A bureaucratic culture.
Fear.

Sheer resistance to change.

The authors further indicate that, in order for change to be successful, it has to be planned for in a logical fashion. The following diagram provides a useful description of the change process.

The change process that is depicted in the diagram above is based loosely on the Lewin’s model of 1947 (Smit et al. 2007:217). Authors such as Fernandez and Rainey (2006) see Lewin’s model as probably one of the early models of trying to deal with organisational change.

Lewin’s model of the stages in the change process begins with recognising change (a trigger); in this instance the public issue that prompts change. For example, the impact that new legislation may have on a senior manager’s handling of departmental budgets. This initial stage of change is very challenging, as resistance to change is most prevalent during this stage.

**Figure 1: Steps in the Change Process**

- The trigger for change
- Determine the desired outcome of the change intervention
- Diagnose the causes
- Select an appropriate change technique
- Plan for implementation

Source: Adapted from Smit, Cronje, Brevis and Vrba (2007:217)
After establishing the clear need for change, managers should state the desired outcome of the planned change intervention (Smit et al. 2007:218). The desired outcome could possibly improve service delivery, or maybe save substantial costs in terms of public expenditure.

During the third stage of the process, managers diagnose the cause of change. From a public sector point of view, change could be spurred on by public protest over the lack of service delivery. Once the cause of the change has been identified, processes and procedures can be put in place to change a fundamentally flawed situation to one that can produce positive, tangible results.

The fourth phase in Lewin’s model is to select an appropriate change technique. Techniques may vary depending on the situation. For example, a municipality can improve service delivery by using an outside service contractor to remove waste. This has to be communicated to all stakeholders.

The fifth stage involves a plan for the implementation of change. This stage has to be planned carefully. Management will have to predetermine the costs of the intended change and establish whether the human resource capacity is adequate to implement the change.

The sixth stage of the model involves implementing change. Here, managers need to assess whether the change has been successful or not. If unsuccessful, further changes need to be made. This has resulted in the seventh stage (although not outlined in Fig. 1), which involves ‘evaluating’ the change process. It is evident that resources within public institutions are scarce. Hence evaluation is a vital control mechanism to assess whether the change was successful or not.

The Bureaucratic Model to organisational change

The German sociologist, Max Weber, popularised the Bureaucratic organisation-based model. Popularly known as the ‘Weberian’ model, it was premised on the ordered relationship where an individual (the leader) at the top of the hierarchy issued instructions and those at the bottom (the subordinates) followed these instructions. Weber was of the opinion that rules and functions had to be observed in a uniform and systematic manner. In addition, managers had the authority to enforce rules by virtue of their positions within the organisation (Smit et al. 2007:34).

Over the years, this organisational change model has undergone scrutiny. It is argued that managers receive remuneration for doing what they are told to do and not because of their leadership competence. Weber’s theory is seen as outdated because organisations are not static and have changed their outlook. The move has seen a shift towards leadership styles and flatter, more lateral organisational models; something MacDonald refers to as the ‘Post-bureaucratic Model’ (internet source: 2000). The South African Public Service is regulated by
a shift towards placing people (the citizens) at the centre of service delivery, as popularised by the Batho Pele principles. This outlook has taken precedent over a hierarchical, bureaucratic service delivery-based outlook.

**The Functionalist/Systems and Contingency Models**

In this particular model, organisations are not viewed in isolation. Rather, they are seen as being influenced by environmental factors. In essence, organisations receive and process ‘inputs’ that they convert to ‘outputs’ (Boxall *et al.* 2007:113). In his book entitled *Organisations in Action* (1967), James D Thompson (Boxall *et al.* 2007) suggests two distinct approaches to the study of complex organisations. One is the ‘closed-system strategy’ and the other is the ‘open-system strategy’.

The ‘closed-system strategy’ is concerned with how efficiently organisations accomplish their objectives. This particular sub-model attempts to use the institution/organisation’s resources in a functional manner, “with each component contributing to the logic” of the system, while added control mechanisms are designed to reduce uncertainty (Denhardt 2008:83). Weberian Model of Bureaucracy is a good example of a closed-system approach.

In contrast, the ‘open-system strategy’ is based on the assumption that one cannot know all the variables that may influence organisations. Nor can one predict and control its influence (Denhardt 2008:83 and Boxall *et al.* 2007). Consequently, the open-system sub-model makes the assertion that predictability and control are by no means certain. Thompson (in Denhardt 2008:83) succinctly summarises that as a natural system, “the complex organisation is a set of interdependent parts which together make up a whole because each contributes something and receives something from the whole, which in turn is interdependent with some larger environment”.

It can be concluded that the systems model of organisational change and human resource management (HRM) can be used as a means of finding common links between general management and the human resource process. Notably, this is something that has been lacking from a theoretical point of view.

**Complexity Theory and change**

The Complexity Theory, as popularised by many authors (Mainzer in Morse *et al.* 2007:140), contends that public organisations are dynamic, complex and highly uncertain. Therefore, these public organisations need radical leaders who are willing to break away from the shackles of conventional wisdom. This means that public organisations will have to be led by individuals who require ‘nothing short of a personal conversion’ (Lewin and Regine in Morse *et al.* 2007:155).
Complexity Theory focuses on a new understanding of organisations and leadership, by maintaining that organisations exist as complex systems. Based on the Complexity Theory, the new type of leader that will be suited to modern public sector organisations has to possess the following key elements (Blandin in Morse et al. 2007:145). He/she must move from:

- determinism and control to a lack of control: The notion of a single leader or a small group of leaders has to be re-examined. According to Complexity Theory, leaders need to let go of control. Lewin and Regine (in Morse et al. 2007) contend that leadership is a dynamic rather than a controlled process.
- directing to enabling: This complex theory sees the leader as a facilitator, catalyst and collaborator, instead of a person (leader) who directs, controls, influences and motivates.
- ‘one’ leader to ‘many’ leaders: The move is away from traditional leadership. Instead of focusing on one or a small group of leaders; complexity thinking holds the view that leadership needs to be exercised throughout the institution.
- static, role-based leadership to emergent leadership: The view here is that leadership roles ‘evolve and are not static’ (Blandin in Morse et al. 2007). Leadership is created through interaction and is continually evolving.
- traditional attributes to complexity-based attitudes: The leader in the complex model has different set of competencies than that of a leader from a traditionalist background. Some of the competencies range from zeal and persistence, to agility of mind, resilience and adaptability.
- single-relationship to multiple-relationship paradigms: Scholars (such as Blandin) are of the opinion that complexity paradigms will not replace traditional leadership models, but will coexist with them. In essence, the right type of leadership needs to be used at the right time.

Complexity theory offers a new way of viewing leadership in an ever-evolving and complex environment. Although little research has been carried-out on Complexity Theory from a public governance perspective, it provides a new focus on the characteristics that modern leaders should possess.

**The Post-modernist and Discourse Theory of public organisations**

According to Lynn and Pollitt (in Bogason 2004:3), post-modernism replaces everything that represents the modern world – in essence post-modernism has taken over the world. It has to be noted that this outlook is very simplistic. Furthermore, Lynn and Pollitt (in Bogason 2004:3) and Denhardt (2008) stress the distinction between modernity and the post-modern condition. Modernity is
characterised by concepts such as rationalisation, centralisation, specialisation, bureaucratisation and industrialisation. The main purveyor of modernity has been “advanced uses of scientific knowledge to further economic and social development, controlled and monitored by centres of knowledge and power. Coherence and integration dominate the vision, and the industrial cooperation and the bureaucratic welfare state are organisational hallmarks of modernity” (Bogason 2004:3).

Post-modern conditions, on the other hand, are characterised by fragmentation. Reasoning-based process and a move towards decentralisation, individualisation and internationalisation replace an overarching rationale or vision (Bogason 2004:108). In the post-modern condition, culture loses its national focus, people organise themselves across organisational and national boundaries – many people are overwhelmed by a sense of chaos. Bogason (2004) further argues that the “world-wide matrix organisation, outsourcing and user-run public organisations” are characteristic organisational features of the post-modern condition. Westwood and Linstead (in Boxall et al. 2007:119) highlight post-modernism from an organisational context, stating that the “organisation has no autonomous, stable or structural status outside the text that constitutes it”.

A post-modern understanding of organisational change is very complex. There is a need in Public Management and Governance to further investigate the impact of post-modernism on organisational change and development. Undeniably, the post-modernist debate has instilled a new vigour in the philosophical underpinning of organisational change in public sector institutions.

**LEADERSHIP AND CHANGE MANAGEMENT IN PUBLIC SECTOR ORGANISATIONS**

The concepts of leadership and change are closely interrelated. Leadership focuses on bringing about change; in a sense leaders are catalysts of change. According to Selman (internet source: undated), change is a phenomenon that occurs all the time, whether we know it or not. In addition, the author identifies six ways in which leaders can relate to the circumstances of change based on its contexts. These are discussed below.

- **Resistance** (Opposition to circumstances). According to Selman (internet source: undated), the most common way to relate to change is to resist it. Resisting change can occur in several ways. For example, by disagreeing with set policies and legislation; by an on-going analysis of the situation or even not taking ownership of the situation. In this context, leadership is exercised by opposing managers’ circumstances.
• **Coping** (Positive reaction to circumstances). This is viewed as a positive alternative to resisting change. The energy and effort directed to resisting change is channelled towards coping with circumstances and problem-solving. Within this context, leadership is facilitative and reasonable. The leadership approach here would be underpinned by justifying the limitations to a situation and encouraging subordinates to work around the circumstances. Selman (internet source: undated) regards the leader here as being the ‘unwitting co-conspirator’ for individual and organisational limitations.

• **Responding** (Owning the circumstances). When one responds to change one can have a commitment to the change, own the change circumstances or bring in innovative future value to circumstances. When responding to change, leaders organise their actions based on other considerations. In essence, the leader focuses on what is possible – rather than on what is impossible.

• **Choosing** (Accepting the circumstances). Choosing may involve embracing the changing circumstances. Here the leaders’ creativity becomes unfurled. When accepting the changing circumstances, leaders can create a vision for themselves and for their followers. The transformational leadership philosophy bears fruit when a leader accepts the situation and creates a future vision.

• **Bringing forth** (Creating the circumstances). In this change relationship, the circumstances to accept and understand change are created. Here, the management of change requires unconventional methods. Selman refers to this as a ‘thinking outside the box’ mentality. A good leader creates enabling circumstances and is considered to be “visionary, charismatic and often gifted”. For these types of leaders, a vision or goal is “not a big picture of the future, but a powerful ground of being from which to create reality” (Selman: internet source).

• **Mastery** (Creating the context for change). Here one is responsible for creating circumstances to enable change. Mastery relates to one mastering conditions. From a leadership point of view, leaders master their circumstances and conditions. In this context, leaders are always innovators, learners and creators.

In their research, Fernandez and Rainey (2006:169-173) have identified eight factors that leaders need to bear in mind when managing organisational change within the public sector. These factors are encapsulated in the table below.

In addition to the above adaptation, Connor and Thompson (2006:26) add three additional factors that public sector leaders need to consider when managing organisational change. The so-called ‘9th leader factor’ stems from
research conducted by Kotter and Cohen, as cited in Connor and Thompson (2006:168), in which the researchers implore leaders to build guiding teams and to ensure lasting change. The ‘10th leader factor’ includes a leader undertaking process analysis, envisioning the future and analysing how to get there (Connor, Lake and Stackman in Connor and Thompson 2006:26). The ‘11th leader factor’ is that of managing the transition that change has brought about and sustaining the change momentum (Cummings and Worley in Connor and Thompson 2006:37).

Table 1: Leadership skills that are required to manage organisational change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Determinants of Success</th>
<th>Leadership Skill Required</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Factor 1</td>
<td>Ensure the need.</td>
<td>Leaders should communicate the need for change to all stakeholders. Kotter (in Fernandez and Rainey 2006) further stipulates that leaders should create a vision of change that followers could identify with.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 2</td>
<td>Provide a plan.</td>
<td>The leader needs to outline a strategic plan to help implement change. The vision should form part of the plan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 3</td>
<td>Build internal support for change and overcome resistance.</td>
<td>Leaders should build internal measures to support change. Furthermore, leaders should aim to reduce resistance to change. Participation should be encouraged as a method to lessen resistance to change (Kelman 2005; Thompson and Sanders in Fernandez and Rainey 2006:171)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 4</td>
<td>Ensure support and commitment from top management.</td>
<td>Leaders need to ensure that they have ‘buy-in’ from top management in the change process. Top managers can act as policy role-players in the process of changing the organisation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 5</td>
<td>Build external support.</td>
<td>Leaders need to have the support of external actors, namely communities and political office-bearers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 6</td>
<td>Provide resources.</td>
<td>Successful change management requires resources (financial, human and technological).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 7</td>
<td>Institutionalise change.</td>
<td>Leaders and employees need to ensure that change is embedded in the organisational fabric/ culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factor 8</td>
<td>Pursue comprehensive change.</td>
<td>Leaders need to ensure that change in stakeholders’ personal behaviour dovetails into systemic change.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Fernandez and Rainey (2006)
When re-designing organisational structures in South Africa, the following principles need be considered in order to bring about change:

- **Constitutional values of public administration**: Resources need to be used effectively and efficiently; transparency and accountability have to be fostered.
- **Focus on strategic priorities**: The department’s strategic goals need to guide organisational design. For example, the Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) would serve as a basis to realign and redesign organisational structures at local government level.
- **People first (Batho Pele) principles**: The end-users need to be considered when designing organisational structures.
- **Inter-governmental relations and co-operative governance**: Organisational structures need to foster relationships between government departments. The *Inter-Governmental Relations Framework Act* need to be used as a basis for ensuring cooperative governance.
- **Global perspective**: Organisational design has to be aligned with the economic, social and geo-political world order, for example, New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD), the IBSA dialogue forum and G77 priority areas.
- **Foster professionalism and service ethos**: When organisations are designed, a professional cadre of civil servants needs to be considered, such as the SMS.
- **Fostering learning and innovation**: Information sharing and knowledge management play a fundamental role in creating organisational structures. *(DPSA Guide on Organisational Design 2007:18).*

**LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR THAT IS CONDUCIVE TO MANAGING CHANGE IN PUBLIC SECTOR ORGANISATIONS – A FOCUS ON TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

Bass and Avolio (1993:3) identified a number of transformational leadership behaviour-patterns that were relevant to transformational leadership. Transformational leaders need to possess the four ‘I’s’, as discussed earlier. These include: Idealised influence (charisma), Idealised consideration (support, encouragement and coaching); Intellectual stimulation (problem identification and solution finding) and Inspirational motivation (communicating and appealing to a vision).

The diagram below illustrates the process of transformational leadership and behaviour patterns of transformational leadership, as popularised by Carlson and Perrewe in Stone and Patterson (2005:9).
**Figure 2: Transformational leadership process**

**Required Ethical Elements**
- Ethical orientation of leader.
- Top management support.
- Established corporate ethics policy.

**Institutionalised Organisational Ethics**
- Psychological contract.
- Organisational commitment.
- Ethically-oriented culture.

**Characteristics**
- Vision.
- Human need for understanding.
- Strong core values.

**Behaviours**
- Communication of vision
- Reinforcement through involvement.
- Consideration for employees.
- Fulfilment of commitment.

**Outcomes**
- Mission changes.
- Strategic changes.
- Cultural changes.
- Internationalisation of organisational values.
- Empowered employees.

Source: Carlson & Perrewe in Stone and Patterson (2005:9)

**Table 2: Transformational leadership behaviours: A summary**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional Attributes ('I' s)</th>
<th>Accompanying Attributes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1 Idealised influence/charisma | 1 Vision  
2 Trust  
3 Respect  
4 Risk-sharing  
5 Integrity |
| 2 Inspirational motivation | 6 Modelling  
7 Commitment to goals  
8 Communication  
9 Enthusiasm |
| 3 Intellectual stimulation | 10 Rationality |
| 4 Individualised consideration | 11 Problem-solving  
12 Personal attention  
13 Mentoring  
14 Listening  
15 Empowering |

Source: Adapted from Stone and Patterson (2005:10)
Table 2 summarises the transformational leadership behaviours.

**Transformational leadership and organisational change**

The popularity of transformational leadership took firm root in the 1980s and the 1990s (van Wart 2003:214). According to Dering (1998:32), the 1990s saw leadership take two distinct paths. The one was the ‘Relational Model’ of leadership that included conceptual aspects, such as caring, stewardship and love. The other was the ‘Contemporary Organisational Model’ of leadership that included the transformational leadership model. According to Dering (1998:32), the transformational leadership model included three critical components. These include the needs of followers, the organisation and its need to change. Based on the above evidence, it is important to analyse the impact of traditional leadership and its influence on public sector organisational change.

Some authors are of the opinion that over time the focus of leadership has shifted to a transformational mode of leading modern public institutions (Van Rensburg 2007; Spears 1998; Bass and Avolio 1993 and van Wart 2003). With regard to transformational leadership and organisational change/culture, Bass and Avolio (1993:1, 16) notes: “The organisation’s culture develops in a large part from its leadership while the culture of an organisation can also affect the development of its leadership”. Bass and Avolio’s example (1993) serves as a good guide post where transactional leaders are seen to be working “within their organisational cultures following existing rules, procedures and norms, [whereas] transformational leaders change their culture by first understanding it and then realigning the organisation’s culture with a new vision and a revision of its shared assumptions, values and norms”.

Furthermore, it is argued that transformational leaders need to promote organisational change by creating a vision, or what some authors refer to as a ‘change vision’ (Kavanagh and Ashkanasy 2006:87). Daft (1999: 428) summarises the point by concluding that, ‘without a vision there will be no transformation’ of a situation. Transformational leadership describes how leaders can initiate, develop and carry out significant change within organisations.

Theories of transformational leadership and organisational change, as discussed earlier, emphasise that change is derived from the leader’s implementation of a unique organisation-based vision through powerful pervasive personal characteristics and actions that are designed to change the forms and substance of the internal organisational culture (Bass and Avolio 1993). Daft (1999:427) argues that transformational leaders set concrete visions and build relationships within diverse groups, by finding commonality among followers in the organisational change process.
In essence, transformational leaders create significant change in both followers and organisations. Bass and Avolio (1993) and Kavanagh and Ashkanasy (2006) are of the opinion that innovative and satisfying organisational cultures are likely to promote transformational leadership behaviour. In addition, transformational leaders will see followers as those who are trustworthy and purposeful; who can make lasting contributions to the organisation; and who can handle complex problems where they arise – at ground level.

**LEADERSHIP AND TRANSFORMATIVE POWER TO FOSTER CHANGE**

According to Bennis in Sergiovanni and Corbally (1986:64), transformative refers to when leaders “translate(s) an intention into reality and sustains it”. The concept of transformative power is highlighted in decision-making, where leadership becomes an intricate process of multilateral brokerage of constituencies – both within and outside the organisation.

After studying eighty chief executive officers (CEO’s), Bennis (in Sergiovanni and Corbally 1986), concluded that leaders should possess the following leadership competencies to promote organisational change:

- **Vision**: Leaders create and communicate a compelling vision of a desired state of affairs. A vision clarifies the current situation and induces a commitment to the future.
- **Communication and alignment**: Leaders should communicate a vision in order to gain multiple constituencies’ support.
- **Persistence, consistency and focus**: The leader should have the capacity to maintain the organisation’s direction – especially when the going gets tough.
- **Empowerment**: This is the leader’s capacity to create environments (the appropriate social architecture) that can tap and harness the necessary energy and ability to bring about desired results.
- **Organisational learning**: Ways and means for the organisation to monitor its own performance; compare results with established objectives; have access to evolving databases against which to review past actions with future ones and decide how key personnel or managers have to be restructured according to new conditions.

The above discussion indicates that transformational power is important to manage organisational change in the fast-evolving global community. Transformative power allows organisations to change and to sustain the change.
CONCLUSION

The ever-evolving world has forced organisations to change and to adapt from a bureaucratic to a change oriented model. Over the last four decades, public sector reform has forced public sector managers to re-engineer and refocus their organisations to be globally competitive, effective and efficient, as well as to serve the mandate of active service delivery. One of the ways of delivering successful organisational change is by introducing leadership as a critical factor. This article argues that a transformational leadership philosophy could help organisations to refocus their priorities based on four key elements, namely purpose (public institution’s vision, mission and values); people; performance and focus on environmental factors.

According to this article, transformational leadership is conducive to organisational change. Notably, this form of leadership should serve as a beacon to allow public sector institutions to adapt and sustain transformational leadership, as it is essential to bring about lasting change and development in public sector institutions. A transformational approach will help institutions manage in complex global environments, improve public sector productivity and foster a renewed vision for accountable and good governance.

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**AUTHOR’S CONTACT DETAILS**

Mr D B Jarbandhan  
Department of Public Governance  
C Ring 405  
University of Johannesburg  
P O Box 524  
Auckland Park, 2006  
Tel: 011 559 3225  
E-mail: vainj@uj.ac.za
Local government turnaround strategy
Challenges, constraints and benefits

T van Niekerk
Central University of Technology, Free State
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ABSTRACT

For local government to be effective, it is vital to ensure that municipalities fulfil their developmental role in the transformation and development process in South Africa. To fulfil this mandate, Integrated Development Planning (IDP) has been introduced to ensure sustainable service delivery, to promote social and economic development and a safe and healthy environment, to give priority to the basic needs of communities, and to encourage community participation. In terms of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (RSA 2000), all municipalities must engage in an annual IDP process. However, most municipalities in South Africa routinely receive poor audit reports and are, therefore, gaining a reputation of poor service delivery, ineffectiveness, incompetence, and high levels of corruption. Drawing from the 2009 State of Local Government in South Africa report compiled by the Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA), the Local Government Turnaround Strategy (LGTAS) was introduced. The LGTAS is a comprehensive intergovernmental intervention with the aim to mobilising all municipalities and their communities to embark upon a concentrated effort to deal with the factors undermining the country’s municipalities and to restore good performance and effective service delivery. This article contains an analysis of selected literature, reports and legislation, while taking a descriptive and analytical approach to providing an overview of IDP and LGTAS. Two case studies form the basis for a discussion of the current challenges, constraints and benefits of the tailor-made Municipal Turnaround Strategy (MTAS).
INTRODUCTION

Despite significant improvements in service delivery by local government in South Africa since 1994, most municipalities face a widening gap between demand and supply when it comes to services. The performance of local government in fulfilling its developmental role and delivering quality service is often questioned in light of alleged acts of corruption, political interference, maladministration, poor financial performance, and lack of leadership and management. Previous governmental interventions such as Project Consolidate and the five-year Strategic Local Government Agenda applied a “one size fits all” approach to restore good performance and effective service delivery within the country’s municipalities (CoGTA 2009b:24). Both these interventions failed to focus on the root causes of local government distress (Vika 2011:1-4). The approved Local Government Turnaround Strategy (LGTAS) recognises that a “one size fits all” approach is neither realistic nor desirable in ensuring that all municipalities fulfil their developmental role and deliver satisfactory service. The implications are that all municipalities must incorporate their own tailor-made Municipal Turnaround Strategy (MTAS) into their municipal Integrated Development Planning (IDP), as well as their budgeting, monitoring, evaluation and reporting processes (CoGTA 2010b:3-4). This article contains an analysis of selected literature, reports and legislation. In addition, a descriptive and analytical approach is followed to provide an overview of IDP and LGTAS. Two case studies form the basis for a discussion of the current challenges, constraints and benefits of the tailor-made MTAS applicable to each and incorporated in the municipal IDP.

OVERVIEW OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

The concept of IDP has its roots in the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development held in 1992 in Rio de Janeiro. At this conference the 180 member states were called upon to implement Local Agenda 21 in an attempt to address sustainable development through a programme of action at local level. Key objectives of Local Agenda 21 are to raise public awareness of environmental and sustainability issues, to maximise the support and involvement of local communities, and to promote economic development and social progress while reducing environmental impact (DEAT 2004:13-14). Du Plessis, Lundy and Swanepoel (1998:13) expressed the opinion that the principles of Local Agenda 21 are embedded in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (RSA 1996a), which gives the following mandate to local government: to provide democratic and accountable government
for all communities; to ensure the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner; to promote social and economic development; to promote a safe and healthy environment. Du Plessis et al. (1998:14-15) state that the former Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) was the first development-oriented policy since 1994 (DPLG 2002:4-6). The RDP was subsequently replaced with the former Growth Employment and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR), and in 2010 with the New Economic Growth Path Plan, which seeks to enhance growth, employment creation and equity in South Africa.

In light of the above, IDP came into effect with the passing of the Local Government Transition Second Amendment Act, 1996 (RSA 1996b) and the White Paper on Local Government, 1998 (RSA, 1998b) as a means to promote a developmental local government in South Africa. The effect of the enactment was the introduction of IDP, which guides and informs all management, planning, decision-making and actions on which annual budgets are based in a municipality. One of the key characteristics of IDP is the five-year lifespan that is directly aligned to the term of office for local councillors. This means that after every local government election, the new council can adopt the existing IDP or develop a new one, taking the existing plans into consideration.

In terms of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (RSA 2000) the executive committee or the executive mayor has the responsibility to manage the preparation of IDP, or assign the responsibility to the municipal manager. In the majority of municipalities, an IDP co-ordinator is appointed to oversee the IDP process and report directly to the municipal manager and the executive committee or the executive mayor (IDP Guide Pack 0, DPLG, 2000a:6-9; Local Government Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (RSA, 2000).

The South African government’s commitment to adhering to the above is reflected in the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (RSA 2000), which describes the content requirements to be followed in the IDP process, but also requires each municipality to adopt a single, inclusive plan for the development of the municipal processes. On the other hand, the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (RSA 1998a) provides that district municipalities are also responsible for IDP and sets out a framework for such planning. It should also be noted that IDP in local municipalities should be aligned with the IDP framework of the district municipalities. Furthermore, each municipal IDP should be aligned with the provincial sector department’s policies and programmes. Provincial governments are also responsible for the monitoring of IDP processes within the province while ensuring that the allocation of resources is guided by IDP processes (Ceaser & Theron 1999: 60-63; DEAT 2004:9-12).

Requirements to enhance IDP were introduced in Section 26 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (RSA, 2000), which further determine that all IDP processes must reflect the following aspects:
• The municipal council’s vision for the long-term development of the municipality, with special emphasis on the municipality’s most critical development and internal transformation needs;
• An assessment of the existing level of development in the municipality, which must include the identification of communities without access to basic municipal services;
• The municipal council’s development priorities and objectives for its elected term, including its local economic development aims and internal transformation needs;
• The municipal council’s development strategies, which must be aligned with any national or provincial sectoral plans and planning requirements, which are binding on the municipality in terms of legislation;
• A spatial development framework, which must include basic guidelines for a land-use management system for the municipality;
• The municipal council’s operational strategies;
• Applicable disaster management plans; and
• A financial plan, which must include a budget projection for at least the next three years.

Measures to enhance the performance of municipalities in relation to IDP are outlined in Section 34 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (RSA 2000), as well as in IDP Guide Pack I (DPLG, 2000b:110). These measures include all municipalities having to monitor, evaluate, review and report on their performance against indicators and targets set in their municipal IDP. The Performance Management Guide for Municipalities (DPLG 2001) outlines how the Performance Management System (PMS) should be implemented. This means that the PMS can be seen as the primary mechanism in planning for performance management, as well as in monitoring, reviewing and improving the implementation of municipal IDP (Motingoe 2011:68). Performance management must assist municipalities in making immediate and appropriate changes to the delivery and management of resources. It must, furthermore, assist municipalities to identify and overcome specific blockages and guide future planning on developmental objectives and resources.

Despite the fact that much progress has been made since 2002 with the introduction of IDP, numerous service delivery protests have occurred since 2004, with communities demanding effective service delivery, infrastructure, housing, electricity and water, amongst other essentials. Such incidents have demanded an urgent response, with municipalities at the centre of service delivery. In response to flaring tensions, government – through the Department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) amongst others – commissioned a national study on the state of local government.
The State of Local Government in South Africa Report (CoGTA, 2009b) found that given an exceptionally wide-ranging and challenging mandate, the majority of administrative structures have been operational for less than 10 years and have had to establish themselves in areas that are unlikely to attract capable professionals. The report also found widespread municipal corruption and abuse of political office and job status for personal gain. The formal municipal accountability system also emerged as being ineffective and inaccessible to most citizens. The report further emphasised that in most instances, municipalities have appointed incompetent managers who are incapable of providing the necessary leadership and supervision to promote effective service delivery (COGTA 2009a:52-53; 2009b:18-19). According to Mbele (2010:52-54), a constraint in all municipalities is the introduction of a new municipal accounting system, namely: Generally Accepted Municipal Accounting Practice (GAMAP), which has necessitated a number of changes in terms of policy, interpretation, reporting, and the presentation of the annual financial statements of municipalities. According to Mbele (2010:52-54), the timeline for the conversion from the old to the new accounting system will not be accomplished in poorer municipalities due to a lack of capacity and resources. Drawing from the 2009 State of Local Government in South Africa Report (CoGTA 2009b) and lessons learned from the province-wide municipal assessments conducted in this regard, the draft LGTAS was announced in October 2009 at the Local Government Indaba and subsequently approved by Cabinet in December 2009.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT TURNAROUND STRATEGY IN CONTEXT

According to CoGTA (2009a:19; 2010a:3), the LGTAS is a country-wide intervention, with strong emphasis on improving performance, monitoring, governance, and accountability. The primary aim of the LGTAS is to ensure that all municipalities and their communities embark upon a concentrated effort to deal with the root causes undermining the country’s municipalities and to restore good performance and effective service delivery. On one hand, the LGTAS strives to address the communities’ increasing dissatisfaction with poor municipal service delivery, while on the other hand, the intervention strives to improve the administrative and financial performance of all municipalities. The latter was confirmed by the Auditor-General South Africa (AGSA), which noted that an overwhelming number of municipalities had received poor audit opinions, either disclaimers or qualified opinions, during the 2007/2008 (AGSA 2010) and 2009/2010 (AGSA 2011) audit cycles due to mismanagement and
a lack of control systems. The approach required every municipality to draft its own tailor-made MTAS by April 2010 to remedy problems in the area of jurisdiction (ETU 2011:50). Subsequently, the MTAS should find expression in IDP, as it is intended to address the key strategies of the municipality through key projects. These projects must be aligned to the strategies and priorities of the municipality, IDP and the budget (Lekgoro 2011:4-6). This means that the MTAS for each municipality cannot exist outside that municipality’s IDP – thus the LGTAS provides the municipality with guidelines for action, as well as resources for support, which must be reflected in the IDP. Annual and mid-term budgeting is also based on IDP. However, a municipality’s budget is neither an implementation plan nor a management plan. In terms of the Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (RSA, 2003) the Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP) gives effect to the implementation of the municipal IDP and budget. It, furthermore, provides the basis for measuring performance in service delivery against end-of year targets and budget implementation (Sol Plaatje Municipality 2010:28). One could argue that the SDBIP can be seen as a contract between a municipality’s administration, the council and community, expressing the strategic objectives set by the council as quantifiable outputs to be implemented by the administration during a specific financial year.

The LGTAS strives to achieve five strategic objectives, namely;

- To ensure that municipalities meet the basic service needs of their communities;
- To build a clean, effective, efficient, responsive and accountable system of local government;
- To improve performance and professionalism within municipalities;
- To improve national and provincial policy, oversight and support; and
- To strengthen partnerships between communities, civil society and local government (CoGTA 2009a:19).

According to CoGTA (2010a:3-4), the LGTAS has different focus areas: Firstly, the focus was on the immediate priorities prior to the 2011 elections. Secondly, the focus from March 2011 to 2014 will be on medium-term or post-election priorities. The immediate priorities prior to the 2011 elections consisted of four phases that commenced at the end of January 2010 and concluded in March 2011. The first phase can be seen as a pilot project in which selected municipalities per province developed their respective MTAS, followed by the second phase in which all municipalities followed the same process before incorporating their MTAS in their IDP. The third focus includes the budgeting and approval of each municipality’s IDP, while the fourth focus involves implementation, monitoring and evaluation.
Some of the immediate implementation priorities of the LGTAS prior to the 2011 municipal elections were:

- Addressing the immediate financial and administrative problems in municipalities;
- Promulgating regulations to stem indiscriminate selection and dismissal within municipalities;
- Promoting a transparent municipal supply chain management system;
- Ensuring that the programmes of national and provincial government sectoral departments are reflected in municipal IDP; and
- Overcoming the “one size fits all” approach by simplifying IDP (CoGTA 2010a:3-4).

The LGTAS has certain priorities in place for the medium term and also beyond the 2011 elections, including:

- Ensuring clean audits for all provinces and municipalities;
- Eradicating all informal settlements and creating clean cities through waste management that generates employment and wealth;
- Reducing infrastructure backlogs;
- Giving all citizens access to affordable basic services;
- Giving all schools, clinics, hospitals and other public facilities access to clean water, sanitation and electricity;
- Supplying each municipality with the necessary information and communication technology (ICT) infrastructure and connectivity; and
- Reducing municipal debt by half (CoGTA 2010a:4).

Since the announcement of the LGTAS, a number of support measures have been introduced by CoGTA to ensure that all role players effectively contribute to its success, including the establishment of a special ministerial advisory and monitoring structure. The National Co-ordinating Unit (NCU) was set up to monitor and report on the progress of the LGTAS across government and society. An intergovernmental working group composed of officials from national sector departments, the offices of provincial premiers, the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) and CoGTA has been established to support the implementation of the LGTAS (Vika 2011:1-4). CoGTA announced Operation Clean Audit 2014 to ensure that all 283 municipalities and the nine provincial government departments in South Africa consistently achieve clean audits on their annual financial statements. In addition, municipalities should maintain systems to sustain quality financial statements and management of information. The “Clean Cities, Clean Towns” campaign was established to ensure that cities, towns and villages are kept clean and promotes the creation of wealth through effective waste management practices. In addition, the “Debt
Collecting and Public Mobilisation” campaign was established to encourage a sense of responsibility among South Africans by calling on the nation to do everything possible to make South Africa a better place. Other support systems focus on the acceleration of service delivery by initiating programmes and projects aimed at eradicating infrastructure backlogs and ensuring coordination of all infrastructural projects within municipalities. A number of stakeholders, including the Institute of Municipal Finance Officers (IMFO) and the South African Association of Engineering (SAAE), have volunteered their professional services to support municipalities in their effort to meet their MTAS commitments (CoGTA 2009a:44-45; Vika 2011:1-4).

Drawing from the 2009 State of Local Government in South Africa report (CoGTA 2009b), some municipal powers and functions were revised with the enactment of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Amendment Bill of 2010 (RSA 2010). The main objective of this bill is to grant the Minister for Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs adequate regulatory powers in respect of municipal managers and those directly accountable to them. The Bill, furthermore, addresses key elements of the LGTAS. Due to the inherent vagueness of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (RSA 1998a) concerning the power to appoint a municipal manager or someone to act in that position, the Bill transfers this power to the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (RSA 2000), which specifies the requirements relating to the skills and expertise that municipal managers must have in order to perform the duties associated with the position. Other amendments include new provisions in the Act that will allow for the appointment of a municipal manager to lapse if a performance agreement is not signed within 60 days. Moreover, any municipal staff member who has been dismissed for misconduct may only be re-employed in a municipality after a certain period of time has elapsed, while a staff member dismissed for financial misconduct, corruption or fraud may not be re-employed in a municipality for a period of ten years. The proposed amendments reaffirm government’s commitment to strengthening the performance and accountability of municipalities. This might have an effect on decision-making, however, in that autonomy is concentrated at the national sphere of government, and one could argue that it could lead to delays in decision-making at local sphere.

The following aspects, if not adequately addressed, might also have implications for the successful implementation of the LGTAS:

- **Institutional capacity.** The high vacancy rate and inadequate on-the-job training of local-sphere employees is a concern (Mbele 2010:3).
- **Political interference.** Although the Local Government: Municipal Systems Amendment Bill (RSA 2010) prohibits party-political office-bearers from becoming municipal officials or councillors, continued political interference
will further compromise administration and service delivery. Mbele (2010:3) is of the opinion that the role definition between the mayor’s office, the speaker’s office and the municipal manager’s office should be clarified, since conflict at this level contributes to a lack of vision and role clarification.

- **Leadership challenge.** The State of Local Government in South Africa report (CoGTA, 2009b) noted that councillors in many municipalities are unable to provide effective leadership and effective oversight in the affairs of their respective municipalities (CoGTA, 2009b:10). Although the *Local Government: Municipal Systems Amendment Bill* (RSA 2010) makes provision for the requirements relating to the skills and expertise of municipal managers, the lack of both vision and adequate capacity to plan strategically, to translate strategic plans into budgets, and to manage the implementation of strategic plans in the majority of municipalities is hampering service delivery.

- **Effective communication.** According to Mbele (2010:3), the majority of municipalities in the country do not have a coherent communication strategy, such as a helpdesk through which community members can channel their grievances. In addition, the majority of the municipalities have no system in place to capture and report on municipal activities, with the result that communities feel marginalised.

In light of the above, the question remains as to whether the LGTAS is adequate to ensure that local authorities can fulfil their developmental role and to promote satisfactory service delivery. Previous interventions such as Project Consolidate and the five-year Strategic Local Government Agenda failed to improve the overall performance of all municipalities in that most municipalities continue to receive poor audit reports, thus gaining a reputation for poor service delivery, ineffectiveness, incompetence, and high levels of corruption (CoGTA 2009a:4). Therefore, it seems reasonable to conclude that the successful implementation of the LGTAS requires not only political ownership, effective management and leadership, but also commitment to turn around the financial affairs of each municipality. Attention will subsequently be focused on two case studies providing useful information on the current challenges, constraints and benefits experienced in respect of the LGTAS incorporated in municipal IDP.

**CASE OF MANGAUNG METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY**

The Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality came into effect after the 2011 elections. The former Mangaung Local Municipality developed its own tailor-made turnaround strategy at the end of 2010 that was adopted by the Manguung Metropolitan Municipality, starting with the vision of what the municipality
wants to accomplish, along with the strategies for achieving that vision. These strategies provide the approach to the turnaround effort, giving the LGTAS the following focus areas:

- Rebuilding and enhancing basic service provision and delivery;
- Ensuring sound governance and public involvement by improving the efficiency and effectiveness of operations;
- Returning the municipality to a state of financial stability;
- Ensuring local economic development; and
- Developing and refining the spatial development framework (Mangaung Local Municipality 2010b:1-2).

The two primary objectives of the Mangaung Metropolitan Turnaround Strategy are the establishment of a turnaround plan that describes the current situation, as well as the future situation and the various initiatives that the municipality seeks to implement. It outlines the cost, the expected benefits and actions needed to unblock these interventions. To ensure that the Metropolitan Municipality develop its own tailor-made turnaround strategy, certain critical priority areas – namely: service delivery, governance, labour relations, financial management, local economic development (LED), and spatial conditions – were identified and incorporated into the strategy (Mangaung Local Municipality 2010d:2).

In light of the above, the newly established Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality focuses on the decisive implementation of the programmes and projects funded by the Municipal Infrastructure Grant (MIG). The municipality’s IDP review process (Mangaung Local Municipality 2011:12-13) states that there is no need to obtain new priorities from the communities, and, therefore, the municipality will focus on the implementation, strengthening, monitoring and evaluation of reporting systems and processes. This approach has been undertaken in earnest to integrate the improved implementation of IDP, which intentionally focuses on MIG-funded programmes, the turnaround strategy and financial recovery plan. Central to the execution of the municipality’s turnaround strategy is the need for economic growth and job creation, followed by the need to maintain, upgrade and extend municipal infrastructure in order to facilitate much-needed economic development in the area of jurisdiction. These considerations have an impact on all the strategic choices and decisions to be made by the Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality (Mangaung Local Municipality 2010b:1-3; 2010c:2-3; 2010d:1-3; 2011:12-13).

Although dedicated to making a substantial effort over the next several years to turn around its financial and operational affairs so as to become financially viable, the Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality, like any other municipality in the country, faces a number of challenges in this regard – including the effective management of expenditure, anticipating and monitoring revenue, maintaining
the municipality’s reserves, and creating and adhering to future medium-term revenue expenditure framework (MTREF) multi-year budgets. From the IDP and budget consultative sessions, both the IDP Committee and the Budget Steering Committee realised that the municipality is facing serious challenges in terms of service delivery backlogs and financial resources after meeting its 2010 Soccer World Cup commitments. Moreover, the former Mangaung Local Municipality received a disclaimer of opinion audit report for the 2009/2010 and 2010/2011 financial years. Therefore, one of the most significant challenges in the Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality is to become a financially viable and well-managed municipality. However, many constraints remain, including the effective management of expenditure, anticipating and monitoring revenue, maintaining the municipality’s reserves, and creating and adhering to future MTREF multi-year budgets (Mangaung Local Municipality, 2010a:33-34; 2010b:2-3; 2010c:81-87; 2011:5-11).

In respect of operating matters, a number of areas within the municipality do not appear to have reached optimal levels. The 2009/2010 annual performance report of the former Mangaung Local Municipality (2010a:84) emphasised that the municipality’s leadership has not instituted adequate measures to prevent and detect irregular and/or unauthorised expenditure and non-compliance with legislation and regulations. Another constraint in the municipality is the high turnover of staff in key management positions, resulting in financial and risk management and internal control responsibilities not being fully met (Mangaung Local Municipality 2010a:84). There is also a lack of effective, efficient and transparent systems and internal controls regarding performance management. One could argue that the municipality’s turnaround strategy cannot be implemented successfully unless these challenges and constraints are addressed.

**CASE OF SOL PLAATJE MUNICIPALITY**

As in the case of Mangaung, the Sol Plaatje Local Municipality developed a unique MTAS for its own purposes in February 2010, which was subsequently adopted by the council and approved in April 2010. A turnaround strategy with specific pre-December 2010 targets was completed with the assistance of a support team from CoGTA. The MTAS was also integrated with IDP, the budget and SDBIP of the municipality. In addition, the relevant critical performance indicators and targets relating to the turnaround targets were included in the SDBIP. This was followed by a mid-year report that was submitted to the Provincial Department of Co-operative Governance, Human Settlements and Traditional Affairs (COGHSTA) in January 2011, indicating the performance of the first phases of the MTAS (Sol Plaatje Local Municipality 2010:3-4; 2011:3-8).
According to the Sol Plaatje Local Municipality (2010) the following shortcomings and challenges of the MTAS and IDP need attention, namely:

The municipality’s budget and SDBIP preparation is not up to standard in that unrealistic targets have been set, and these targets cannot be objectively measured.

Another weakness is that in some instances, targets were set without ensuring the availability of the necessary resources (Sol Plaatje Local Municipality 2010:6).

- The municipal budget is not sufficiently aligned to IDP as a five-year strategic plan, but instead reflects one-year appropriations.
- A high-level financial strategy and plan has not yet been developed in terms of IDP to give effect to the five-year priorities in the IDP document, with specific reference to infrastructure, refurbishment, replacement, and new productive bulk infrastructure (Sol Plaatje Local Municipality 2010:6).
- In general, effective project management needs attention in that the municipality experiences delays in terms of project preparation, planning, implementation and management, as well as the monitoring of and reporting on capital projects (Sol Plaatje Local Municipality 2010:20-21).

The implementation success factors of the MTAS depend on political ownership and competent staff at different levels, as well as effective and efficient financial management and resource allocation within the municipality (Sol Plaatje Local Municipality, 2011:7). One could argue that the Sol Plaatje MTAS will have serious financial implications unless these weaknesses and challenges are addressed.

By monitoring, evaluating, measuring, reviewing and reporting on the performance of the MTAS and IDP, the Sol Plaatje Local Municipality can take positive steps towards the following:

- Making immediate and appropriate changes in the prioritised delivery process, and adjusting resources accordingly;
- Identifying and overcoming major or systematic blockages in the delivery process; and
- Guiding future planning on development objectives and resource use (Sol Plaatje Local Municipality 2010:3-4).

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The above discussion emphasises the fact that the LGTAS was introduced in 2009 to ensure that all municipalities and their communities embark upon a concentrated effort to address the root causes of the problems undermining
the country’s municipalities, to restore good performance and effective service delivery, and to improve the administrative and financial performance of all municipalities. It has also been mentioned that CoGTA recognises that a “one size fits all” approach is not realistic when it comes to ensuring that all municipalities fulfil their developmental role and promoting satisfactory service delivery. One of the benefits is that each municipality has to develop and incorporate its own tailor-made MTAS into their municipal IDP, as well as in the budgeting, monitoring, evaluation and reporting processes. Challenges such as the high vacancy rate and inadequate on-the-job training of local-sphere employees need urgent attention. Furthermore, the role definition between the mayor’s office, the speaker’s office and the municipal manager’s office should be clarified. There is also a need to establish effective communication strategies such as a helpdesk for communities to channel their grievances. Municipalities should also ensure that the MTAS, IDP, budget, SDBIP and performance management systems are aligned in order to measure performance effectively.

The case of the Mangaung Municipality provided useful information concerning the current challenges and constraints being experienced in terms of the MTAS and IDP. Challenges such as the high turnover rate of staff in key management positions within the municipality must be addressed, since they result in failure to fully meet all financial and risk management and internal control responsibilities. Another serious concern is that the former municipal leadership failed to ensure the implementation of adequate measures to prevent and detect irregular and/or unauthorised expenditure and non-compliance with legislation and regulations. The Sol Plaatje Local Municipality case study, on the other hand, revealed that preparation in terms of the budget and SDBIP is not up to standard due to the setting of unrealistic targets. Another constraint within the Sol Plaatje Local Municipality is that the municipal budget is not sufficiently well aligned to IDP, in that the budget is a five-year strategic plan that nevertheless reflects one-year appropriations. The need for a financial strategy and plan is also emphasised to give effect to the five-year priorities within the Sol Plaatje Local Municipality’s IDP, with specific reference to infrastructure, refurbishment, replacement, and new productive bulk infrastructure. The challenge is to take the aspirations as set out in the IDP and MTAS and make them a reality.

The majority of the immediate implementation priorities of the LGTAS prior to the 2011 municipal elections were achieved by the Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality and the Sol Plaatje Local Municipality. However, one of the immediate implementation priorities remains a challenge that needs urgent attention namely the promotion of a transparent municipal supply chain management system. This article further argues that the successful implementation of the MTAS and the medium term LGTAS priorities beyond the 2011 elections requires not only political ownership, effective management and
leadership, but also a sense of commitment to the process of turning around the financial, management and service delivery affairs of each municipality. Future research might benefit from the collection and aggregation of data from multiple municipalities in order to assess the impact of the LGTAS on municipal financial affairs and service delivery.

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**AUTHORS’ CONTACT DETAILS**

Prof Tryna van Niekerk  
Central University of Technology  
Tel: 051 507 3338 (W)  
Mobile: 082 968 3346  
E-mail: edwardst@cut.ac.za
The challenges of potable water service delivery system in the City of Kwekwe, Zimbabwe

W Mupindu  
Faculty of Management and Commerce  
University of Fort Hare

R D Thakhathi  
Faculty of Management and Commerce  
University of Fort Hare  
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ABSTRACT

The study is premised on a conceptual analysis of literature on potable water service delivery system in Zimbabwe focusing on three residential areas of Kwekwe City, namely Amaveni, Mbizo and Msasa Park. The study targeted selected low cost, medium cost and high cost residential areas in Kwekwe urban. The study addressed inadequate household water service delivery in the city of Kwekwe, Zimbabwe, where, since 2008, residents have experienced unreliable domestic water supply. The study employed interviews, questionnaires, observations and document analysis to establish reasons for the sub-standard service being rendered and found that a combination of general population increase, old reticulation water infrastructure, lack of expertise, electricity deficiency, lack of foreign currency and insufficient local funding play a role. The study tries to present a comprehensive analysis of the factors above in order to uncover possible solutions. The value of this analysis is to provide a detailed case study that could assist in the development of a household water service delivery policy in Zimbabwe. It contributes to the design and application within the Kwekwe and other municipalities of new strategies for supplying adequate domestic water services and to add to the currently limited body of knowledge related specifically to household water services for the urban poor in Zimbabwe and more widely in the region.
INTRODUCTION

The provision of adequate access to household water supply is essential as part of the effort to achieve Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in southern Africa. Most urban households in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries find it difficult to access domestic water and Zimbabwe is no exception. Recognition of consumers’ water rights requires strengthening the country’s capacity to improve domestic water supply, as water service delivery failures at the municipal level are widespread (SADC Treaty and Protocols 2010:3). Potable water service delivery problems throughout southern Africa are on the increase (Southern African Development Community 2001). They range from serious to irritating for consumers. This study addressed the domestic water problem in expanding urban areas of the SADC countries and elsewhere, where the need has been rising drastically: “The household water consumption in the cities doubles every twenty years, at international level, which is more than double the rate of human population growth” (Barlow 2001:1).

The country’s municipalities are characterised by inconsistent domestic water service delivery system as evidenced by bursting water pipes, breakdown of pumping equipment and unreported water cuts. The problem is exacerbated when domestic water supply is compromised among poor people because they do not have the capacity to sink boreholes as an alternative source of water. Most of the poor in Zimbabwe do not receive any form of subsidy from the local government and they live below the datum line of poverty, which is currently pegged at earnings of US$1 per person per day (Beckwith 1995). Furthermore, insufficient domestic water supply to the poor in urban areas illustrates the persistence of social disparity in post-colonial SADC countries (Chipembere 1984:13).

Potential household water service delivery problems are often not recognized, or even ignored, until a breakdown occurs, by which time it is costly to rectify. Where the municipal authorities lack funds or skills to address service delivery problems, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), private business and local government are expected to intervene. The case study of three suburbs in Kwekwe Municipality, outlines ways in which different kinds of support might be effective, which can serve as indicators to donors, NGOs, and local authorities of the kind of targeted assistance that would successfully help to rectify the household water service delivery problems and assist in developing the interventions to address those weaknesses in the system that are causing the problem.

The case study explored the nature of the service delivery problems in Kwekwe Municipality, analysed the ways in which delivery of water service to the poor communities is conducted and outlined the elements that caused
service delivery disruptions. The researchers discovered several weaknesses in the systems that are a reflection of the type of management that manages the municipality. The analysis enabled researchers to create a checklist of aspects concerning service delivery that can help in the assessment of the causes of any particular breakdown in delivery of essential services. The checklist might assist in checking a service delivery problem, diagnosis and finding strategies for resolving the problem. This study confirmed that there is a need to find a way to monitor a system for potential weaknesses and also a way to diagnose a problem so as to design an effective and focused set of solutions. Kwekwe Municipality needs to commit itself to improving the current situation by involving the community and constructing more potable water storage facilities in place.

GLOBAL APPROACH TO SERVICE DELIVERY

Water for household use is one of humankind’s most valuable resources, yet household water shortages are widespread. Yaron (2000:7) stated that “Escalating demand, changes in consumption patterns, and an insufficient infrastructure all appear to be leading us towards a global water crisis”, and Barrett and Jaichand (2007:543) added, seven years later, that “one billion people worldwide have no access to adequate household water supply”. Furthermore, water for domestic use constitutes a very small percentage of approximately one percent. Clarke (1991:97) “stated that seventy five percent of the Earth’s surface is covered in water, while ninety eight percent thereof is undrinkable sea water; only one percent constitutes clean water, which is locked in the polar caps and in glaciers”. However, not all clean water is directed for domestic use.

Household water is fundamental for the development of nations. There is need for a comprehensive international strategy to address the need for an equitable, sustainable and cost-effective way to use domestic water resources. Onimode, Agubuzu and Adedeji (2004:44) “assert that clean water for domestic use is an important national resource which is taken very lightly in government circles”. Hence, there is a serious need to address the challenges of domestic water service delivery systems to the low-income groups in urban environments.

The researchers proceed from the premise that a regular supply of water for domestic use is probably the most important service in urban communities. It is perceived that many consumers in Africa have limited access to adequate domestic water to meet their most basic needs such as drinking, cooking and washing. This study attempted to find strategic ways of improving the availability of household water service delivery to poor urban communities in Africa cascading down to SADC countries. “Access to clean water for domestic
use is a human right, which is guaranteed by international conventions ratified by almost all the countries in the world and in Gaza, 150 000 Palestinians have no access to tap water” (Frederisken 2003:598).

There is a perceived critical crisis of clean domestic water throughout the world. According to Onimode, Agubuzu and Adedeji (2004:165), “providing household water in adequate quantity and quality at the right time and place has been a constant endeavor of all civilizations”. No other natural resource has had such an overpowering influence on human history. The debate about a household water services in urban areas within SADC countries is inadequate to service the consumers due to an increase in human population.

“Based on population projections alone, some 33 countries are expected to have chronic shortages of domestic water by 2025” (Yaron 2000:8). Therefore, the demands on water for household use appear to continue growing due to population growth. “Worldwide the amount of water being consumed has exceeded the annual level of renewal, creating a non-sustainable situation” (Onimode, Agubuzu and Adedeji 2004:46). An adequate supply of household water is a perceived prerequisite for significant socio-economic development in the cities.

It is perceived that the increase in population challenges household water services. “The world’s population is expected to grow from six billion to eight billion in 2050” (Cohen 2000:1172).

“By 2025 the demand for clean household water worldwide is expected to rise to 56 percent more than the amount that is currently available” (United Nations cited in Wateraid 2002:37). This challenge affects the ubiquitous population globally. Numerous scholars warn that future wars will be fought over water and not land. If this predicament is not solved with vigilance it can cause the war outbreaks throughout the world. The scarcity of water, for domestic use may cause disputes amongst countries sharing common water tables. Barlow (2001:1) postulates that “The wars of the next century will be about water”. Thus, water has become one of the central testing grounds for the execution of universal and national policies.

According to Narsiah (2008:1), the household water issue developed into a world hegemonic discourse during the 1990s. “The escalating ‘water wars’ over ownership and control of water is just one of the several unexpected tracks down which a world order has shunted millennial urbanization” Bosman (2005:2). The scarcity of clean domestic water is increasing globally due to the weakness of the post-independence policy frameworks in most developing states. More than one third of the world’s population, roughly 2.4 billion people live in water stressed countries and by 2025 the number is expected to rise to two thirds (Morrison, Morikawa, Murphy and Schutle 2009:5). African states are no exception on this challenge.
HOUSEHOLD WATER SERVICE DELIVERY IN AFRICA

In Africa, household water service delivery systems face challenges of insufficient staffing and resource allocation (World Health Organization 2003:140). It is perceived that the needs of consumers are not accommodated and yet access to household water is a human right (Biswa, Cruise, Singh, Kapoor, Yaghchi, and Harcourt 2008:1). According to Bayliss (2002:5) “Sub-Saharan African (SSA) governments have announced plans to concentrate on the water service delivery system”. The discourses on water service delivery systems are currently centered on its efficacy since water has no substitutes. Most municipalities in the developing countries are failing to deliver water services to the consumers for a variety of reasons, and water scarcity in urban areas of southern African countries is of particular concern (Khatri and Vairavamoorthy 2007:1). Zimbabwe offers graphic examples of the challenges of domestic water service delivery in its cities.

DOMESTIC WATER SUPPLY IN ZIMBABWE – CITY OF KWEKWE

The major challenge facing Zimbabwean municipalities is the poor service delivery due to small revenue base and acute shortage of skilled staff particularly in its underprivileged cities. The study is focused on the capacity to provide household water as an essential service as few studies have placed the poor at the centre of household water service delivery systems in SADC countries including Zimbabwe. A gap in understanding the issues at the grassroots level is evident. It is this existing dearth in current literature on clean domestic water service delivery in SADC countries including Zimbabwe that this study also addressed (Stoneman 1981; Peel and Ranger 1983; Mandaza 1996; Herbst 1990; Gibbon 1996; Makumbe 1996; Mararike 1999; Bond and Manyanga 2002; Mupindu 2010).

Most municipalities in Zimbabwe are characterised by inadequate household water service delivery (Chinhanga 2010:130). This study focused on the solutions to address such inadequacy. It aggregates, summarises and presents the data collected on the household water service delivery system in Kwekwe Municipality as evidence representing deficiencies in household water supply more widely in SADC countries. Studies have also shown that many countries have a number of aquifers from which water is abstracted for various purposes in several states. The SADC Water Sector therefore acknowledges that all member States are at different levels in terms of management and development systems used in managing ground water resources (SADC 2001).
The study area is located in the Midlands Province of Zimbabwe, covering a 12km stretch of Kwekwe River. It is roughly equidistant from Harare to the northeast and Bulawayo to the southwest. Kwekwe is 62 km from the Provincial city of Gweru and is also 213 km south-west of Harare, the capital city of Zimbabwe as indicated in figure 1 below. “The city lies 18° 92’ S, 29° 81’ E and 1 200m above sea level” (Chinhanga 2010:130). Kwekwe Municipality receives mean annual rainfall of between 600 and 699mm (Chenje 2000). Kwekwe Municipality, located in the city of Kwekwe is the supplier of household water to all suburbs in the city. It is situated on Zimbabwe’s Highveld at an altitude of 1220m. It is located in the tropics but its high altitude modifies this to a warm temperature climate. The average annual temperature is 19°C. The climate is hot and wet during the summer rainy season from mid November to mid March, with cool dry weather from May to mid August in the winter season, and warm dry weather from August to mid November.

Figure 1: Map of Zimbabwe (Chinhanga 2010)

The boundaries and names shown and the designations used on this map do not imply official endorsement or acceptance by the United Nations.

Map No. 4210 Rev.1 United Nations
January 2004
Department of Peacekeeping Operations
Cartographic Section

Kwekwe River is a perennial river originating from Whitewaters Dam in Chiwundura and flows through the city of Kwekwe. It stretches for about 78km into Sebakwe River which connects into Munyati River. Munyati River flows into Lake Kariba which subsequently drains into Zambezi River. The geology of the catchment is mainly limestone, basaltic, peridotitic, metavolcanics and metasediments (Cheshire, Leach, and Milner 1980). Kwekwe River serves not only as one of the drainage for Midlands region, but also provides water for domestic and industrial use, irrigation and a conduit for effluent disposal in Kwekwe city. The preliminary results of the 2002 census indicated that the population of Kwekwe was around 93,608 (Central Statistics Office 2002:22).

Kwekwe Municipality draws raw water from Sebakwe Dam through buying it from Zimbabwe National Water Authority (ZINWA). The household water services in Kwekwe have deteriorated to alarming levels as evidenced by erratic water cuts. Amaveni and Mbizo are high-density suburbs in Kwekwe, Zimbabwe, 5 kilometers on west of the city centre. Amaveni is located near the low density suburb of Fichlea and was built in the mid-1950s to house cheap labour for the big gold mines such as Globe and Phoenix. Residents of Amaveni and Mbizo spend 5 to 14 days without consistent water supply. The main issues are insufficient pumping equipment, inadequate pumping hours due to protracted power outages, and inadequate coverage due to limited distribution system. Msasa Park and New Town are among the wealthier suburbs. The houses in these two area are significantly larger than most and the residents have the capacity to alternative underground borehole water.

The undertaking of the Zimbabwean government to deliver quality services to the public manifested itself in numerous policy documents, including those designed to improve household water service delivery for all cities in Zimbabwe. These include the Water Act of 1998, Statutory Instrument Number 242 of 2000, Statutory Instrument Number 243 of 2000 and Statutory Instrument Number 219 of 2000 (Republic of Zimbabwe 1996; Republic of Zimbabwe 1998; Republic of Zimbabwe 2002). Emphasis was placed on meeting the household water service delivery needs of all the citizens by reducing unnecessary government consumption and releasing resources for productive investment and the redirection to areas where the greatest need exists. This meant that government institutions had to be re-orientated to optimise access to their services by all citizens, within the context of fiscal constraints and the fulfillment of competing needs (Wiseman 2006:96). It meant that the government had to revamp its expenditure management system and place emphasis on the delivery of services with the available funds. However, the present state of growth and development in Zimbabwe seems to demonstrate an apparent lack of progress in terms of household water service delivery (Molele and Ncana 2010: 4; Public Service Commission 2010).
METHODOLOGY

The study adopted the case study strategy of inquiry. Data were collected from an assortment of sources to describe the phenomenon and to draw an experience from the perspectives of the respondents residing in Kwekwe Municipality. The study used three focus group interviews, 110 questionnaires, observations and documentary analyses during the data collection process. Questionnaires were completed by 110 purposively selected residents of Amaveni, Mbizo, Msasa Park and New Town areas plus 10 purposively selected water experts from Kwekwe Municipality. The questionnaire contained both close ended and open ended questions in order to solicit information. The questionnaires were distributed to the relevant respondents and were collected the same day. They aimed to elicit perceptions on the problem of water shortage in Kwekwe Municipality as well as to determine the extent of the problem. The focus group interviews were carried out with the key informants to explore the ecological impact of household water shortages and to gather suggestions as well as strategies for correcting the situation. This assisted the researchers to access actual information concerning household water challenges at first hand direct from the affected residents of Kwekwe Municipality. Observations and document analysis were used to determine the extent of the problem then substantiated with information obtained through questionnaires and focus group interviews.

Primary data were collected from a sample population of water experts including the residents of Amaveni and Mbizo areas because these were the most affected consumers and that is where the poor reside. Secondary data were also gathered from University of Fort Hare library, Kwekwe Municipal Library, internet, Kwekwe Municipality policy documents and documents from the Government of Zimbabwe and the Zimbabwe National Water Authority as well as analysis of related official reports and records from Kwekwe Municipality and ZINWA offices. These were complemented by critical examination of relevant scientific literature.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

An outline of the problem

From the focus group interviews conducted with water experts, it was found that challenges of household water service delivery system in Kwekwe Municipality have existed since 2008. Kwekwe Municipality has generally been experiencing the problem of erratic domestic water services. According to Mupindu
(2010:19), “Most urban areas in Zimbabwe are characterised by an inconsistent domestic water service delivery system as evidenced by the bursting of water pipes and unreported water cuts”. The unavailability of household water has reached catastrophic magnitude and the residents of Kwekwe Municipality have a routine of receiving water during late hours in the evening and very early in the morning. The results presented in this study made it possible to confirm representation of facts over observed trends in relation to the water service delivery system in Kwekwe Municipality.

The role of the consumer and reliability of domestic water services in Kwekwe Municipality

Consumers play an important role in the water service delivery because it is their responsibility to pay the water tariffs, report the bursting pipes or water leakages and to save water because water is life. The consumers were not satisfied with the domestic water services from Kwekwe Municipality. The municipality is affected by the challenge of urban poverty due to the economic crisis in the country. According to the first focus group interview, there is a significant difference between those who are not satisfied (79%) and those who are satisfied (21%). This indicates that the ability of Kwekwe Municipality to provide clean household water service delivery to its residents is below average which is a great challenge.

During the second focus group interview respondents indicated that, “Household water services are not reliable because we spend 5 to 14 days without regular supply of water in Kwekwe Municipality”. This confirms that the residents spend more days without household water and this may expose them to diseases such as cholera and typhoid. Further, reliability depends on the location of the suburbs since other areas have a constant water problem due to the negligence of the water authorities. The unreliability of the domestic water service delivery system could be a result of high demand which is caused by the increase in population.

The study indicated that water supply in Kwekwe Municipality is not reliable due to bursting pipes or water rationing. The third focus group interview respondents indicated that 75% experienced unexpected water cuts. This confirmed that most of the residents of Kwekwe Municipality suffer the challenge of erratic water cuts ranging from 5 days to 14 days without water.

The impact of power cuts and ageing pipes

The study found out that the water cuts often resulted from power cuts since the water supply in Kwekwe Municipality relies on the Zimbabwe Electricity
Supply Authority (ZESA) input. Electricity deficiency can lead to unplanned water interruptions. Further, the ageing pipes and population growth affect the pressure of water in Amaveni area. The pipe leakages also promoted unplanned water cuts. Kwekwe Municipality is not able to provide services owing to ageing pumps and motors. According to Mangizvo and Kapungu (2010:255) most urban areas in Zimbabwe have obsolete infrastructure.

**Notices concerning disruptions of water services**

The researchers observed that notices concerning disruptions of water services were only given to the residents of low density suburbs such as Msasa Park, Golden Acres and Chicago where the upper social class reside. This is a great challenge to the poor residents in low cost areas like Amaveni and Mbizo suburbs. The researchers raised this issue with the Kwekwe Department of Works Water Experts management and they promised to address the challenge. During the second focus group interview, the residents of Amaveni high-density residential area confirmed that they received notices through schools since the students could carry the messages home.

**Water purification chemicals scarcity**

Kwekwe Municipality has a problem of acquiring chemicals to purify household water since it relied on Aluminium Sulphate from the Zimbabwe Phosphate Company (ZIMPHOS) and any disruptions at ZIMPHOS affected water production in the Kwekwe Municipality. During focus group interviews, water experts confirmed that Kwekwe Municipality is having difficulty in acquiring the water purification chemicals such as chlorine due to urban poverty and the economic crisis. They access dirty water as indicated by some muddy and solid particles from the raw taped household water. Approximately 80% of the questionnaire respondents acknowledged that Kwekwe Municipality was failing to provide clean household water to the consumers (Mupindu 2010). During the fourth focus group interview water experts stated that, “Between 2008 and 2009 the consumers got raw water because the Municipality did not have money to purchase water purification chemicals”.

**Debate of disconnecting water services**

During the focus group interview with water experts, 69% of the respondents indicated that disconnecting water services to those in arrears is not a solution. Other water experts acknowledged that it is a solution because some residents only respond to disciplinary measures. This diversity caused a great debate
because closing water supplies does not make the water bills more affordable. However, others feel that it is a solution to disconnect water services to the residents in arrears because the Kwekwe Municipality needs money to improve the services to its customers.

**The problem of poverty among consumers**

The problem was the introduction of foreign currency and the backdating of the arrears quoted in the Zimbabwean dollar which consumers are now expected to pay in foreign currency. Some consumers earn around hundred dollars per month which is below the poverty datum line. The study found out that the water tariffs for the residents of Kwekwe Municipality are too high for the poor to afford to pay them. Therefore, Kwekwe Municipality was finding it challenging to provide constant domestic water services to its residents due to urban poverty.

**Water experts biased towards Kwekwe municipality**

During focus group interview, the water experts acknowledged that Kwekwe Municipality has the ability to provide water for domestic use to its residents. One of the respondents indicated that, “Kwekwe was rated the best provider of clean water among the local authorities in the country under this economic crisis”. The interpretation of data above could be that the water experts defended their system in order to preserve their reputation. They tried their best to support their system through stating that, Kwekwe Municipality have enough raw water from Sebakwe dam and water treatment capacity at the Dutchman’s Pool treatment plant. However, this contradicts the service delivery to the consumers since the residents of Kwekwe Municipality experience erratic and uninformed water cuts.

**Relationship between ZINWA and Kwekwe municipality**

The Municipality of Kwekwe draws raw water from Sebakwe Dam which falls under ZINWA. ZINWA is responsible for supplying raw water to the municipalities in Zimbabwe. This could be interpreted as a statement that ZINWA owns the source of water particularly the dams and rivers. During the fourth focus group interview the water experts stated that, “ZINWA owns all the water under the ground, on the earth’s surface”. It is the board responsible for and in charge of all the raw water of which the municipalities cannot accessed free of charge. The Kwekwe Municipality buys raw water from ZINWA and then sells it to the consumers after treatment.
Thus, water is not freely accessed from the source and does not become free after treatment. The treatment and supply of water to the households is the responsibility of the municipalities which are currently affected by the economic crisis. The municipality of Kwekwe in particular owes ZINWA millions of dollars. According to Mangizvo (2009:392) lack of funds, inflation and inept operations of the Zimbabwe Water Authority worsened the situation. However, the municipality of Kwekwe should initiate some strategy to source for funds from various donors in order to address this challenge.

**Source of funds on water service delivery system in Kwekwe Municipality**

The municipality of Kwekwe finds it challenging to provide reliable water supply to its residents due to poor funding. According to figure 1 above, 90% of the respondents indicated that Kwekwe Municipality raised funds through collecting water tariffs from consumers. However, 5% of the respondents

**Figure 2: Distribution by the initiative to raise funds**

![Pie chart showing distribution of source of funds]

Source: Mupindu 2010:257
also acknowledged that the municipality accesses donations from other organisations. The remaining 5% of the respondents confirmed that fundraising was another initiative used by Kwekwe Municipality to raise funds. The people’s perceptions on sourcing funds for household water service delivery system were important because Kwekwe Municipality must have a proper system of funding in this field.

The data presented above indicate that Kwekwe Municipality relies much on the water tariffs paid by the consumers to fund the water services. Therefore, if the consumers are in arrears the municipality will not be sustainable to develop the household water services. This makes it difficult to pay its workers, purchase water purifying chemicals and to maintain the water reticulation infrastructure system. This is quite a challenge. Very little money is raised through sourcing donations and fundraising activities. This situation highlights that there is something wrong with the financial management of Kwekwe Municipality.

From a legal perspective, 70 % of the money from the rates should be used for service provision and 30 percent for administration (Government of Zimbabwe 1996). It is perceived that, the local authorities are spending the bulk of the money on salaries, with little left for service delivery. Therefore the challenge of water service delivery system in the city of Kwekwe is related to improper use of funds within Kwekwe Municipality. The study can therefore conclude that Kwekwe Municipality fails to deliver satisfactory domestic water services due to urban poverty. Water shortages have impacted on the capacity of households to meet their day-to-day needs as water is never sufficient in quantity for all the household’s uses (Mangizvo 2011:118).

**The challenge concerning paying water tariffs**

Further, the residents of Kwekwe Municipality are finding it challenging to pay water bills because of poverty and the country’s ongoing economic crisis. Water experts indicated that, “Many residents of Kwekwe are failing to pay their monthly water bills regularly because of the economic situation affecting the country”. The interpretation of the above data could be that the consumers are economically affected by urban poverty to such an extent that they cannot afford to honour their debts.

The general consensus of the water experts stated that: “Household water costs money and it has to be paid for. However, closing the water system is the last resort after all other variables have failed”. The interpretation of the data above could be that the water experts consider the consumers to some extent. They consider disconnecting the water to those in arrears as the last resort. It is a process from the warnings and reminders. Therefore, consumers have to settle their debts within a stipulated time frame.
Incorrect meter readings on monthly invoices

Approximately, 80% of the questionnaire respondents indicated that the readings on the water meters were not agreeing with monthly invoices. Kwekwe Municipality is affected by urban poverty such that it cannot afford to employ enough manpower to get the correct meter readings. One respondent acknowledged that, “We are not able to visit every household using a bicycle. At times we end up estimating the figures due to severe shortage of manpower and transport”.

Further, some water meters are malfunctioned and others have out-lived their design life span. Thus most of the water meters are unreliable to give the accurate measurements. The study also found that the issue of human error cannot be ruled out. Therefore, the errors from the meter readings and water bills invoices could be another reason why people are not paying the water bills.

Problem of bursting water pipes

The problem of poor water service delivery in Kwekwe Municipality is also caused by the bursting pipes due to high pressure from water works. These bursting pipes malfunctioned for long periods of time without being repaired. During the focus group interview one respondent stated that, “There had been a breakdown of the service especially in 2006 to 2008 because of the economic situation which prevailed during this period”. All these conflicting debates indicate that Kwekwe Municipality needs to improve its financial capacity in order to upgrade the water reticulation system in Amaveni area. Further, the business community should assist in the fight against urban poverty because it created part of its wealth from the consumers in the city of Kwekwe and it is fair for the business fraternity to plough back into the city as part of a social responsibility (Mupindu 2010:267).

The general interpretation of the responses above is that urban poverty reduction in Kwekwe Municipality requires team work between various stakeholders. These include the government of Zimbabwe, NGOs, Business Community and Kwekwe Municipality. Nevertheless, most respondents were not clear about how these stakeholders could work together harmoniously, considering that they have different goals to meet. Poverty reduction is a community problem not an individual problem.

What is required is to establish how these organisations can work together considering the fact that business is capitalistic and capitalism is about profit making and not urban poverty reduction. The state may not see poverty reduction as its role but as that of the poor municipalities themselves with the help of the business sector.
On the other hand, the poor municipalities may look up to both the government and other private sectors for support. These contesting views further complicate the issue of urban poverty reduction in the area under study. This study encourages further research into the specific roles of the state concerning poverty reduction. The above idea shows that the city of Kwekwe community has a section that is poor and unproductive. The old and the weak, the unemployed, those with severe physical illnesses and the orphaned minors constitute this sub-community of the poor in the city of Kwekwe. Perhaps, this is a group that deserves social welfare grants for the purposes of meeting their basic needs including clean household water service delivery.

Kwekwe Municipality has the potential to provide clean water for domestic use to its consumers because it was once rated the best in the previous years. During focus group interview one water expert respondent had the following to share, “Yes, we have the capacity to produce 53 to 90 mega liters of water per day. We had a gathering of six ministers here in Kwekwe in 2000 and we were endorsed as a city which supplies the cleanest water throughout the country”. The interpretation of the above ideas could be that the respondents based their arguments on the previous years when the country was not suffering from the economic crisis. The fact that the municipality was recognised as the city supplying the cleanest water in 2006 is valid and it shows that the municipality has the potential to do even better. However, this may not be the case during this current period characterised by urban poverty and economic crisis.

The relationship of Kwekwe Municipality and ZESA

The people’s perception about the relationship between Kwekwe Municipality and the Zimbabwe Electricity Supply Authority (ZESA) towards water service delivery is important because electricity failure also affects the production of clean household water. According to the ZESA Act of 2002, ZESA is an independent parastatal. However, the Zimbabwe Urban Councils Act (Chapter 29:15) states that the municipality gets electricity from ZESA at a reasonable fee. The Kwekwe Municipality uses the energy from ZESA to pump water for household use. During focus group interview, the respondents believed that if ZESA fails to provide electricity to Kwekwe Municipality it may not be able to offer household water service delivery to the consumers. The interpretation of the above opinion is that the respondents are aware that Kwekwe Municipality depends upon ZESA for the water reticulation process to be complete.

This study strove to unpack the capacity of Kwekwe Municipality to deliver household clean water services to the consumers. It is characterised by its own challenges of failing to provide satisfactory household water services to consumers. More than 70% of the respondents indicated that Kwekwe
Municipality was also greatly affected by the frequent power cuts from the Zimbabwe Electricity Supply Authority (ZESA). Each time ZINWA lost power the production of water was reduced in Kwekwe. If Kwekwe Municipality lost power for 30 minutes it would take up to 3 hours to get back to full production. This challenge ends up affecting the production of water to the residents including those residing in Amaveni area.

**CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This study strives in formulating the trajectories of comprehensive solutions of improving water service delivery system in Zimbabwe focusing on Kwekwe Municipality. This study presented, analysed and interpreted data that was collected from the field through the use of questionnaires and interviews. Data presentation, analysis and interpretation were done with respect to the capacity of Kwekwe Municipality in offering reliable household water to its residents. Generally, the findings confirmed this paper’s claim that reducing urban poverty is the panacea to the best practice of a household water service delivery system in Kwekwe Municipality. The respondents felt that the challenges of household water service delivery system would be overcome if the urban residents, government, NGOs, industry and commerce participated in the agro-based initiatives. The other factor that emerged is that of forming associations so that urban residents in the city of Kwekwe share the benefits of a common purpose and action.

The authors recommend attention to a set of instructions. The municipality of Kwekwe must carry out constant meetings with the Kwekwe Residents Association and identify the areas deserving attention in the household water service delivery. Kwekwe Municipality can improve its water service delivery system through constant communication with ZESA concerning the dates of the power cuts. The Zimbabwe Electricity Supply Authority load shedding can be addressed through constructing big reservoirs with the capacity to store water for at least 4 days. Kwekwe municipality must source funds from International Donors through the government of Zimbabwe for constructing different water reservoirs for the residential and business community, as well as installing automatic generators to supply energy to the water pump during load shedding.

It is recommended that Kwekwe Municipality should renovate the old pipe system to reduce the chances of water leakages. The meter readings should be improved through motivating Kwekwe Municipality management to increase the number of qualified and well trained manpower. Further, Kwekwe Municipality should network with other municipalities in order to access assistance in the form of donations from NGOs and the international business community.
However, the residents of Kwekwe need civic education concerning the procedure to advise the water authority of any water leakage in the area. A tool through which this can be achieved is training (Kroukamp 2011:24). The training programmes in public administration and management should improve the challenges regarding bridging the gap between theory and practice. The consumers can be informed about water rationing programmes through notices in order to prepare for the possible water shortage. The responsible water experts should distribute water invoices with the correct meter readings.

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**AUTHOR’S CONTACT DETAILS**

Dr Wiseman Mupindu
University of Fort Hare
Faculty of Management and Commerce
Department of Public Administration
Private Bag X1314
Alice
5700
Cell: 079 242 4606
Fax: +27 40 602 2514
E-mail: wisepindu@yahoo.co.uk

Prof Reckson Dovhani Thakhathi
University of Fort Hare
Faculty of Management and Commerce
Department of Public Administration
Private Bag X1314
Alice
5700
Cell: 079 516 5999
E-mail: rthakhathi@ufh.ac.za
An empirical assessment of the quality of health care at Dora Nginza Hospital in Port Elizabeth

W W Manona
Department of Political and Governmental Studies
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University

X N Gqirana
South African Social Security Agency (SASSA)
East London
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ABSTRACT

The study investigated and analysed factors impacting on health service delivery to determine their relative influence on the provision of efficient and effective quality health care to the consumers of this service. The aim of the study was to provide an understanding into inherent problems in the health sector that impede the delivery of quality health care. The field research involved the gathering of empirical data at Dora Nginza Hospital in the Province of the Eastern Cape of South Africa. Only Professional (registered) Nurses, Nursing Management, patients and their relatives were included in the study. The variables on health service delivery that were analysed included the attitudes of health practitioners, provision of food, provision of blankets, response time, consultation time, porter services, passion for the nursing profession, access to resources, safety and security, grievance procedure, workload and absenteeism, as well as support services for health personnel. The main findings of this study revealed that the level of safety and security at the hospital appeared to be ineffective. Moreover, absenteeism and excessive workload adversely affected the rendering of quality health care. The empirical findings of the study also revealed that the lack of support service for health practitioners and access to resources, particularly, financial resources had a negative
INTRODUCTION

Health is a complete state of physical, mental, and social well-being of an individual (Taylor 2009:3). When there is an illness or disabling disorder in a family, it impacts on the lives of all family members. Hence, it is the responsibility of health care practitioners to focus not only on the affected patient, but also on the needs of all family members. The failure to address family needs almost invariably limits the effectiveness of health care interventions (Ross and Deverell 2010:17).

Ross and Deverell (2010:17) point out that health care practitioners need to be as skilled in working with and supporting patients when applying the assessment, therapy or treatment techniques for which they have been trained. Furthermore, in order to be an effective practitioner, it is not enough simply to have good intentions, or to be able to empathise with persons and families challenged by illness or disability. Practitioners also need to understand how a chronic condition or disability is perceived by clients and their families from different cultural groups. Therefore, practitioners need to consult with various groups so that they understand how different groups use their own capacities and coping strategies under extremely stressful circumstances.

Van Rensburg (2004:1) views health service as an institution of health service delivery to promote, protect, or restore the health of people and population. Arguing along similar lines, Muller (1996:11) identifies that nursing is viewed as a service-oriented calling, the goal being to facilitate wholeness in the form of physical, mental (soul), and spiritual health. Moreover, Muller (1996:12) finds that nursing is regarded as a goal-directed service, which is directed towards assisting the patient, family, and community to promote, maintain, and restore health. A large population level of health and a person’s risk of disease and death are largely determined by the society in which he or she lives, as well as
by the type and quality of health care available in the country (Van Rensburg and Mans1987:1).

Health services are divided into two categories, namely, private and public sectors. The health system in South Africa consists of large public sector and a smaller private sector. The private sector runs largely on commercial lines and caters for middle- and high-income earners who tend to be members of medical aid schemes, which is 20% of the population of people living in South Africa (South African Information 2006:1). As public health institutions are under pressure to deliver services to about 80% of the population, this result in resource constraints and an overburdened public health care. It must be noted that the demands being made on public health institutions are likely to increase in the future. For example, the constitutional right of every person to have access to health care is increasingly becoming an accepted doctrine. This is manifested by the growing numbers of the previously disadvantaged section of the population of South Africa, particularly pregnant mothers, the unemployed, and children under six years of age being allowed to benefit from free medical treatment according to government legislation (Manona 2000:2).

According to section 27 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, everyone has the right to access health care service, including reproductive health care and no one can be refused emergency medical treatment. The Constitution compels the State to take reasonable legislative and other measures within its available resources to achieve the progressive realisation of each of those rights, hence the government in South Africa is faced with restructuring the health system (Cullian 2006:3).

To bridge the past inequalities gap, the government in South Africa is embarking on initiatives such as the Hospital Revitalisation Programme, promoting quality health care, and upgrading various components in the health care system. The Hospital Revitalisation Programme is projected to take 20 years (Mbendi 2004:1), and entails improving the conditions of hospitals, including equipment and management, as well as rationalising highly-skilled services. The purpose of the Hospital Revitalisation Programme is to provide funding to enable provinces to plan, manage, modernise, rationalise, and transform the infrastructure, health technology as well as the monitoring and evaluation of hospitals to bring them in line with national objectives. However, despite these initiatives that seek to improve the quality of health service delivery in public health institutions, there are challenges that impede the rendering of good quality health care at Dora Nginza Hospital. As a result of these challenges, this investigation intends to identify and determine the impact of factors that impede the provision of efficient and effective quality health care at Dora Nginza Hospital.
CHALLENGES OF SERVICE DELIVERY AT DORA NGINZA HOSPITAL

The hospital is faced with a burden of large numbers of people needing hospital and medical care. As a result, Dora Nginza Hospital is overcrowded and there is insufficient efficient and adequate technology to cater for its needs. As the hospital is under-staffed and health professionals are overworked, this has resulted in the deterioration of health service delivery.

For example, Mkentane (2010:1) reported on 25 March 2010 that, four traumatised rape victims had to wait for more than three hours for a doctor to arrive at Dora Nginza Hospital Rape Centre to attend to them. Senior Hospital personnel admitted that crippling hospital staff shortages at the Port Elizabeth Hospital Complex (PEHC) has created this crisis, which is detrimental to the health of patients. Environmental health or hygiene in the hospital is also a problem because the hospital is infested with cockroaches, which is hazardous to the health and recovery of patients. For example, in paediatric wards at Dora Nginza Hospital, a mother of a child complained that her child returned home with head lice (Lombard 2009:1). The surrounding community near Dora Nginza Hospital also influences the deterioration of health care as there is, illegal vandalism of the hospital property for personal gain. For example, the stealing of copper pipes, some of which transfer oxygen to patients in operating theatres and intensive care units. This act of vandalism subsequently adversely affected patients as there was no oxygen supply available for patients during operations and in the intensive care units, which posed serious health risks to patients. These conditions result in the delay of upgrading and improving health care (Lombard 2009:1).

HEALTH SERVICE DELIVERY IN PUBLIC HOSPITALS

As Rakate (2006:8) argues, health service delivery can be represented in a system perspective, with inputs, process, outputs, and outcomes. The implications of a system perspective relates to inputs such as financial resources, competent health care practitioners, adequate health care facilities and equipment, essential medicine suppliers and operational policies, which must be available and accessible for quality health care to be realised. The process refers to the utilisation of these inputs for the satisfaction of patient needs, which become outputs. The end results of the satisfaction of patient needs yield outcomes, which is the improvement of the quality of the health status of patients as consumers of the health care service delivery. Some of the core inputs that are deemed necessary for efficient health care delivery are financial resources,
competent health care staff, adequate health care facilities and equipment, essential medicine and suppliers, and operational policies. These inputs must be available and accessible (Rakate 2006:8). The World Health Organisation (2006:1) contends that effective health service delivery depends on having key resources such as motivated staff, equipment, information, finance, and adequate drugs.

The concept of service delivery is a comprehensive one. It does not only refer to the end product or results, but more of an umbrella term referring to the results of intention, decision and action undertaken by the institution, and people (Rakate 2006:95). Therefore, hospitals are fundamental structures in which inputs are turned or result in outputs and outcomes. Van Rensburg (2004:459) defines the word “hospital” as a “generic term for a wide variety of institutions, roughly classified as a people processing institution for all those in ill health”. Kumrawat (2009:1) describes a hospital as an institution for health care, which is providing patient treatment for longer and short-term stays by specialised staff, and equipment. The significance of a hospital is that it renders health care services to its environment, which means that it has to be responsive to the needs of the surrounding community.

Cullian (2006:11) defines district hospitals as facilities at which a range of out-patients and in-patients services are offered. District hospitals, are open 24 hours a day, seven days a week, and offer a 24-hour emergency service in operating theatres, which is known as level 1. Balfour (2007:2) defines the District Health System as a self-contained segment of the National Health System, comprising of a well-defined citizens living within a clearly-delineated administrative and geographical area, whether urban or rural. For a district to be delineated requires a certain number of a population in a particular area. Van Rensburg (2004:495) elaborates that the district hospital service also describes the management environment and core management standards for a district hospital, such as Dora Nginza Hospital. Quality is an important variable in any organisation, particularly in public health care, because health is the fundamental element in the life of citizens, and citizens rely heavily on the health care services provided by the government, through hospitals and other facilities available for health care.

SERVICE QUALITY IN HEALTH CARE

According to De Jagar, Plooy and Ayadi (2010:133), as services are becoming an increasingly important element of national economies, it is critical to appreciate the distinguishing features of qualities in services. Rakate (2009:103) defines quality as the measurement of how well the product or service of the
organisation conforms to the customer’s wants, needs and expectations. De Jagar et al. (2010:134) contends that service quality can be differentiated into two aspects, namely, functional and technical quality. Functional quality relates to the perceived quality and the actual output of the service, whilst technical quality relates to the objective quality.

De Jagar et al. (2010:134) elaborate that technical quality in health care refers to functional diagnosis and procedures, and functional quality refers to the manner of the delivery of service. Service quality is primarily shaped by functional quality because patients often find it difficult to assess the technical quality. Service quality is more abstract and exclusive because of the feature unique to service and is, therefore, difficult to evaluate and measure (De Jagar et al. 2010:134). Rakate (2006:103) maintains that “quality care implies that a health service provider has the skill, resources, and necessary conditions to improve the health status of the patient and the community according to current technical standards commitment and motivation, which depend on the ability of health practitioners to carry out his or her duties in an optimal way”.

Global Research Centre (2007:1) states that the quality is never an accident, but always the result of high intension, sincere effort, intelligent direction, and skilful execution. The evaluation of public health care is important for citizens, health care providers, and society. For De Jagar, et al. (2010:133), understanding the determinants of health care satisfaction will lead to improvements of health care quality in developing countries like South Africa. Therefore, this study investigates the quality of service delivery at Dora Nginza Hospital, and, in particular, it seeks to identify impediments to the provision of effective and efficient health care service. According to Rakate (2006:107), the following are dimensions to assess the quality of service:

- **Reliability**
  Reliability focuses on delivering the promise made by public institutions as citizens expect public institutions to keep their promises. According to the Department of Health (1997:1), the government has promised to develop a unified health system capable of developing quality health care to all citizens effectively. The trust of society is essential and prompts citizens to take part in trying to maintain a certain standard of health care because it instills a sense of pride.

- **Responsiveness**
  Responsiveness implies that the needs of the citizens are met in a timely manner, and that the institution is flexible enough to customise service to a particular customer’s need. As each province has different needs, the District Health System was developed. According to the World Health Organisation (2006), the Province of the Eastern Cape continues to experience high levels of socio-economic deprivation and high levels of poverty. This means that
this province is faced with more challenges of quality health service delivery because of the high rate of unemployment, which leads to poverty.

- **Assurance**
  Consultation is important in health services, especially those services or procedures that are deemed or perceived as high risk. As ordinary citizens are often not able to evaluate the outcomes, it becomes the health practitioner’s responsibility to convey the expected results, which in turn generates trust and confidence. The Batho Pele Principles identify courtesy as one of the principles that need adherence and describes courtesy as being considerate during and after the delivery of health (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Health 2008:1).

- **Empathy**
  Empathy confirms that the customer’s needs and requirements will be met, including individualised attention that the organisation gives to their customers.

**Tangibles**

These are attempts at providing a concrete presentation to customers of the quality of the service that they will receive. According to KwaZulu-Natal Department of Health (2008:1), health practitioners need to consult with patients or customers on the quality of service to which they are entitled and this principle needs to be adhered to so that good quality health care can be promoted. The principles of quality health services provide certain indicators on how to assess quality in services provided, and which public health institutions can use to improve their service delivery.

These dimensions for the assessment of service quality, are in close association with the Batho Pele Principles, and their observance by health practitioners could significantly ensure that health care of high quality is being enjoyed by patients. This would also result in positive outcome of a good quality of life for all citizens, which is the ultimate goal of government policies.

**PRINCIPLES OF QUALITY SERVICE DELIVERY IN HEALTH CARE**

Muller, Bezuidenhout and Jooste (2006:492) stipulate that quality service delivery has the following seven principles:

- **Accessibility:** ensures that services are not compromised by undue restrictions in time or distance, and refers to the ease with which patients can obtain the care that they need, at the time they need it.
Relevance and appropriateness: indicates that service delivery interventions are relevant and appropriate, based on the needs of the community and health care customers, and in accordance with the core business and strategic directions of the health care organisation. It also applies to the degree to which health care is provided.

Continuity of care: indicates the degree to which the care needed by patients is coordinated among practitioners across organisations and time.

Patient perspective: pertains to the degree to which patients are involved in the decision-making process in matters concerning their health, and the degree to which they are satisfied with their care.

Safety of the care environment: refers to the degree to which the environment is free from hazard and danger.

Timelines of care: pertains to the degree to which care is provided when it is needed.

Efficiency and effectiveness: relates to the value of money in the context of health and means getting acceptable quality service to citizens who need it and making it available within given resources. To obtain value for money, health care spending must be effective and efficient. Effectiveness pertains to whether the organisation is pursuing those interventions that will have maximum effect impact on health and status of health. Efficiency pertains to whether the organisation is delivering the maximum number of service, given the resources in its disposal.

As the general perspectives of citizens on the quality of health services in public health institutions in South Africa, is perceived of being a poor standard, the seven principles seem to be idealistic when compared with challenges confronting the rendering of health services. This brings into question the dichotomy between policy good intentions and implementation. However, it cannot be denied that public health institutions should strive to reflect these principles because they are of fundamental importance if quality health care is to become a reality in South Africa.

THE IMPORTANCE OF QUALITY HEALTH CARE

Gaster and Squires (2003:9) convey the importance of quality health care as:

- Ensures that the services fit the purpose and meet the needs, consistently and sensitivity, of the immediate customer and society as a whole.
- Increasing satisfaction of customers, and developing greater confidence in the services and the organisation that provides them.
- Encouraging citizens to utilise health services available at their disposal to which they are entitled with greater confidence.
- Increasing users, citizen involvement and satisfaction, and the knowledge that they are doing a better job, which leads to high staff morale and creates incentives for new ideas, innovation and skills development, to the benefit of both staff and users.
- Increasing sensitivity to quality draws attention to the use of resources.

There is no doubt that good health is a major resource for social, economic and personal development, thus an important dimension of life quality. As health is regarded as a resource for everyday life, and not the objective of living, it should be seen as an integral part of the development agenda. There is, first of all, the basic recognition that deprivation of health is an aspect of underdevelopment. Just as the patient not having medical treatment for curable ailments constitutes poverty. Similarly, for a country not having adequate health structures indicates underdevelopment. Therefore, the issue of health care should be placed at the centre of the development agenda as the presence or absence of health services often influences the quality of life of poor people significantly. The importance of the quality of life has positive spill-over effects on the lives of communities and health practitioners alike.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This investigation is an exploratory, and a qualitative research product. The gathering of data was conducted at Dora Nginza Hospital, which is situated in Port Elizabeth. Purposeful sampling has been used because it produces useful information, given that there is an opportunity to study the relevant participants on a small scale for the purpose of the enquiry. The participants who would provide the best information to achieve the objectives of the study, were the Chief Professional Nurses, patients who are hospitalised and receiving care during the course of the survey, and the nursing management personnel at the hospital. The sampling was divided into three groups and Table 1 provides the breakdown of the sample.

The authors administered the questionnaires to patients and their relatives or family members in their own language, which is isiXhosa. The authors, firstly, introduced themselves to the participants and then explained the purpose of the study. Participants were also informed that participation was voluntary and could withdraw anytime from the study should they wish to do so. The average duration of administration of each questionnaire took 15 to 25 minutes, which was sufficient to elicit the necessary information. Nursing managers and
professional nurses were given questionnaires to complete and the return rate was 100%. Student nurses, staff nurses, doctors, and other health practitioners, were excluded for the data sample.

The literature review has identified variables that may hinder the delivery of quality health care at Dora Nginza Hospital. Therefore, data collected through the questionnaires, was based on the variables identified or the determinants in the literature review. The questions were both open-ended and closed-ended, which were administered to the chosen sample groups of 20, namely the Casualty Department, Gynaecological Ward, Out-Patient Department, General Wards, Nursing Management personnel, and the Dispensary.

The study also included Chief Professional Nurses in various units, with 30 patients in each of the wards, as well as three nursing management personnel. Questionnaires were instrumental in gathering information directly from employed nurses who were directly responsible for rendering health services, as well as patients who were receiving health care services.

### Table 1: Breakdown of Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Size: 53</th>
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<tr>
<td>Sample Size of Chief Professional Nurses: 20</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Casualty Department: 5</td>
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<td>• Out-Patient Department: 5</td>
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<td>• Gynaecology Ward: 5</td>
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<td>• General Ward Both male and female: 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sample size of Management: 3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sample Size of patients and relatives: 30</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Casualty Department: 6</td>
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<td>• Out-Patient Department: 6</td>
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<td>• Gynaecology Ward: 6</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Dispensary: 6</td>
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<td>• General Ward Both male and female: 6</td>
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The main findings and recommendations of the study relate to food and blanket provision, response and consultation time, porter services, attitudes of health personnel, satisfaction with the provision of health care, passion for the nursing profession, safety and security, workload and absenteeism, support services for health personnel, grievance procedure for patients, access to resources, and unionisation of nurses.

**PROVISION OF FOOD**

Health care provision comprises of the quality and quantity of food for patients for the duration of their hospitalisation. Of the 30 respondents that were interviewed, 18 were admitted. Fourteen out of 18 hospitalised patients reported that they were satisfied with the food they received, and four reported that they were not satisfied. Considering that the majority of patients are from poverty-stricken communities, the food served at the hospital was probably appreciated irrespective of the quality. Owing to unemployment and destitute home circumstances, which could result in unavailability of food at homes of 14 hospitalised patients, their indication of satisfaction with the food provided at the hospital could probably have influenced their positive judgement on the food quality. In contrast, the 4 patients who reported that the food was tasteless indicated their preference of eating their own food that was brought by their relatives.

Therefore, the majority of patients that participated in the survey seemed to be satisfied with the food provided at the hospital. It could be argued that those patients who indicated dissatisfaction with the food indicated a reflection of the quality of the meals at Dora Nginza Hospital, which poses a challenge to the quality of health care that is being rendered.

**PROVISION OF BLANKETS**

Blankets are an important part of health service delivery, especially for patients that are admitted. Fourteen of 18 patients indicated that they preferred to use their own blankets instead of using those that are provided by the hospital, and four of the 18 patients complained that the hospital blankets were not warm enough, especially at night. Management responded by indicating that blankets and the linen were washed at a central laundry at Livingstone Hospital and some of the linen and blankets were not returned to the hospital, which created a shortage. Management confirmed that the current system of control of the laundry was not effective and efficient.
The hospital is required to provide linen and blankets for all patients admitted at the hospital as this is a function of the overall health service delivery. It could be argued that the problem of the ineffectiveness of the linen system had a bearing on the availability of blankets and linen, hence patients preferred to use their own blankets. It could be argued that those who were using hospital blankets did not have proper blankets for themselves and, therefore, had no choice, but to use blankets provided at the hospital.

**RESPONSE TIME**

Response time refers to the time between the arrival of a patient to a health facility and the time he or she receives assistance with his or her condition. Response time is one of the variables used to assess the quality of health service being rendered to patients. The longer a patient waits to be attended at a health institution, the poorer the classification of the health service quality. The response time in any institution is important as it is the means by which patients can assess and determine the productivity of the organisation. Response time implies that the needs of the citizens are met in a timely manner, and that the institution is flexible enough to customise service to a particular situation (Rakate 2006:107). Twenty-three of 30 patients complained that the response time was poor, especially at casualty and at the dispensary. They elaborated on this by explaining that in winter, because of the cold, they had to wrap themselves in blankets while waiting at the dispensary. At times, they waited for more than five hours for service and they became very hungry.

As timely response to patients is one of the fundamental determinants of quality health care in an institution, a conclusion could be drawn that the hospital is still lacking in responding promptly to patients who are in need of medical attention. A delay in the response time could, therefore, be associated with poor health delivery at the hospital. The ineffective response time to patients could also be attributed to a multiplicity of factors, in particular, the shortage of staff and work overload.

**CONSULTATION TIME**

Consultation time is important as it is during these times that patients can establish what is wrong with them and what the cure is. Twenty-two patients indicated that consultation took approximately five minutes and they believed it was long enough for an effective diagnosis. Management reported that the hospital was under pressure to provide quality health care to all patients that
visited the hospital, but overcrowding and an excessive workload posed major challenges to the rendering of effective and efficient health care.

Therefore, it could be concluded that five minutes is sufficient for effective diagnosis in minor illnesses, but for serious conditions, it could be argued that more time would be required to do a full examination.

**PORTER SERVICES**

Porters are responsible for assisting relatives and patients in transporting patients to different departments and wards. Management indicated that porters were not available when they were needed to transport patients to the wards, which created a bad impression of the hospital to members of the community.

The services that porters provide make a valuable contribution to the delivery of quality health care. However, while conducting of the survey, the authors observed that porters were often not visible to assist relatives with transporting patients to various departments or wards. It appeared that management was aware of this problem, but apparently no corrective action had been taken to reprimand porters who did not report for duty when required. This also reflected badly on the image of the hospital.

Twelve family members who accompanied their relatives to Dora Nginza Hospital indicated that they had received no assistance from porters to transport their sick relatives to either X-ray or to the wards because there were no porters available. To expedite the process of examination and final disposal of their sick relatives, they stated that they had to push the trolleys or wheel chairs themselves. They further indicated that they had to lift their sick relatives and put them into beds themselves when they were admitted. This situation compromised good quality health care provision at Dora Nginza Hospital.

**ATTITUDES OF HEALTH PERSONNEL**

Although the health status of patients influences the way nurses relate to the manner in which they deliver health services (Young, Niekerk, and Mogotlan 2003:18), nurses are obliged to take due care in all activities relating to patients or client care, and to avoid negligent actions. Moreover, nurses have a duty to maintain respect for their patients and to avoid any action that could harm or disadvantage the patient. Twenty-seven out of thirty respondents (who are patients and relatives) reported that health practitioners, especially nurses, were generally friendly. Management was of the view that the shortage of
staff was a concern because it lead to demoralisation and negative attitudes towards patients.

When nurses are overworked and short staffed, it became difficult or virtually impossible for them to deliver quality health services. As tiredness and stress increased, attitudes were bound to become negative towards patients and among themselves because there were expectations to deliver regardless of manpower limitations. With regard to the patients’ feedback on the attitudes of staff, 27 out of the 30 respondents indicated that health personnel were friendly towards them. However, it could be argued that because the study was conducted in a hospital environment in which health practitioners were present, this could have had an influence on their responses as the patients may have been intimidated to respond positively. This could be attributed to the fear for retribution from nurses should patients gave negative and unpopular responses against nurses.

**SATISFACTION WITH THE PROVISION OF HEALTH CARE**

Out of the 30 patients and relatives interviewed, 22 indicated that they were satisfied with the health service they received at Dora Nginza Hospital. However, at the time the empirical survey was conducted, the researchers observed that some patients were hesitant in answering questions, especially if nurses were around, during the time the interviews were conducted. This positive response to the question could be supported by patients and relatives feeling that there would be negative repercussions if they provided negative responses about the service they received at the hospital. The biased or untruthful responses are a limitation as a result of the surroundings within which the study was conducted.

**PASSION FOR THE NURSING PROFESSION**

The passion for nursing is deemed a calling to the nursing profession Young *et al.* (2003:10) suggest that the most essential ingredient of nursing is caring. Sixteen out of 20 nurses indicated that they still enjoyed their profession, and 4 said they did not enjoy their profession. All 20 nurses complained about the shortage of staff, which put pressure on them to do the work of those members of staff who were absent. Twelve gave reasons for being demoralised as, staff shortages, dissatisfaction with salaries, the public that did not appreciate their work, and excessive workload. Management was of the view that negative attitudes of staff needed to be addressed. Twelve out of 20 nurses said that they
were motivated to become nurses because they had wanted to help people who were sick. Of the 20 nurses, nine nurses reported that they had chosen to work at Dora Nginza Hospital because they wanted to serve the disadvantaged community.

As nursing is a profession that is characterised by caring and compassionate people, when the passion no longer exists, the quality of service delivery will cease to exist (Young et al. 2003:11). Based on the findings of the nurses being demoralised, conclusions could be drawn that nurses are in dire need of motivation because they are demoralised and do not feel pride in the services they deliver to the community. Nurses might be under the impression that their efforts are not appreciated and recognised by the community, and, therefore, render services without consideration to the patient, as well as not caring whether the standard of service they are providing to patients is within the ambit of the Batho Pele Principles.

**SAFETY AND SECURITY**

Muller et al. (2006:492) contend that safety and security of the environment is one of the principles of quality health service delivery that need to be assessed and analysed. In the study, nurses indicated their concern for safety and security at the hospital. Eighteen out of 20 nurses complained that safety and security were factors that needed to be immediately addressed by management. Nurses complained that there were no burglar bars on windows, patients and relative came to the hospital with guns, break-ins at the hospital took place over weekends, and relatives and patients were sometimes abusive towards them. As Matomela (2006:1) points out, theft and vandalism at Dora Nginza Hospital has led to catastrophe when the copper pipes, which feeds oxygen into the hospital, were stolen. Management confirmed that vandalism and break-ins did occur at the hospital, and the culprits were the people who were being served by the hospital, which had a negative impact on the smooth operation of the hospital.

From the general responses of both nurses and management that the working environment was detrimental to health practitioners and patients alike, the researchers observed that it was easy to gain access to the institution, particularly to the wards. For instance, nurses raised concerns that measures and systems put in place by security did not seem to be effective, because relatives and citizens had direct access to the wards at awkward times without security screening. This leaves health practitioners and patients at risk of criminal or violent attacks. In addition, nurses argued that security personnel were not properly equipped to handle extreme cases of violence or
vandalism, and there was a shortage of security guards, leaving the hospital vulnerable to any kind of criminal act. It can be argued that nurses cannot be expected to deliver quality health services if they are in constant fear of their lives, and that safety and security also plays a role in the absenteeism rate at the hospital. Absenteeism can possibly be attributed to health workers being reluctant to come to work because of the unsafe environment in which they work.

**WORKLOAD AND ABSENTEEISM**

The workload at public hospitals has increased over the years owing to staff turnover, absenteeism and, access to health services by previously disadvantaged majority of black communities. This phenomenon has led to an increase demand for the government to provide these services with health practitioners having to deliver services to a considerably larger number of citizens. The South African Information (2006:1) describes the public sector as under-resourced and over-used because it is under pressure to deliver services to about 80% of its citizens, while the private sector caters for about 20% of citizens. Dora Nginza Hospital is no exception to this phenomenon.

Eighteen out of 20 nurses reported that the hospital admitted more than 15 patients a day in their respective units, thus all 20 nurses indicated that they provided health services to more than 30 patients a day in 30 bedded wards, which caused overcrowding in their respective wards and departments. Management acknowledged this problem, and concurred that the casualty department was overflowing with patients. Management also indicated that sometimes nurses had to treat or nurse patients on trolleys or on the floor, which would give the impression that nurses did not treat patients with the respect they deserve.

Staff shortages imply that those who remain in the public health sector are required to do more work which tended to lead to burn-out syndrome, demoralisation, and a high absenteeism rate (Cullian 2006:21). At the research site, the absenteeism rate was extremely high as 18 out of 20 nurses reported that there should be three to six nurses in one shift, but as a trend, only one or two nurses reported for duty. Therefore, the ratio was one to three, where one nurse was doing the work of three nurses simultaneously, with more than 30 patients in one ward. This put more pressure on nurses to deliver services, which resulted in negative connotations. Nurses indicated that the effects of excessive workload had adverse consequences on their health, which resulted in acquiring high blood pressure and other illnesses, as well as producing negative attitudes towards patients and relatives.
Considering the unfavourable conditions under which nurses at Dora Nginza hospital worked, the expectation of good quality health services was unrealistic. Negativity and shortfalls were bound to occur with service delivery because of the overwhelming workload. These two phenomena are the main areas of concern, causing other problems or variables to surface. The continuation of this state of affairs, in which working conditions were not conducive to good quality health service delivery, could pose a vicious circle of absenteeism, staff shortages, and staff turnover, which negate any plan of staff retention and attracting new recruits to the health profession.

**SUPPORT SERVICES FOR HEALTH PERSONNEL**

Support services are services used to assist employees in coping with the demands associated with their work environment. All 20 nurses reported that there were no replacements for absent staff, which led to stress and depression. Management confirmed that the hospital did not permit nursing agencies to substitute for absent nurses because it was not authorised to do so. Moreover, there were no funds readily available because of the stringent budget. Seventeen nurses out of the 20 indicated that there were no support services available. They pointed out that the manner in which they managed stress was by going to church, or being absent from work. According to the nurses, as the hospital did not provide support services, they were supposed to manage their stress levels personally.

**GRIEVANCE PROCEDURE FOR PATIENTS**

Everyone has the right to complain about health care services and to have such complaints investigated, and to receive a full response on such investigation (Department of Health 1999:1). Twenty-seven patients of 30 indicated that were not aware of how to lay a complaint if they were not satisfied with the service or if they had a grievance. Management stated that there was a grievance procedure in place and complaint boxes were situated around the hospital, and that posters were on display.

However, the researchers did not witness the grievance procedure on display at the hospital. Considering that patients did not know what to do when they wanted to complain, the tendency was to complain among themselves, but their views and experiences were not heard by management. This could lead to negative perceptions of the hospital when patients returned home and voiced
negative opinions in their communities, which could discourage them from seeking medical treatment in future.

ACCESS TO RESOURCES

Management reported that funds were derived mainly from the Department of Health, and sometimes from donors. The response of management with regard to accessibility of the necessary resources revealed that the funds were not sufficient to provide for the required services. At times when an order for equipment or stock was made, there were no funds available. Cullian (2006:21) identifies that malfunctioning equipment is a particularly serious problem, and 14 of 20 nurses complained of malfunctioning equipment, thus making it harder for them to execute their duties effectively.

Resources are an integral part of health service delivery and, therefore, their availability is a necessity. Although financial resources are always a scarce commodity, especially in the public sector because it derives its income primarily from taxpayers, they should always be used effectively and efficiently at all times. The shortage of funds suggests that the hospital was not able to meet the demands of the community and to be proactive in delivering quality health services. Equipment is an important part of health services, and if it is malfunctioning, good quality health care will be compromised. In some cases, this could have very detrimental consequences. As reported by Holland (2008:1), generators at Dora Nginza Hospital were not working because they lacked oil, and X-ray machines and scanners were broken. The lack of maintenance and negligence leads to malfunctioning of equipment, which makes it virtually impossible to provide quality health services.

UNIONISATION OF NURSES

Cullian (2006:21) argues that interference by unions is a stumbling block when disciplinary action has to take place. Twenty nurses who were participants in the study indicated that they belonged to a union. Of the 20 nurses, 18 nurses reported that they were members of the Democratic Nursing Organisation of South Africa (DENOSA), while two belonged to the National Education, Health and Allied Workers Union (NEHAWU). Despite the fact that management indicated that it had a good working relationship with the unions, the lack of work ethic in the hospital contradicted this statement. Considering that health workers were not held accountable for their omission in the execution of their functions or inconsiderate behaviour, conclusions could be drawn that the
relationship between management and the unions was based on non-action when things went wrong.

**REMEDIES FOR POOR QUALITY HEALTH CARE**

Based on the study’s findings, various recommendations can be made.

**Satisfaction with Health Care**

The overall response of the majority of patients that participated in the survey indicated that they were satisfied with the existing health services at the Dora Nginza Hospital. Based on the empirical findings, the response time at the hospital was poor, and patients had to wait for hours to receive any assistance from health workers. There is a contradiction as to what the patients have reported because a majority reported that they were satisfied, and yet some participants complained about the time it took for them to receive help at the hospital. The researcher argues that the satisfaction with the existing health service was based on a single factor, whereas quality health service delivery comprises a variety of factors that need to be considered. In addition, management revealed that porters were not readily available to transport patients to wards and departments.

It is advisable that Nursing Management adopt mechanisms that will eliminate a poor response rate at the hospital by employing more staff to ensure that health practitioners are readily available to assist patients. Management also needs to take corrective action by reprimanding porters who do not report for duty. The work ethic and a sense of responsibility need to be re-instated at the hospital so that there is accountability for lack of good service rendered.

**Safety and Security**

The findings have revealed that there is a high concern for safety and security among nurses at the hospital. These concerns relate to the hospital not having burglars on windows, patients and relatives entering the premises with guns, and relatives and patients who are sometimes abusive towards nurses. Nurses indicated that this contributed to the high rate of absenteeism because nurses were in constant fear for their lives and, as such, they were neither keen nor enthusiastic to come to work. Health practitioners in general have the right to feel safe in their place of employment so that they are able to execute their respective duties without fear and constant consideration for their lives. If health workers live in constant fear for their lives, this will lead to a situation
where nurses will become very hesitant in treating patients that they perceive as dangerous and untrustworthy because the security system that is currently implemented is not effective in checking patients, relatives, and the community in general from entering the premises of the hospital.

It is suggested that management should seriously consider reviewing and introducing modern and advanced high-technology security measures at the hospital and take drastic measures to rectify this situation because the current security system does not seem to be effective. As there also seems to be a shortage of security guards, the hospital should employ more well-trained security personnel who are well-equipped to handle any situation that might arise at the hospital. In addition, screening of visitors should comprise of metal detectors that will indicate whether patients, relatives, and members of the community are in possession of dangerous weapons so that they can be confiscated before entering the premises of the hospital. There should also be security guards at all entrances and exits, with mechanisms that will enable security guards to account for the number of people and cars that have entered and left the hospital premises.

**Grievance Procedure at the Hospital**

The empirical survey has revealed that patients are not aware of the grievance procedure at Dora Nginza Hospital. The grievance procedure should be a means for management to hear the views of the aggrieved patients on issues relating to the infringement of their rights with regard to health service delivery. The grievance procedure needs to be open and transparent at all times, so that the community can be aware that their hospitalised relatives’ dissatisfaction and complaints are taken into account by the authorities. Complaints that are brought forward need to be investigated immediately for legitimacy and corrective action taken to rectify the situation. Patients need to be continuously educated about the grievance procedure and special emphasis should be made that it is their democratic right to lay complaints if their rights have been violated.

**Workload and Absenteeism**

It emerged from the empirical findings that nurses are overburdened with excessive workload at the Dora Nginza Hospital. Nurses have reported that they deal with more than 30 patients a day in their respective wards. Management was aware of this issue and revealed that in the causality department, some patients were treated on trolleys or on the floor because of overcrowding at the hospital. Coupled with the shortage of staff, this could also be a factor that creates a high absenteeism rate. The shortage of staff, as reported by nurses,
has led to a situation where one nurse has to do the work of three nurses simultaneously. It could be argued, therefore, that the other variables such as negative attitudes of nurses, absenteeism, and demoralisation, emanate from excessive workload. A heavy workload may increase job retention and decrease job satisfaction, which in turn may cause nurses to leave the hospital, thus increasing turnover and shortage of staff (Manona 2000:32).

It is suggested that management should be proactive in hiring more nurses and developing retention strategies that will encourage health practitioners to continue offering their services at the hospital. Retention strategies can be in a form of acknowledging those health workers who are dedicated and are exceptional in executing their tasks. The government needs to look after nurses, as they are a precious commodity, who are providing an invaluable service for the preservation of human life (Manona 2000:109).

The absenteeism rate is a matter for concern because the hospital cannot cope with the demand with limited human resources, especially nurses because the profession requires skills and expertise. There should be mechanisms in place to make nurses feel that they are making a valuable contribution to the community, and that the work they are doing is acknowledged and appreciated by both the public and management. As motivation is important in any work environment, it is suggested that nursing management should employ support programmes and a better working climate that promotes team work, problem-solving, and effective communication with supervisors and nurses in their respective wards and departments. These are aspects in which management can have a direct impact, and which can create a positive working environment if implemented correctly, which in turn can reduce absenteeism and staff turnover. Moreover, management should involve nurses in the clinical environment to be part of problem-solving and finding of solutions so that they can feel that their contributions are being valued. In this way, they could make a valuable contribution to the running of the hospital.

Support Services for Health Personnel

The results of the study highlighted the importance of support services, especially in public sector hospitals, where there is an increased demand on health services. Support services are a means to assist health workers to deal with the high stress levels, depression, and other illness relating to stress in the work environment. Nurses in the study indicated that there were no support services at Dora Nginza Hospital. For instance, nursing agencies are not utilised to assist nurses to cope with the high absenteeism rate. Therefore, nurses who have reported for duty are expected to do the work of colleagues who are absent. Management confirmed that Dora Nginza Hospital did not
permit nursing agencies to substitute for absent nurses because it was not authorised to do so. Moreover, there were no funds readily available because of the stringent budget. Considering the relief brought about the provision of health personnel as substitutes by nursing agencies, it is of fundamental importance that hospital management seek extra funding so that nursing agencies could be utilised in the future for staff replacement during absences from work. Other support services are also needed, for example, counselling services for nurses within the hospital as nurses at the hospital did not utilise support services and the majority reported that they dealt with stress in their own way.

**CONCLUSION**

The findings of this study have shown the interdependency of contributory factors to health service delivery at Dora Nginza Hospital. These factors comprise of attitudes of health practitioners, provision of food and blankets, response and consultation time, porter’ services, passion for the nursing profession, access to resources, safety and security, grievance procedure, workload and absenteeism, as well as support services for health personnel. Considering that the primary aim of government is to satisfy the needs of society, which includes health care, it could be concluded that these have been counter-productive to the goal of providing quality health care at Dora Nginza Hospital.

The majority of patients who were participants to the survey indicated that they were satisfied with the provision of health care at Dora Nginza Hospital, despite the obvious prevalence of factors that are counter-productive to the rendering of quality health care. For example, insufficient blankets, poor response time, poor quality of food, and negative attitudes of health care workers, lack of porter services, have posed challenges to the rendering of quality health care. The biasness in the responses of participants has been influenced by the environment in which the survey was being conducted, namely, asking of sensitive questions about satisfaction with health service delivery within the surroundings of health practitioners.

Safety and security is a matter of concern, especially among nurses. During the conduct of the survey, nurses indicated that they were in constant danger because the security system was ineffective. Moreover, patients indicated that they were not aware of the procedure to follow when they had complaints, indicating that the grievance procedure at a hospital as a means of upward communication from patients to management was flawed. Management, therefore, needs to be instrumental in educating patients and their relatives on how to go about laying a complaint.
It emerged from the empirical findings that nurses are overburdened with excessive workload because of shortage of staff and absenteeism. Staff shortage implies that those nurses who present themselves for duty have to do the work of absent staff. It is, therefore, crucial that management should prioritise the implementation of the retention strategy to keep current health practitioners in the employment of the hospital, and to put measures in place to entice new employees to work at the hospital. It is suggested that management should be proactive in hiring more nurses and develop retention strategies that will encourage health practitioners to continue offering their services at the hospital.

Moreover, the nursing agent, which could be beneficiary in terms of provision of health practitioners in cases of replacement of absent staff, could be seriously considered by management and budgeted for. This could alleviate adverse consequences brought about by excessive workload and absenteeism. Support services are services used to assist employees in coping with the demands associated with their work environment. The majority of nurses indicated that the hospital did not provide for support services, therefore, they dealt with stress in their own way. Management, therefore, should consider making support services (such as counselling and health awareness programmes as well as legal advice services) available at the hospital premises, which could significantly reduce high stress levels among health workers. For the attainment of good quality health care at Dora Nginza Hospital, these recommendations should be given urgent attention to alleviate the current poor state of health service delivery.

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**AUTHOR’S CONTACT DETAILS**

Dr Wela Manona
Senior Lecturer
Department of Political & Governmental Studies
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University
Tel: 041 504 3852
Cellular: 073 692 1846
Fax: 041 504 9852
E-mail: wela.manona@nmmu.ac.za

Ms Xabisa Gqirana
Intern in Human Capital Management
South African Social Security Agency
East London
Office Number: 043 707 6567
Cell: 071 129 8507
E-mail: XabisaG@sassa.gov.za or xgqirana@gmail.com
The disconnect between legislation and application

The influence of the Public Finance Management Act of 1999 on Financial Reporting and Management in the Department of Community Safety in the Western Cape

A Roman
School of Government
University of the Western Cape

M Esau
School of Government
University of the Western Cape
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ABSTRACT

Inspired to a large extent by the principles of the New Public Management (NPM) that were in vogue at the time, the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) of 1999 was introduced as a key element in the South African Government’s drive to promote greater efficiency, cost effectiveness and accountability for results in the public service. Amongst other things, the Act sought to achieve tighter financial controls and establish measurable outcomes through improved financial reporting systems, performance measurement budgeting, managing reporting systems and structures, and delegated budgetary responsibility. However, as reports by the Auditor-General and the Public Service Commission have shown repeatedly, many government departments have faced problems in complying with the requirements of the Act, particularly at the provincial level. This has been the case with the Department of Community and Safety in the Western Cape, which is the subject of this case study. The Department of Community Safety was chosen because the Auditor General’s reports have highlighted that it had been struggling to submit acceptable financial reports over the past few years.
The study seeks to identify and understand the key challenges facing the Department in so far as compliance with the PFMA is concerned, and the findings highlight a number of key factors that should be taken into account in addressing such challenges. These include strategic leadership and key critical skills, adequate resources and realistic time frames, and the need for alignment between pre-determined objectives and the expected outcomes of financial management and reporting. It is envisaged that the findings of the case study will provide insights into some of the key problems inherent in the implementation of the PFMA, as well as ways of addressing them.

INTRODUCTION

Reforms in governance and financial management in South Africa have largely been influenced by two developments. In the first place, the dawn of democracy in 1994 led to substantive changes in state processes, structures and institutions. In the second place, the need for economic and financial reform in the period since 1994 forced the Government to revisit the practices and structures of financial management and governance. This need was spurred by global reforms in financial and economic practices, as well as legislative changes in financial requirements affecting budgeting, financial management, systems reporting and performance management. These reforms were to a large extent part of the broader movement towards the New Public Management (NPM). Scholarly debates on the rise and impact of NPM have focused largely on western experiences (see, for example, McLaughlin, Osborne and Ferlie 2002; Pollitt 2006; and Pollitt and Bouckaert 2004). In Africa and other developing regions, the nature and impact of NPM reforms has attracted far less attention. This has particularly been the case with respect to reforms in financial management.

In South Africa, the evidence suggests that many provincial and national departments have found it difficult to comply with the financial reforms and legislative stipulations that have accompanied the broader transformation and reform process. This disconnect between the legislative and policy framework on the one hand and effective implementation on the other has been a worrying feature of the South African public sector reform process since its inception in 1994, and has been highlighted not only by the Government’s critics but also in many official reports (for example the Ministry of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs’ State of Local Government Report 2009; and the Public Service Commission’s State of the Public Service report 2010).
Factors contributing to this disconnect include, amongst others, low human resource and financial capacity, poor skills development programmes, the lack of effective performance management, ineffective leadership and institutional management, mismanagement and corruption, and the lack of responsiveness and accountability on the part of officials, in particular to the communities they serve.

Within this context, the purpose of this article is to examine the effectiveness of the financial management and reporting reforms emerging out of the principles of NPM. More specifically, the case of the Provincial Department of Community Safety in the Western Cape is used as a case study to critically examine the implementation of the Public Finance Management Act of 1999. This Department was chosen because it received qualified audit reports for three consecutive years (see, for example, the Department of Community Safety: Western Cape Annual Reports for 2004/2005, 2005/2006, and 2006/2007). With respect to financial management and reporting, performance measurement budgeting and delegated budget responsibilities, the situation was so dire that, in 2007, the Standing Committee on Public Accounts (SCOPA) instructed the Auditor-General’s office to conduct a forensic audit of the Department in an attempt to better understand the problems besetting it.

In addition to the review of official documents and reports, this case study draws on interviews that were conducted with senior officials in the Department of Community Safety, as well as with the Chairperson of the Standing Committee on Public Accounts in 2007.

The article is organised into three sections. The first discusses the rationale of the New Public Management (NPM) and the potential benefits for improved financial management and reporting. The second presents a detailed description and analysis of the case study findings. The third and final section presents the main conclusions.

**PUBLIC SECTOR REFORMS TOWARDS GREATER EFFICIENCY AND EFFECTIVENESS**

The international move towards the public sector reforms associated with NPM began in the late 1970s and was particularly prevalent in the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand. Inspired by neo-liberal ideology and, in particular, by the supposed benefits of introducing business management principles and practices into the public sector, Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher launched a range of sweeping reforms in the UK. Whilst policy making remained the responsibility of Cabinet and centralised government departments, these reforms included the transfer of operational management and implementation
from traditional and highly centralised civil service departments to a range of new, relatively autonomous and decentralised agencies (Peters, 2010:314).

In the UK as well as elsewhere, the rationale for what came to be known as NPM reforms was improved service delivery through the use of the business and market principles and decentralisation (Pollitt: 2006), while providing for central government regulation and oversight. As such, they represented a significant change from traditional bureaucratic approaches to public service management, associated in particular with the works of Max Weber.

Pollitt (2006:27) describes NPM as comprising a shift in focus from inputs and processes towards outputs and outcomes. In the words of Margaret Thatcher (cited in Pollitt 2006:27), “a clear focus on outcomes allows us to give freedoms back to public service workers – if a service can be accountable for what it achieves, we need worry far less about how it achieves it.” Other principles of NPM included the increasing use of measurement and quantification; specialised, lean and flat autonomous organisational forms; outsourcing the delivery of public services to the private sector; the introduction of greater competition (for example through the establishment of ‘internal markets’ within public sector institutions); and an increasing emphasis on service quality and customer orientation (Pollitt 2006:28).

In addition, the focus on ‘outputs to outcomes’ through performance measurement directly impacted the planning of activities, the resources allocated to these activities, and the extent to which they impacted the lives of citizens on a daily basis. The focus on outcomes is reflected in the following statement from a senior British public service manager (cited in Pollitt):

> The top priority was a change in attitude towards performance. I wanted to see more action and fewer words. Too much attention was paid to whether or not the right procedures had been followed rather than to what had been achieved (Pollitt 2006:28).

A former UK Deputy Prime Minister expressed his strong views on performance measurement as follows:

> When the literacies of the Civil Service and the generalities of their intentions are turned into targets which can be monitored and costed, when information is conveyed in columns instead of screeds, then objectives become clear and progress towards them becomes measurable and far more likely (cited in Pollitt 2006:29).

These insights highlight the importance of a performance measurement system that embraces the measurement of tasks as well as the impact measurement
of financial resources allocated to such tasks. This is the focus of the current article. While the changes inherent in the principles of NPM have the potential to positively impact the performance of the public service, such an impact is dependent, however, on a number of pre-conditions. Especially important are capacity and skills, political and administrative will, and an integrated approach to service delivery. In other words, the planning of activities, the demand for financial and other resources, and the attitudes of public servants should be holistic in approach as opposed to individualistic. Peters (2010), however, cautions against the possible effects of ‘empire building’ on an integrated approach to performance measurement. He argues that it should not be assumed that agencies are only concerned with the growth of the agency budget or with performing their constitutionally mandated tasks. While officials may be influenced by the survival of the agency, the performance of functions considered to be vital to a “high quality of life for the society” is also important (Peters 2010:24).

**NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT AND FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT AND REPORTING**

In the countries in which they were introduced, NPM reforms had a wide ranging impact on all aspects of the public service. With specific reference to financial management, which is the focus of this paper, NPM principles emphasised in particular such aspects as value for money, producing more services with less tax money, increased accountability for results, greater transparency and devolved financial responsibility. Most of these principles were embodied in South Africa in the Public Finance Management Act of 1999.

The Public Finance Management Act of 1999 replaced the Exchequer Act of 1975. Before the enactment of the PFMA the financial environment was one where financial administration was rule-bound and management exclusively input focused. Policy and financial responsibilities in departments were separated, capital resources and liabilities were not properly managed, and the lack of reliable and timely information negatively impacted financial management and reporting. Provincial treasury resources were devoted excessively to exercising micro-control at the expense of attention to the strategic management of public finances in line with policy and efficiency objectives. Moreover, the Exchequer Act prescribed rules and systems of expenditures and approval that were centrally based with little scope for managerial discretion. The process of financial administration did not clearly define responsibilities, and resulted in poor accountability with little value for money. The incremental one-year budgetary system was not conducive to
longer-term planning, and did little to avoid overspending and under spending. This was compounded by delays in producing financial information, which was often only available well after the end of the financial year (National Treasury 2000:3).

Moreover, the budgeting process was one that limited financial management solely to financial officials to the exclusion of other officials and role players involved in the delivery of services (Fourie 2002:101). This resulted in the development of budgets that were essentially unintelligible to non-financial experts, whether other government officials or members of the public. It therefore disassociated all those who were not directly involved in the development of budgets from involvement in financial planning and management.

At the same time, Fölscher and Cole (2004:109) argue that the annual budgeting system inherited by the democratically elected government provided inadequate tools with which to stabilise fiscal balances and manage the required policy shifts. This process was highly fragmented, not only in terms of a de-linking of policy, budgeting and implementation, but also institutionally, increasing budgeting uncertainty and promoting a lack of clarity about the overall purpose and scope of the budget. Accountability was essentially procedural, with no constant checks and balances in place to ensure effective control. Moreover, the system was plagued by deeply entrenched inefficiencies that ultimately led to the misuse and/or abuse of state funds. Naturally, this kind of system was contrary to the ideals of good governance and hence government embarked on a process to transform the management and reporting of finances.

In contrast to the previous system, the PFMA placed a key emphasis on accountability for results (outputs and outcomes). The overarching aim of the PFMA was to improve the operational efficiency of government spending, referred to as the value-for-money concept. In addition, the PFMA shifted the onus of managing the use of resources from central control to the managers of spending departments and agencies. In other words, budget preparation practices were no longer centralised. Instead discretion now resides with spending departments for programme choices within spending parameters. The function of budgeting, the management of these budgets, and reporting on these budgets is now a decentralised and interrelated process. In line with the prescriptions of the PFMA, spending department must, inter alia, ensure the strategic link between objectives and expenditure plans; ensure fiscal discipline within the constraints of what can be afforded; and introduce accessibility of information and budget estimates (Abedian 2004).

Attention can now be turned to the experiences and challenges associated with the implementation of the PFMA with specific reference to the Provincial Department of Community Safety in the Western Cape.
CASE BACKGROUND WITH SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO THE PROVINCIAL DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNITY SAFETY IN THE WESTERN CAPE

The Department of Community Safety has four directorates, namely Corporate Services, the Secretariat for Safety and Security, Traffic Safety Promotion and Security Risk Management. For the purpose of the case study the Corporate Services Directorate was identified as the appropriate directorate for the study. Within the Directorate, there are three units, the Human Resources Administration and Management Unit, the Strategic Services and Communication Services Unit, and the Finance Unit which is responsible, amongst other things, for budgeting, financial reporting, financial management and supply chain management. The Finance Unit is divided into four sections, namely Supply Chain Management, Enterprise Risk Management, Account Management and Budget and Control. Although the focus of this case study is on the Corporate Services Directorate, and specifically on the Finance Unit, this does not preclude or exclude the other directorates from the case study as they form an integral part of the Department’s overall functions.

Section 40(1)(d) of the PFMA demands the reporting of financial statements, performance indicators and planned activities within departments. Challenges confronting compliance with the PFMA should therefore be considered in the context of the revised reporting paradigm. The main challenges were drawn from the Auditor-General’s reports for 2004/2005 and relate in particular to management reporting systems and structures; the nature and effect of changes to financial reporting systems; performance measurement through budgeting; and the delegation of budgetary responsibility. These will be discussed in turn in the sections that follow.

MANAGING REPORTING SYSTEMS AND STRUCTURES

Figure 1 demonstrates a typical flow chart of activities a department must undergo when preparing for its annual planning and budgeting processes. It should be remembered that strategic planning and budgeting must happen simultaneously. During the strategic planning process, the budget is prepared for three years and updated annually. The medium term expenditure framework (MTEF) serves as a financial and strategic framework model for the department. This in turn informs the performance development system which monitors and evaluates individual and unit performance against the objectives and key result areas in the strategic plan. Ultimately, this is reported in departmental annual reports, and the Auditor-General’s office conducts its
Figure 1: Strategic planning and budgeting cycle

Strategic Plan

- 3 years
- Update annually
- Includes budget information

Year 1/Budget

- Detailed focus on first year of strategic plan
- Includes output and service delivery information

Medium-term Budget

- Expenditure trends
- 3-year forward estimates
- Strategic direction explained
- Previous year’s outcome incorporated when deciding resource allocation

Annual Reports

- Performance against budget and strategic plan
- Meeting reporting requirements – Treasury and Public Service Regulations

Individual Performance Plans

- Staff has performance contracts and individual development trends
- Linked to departmental key objectives and outputs
- Indicate individual contributions towards achieving departmental objectives

Quarterly and Monthly Reports

- Progress against budget and strategic plan
- Highlights departmental performance (financial and non-financial) against objectives

Source: Adapted from National Treasury financial reporting guidelines: 2004
audits according to agreed international audit standards. In the context of an evolving performance-based budgeting approach, the Auditor-General’s office also expresses opinions on value-for-money activities and human resource management. Three key issues impact on how departments manage their reporting systems and structures, namely the assessment of strategic plans, the management of financial reporting systems, and the roles and responsibilities of officials.

With reference to the assessment of strategic plans, during the review process, the annual budget is revisited along with the department’s strategic plan for the next financial year. This process informs the strategic plans as it reviews and considers the prior year’s achievements or lack thereof. Ideally, the department should conduct a mid-year assessment of its strategic plan. This process will allow the department to make the necessary adjustments to ensure that it meets its objectives and/or allocate the necessary resources to achieve its strategic goals. However, the Department of Community Safety, along with many other government departments, only conducts an end of year review and assessment.

In the case of the management of financial reporting systems, the accounting officers in departments, accounting authority in public entities and their respective audit committees wait four to five months before getting a perspective of the department’s or entity’s performance and control issues. This lull of four to five months creates an atmosphere of uncertainty with regard to the integrity and reliability of the financial information. Accounting officers are hesitant to prepare and distribute financial reports in this period. It is recommended that the alignment of the audit reporting period to that of the planning and budgeting process of the Department is of critical importance. This would allow the auditor to work with relevant and updated information. The heads of directorates must also be more vigilant around reporting dates and deadlines. They must respect and adhere to the legislated and/or agreed upon reporting deadlines for financial reporting and budgeting processes.

To enforce this, the Department of Community Safety in the Western Cape relies on the Chief Financial Officer (CFO) for the implementation of improved controls that would ensure effective financial management of government resources. It should, however, be realised that the responsibility for these controls lies with the Head of Department, as Accounting Officer (AO), as well as with all other senior managers in the department. In the case of the Department of Community Safety the CFO acts as the strategic adviser to the Department in relation to broader financial and management issues. These may include unspent funds, national priorities through intergovernmental relations, and the alignment of the budget to strategic objectives. The CFO’s role in certain instances becomes too broad and detailed for one portfolio. This perspective,
therefore, suggests that all the weaknesses identified by the internal auditors, external auditors and risk assessment processes must be addressed, and the CFO is the champion in this regard.

THE NATURE AND EFFECT OF CHANGES TO FINANCIAL REPORTING SYSTEMS

In its intention to modernise financial management and reporting in the public sector the PFMA challenged departments to develop their provincial fiscal framework from one-year incremental budgets to three-year rolling budgets. Therefore departments are now required to publish their budgets for three years but only appropriate for one year. The other two years are used as baseline budgets for the following year. Any additional funds are awarded from contingency reserves or new revenue collected by the Province. This is intended to develop the basis for better planning within departments, more consultative budget processes and better intergovernmental fiscal relations.

Departments are also expected to publish month-to-year budget implementation reports. This is intended to improve interdepartmental accountability, financial control and better management of financial resources from directors to units. However, the fact that the Department of Community Safety’s Chief Financial Officer (CFO) spends at least four months after the end of the financial year dealing with the previous year’s issues – the first two months preparing the annual financial statements, and the next two months being audited – means that little time is available to focus on improving the control environment. The budget period starts at about the same time as the process to prepare for the tabling of the annual reports to Parliament, as well as at the same time the audits are completed. The budget process therefore endures for another two to three months before its cycle is complete.

The overall effect of the PFMA on financial reporting was examined in the case study by asking the respondents interviewed to rank in order of importance the positive changes that have emanated as a result of the enactment of the PFMA. Table 1 reflects the response from one of the respondents. The rating is from 5 [most important] to 1 [less important]. The respondent identified “the PFMA provided clear policy guidelines and procedures for Financial Management...” as the most important impact of the PFMA. As reflected earlier, the Exchequer Act of 1975 did not provide clear policy guidelines and therefore contributed to delays in producing financial reports. Moreover, the respondent was of the view that the PFMA contributed not only to the changed manner in which reporting of finances happened, but also how resources were managed.
A key question in this regard, however, is whether this significant change in financial management and reporting is understood by all government officials. A senior manager in the Department of Community Safety was asked to express his opinion on this issue. He was of the opinion that while the department was “not up to scratch” (yet) they had made great strides in improving their financial controls and reporting processes and structures. However, the Department was struggling to establish the new financial information systems and the management of these information systems. Part of this challenge resulted from the lack of skills and capacity and, in particular, from high vacancy rates in key positions. The above respondent, during the course of the interview, admitted that “… we lack the necessary skills and knowledge across the directorates to fully comply…”

Key vacancies in strategic areas of the Community Safety Department existed at the time that the interviews were conducted. In the 2004/2005 annual report, for example, there was a vacancy rate of 44% at middle management and of 25% at the senior management level (Department of Community Safety 2004/2005:94). Amongst other things, the impact of these vacancies contributed to poor communication processes and flows, with the result that the reporting structures and systems were not able to function as smoothly as they should have. This in turn impacted on the quality of reports and led to non-compliance with reporting requirements and deadlines.

However, the Auditor-General’s 2009/2010 report shows that the quality of the annual financial statements of the Community Safety Department has improved (Auditor-General, 2009/2010:32). Accordingly the report states that “… Commitments to improve on the outcomes by those charged with governance at departments and entities by setting the right tone from the top to create an environment conducive to sound financial management and improved
"service delivery" has contributed to improved audit outcomes. Therefore we can infer that the filling of senior staff vacant posts with the appropriate skills and technical knowledge has contributed to the general improvement of the annual financial statements. As the Annual Report of the Department of Community Safety for 2009/10 shows, middle management vacancies were reduced from 44% to 25% in the 2009/2010 reporting year. At senior management level the vacancy rate reduced from 25% to 5% in 2009/2010. In addition, the number of vacancies pertaining to finance and related staff dropped from 20% in the 2004/2005 reporting period to 10.8% for the 2009/2010 reporting period (Department of Community Safety 2009/2010).

A PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT APPROACH THROUGH BUDGETING

One of the most important changes derived from the NPM relates to the issue of budgeting towards performance. This approach requires departmental plans and budgets to be accompanied by performance indicators which must be monitored and evaluated constantly. The past decade has seen many governments embark on efforts to establish a performance-based budgeting and reporting approach. The emphasis on results or performance in the budget and reporting process reflects a new belief that public sector accountability should focus on what government does with the money it spends, rather than just on how it controls such expenditure (Osborne and Gaebler 1992:45).

It is important to understand that performance-based budgeting is not simply the use of programme performance information in developing a budget. Performance-based budgeting does more than just inform the resource allocation decisions that go into the development of a traditional type of budget. In other words, it is not just ‘budgeting based on performance.’ Instead, it is the process by which a particular type of budget is developed – a performance budget (or ‘programme performance budget’). To design an effective system of performance-based budgeting, it is therefore vital to understand exactly what the end product itself should be, what it should contain, and how it should look.

A real performance budget gives a meaningful indication of how expenditure will be translated into results. This does not have to follow a scientific formula, but at least outline a general chain of cause and effect. The most effective governmental performance budgets do this by showing, for each programme area, how taxpayers’ money will fund day-to-day tasks and activities, how these activities are expected to generate certain outputs, and what outcomes should be produced by the department. Moreover, this function can be performed in a less complex manner through a number of software packages available on the
market. The Department of Community Safety needs to treat implementation of performance-based budgeting as a special project. It would also be prudent to employ a specialist in this position, as implementation will require a dedicated person.

Performance based budgeting is guided by the National Treasury and the MTEF. The guidelines from the National Treasury include the clarification of goals in strategic and operational plans; the development of performance indicators and targets for all programmes; the adaptation or development of information systems to capture appropriate performance data; the introduction of a regular evaluation programme in respect of all major programmes, and the integration of the various planning and evaluation processes of government so that the information flowing through the system is well-coordinated (National Treasury 2000). The MTEF is the actual budgeting tool used to assess performance and to budget for strategic plans. It allows departments to draft expenditure frameworks through the planning of departmental budgets, which are informed by the department’s strategic plan. The MTEF creates this framework through multi-year (three-year) budgeting processes and systems. Furthermore, it creates a budgeting process that is more transparent and accountable.

The merit of adopting a results-based approach to budgeting on the outcomes of the public service is clear. This is evidenced through the response of one of the Department of Community Safety’s senior managers when asked the question: In your view what prompted the introduction of the PFMA? He responded that “…it is intended to improve service delivery… create a value-for-money concept…” In spite of the regulatory interventions and prevailing understandings, the Department of Community Safety, however, has been struggling to embrace performance based budgeting. For example, the Auditor-General’s report in its findings of pre-determined objectives expressed the opinion that:

...the lack of appropriate systems to generate information on performance against predetermined objectives and the source information or evidence provided to support the reported information on performance against predetermined objectives does not adequately support the accuracy and completeness of the facts throughout (Auditor-General, 2009/2010:26).

This is not unique to the Department of Community Safety, but a challenge evidenced widely at both national and provincial department level. Policy, planning and budgeting processes are not properly coordinated across units and programmes. Therefore, departments seem to adopt a very individualistic approach to their budgeting without taking cognisance of the interdependent nature of the business of government. As a result, budgets are not related or
linked appropriately to outputs. In an interview with the Chairperson of the Standing Committee on Public Accounts, this point was reiterated. The Chairperson referred to the inability of the Auditor-General’s office to conduct performance audits since directorates were not budgeting along the lines of outputs versus outcomes.

Moreover, performance-based budgeting is dependent on the accuracy of information provided to the Department by the various directorates. This is a huge challenge facing the Department of Community Safety. A senior manager from the Department cited the example of the response time of police officers to car crashes. He asked “…how does one rate performance in relation to response times of police officers to car crashes.” The question, however, is not so much about how one rates performance in this context, but the criteria used to measure such performance and the implementation of such a measurement system. In the example used by the interviewee and within the context of the National Treasury Regulations on performance reporting measurement, key considerations would include response time to the accident scene, biographical data at the accident scene, and personal observation of the cause of the accident. The interviewee concurred that the “accuracy of the base data provided is critical…”

The responses from the interviews suggest that the Department of Community Safety was unprepared for performance based reporting at that time. The development of a performance measurement approach, involving techniques such as financial and non-financial performance indicators, was still in an embryonic stage. The National Treasury did not fully roll out its performance audits as it was of the opinion that most national and provincial departments were not ready for value for money audits. They however started the process of preparing departments for the performance-based audits. At the same time, although the Auditor’s General offices were conducting value for money audits, they did not express opinions on the findings in their audit reports. Instead, they adopted a developmental approach to assessing the readiness of departments for value for money audits.

Subsequent to the interviews held as part of this case study, and based on the 2009/2010 annual report of the Community Safety Department, there have been improvements in the area of performance based budgeting. The Department has aligned its strategic business plans with measurable outcomes. In fact it has developed a results based monitoring and evaluation indicator framework to ensure that these outcomes are properly and adequately budgeted for (Department of Community Safety 2009/2010). The Auditor-General’s 2009/2010 report acknowledges the success of this improvement as a joint effort from the “…steering committee meetings where management was encouraged to comply with the legislated requirements.” (Auditor-General, 2009/2010:27).
DELEGATION OF BUDGETARY RESPONSIBILITY

Decentralising the budget can contribute to greater efficiencies in departments in general, and the Department of Community Safety in particular. Firstly, decision-making powers are decentralised to the directorates. In this way the directorates can take ownership of their budgets and link financial resources to priority areas. Secondly, inputs and outputs are converted into outcomes that are measurable and can contribute to improved service delivery. Thirdly, accountability and transparency are increased since lines of reporting become decentralised when managing smaller units or sub-units.

In the case of the Department of Community Safety the decentralisation of the budget requires that the Department take responsibility for its spending within the parameters of the performance measurement budgeting approach. This spending is, however, limited to its ceiling (vote) and has to be aligned to national policies pertaining to community safety. A number of factors emerged from the case study that impeded the attainment of the objectives entrenched in delegating the budgeting process to departments. These related in particular to the lack of suitable skills in the Corporate Services Directorate, as well as the lack of appropriate levels of support from the Provincial Treasury. When National Treasury decentralises the budgetary responsibilities it assumes that the skills required to effect proper budgetary performance exists within departments and directorates. The political and administrative leadership of the Provincial Government is in fact required to commit itself to ensuring the provision of appropriate skills and capacity (Auditor-General 2009/2010). In this regard the Provincial Treasury is tasked to do a number of things. These include the provision of technical support and training to departments and entities; the coordination and monitoring of the implementation of financial management improvement plans; and quarterly reports to Provincial Cabinet on the status of these improvement plans.

From the responses to interviews carried out during the case study, it seems clear that the Department of Community Safety does not receive sufficient support from the Treasury. One of the senior officials interviewed stated that:

...Treasury is very prescriptive...they do not engage the departments regularly and we receive little or no support from them during the financial year. We only interact with them at the end of the year or when there is a serious problem...

The responsibilities of the Provincial Treasury to departments are further reiterated in the National Treasury guide for accounting officers. The guide states that quarterly reports are required from departments and that feedback
must be given by the Provincial Treasury to departments to improve the budget performance (National Treasury 2000). Furthermore, these quarterly reports are intended to be early warning signs of the under or over spending of budgets.

**CONCLUDING REMARKS**

The case of the Department of Community Safety illustrates the disconnect between the intentions of legislation and actual implementation in a number of ways. In the first place, legislation in and of itself is insufficient to effect reform of financial management and reporting. The case shows the importance of strategic leadership and key critical skills to the reform of financial management and reporting practices. For example, the 2004/2005 annual report of the Department of Community Safety indicated that the post of Head of the Supply Chain Management unit was vacant for the entire year. Subsequent to the filling of this post the 2009/2010 annual report of the Department shows a marked improvement in the area of performance based budgeting against stated objectives.

In the second place, flat and lean structures as proposed by advocates of NPM do not necessarily guarantee the transfer of skills and knowledge to delegated authorities. In any process of change it is important to anticipate the time to change and therefore provide adequate resources to support the change process. In this regard, the report of the Auditor-General (2009/2010:7) recommends that the Provincial Treasury takes steps to strengthen the internal audit function and audit committees to assist management in establishing sound internal controls.

Thirdly, the paradigm of financial management and reporting in the absence of a clear performance management system negates the intended benefits of the principles of NPM. Alignment between the predetermined objectives and the performance of departments and directorates is imperative in ensuring a systematic process towards improved service delivery, which should be at the heart of any performance management system. However, the case findings demonstrate that a void exists between the predetermined objectives and the performance management system that has been put in place.

Fourthly, the case findings illustrate the effect that ‘empire building’ can have on the attempt to provide an integrated approach to service delivery. The case study shows that directorates and units within the Department of Community Safety tend to work independently of each other in relation to the provision of performance management information at both the horizontal and vertical levels. This has resulted in a failure to effectively disseminate and manage performance related information across directorates within the Department.
In conclusion, it seems likely that the benefits inherent in public management reforms, such as those that affect financial management and reporting, will only become evident if there is a more sustained effort by senior political and administrative leaders to address the challenges and weaknesses identified in this case study.

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**AUTHORS’ CONTACT DETAILS**

Mr Allan D Roman  
Private Bag x17  
Bellville 7535  
Office No: 021 959 3863  
Fax: 021 959 3826  
Cell: 082 417 8850  
E-mail: aroman@uwc.ac.za

Prof Michelle V Esau  
Private Bag X17  
Bellville 7535  
Office: 021 959 3850  
Fax: 021 959 3826  
Cell: 082 447 8731  
E-mail: mvesau@uwc.ac.za
State involvement in the conduct of and conditions pertaining to the labour relationship

G M Ferreira
Department of Public Administration and Management
University of South Africa
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ABSTRACT

The nature and extent of state involvement in the daily activities of society have been debated for centuries. There are three broad ideological positions: laissez-faire, socialism and the welfare state. The positions vary from minimum governmental intervention in the activities of society, to the other extreme – the conviction that government should own the more important sources of material wealth, operate society’s productive machinery and manage the distribution of goods. Whatever the merits of the issue, governmental functions and involvement have expanded over the years for different reasons.

South Africa is no exception in this regard as public services have expanded and state involvement in various facets of life has increased. Labour relations are influenced by the extent to which government is involved in this relationship. The legislative framework that governs the labour relationship reflects the degree of government’s involvement in the conduct of this relationship.

Government needs to play a supportive role as facilitator of the processes and procedures in this relationship; this role requires strategic intervention and not control of all aspects of this relationship. Total control will contribute to inflexibility and rigidity in this relationship, with unemployment and poverty as a consequence.

This article discusses the extent of state involvement in the labour relationship, as well as international and universal acceptable labour practices and standards that should be complied with. Different labour relations systems are compared to gain a better understanding of the variables which determine developments within a particular system and to place a specific system into context.
INTRODUCTION

Labour relations is the relationship between people who work and those for whom they work. It is necessary to identify the parties and their roles in this relationship and to discover how they interact, why they interact in that way and the nature of the framework that governs this relationship. The intention of developing or reforming labour policy is ultimately to create a labour environment that is free from conflicts and conducive to constructive and harmonious labour relations. Labour laws and regulations are major tools to protect and reform the labour environment and to translate a national priority or concern into a rule. A market failure or inability to achieve a social goal is corrected by creating rules and laws.

The labour relations system that operates in a specific society is the product of and structured by that society. This system is shaped by the different role players in the society. The extent to which different role players are involved is determined by the dominant ideology prevailing in that society, the economic situation and trade union movements.

In this article the unique characteristics of this relationship is presented. The influence of the ideological bases on the role and involvement of the state in shaping this unique relationship is determined. The involvement of governments in providing the legal framework for the conduct of sound labour relations and in giving protection to employees and employers are analysed. The legislative framework that governs the labour relationship and that reflects the degree of the government involvement in the conduct of this relationship is indicated. Acceptable labour legislation should conform to universal standards. The guidelines to these standards that are found in the various conventions and recommendations of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) are discussed. Different labour relations systems throughout the world are compared to gain a better understanding of the variables which determine developments and involvement of role players within a particular system and to place the system into context. A comparison between different states to determine the extent of state involvement and its contribution to inflexibility and rigidity of the labour environment are made. A broad view of the challenges and opportunities facing the future of the labour relations in South Africa is also given.

THE LABOUR RELATIONSHIP AS A UNIQUE HUMAN RELATIONSHIP

The labour relationship is a unique relationship between people mutually involved in a work situation. Although unique, it is also characterised by
elements common to all other relationships such as social, friendship and political involvement (Bendix 2010a:4). This relationship, like any other, needs to be based on trust, communication, support, integrity and shared goals and values. The labour relationship is dynamic and involves different parties with different needs, attitudes and perceptions of the environment within which it finds itself.

This relationship between individuals, or between collectives and individuals, needs to be regulated and governed because of the sometimes hostile and complex labour market and environment. Different requirements must be adhered to as prescribed in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996, chapter 2 on the Bill of Rights (RSA 1996), in which it is stated that the inherent dignity of everyone in the country must be respected and protected. This includes a person's right to work, to earn a living and to partake in economic activities within a society. This right distinguishes the labour relationship and its dynamics from any other relationship.

The relationship with work is impersonal, as an employee takes a job to fulfil personal needs and not because of an initial commitment to a partnership with the employer. This negativism may increase if there is an uneven distribution of wealth and income and if it is perceived that too much power resides with some of the parties to the relationship. From the employer's side, there might also be little interest in the employee personally but merely in his or her ability to perform the work required; the employee may even be seen as replaceable by another more capable individual – or, even worse, by a machine. The relationship may be manipulated and dominated by power that might run counter to the spirit of a democracy yet does not overtly disrupt the democratic system. This relationship may thus be complex and hostile, and become ever more depersonalised because of the collective nature of the work force; however it is symbiotic because of the parties' interdependence in realising their aspirations through this relationship.

A harmonious working environment should be created and promoted by regulating and institutionalising this relationship. The parties themselves may decide to institute procedures to regulate their relationship, or it may be done through the institution or other means of external but generic regulation. The labour relationship must therefore be governed by an intricate system of laws, policies and procedures that regulate and facilitate this relationship (Venter, Levy, Conradie and Holtzhausen 2009:4). This must be done to establish parameters for the conduct of the labour relationship, to provide minimum regulations pertaining to substantive conditions of employment and sufficient protection for employees and for employers. The extent of regulation by the state varies according to the ideological basis and system of political governance in a country.
IDEOLOGICAL BASIS FOR STATE INVOLVEMENT IN THE LABOUR RELATIONSHIP

The ideological basis of a particular society will determine the extent to which the state is involved in the labour relationship and the extent of the framework of the labour relations system in the country. Ideology justifies the social relationships in a society and how these relationships should be conducted (Bendix 2010a:28). The degree of state interference in the conduct of the labour relationship will be determined, according to Bendix (2010a:40), by the ideological base, the political objectives, the socio political and economical circumstances and the strength of the labour movement. Students of government since Plato and Aristotle (some 2 400 years ago) have debated the nature and extent of the role and involvement of government in the social activities of individuals and groups in a state. This debate influenced, and still influences, attitudes to issues such as the running of the economy and the role of the government in matters like labour, education and sport.

This debate is conducted in terms of three broad ideological positions, namely *laissez-faire*, socialism and the welfare state. The central issues in this debate revolve around the interpretation of concepts such as the individual and his or her relationship to society, the nature of law and its relationship to morality, and different views on what constitutes progress (Worrall 1975:17). The term *laissez-faire*, literally meaning let it alone, is used to describe a minimum of government intervention in the social activities of individuals and groups in a state. According to the protagonists of this ideology, government is expected to do no more than ensure law and order internally and protect the country from external attack. In the view of its strongest champions, enlightened self-interest and individual initiative are the driving forces for the common good in the economy and society, and this thinking is extended into the political sphere and the labour arena. Every employee should be free to offer his or her services to an employer and to negotiate a salary and conditions of service. The free market in economics and the ballot box in politics are therefore the ultimate arbiters of differences of opinion regarding the public good, and in such a philosophy government is assigned only a small role (Worrall 1975:17).

Socialism, the collective ownership (controlled by government or the society) of the means of production and the distribution of goods, is a popular system in developing countries (Wessels 2010:175). The protagonists of this ideology support the idea that government should own the more important sources of material wealth, operate the society’s productive machinery, and manage the distribution of goods. There are differences of opinion between the democratic socialists and the soviet socialists on the extent of ownership, the method whereby this ownership is achieved and what political system is to accompany
The democratic socialists believe that only essential means of production and distribution should be owned by society, whereas soviet socialists believe in the public ownership of all property; democratic socialists are committed to peaceful means, and soviet socialists believe in revolution as a means; and democratic socialists value democracy as well as the principles of socialism, while soviet socialists are committed to destroying parliamentary democracy and replacing it with dictatorship of the proletariat or people.

The welfare state, in which government assists members of society financially and otherwise, has existed since the early 1940s (Worrall 1975:18). Government should ensure that all citizens experience certain minimum conditions for a “good life”. These conditions include the provision of services such as education, housing and labour conditions. In the welfare state, the government guarantees the “good life” for those who cannot provide for themselves, for example by providing welfare grants to unemployed citizens. In the welfare state, the government controls important areas in the economy of the country and participates directly in the economy. In a democratic society, government’s decisions will be largely based on the principle of majority rule and will adhere to a communitarian or individualist ideology (Venter et al. 2009:76). The nature of the employment relationship will be determined by the state’s interference and involvement in this relationship.

A legislative framework is used to regulate this relationship. At one end of the spectrum, namely with minimum involvement in the labour relationship, some form of regulation through a legislative framework is developed in order to protect workers against unfair work practices, to promote collective bargaining and trade unionism and to make provision for protected strike action. At the other end of the spectrum, constitutional protection of fundamental human and labour rights is part of developed and advanced democracies.

Although extended labour intervention is part of political governance and ideological preferences, it has economic consequences. Labour is one of the four factors of production, namely land, labour, capital and entrepreneurial ability. All production requires a combination of two or more of these factors. Labour policy should be made through rational decision-making, taking into account competing interests in the society. Labour economics deal with the realities of wages and employment in the labour market. Various authors such as Adam Smith, David Ricardo, Thomas Malthus, Karl Marx and Lord Keynes wrote about how institutional factors such as government legislation and labour unions impact on wage levels, how the labour market works and what determines the overall levels of employment and unemployment (Venter et al. 2009:4).

However, all governments seek to implement labour policies that will benefit their citizens and will avoid unintended consequences. Chapter 2 of the South
African Constitution of 1996 (RSA 1996) contains several provisions relevant to employment and labour law. These include protection against servitude, discrimination in the workplace, exploitative labour practices and hazardous work. According to section 7(1) of the Constitution, the Bill of Rights is a cornerstone of democracy in South Africa and no law may limit any rights entrenched in this Bill.

In South Africa, state intervention was always part of the labour environment. The government prior to 1994 created a dual system of labour relations for South African workers. Laws and regulations were created to grant white employees specific rights and privileges not available to black workers. Recommendations made by the Wiehahn Commission in 1979 made provision for a common system of labour relations that incorporated all workers in South Africa. Fundamental rights such as freedom of association and collective bargaining were acknowledged for all employees. Social dialogue was institutionalised by the 1996 Constitution. Business representatives, trade unions and government are responsible for formulating the labour legislative framework and are involved in shaping the labour policy that has direct bearing on them.

In a corporatist system, where government obtains input from both labour and capital in economic and social decision-making, the interests of all these parties should be taken into consideration. This could lead to tension, as few governments will abdicate their right to the final decision (Bendix 2010a:226). The union movement may see corporatism as promoting a capitalist economic dispensation against a socialist one. In South Africa this led to the formation of the National Economic Development and Labour Council (NEDLAC) on 18 February 1995, in which organised business, organised labour and the state are involved in labour decision-making (National Economic Development and Labour Council Act 35 of 1994). Negotiations in NEDLAC also involve another party, namely an interest group representing community and development organisations, because of the high levels of unemployment. All parties involved in these corporate negotiations display great pragmatism and a willingness to reach a compromise.

There are several reasons for the state to intervene in the activities and functioning of society. The impersonality of modern society, in which most of us can never see, identify or know most of the people whose activities and decisions bear directly on our lives, inclines people to turn to government to bridge the gap between the anonymous faces and themselves. Advanced industrialisation requires specialised provision and is characterised by complex relationships. Unemployment compensation, old-age pensions, retirement schemes and sub-economic housing, for example, are needed to survive modern society. The growth of great institutions and labour unions has necessitated that government keep them in check. A growing economy and what accompanies the growth in
wealth need more government intervention, supporting infrastructure and the provision of public goods and services.

**ROLE OF THE STATE IN THE LABOUR RELATIONSHIP**

All people and public institutions that exercise authority over and on behalf of the citizens of a state have input functions, such as articulating the interests of the society, as well as output functions, such as rule-making, rule application and rule adjudication within the society. A limited government is characterised by a constitutional framework that protects certain areas of individual and group life from government interference. Unlimited government is characterised by government regulation of all aspects of human activity, namely social, economic, religious and cultural activities. Democratic government has principles such as accountability and responsibility as pillars. These principles require a comprehensive system of administrative control. Democratic government is therefore controlled government (Berkley and Rouse 2009:320). Administrative power expands as the power and responsibilities of government in the society expand.

Institutions are empowered through legislation and regulation to create and enforce rules and regulations that carry the full force of law. Regulation is the way in which a national priority or concern, identified by government, is translated into a specific rule. Regulation has its origin in the legislature of a country, when the national legislature passes a law establishing a regulatory agency or institution, providing a mandate to issue rules that govern a particular activity (Berkley and Rouse 2009:322). Regulations originate from demands for goods and services; for example labour regulations for the promotion of affirmative action, fair basic conditions of service and equal job opportunities. The regulatory process is fundamentally bureaucratic and an attempt to create a better society for the majority of the citizens.

South Africa, like many other countries such as the US, is a regulatory state. We are a society in which nearly every activity is included in the scope of administrative regulation and control. Job safety and other working conditions are regulated through social regulatory institutions such as the Department of Labour, the Commission for Conciliation, Mediation and Arbitration (CCMA) and the Labour Court. Social regulation can be a very costly activity, because certain regulatory decisions are grounded in political goals that may change with a change in governments. As the labour relationship is a reflection of the political dispensation governing the country, government can never be totally neutral in labour relations. It will either be pro-labour or pro-capital. The factors that may influence the intervention of the state in the conduct
of the labour relationship are the political manifestation in a pro-capital intervention (in a free market system because of a relatively healthy economy through for example legislation that may limit the role of trade unions) or pro-labour intervention (through joint decision-making where economic ideology shifts to a more communitarian approach and social welfare principles are incorporated in the market policy, for example to entrench the co-decision-making of unions) orientation, the constitutional protection of basic human rights, and globalisation because of an increasing interdependency between markets in the global economy protected by international institutions such as the World Bank and the ILO. A strong labour movement presence and dominance in government and in a society may lead to a government that seeks to intervene on behalf of labour (Bendix 2010b:40). The government may adopt a *laissez-faire* approach, but may entrench the rights of the labour unions in legislation, for example by endorsing collective bargaining machinery. If a union movement becomes so strong that it threatens political or economical stability and causes a power imbalance in the labour relationship, government may increase its interference in labour relations. Statutory control takes place because the market fails to meet, or is ineffective in meeting, the needs of the government or the citizens.

State involvement in shaping the labour relationship varies between two extremes, namely voluntarism and mandatorism. Minimum intervention or voluntarism is where the state provides a framework of rules for collective bargaining through a legislative framework (Van Rensburg 1998:5). The outcome of the collective bargaining process is determined by the parties involved and not influenced by the state. State involvement is therefore minimal and limited. Absolute voluntarism does not exist anywhere, but voluntary systems with mandatory elements vary from country to country for the following reasons:

- Imbalances in power must be restored by government if labour relationships are left solely to the main participants (employers and employees);
- The government has to interfere if labour relations impact adversely on society and the economy; and
- The government interests itself in political developments in the labour relations sphere (Bendix 2010a:39).

Governments will consequently, at the very least, become involved in providing the legal framework for conducting sound labour relations and giving minimum protection to employees and employers. At the other end of the spectrum, namely mandatorism, the relationship between employer and employee is regulated by the state to a greater or lesser extent (Van Rensburg 1998:5). Economic instability may also oblige a government to intervene in the labour arena. Aggressive collective bargaining and wage demands may be limited
through government interference. All parties may voluntarily cooperate to improve economic circumstances and policies to achieve maximum benefit for all in the interest of society as a whole. Where government supports the free market system and trade unions are strong, the government will have to accommodate the role and place of the trade union movement. When a government does not accept the free market principle and capital accumulation is not encouraged, the labour relationship will be regulated in its totality and no union involvement or activity is needed.

Pro-capital mandatorism, on the other hand, prevails where a government favours capital over labour. However, this will not happen in the presence of a strong union movement or in a pure democratic society. The government’s intervention in the labour relationship will therefore differ according to the political and economical ideology accepted, and is determined by circumstances.

The role adopted by the state in the labour relationship can be that of conciliator, mediator and arbitrator, or legislator, regulator, advisor and employer. In the labour relationship the role of the state as legislator is very important. The state may legislate on individual employee rights, collective rights, statutory procedures for the labour relationship and the establishment of bargaining machinery. Legislation on individual rights supplements common law. The contract of employment of an employee is included in common law, but not the exploitation of an employee. The basic rights of the employee, and in some instances those of the employer, should therefore be protected by the government through legislation. The collective rights of the employees, such as the freedom of association, may also be protected by government through legislation. Collective bargaining machinery may be institutionalised by a government. The use of this machinery may be recommended by government for general guidance for the conduct of grievance disciplinary and retrenchment procedures.

The type and number of legislative involvements by a government will differ from one country to another. In order to establish a peaceful labour environment, a government may introduce processes for conciliation, mediation and arbitration. These processes may be compulsory and government may itself interfere in these dispute settlement procedures. The government may also be involved as the employer in these processes. The government may wish to regulate the conduct of labour relations, and more specifically collective bargaining and introduction of worker participation at plant level. If there is a need for institutions to monitor developments in labour relations, the government may establish these institutions (such as NEDLAC in South Africa) to advise and make recommendations on labour relations issues. Other institutions such as the Labour Court as part of the judiciary, and the
department of police as part of the executive authority, are instruments of the state to either interpret and apply legislation to regulate the labour relationship, or to enforce the law to protect the public and ensure a stable and peaceful environment to live and work in.

**LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK GOVERNING THE LABOUR RELATIONSHIP**

The legislative framework that governs the labour relationship reflects the degree of government involvement in the conduct of and conditions pertaining to this relationship (Bendix 2010a:87). The state provides a legislative regulatory framework for interaction between employers and employees. Parliament passes acts and regulations that affect the nature of the employment relationship. An efficient labour relations system is fundamental to the ultimate goals, pursued by governments all over the world, of ensuring full employment, low inflation and economic growth (Venter et al. 2009:126). Labour market policy is determined by the interaction of the forces that determine the supply and demand of labour. Government must always consider what is economically desirable and politically and socially acceptable in determining labour policies and legislative framework to govern labour activities. There is no purely voluntary system without any legislative framework to govern the employment relationship. Labour legislation should also conform to universal acceptable standards. The guidelines to these standards, which will be discussed later in this article, are found in the various conventions and recommendations of the ILO.

In South Africa the labour relationship is governed in the first instance by the contract of employment, which is subject to common law. Common law does not take into consideration the fairness of the contract, but merely the fact that a contract has been concluded. Common law and government policy on labour issues are superseded by statute, which will be developed in consultation with institutions such as NEDLAC. The labour laws that are promulgated may establish rules and conditions that are more favourable than those obtaining under a contract of common law. Labour legislation provides parameters for the conduct of the labour relationship and minimum regulations pertaining to substantive conditions of employment (Bendix 2010a:89). If the relationship is governed by common law in the absence of labour legislation, there is not sufficient protection for employees and crucial concepts such as fairness and equity are not provided for. The government is forced by international standards to legislate on the minimum terms and conditions of employment and the protection of the health and safety of the workforce. In a voluntary system, provision is made for a framework for conducting a collective labour relationship. Provision is made
for freedom of association, freedom from victimisation, the right to engage in industrial action, promotion of labour peace, dispute settlement procedures and protection against unfair practices.

A constitution has a profound effect on all branches of the law in a country such as South Africa. No legislation passed in South Africa may deviate from the principles established by the Constitution, and no labour legislation may deviate from the fundamental rights outlined in the Constitution. It therefore provides a mechanism for citizens to challenge legislation and actions by the state which infringe these rights. Sections 23(5) and (6) of the 1996 Constitution (RSA 1996) make provision for national legislation to be enacted to regulate collective bargaining. The Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 was promulgated to give effect to this section. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997 gives effect to the right to fair labour practices referred to in subsection (1) of the Constitution. The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 bolsters both these acts regarding discrimination in the workplace and employment equity.

A brief summary of the main employment-related statutes in South Africa follows.

- **The Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 (LRA)**
  The LRA states that the overall purpose of the Act is to advance economic development, social justice, labour peace and the democratisation of the workplace. This will be achieved by achieving the following objectives:
  - to give effect to and to regulate the fundamental rights contained in Section 27 of the Constitution;
  - to give effect to the duties of the Republic as a member state of the ILO;
  - to provide a framework in which employees and their unions, employers and employer associations can bargain collectively to determine wages, terms and conditions of employment and other matters of mutual interest, and can formulate industry policy; and
  - to promote orderly collective bargaining, collective bargaining at sectoral level, workers’ participation and decision-making in the workplace, and the effective resolution of disputes.

  Peaceful and orderly conduct of the employment relationship is promoted through this Act. Provision is made for collective relationships between employers, unions and representatives of employees. The Act aims to encourage collective bargaining and the settlement of disputes through the powers of the forums designed to facilitate these objectives. Unfair labour practices are defined in terms of rules and rights, contravention or infringement of which are justifiable by either the CCMA, accredited bargaining councils or a specialised Labour Court. In terms of the LRA, workers are afforded the freedom to strike and statutory protection against dismissal for those strikers who comply with the procedures laid down by the
Act. Employees may not, however, strike over matters which either party can refer to arbitration or for adjudication. The LRA provides a comprehensive framework for trade unions’ rights and access to the workplace. A workplace forum, consisting of elected employee representatives, may also be established. These forums encourage worker participation and joint decision-making. Employers must meet regularly with these forums, disclose to them information relating to various matters and consult them on a range of issues. Consensus between the employer and the workplace forum is required to implement certain issues.

- **The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997 (BCEA)**
  The BCEA forms another central pillar of the labour legislative dispensation promulgated in accordance with Section 23(1) of the *Constitution of 1996* (RSA 1996). The focus of the BCEA is on the individual employee. The purpose of this Act is to ensure that employees enjoy certain minimum conditions of employment through the creation of secure, equitable and harmonious working relationships. The most vulnerable workers are protected from exploitation by employers. Although the Act does not lay down minimum wages, it ensures that working hours do not exceed a certain maximum and provides for prescribed annual leave and paid sick leave, adequate breaks during the working period, paid overtime and work on Sundays and public holidays, and other basic rights.

- **The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 (EEA)**
  The EEA forms the third major legislative innovation in labour law. The objective of this Act is to prevent discrimination in the workplace, and it attempts to redress demographic imbalances caused by previous discriminatory practices. The first part of the Act prohibits any form of discrimination and the second part promotes equity and affirmative action. Job applicants are also covered in this Act as employees, and they may therefore claim that they have been discriminated against and institute action, in terms of the LRA, against the employer. The ground rules for affirmative action are set out in this Act and these rules are elevated to a mandatory policy. In terms of the EEA, employees from groups previously disadvantaged by any form of discrimination are given a more than equal chance of appointment and promotion. The Act attempts to achieve a diverse workforce that is broadly representative of the people, to promote economic development and efficiency in the workplace and to give effect to the obligations of the Republic as a member of the ILO.

- **The Compensation for Occupational Injuries and Diseases Act 130 of 1993 (COIDA)**
  The COIDA makes provision for compensation to be paid to an employee who, as a result of activities in the workplace, is partially or totally disabled or
contracts an occupational disease. In the event of the death of an employee, compensation will be paid to his or her dependants from a government-run fund specially created for this purpose. Employers have to contribute to this fund.

- **The Unemployment Insurance Act 30 of 1996 (UIA)**
The UIA makes provision for payment of benefits to employees who have lost their employment through pregnancy or other circumstances beyond their control. A qualifying amount is determined by regulation for employees to claim under this Act. Benefits are only paid if the claimant has previously been in employment and is seeking and willing to accept work, or is unable to work as a result of a scheduled illness, or is pregnant. This Act makes provision for the administrative matters related to unemployment and the establishment of bodies and structures to provide unemployment benefits. Employers and employees have to contribute to the government-administered Unemployment Insurance Fund.

- **The Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 (OHSA)**
The OHSA is not one of the pillars of the labour relations environment, but is perhaps the strictest of all the labour statutes. The Act itself is very short and is supported by a vast body of regulations which provide detailed prescriptions for the regulation of health and safety in specific sectors, industries and professions. The Act aims to ensure that all workplaces are as safe and healthy as possible and that no work process or condition should endanger the health and safety of employees or people in the vicinity. All employees except mineworkers, who have their own health and safety legislation, are covered by this Act. Training and supervision on health and safety should be provided by the employer and all injuries and deaths should be reported.

- **The Skills Development Levies Act 9 of 1999**
The SDA and the *Skills Development Levies Act* attempt to coordinate industrial training in a structured and purposeful manner. By providing for skills levies, obliging the employer to draw up workplace skills plans and introducing learnerships, this legislation aims to encourage employers to use the workplace as an active learning environment. The SDA also supports affirmative action, as it encourages employers to develop employees who were previously disadvantaged. The National Skills Authority and Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs), which were set up to establish learnerships, approve workplace skills plans, and collect and disburse skills development levies, were established in terms of this Act.

In establishing labour legislation, governments need to be guided by universally accepted standards. Globalisation as a process of increasing global connectivity, integration and interdependence in areas such as labour
relations leads to aspects such as changes in work content and working conditions and an increase in labour migration (Phillips and Eamets 2007:53). The ILO provides various conventions and recommendations regarding labour standards that must be upheld by member states. These conventions and resolutions are discussed in the next paragraph.

**INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION RESOLUTIONS**

Acceptable labour legislation should conform to universal standards. Guidelines to these standards are found in the various conventions and recommendations of the ILO. The ILO has adopted more than 180 Conventions and more than 190 recommendations and has 175 member states. The ILO is a specialised agency of the United Nations that deals with the quality of labour issues pertaining to international labour standards. Its headquarters are in Geneva, Switzerland. The ILO was established as an agency of the League of Nations following the Treaty of Versailles, which was signed after World War I.

In 1919 an unprecedented international organisational framework for labour politics was designed. International labour law became a useful instrument for putting social reforms into practice after World War I. The ideals of this institution were social justice and the right to decent work. The ILO sets international labour standards through the adoption of conventions and recommendations covering a broad spectrum of labour-related subjects. These form the International Labour Code. ILO conventions are considered international labour standards. A convention results in a legal obligation to apply its provisions by the nations that have ratified it. Ratification of a convention is voluntary, but once ratified by a government, that government has to submit reports (every five years) detailing its compliance with the obligations of the conventions. Recommendations do not have the binding force of conventions and are not subject to ratification (International Labour Organisation 2011 Internet source).

Eight ILO conventions have been identified by the ILO’s governing body as being fundamental to the rights of human beings at work. These rights are a precondition for all the others and they provide the implements needed to strive freely for the improvement of individual and collective conditions of work (ILO Conventions and Recommendations 2011 Internet Source). These eight conventions cover freedom of association, the abolition of forced labour, equality in the workplace and the elimination of child labour. Member countries have to comply with these conventions and must report on them once every two years.

South Africa was a member of the ILO from 1919 until 1966, when it was expelled. It became a member again in 1994, when South Africa was re-
integrated into the world community. The South African government ratified the eight fundamental conventions as well as 21 other conventions dealing with a wide range of subjects in the labour and social spheres. The Declaration of Philadelphia of 1944, the Convention No. 87 concerning the Freedom of Association and the Protection of the Right to Organise of 1948, and the Convention No. 98 concerning the Application of the Principles of the Right to Organise and to Bargain Collectively of 1949, set out the basic principles for the conduct of a labour relationship (Bendix 2010a:90). These three underscore the tenets of the labour relationship, and a labour relationship not based on these is likely to be insufficient and inequitable. The South African Constitution, chapter 2 Section 23 (RSA 1996), and other labour legislation, is based on these ILO conventions and recommendations and the Declaration of Philadelphia. Our law of dismissal is almost exactly as stated by the ILO, as is the approach to termination for the operational requirement. It is necessary to comply with these resolutions to prevent organisations relocating their production to countries with fewer labour and business restrictions. Globalisation leads to some convergence in labour relations arrangements worldwide.

COMPARATIVE INVOLVEMENT IN THE LABOUR RELATIONSHIP

No country can escape the globalisation process, as it forces governments and institutions that function in a global environment to be competitive. The labour relations systems should also comply with global and international systems to be competitive in labour processes in a single-world society. Different labour relations systems can be compared to gain a better understanding of the variables which determine developments within a particular system, and to place a specific system into context. The relationship and interaction between parties involved in labour relations are determined by the role and involvement the government chooses in this relationship. Comparison provides greater perspective and insight into national involvement in labour relations by contrasting these practices with those in other countries. Policy development in labour relations worldwide can give insight into models used in other countries and can be used to construct models and motivations for greater or lesser involvement in this relationship.

It is understandable that these processes and systems cannot merely be copied from one country to another, because of different cultures, traditions and values, but new insights might be valuable and useful. Comparisons help to reform systems, especially when developing countries adapt their systems from those of developed countries. There are lessons to be learned from
developments and problems experienced in other systems and countries. Labour relations are dynamic and developments in other countries may be used to establish a basis for predicting future events.

Statutory legislation of the labour relationship that regulated the role of “Master and Servant” originated in England in 1349 (Grogan 2009:4). The abolition of slavery in the Cape Colony led to the first South African Masters and Servants Act of 1841. This act was repealed in 1974 after international controversy. Several acts were promulgated after 1910 to regulate the labour relationship in South Africa. Prior to the 1995 LRA, the South African labour relations system was based on the British system, and the LRA is based on the labour system of codetermination from Germany. State involvement in labour relations in various countries is indicated in the following paragraphs. These countries are chosen for no other reason than that they are interesting examples of different state involvement in labour relations.

The labour relationship is affected by the environment in which it operates. The employees of the institution are drawn from the society in which it functions and are therefore influenced by factors that impact on the society as a whole. The external environment that influences the labour relationship comprises the economy, the socio-political environment, the legal framework and the social environment (Venter et al. 2009:20). The economic environment that impacts on the labour relationship includes government policy, inflation and unemployment, globalisation, technology and poverty. The extent of state involvement may therefore contribute to the inflexibility (the extent to which an institution can alter various aspects of its work and workforce to meet the demands of the business without protective or regulatory measures) and rigidity of this relationship, with consequent unemployment and poverty.

The unemployment rate, defined as the total number of unemployed persons who would like to work but are unable to find jobs, is a sensitive indicator of a country’s economic performance and attractiveness to foreign investors. This is also true of labour peace and striking facts such as work days lost per annum. Labour freedom is a component of economic freedom and is a quantitative measure that looks into various aspects of the legal and regulatory framework of a country’s labour market (International Labour Organisation 2011 Internet Source). Comparative information on labour freedom (such as regulations concerning minimum wages, laws inhibiting layoffs, regulatory burdens on labour aspects, unemployment rate and work days lost) of various countries is discussed below.

State involvement in Great Britain is limited because of a tradition of voluntarism in labour relations. No provision is legally made for the right to strike, for example, but trade unions and employers are protected by statutory indemnification that protects them against accountability when sanctions are enforced. After World War II, the spirit of reconstruction led to the creation of
the welfare state and the nationalisation of certain industries (Bendix 2010a:709). During the 1960s the Labour Party government introduced labour legislation that entrenched certain workers’ rights such as employment contracts, protection against unfair dismissal, a healthy and secure workplace and protection for employees taking part in union activities (Van Rensburg 1998:15). Since 1974 the state has provided free arbitration services through the Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Services (ACAS). ACAS is controlled by a council consisting of representatives of government and the management of the institution and members appointed by the trade unions. It investigates recognition of disputes and assists employers and employees in the conduct of their relationship. The welfarist orientation that existed since 1946 has been progressively eroded since 1979 and an almost total return to individualism has been made.

According to the Index of Economic Freedom World Rankings (2011 Internet Source), on a scale of 0 to 100, where 100 presents the maximum freedom, Britain’s score is 74.5, making its economy the 16th freest out of 179 countries rated (Hong Kong is first and North Korea last) in the 2011 Index. Economic freedom is the fundamental right of every human to control his or her own labour and property. According to this Index, an economically free society is one in which individuals are free to work, produce, consume and invest in any way they please, with that freedom both protected by the state and unconstrained by the state. The unemployment rate in Britain is 7.6% and the labour freedom is 71.2. Labour regulations in the United Kingdom are relatively flexible. The non-salary cost of employing a worker is moderate and the severance payment is not overly burdensome. Regulations on work hours are also flexible.

Germany has an extensive labour legislation framework. The labour legislation is divided between local courts, district appeal courts and the federal labour court. Labour legislation regulates and makes provision for labour standards, paid sick leave, compensation to be paid to an employee who is partially or totally disabled, maternity protection and maternity leave, and provision for protection against unfair dismissal. The state is involved in training for occupational guidance. Employees have to complete a three-year training course after obtaining a full-time educational qualification. The government established a framework for collective bargaining, but otherwise adopts a policy of minimal interference in the bargaining relationship between employers or unions. The government therefore provides a normative framework for all parties to interact with one another. The trade unions have played a decisive role in shaping the social and industrial relations systems (Bendix 2010a:719). The German government’s approach is corporatist, with a mixture of voluntarism and mandatorism.

According to the Index of Economic Freedom World Rankings of 2011 (Index of Economic Freedom 2011 Internet Source), Germany’s score is 71.8, making
its economy the 23\textsuperscript{th} freest out of 179 countries rated in the 2011 Index. Its unemployment rate is 7.5\% and the labour freedom is 40.6. Labour regulations in Germany are burdensome and costly. The non-salary cost of employing a worker is high, and the severance payment system is expensive. Wages and fringe benefits remain among the world’s highest.

State involvement in \textbf{Japan} is very limited. The state provides a framework to advance sound labour relations. Japanese organisations have a paternalistic management system (Venter \textit{et al.} 2009:64). Japanese labour relations are characterised by three pillars, namely lifetime employment (where employees work for the same institution their entire lives); seniority-based promotion and a wage system where pay rates are determined by length of service, age and educational background; and enterprise-based unions where employees are organised into a trade union on the basis of where they work and not what they do. According to the ILO there are three major labour laws in Japan, namely:

\begin{itemize}
\item The Labour Standards Law, which regulates working conditions and workplace safety and hygiene;
\item The Trade Union Law, which guarantees the worker’s right to organise and to bargain collectively; and
\item The Labour Relations Adjustment Law, which makes provision for a Labour Relations Commission and is empowered to prevent and solve labour disputes by mediation, conciliation or arbitration (Venter \textit{et al.} 2009:64).
\end{itemize}

According to the Index of Economic Freedom World Rankings of 2011 (\textit{Index of Economic Freedom 2011 Internet Source}), Japan’s score is 72.8, making its economy the 20\textsuperscript{th} freest out of 179 countries rated in the 2011 Index. Its unemployment rate is 5.1\% and labour freedom is 81.1. Labour regulations in Japan are relatively flexible. A propensity for lifetime employment guarantees and seniority-based wages impedes the development of a dynamic and flexible labour market.

\textbf{Australia} has moved from a pluralistic approach to a unitaristic workplace representation approach. Participation in decision-making processes is entirely at the discretion of management. There is a decline in trade union membership in Australia due to legislative changes which make it more difficult for employees to become members of trade unions (Venter \textit{et al.} 2009:63). A decline in industrial action has also been recorded. Australia has four mainstream regulations in labour relations, namely:

\begin{itemize}
\item The Australian Industrial Relations Commission, which determines awards and generally covers an industry or sector;
\item Enterprise Bargaining Agreements, which are negotiated between a single employer and a union;
\end{itemize}
• Australian Workplace Agreements, which are contracts negotiated with an individual employee or group of employees; and
• Individual nonregistered agreements, which operate outside the formal industrial relations framework and rely on the common law of contract (Bamber, Lansbury and Wailes 2004:30).

According to the Index of Economic Freedom World Rankings (2011 Internet Source), Australia’s score is 82.5, making its economy the 3rd freest out of 179 countries rated in the 2011 Index. Its unemployment rate is 5.6% and labour freedom is 92.2. The labour regulations in Australia are highly flexible and enhance employment and productivity growth. The non-salary cost of employing a worker is moderate, and dismissing a redundant employee is cost-free.

The Zimbabwean labour relations system is rooted in its colonial history and the struggle for independence. The European immigrants and the colonial government promoted a sense of individualism among the more educated and urbanised indigenous people, and African history and political movements promoted a communitarian ethos. Since independence in 1980, the ideological base of the Zimbabwean government has been the reason for increased involvement in the economy, labour relations system and society. Since the Labour Relations Act of 1995 was promulgated, state involvement and intervention in unions and in collective bargaining has increased. Strikes are an illegal offence. The Minister of Labour can amend any negotiated agreement between employers and employees.

According to the Index of Economic Freedom World Rankings of 2011 (2011 Internet Source), Zimbabwe’s score is 22.1, making its economy the 178th freest out of 179 countries rated in the 2011 Index. Its unemployment rate is 95.0% and the labour freedom is 36.8. The formal labour market is not functioning due to the government’s failed economic policies and continuing control. Labour regulations are not enforced effectively.

According to the Index of Economic Freedom World Rankings of 2011 (2011 Internet Source), South Africa’s score is 62.7, making its economy the 74th freest out of 179 countries rated in the 2011 Index. Its unemployment rate is 24.0% and labour freedom is 56.7. The labour market is not conducive to dynamic employment growth. Labour regulations are not applied effectively and the rigid labour market has contributed to persistently high unemployment rates. Nontransparent regulations, rigid labour laws and crime are disincentives for investors.

Comparative labour relations provide an understanding of forces in the labour relationship and system, allow for scenario-setting regarding one’s own system and act as a foundation for predicting future events (Venter et al. 2009:57). All governments seek to answer the problem of how limited resources
should be divided between unlimited wants. How can this allocation be done in an efficient, effective and economical way? Traditionally, the market system determined the price of a good or a service based on the demand for and supply of specific goods or services. The combination of factors of production, namely land, labour, capital and entrepreneurial ability, determines the prices and the allocation in a market. Labour is one of the scarcest of these production resources. Informed and rational decisions on labour policy and government intervention in these market forces should be done amid competing interests in society. What happens in the labour market is of prime importance to the economy and to the citizens of a country. The involvement of the state in the labour market, as an imperfect market, determines the economic growth and prosperity of a country and contributes to its future successes and failures.

THE FUTURE OF STATE INVOLVEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

As indicated above, the political, social and economic goals of a government determine the involvement of the government in the labour relationship. Issues such as minimum wage regulation, wage gaps, inequality in the labour market, discrimination, unemployment and labour productivity, influence the wellbeing of a society. Labour legislation should establish the parameters for the conduct of the labour relationship and provide minimum regulations pertaining
to substantive conditions of employment to protect the employee. The most important condition of the labour relationship is the contract of employment, which details the duties and obligations of both the employer and the employee. There are some essential elements that must be present to make this contract valid. These elements are constitutionally determined in South Africa and the main labour acts seek to ensure that these conditions are provided for. The outcomes of the process of the labour market are imperfect and governments will therefore seek to influence the manner in which this market operates. The efficiency, effectiveness and outputs of this market will be influenced and regulated through active labour market policies. South Africa has one of the most comprehensive labour frameworks in the world. This may lead to rigidity and inflexibility in the employment relationship, but an integrated system of rights and protections provides for the facilitation of a more harmonious and equitable relationship (Venter et al. 2009:257). Greater protection leads to extension of regulation of the labour market. If it were less descriptive and written in less detail, the flexibility of the labour legislation would be improved.

History has shown that hard work, minimising the cost of resources used and a supportive policy and infrastructure are the bases for economic growth, employment and a wide distribution of ownership of assets. These factors must be taken into consideration in determining the level of involvement of the government in the labour relationship. Unemployment, as one of the most important considerations in a society, may need to be addressed through state involvement and intervention through policy frameworks. The government’s involvement must aim to ensure sustainable welfare and prosperity, to support the poor and to work towards a decrease in unemployment.

The National Planning Commission was appointed by President Jacob Zuma in April 2010 to take a broad, cross-cutting, independent and critical view of South Africa, to identify long-term development plans and to map out a path to identify and achieve key challenges (RSA 2011:1). A diagnostic report was prepared that set out key challenges in fighting poverty and inequality and in achieving the objectives set out in the 1996 Constitution. According to this report, an economic strategy to promote growth and to create job opportunities can only be viable if a development plan is in place. This development plan should support sustainable economic growth and alleviate poverty without unlimited state involvement. Key strategic objectives are the elimination of poverty and the reduction of inequality (RSA 2010:8). According to this Report, South Africa’s labour market is highly segmented, and labour regulation takes account of public servants and well-organised sectors by providing basic protection and rights.

Unemployment levels have been decreasing since 2002, but are still extremely high (24%) compared to Australia (5,6%), Britain (7,6%), Germany (7,5%), Japan
(5.1%) and the US (4%). South Africa needs to simplify its labour policy, laws and regulations and make them more effective. Regulatory compliance costs are higher than in other countries. The regulatory administrative compliance costs of small and medium enterprises in South Africa are 6.5% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), compared with less than 2% in countries such as Finland, Iceland and Belgium. GDP indicates the size of the economy and is the value of all the goods and services produced in an economy, plus the value of the goods and services imported, minus the goods and services exported (Pauw, Woods, Van der Linde, Fourie and Visser 2009:5).

South Africa’s policy is often seen to be ad hoc and discretion-based (thus giving rise to corruption); regulatory impact assessments are rare; laws and policies are rarely costed, leading to high compliance; and institutional capacity to implement is seldom factored in (RSA, National Planning Commission 2011:33). Labour regulations have positive effects such as the protection of workers’ rights and the ending of unfair discrimination, but there are also negative consequences such as the difficulty of sanctioning poor performers in the workplace, thereby limiting the incentive for institutions to hire inexperienced workers (RSA, National Planning Commission 2011:13). Skills acquisition is out of line with the needs of a modernising economy, as higher education institutions do not produce the number of skilled people that the growing economy requires. Young people are not being hired because of their lack of job readiness. This inability to support young people in making the school/university-to-work transition is the biggest challenge in the labour market.

Lack of productivity is also a key area of concern in South Africa. Lack of experience and continuity, especially in the public sector, undermine stability and productivity in service provision. Labour policy which was intended to transform the workplace and to improve the representivity of the public service resulted in a decrease in professional expertise and staff skills (RSA, National Planning Commission 2011:13).

The South African government needs to provide a sound labour environment and employment opportunities to the people of this country. Policy and regulations should be long-term oriented and should concentrate on investment and sound labour environments. Leaders will have to think long term and developmentally, rising above personal or political gain.

**CONCLUSION**

The labour relationship, as a unique human relationship, operates within a specific society and is structured by that society. The labour relations system is
shaped by different role players in that society and is therefore unique to that society and that country. The extent of government involvement in this system is based on the ideology in the country and regulates specific facets of the labour relationship. Government involvement in labour relations through laws and regulations should be directed towards providing guidelines on how to structure this relationship to ensure a harmonious and equitable labour environment, and not to overregulating this relationship. This could lead to inflexibility and rigidity in the employment relationship. The role of the state should be to determine the framework for employers and employees to participate in the labour environment, to create job opportunities and to stimulate growth. Because of globalisation, the world is unified into a single society, and structures and systems used by other countries cannot merely be copied and implemented; but there are lessons to be learned from developments and problems experienced in other systems and countries. Globalisation leads to some convergence in labour relations arrangements worldwide. These arrangements are standardised by the various conventions and recommendations adopted by the ILO. Comparison of labour systems and frameworks can contribute to a better understanding of national labour issues and practices. This may contribute to establishing a foundation for predicting future events in one’s own country.

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**AUTHOR’S CONTACT DETAILS**

G M Ferreira
Associate Professor
Department of Public Administration and Management
University of South Africa
P O Box 392
Pretoria
0003
Tel: 012 429 6618
Fax: 012 429 6075
E-mail: ferregm@unisa.ac.za
A core curriculum for a Master of Public Administration (MPA) qualification

Some considerations for a developmental state

J S Wessels
University of South Africa
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ABSTRACT

The Master of Public Administration (MPA) seems to lack a core curriculum on which the various universities and other interest groups within a specific country agree. This article considers the possibility of a core curriculum for a MPA programme that would address the intellectual, educational and practical needs and demands of a public official functioning in the context of a developmental state such as South Africa. The research for this article includes a survey of scholarly literature on the MPA and on curriculum development, a study of curriculum documents of the various Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) offering the MPA (or related) programmes in South Africa, Australia and New Zealand, an analysis of the generic core management criteria and standards for the Senior Management Service (SMS) of the South African Public Service (South Africa 2006), and inputs obtained from several Public Administration academics. This article confirms that it is indeed possible to identify core modules with related competencies for a MPA programme in a developmental state such as South Africa, and proposes the following modules as part of such a core curriculum: government in a developmental state; leadership and management in a changing public environment; public financial management; public policies for solving service delivery challenges; master the designing of a research project and the writing of a research proposal; master the writing of a dissertation under supervision to solve problems which need scientific solutions.
INTRODUCTION

The Master of Public Administration (MPA) is a course work postgraduate university programme offered to educate practicing public servants in managerial positions. The MPA is especially popular in the United States of America although the programme is also offered in various other countries, such as the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. In South Africa this programme is offered by various Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) and regulated by the Higher Education Qualifications Framework (HEQF). Although the MPA is a professional qualification, it is evident that a diversity of curricula exists worldwide amongst the various Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) offering this programme (Wessels 2010). There seems to be an absence of a commonly agreed upon core curriculum for this programme – not even in a typical developmental state such as South Africa.

Research by Koven, Goetzke and Brennan (2008:694) has shown that the highest regarded MPA programmes in the USA are “tightly focused” with the core as high as 57,1% of the total programme content. Their data also show that accredited MPA programmes are more homogeneous than non-accredited programmes (Koven, Goetzke and Brennan 2008:696). A comparison of MPA programmes in Australia, New Zealand and South Africa (Wessels 2010) confirms this finding, as the majority of the modules which are offered as part of the respective MPA programmes, are core modules (Australia (51%); New Zealand (58,33%); South Africa (77,92%). The core of the Executive Master of Public Administration (EMPA) offered in Australia and New Zealand by the Australia and New Zealand School of Government (ANZSOG) consists of 80% of the total coursework. The purpose of this article is to propose a core curriculum for an MPA programme that would address the intellectual, educational and practical needs and demands of a public official functioning in the context of a developmental state such as South Africa.

The research for this article includes:

● a survey of scholarly literature on the MPA and on curriculum development,
● a study of curriculum documents of the various HEIs offering the MPA (or related) programmes in South Africa, Australia and New Zealand
● an analysis of the generic core management criteria and standards for the Senior Management Service (SMS) of the South African Public Service (South Africa 2006)
● inputs obtained by means of an open ended questionnaire from several Public Administration academics
● the results of an internal workshop by an academic Department at a South African University on the content of a MPA curriculum
This article will start reporting in a review of scholarly literature on the MPA programme and an overview of the current offerings of MPA programmes in the United States of America, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. This will be followed by a discussion of the selected approach for curriculum development of a MPA programme and a reflection on the various considerations in the process of designing an MPA curriculum within the context of a developmental state. The article will conclude with such a proposed core MPA curriculum.

The MPA – A Global Perspective


It makes sense that reflection on a core curriculum for the MPA in a developmental state, should start with the purpose of such a qualification. What causes a MPA to be different from a Masters of Arts in Public Administration or a Masters of Commerce in Public Administration? Within the South African context one may use the Higher Education Qualifications Framework (HEQF) as a point of departure (South Africa 2007:27). This framework makes provision for two types of master’s degrees, namely (1) to educate and train researchers and (2) to prepare graduates for advanced and specialised professional employment (South Africa 2007:27). The MPA clearly falls in the second category, namely to prepare graduates for advanced and professional employment. In this regard Denhardt (2001:529) observes that “public administrators … need to develop skills to affect change in the public sector” – a clear purpose for the MPA programme. Cunningham and Weschler (2002:104) are adamant that the MPA
programme should apply theory-based training to meet the developmental and career needs of “administrative practitioners”. If the MPA is regarded as advanced and specialised professional preparation for senior public practitioners or public managers, the purpose statement formulated by O’Neill for the Executive Master of Public Administration offered in Australia and New Zealand, may be also applicable to the MPA in general, namely “to enhance the depth and breadth of management and policy of high-potential public sector managers, to provide these managers the tools and frameworks needed to be clearer about the value public managers deliver to the public, and to better equip public managers to manage complex accountabilities in the face of shifting political, economic, and organizational environments” (O’Neill 2006:678).

Although the literature seems to be in agreement about the professional nature of the MPA qualification, the literature review reveals the existence of a diversity of curriculum requirements and components for this programme (Card and Fairholm 2007:6–7; Cleary 1990:665; Hays and Dude 1996:427; O’Neill 2006:679–681; Koven, Goetzke and Brennan 2008:698–699). Cleary (1990:665) observes that common curriculum requirements vary from masters programme to masters programme. However, a survey conducted by him reveals a tendency to an “inner core” of six areas, namely public administration, research methods, public finance, policy analysis, personnel, and political institutions and processes (Cleary 1990:665). Card and Fairholm (2007:6–7) have a different view on this as they conclude from their research that leadership, communication, financial management and “wearing well on people” are amongst the most important areas of competences for an MPA programme to focus on. Hays and Dude (1996:427) identify a different list of topics to be covered by the Certified Public Manager (CPM) programme, which may also be considered in the reflection on a core curriculum for the MPA. This list is as follows: general administration and organisations, technical and quantitative skills, analytical and conceptual skills and human skills (Hays and Dude 1996:427).

The discourse on curriculum requirements and components is continued by a recent article reporting on a survey of websites from top 50 institutions in the USA by Koven, Goetzke and Brennan (2008:698–699). This article reveals that more than 50 percent of MPA programmes at these institutions require at least one of the following subjects or modules as part of the core: budgeting and finance (84,8%), ethics and leadership (58,7%), policy evaluation (87%), public administration (73,9%), politics and legal institutions (52,2%) and organisational concepts and institutions (87%). From Australia and New Zealand, O’Neill (2006:679-681) reports that the EMPA consists of ten subjects, of which eight are core. These eight subjects are public sector financial management, delivering public value, designing public policies and programmes, government
in a market economy, decision making under uncertainty, leading public sector change, governing by the rules and the work-based project (O’Neill 2006:679–681). Some of these EMPA topics, for example, delivering public value, leading public sector change, and governing by the rules, are quite unfamiliar to the traditional topics associated with the MPA and suggest a possible trend away from the disciplinary approach of an MPA curriculum. This trend may be to a “socially responsive and competency-based” curriculum as identified in an article by Nel (2004:23–49). This trend may perhaps be the reason for a perceived tension observed between theory competence curricula and professional competence curricula.

The usefulness of theory in the MPA curriculum has also been discussed extensively in the literature. The question of “how theory is properly related to practice” within the arena of the MPA curriculum has been addressed a few years ago in an article “Theory competency for MPA-educated practitioners” by McSwite (2001:111–115). McSwite (2001:112) argues that education MPA students in theory “adds at least three potential aspects to their capacity for effective administrative action: richness of perspective, flexibility of attention, and modesty”. This implies that practitioners will have a sensitivity for the existence of many possible ways of working out a line of action, a willingness to shift their understanding and line of action if needed, and a willingness to openly engage with others in a discourse about possible lines of action (McSwite 2001:112). Cunningham and Weschler (2002:105–109), however, warn that the “orientation of the instructor trumps curricular content” in the sense that the instructor or lecturer is supposed to create a learning environment in which students can reflect on the application of alternative theories to explain and understand current policies, practices and managerial tasks. The lecturer is thus supposed to create a haven where the MPA student can consider profession related issues “thoughtfully, at low personal cost, and prepare for the trial by fire that will inevitably face the line practitioner” (Cunningham and Weschler 2002:109). This haven is supposed, not only to instil knowledge about the field, but to prepare MPA students “to act, effectively and consistently, to make things happen” (Denhardt 2001:529). MPA students should therefore, in the words of Denhardt (2001:533), learn as part of “a relationship that creates the conditions under which appropriate learning and personal development can flourish, both for the student and the teacher” (Denhardt 2001:533). It seems that the creation of learning environments in which learners can apply various theoretical tools to reflect on professional problems, is directly related to appropriate delivery mechanisms (Denhardt 2001:528; O’Neill 2006:682–688). It is especially distance learning that asks for new and innovative ways of delivering.

The professional nature of the MPA qualification seems to make a discussion regarding accreditation (the official recognition of the qualification for meeting
the minimum requirements of professional education) and ranking inevitable. However, this is not a new discourse. In the United States of America (USA), MPA programme accreditation has been done for many years by the National Association of Schools of Public Affairs and Administration (NASPAA). It is specifically the issue of accreditation that “fostered the impression that the practice of public management could be boiled down into a generic core of knowledge” (Hays and Dude 1996:425). This impression is not without reason as research by Koven, Goetzke and Brennan (2008:697) shows that accredited MPA programmes in the USA tend to have a higher percentage (57.5%) of modules as part of the core of the programme than non-accredited MPA programmes (47.9%). Their research has also shown that accredited programmes have a stronger preference for certain modules (e.g., human resources management, policy evaluation, politics and legal institutions, organisational concepts and institutions, capstone or final research project) than non-accredited programmes (Koven, Goetzke and Brennan 2008:697). However, their research has shown that accreditation is not necessarily a factor contributing to the rankings of the top 50 programmes in the USA—in fact accredited programmes rank lower among the top 50 institutions (Koven, Goetzke and Brennan 2008:703). It seems that larger programmes are statistically associated with a higher rank, probably due to a higher visibility in the field and the ability to attract better students (Koven, Goetzke and Brennan 2008:702). The implication is thus that accreditation is not a necessary requirement for a specific institution’s qualification to be recognised as one of the top programmes.

Related to the accreditation and ranking of the MPA degree, is certainly the issue of its perceived utility. There seems to be a longstanding belief under MPA degree holders in at least the USA that the acquisition of this degree is of significant benefit to them (Grode and Holzer 1975:411). Research by Hays and Dude (1996:431) finds that it is especially the traditional academic setting of the professional training that appeals to MPA students. A study by Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2006:6) concludes that MPA programmes continue to be relevant and highly effective as their curricula incorporate attention to skills and knowledge development in understanding how things work, the so-called “hard” skills (e.g., programme and project management, financial management and job-specific technical skills) and people skills (e.g., change management, people management and empowerment, client orientation and customer focus, and communication). Although similar research has not been done on the perceived utility of the MPA degree in South Africa, one can take it for granted that the number of students still enrolling for this programme serves as evidence of at least a perception of utility under proposed students.
The literature as discussed earlier in this article has shown that the MPA is generally regarded as a programme giving advanced and specialised professional preparation for senior public managers. For this purpose there seems to exist a diversity of curriculum compositions among the various HEIs offering this programme. The trend in the discourse of MPA curricula seems to be in the direction of the creation of learning environments in which learners can apply various theoretical tools to reflect on professional problems. The literature also reveals that accreditation is not necessarily a proxy for high ranking MPA programmes. However, accredited programmes seem to have greater uniformity with regard to the type of modules as part of their core than non accredited programmes. There seems to be, at least in the USA, a long standing belief that an MPA qualification is relevant and beneficial for students working in the public sector. Bearing in mind that the purpose of this qualification is to prepare senior public managers for a profession in the public service, it makes sense that continuing attention is given to the relevance of the programme’s curriculum.

**SOME THOUGHTS ON CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT**

The curriculum of any academic programme can be considered as the heart of such a programme (cf. Slattery 1995:xv). Although there may be various definitions of the word “curriculum” (see for example the one in Collins 2009), I understand the concept as referring to the learning (in the widest sense of the word) that is facilitated by a specific university programme such as the MPA. Consequently, the concept includes a combination of explicit and implicit knowledge, skills, values and competence in the broadest sense of the word (Pauw 1995:45–46; Clapper and Wessels 1997:49). The concept is thus more comprehensive as the definition by *Collins Dictionary*, namely “all the courses of study offered by a school or college” and “a course of study in one subject at a school or college” (Collins 2009: Online).

The wide interpretation of the concept resonates with the trend of designing curricula where the typical learner is seen firstly as citizens, and then as employable graduates (Heath 2000:44). Consequently, this interpretation of the concept “curriculum” see curriculum development central to the process of transformation (Tisani 2004:174; Esakov 2009:69). The implication of this view is that an ideal curriculum is supposed to prepare an MPA student to be more than an “armchair pontificator” who only criticises, without having the skills or motivation to transform society or an institution, and solve societal problems (Rowe 2002).
CONSIDERATIONS FOR DESIGNING AN MPA CURRICULUM FOR A DEVELOPMENTAL STATE

How does the ideal MPA curriculum for a developmental state, such as South Africa look like? The literature review has shown that there is a general agreement that the purpose of MPA programmes is to prepare senior public managers for a profession in the public service. Knowing that, the typical learner (senior public manager) and the professional context of such a person needs to be kept in mind when a legitimate MPA curriculum is designed. For considering such a curriculum, I have decided to follow in part “a simplified process for designing your curriculum” (Nöthling, Goodwin-Davey and Van Rensburg 2009:3.4). This process has been used on 8 October 2009 in a curriculum development workshop of an academic department at a South African university offering the Master of Public Administration. This process consists of the following five steps: problem-space analysis; finding a clear focus of the professional characteristics the learner; designing down; mapping the curriculum; and completing the necessary forms.

Answers obtained from a recent qualitative survey amongst members of the Association of Southern African Schools and Departments of Public Administration and Management (ASSADPAM) as well as the generic core management criteria and standards as published in the Senior Management Service Handbook (South Africa 2006: Annexure E) has been fed into the workshop. This article will consequently report on the results of the application of this process during the workshop under the headings “problem-space analysis”, finding a clear focus on the professional characteristics of the learner, and competencies needed.

Problem-space analysis

The purpose of this first step, the problem-space analysis is to understand the context in which the typical learners for this programme work and live. The context has been categorised as follows: the developmental state, places, situations or spheres in the context, role players in the context, typical problems encountered, and social forces influencing the context (Nöthling, Goodwin-Davey and Van Rensburg 2009:3.5).

The developmental state

The “developmental state” enjoys axiomatic status within the South African milieu although the concept does not appear as such in the South African Constitution. Section 152(1) (c) of the Constitution, 1996, however, states that the objects of local government is, inter alia, to promote social and economic
development. Furthermore, the concept “developmental state” does not enjoy unambiguous definition among scholars. It seems, therefore, that “developmental state-ism” will have to be defined and constantly redefined contextually if it is to convey any meaning. The determining context relevant to this presentation is the learning or educational and training ideals of and for a South African public official; assuming the conventional wisdom that the South African public official functions in a developmental state setting. Edigheji (2005) points out that the developmental state, by definition, comprises an ideological and a structural component. From an ideological point of view, the developmental state is meant to have clearly defined socio-economic objectives (White 1998:20), including targeted economic growth that results in the improvement of the material living conditions of the majority of the population (cf. Manual 2004; Rasool 2008). The structural component of the developmental state definition requires that the developmental state focuses on increasing the capacity to implement economic and social policies with a growing measure of efficiency in response to the multiple constituencies that it purports to serve. Improving the policy implementation capacity requires increasing and improving the institutional, technical, administrative and political aptitudes, competencies and capabilities of those fingered in the implementation of the policies. Against the background of Amartya Sen’s conception of the developmental state, Manual (2004) concludes that public servants that function in the developmental state context must have a particular understanding of themselves; viz. as servants of the people, as “champions of the poor and downtrodden”. Both the ideological and structural components of the developmental state hold important implications for the preparation of the ideal public official. Considering, for example, chapter 10 of the South African Constitution, 1996 as a funnel through which all constitutional ideals can be poured into the public service, invariably yields that public administration must be in pursuit of, inter alia, economy, efficiency, development, high ethical standards and accountability, broad representivity, public participation, transparency, and cultivation of human resources (RSA 1996; s 195(1) and (2)). These requirements; aspects that resonate with both ideological and structural components of the developmental state as contextually explained above, demand that the capacities of public officials who aim to function optimally as servants of the public be systematically honed and developed in line with the developmental pursuits as stated above. Such contextually responsive development, education and training of public officials would, in turn, demand contextually defined curriculum development. In response to the latter understanding of the developmental state relative to the South African Constitution and the requirements it holds for public officials, this article advances a contextually specific MPA programme for the managers in the South African public service.
**Places, situations or spheres in the context**
The typical learner for this programme is one living and/or working simultaneously in the global world, Africa, South Africa, in one of the spheres of government, in the public service or local government service, and in a senior managerial position.

**Other role players in the context**
The typical learner shares this context with other role players, such as political office-bearers, legislative institutions and their members and committees, the public sector as employer, the public, the private sector, NGOs and CBOs, various Chapter 9 institutions, co-ordinating departments such as the department of Finance and the Department of Public Service and Administration, Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA), other government departments, and the various professional associations (e.g. ASSADPAM, South African Association of Public Administration and Management (SAAPAM), Institute for Public Finance and Auditing (IPFA), Institute of Municipal Finance Officers (IMFO), Institute for Local Government Management of South Africa (ILGM), and Southern Africa Institute of Management Services (SAIMAS)).

**Typical problems encountered**
In performing their managerial tasks, the typical learners for this programme seems to encounter a variety of problems or challenges. These challenges include inter alia the ability to deal with the ever changing technology, lack of academic writing skills, applying theoretical knowledge in the workplace, lack of project and programme management skills, lack of financial management skills, compliance with the diverse financial regulations, lack of knowledge of the policies impacting on public service, lack of strategic leadership in government and lack of implementation of good policies (South Africa 2008:18-19).

**Social forces influencing the context**
The context in which the typical learner operates is influenced by a diversity of social forces, such as the current economic recession, poverty combined with unemployment, a lack of housing and health related issues such as HIV/Aids and TB, a high crime rate, illegal immigration, human and gender rights infringements, the effect of Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), employment equity and illiteracy.

**Professional characteristics of the learner**
It has been found that the typical learner for this programme is part of the
Senior Management Service (or equivalent level) or aspiring to be there. The following typical roles within a government institution for this person has been identified (cf. South Africa 2006:Annexure E): Strategic capability and leadership; Programme and project management; Financial management; Change management; Knowledge management; Advisory; Quality assurance; Service delivery innovation; Problem solving and analysis; People management and empowerment; Citizen orientation; Communication and networking; and honesty and integrity.

Complementary to the above roles, the following tasks has been identified to be executed by a senior public manager within the identified context: Budgeting; Staffing; Planning; Execution of line function; Strategic decision making; Design procedures; Design policy oversee implementation of policy; Monitoring and evaluation; Delegation; Make submissions/presentations; Negotiate; Communicate; Co-ordinate; Commission or do research; Do/commission impact studies; Reading and interpreting texts (research reports, policies, legislation, submissions); Liaising with legislator and executive; Networking; Implement judicial decisions; Training; and Counselling.

The expected impact that a well-educated professional will have on his/her professional environment, is as follows: improved productivity; improved levels of knowledge and skills; healthy working environment; well-rounded professional individuals; improved service delivery; improved citizen satisfaction; improved quality assurance standards; reduced need for monitoring and quality assurance instruments; improved managerial and leadership cadre; improved high level problem solving skills; increased time spending on academic programmes; enhanced life-long learning.

**Competence needed**

Bearing in mind the problem-space analysis and the ideal professional characteristics of a typical professional public manager, the following question relevant to our discussion is what competence is needed by this public manager? What is meant by the concept “competence”? I share Hager and Butler’s (1996) understanding of this concept, namely that it refers to “the ability of a person to fulfil a role effectively”. In a qualitative survey amongst members of ASSADPAM attending the annual conference on 28 and 29 October 2008, a number of competences regarded as crucial for the Senior Management Service (SMS) have been identified. For the purpose of this article, they will be categorised according to the three categories identified by Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2006:6–7), namely (1) the “lay-of-the-land” competencies relating to a general understanding of how things work, (2) the technical skills competencies and (3) the people skills competencies. These competencies are summarised in table 1.
After a thorough analysis and consideration of the above list, the following synthesised expected competence has been formulated. It is expected from a senior public manager to be competent to:

- Gain and apply specific theoretical knowledge in Public Administration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General understanding of how things work</th>
<th>Technical skills competencies</th>
<th>People skills competencies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Ability to contextualise (socio-economic/geo-politics)</td>
<td>- Ability to apply technical skills to generate knowledge for management</td>
<td>- Competency on values/ethics/moral toughness</td>
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<td>- General knowledge</td>
<td>- Decision-making</td>
<td>- Capacity and competing flexibility – ability to move quickly, start programmes, close programs and seize opportunities</td>
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<td>- Knowledge (evidence based knowledge)</td>
<td>- Financial management and supply chain management</td>
<td>- Leadership: guiding people and motivating them to serve the people</td>
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<td>- The ability to understand large and complex systems.</td>
<td>- Ability to deliver services relevant to context</td>
<td>- Interacting with people appropriately</td>
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<td>- The ability to understand the context in which they operate: political, economical and technical, regulatory</td>
<td>- Being able to restructure</td>
<td>- Human capital management</td>
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<td>- Knowledge and skill to link operational goals and objectives to compensation plans</td>
<td>- Mentoring</td>
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<td>- Management</td>
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<td>- Performance budgeting</td>
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<td>- Performance management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Policy implementation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Process and reengineering knowledge to maintain and improve cost efficiencies</td>
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<td>- Programme and project management, including service delivery (citizen focus)</td>
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<td>- Project &amp; programme management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Project management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Public financial management</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Public human resource Management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Public policy making</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Strategic human resource Management</td>
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<td>- Strategic leadership programme</td>
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<td>- Strategic planning</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Technical competencies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>- Implementing of regulations</td>
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</table>
Table 2: Topics as preferred by ASSADPAM members to be included in a generic South Africa MPA programme

- Contextual influences: International and national politics, economics, judicial institutions, and civil society
- Effective networking on various levels
- Effective planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation
- Ethics (guiding values)
- Executive management (managing people, change, programmes and projects)
- Human resource management (with emphasis on strategic; including performance management)
- Intergovernmental relations
- Introduction to Public Administration theories (including management and governance)
- Leadership (creating vision and getting others excited about it)
- Organisational Development
- Planning (including monitoring and evaluation)
- Policy formulation/development, interpretation and implementation
- Public administration research methodology
- Public financial administration and management
- Public financial management (including budgeting; supply chain management; risk management; accounting)
- Research culminating into a dissertation
- Social entrepreneurship
- Sustainable development

- Synthesise information autonomously in specialised fields in order to deal with contradictions.
- Perform advanced professional, leadership and managerial tasks in the public sector.
- Apply research methods and techniques solving problems which need scientific solutions.
- Write high level texts.

In order to instil this rich competence to our typical learners, we need to package the learning process in a number of core modules.

**PROPOSED MODULES AND RELATED COMPETENCIES**

In the survey conducted among members of ASSADPAM, the several topics to be covered as modules in a generic South African MPA programme were suggested by them (see table 2).

These suggested topics have been evaluated in the light of the problem-space analysis, the professional characteristics of a typical senior public manager and the expected competence of this person. As a result, six core modules (with
related competencies) for a MPA in a typical developmental state have been identified (see table 3) and are proposed.

The first module (Government in a developmental state) falls within the competency category “general understanding of how things work” and provides the country specific context within which the senior public manager is supposed

Table 3: Proposed core modules for a MPA programme in a developmental state

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>Related competencies</th>
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<tr>
<td>Government in a developmental state</td>
<td>• Transformation</td>
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<td>• Indigenous knowledge systems</td>
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<td>• The influence of politics</td>
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<td>• The influence of the economy</td>
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<td>• The functions of government and the state</td>
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<td>• Working with other role-players</td>
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<td>Leadership and management in a changing public environment</td>
<td>• Staffing</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Communication</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Co-ordination</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Integrity</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Professionalism</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Negotiation</td>
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<td>• Conflict resolution, diversity management, emotional intelligence</td>
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<tr>
<td>Public financial management</td>
<td>• Risk management</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Obtaining and spending funds sparingly</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Understanding financial reports</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Ensuring effective utilisation of financial resources</td>
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<td>• Align own budget with macro frameworks</td>
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<td>Public policies for solving service delivery challenges</td>
<td>• Advanced reading and writing</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Interpretation</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Implementation</td>
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<td>• Decision-making</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master the designing of a research project and the writing</td>
<td>• Advanced reading and writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>and the writing of a research proposal</td>
<td>• Interpretation</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>• Editing, amending and changing</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Research</td>
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<tr>
<td>Master the writing of a dissertation under supervision to</td>
<td>• Advanced reading and writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>solve problems which need scientific solutions</td>
<td>• Interpretation</td>
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<td>• Editing, amending and changing</td>
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<td>• Knowledge and information management</td>
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to function. This context includes issues such as transformation, indigenous knowledge systems, the influence of politics, the influence of the economy, the functions of the government and the state and working with other role-players.

The second module (leadership and management in a changing public environment) falls in the competence category “people skills”. It includes the acquiring of competencies related to staffing, communication, co-ordination, integrity, professionalism, negotiation and conflict resolution, diversity management and emotional intelligence.

The third module (public financial management) falls in the competence category “technical skills”. This module includes the acquiring of competences related to risk management, obtaining and spending funds sparingly, understanding financial reports, ensuring effective utilisation of financial resources, and aligning own budgets with macro frameworks.

The fourth module (public policies for solving service delivery challenges) also falls in the competence category “technical skills”. This module implies the acquiring of higher order competences related to advanced reading and writing, the interpretation of texts, the implementation of policies, decision-making and planning.

The fifth module (master the designing of a research project and the writing of a research proposal) also falls in the competence category “technical skills”. This module encompass higher order technical competences such as advanced reading and writing, interpretation, editing, amending and changing of texts, as well as the planning and adequately designing of research.

The sixth module (master the writing of a dissertation under supervision to solve problems which reed scientific solutions) also falls in the competence category “technical skills”. As module five, this module includes the higher order technical competences such as advanced reading and writing, interpretation, editing, amending and changing of texts. It also includes competences such as the implementation of research plans, the utilisation of the most applicable methods of data collection and interpretation, the competence to formulate valid research findings, and to manage knowledge and information.

CONCLUSION

This article reports on qualitative research that investigates the possibility of a core curriculum for the MPA programme that would address the intellectual, educational and practical needs and demands of a public official functioning in the context of a developmental state such as South Africa. The review of scholarly literature has shown that although the MPA is in general regarded as a programme giving specialised and advanced professional preparation
for senior managers in the public service, there is a lack of agreement on the core curriculum of this programme among the various universities offering this programme. With regard to the concept “curriculum”, this article uses it with the connotation of referring to an academic programme preparing senior public servants with implicit and explicit knowledge and skills, values and competence in the widest sense of the word necessary to transform society and public institutions and solve societal problems. For this purpose a simplified process for curriculum design has been used to categorise the professional context, the future professional characteristics, and the competence needed by the professional public service manager with a MPA degree. From this process of curriculum development the six modules as summarised in table 3, have been identified and are hereby proposed.

This article contributes therefore to the ongoing discourse on professional education for public managers by proposing a core curriculum for a MPA programme in a developmental state such as South Africa. This article suggests that if this core curriculum be introduced by the various universities offering this programme, the MPA as a course work postgraduate university programme will improve its ability to give high quality professional education to practicing public servants in managerial positions.

NOTES

1 Paper read in Working Group 1 at the annual Conference of the International Association of Schools and Institutes of Administration (IASIA) on “Improving Administrative Sciences Worldwide”, 12–18 June 2011, Rome, Italy. The attendance of the conference was made possible through a research grant from the College of Economic and Management Sciences, Unisa.

2 The contribution of Prof V A Clapper in the formulation of this section on the “developmental state” is hereby acknowledged with appreciation.

REFERENCES


**AUTHOR’S CONTACT DETAILS**

Prof J S Wessels  
Head: CEMS Office of Graduate Studies and Research  
College of Economic and Management Sciences  
Unisa  
P O Box 392  
Unisa  
0003  
South Africa  
Tel: 012 429 6099  
E-mail: wessejs@unisa.ac.za
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