

***AN IDIOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS OF NEW PUBLIC
MANAGEMENT / LEADERSHIP AND TRADITIONAL
PUBLIC MANAGEMENT / LEADERSHIP***

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PROLOGUE 1

A PARADIGM

Fox & Meyer (1995:93), define the term paradigm as an overarching set of beliefs and unquestioned assumptions that are widely accepted by researchers and practitioners in the discipline. These assumptions are used to guide research and solve problems.

Cloete (1995:95) suggests that a paradigm is a description, pattern or mental picture to promote understanding of a matter.

Coetzee (1988:134) refers to paradigm as a status oriented framework within which a subject is viewed for the purpose of conceptualizing its theoretical and practical substance pertaining to a particular continuance or time frame.

According to Kuhn (1970); Lyn (1997) and Guening (2001), instead of a paradigm being a generally agreed framework of all the practitioners in a field, it is actually a contested idea. It does not require agreement among all practitioners; there are often competing paradigms in the same field.

To Behn (2001) a paradigm does not mean one set of views that everyone must agree on, rather views that exist for a time and are revealed in the discipline's practices.

PROLOGUE 2

"An organization is healthy when the ideal it pursues is alive in all its members and when each person's talents are actualized within that organization."

(Alexandre, 2006)

"In present times the interest of the private citizen are affected to a great extent by the actions of civil servants ... [they] should constantly bear in mind that the citizen has a right to expect ... that his personal feelings, no less than his rights as an individual, will be sympathetically and fairly considered."

(Chapman, 1988:304)

"Those who carry public responsibility as top managers and professionals set the tone. Within government, they set the style of vigor and imagination and efficiency or they deflate those qualities among their subordinates."

(Macy, 1971:215)

PROLOGUE 3

Richard Feynman, the irreverent physicist who won the Nobel Prize in 1965 for his work on quantum electrodynamics, relates the following story. Following the award ceremony and the dinner in Stockholm, he wanders into a room where a Scandinavian princess is holding court. The princess recognizes him as one of the awardees and asks him what he got the prize for. When Feynman replies that his field is physics, the princess says that this is too bad. Since no one at the table knows anything about physics, she says, they cannot talk about it. Feynman disagrees:

“On the contrary,” I answered. “It’s because somebody knows something about it that we can’t talk about physics. It’s the things that nobody knows anything about that we can discuss. We can talk about the weather; we can talk about social problems; we can talk about psychology; we can talk about international finance ... so it’s the subject that nobody knows anything about that we can all talk about!” (Feynman 1985).

This is not the place to defend international finance (circa 1965) against the charge Feynman levels at it. But suppose Feynman had picked on leadership instead of international finance. Would leadership experts have a plausible riposte? Is the reason we all talk so much about leadership that we understand so little about it?

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis is properly organized: Introduction, Problem Statement, Objectives, Literature Review, Research Methodology, Analyses of Results, Recommendations and Conclusions. Neat and tidy – as indeed it ought to be.

The systematic structure, however, does not reflect the way this thesis really came about ... The reality of doing research proved to be an adventure through unknown territory. Looking back, I would ascribe a mere 20% of the time to vision and skill and 80% of the research time to endurance, perseverance and excitement. Nevertheless, developing this thesis has been a very worthwhile experience for which opportunity I am truly grateful.

To my supervisors, Prof. Andre Slabbert and Prof. William Fox, of the Faculty of Business, is due a deep sense of gratitude. Their guidance, knowledge and mentoring skills were my source of strength and motivation since the early days of this study. Without their support and encouragement this project would still be only a wish. My sincere thank you for their friendship and encouragement to continue in the face of the difficulties.

To the officials and staff members of the Provincial Government Western Cape, I am grateful for all the assistance. A special debt of gratitude is owed to the staff of the CPUT Library, and my secretary at my office workplace, Lucille Welgemoed, for their technical expertise, computer knowledge, support and enthusiasm.

The production of this document would not have been possible without them.

Finally this study is dedicated to my son, CA Alexandre, who I love so much.

At the age of 65 I want to show my son, that we are never too old to set another goal or to dream a new dream.

DECLARATION

I declare that “Public Service New Era Leadership: A Paradigm” is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Where the overriding thesis or the point of view of an author is generalized no page numbers are given.

The opinions contained therein are my own and not necessarily those of the University, my supervisors or any other party.

This dissertation has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification.

Cesar da Silva Alexandre

30 March 2007

Acronyms

ADB	Asian Development Bank
AEGM	Ad-Hoc Expert Group Meeting
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AISI	African Information Society Initiative
ANC	African National Congress (South Africa)
APPER	African Priority Programme for Economic Recovery
BDP	Bureau for Development Policy
CBO	Community based organization
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
CSO	Civil Society Organization
CSM	Civil Service Management
CSR	Civil Service Reform
CSRP	Civil Service Reform Programme
CWSA	Community Water Supply Agency
DFID	Department for International Development (United Kingdom)
DGG	Democratic Governance Group
DLGUD	Decentralization, Local Governance and Urban Development
DPMD	Development Policy Management Division
DPSA	Department of Public Service and Administration
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
ESAF	Enhanced Structural Adjustment Facility (IMF)
EU	European Union
FLE	Family Life Education
GDP	Gross domestic product
GEAR	Macro-economic Strategy for Growth, Employment and Redistribution (South Africa)
GIMPA	Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV	Human immune deficiency virus
HRD	Human Resources Development

HRM	Human Resources Management
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ICTD	Information and Communication Technology for Development
IDP	Infrastructure Development Plan
IEC	Information, Education and Communication
IFI	International Financial Institutions
IGG	Inspector General of Government (Uganda)
IGR	Intergovernmental Relations
IISS	International Institute for Strategic Studies
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IT	Information Technology
KISS	Keep It Simple, Short
LDC	Least Developed Countries
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDI	Management Development Institutes
MEC	Member of Executive Council
MOF	Ministry of Finance
MPS	Ministry of Public Service (Uganda)
MRC	Medical Research Council
MTEF	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NHDR	National Human Development Report
NHRP	National Human Rights Programme
NHS	National Health Service
NICI	National Information and Communication Infrastructure
NIRP	National Institutional Renewal Programme
NPA	New Public Administration
NPM	New Public Management
NPR	National Performance Review
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSM	Organizational Strategic Management
PAR	Public Administration Reform

PARDIC	Public Administration Restructuring and Decentralization Implementation Committee
PE	Public Enterprise
PEM	Public Expenditure Management
PETS	Public Expenditure Tracking Systems
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act, 2002
PHC	Primary Health Care
PPPs	Public Private Partnership
PRC	Presidential Review Commission (South Africa)
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
PSC	Public Service Commissions
PSM	Public Sector Management
QSAE	Quality and Standards Authority of Ethiopia
PBAS	Regional Bureau for Arab States (UNDP)
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme (South Africa)
Renamo	Resistência Nacional Moçambicana
ROM	Results Oriented Management
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAP	Structural Adjustment Programme
SMART	Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant and Time-limited
SPA	Special Program of Assistance for Africa (World Bank)
TADREG	Tanzania Development Research Group
TQM	Total Quality Management
TRAC	Target from Resource Assignment from Core
TRC	Truth and Reconciliation Commission
UN	United Nations
UNCDF	United Nations Capital Development Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNEDIL	Programme to Strengthen African Training Institutions
UN-NADAF	United Nations New Agenda for Development of Africa in the 1990s
UN-PAAERD	United Nations Plan of Action for African Economic Recovery and Development
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
WHO	World Health Organization
WPTPS	White Paper on Transforming the Public Service

ABSTRACT

Public service professionals can no longer afford to be ethnocentric, inward looking, focused on the past, and defensive. They must be forward-looking, globally oriented, innovative, adaptable, and ready to take advantage of opportunities to serve the community more effectively. Public Administration, if it is to be well done, must be aggressive, not a passive enterprise; in the pursuit of public interest (Cooper et al., 1998).

Industrial era Public Administrators, characterized by high degrees of centralization and large driven bureaucracies, cannot meet the needs and challenges of the new information era. New kinds of Public Institutions are therefore required which are more flexible and more customer and results oriented. This trend follows what is emerging outside the public sector where organizations are promoting flatter management structures, decentralization of authority and a greater focus on improving quality and customer service.

The many decades of dormancy in the administrative and organizational structure of the public sector were reflected in and influenced by the unchanging nature of public service culture (Caiden, 1990). In contrast, there has been a rush for reform during the past 12 years, reflected in new policies, structures, financial management frameworks and service outcomes aimed at enhancing public sector accountability, transparency and efficiency. This, however, has not been accompanied by a vision for a new public sector organizational culture, of more customer driven and business like mentality.

Underpinning sustainable organizational change is cultural change of the organization itself and of their employees, which in turn is most effectively driven by a new visionary transformational leadership style which the author calls Public Sector New Era Leadership: A Paradigm.

The author argues that it is critical for top Public Service managers to identify themselves with the elements characterizing the theoretical construct of the new visionary, transformational leaders advocated in this research.

A new public administration model should be manifested through a new set of techniques, values, methods, skills and behaviours, related to results and performance, instead of status quo maintenance, and with the adoption of a more customer driven and business like mentality, while taking cognizance of the unique diversity, strategies and socio-economic, political perspectives of South Africa. Therefore the author argues that it is imperative to perk up and emend the current leadership and governance framework, to drastically improve the service delivery at the pace needed in South Africa especially the service delivery backlogs in disadvantaged communities.

The research has identified the serious need for a New Era Leadership in the Public Sector, appropriately supported by competent and effective governance.

Contemporary leadership theory promotes the view that optimal leadership approaches are not personality based or universally applicable. The most effective organizations are those where the approach adopted, best meets the needs of the organization and the business situation at hand (Farkas and Wetlanfer, 1998). Transformational visionary leadership has been identified in this study as a leadership approach that is most likely to create sustainable change for improved efficiency and effectiveness.

Schein (1992:374-392) argues that transformational leaders of the future will have to be perpetual lifelong learners. New Era Leadership and all New Public Management reforms essentially implies fundamental changes to the power relationships between the key players in the system of government and requires considerable attitudinal and courageous changes on the part of the bureaucrats. Political and Administrative leadership in the Public Sector should work together in the pursuit of the following summarized leading ideas and values. An incorporation of private sector approaches; development of a stronger external orientation, incorporation of foresight and anticipation into decision making; a shift from process-oriented to results-oriented government; the importance of visionary leadership found at all levels throughout organizations; the need to

change the culture of the public sector; the development of alternative organizational designs based upon principles of decentralization, delayering and openness to outside influences; the promotion of continuous organizational and individual learning, including the development of key competencies of employees; the widespread use of empowerment; team work and participation in decision-making; the development of a focus on the customer as the chief source of feedback on how well the organization is doing; the need to manage diversity both within the organization and in terms of the people it serves; the development of more robust performance systems and the use of more imaginative types of incentives to promote improvements; a reshaping of the boundaries between the public and private sector through privatization; contracting out and partnerships; and the demonstration of greater responsiveness to ministers, as well as greater accountability to legislatures and the public. In the Public Services arena, the leadership question is not, however, the question about government performance that is usually asked.

Traditionally, managers have asked the systems question. Rather than develop public managers with the transformational and transactional leadership capacity to improve the performance of their organizations, the public service bureaucracy sought to create performance systems that will impose such improvements. Thus, the public sector has tended (if not implicitly) to ignore the leadership question and, instead, have focused on the system question: How can we compel, command, or coerce public officials into improving their performance.

This systems approach has proved not to be effective. Administrative requirements (for performance or anything else) are not designed to elicit discernment and adaptation. They are created to impose obedience, conformity and mediocrity. Rather than impose systems requirements and pay higher salaries for managers who have reached their level of incompetence, develop public managers to acquire the crucial transactional, transformational & visionary New Era Leadership skills.

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Chapter 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Problem Statement

In summary Public Service in South Africa remains outdated, ineffective and incapable of improving Public Service delivery. Despite advances in policy design, the transition, implementation and control remain a challenge (Report of the State of the Public Service, 2005: 20).

1.2 Objectives

This failure of the Public Service to deliver effective results forces us to re-think and examine the management and leadership of the Public Sector, and its severe lack of capacity and productivity.

Therefore there was a need to investigate the role of Senior Public Service Management and the necessary attributes of a “Public Service new Era Leadership”.

The research argued that there is an urgent need for an effective and efficient leadership, management and governance mind shift framework in the South African Public Service to achieve the goal of South Africa becoming a winning nation.

The intent was to create a number of implications arising from the findings of this thesis for leadership models in general and more specifically, for the development of leadership skills in the Public Management Sector.

The research might lead to further specific studies on the effectiveness of Senior Management in these organizations and also provide a basis for more specific research hypotheses.

It is the primary aim of this thesis, to contribute to the development of such leaders in the Public Service Organizations, focusing on what really makes a

difference, based on extensive research and observation of the best practices world wide, to create new ideas and paradigms.

The results and concepts that are presented in this thesis, intended challenging much of the management and leadership practice that is formed in the present Public Administration.

The research also provided on overview of the evolution of the New Public Management (NPM), the combination of factors driving change and the potential and limitations of NPM.

The research was done with the purpose of achieving six main objectives:

1. To review the various theories on management and leadership;
2. To introduce managers in the Public Sector to the current thinking about leadership;
3. To impress upon Public Service Management , that new kinds of public institutions are required, which are more flexible, and customer orientated;
4. To elicit staff views, on the skills, knowledge and attributes needed by Senior Public Managers;
5. To analyze what behaviors, attitudes and management styles are displayed by Senior Public Management;
6. To give recommendations on how to bring about change.

1.3 Thesis Perspectives

The theories that can be derived from the research that is presented in this thesis may not enable the development of a mature theory. Like the concepts of Information Age or Society themselves, concepts & ideas of Public Admin. in an Information Age still are presented, with lots of question marks.

The results and concepts that are presented in this thesis, however, intend challenging much of the Management and Leadership practice that is found in the present Public Administration.

Theories have to be 'refreshed' or even 'thrown away' as soon as circumstances and relevancy structures, to which these theories are implicitly referring, are changing (Brincken & Kuhlmann, 1990 – General Premise), (Lenk, 1998:142).

The faster the developments in a field of study are, the more difficult it is to let the theories, related to that field of study, mature. In such circumstances most statements will remain provisional and context-dependent. The building blocks with which the theoretical edifices are erected will be more sensitizing concepts than well researched and well developed coherent sets of statements based on research programs. This holds for the study of Public Administration in the New Information Age and the new world people live (Snellen & Van de Donk, 2002 – General Premise). Full-blown theories do not come up at once. They normally start hesitantly and grow gradually. A full-blown or mature theory can be defined as *"a set of logically interdependent, in particular non-conflicting, statements, opinions and concepts related to a sphere of reality, which are formulated in such a way that testable hypotheses can be derived from them"* (De Groot, 1970:23).

The hypothetical nature of any theory, newly created or mature, has been emphasized by Karl Popper (Popper, 1963).

Not many do believe that theories that fully correspond to this definition are within reach of Public Administration as a social scientific discipline.

Leadership theories have evolved over the past 70 years. However it was not until the 1980's that a major change in the paradigm of thinking around what is the nature of leadership occurred (Ganghum, 2008:23). Over the past two decades, and in South Africa, specially after the new democratic government as been established, the public services of Western countries have undergone major change trying to respond to the challenges of technological, globalization and international competitiveness. It is argued here that this period of change with no

sign of diminishing represents a paradigm shift from the traditional model of public administration, to “managerialism” or public management and leadership. The theory of bureaucracy is being replaced by more business like theories and practices.

The way managers actually manage has increasingly become at odds with the old theory of public administration based on notions of hierarchy and authority. This new paradigm poses a direct challenge to what had been regarded as fundamental principles of traditional public administration, Huges (2003:1). The public policy movement grows from an assumption that public administration had reached a dead end, and by creating a new approach, which they named “Public Management”. New Public Management theories are therefore more than 20 years old. However it is not the case that at one point in time everyone in the discipline decided that the traditional public administration paradigm has been suspended.

It is more the case that paradigms change gradually. The decline of one school of thought occurs as a result of the rise of an alternative, in this case Public Management. As Kuhn (1990:770) argues, “the decision to reject one paradigm is always simultaneously the decision to accept another”. Paradigmatic changes involves the comparison of theories, neither of which works perfectly. If there are problems with the public management reforms, the response will be further changes in the managerial direction.

New Public Management is argued to be a new paradigm, expanding and evolving. The focal point of this study is to contribute to its evolution. A paradigm does not mean one set of views that everyone must agree on, rather views that exist for a time and revealed in the disciplines practice.

1.4 Research Methodology

The author has chosen for this study a qualitative and quantitative method and approach, but the research design was primarily of a qualitative nature, based on

the purposes and aims of the study. This study was not an "Empirical Study". It was a phenomenological study inductive in its approach observing people and situations in real life situations, drawing conclusions about their behavior and making recommendations.

The main concern was to understand social action in terms of its specific context (idiographic motive) rather than attempting to generalize to some theoretical population. The emphasis was an interpretive understanding, rather than casual and nomothetic explanations in terms of universally valid laws. With regard to methodology, phenomenology is associated with the qualitative research approach. The reason for this association between phenomenology and qualitative methodology are quite logical. The insistence of and interpretive understanding of the meanings and self descriptions of the individual, requires a methodology which emphasizes the following: unstructured observation and open interviewing; idiographic descriptions; qualitative data analysis (e.g. grounded theory), and other inductive analytical strategies, objectivity understood as the intersubjective attitude of the insider, participant observation and the use of personal documents.

The study was not aimed at analyzing variables and the relationship between them in isolation from the content or the setting (so as to increase generalizability), the aim was to describe and understand events within the concrete, national context in which they occurred.

The researcher was seen as the "main instrument," "observer" and "interpreter". This placed an added responsibility on the researcher to be unbiased in his descriptions and interpretations.

In order to get close to the research subject, to generate truthful insider descriptions and objectivity, the researcher had to gain trust, establishing rapport and credibility.

1.5 New Public Management (NPM)

Krige (2003; Discussion) observes that scholarship studies commonly indicate that the leadership and governance in relation to Public Service delivery, are reflected as policy implementation processes.

Effective leadership and governance require accountability and participation (Fox & Meyer, 1996:55).

Turner (2002:1495) states the importance of leadership in the Public Service, arguing that leaders, through their actions and personal influence, need to produce change, often to a dramatic degree, such as spear heading transformation and reform in the South African Public Service.

However, in the realm of Management and Leadership, in the Public Service, many people are conditioned to see the "Organizations" as things rather than as patterns of interactions. Officials look for solutions that will "fix problems" as if they are external and can be fixed without "fixing" that which is within them that led to their creation. Consequently, they are inevitably drawn into an endless spiral of superficial quick fixes, worsening difficulties in the long run, and an ever deepening sense of powerlessness.

The existing management practices and procedures and the bureaucratic state machine are not flexible and pro-active enough for the job on hand (Sutcliffe; 1995). Poor planning and implementation of projects led by committees (make sure the project never ends and nobody is accountable), compounds the seriousness of the situation. The confidence of the communities in the Public Service delivery is diminishing, due to the severe structural crises and inefficiencies.

Van der Walt (2001: 301) appears to be stressing management and leadership as a skill , and not that attached to specific task designations, implying (or one could say requiring) effective general management and leadership.

Turner (2003: 493) is of the opinion that a new paradigm is impacting on the classical public management, with a shift from an administrative to a managerialist mode of operating, challenging classical Public Administration theory. Kroukamp (2002:465) suggests that this trend indicates "the transformation from public bureaucracy to a model of Public Administration that is business like, but is not business".

Hughes (1998:3) refers to a theory of the most recent paradigm change in the classical administration model.

The classical Public Administration model, based on the Wilsomian dictionary, Tayloristic scientific management and Weberian hierarchical control, was not very effective in the Public Service (Naidoo, 2005: 79)

Fox & Meyer (1995: 93), define the term paradigm as an overarching set of beliefs and unquestioned assumptions that are widely accepted by researchers and practitioners in a discipline. These assumptions are used to guide research and solve problems. The author contends that a paradigm does not mean one set of views that everyone must agree on, rather views that exist for a time and are revealed in the discipline's practices. The decision to reject a paradigm is always simultaneously the decision to accept another, and the judgment leading to that decision involves, the comparison of both paradigms with nature and with one another. The decline of one school of thought occurs as a result of the rise of an alternative, in this case public management.

New Public Management and a new leadership is argued to be a new paradigm, which emphasizes, results in terms of "value for money" to be achieved through a New Era Leadership.

1.6 The Emergence of the NPM

During the past twenty years, in response to economic, institutional and ideological changes, as well as criticisms of inefficient and costly public sectors, public sector reform has become an international phenomenon (Bennington & Cummane 2000; Hughes 1998). As part of these reforms, a paradigm of public sector management known as new public management (NPM) has emerged in OECD countries and elsewhere (Hughes 1998; Osborne & Gaebler 1993; Pollitt 1995). This approach to public sector management is characterized by a preference for minimal government interference in service provision and the concomitant espousal of market philosophy beliefs, together with an inherent assumption that the private sector is more efficient than the public sector (Beckett 2000; Jaconelli & Sheffield 2000). It is also based on an underlying assumption that if public managers are left to their own devices they will be inefficient and ineffective and will pursue their own self-interest at the expense of public interest (Boyne 1998).

In the 1990s, if not late 1980s, developing countries began to adopt selected elements of NPM (Common 1999; Larbi 1998; Samaratunge & Hughes 2002). However, empirical research on the implementation and effectiveness of NPM in developing countries is rare.

Beginning in the late 1970s, several Anglo-American democracies produced a number of broadly similar and overlapping doctrines in the area of administrative reform. While originally viewed in relation to the conservative political agendas of the day, these reform initiatives not only outlasted the reign of those particular governments but also began to spread through governments across the Western industrialized world and across an increasingly diverse range of public service contexts. As such, it became apparent that a more broadly based organizational

phenomenon was emerging. Today, this currently fashionable set of ideas has come to be referred to as the “New Public Management” (NPM).

NPM essentially implies fundamental changes to the power relationships between the key players in the system of government and requires considerable attitudinal changes on the part of bureaucrats. As Arellano-Gault (2000:403) argues:

“All NPM reforms depend on the ‘good will’ of politicians and bureaucrats. They can decide what kind of reforms they would like to implement (and how far they would push them). Predictably, it could be expected that preference will be given to those reforms that give the appearance of change without jeopardizing politicians’ [and bureaucrats’] fundamental current discretionary privileges.”

Whether or not this has been the case, NPM has been subject to a number of criticisms (see, e.g., Cohn 1997; Dixon, Kouzman & Korac-Kakabadse 1998; Haque 2001; Johnston & Callender 1997). The core of these criticisms has focused on the undue emphasis on economic rationalism and diminishing “publicness” or public service, with services like health care and education having been the hardest hit (Haque 2001). According to some critics, new public management is nothing new; rather it is another version of Taylorism which emerged in the early 1890s (Bremner 1995; Stilwell 1995).

Through the influence of the NPM over the last two decades, governmental reform has taken on a noticeably programmatic character. Early speculations that the NPM represented a short-lived managerial cycle or ‘fad’ have proved unconvincing in the face of the overall durability of the NPM (Hood, 1991:6). Many commentators now suggest that we are presently witnessing an administrative revolution or a paradigm shift in how the public sector is organized to make decisions and deliver services – whether it is in terms of a general “internationalization of public management” (Aucoin, 1990:134), a shift from a bureaucratic to a “post-bureaucratic” paradigm (Barzelay, 1990:134), or a shift to

an “entrepreneurial governance” paradigm (Osborne and Gaebler, 1993). Hood (1995), however, urges that one entertain such suggestions cautiously. On the one hand, the internally contradictory nature of the NPM and the likelihood of unintended side effects that may be introduced during its implementation pose a threat to the stable nature of the NPM. On the other hand, Hood (1995:108) suggests that substantial biases exist towards exaggerating international similarity in public management reforms:

Powerful international organizations such as the OECD and the World Bank are by their raison d'être committed to a view of international convergence on some single 'best practice' model, which it is their institutional role to foster, in helping the 'laggards' to catch up with the vanguard. And within the domestic context, managers, politicians and bureaucrats facing criticism often try to build up bipartisan support for reshaping organizations in their preferred direction by arguing that what they are doing reflects 'international best practice', as has been the case in the UK since the early 1990s and applied to the US 1993 National Performance Review, with its conveniently vague references to change sweeping through public administration from Sweden to New Zealand. Public management gurus will likewise aim to convey the impression that their favoured path to salvation is spreading everywhere.

However, most commentators acknowledge that the NPM represents a distinctive break within the tradition of public administration. As Pollitt (1995:204) puts it: “One senses an ‘official line’ advanced, albeit with local inflexions, by most national leaders”.

Despite some differing views on the exact constituents of NPM, many developing countries in the 1990s have experimented with some elements of its commonly accepted components (Common, 1998; Larbi, 1998; Polidano, 1999). For example, market mechanisms have been introduced into the provision of public sector organizations (Turner, 2001). Not surprisingly, such changes have been

politically sensitive and controversial due to the strong pressure for indigenous management models in these countries (Jaeger & Kanungo 1990; Singha & Kao 1988).

Despite a proliferation of literature on the NPM, there remains little consensus and no one accepted theory as to what the NPM actually is or ought to be (Ferlie et al., 1996:10), why it emerged or spread, or the degree to which it has 'caught on' (Hood, 1991). Moreover, there has been little independent, reliable, and systematic evidence produced concerning the impact of the NPM (Pollitt, 1995:205).

A few observers have suggested that the term, New Public Management (NPM) is a misnomer. They argue that having been in the forefront of public management discourse for over three decades it can hardly be regarded as 'new' today (Argyriades 2002). More controversially they have suggested that to the extent that NPM undermines core public sector values, it is not really about public management but an attempt to displace public administration as a distinct social science (sub) discipline and field of practice (Farazmand, 2002). In spite of these criticisms, there is consensus today that NPM has made an important contribution to public administration in practically all countries.

1.7 New Public Management: An African Reform Paradigm

Max Weber viewed modern society as an 'iron cage' shaped by the two great rationalizing forces of capitalism and bureaucracy (Weber, 1968:23; Ritzer, 1996:137). Although he regarded bureaucracy as a technically superior organizational form (Weber, 1958:228), he lamented what he perceived the inevitable consequence of the relentless march of bureaucratic rationalization as a 'disenchanted' world lacking in spirituality and magic (Weber, 1968:155). For this reason, he held out hope that those professionals external to the realm of bureaucracy – intellectuals, scientists, politicians, and even those bureaucrats at

the highest echelons – might rise in opposition to bureaucratic domination (Ritzer, 1996:130).

The new public managers, today, are breaking loose from the shackles of bureaucracy. Although it served a certain purpose in the bygone days of mass production and standardization, bureau-professionalism is no longer appropriate within the context of a 'new' reality, one of knowledged workers, global economies, enhanced information technology, and increasing societal diversity. Adherence to the old and formal codes of bureau-professionalism is now outdated, inefficient, and reflective only of those who have a vested stake in its survival. Propped against this historical backdrop of bureaucracy's shortcomings, the new public management (hereafter, NPM) seems a refreshing, and even a 'paradigmatic', alternative. It is 'new' where bureaucracy is outmoded, dynamic where bureaucracy is standardized and inflexible, lean and decentralised where bureaucracy is centralized and monolithic, 'impartial' where bureau-professionals are self-serving, and even its 'inspirational' discourse invites a facile optimism when contrasted to the formal and technical discourse of the bureau-professional.

While there is a general recognition that the NPM entails the application of private sector managerial practices within the context of the public sector, very little is known about the historical varieties of management, which inform this shift. The NPM constitutes the public sector application of a style of management variously referred to as the 'new managerialism', 'new wave management', or the 'cultural' approach to management. Emerging out of the American wish to emulate the 'lean' and 'flexible' styles associated with Japanese production, the new managerialism, in turn, constituted an organizational hybrid of two early forms of managerial practice that were widely influential within Japan – scientific management and human relations.

1.8 The key to Organizations success

The key to an organization's success is the institution's human resources. Organizations need human resources who work hard and smart, think creatively, and perform excellently, for the organization itself to be fast, focused, flexible and excellent. Rewarding, encouraging, and nurturing the human resources in a timely and meaningful manner is what is required. Thus, the power of human resources refers to their importance and the fact that managing people is an art, with a scientific basis.

The behaviour of employees is the key to achieving effectiveness and excellence. Each person has a unique behavioural pattern, managers must observe, respond to, and cope with the array of such behaviours displayed by employees.

Management is a form of thinking and leading, by doing, within a 'think-link-lead-do' model, and good managers and leaders are the critical component so vital to the improvement of the overall quality of life in society (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1996:49).

Managing human resources as valuable assets to be maintained and improved is now more important than ever, because the ultimate survival of an organization depends on its ability to adapt to the ever-changing demands of its internal and external environments. Of the two categories of inputs, human and natural resources, only humans can adapt, learn and make the difference.

As the highest order of resources, human beings are responsible for utilizing all other resources. People design and operate the technology and work flow, they purchase and use raw materials, they produce the product or service, they sell the product or service. People make an organization effective or ineffective and they must be skillfully managed if an organization is to function and survive. Managers who are also viewed as leaders, are tremendous resources for helping organizations, individuals, and work teams accomplish the desired objectives.

Effectiveness and efficiency in an organization does not just happen. Dedicated and skillful managers of resources and leaders of human beings make it happen, by action, and the final excellence of an organization is contained by the excellence of all its members, and by the excellence of its culture.

For a long time, citizens believed that government would never change, that it would always decide when, where, and under what conditions they could apply for public services. From a citizen's perspective, to be sent from pillar to post has become a metaphor for government and its organization. To a certain extent, citizens have taken this state of government for granted. However, that does not mean that there are no opportunities at all for governments to improve their activities. Particularly during the last decade, this conviction has grown in both society and government itself. As a result there is an exploration of ways of improving the organization of its service delivery to citizens.

In current policy strategies new ways of management are acknowledged to be crucial 'change agents' to bring about revolutionary changes in the way public services are provided. Different policy strategies have been presented to create a newly designed, responsive, and better performing public service. However, taking various practical developments into account, the rate and, with that, the extent to which the new strategies is actually causing changes in the service relationship between public service and citizens, is very limited.

1.9 Trends in Public Administration Reform

In spite of the influential neo-liberal arguments of the 1980s and 1990s which sought to roll back the state, recent surveys find that citizens want state institutions that are democratic, efficient in the use of public resources, effective in delivering public goods and services, but also strong and capable of standing up to powerful global forces. People want the state and its public administration to act as a social and economic promoter, capable of ensuring equitable distribution of opportunities, sustainable management of resources and equitable access to opportunities (political, economic, social and cultural). An established public administration has been, arguable, far more vital to economic development in historical fact than either free elections or parliaments. In the LDCs and post conflict countries in particular, underdeveloped private sectors require the public administration to play a major role in the delivery of services and the provision of much needed economic infrastructure. But, most important of all, an established non-partisan civil service is vital to democracy as it makes it possible to have a peaceful and orderly political succession, and thus genuine pluralism.

In recent years public sector management is increasingly seen as more than just modernizing state institutions and reducing civil service costs. It is also about fostering dynamic partnerships with the civil society and the private sector, to improve the quality of service delivery, enhance social responsibilities and ensure the broad participation of citizens in decision-making and feedback on public service performance.

1.10 Summary

Industrial era Public Administrations, characterized by high degrees of centralization and large, driven bureaucracies, cannot meet the needs and challenges of the new information era.

New kinds of Public Institutions are therefore required which are more flexible and more customer-oriented. This trend mirrors what is emerging outside the public sector where organizations are promoting flatter management structures, decentralization of authority and a greater focus on improving quality and customer service. Government in the modern world will concern itself less with levels of resourcing, or of ownership, and more with acting as entrepreneur so as to produce the most effect for the actions that are taken. This does not mean, Public Institutions will operate exactly the same as businesses do. For instance, democratic systems demands that governments take their decisions openly and this affects both the processes used and the timelines adopted. Governments will take advantage of the vast scope that exists for them to operate more like client-oriented businesses do: seizing opportunities as they emerge; and continually striving to eliminate waste. Clearly there is a need for Public Service Management to learn and adopt more "customer driven" and "business like" methodologies and for the development of a New Era Leadership paradigm for the purpose of achieving better public service delivery. This thesis explored the leadership behaviours required for the Public Service senior management, within the context of the Afrocentric culture and the cultural diversity of South Africa. It aims to defend the claim that Business Management theories and practices would have a profound impact in the advance of Public Administration from modernity to post modernity.

It was important, therefore, that studies were undertaken to identify the characteristics and status of change in the public sector and to understand how top senior managers role, may hinder or further such change. A qualitative phenomenological and quantitative method and approach, with emphasis on

doing field work in the natural setting of actors, was chosen for this study of leadership. The intent was to create a number of implications arising from the findings of this study for leadership models in general, and more specifically, for the development of leadership skills in the Public Management sector.

The research aims to give recommendations on how to bring about change and improvements, increase productivity and achieve effective results. This was intended to develop a normative model and PowerPoint presentations by which to introduce the concept of New Era Leadership.

Based on the normative model document, the researcher compiled comprehensive powerpoint presentations on the following topics: Management versus Leadership, Reward Management, Management of Change, Diversity Management, Boss or Leader? Emotional Intelligence, What is the cancer of our work practices, and the 20:70:10 principle.

These normative model and powerpoint presentations aims to give public sector managers, the tools to ensure they can manage and led optimally for better sustainable results, and so, avoid crippling and costly public service delivery failures. They are "living documents", based on the author's research, to help managers and leaders of private and public organizations to acquire the critical skills of a New Era Leadership paradigm. This normative model provides the workforce with a supple yet comprehensive foundation, from which could spring the future design and competencies of the Public Sector, ready to meet and overcome the challenges of the future. Such information may then inform future administrative policy and executive development initiatives. The research might lead to further specific studies on the effectiveness of senior management in these organizations and also provide a basis for more specific research hypotheses. New information and original evidence was gathered and considered as a basis for contributing to a body of knowledge on a topic not previously addressed in the public service sector. As such it was anticipated that the study will fulfill primary objective of Doctoral research.

Chapter 2 *PROBLEM STATEMENT*

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The world is rapidly engaging in a genuinely global economy. Money, technology, information and goods, cross national borders effortlessly. This globalization and information is making the concept of the nation state, not to mention national economies and corporations, irrelevant. All that will remain rooted within national borders are the people who comprise a nation.

As far as knowledge base systems in the new information age, are taking over the professional epistemic niche and discretionary power of the street level bureaucrat, Public Administration needs a new professional and ethical foundation (Van den Hoven, 1994:16).

The South African Public Service is undergoing rapid change following the election of the new democratic government in 1994 and the consequent death of the old apartheid policies. This is primarily embodied in the implementation of the White Paper on Public Service Delivery and much other legislation.

The task facing the new Public Service is a radically new and complex one, requiring a new set of leadership skills to the traditional command and control style management.

Leadership theories have evolved over the past 70 years. However it was not until the 1980s that a major change in the paradigm of thinking around what is the nature of leadership occurred (Gaughan, 2000:23).

The interaction between the leader and his/her followers was explored in what has become known as transformational leadership theories, developed by Bass and Avolio. It was, therefore essential to examine the phenomenon of Leadership and Governance for the purpose of achieving better public service delivery.

2.2 Public Administration: the past and the future.

In public administration, there are both continuities and fundamental changes and transformations related to management and leadership. Public Administration theory has to come to terms with these changes and will be affected by these changes itself. The new world we live is a reality and its politico-administrative characteristics are dramatically different from the reality Public Administration theory has until now conceptualized and interpreted.

According to Koestler (1959:529) "... wrenching away an object or concept from its associative habitual context and seeing it in a new context is ... an essential part of the creative process. It is an act both of destruction and creation, for it demands the breaking up of a mental habit, the melting down with the blowlamp of Cartesian doubt of the frozen structure of accepted theory, to enable a new fusion to take place".

The early legislative base of the South African public sector, left a legacy of cumbersome structures, historically constructed around internal and hierarchical reporting relationships rather than community services (McCullagh, 1991:7), and with a limited capacity to support the country in dealing with changing national and international conditions.

The apparently pandemic quality of many administrative reforms of the 1990's has, itself, brought with it widespread requirements for new understanding of the discipline of Public Administration. These reforms have been treated in two main ways by mainstream academic commentators on administrative affairs. On the one hand, they have been reported, described, classified and analyzed using the newly emergent conceptual field of the new "Public Management" (Hood, 1991; Hood & Jackson, 1991). On the other hand, these reforms have brought in their wake a barrage of academic indignation, born of the view that Public Administration has been damagingly assaulted through the adoption of inappropriate, brutalistic business management structures, techniques and styles

(Ebock, 1984). The first seeks to capture the essence of contemporary change and demands whilst the second condemns that change in defense of “old Public Administration”, with its outdated approach to management of resources.

(Bellanny & Taylor, 1998) suggests that the wave of technological and other changes associated with the new information and globalization age, is being accommodated within existing relationships in the polity, in ways that tend more to reproduce the established order than to change it.

2.3 New kinds of Public Administration is needed

Industrial Era Public Administrations, characterized by high degrees of centralization and large, rule-driven bureaucracies cannot meet the needs and challenges of the new Information Era.

New kinds of public institutions are therefore required which are more flexible and more customer-oriented.

This trend follows what is emerging outside the public sector where organizations are promoting flatter management structures, decentralization of authority and a greater focus on improving quality and customer service.

Government in the modern world will concern itself less with levels of resourcing, or of ownership, and more with acting as entrepreneur so as to produce the most effect for the actions that are taken.

This does not mean, public institutions will operate exactly the same as business does. For instance, democratic systems demands that governments take their decisions openly and this affects both the processes used and the time lines adopted. Governments will take advantage of the vast scope that exists for them to operate more like client-oriented businesses do: seizing opportunities as they emerge; and continually striving to eliminate waste (Osborn & Gaebler, 1992).

Only by means of “open guidance” can the productivity of the organization be fostered and its performance capability and its ability to survive as an institution be maintained (Malik, 1980:80; Snellen, 1991:368).

What are required are processes for an open organizational development as an interactive adaptation of organization and institution. Thus organizational development must proceed less along the lines of paternalistic management, but rather, along the lines of an open learning process.

In the eighties and nineties, throughout the world, strong movements like “reinventing government” and “new public management” emerged, arising at the creation of an “entrepreneurial” government (Osborne & Gabler, 1992).

According to those reform ideas, government should look for ways to shift from an internal, bureaucratic focus on procedures, to an outward, market-orientation on products. Therefore, government would have to give up its hierarchical attitude towards society, and become more responsive to societal developments.

Besides, from a customer’s perspective, criteria like efficiency and effectiveness of government activities would gain in importance. With that, public service delivery and customer-orientation have come to the heart of governments’ attention.

Influenced by this broad reform movement, many governments are looking for opportunities to change the organization of public service provision. The monopolic position of government is currently perceived to put high demands on the accuracy and quality of public service delivery, as citizens are acknowledged to be fully dependent on these services. Additionally, governments’ knowledge about the opinion or feedback of citizens on government performance has grown in importance, as adjustments in their organizations can be made accordingly. From a traditional “we know what is good for you” attitude, governments are currently shifting towards a responsive posture of “let us know what is good for you”, or “how can we help you?”

2.4 Public Sector Reform Across Africa

Today's reform initiatives are taking place at a time when few are prepared to defend the status quo. As Mkandawire and Soludo (1999:135) write, "[t]he need to reform African administrative structures to ensure efficiency and reduce the likelihood of corruption is obvious". So is the need to increase democratic accountability. Official government and donor documents, consultancy reports, and academic papers and books are filled with visions and ideas about how such improvements could be achieved. But interesting propositions that are not implemented, or only poorly so, are not so interesting after all.

Seemingly well-designed reform measures are often undermined by political resistance, because the dynamics of reform are frequently poorly understood or are neglected. We know much more about what is wrong with the public sector than we know about the links between means and ends in key reform initiatives (Klitgaard, 1997:491; Therkildsen, 1999). Existing political science and public administration literature is much better at describing the status quo than at explaining the political dynamics of change (Caiden, 1991:9; Peters, 1996:16). Moreover, it is better at advising on specific and marginal organization alterations than on fundamental changes throughout the public sector (Corkery et al., 1998:35).

The core paradigm which can be discerned as influential in the development of public sector reforms in the 1980s and 1990s was that public sector provision was inefficient and often ineffective; that it led neither to cost containment nor to quality improvement. With the problems so defined, the paradigm extended to a belief that the public and private sectors did not have to be organized and managed in fundamentally different ways. Indeed that it would be better for the public services if they could be organized and managed as much like the private sector as possible. The focus of the NPM movement therefore, was on creating institutional and organizational contexts which are to mirror what is seen as critical aspects of

private sector modes of organizing and managing. Public sector reforms taking place in Africa today build on previous programmes. However, they also fundamentally question the role and institutional character of the State.

More recently, added to these problems, a number of others have been better understood that relate more to the quality of the civil service and their motivation, such as:

1. Poor performance management, leading to inadequate incentives to perform well.
2. Recruitment and promotion systems that poorly reflect the realities of the country, are often overly concerned with formal education, and fail to attract or promote qualified staff.
3. Politicization of the civil service.
4. Lack of a mission or the respect of the public.

Too often development partners have undervalued the considerable stores of national pride and social responsibility that persist in many developing countries. While by no means anything more than a first step, having a mission orientation can help establish a clear sense of direction and commitment within the organization, either for the organization as a whole and for different departments and units by:

- Establishing a shared vision for public administration
- Helping managers clarify in their own minds what the business of the organization is
- Providing the focus for managers and other staff in meeting organizational goals
- Stimulating among the staff a sense of membership of the organization
- Providing a framework within which to determine targets and more precise objectives

- Providing a clear articulation for the public of the organization's reason for being.

Under-qualified and insufficiently experienced personnel, sometimes promoted too quickly to senior positions, is an universal problem in developing country civil services, and training is a central feature of almost all PAR programmes.

Civil service reform efforts around the world, to various extents, have all stressed the need for increased depoliticisation of the civil service, promoting the ideal of a neutral and merit-based civil service. Evidence shows however that pure merit-based systems are the exception and that political appointments and patronage are common in most civil services (UNDR, 2000:13).

Public sector management reforms in Africa face a further number of challenges that have limited the scope, speed and quality of services rendered. For example, corruption constitutes by far one of the biggest challenges in the public sector. Other challenges include multiple accountability, inadequate resource utilization and institutional capacity.

Capacity development in the public administration needs to be addressed at three levels: the individual level, the institutional level, and the societal level. At the individual level it involves establishing the conditions under which civil servants are able to embark on a continuous process of learning and adapting to change – building on existing knowledge and skills and enhancing and using them in new directions. This requires a new approach to human resource management and also points to the importance of knowledge management, as the new vehicle for increased learning. At the institutional level, a similar approach needs to be applied. Rather than creating new institutions, often based on foreign blueprints, support should focus on the modernization of their machinery, with a priority on systems and processes. Key in this process is capacity development for policy support, for organizational effectiveness and for revenue and expenditure management. Finally capacity development at the

societal level is required to support the paradigm of a more interactive public administration that equally learns from its actions and from the feedback it receives from the population. For people to view the public administration as a responsive and accountable service provider, whose performance needs to be monitored, societal change is required (UNDP, 2000:6).

African governments, therefore, need to increase their efforts to address these challenges through effective public sector reforms. However, reformers also need to keep an open mind as to what may work and what may not, and be guided by the needs of the situation. While the new public management approach may not be a panacea for the problems of the public sector in Africa, a careful and selective adaptation of some elements to selected sectors may be beneficial.

2.5 Summary Problem Statement

In essence Public Service in the Republic of South Africa is outdated, ineffective and incapable of improving public service delivery and productivity.

Many public service departments are inefficient, unaccountable and unfocused and senior officials do not align themselves and their subordinates to the vision of the National Government.

Despite advances in policy design, the transition, implementation and control remain a challenge (Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001:20).

In the realm of Management and Leadership, in the Public Service, many people are conditioned to see the "Organisations" as things rather than as patterns of interactions. Officials look for solutions that will "fix problems" as if they are external and can be fixed without "fixing" that which is within them that led to their creation. Consequently, they are inevitably drawn into an endless spiral of superficial quick fixes, worsening difficulties in the long run, and an ever-deepening sense of powerlessness.

The existing management practices and procedures and the bureaucratic state machine are not flexible and pro-active enough for the job at hand. The pace and

scale of change called for, is unmanageable (Sutcliffe:1995) in such a climate, of mechanistic cuts of funds that only look at financial targets and overlook any planned strategy, and the increasing communities expectations.

Poor planning and implementations of projects led by committees (make sure the project never ends and nobody is accountable) compounds the seriousness of the situation. The confidence of the communities in the public service delivery is diminishing, due to the severe structural crises and inefficiencies.

This failure of the public service to introduce effective reforms that deliver results (not just wish-lists) forces us to rethink and examine the management and leadership of the public sector, and its severe lack of capacity and productivity.

The existing bureaucratic organization structure makes subordinates "passive", if not negative, and, "dependent", and decreases their sense of responsibility and self control. Particularly at lower levels, employees become dissatisfied and frustrated in their work. The results are increased unhappiness and more problems in meeting goals and standards of performance.

Therefore, there was a need to investigate the role of Senior Public Service Management and the necessary attributes of a "Public Service New Era Leadership". The intent was to create a number of implications arising from the findings of this thesis for leadership models in general and more specifically, for the development of leadership skills in the Public Management Sector.

Chapter 3 *OBJECTIVES*

3.1 Introduction

Things are changing at an astonishing pace. Turbulence is the norm and the challenges are huge. Today, there is seldom a break in the clouds. Yet, by all accounts, there are too few active leaders to go around, but there is a germ of leadership within almost every human being. There are leaders in many places in every organization. There is a potential for even more of them.

Public Service organizations need to create “True Leaders” capable of breeding volunteers, who “want to do the job”, not just to have a job. The leader’s challenge would then be to harness the enthusiasm of their people, and align their energy. Public Service organizations must come up with new ideas and paradigms on how to manage and lead.

It is the primary aim of this thesis, to contribute to the development of such leaders in Public Service organizations, focusing on what really makes a difference, based on extensive research and observation of the best practices worldwide, to create new ideas and paradigms.

It’s not enough merely to have the title of Chairman, CEO, President, MD, Director General or whatever. You are accountable and you are measured by what you do, not what you say. You need to be able to explain your intentions, and they must make enough sense to others to want to support them. This is not a solo performance. What matters is your ability to unleash the potential in others, align their efforts, and keep them enthused over time.

Leadership is a hot topic in these turbulent times. Some 2,000 books on the subject are published each year. Yet most of the advice they offer is less than useful to practicing executives and other managers. Whether in business or public sector, what they need is more no-nonsense action that cuts through many

contending theories and focuses on what really makes a difference, based on extensive research and observation of the best practices worldwide.

3.2 New Public Service Leadership

Leaders need followers. Results depend partly on the leader and mostly on them. What matters isn't the leader's ability to take during decisions or make stirring speeches, but rather that the leader gets more from the team than anyone else could do.

Manning, (2002:24) observes that the followers may be either "conscripts" or "volunteers". Conscripts have little choice but to be there. They need the job, or can't easily move. Volunteers want to be there. They have often choices, but turn up because for them is the right purpose to do.

Public Service organizations seldom create volunteers. They are dragged by conscripts and leaders of conscripts have an awful time. They have to drag people into the future. The only way they get things done is by using orders, threats, anger, arguments, and punishment.

Their "followers" fear and resent them. Creativity is a rare thing – except to chuck the system. People do only what's demanded of them. No one "goes the extra mile". This is not leadership. Leaders get the followers they deserve.

McGregor (1960) was right when he stated that an executive's expectations shape the behavior of the people they manage. His insight of more than four decades ago has been proven too many times to ignore.

"Toxic" leaders expect the worst of people. They rely on the "system", "procedures", "power", and other weapons in their efforts to get things done. They frustrate themselves, because they foster a climate in which secrecy prevails and covering your backs is the first priority. True leaders, in contrast, expect the best of people.

Their tools of choice are dialogue, respect, trust, openness, challenges, and praises. They create a climate in which problems are opportunities, and everyone's a hero.

According to Tromp (1998:76), humans are bombarded with new ideas all the time. Monroe (1996) refers to ideas as seeds of creative power. He defines an idea as a captured thought. A captured thought represents a silent word. A word in return is an exposed thought. An idea forms the foundation of one's words. According to Munroe (1996), if your ideas are wrong, your thoughts will be wrong. If your thoughts are wrong, your thinking will be wrong, and if your thinking is wrong, your words will be wrong. If words are wrong your life will be wrong. Rodin (2000:76) states: "Our perception of the word is colored by our perception of who we think we are. Therefore, how we see the world will depend on how we see ourselves." You actually become what you think. A Public Sector manager's behaviour towards Leadership in the workplace is a reflection of what he truly believes about leadership. Effective behavioural change starts with changing the thinking of people. Munroe (1996) states, "An idea is a captured thought, and when exposed it becomes a word. When a word (idea) becomes an established thought it becomes an ideology. When an ideology becomes a theory it becomes a belief system. When one gets convinced by a theory it becomes a philosophy or paradigm (your way of thinking/system of beliefs/ mindset)." Apartheid, for example, was an established thought, which was made a belief system and eventually become the previous apartheid government's philosophy of running the country. Thus, according to Munroe (1996) the only way to change your behaviour is to change your thinking, and the only way of changing your thinking is to change your ideas.

The framework of functional jurisdictions of Public Administration is gradually being replaced by systems of ad hoc co-operations and coalitions between parts of Public Administration and Public-private partnerships (Killian & Wind, 1997) & (Bellamy & Taylor, 1996)

A new foundation of trust between Public Administration and society has to be found to replace the eroded checks and balances between the horizontal and vertical powers of the state, between departments and functionaries within authorities of Public Administration and between the public and the private sector.

3.3 Objectives of the research

This thesis explored the leadership and management behaviours required by senior public service managers within the context of the Afrocentric Culture and the cultural diversity of South Africa.

The thesis further investigated the role of senior management and the necessary attributes of a “Public Service New Era Leadership”.

The intent was to create a number of implications arising from the findings of this study for leadership models in general and more specifically, for the development of leadership skills in the Public Management Sector.

The results and concepts that are presented in this thesis, intended challenging much of the management and leadership practice that is found in the present public administration.

The research was done with the purpose of achieving six (6) main goals.

To review the various theories on management and leadership concerning the Private and Public Sector.

To introduce managers in the Public Sector to the current thinking about organisation, management and leadership and to make them understand that the kind of management required in this new cybernetic, ever changing world, is not principally administration, but leadership and intreprenurship.

To impress upon all Public Service management levels that new kinds of public institutions are required which are more flexible, and customer oriented, and to defend the claim that:

Public Administration theory is neglecting the meaning and the value of more business management “think alike”.

Business Management theories and practices would have a profound impact in the migration of Public Administration from modernity to post-modernity.

To elicit staff views on the skills, knowledge and attributes needed by Senior Public Managers, to become effective leaders and the more specific application of such leadership to achieve successful change in public sector organizations. Linked thematically and sequentially to these attributes is the explanation of specific strategies that senior managers should adopt in order to bring about cultural and structural change and the extent to which senior managers regard their new type of Leadership as part of their roles.

To analyse what behaviours, attitudes and management styles are displayed by senior public management in terms of the following critical factors:

- * The need for Leadership
- * Use of Supervisory Power
- * Goal-Oriented behaviour
- * Human Relations Skills
- * Communication, Motivation, Delegation
- * Reward management
- * Management of Diversity
- * Participative vs. non-participative style

To give recommendations on how to bring about change and improvements, increase productivity and achieve effective results. This was intended to develop a normative model and PowerPoint presentations by which to introduce the concept of New Era Leadership. The powerpoint presentations, were based on the normative model document and covered the following topics: Management versus Leadership, Reward Management, Management of Change, Diversity Management, Boss or Leader?, Emotional Intelligence, What is the cancer of our work practices, and the 20:70:10 principle. The normative model and PowerPoint presentations are “living” documents based on the author’s research, to help managers and leaders of private and public organizations to acquire the skills of a

New Era Leadership paradigm. It provides the workforce with a comprehensive foundation from which could spring the future design and competencies of the Public Sector, ready to meet and overcome the challenge of the future.

The research also provided an overview of the evolution of the New Public Management (NPM), the combination of factors driving change and the potential and limitations of NPM. The research as shown that variants of the new public management approach are being introduced in some crisis and developing states, following trends in advanced market economies.

In the next chapter "Literature Review", the author presented a comprehensive study of the so-called New Public Management phenomenon as well as an in-depth study of the present knowledge on Management and Leadership.

3.4 The Field of Study

An analysis and critique of "Administration" versus "Management and Leadership", with special emphasis on the Public Sector.

A new paradigm theory of a "New Era Leadership" required in a Globalised & Information Age, with special emphasis on the Public Sector, which may give guidance to new research directions on the basis of the assumptions and expectations implied in the theory.

This study specifically focuses on the Western Cape Public Sector with special emphasis on the Department of Health.

3.5 SUMMARY

. *“Sensitizing new concepts which belong to the first ‘phase’ of theory are clearly needed in Public Administration practice in the New Information Age”* (Snellen & Van de Donk, 2002:26).

This thesis aims to defend the claims that Business Management theories and practices would have a profound impact on public administration passing from modernity to post modernity.

The study was founded on the proposition that during times of dynamic and constant change in the public sector, managers and leaders are implicitly key figures in determining their organisation’s success. The thesis investigated the role of senior management and the necessary attributes of a New Era Leadership in the Public Service. It has drawn on literature describing organizational change and transformational leadership and applied it in the specific work context of the Public Sector. By doing so, it hoped to contribute to an understanding of the staff perception of their leaders. In the exploratory study the researcher already had prior assumptions about these perceptions, and new information and original evidence was gathered and considered as a basis for contributing to a body of knowledge, and topic not previously addressed in any other research in South Africa. As such, it was anticipated that the study will fulfill a primary objective of doctoral research.

Chapter 4 *LITERATURE REVIEW*

NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT (NPM)

4.1 Introduction

“New Public Management” (NPM) is generally used to describe a management culture that emphasizes the centrality of the citizen or customer, as well as accountability for results. It also suggests structural or organizational choices that promote decentralized control through a wide variety of alternative service delivery mechanisms, including quasi-markets with public and private service providers competing for resources from policymakers and donors. NPM does *not* claim that government should stop performing certain tasks. Although the New Public Management often is associated with this policy perspective, NPM is *not* about whether tasks should be undertaken or not. It is about getting things done better.

It is a set of broadly similar administrative doctrines, which dominated the public administration reform agenda of most OECD countries from the late 1970s (Hood, 1991; Pollitt, 1993; Ridley, 1996). It captures most of the structural, organizational and managerial changes taking place in the public services of these countries, and a bundle of management approaches and techniques borrowed from the private-for-profit sector.

4.2 A New Management Culture

NPM was conceived as a means to improve efficiency and responsiveness to political principals. Its origins were in Parliamentary democracies with curiously strong executive powers, centralized governments, and little administrative law. In this archetypal setting, NPM seems to embody the idea of a cascading chain of contracts leading to a single (usually Ministerial) principal who is interested in getting better results within a sector portfolio over which he or she has significant and relatively unchallenged authority.

NPM shifts the emphasis from traditional public administration to public management, pushing the state towards ‘managerialism’. The traditional model of organization and

delivery of public services, based on the principles of bureaucratic hierarchy, planning and centralization, direct control and self-sufficiency, is apparently being replaced by a market-based public service management or enterprise culture. NPM has provided for a future of smaller, faster-moving service delivery organizations that would be kept lean by the pressures of competition, and that would need to be user-responsive and outcome-oriented in order to survive. These organizations would be expected to develop flatter internal structures (i.e. fewer layers) and devolve operational authority to front-line managers. With a downsized number of staff, many services would be 'contracted out' instead of assuming that in-house provision is best.

The key components of NPM may be put into two broad strands – those that emphasize managerial improvement and organizational restructuring, and those that emphasize markets and competition. The basic foundation of the NPM movement is the drive for efficiency and the use of the economic market as a model for political and administrative relationships. In addition, the institutional aspects of NPM derive from the “new institutional economics” movement, which has a theoretical foundation in public choice, transaction cost and principal-agent theories. These generated public sector reforms themes are based on ideas of market, competition, contracting, transparency and emphasis on incentive structures as a way of giving more “choice” and “voice” to service users and promoting efficiency in public service delivery.

In the late 1980s and early 1990s NPM was presented as a “public management for all seasons” (Hood, 1991) or the “one-best way” (Gendron, Cooper et. al., 1999). Many managerial innovations are well packaged, but NPM was distinctive in that it carried overtones of the end of history, suggesting that we were lucky to be in public management at a time when the truth had been discovered (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992).

[Improved efficiency is now the overriding aim of public sector reforms in most African countries.] It is thought that the State's capability – its ability to promote and undertake collective action efficiently – is overextended. Therefore, [reductions and a refocusing of the State's activities are needed to improve macroeconomic stability, as well as the implementation of stronger incentives for performance.] Furthermore, [increased competition in service provision, both with the private sector and in the public sector itself, is required in order to raise efficiency.] Consequently, governments should concentrate their efforts less on direct intervention and more on enabling others to be productive (World Bank, 1989:5) by providing "core" functions such as safeguarding law and order; protecting property rights; managing the macro economy to promote and regulate the market; providing basic social services and infrastructure; and protecting the vulnerable and destitute.

[Despite the move to reduce the role of the public sector, there is broad agreement about the need to increase the capacity of the State. "Re-engineering" (Hope, 2002) or "invigorating" (Klitgaard, 1997) public institutions is required.] To do this, [a variety of ~~NPM-inspired~~ measures are used, including the refocusing of public-sector functions through staff reductions and changes in budgetary allocations; restructuring of public organizations through the reorganization of ministries; decentralizing, delinking or 'hiving off' central government functions to local governments or the private sector; emphasis on private sector styles of management practice; marketization and introduction of competition in service provision; explicit standards and measures of performance; greater transparency; pay reform; and emphasis on outputs (Therkildsen, 2001).]

New public management (NPM), management techniques and practice drawn mainly from the private sector, is increasingly seen as a global phenomenon. NPM reforms shift the emphasis from traditional public administration to public management. Key elements include various forms of decentralizing management within public services, increasing use of markets and competition in the provision of public services (e.g., contracting out and other market-type mechanisms), and increasing emphasis on performance, outputs and customer orientation (Stoker, 1996).

[Improved efficiency is now the overriding aim of public sector reforms in most African countries, "as it is the holy grail of reform efforts in the North"(Wright, 1997:11).] The state is said to be overextended to the point that reductions and refocusing of its activities are needed. This will improve macroeconomic stability as well as efficiency. Moreover, stronger incentives for performance should be put in place. Many although far from all, of these initiatives are inspired by New Public Management (NPM) concepts (Hood, 1991; Larbi, 1998). More specific and direct capacity-building measures have been far less emphasized.

[Improved accountability in the conduct of public affairs is another reform objective of many countries in and outside Africa (Batley, 1999; Olowu, 1998:619-620; Wright, 1997).] Accountability involves both the political justification of decisions and actions, and managerial answerability for implementation of agreed tasks according to agreed criteria of performance (Day and Klein, 1987). Among the instruments are NPM-inspired measures such as performance-based management, and various approaches to empower users vis-à-vis service providers. In practice, there is generally less emphasis on accountability than on efficiency.

[There is empirical evidence to show that even in consolidated democratic States in Africa, there are major deficits in accountability (Olowu, 1999; Therkilsden, 2001).]

[Problems of accountability arise, for example, when:

- Governments ignore or transgress social ethics and constitutional and legal provisions in conducting public affairs;
- Tasks to be performed are so complex or unspecified that implementation is very difficult if not impossible;
- Activities are hidden;
- Corrupt practices are widespread;
- Political and personal loyalty are rewarded more than merit; and
- Public participation in running public affairs is low.]

Accountability involves both the political justification of decisions and actions, and managerial answerability for implementation of agreed tasks according to agreed criteria of performance (Day and Klein, 1987). Political accountability is about those with authority being answerable for their actions to the citizens, whether directly or

indirectly, and managerial accountability is about making those with delegated authority answerable for carrying out agreed tasks according to agreed criteria of performance. The interest in accountability within public sector reform is a desire to make public sector staff more accountable for their decisions and actions. In more detail, this means that:

- Some set of recipients receive information about the outcomes of decisions made by identified individuals who are source decision-makers;
- Those sources can be made to explain their decisions; and
- Some sanctions can be imposed if the explanations are unsatisfactory.

The various reforms of the 1990s addressed some of the accountability problems discussed above. Among these initiatives were attempts to:

- Strengthen the rule of law and the judiciary;
- Promote democratization and the role of the media;
- “Depoliticize” the public sectors in countries that used to have one-party rule;
- Strengthen anti-corruption measures; and
- Increase internal and external auditing capacity.

Reform – and the implementation of reform measures – is basically about inducing changes in power relations between state and society, between politicians and bureaucrats, and between government organizations (Caiden, 1992:66). Thus, the mechanisms through which public sectors are reformed go “to the heart of who governs” (Bekke et al., 1996:6). In most countries in the region the design and implementation of reforms are pushed by both internal and external forces. The balance between them varies among countries, but generally donor influences are pronounced. Due to the inherently political nature of reforms, they typically result in conflicts and often lead to intended and unintended consequences. Moreover, the gap between stated objectives and reality is substantial (Batley, 1999:4).

In South Africa, the government has opted for a two-pronged approach to change: (a) a fundamental transformation of public service over a two- to three-year period to reshape apartheid institutions; and (b) a broader, longer-term and ongoing process of administrative reform that aims to make the public sector:

“needs based, designed to meet the needs of all citizens-customers, ... mission driven and results oriented, focusing on goal-based services and results and outputs”, based on a facilitative rather than controlling state to mobilize the potential of civil society, “thereby empowering the citizens to share the responsibilities of governance”, involving a major shift from the former mechanical model “with its emphasis on centralization, hierarchy, the procedural observance of rules and regulations, and isolation from the general public towards a more organic, integrative and adaptive model of corporate governance” (PRC, 1998:chapter 3.1.3).

George A. Larbi in *Democracy, Governance and Human Rights*, states that NPM reforms have been driven by a combination of economic, social, political and technological factors. A common feature of countries going down the NPM route has been the experience of economic and fiscal crises, which triggered the quest for efficiency and for ways to cut the cost of delivering public services. The crisis of the welfare state led to questions about the role and institutional character of the state. In the case of most developing countries, reforms in public administration and management have been driven more by external pressures and have taken place in the context of structural adjustment programmes. Other drivers of NPM-type reforms include the ascendancy of neoliberal ideas from the late 1970s, the development of information technology, and the growth and use of international management consultants as advisors on reforms. Additional countries include lending conditionalities and the increasing emphasis on good governance (Larbi, 1998).

4.3 Good Governance and Public Sector Management Reforms

From the late 1980s, the debate on good governance and its requirements has provided an impetus for new approaches to public sector management reforms. Some of the changes that have taken place have been aimed at tackling some of the worst forms of governance abuses and failures in Africa: the personalized nature of rule in which key political actors exercise unlimited power; systemic clientelism; misuse of State resources and institutionalized corruption; opaque government; the breakdown

of the public realm; the lack of delegation of power and the withdrawal of the masses from governance (Hyden, 1992 and 2000, Bratton & Van de Walle, 1992).

Good public management and administration, with emphasis on accountability and responsiveness to customer needs, has been seen as an aspect of good governance by donor agencies supporting reforms in developing countries. To the World Bank, good governance consists of a public service that is efficient, a judicial system that is reliable, and an administration that is accountable to the public. The World Bank elaborates on four elements of good governance (World Bank, 1989, 1992):

Public sector management emphasizing the need for effective financial and human resource management through improved budgeting, accounting and reporting, and rooting out inefficiency particularly in public enterprises;

Accountability in public services, including effective accounting, auditing and decentralization, and generally making public officials responsible for their actions and responsive to consumers;

A predictable legal framework with rules known in advance; a reliable and independent judiciary and law enforcement mechanisms; and

Availability of information and transparency in order to enhance policy analysis, promote public debate and reduce the risk of corruption.

It is apparent from the above conception of "good governance" that there is some emphasis on improving public-sector management systems. Thus, in the good governance prescriptions, one finds public management reforms as a key component pointing towards market and private sector approaches to public sector management, under the guise of New Public Management (Stoker, 1996).

Independent observers agree that public sector organizations in poor African countries perform badly, even considering the difficult circumstances they operate in. To varying degrees they suffer from a number of well-known bureau pathologies – inefficiency, centralization, fragmentation, poor leadership, lack of capacity, patrimonialism, rent seeking, corruption, and poor accountability and legitimacy. The need to improve efficiency and accountability is therefore obvious (Ayoade, 1988:107-111; Kiggundu, 1998; Mkandawire and Soludo, 1999:135; Mukandala 1992; Mutahaba et al., 1993;

Olowu, 1999). Most reforms in developing countries actually focus on these two issues (Morgan, 1996:227).

Rather different diagnoses are, however, offered as to why these problems abound. Some view the problems of the public sector in Africa as being largely institutional (Dia, 1993 and 1996; Klitgaard, 1997; World Bank, 1994:99) – and sometimes specifically related to “African” culture (Hyden, 1980; Haque, 1996; Chabal and Daloz, 1999). Others point to the importance of the marginalization of Africa in the global economy, which contributes significantly to the extreme resource scarcity of public sector operations and to their poor performance (Leys, 1994; Therkildsen, 1994; Schatz, 1996). Moreover, many problems of performance are due to the inherently difficult developmental tasks in poor countries (Paul, 1982).

In the current debate it is the institutional view that informs most of the actual reform initiatives, and it is NPM concepts that inspire many (although far from all) reform measures as far as efficiency and accountability initiatives are concerned. According to Hood (1991), the major NPM doctrines are that: (a) direct public sector costs must be cut and labour discipline raised so as improve resource use; (b) private sector-style management practices must be applied to increase flexibility in decision making; (c) competition in the public sector (through term contracts and tendering) must be increased, as rivalry is the key to lower costs and better standards; (d) the public sector must be disaggregated and decentralized to make units more manageable and to increase competition among them; (e) controls must be shifted from inputs to outputs, to stress results rather than procedures; (f) explicit standards and performance measures must be established, because accountability requires clearly stated aims and efficiency requires attention to goals; and (g) managers must be given powers to conduct hands-on professional management, because accountability requires clear assignment of responsibility, not diffusion of power. Underlying these doctrines is a strong concern with performance (“value for money”, “economy, effectiveness and efficiency”) and transparency (Jann, 1997:96; Larbi, 1998; Polidano, 1999).

There is broad agreement about the need to increase the capacity of the state (whatever its role is to be). “Vitalizing” (Mutahaba et al., 1993) or “invigorating” public institutions (Klitgaard, 1997; World Bank, 1997B:3) is required. To do this, a variety of

NPM-inspired measures are used. They include reduction and refocusing of public sector functions through staff reductions and changes in budgetary allocations; restructuring of public organizations through reorganization of ministries; decentralizing, delinking or hiving-off of central government functions to local governments or other bodies or the private sector; emphasis on private sector styles of management practice; marketization and introduction of competition in service provision; explicit standards and measures of performance; greater transparency; pay reform; and emphasis on outputs.

Undoubtedly, NPM has left its mark. Yet measured against its self-proclaimed universal relevance, NPM clearly has *not* become the predominant public management paradigm in developing countries. Any review of public management developments in any less developed country demonstrates that hierarchical bureaucracies have not been replaced substantially by chains of inter-linked contracts. Certainly, there have been very significant reforms particularly in the water and health sectors, that have drawn from the NPM menu (Minogue, Polidano et. al. 1998; Batley, 1999). But most government functions are still performed by vertically integrated bureaucracies functioning pretty much as Weber imagined.

While there is relatively little NPM to be found in developing countries when compared to the early predictions, there is even less evaluation of NPM's impact. The most comprehensive overview of NPM type reforms is offered by Batley (1999). Summarizing the conclusions from a 5-year review of "the changing role of government in adjusting economies" in South Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa and South America, Batley finds that the effect of NPM reforms has been mixed, at best, with some improvements in efficiency and mixed effects on equity. On the downside, he notes that the transaction costs of radical reforms to autonomize service delivery agencies tend to outweigh the efficiency gains of unbundling, and that reforms that seek to separate purchasers from providers sometimes reduce accountability.

There are three likely explanations for why NPM has delivered less in developing countries than initially claimed. First, as many providers have remained in the public sector alongside their purchasers, and since there consequently is little or no chance of judicial intervention to resolve disputes, many NPM "contracts" are intrinsically flimsy

and need the backing of a watchful public with high expectations for government performance (Lamb, 1994).

Second, *Old Public Disciplines*, including a public service ethos, remain vital in the NPM era. As Schick (1998) notes, NPM discussions of performance contracts and decentralized authority all assume that budgets (whether or not expressed in performance terms) function properly to constrain line departments while committing central agencies to the provision of a certain level of funding. The NPM debate also has assumed that staff – although prone to self-interest and often scheming to capture the policy process – are largely constrained by some clear standards of behavior. Moreover, it assumes that policy is authoritative and that conflicting or inconsistent ministerial decrees do not undermine the credibility of government policy. NPM proponents have not seen the need to spell out how these good things come about – but clearly have relied on them as foundations for their reforms.

In many developing countries, the *Old Public Disciplines* were absent as NPM-like reforms were launched. This is not a “stages of development” argument in which a long period of tighter control by central agencies is the prescription. It is an empirical observation that predictable resourcing, credible policy, and credible regulation of staff are pre-requisites for effective contract-like arrangements. Perhaps there are some quick ways to get those disciplines in place – in which case leapfrogging is a sensible strategy. But regardless of how they are introduced, these disciplines are fundamental to any conception of performance; and few reforms can gain traction without them (Manning, Mukherjee et. al., 2000).

A third explanation for the apparent under-performance of NPM in developing countries is simply that the impact of these reforms has been marginal under any circumstances. Even in New Zealand it is difficult to demonstrate precisely what has improved as a result of the systemic changes (Boston, 2000). Similarly nuanced findings are reported in the UK (Pollitt, Burchall et. al., 1998). As a tool for greater efficiency, NPM seems to generate, at best, about 3% savings year-on-year in running costs (see Scott and Taylor, 2000). Given that running costs are small relative to program costs, this is a distinctly modest savings. In many less developed countries, running costs represent a larger share of budgetary expenditures than in the OECD,

and thus a 3% savings would be more significant. The big financial gains, however, have been connected with privatization and the associated New Public Policy.

4.4 The influence of international experiences

The wind of change toward market reforms and political pluralism that was sweeping across most of the Western world in the 1980s, and the collapse of communism, sent important messages to most developing countries in crisis that they should also reform. The radical market-oriented reform of the Thatcher era in the United Kingdom had not gone unnoticed in other countries and, as Kickert and Verhaak (1995:531) have noted, had become an “export article”. For most adjusting economies, the process of “learning” from the developed countries’ experiences was facilitated by the use of international management consultants under donor-sponsored technical assistance loans. As noted above, these management consultants have been partly responsible for packaging and selling variants of the NPM in crisis states. Thus the language of the new public management such as “value for money”, “doing more with less” and the “consumer as customer”, has begun to have influence on public sector management reforms in crisis states.

Table 1

**Summary of incentives for public management reforms
in developed and developing countries**

Developed market economies	Crisis and adjusting economies
Economic and fiscal crises in the 70s and 80s	Economic and fiscal crises of greater magnitude, plus increasing debt burden in the 70s and 80s
Quest for efficiency and effectiveness in public services	IMF/World Bank-supported structural adjustment lending conditions; efforts to reduce public deficits and redress balance of payments problems
Developed market economies	Crisis and adjusting economies
Ascendancy of “New Right”/neoliberal ideas in policy making in the 70s and 80s; belief in markets and competition and minimal role for the state	Structural adjustment and economic liberalization policies in the 80s and 90s; efforts to reduce size and role of government

Change in political context – coming into power of Conservative governments, e.g., in the United Kingdom and United States in the late 70s through the 80s	Political and policy instability; failure of public administration institutions and the need to reform them and build their capacity; collapse of communism and central planning
Development of information technology to facilitate and support change	Good governance requirements and its link to public administration and management reform; donor pressures
Growth and role of a network of international management consultants who believe in the tenets of NPM	Learning from the experiences of developed countries; the demonstration effects of reforms in the United Kingdom and other developed market economies; policy transfer Technical assistance and the influence of international management consultants as advisors on reforms

Source: Larbi, 1998a

Table 1 summarizes the preceding section in a comparative perspective, highlighting the different incentives for change in both developed and developing countries. It is apparent that economic and fiscal crises were common driving forces for reform in both developed and developing countries, but the depth and nature of crises differed in the context of adjusting economies. For most adjusting economies, reforms were driven more by external pressure and less by internal political leadership and ideology. The factors driving reforms were, in particular, structural adjustment lending conditions, which pointed toward market and private sector approaches to public sector management under the guise of new public management. The next section outlines the key components of NPM.

The key finding of a report on how governments throughout the Commonwealth have responded to environmental pressures and crises affecting the public sector notes that:

... despite the diversity of the Commonwealth countries there was a common pattern in their responses. So strong is this common pattern that it could be labeled a new paradigm in public administration (Borins, 1994:3).

Three OECD countries – the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand – have become leaders in implementing this new paradigm, starting with different political perspectives and responding in their turn to crises.

NPM shifts the emphasis from traditional public administration to public management (Lane, 1994). As the title of Clarke and Newman's (1997) book, *The Managerial State*, reflects, NPM is pushing the state toward managerialism. The traditional model of organization and delivery of public services, based on the principles of bureaucratic hierarchy, planning, centralization, direct control and self-sufficiency, is apparently being replaced by a market-based public service management (Stewart and Walsh, 1992; Walsh, 1995; Flynn, 1993), or "enterprise culture" (Mascarenhas, 1993:319-328).

A review of the literature suggests that NPM is not a homogenous whole but rather has several, sometimes overlapping, and elements representing trends in public management reforms in OECD countries. Its components and features have been identified by a number of writers, including Hood, 1991:3; 1995:105; Dunleavy and Hood, 1994:9-16; Ferlie et al., 1996; Flynn, 1993; Pollitt, 1993, 1994; Pollitt and Summa, 1997 and Borins, 1994. As noted above, the doctrinal components of NPM have been expanded upon and have evolved over the past decade. For example, the core ideas of the United Kingdom's Citizens Charter initiative, launched in 1991, added a consumerist dimension to public management (Talbot, 1994). Moreover, different aspects of NPM have been stressed by different commentators.

Table 2 summarizes the conceptions of NPM held by some of the key writers on the subject. It is apparent that there are several parallels and overlaps, but also important differences in the way NPM is perceived. It is worth noting, for example, that Hood's original conception of NPM did not explicitly feature the issue of consumers' rights. The Citizen's Charter brought the issue of consumers to prominence and has since become a key feature of most NPM discussions. Osborne and Gaebler's approach also contains some important differences in emphasis from the general NPM approach, and especially from the more ideological politics associated with it. Unlike the ideologically driven NPM underpinned by the "public bad – private good" ethos in the United Kingdom (Talbot, 1994:11), Osborne and Gaebler assert their belief in government. They also assert that privatization is not the only, or often the most appropriate, solution

and that in some cases, bureaucracies work better (e.g., in social security). Beyond these differences, there is much in common with the different views on NPM.

Table 3 draws together what may be regarded as the key components of NPM. A look at the components suggests that the ideas and themes may be put in two broad strands. On the one hand are ideas and themes that emphasize managerial improvement and organizational restructuring, i.e., managerialism in the public sector – these clusters of ideas tend to emphasize management devolution or decentralization within public services. On the other hand are ideas and themes that emphasize markets and competition. It should be pointed out, however, that these categories overlap in practice. They should therefore be seen as a continuum ranging from more managerialism at one end (e.g., decentralization and hands-on professional management) to more marketization and competition at the other (e.g., contracting out).

As Hood (1991:3-19) has noted, the two broad orientations of NPM are explained by the marriage of two different streams of ideas (see also Mellon, 1993:25-31). The first stresses business-type “managerialism” in the public sector and freedom to manage, and comes from the tradition of the scientific management movement (Hood, 1991:6-7; Ferlie et al., 1996:11). This neo-Taylorist movement (Pollitt, 1993) was driven by the search for efficiency and, according to Hood (1991:6):

... generated a set of administrative doctrines based on the ideas of *professional management* expertise as portable ... *paramount* over technical expertise, requiring high *discretionary power* to achieve results ... and *central* and *indispensable* to better organizational performance, through the development of appropriate cultures ... and the active measurement and adjustment of *organizational outputs*.

Table 2
Conceptions of new public management by different authors

Hood, 1991; Dunleavy and Hood, 1994	Pollitt, 1993 and 1994	Ferlie et al., 1996	Borlins, 1994; Commonwealth, 1996	Osborne and Gaebler, 1992
Hands-on professional management	Decentralizing management authority <i>within</i> public services	Decentralization; organizational unbundling; new forms of corporate governance; move to board of directors mode	Increased autonomy, particularly from central agency controls	Decentralized government: promoting more flexible, less layered forms of organization
Shift to disaggregation of units into quasi-contractual or quasi-market forms	Breaking up traditional monolithic bureaucracies into separate agencies	Split between strategic core and large operational periphery		Catalytic government: steering not rowing

Hood, 1991; Dunleavy and Hood, 1994	Pollitt, 1993 and 1994	Ferlie et al., 1996	Borlins, 1994; Commonwealth, 1996	Osborne and Gaebler, 1992
Shift to greater competition and mixed provision, contracting relationship in the public sector; opening up provider roles to competition	Introducing market and quasi-market type mechanisms to foster competition	Elaborate and develop quasi-markets as mechanisms for allocating resources within the public sector	Receptiveness to competition and an open-minded attitude about which public activities should be performed by the public sector as opposed to the private sector	Competition within public services: may be intra-public or with a variety of alternative providers
Stress on private sector styles of	Clearer separation	Split between public funding	Creating synergy between the public	Driven by

management practice	between purchaser and provider function	and independent service provision	and private sectors	mission not rules
Greater emphasis on output controls	Stress on quality, responsiveness to customers	Stress on provider responsiveness to consumers; major concern with service quality	Providing high-quality services that citizens value; service users as customers	Customer-driven
Explicit standards and measures of performance	Performance targets for managers	More transparent methods to review performance	Organizations and individuals measured and rewarded on the performance targets met	Result-oriented government: funding outputs not inputs
Stress on greater discipline and parsimony in resource use; reworking budgets to be transparent in accounting terms	Capping/fixed budgets	Strong concern with value-for-money and efficiency gains	Provision of human and technological resources that managers need to meet their performance targets	Enterprising government: earning not spending

Hood, 1991; Dunleavy and Hood, 1994	Pollitt, 1993 and 1994	Ferlie et al., 1996	Borlins, 1994; Commonwealth, 1996	Osborne and Gaebler, 1992
	Changing employment relations	Downsizing		Market-oriented government: leveraging change through the market
		Deregulation of the labour market		Anticipatory government: prevention rather than cure

Source: Larbi, 1998a.

Table 3
Key components of new public management

Emphasis	NPM component	Meaning	Typical justification
Managerialism	Hands-on professional management in the public sector	Active, visible, discretionary control of organizations from named persons at the top, "free to manage"	Accountability requires the clear assignment of responsibility for action, not diffusion of power
Managerialism	Explicit standards and measures of performance	Definition of goals, targets, indicators of success, preferably expressed in quantitative terms and to which managers would be required to work	Accountability requires clear statement of goals; efficiency requires "hard look at objectives"

Emphasis	NPM component	Meaning	Typical justification
Managerialism	Capping or hard budgets	Make budgets more transparent in accounting terms with costs attributed to outputs rather than inputs – output-oriented budgeting	Making managers more aware not merely of the current costs of operations but also the cost of capital employed (e.g., by means of accrual accounting)
Managerialism	Greater emphasis on <i>output controls</i>	Resource allocation and rewards linked to measured performance; break up of centralized	Need to stress results rather than procedures

		bureaucracy-wide personnel management; performance agreements	
Managerialism	Emphasis on greater discipline and parsimony in resource use	Cut direct costs, raise labour discipline, resist union demands, limit "compliance costs" to business, downsize	Need to check resource demands of the public sector and do "more with less"
Managerialism	New forms of corporate governance	Move to board of directors model; shift power to the strategic apex of the organization	Empowerment of management, reduces influence of elected representatives and trade unions

Emphasis	NPM component	Meaning	Typical justification
Managerialism	Shift to <i>disaggregation</i> of units in the public sector	Break up formerly "monolithic" traditional bureaucracies into corporatized units or separate agencies operating on decentralized "on-line" budgets and relating with one another and with the center on an "arms'-length" basis	Need to create "manageable" units, separate policy core from operation units
Managerialism	Decentralizing management authority	Replace traditional "tall hierarchies" with flatter structures formed and reformed around specific processes (e.g., issuing licenses) rather than traditional functions (e.g.,	Need more quickly responding and flexible structures closer to point of service delivery; freedom to manage

		personnel, finance)	
Managerialism	Organizational development and learning; explicit attempt to secure cultural change	Radical decentralization with performance judged by results; explicit attempts to manage cultural change combining top-down and bottom-up processes, use of mission statements and more assertive and strategic human resource function	Need for excellence in government

Emphasis	NPM component	Meaning	Typical justification
Managerialism/ markets and competition	Purchaser/provider split	Clear separation (organizational and financial) between defining the need for and paying for public services, and actually providing those services	Concern for a much smaller public service; gain efficiency advantages of the use of contract or franchise arrangements inside as well as outside the public sector
Markets and competition	Shift to greater competition in the public sector – market and quasi-market type mechanisms	Move to contracting and public tendering procedures to stimulate competition between service- providing agencies	Rivalry as the key to promote cost savings, efficiency, user- responsiveness and better standards
Markets and competition	Stress on private sector styles of management practice	Move away from military style “public service ethic”, greater flexibility in hiring and rewards; greater use of public relations techniques	Need to use “proven” private sector management tools in the public sector

Markets and competition	Customer orientation; emphasis on quality	Make public services more responsive to the wishes of their users	Increasing customer "voice" and accountability in service provision
Markets and competition	Changing employment relations	Put increasing number of public service staff on contracts that are term-limited (not permanent), performance-related and locally rather than nationally determined	Need to improve performance while reducing the burden of large public sector wage bill; making employment more competitive

Source: Larbi, 1998a

As Dixon et al. (1998:170) argue: "the managerialists seek to shift public agencies from an allegiance to the bureaucratic (hierarchy and control) paradigm to an acceptance of a post-bureaucratic (innovation and support) paradigm" (see also Barzealay, 1992; Odom et al., 1990:107-109).

The second strand of NPM derives from the "new institutional economics" movement, which has its theoretical foundation in public choice, transaction cost and principal-agent theories. These generated public sector reform themes based on ideas of market, competition, contracting, transparency and emphasis on incentive structures (cf. Williamson, 1975 and 1985) as a way of giving more "choice" and "voice" to service users and promoting efficiency in public service delivery.

The proponents of NPM see the Weberian bureaucratic model as rigid, rulebound, slow moving bureaucracies that are costly, inefficient and unresponsive to their users. Public services were provider-dominated, especially in the case of professionalized provision (e.g., education and health care) where powerful, autonomous professions defended vested interests and could not be held to account (Pillitt, 1994; Day and Klein, 1987).

In contrast, NPM was presented as providing a future for smaller, fast-moving service delivery organizations that would be kept lean by the pressure of competitions and that would need to be user-responsive and outcome-oriented in order to survive.

These organizations would be expected to develop flatter internal structures (i.e., few layers) staff, many on performance-related rolling contracts, many services would be

contracted out instead of assuming that in-house provision is best. Professional dominance and demarcation in staffing would be minimized to allow for the substitution of more cost-effective mixes of staff.

In short, NPM advocates argue that the dividing line between public and private sectors will diminish or be blurred and the same good management practices will be found in both sectors. As Turner and Hulme (1997:232) have pointed out, the proponents of the NPM paradigm have been successful in marketing its key features and “persuading potential patients of its curative powers”, sometimes backing up their claims with empirical evidence of substantial savings in public expenditure and improved services (see, e.g., Miranda, 1994a, 1994b).

4.5 Decentralizing Management

Decentralizing management, disaggregating and downsizing of public services are strands of NPM derived from “managerialism” (Mellon, 1993:25-31; Hood, 1991:3-19; Ferlie et al., 1996). The trend toward decentralized management in public services is part of the effort to “debureaucratize” the public services (Ingraham, 1996:255) as well as “delay” the hierarchies within them. The key concern here is “whether managers are free to manage their units in order to achieve the most efficient output” (Mellon, 1993:26; see also Hood, 1991:5-6). This aspect of NPM has taken several forms, which are outlined here.

4.5.1 Breaking up monolithic bureaucracies into agencies

There are several related elements of management decentralization, which one can distill from the NPM literature. The first and the key trend is that traditionally huge and monolithic public bureaucracies are downsizing, contracting out functions and breaking up internally into more autonomous business units or executive agencies (Pollitt, 1994; Pollitt and Summa, 1997; Kanter, 1989). This involves a split between a small strategic policy core and large operational arms of government with increased managerial autonomy (Phippard, 1994; Greer, 1994). Agencies are then required to conduct their relations with each other and with the central departments on a contractual basis rather than through the traditional hierarchy, i.e., they relate on an arms'-length basis. In

practice, executive agencies have meant structural changes in the organization of government. In principle, these agencies have greater managerial flexibility in allocation of human resources in return for greater managerial flexibility in allocation of human resources in return for greater accountability for results. As Jervis and Richards (1995:10-11) have argued, the executive agency idea was born out of:

... the desire to remove the framework of governance for public services from the arena of contested democratic politics. Placing public services at arms' length from politicians was intended to give managers sufficient space to get on with management, within the broad framework laid for the public service.

The development of executive agencies has been logically accompanied by *delegation of authority to senior management* in public agencies – giving top management freedom to manage with clear responsibility and accountability, and reducing the management role of the center.

4.5.2 Devolving budgets and financial control

This is the second element of decentralized management and an important complement to the creation of executive agencies. This may take the form of creating budget centers or spending units. Devolving budgets and financial control involves giving managers increased control over budgets for which they are held responsible (Kaul, 1997:13-26; Walsh, 1995). This usually goes with the setting of explicit targets for decentralized units. For example, according to Flynn (1993:111), the British public expenditure planning process, in 1993, incorporated 2,500 performance and output measures in addition to the traditional approach of deciding how much money should be allocated to each function.

4.5.3 Organizational unbundling

This is the third element of management decentralization. It involves delayering of vertically integrated organizations, i.e., replacing traditional “tall hierarchies” with flatter and more responsive structures formed around specific processes, such as paying of benefits as in the United Kingdom (Ferlie et al., 1996; Pollitt, 1994).

4.5.4 Downsizing

The fourth element of decentralized management is downsizing, i.e., rationalizing and trimming the public sector in order to achieve “leaner” (smaller or compact) and “meaner” (cost-effective) public service. This has taken different forms, such as hiving-off operational arms of government to form autonomous agencies and sub-contracting government activities to private providers. However, in crisis states, the most dominant form of downsizing has been retrenchment of staff in state agencies.

Downsizing arises from the concern for the size and cost of public sector employment. There was rapid expansion of civil employment in the period up to the early 1980s in developing countries (about 10 per cent a year in some African countries). This was a reflection of the high degree of government intervention in the economy, as well as practices such as guaranteeing employment to new graduates, and the use of employment for political patronage. The consequent overburdening wage bill not only contributed to the growing fiscal crisis and budget deficits, but also depressed real wages and maintenance and capital budgets.

Downsizing the public services in crisis states has not, however, led to expected budget savings, which could be used to improve the salary and incentives of those who remain. This was because of the high cost of compensating those retrenched. It must be added that delays in paying compensation and the poor management of retraining and redeployment programmes created enormous hardships for those retrenched, most of whom joined the ranks of the unemployed (Larbi, 1999). Furthermore, quantitative reductions in employment did not lead to qualitative improvement in services. This is because the initial wave of reforms did not pay much attention to staff morale, capacity building and other efficiency and productivity improvement measures.

4.5.5 Separating production and provision functions

The fifth dimension of decentralized management is the divorce of provision from production of public services. This separation of provision from production implies making a clearer distinction (organizational and financial) between defining the need for

and paying for public services (the direct provider role). This is clearly seen in the reform of the United Kingdom National Health Service (NHS) where autonomous hospitals (NHS Trusts) “produce” services for which the District Health Authorities provide finance by “purchasing” the services (Lacey, 1997:141-159).

4.5.6 New forms of corporate governance and the board of directors model

The sixth and final dimension of management decentralization is the adoption of new forms of corporate governance and a move to a board of directors model in the public services. This entails reducing the power of elected representatives and minimizing the influence of labour unions on management. This has been a noticeable phenomenon in the United Kingdom (Ferlie et al., 1996) and is being adopted in other countries, such as Ghana.

The benefits expected and the objectives of management decentralization may vary from one organizational context to another. However, the economic and administrative cases for management decentralization rest on bringing service delivery closer to consumers, improving the central government’s responsiveness to public demands, improving the efficiency and quality of public services, and empowering lower units to feel more involved and in control (Mahamba, 1991:77-82; Smith, 1985:30-37). It is also meant to reduce overload and congestion at the center and speed up operational decision making and implementation by minimizing the bottlenecks associated with over-centralization of powers and functions at just one or two points in the hierarchy of a public service organization or ministry. Thus management decentralization seeks to increase the operational autonomy of line managers and agencies, leaving only broad policy guidelines to be worked out at the centre. It also entails flatter internal hierarchies.

4.6 The political context for reforms

Unlike the context in developed countries, the political environment in some developing countries (especially in Africa) in the 1970s and 1980s was marked by political instability and policy inaction. In countries such as Ghana, Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe, the orientation of the political leadership was not particularly pro-market or pro-private sector; in some cases it was directly the opposite. This partly explains why needed economic reforms were delayed until things got out of hand. Once the economic situation reached a crisis point and there were no immediate alternative solutions, some political leaders (e.g., in Ghana) were ready to take the risk of reform along lines prescribed by multilateral lending institutions. Thus for most crisis states, the political environment did not enable the leadership to take independent initiatives for market-oriented public sector management reforms. As Corkery et al., 1995, have noted in the case of Africa, even when reforms were introduced it was the externally driven and supported SAPs, which were the main catalyst for the introduction of public sector management reforms. This partly explains the lack of public ownership of adjustment and weak government commitment to reforms.

4.7 The New Public Management (NPM)

Any one working in public services can see that something has happened. Public Management is different from traditional public administration and has been adopted widely. As the reform programme progresses in different countries, including South Africa, the days in which formal bureaucracy and the traditional model of administration were reigning are rapidly passing.

There are quite extensive critiques of the new public management, some clearly written by adherents to the old-style public administration, trained in its precepts, who are unwilling or unable to see anything positive in the changes.

The argument here is that there has been a major change and that this deserves the application of a paradigm.

Over the past two decades, and in South Africa, especially after the new democratic government has been established, the public services of western countries have

undergone major change trying to respond to the challenges of technological, globalization and international competitiveness. It is argued here that this period of changes with no sign of diminishing represents a paradigm shift from the traditional model of public administration, to “managerialism” or public management and leadership. The theory of bureaucracy is being replaced by more business like theories and practices.

The managerial programme is an international one, with quite similar changes occurring in a range of different countries. What is more, there is common intellectual backing for these changes particularly in economic theory and business management (Hughes, 2003:vi). Policy makers have also injected doses of inside-out accountability into the workings of public administration in recent years. Most prominently, the reinventing “government” movement, was as Kettle (202:viii) points out, “a strategy founded on an assumption that managers know how to do their jobs and that top political officials ought to get out of the way and let them perform”.

While the theory of Public Administration is built on the foundation of a theory of hierarchy and authority, the structure of public work has become less and less hierarchical. Managers manage less through authority and more through a wide variety of other strategies.

The way managers actually manage has increasingly become at odds with the old theory of public administration based on notions of hierarchy and authority.

According to Hughes (2003:1) the traditional model of public administration, which predominated for most of the twentieth century, has changed, to a flexible, market-based form of public management. This is not simply a matter of reform or a minor change in management style, but a change in the role of government in society and the relationship between government and citizenry. Traditional public administration has been discredited theoretically and practically, and the adoption of new forms of public management means the emergence of a new paradigm in public sector.

This new paradigm poses a direct challenge to what had been regarded as fundamental principles of traditional public administration. Hughes (2003:1) states that the first of these was that of *bureaucracy*, that governments should organize themselves according to the hierarchical, bureaucratic principles most clearly enunciated in the

classic analysis of bureaucracy by the German sociologist Max Weber (Gerth & Mills, 1970). Although adopted by business and other institutions, these precepts were carried out far more diligently and for longer in the public sector. Secondly, there was *one-best-way* of working and procedures were set out in comprehensive manuals for administrators to follow. Strict adherence to these scientific management principles (Taylor, 1911) would provide the single best way of operative an organization. The third principle was *bureaucratic delivery*; once government involved itself in a policy area, it also became the direct provider of goods and services through the bureaucracy. Fourthly, there was general belief among administrators in the *politics/administration dichotomy*, that is, where political and administrative matters could be separated. The administration would be an instrument merely to carry out instructions, while any matters of policy or strategy were the preserve of the political leadership (Wilson, 1941). Fifthly, the motivation of the individual public servant was assumed to be that of the public interest; in that service to the public was provided selflessly. Sixthly, public administration was considered a special kind of activity and, therefore, required a *professional bureaucracy*. Seventhly, the tasks involved in public service were indeed *administrative* in the dictionary sense, that is, following the instructions provided by others without personal responsibility for results.

Hughes (2003:2) argues that these seven seeming varieties have been challenged. First, bureaucracy is indeed powerful but does not work well in all circumstances and has some negative consequences. Secondly, trying to find the one-best-way is elusive and can lead to rigidity in operation. Flexible management systems pioneered by the private sector are being adopted by governments. Thirdly, delivery by bureaucracy is *not* the only way to provide public goods and services; governments can operate indirectly through subsidies, regulation or contracts, instead of always being the direct provider. Fourthly, political and administrative matters have in reality been intertwined for a long time, but the implications of this for management structures are only now being worked through. The public demands better mechanisms of accountability where once the bureaucracy operated separately from the society. Fifthly, while there may be public servants motivated by the public interest, it now seems incontrovertible that they are political players in their own right. They may also be assumed to work for their own

advancement and that of their agency, instead of being pure and self-less. Sixthly, the case for unusual employment conditions in the public services is now much weaker, especially given the changes that have taken place in the private sector where jobs for life are rare. Finally, the tasks involved in the public sector are now considered more managerial, that is, requiring someone to take responsibility for the achievement of results, instead of being regarded as administrative and with public servants merely following instructions.

Economic problems in the 1980s meant governments reassessed their bureaucracies and demanded changes. As Caiden (1991:74) argues, 'All blamed the dead hand of bureaucracy, especially the poor performance of public bureaucracies and the daily annoyances of irksome restrictions, cumbersome red-tape, unpleasant officials, poor service and corrupt practices'.

It is argued that the seven verities constitute a paradigm of their own – the traditional model of public administration – and that a paradigm shift has occurred due to the problems of the traditional model.

4.8 A new paradigm

According to Hughes (2003:3) there is some debate over whether or not public management, particularly the new public management, is a new paradigm for public sector management. There are those in favour of regarding the reforms as a new paradigm (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992; Barzelay, 1992; Behn, 1998, 2001; Borins, 1999; Mathiasen, 1999; Holmes & Shand, 1995; OECD, 1998). It is argued here that, either using the ordinary meaning of the word or the more recent usage associated with the work of Kuhn (1970), the term 'paradigm' is appropriate both for the traditional model of administration and the public management reforms most commonly linked together as the new public management.

Some argue that a paradigm is a large hurdle to jump, requiring agreement among all a discipline's practitioners – a more or less permanent way of looking at the world (Lynn, 1997; Gruening, 2001). This is a misreading of Kuhn (1970). Instead of a paradigm being a generally agreed framework of all the practitioners in a field, it is

actually a contested idea. It does not require agreement among all practitioners; there are often competing paradigms in the same field.

The basic paradigms for public sector management are those following from Ostrom's (1989) argument that there are two opposing forms of organization: bureaucracy and markets. The key difference between the two forms of organization is that between choice and compulsion; allowing the market to find an agreed result or having it imposed by a bureaucratic hierarchy. At this most fundamental level, bureaucracy and markets are very different; they are based on very different ways of looking at the world. In short, the traditional model of administration is based on bureaucracy; public management is based on markets.

To Behn (2001:231), the traditional model of administration qualifies as a paradigm; as he continues, 'certainly, those who support traditional public administration would argue that they have a "discipline", complete with "theories, laws, and generalizations", that focus their research'. A paradigm does not mean one set of views that everyone must agree on, rather views that exist for a time and are revealed in the discipline's practices.

The public management paradigm has the very different underlying theoretical bases of economics and private management. As an OECD (1998:13) paper argues, 'this new management paradigm emphasizes results in terms of "value for money", to be achieved through management by objectives, the use of markets and market-type mechanisms, competition and choice, and devolution to staff through a better matching of authority, responsibility and accountability'.

However, it is not the case that at one point in time everyone in the discipline decided that the traditional public administration paradigm had been superseded; it is more the case that paradigms change gradually. The decline of one school of thought occurs as a result of the rise of an alternative, in this case public management. As Kuhn (1990:77) argues, 'the decision to reject one paradigm is always simultaneously the decision to accept another, and the judgment leading to that decision involves, the comparison of both paradigms with nature and with one another' (emphasis in the original)". Paradigmatic change involves the comparison of theories, neither of which

works perfectly. If there are problems with the public management reforms, the response will be further changes in the managerial direction. Public management is argued to be a new paradigm.

4.9 The emergence of a new approach

By the beginning of the 1990s, a new model of public sector management had emerged in most advanced countries and many developing ones. Initially, the new model had several names, including: 'managerialism' (Pollitt, 1993); 'new public management' (Hood, 1991); 'market-based public administration' (Lan & Rosenbloom, 1992); the 'post-bureaucratic paradigm' (Barzelay, 1992) or 'entrepreneurial government' (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992). Despite the differing names, they all essentially describe the same phenomenon.

In the United Kingdom there were reforms in the 1980s, such as the widespread privatization of public enterprises and cuts to other parts of the public sector during the Thatcher government. Before long theorists began to see the trend as being to a new form of management. Rhodes, drawing on Hood (1991:1), saw managerialism in Britain as a 'determined effort to implement the "3Es" of economy, efficiency and effectiveness at all levels of British government'. By 1999, Horton (1999:145) would argue 'during the 1980s and 1990s the civil service moved from an administered to a managed bureaucracy and from a system of public administration to one of new public management (NPM)'.

In the United States, a key event was the publication in 1992 of *Reinventing Government* by Osborne and Gaebler (1992). The book cover included an endorsement by then presidential candidate Governor Bill Clinton. It was no surprise that, after his election, the new president would take an avid interest in reforming government, giving the task of conducting the National Performance Review to his Vice-President Al Gore (Gore, 1993). This review was clearly influenced by Osborne and Gaebler, in the diagnosis of the problems being too much bureaucracy, the solutions advanced, and the language of reinvention used. The Gore Report set out to change the culture of American federal government through four key principles: (i) cutting red tape 'shifting from systems in which people are accountable for following rules to

systems in which they are accountable for achieving results'; (ii) putting customers first; (iii) empowering employees to get results; and (iv) cutting back to basics and 'producing better government for less' (Gore, 1993:6-7) The Gore Report also cited innovative practices in Britain, New Zealand and Australia suggesting that the United States was somewhat behind in developing this new management.

International organizations, notably the Paris-based Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and, to a lesser extent the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) became interested in improving the public management of their member and client nations. The public management committee (PUMA) at the OECD took a leading role in the public management reform process. In a 1990 report, the OECD (1990:1) argued that 'a shared approach' can be identified in most developed countries in which 'a radical change in the "culture" of public administration is needed if the efficiency and effectiveness of the public sector is to be further improved'. In 1998, it argued that improving efficiency and effectiveness of the public sector itself 'involves a major cultural shift as the old management paradigm, which was largely process- and rules-driven, is replaced by a new paradigm which attempts to combine modern management practices with the logic of economics, while still retaining the core public service values' (OECD, 1998:5). This new approach to public management would emphasize results, a focus on clients, outputs and outcomes; it would use 'management by objectives and performance measurement, the use of markets and market-type mechanisms in place of centralized command-and-control-style regulation, competition and choice, and devolution with a better matching of authority, responsibility and accountability' (OECD, 1998:5).

Although the various terms – new public management, managerialism, entrepreneurial government – may vary, there is today much more general agreement: they point to the same phenomenon. Improving public management, reducing budgets, privatization of public enterprise seem universal; no one now is arguing for or increasing the scope of government or bureaucracy.

While there have been striking similarities in the reforms carried out in a number of countries it is argued here that the greatest shift is one of theory rather than practice.

The underlying theories of the traditional model of public administration; based on bureaucracy, one-best-way, the public interest and a separation of politics from administration, all had their problems. Indeed, the new public management paradigm is 'a direct response to the inadequacies of traditional public administration – particularly to the inadequacies of public bureaucracies' (Behn, 2001:30). The public management reforms have been driven by totally different underlying theories: that economic motivations can be assumed for all players in government; that private management flexibility provides lessons for government; and that there can be no separation of politics from administration. Above all else, the change of theory is from administration to management, the former being about following instructions and the latter meaning to achieve results and to take personal responsibility for doing so.

4.10 Administration and management

It is argued here that *administration* is a narrower and more limited function than *management* and, in consequence, changing from public administration to public management means a major change of theory and of function. The terms 'management' and 'administration' are significantly different and that a manager performs a different role from an administrator.

The Oxford Dictionary defines *administration* as: 'an act of administering', which is then 'to manage the affairs of' or 'to direct or superintend the execution, use or conduct of', while *management* is: 'to conduct, to control the course of affairs by one's own action, to take charge of'. The Latin origins of the two words also show significant differences. Administration comes from *minor* then *ministrare*, meaning: 'to serve, and hence later, to govern'. Management comes from *manus*, meaning: 'to control by hand'. The essential difference in meaning is between 'to serve' and 'to control or gain results'.

From these various definitions it is argued that administration essentially involves following instructions and service, while management involves: first, the achievement of results, and secondly, personal responsibility by the manager for results being achieved. The terms administration and management are not synonymous, neither is their application to the public sector. Public administration is an activity serving the

public, and public servants carry out policies derived from others. It is concerned with procedures, with translating policies into action and with office management. Management does include administration (Mullins, 1996:398–400), but also involves organization to achieve objectives with maximum efficiency, as well as genuine responsibility for results. These two elements were not necessarily present in the traditional administrative system. Public administration focuses on *process*, on procedures and propriety, while public management involves much more. Instead of merely following instructions, a public manager focuses on achieving *results* and taking responsibility for doing so.

As part of this general process, 'public administration' has clearly lost favour as a description of the work carried out; the term 'manager' is more common, where once 'administrator' was used. As Pollitt (1993:vii) notes: 'formerly they were called "administrators", "principal officers", "finance officers" or "assistant directors". Now they are "managers". This may simply be a 'fad' or 'fashion' (Spann, 1981), but it might also reflect a real change in expectations of the person occupying the position, pointing to differences between administration and management.

These changes of title are not superficial. In the narrow sense, the words 'administration' and 'management' are shorthand descriptions of an activity or a function. It does not matter what a person or a function is called, if the work is done. But in a broader sense, words have power. If changing a position description from 'administrator' to 'manager' changes the way the incumbent sees or carries out the position, the words used to describe it are far from trivial. The term 'manager' is used more often, because it is a better description of the work now done. Public servants increasingly see themselves as managers instead of administrators. They recognize their function as organizing to achieve objectives with genuine responsibility for results, not simply as following orders. As a result, usage of the term public management is gaining favour, while public administration now seems old-fashioned, if not quite obsolete.

The main point to be made here is that a new paradigm governing the management of the public sector has emerged, one that moves the public service inexorably away from

administration towards management. The earlier, rigidly bureaucratic model of administration is now discredited both theoretically and practically.

Understandably, many public servants have felt under siege. Certainty and order have been replaced by uncertainty. Offices are organized and re-organised, structured and restructured to a bewildering extent. Redundancies have become common in a part of the workforce where jobs were once for a lifetime. In future, the public service may provide an occupation for a very small core of people. Service-delivery agencies, which need not contain government employees, may undertake the bulk of the day-to-day work under contracts with the small policy department. Governments still need a public service, but its size could be very small, confined to contract management and *policy advice, even if much of that work could itself be contracted out.*

Hughes (2003:15) argues that one interesting, albeit expected aspect of the public management reforms has been the reaction of critics, mainly academic, unwilling or unable to concede that the old traditional model of public administration is disappearing. Every conceivable aspect of new public management has come under attack from one public administration writer or another, to the extent that it seems clear that the reforms have found greater acceptance within the public services than within some parts of academia.

There are, of course, some problems involved in the change to managerialism. Any process of change involves winners and losers and among the losses may be some valued parts of the traditional model of administration. Reform is undertaken with the aim of improvement, but it could be argued that there has been so much reform so much change, that management capability has deteriorated. There are serious questions to be addressed about ethics, accountability, the theoretical basis of the new model and larger questions concerning the role and organization of public services. However, even if public management is not a settled model, even if some changes may work better than others, there will be no return to the traditional model of administration in place for most of the twentieth century. This has gone for good and public management has replaced it. The change to a managerial model now seems irreversible.

4.11. The problem of bureaucracy

Formal bureaucracy may have its advantages, but, it is argued, it also breeds time-servers rather than innovators. It encourages administrators to be risk-averse rather than risk-taking, and to waste scarce resources instead of using them efficiently. Weber regarded bureaucracy as the highest form of organization, but it is also criticized for producing inertia, lack of enterprise, red tape, mediocrity and inefficiency, all diseases thought to be endemic in public sector bodies. Indeed, the word 'bureaucracy' is today more usually regarded as a synonym for inefficiency (Behn, 1998:140). There are two particular problems with the theory of bureaucracy. These are, first, the problematic relationship between bureaucracy and democracy and, secondly, formal bureaucracy could no longer be considered as a particularly efficient form of organization.

With its formal rationality, secrecy, rigidity and hierarchy, it seems inevitable that there would be some conflict between bureaucracy and democracy. Weber was ambivalent about bureaucracy. He saw it as inevitable that bureaucracy would become universal as it 'inevitably accompanies modern mass democracy' (Gerth & Mills, 1970:224), but equally, democracy 'inevitably comes into conflict with bureaucratic tendencies' (:226). The ruled, for their part, cannot dispense with or replace the bureaucratic apparatus of authority once it exists (:229).

Weber described bureaucracy rather than advocating it, and, although he saw it as inevitable with the modernization of society, there were clearly aspects that worried him. There was and is some conflict between bureaucracy and democracy; it did not make sense for a democracy to have a distinct elite acting secretly (Gerth & Mills, 1970:228).

There are two reasons for bureaucracy no longer being considered to be particularly efficient. First, there were always some extreme interpretations of Weberian principles, particularly in the personnel system, which was made more rigid, more formal and less elitist than Weber imagined, and this tended to reduce its efficiency.

The principle of hierarchy was implemented to a ridiculous extent with dozens of levels, each with several sub-levels and with barriers established to restrict progress beyond certain points. The principle of employment for life came to mean it was practically impossible to dismiss anyone, despite manifest incompetence. Generous government pension schemes attracted complaints from private sector managers who felt governments were more generous than they could afford for their own employees.

They also led to the problem of the 'timeserver', the person who did not work effectively, who was impossible to dismiss, and merely waited for retirement day. The seniority principle was commonplace, where promotions were decided purely by length of service.

Except for a few countries where elite training for public service continued – for example, Japan and France – the best and brightest no longer considered being a public servant as an occupation attracting high status. The general low esteem in which public service was held meant that it became an easy target for budget cuts.

Secondly, new theories of organizational behavior argue that formal bureaucratic models are no longer particularly efficient or effective in any sense, when compared to more flexible forms of management.

Rigid, hierarchical structures are now more often regarded as imposing costs as well as benefits and may stifle creativity and innovation. Informal networks spring up alongside the formal ones; 'there is a complex set of informal behaviors in every organization, and these may or may not be consistent with what is depicted in the organization chart' (Bozeman & Straussman, 1990:139). Political behavior by individuals aiming to advance in the organization reduces overall efficiency, as frequently more time and effort is spent in seeking advancement than in doing the assigned task. When officials actively compete with other branches or agencies, management is likely to fall well short of the optimum.

Intrigue and empire building are rife in bureaucracy and probably always were. Individual bureaucrats are not the automatons impersonally following rules assumed by Weber's model. A more realistic theory of bureaucracy than Weber's, with its emphasis on precision and reliability in administration, on its rule-bound character, needs 'to be

supplemented by a recognition that human attitudes and relationships are involved' (Kamenka, 1989:161).

Behavioral theories of organizations illustrate that what really happens in bureaucracies is considerably different from what the rational/legal authority model predicts. The bureaucratic organization adopts fixed operating procedures but, in consequence, the achievement of results may become less important than maintaining the processes and rules. Robert Merton (1968:260) argued that rigid adherence to rules could have unanticipated consequences, including a reduction in efficiency:

"Adherence to rules, originally conceived as a means, becomes transformed into an end-in-itself, there occurs the familiar process of displacement of goals whereby 'an instrumental value becomes a terminal value'. Discipline, readily interpreted as conformance with regulations, whatever the situation, is seen not as a measure designed for specific purposes but becomes an immediate value in the life-organization of the bureaucrat."

In other words, the rules themselves become what organizational effort is directed at achieving, instead of fulfilling the organization's purpose. Michel Crozier goes further. He argues that bureaucratic organizations are axiomatically inefficient, even that 'a bureaucratic organization is an organization that cannot correct its behavior by learning from its errors' (Crozier, 1964:187). Instead of bureaucracy being axiomatically efficient as Weber argued, it is more often now regarded as axiomatically inefficient. Caiden, too, claims the price to be paid for bureaucratic 'efficiency' is (1981:181):

"A narrow sameness, restrictions on individual enterprise and creativity, an intolerant conformity, competent but not excellent performance and an indifferent complacency. Providing one accepts things as they are, then all is well and the future looks after itself... When bureaucratism is overdone, its vices may replace its virtues. Instead of careful planning, there may be hasty improvisation, and panicky manipulation, neither well thought out, and both turning order into chaos. Instead of high productivity, there may be low productivity as work may become a boring ritual and the rewards for good performance may not be much different from those for poor performance."

Even when formal bureaucracies work well, they tend to do so in times of stasis and find it difficult to cope with changed circumstances. Fixed procedures and orderly

working patterns do not work when the environment is constantly changing. Perhaps in the Golden Age of public administration, change was slow enough to allow the luxury of operating in a fixed environment, but this is a societal situation that does not exist now.

Traditional bureaucracy has an input-dominated structure, with output being only incidental. It was thought, as far as results were considered at all, that results would follow naturally from organization. Of course, the organization had some function, but once set up it was assumed that establishing the hierarchy, the personnel system and the like, would lead to satisfactory outputs by themselves. Administration meant carrying out defined tasks; how well, how timely, or how effectively, was the concern of someone else. If administration means carrying out instructions, it is the responsibility of the person issuing the instruction to monitor performance.

In the public bureaucracy, politicians may not have been capable or willing to do this, but neither did the information exist in a form to allow judgements to be made. Measuring performance in a comprehensive way was considered too difficult in the public sector, which is why there was resort to such unsatisfactory devices as the seniority system for promotion.

A major problem for the public sector is that it persisted with the habits and practice of administration, which were being modified elsewhere. Newer theories of organizational behaviour recognize that formal bureaucracy has its strengths but that alternative structures are possible (Vecchio, 1991:499-524). Bureaucracy is not appropriate for non-routine activities that involve creativity and innovation.

The private sector is moving away from formal bureaucratic structures and rigid hierarchical structures towards decentralization and devolution of real authority to lower levels as profit centers, as well as to greater flexibility in structure and staffing and an increased emphasis on performance and speedy response. However, to change the existing public system into one that is speedy, risk-taking, output-oriented, innovative and efficient requires a total change in organizational culture.

The focus of subsequent reforms in the public service has been to move away from the idea of a rigid and bureaucratized career service, towards a more fluid structure. While there may be a need for order and precision in management, there is now a greater need for speed, flexibility and results. In short, the formal bureaucratic model is

really more suited to administration, or carrying out instructions, than management, or achieving results.

It remains an open question in organizational behaviour whether the changes to Weber's model are evolutionary or revolutionary: whether there are so many alterations that bureaucracy is no longer really Weberian. Bozeman and Straussman (1990:142) argue that organization theorists are constantly 'grappling with alternatives to the hierarchical image of bureaucracy, but the Weberian closed bureaucracy has staying power'.

Blau & Meyer (1987:162-186) argue that changes have modified the bureaucratic model as outlined by Weber, but 'his model has not been abandoned'.

They make three conclusions: first, that bureaucratic principles do achieve coordination and control in administration, but whether bureaucratic principles always affect efficiency remains open to question. Compared to traditional forms of administration, bureaucracy is undoubtedly superior.

Compared to the new organizing principles that substitute financial controls for command hierarchies in large corporations, bureaucracy may be at a disadvantage. But the applicability of these new organizing principles is restricted to business settings, and even in business their superior efficiency has not been demonstrated conclusively. A second conclusion, therefore, is that bureaucratic principles may achieve efficiency in administration, but even where they do not, alternative forms of administration may prove even less desirable.

Their third conclusion is that bureaucratic organizing principles can effectively serve many purposes, which may be in opposition to one another. While their main point is that these make the relationship between bureaucracy and democracy problematic, it is hard to escape the conclusion that the bureaucratic model has so many contradictions that it is understandable why governments now look to other forms of organization, derived from business.

It is sometimes argued that even if business or private administration is moving away from formal bureaucracy, public administration should remain Weberian. Blau and Meyer's conclusions suggest this. In this way, the important values in Weber – impersonality, consistency – would remain, as would the important social and ethical

questions lacking in private sector management. On the other hand, at least some parts of the public sector are analogous to business.

They produce products, goods and services, which are amenable to better management and have quite similar production functions as the private sector. It would seem unnecessarily restrictive to say that all public service functions need to be organized in a strict bureaucratic way, purely because they are in the public sector. A focus on results will lead to quite significant departures from Weber's model in several ways and these may vary between and even within organizations.

All of the public sector does not need to be organized bureaucratically, at least in a strict hierarchical sense. For some tasks, a model of authority without hierarchy may be more efficient, as may personal relations rather than the impersonality outlined by Weber. Newer forms of management focus on achievement of results as the prime goal with organizational form of secondary importance.

However, despite its problems of efficiency the system of power within the public sector remains that of bureaucracy. Bureaucracy can be seen as first, a system of power, and secondly, as a set of prescriptions set out by Weber. Instead of a new form of rational/legal authority needing to be found for public management (Lynn, 1997), different aspects of Weber need to be considered anew.

Where the bureaucratic state maintains its strength is in its legal framework. The legal specification of the state as set out by Weber is not altered by adopting public management, although the detailed points he set out for the personnel system are no longer necessary. Perhaps all that the public management reforms argue for is a new way of organizing government without altering the legal structure of a bureaucratic state.

It remains a bureaucracy in the power sense, it still operates according to Weberian rational/legal principles, and it still operates in a democratic polity, but many of the detailed principles of the traditional model can be discarded.

4.12 Summary

New public management (NPM), management techniques and practices drawn mainly from the private sector, is increasingly seen as a global phenomenon. NPM reforms shift the emphasis from traditional public administration to public management. Key elements include various forms of decentralizing management within public services, increasing use of markets and competition in the provision of public services (e.g., contracting out and other market-type mechanisms), and increasing emphasis on performance, outputs and customer orientation (Stoker, 1996). Improved efficiency is now the overriding aim of public sector reforms in most African countries. The proponents of NPM see the Weberian bureaucratic model as rigid, rule-bound, slow moving bureaucracies that are costly, inefficient and unresponsive to their users. Public services were provider-dominated, especially in the case of professionalized provision (e.g., education and health care) where powerful, autonomous professions defended vested interests and could not be held to account (Pollitt, 1994; Day and Klein, 1987). In contrast, NPM was presented as providing a future for smaller, fast-moving service delivery organizations that would be kept lean by the pressures of competition and that would need to be user-responsive and outcome-oriented in order to survive. These organizations would be expected to develop flatter internal structures (i.e., fewer layers) and devolve operational authority to front-line managers. With a downsized staff, many on performance-related rolling contracts, many services would be contracted out instead of assuming that in-house provision is best. Professional dominance and demarcation in staffing would be minimized to allow for the substitution of more cost-effective mixes of staff. In short, NPM advocates argue that the dividing line between public and private sectors will diminish or be blurred and the same good management practices will be found in both sectors.

Turner (2002:493) is of the opinion that a new paradigm is impacting on the classical public management, with a shift from an administrative to a managerialist mode of operating, challenging classical public administration theory.

In the next chapter the researcher will discuss Public Service in South Africa

CHAPTER 5 *LITERATURE REVIEW*

PUBLIC SERVICE IN SOUTH AFRICA

5.1 Introduction

Public Sector is defined as “that portions of an economy where the economic and non-economic activities are under the control and direction of the state. The state owns all resources in this sector and uses them to achieve whatever goals it may have Fox & Meyer (1995: 106).

According to Hanekom et al. (1996: 86), the term governmental institution derives more meaning by separating the two concepts.

Fonk and Wagnall in Hanekom et al. (1996:86) define governmental as “relating or pertaining to government. Government means the act of governing, or the state of being governed and refers to the executive and legislative bodies of state.”

They define an institution as that which is “instituted or established, or a corporate body or established institution and organised for public use. An established institution such as government department, corporation or commission means an institution maintained by the state and receiving support out of public funds.”

South African government institutions are divided in three levels, namely, Central, Provincial and Local government.

A public administrator is defined as “public employee with managerial responsibilities” Fox & Meyer (1995:105).

5.2 Changes in the South African Public Service

According to Sing (1986:50), “public institutions are under constant pressure to change in accordance with demands originating from external and internal environments. The phenomenon of change embodies several dimensions such as transformation, substitution, adaption, alteration, managing innovation, renewal and reformation”. Chikane (*in Report on Integrated Democratic Governance, 2001:3*) states that the pressure to change is to ensure that with each passing year more distance is put between the apartheid rule of our past and the democratic governance of our

present. The public sector is constantly influenced by factors in the environment within which it functions and in turn it also influences the environment (Schwella in McLennan, 1995:25). Fox *et al.* (1991) divide these influences into general and specific components. The general component includes the political, social, economic, cultural and technological aspects of the environment. The specific environment includes suppliers, competitors, regulators and consumers. The public sector is further inextricably influenced by the diverse values of the community, public officials (political as well as career officials) and institutions.

5.2.1 The Political Environment

Stewart (1995:15) states: "As society changes so does the politics of government." According to Hodge and Anthony (1991:79), all organizations are to some degree affected by the political system they function in. McLennan (1995:110) and the *Presidential Review Commission Report* (1998:1 of 34 in Chapter 3) state that apartheid as a political system contributed to the public service being characterized by:

- Rigid racial and ethnic segregation
- Fragmentation, duplication and waste
- Poor and outdated management practices
- A regulatory bureaucratic culture
- Lack of accountability and transparency
- Poorly paid and demotivated staff
- Conflictual labour relations.

The public service structure inherited from the apartheid political system also promoted and defended the social and economic system of apartheid and served the material needs and interest of a minority group. "In forging ahead with the processes of reconciliation, reconstruction and development, the South African public service will have a major role to play as the executive arm of government. To fulfill this role effectively, the service will need to be transformed into a coherent, representative, competent and democratic instrument for implementing government policies and meeting the needs of all South Africans" (*White Paper on the Transformation of the*

Public Services, 1995: 1 of 3 in Chapter 1). The political system, that is, government and political process, is an important variable in managerial decision making. Besides the usual parliamentary and extra-parliamentary role-players, as in so many countries throughout the world, South Africa too has its fair share of political extremists; they are radicals who do not want to resolve political issues in a democratic process. Examples are: a public managers who use their position of authority to promote the ideology of a specific political party; a public manager who uses politics to discriminate against workers; workers who use politics as an excuse to shirk responsibility at work; workers who use politics to promote their career development; and workers who use politics to turn conflict at work into a racial issue. Political differences and intolerance in the workplace could also contribute to different values, attitudes and perceptions among workers. If not managed well, this could lead to a negative atmosphere among workers in the workplace. A climate of political neutrality must therefore be encouraged in the public sector. The government must further ensure a climate in which the needs of the community are always put first by the civil servants under its control. According to the Presidential Review Commission Report (1998:2 of 34 in Chapter 3), government politically opted for a more "strategic change management" approach to administrative reform, which had important implications for both the functions and structures of the public service in the new South Africa. At the functional level it involved the move towards a service that is:

Need based.

Mission driven and result oriented.

Strategic in focus.

Based on a facilitative rather than controlling state.

Committed to quality.

At the structural level it involved the move towards a more organic, integrative and adaptive model of corporate governance with an increasing emphasis on:

The decentralization and devolution of decision-making power.

The corresponding strengthening of managerial responsibility and accountability for results.

The democratization of internal work procedures.

The establishment of flatter organizational structures.

The introduction of improved forms of co-operation and co-ordination (vertical as well as horizontal).

The development of teamwork and a project-based approach to work.

The development of new forms of task – related rather than rule – based cultures.

The incorporation of civil society bodies into the governance process.

The Public Service Review (1999/2000, 1 of 3 in Chapter 1) states that one should not forget that the public service tends to be the most complex organizational system in any country. When any country undertakes to reform its public service, it is taking its biggest organizational transformation challenge. Because of the political nature of the process, a wide range of actors and interests needs to be consulted, which makes the complexity of a public reform exercise more immense. *The Public Service Review Report* (1999/2000: 1 of 3 in Chapter 1) states that given this complexity, the process tends to move more slowly than many people would like.

According to Fox *et al.* (1991:19), public organizations will always be influenced by national power structures and processes, such as political parties, pressure and interest groups, and political and executive authorities. These international and national power structures and processes are often analysed in terms of their nature, power positions, influence, legitimacy and stability. The results of such analysis have to be considered by local government managers when exercising their management functions. Local government managers also have the responsibility to familiarize themselves with the political system and to adjust to it. At the same time, however, they have the opportunity of influencing the political system in a manner that will benefit their organisations (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:81).

5.2.2 The Economic Environment

Organisations exist within some type of economic system, which exerts an influence on how they behave (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:81). The state of a country's economy is, therefore, another important factor, which influences the work environment of the public manager. Hodge and Anthony (1984:65 in Fox *et al.*, 1991:19) state that the economic system of a society is the way in which it creates and distributes wealth. According to Cronje (1993:57), the economic well being of a community is further measured by the range and number of products and services produced. The economy is further influenced by technology, politics, social and international environments and national economic factors such as the structure of the economy, patterns of economic growth, inflation, rates of exchange, balance of payment trends and savings and investment trends (Fox *et al.*, 1991:19). These cross-influences cause continuous changes in the economic growth rate, levels of employment, consumer income, rate of inflation and the general state of the economy, indicated by either prosperity or adversity (Cronje, 1993:57). For the public manager, the economy poses many challenges. According to the *White Paper on Higher Education* (1997:4 of 26 in Chapter 1), segregation and apartheid have shaped patterns of ownership, wealth distribution, employment practices and educational arrangements in the South African economy. A core economy has emerged with relatively sophisticated mining, manufacturing and service sectors, a developed technological infrastructure, a relatively skilled labour force and an advanced financial system. Certain features of this core economy affect the challenges to higher education. The performance of the economy has been relatively poor, with per capita income lagging behind the average for middle-income economies worldwide, accompanied by low investment rates. Income distribution in South Africa is among the most unequal in the world. Even when the core economy grew at its fastest, its record in job creation and income distribution was inadequate. South Africa has one of the world's highest unemployment rates. Within the formal employment sector there is an increasing shift towards those with skills developed through education and training, a trend conforming to industrializing and industrialized economies elsewhere. Pillay (2001:7) identifies six other key socio-economic challenges that relate to:

Macro-economic Policy.

The Labour Market.

Poverty and Inequality.

The Social Sector.

Globalisation and the South African Economy.

Fiscal Decentralisation.

5.3 Development Challenges facing South Africa

The development challenges facing South Africa require accountable and effective public managers who are able to lead and redesign organizations for strategic development tasks. Development challenges have thus increasingly become human resource challenges, and the debates around the major task of capacity building, are now focused in a national development programme.

For the development to be realised, the South African public service requires well-trained persons with a proactive, problem-solving orientation and attitude. People who are capable of analyzing, reflecting, deciding and, most importantly, acting appropriately.

According to Schutle and Schuella (1999) the current South African thinking in the public administration field is in that our theory and practice is undergoing a paradigm shift away from the logical-positivist world view which had until recently gone unchallenged, *towards* a more value oriented and contextual approach. During the past few years, public administration academics gathered under the umbrella of the *New Public Administration Initiative* have declared the traditional mode of teaching public administration in South Africa, which stressed out-dated generic administrative processes and utilized exclusively "chalk-and-talk" teaching methods, wholly redundant in the post-apartheid reality. This significant change in our operating paradigm is occurring within the broader context of a global shift towards a post-modern world where different thinking tracks criss-cross or run in parallel or diverges in complex patterns.

Transformations in our knowledge framework have profound effects on every aspect of our daily lives. The shift that we are currently undergoing has important implications for

our conception of teaching and learning. Those who have come through an educational system in which the “banking” or “teacher-tell” concept of education is employed, in which knowledge is “bestowed” from teacher to student, have little practice in bringing their own inner wisdom and subjective authority to bear in decision-making. Nor, for that matter, in trusting their own judgements, perceptions and interpretations of reality as they wait patiently for the “expert” to interpret reality and pass down proclamations.

The pace of change witnessed in the world in general, and South Africa in particular, implies that organizations, both public and private, will have to become what Senge calls “Learning Organisations”, constantly enhancing their capacity to create. In a post-modern world, more flexible structures and modes of inter-institutional co-operation will have to be adopted in order to cope with turbulent organizational and environmental conditions. As boundaries become less clear, vision and mission become all-important, thus giving dialogue a central role in the organization.

The United Nations Millennium Declaration was adopted in 2000. The Declaration embodies goals aimed at improving livelihoods. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) consist of a number of targets including the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger, achieving universal primary education and the development of a global partnership for development. The priorities outlined in the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) – the latest in the series of development frameworks for Africa – include good governance, economic growth, mobilization of resources, global partnerships, environmental protection, poverty reduction, and investment in human resources.

As stated above, many efforts have been made since the early 1980s to gear Africa towards a path of sustainable development and economic growth. However, annual economic growth for the decade of the 1990s averaged only 2.1 per cent, considerably less than the internationally agreed target of 7 per cent growth needed to reduce the number of Africans living below the poverty line by 2015. Although NEPAD and the MDGs are at the very beginning of their implementation, the attainment of these objectives becomes questionable unless drastic and concrete decisions are taken at national, sub regional, regional, and international levels to pave the way towards sustainable development and economic growth (DPMD, 2003).

5.4 The South African Public Service prior to 1994

The South African public service during the apartheid era (1949 – 1994) was structured around the needs of an apartheid state. Service delivery to the non-white South Africans was either non-existent or minimal (Naidoo, 2002:2).

The South African public service before 1994 was a very fragmented and repressive system of government. At the time of democratization (1994), the public service consisted of eleven separate and distinct systems, based on race, gender and ethnicity. Each of these public service systems was organized around its own priorities, which took on distinctive and idiosyncratic aspects. The doctrine of 'separate development' forced Africans and others to reside and have citizenship rights in distinct ethnic homelands (Butler, 2004:19). 'Separate development' was one of the key concepts of apartheid. It implied that every South African must be assigned to an ethnic group, nation or tribe, and that each of these must have its own site of self-government. This resulted in the establishment of ten Bantustans and moreover in 1970 homeland citizenship was forced upon Africans in the country and each of these homeland bureaucracies had its own public service.

Before 1994, the South African public service, exercised an ineffective leadership and governance framework that was essentially unaccountable, non-transparent and non-participatory (Report of the Presidential Review Commission on Reform, 1998:1). Furthermore, centralized control and top-down management practices were evident. Accountability within the South African public service was limited to bureaucratic accountability (A Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001:8). Public servants in the South African public service were held accountable for adherence to rules and procedures, rather than for service delivery outcomes. Wider accountability of service provision to the public was even less in evidence (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). According to a Report on the Transformation of the Public Service in South Africa (1998:2), there were a number of weaknesses in the South African public service prior to 1994, which hampered efficient service delivery. The most obvious weaknesses that were identified by the report were inefficient systems, processes and procedural issues. The absence of clearly defined roles and responsibilities was also a source of

tremendous confusion (Report of the Presidential Review Commission on Reform, 1998:1). There was also a lack of effective co-ordination and communication mechanisms (Naidoo, 2004:7).

The total number of public servants in South Africa was about one per thirty inhabitants, which is extremely high in relation to other countries with comparable economic development. Productivity was relatively low in the public service, particularly if judged in terms of the ability to deliver services that would meet the need of all people in South Africa (Bardill, 2000:104). This low productivity resulted, in part, from the lack of appropriate human resources development (HRD) for staff, especially those in the managerial cadre of the South African public service. It also resulted from the fact that a disproportionate number of staff was involved in essentially duplicative administrative functions, whereas serious understaffing frequently occurred at the level of essential service provision, in areas such as health, social services and education. Many of these constraints have served to inhibit the development of a professional work ethic and commitment amongst public servants. However, Bardill (2000:104) argues that some public servants in the South African public service showed impressive dedication and capability under the most unfavourable conditions.

The South African public service prior to 1994 had been structured according to the classical model of public administration (Peete, 2001:14).

It was characterized by a centralized control of management with the decisions made at national government level.

The structure and accountability of the public service during the apartheid years was therefore closely entwined and dependent on the capacity of the ruling National Party (NP) to implement policy measures through the creation of a state that was sufficiently large, powerful and centrally co-ordinated to manage and police race relations in the country (Posel, 2000). Seegers (1994) infuses this view through her analysis of disaggregated statistics on the growth of the public service as a whole between 1920 and 1980, and in particular, accelerated growth from about 1950. It should be noted from her analysis that central authority departments comprised the largest segment of the total, as compared with provincial authorities, a situation that has been reversed in

the democratic period. The rationale for this earlier configuration appears consistent then with the imperative under apartheid of reinforcing central co-ordination in order to maintain control over the government's separate development programme.

An analysis of the growth of the public service during apartheid also reveals the marginalisation of black public servants from senior decision-making roles, for example Cloete's (1995) reference to the central public service using the most recent data available to him at the time. Despite the Public Services Act of 1957 barring public servants from participating in party politics, the law was completely ignored in practice and that a tacit affirmative action policy represented a strategy of patronage by the NP, resulting in tremendous pressure being exerted on public servants to comply and conform with political objectives (Posel, 2000).

Evans (1997) provides an insider's view of the impact of apartheid within the public service by his discussion of the gradual expansion of the authority of the Department of Native Affairs. He observes that apartheid authoritarianism was not just about the general circumscription of liberties for blacks, but also favoured a particular concentration of authority within the state itself, and in particular towards state entities whose business was most tightly connected to the suppression and regulation of blacks.

Pines (1979) gives an account of the lack of success of many development initiatives managed by the apartheid public service in black homeland territories, arguing that the most prominent feature of community development was its 'system-maintaining' (1979:5) properties, which resulted in government officials, by initiating self-help schemes, being unlikely to promote social-political processes outside of, but parallel to, the established political structure. Jeppe and van Ballen (1995) further add that an economic growth approach to development under bureaucratic direction and control characterized the development policies in homeland territories, through a project method that was subjected, as Moerdijk points out, to the discretion of racial politics.

5.5 The South African Public Service after 1994

In accordance with section 197(1) of the Constitution of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996), within public administration there is a public service for the Republic of South

Africa, which must function in terms of national legislation. The South African public service must loyally execute the lawful policies of the current government. The South African public service comprises national departments and provincial administrations as defined in the Public Service Act of 1994 (Proclamation 103 of 1994). Within the confines of this Act a conglomerate of South African public institutions, is being grouped together as the South African public service. The current machinery of the South African public service comprises (Service Delivery Review, 2001:1).

- (i) National departments that set broad frameworks for government operations, for example, the Presidency, the National Treasury, the Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG) and the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA).
- (ii) National departments, which set frameworks for service delivery at the sectoral level, for example, the Departments of Health, Education, and Welfare.
- (iii) Provincial departments, which plan and oversee service delivery at the provincial sphere, and service delivery institutions that interface directly with the public, for example, hospitals, prisons, police stations, schools and front-line offices of the Department of Home Affairs.

In 1994, at the start of the post-apartheid era, the public service was confronted with the need to redress such unbalances and inequalities, through transformation and reform. It had to deal with the legacy of apartheid and colonialism and an absence of basic services, such as water, sanitation, health, education and housing (Second Economic and Social Rights Report 1998/1999, 200:1).

It inherited a system that was ineffective and inefficient in addressing the service delivery needs and demands of the South African Society (Ncholo, 2000:22).

The instruments necessary to effectively deliver services to all communities did not exist (Ramaite, 2002:1).

In 1995 approximately 8 million people did not have adequate sanitation facilities, only 50% of South Africans, had water born sewerage, and approximately 15 to 16 million people did not have piped water.

The biggest backlogs were in rural areas, where services were virtually non-existent in 1994 (Naidoo, 2004:10).

To achieve this goal it is necessary to replace the classical public administration model with an efficient, effective, economical and equitable model of public administration (Theron et al., 2000:3)

The classical model of Public Administration focuses on extensive control, but is not necessarily efficient in achieving service delivery outcomes. The model is slow and cumbersome. Moreover the public service is rigid, with standardized operating rules procedures.

The focus of this model is predominantly on following rules and regulations, rather than achieving service delivery outcomes (Naidoo, 2004:12).

The immediate task following democratic transition in 1994 was to dismantle the administrative framework for separate development and adapt the knowledge and systems housed within this framework to the new political geography defined by a single public service comprising central departments and nine provincial administrations. According to the Department of Public Service and Administration's (DPSA 1999) Report on service and skills audits, the public service as a whole contracted between 1994 and 1999 (150 000) positions or 13 per cent). Currently the public service employs just over a million people (PSC 2004).

The problem of management capacity in the post-1994 public service, which, although not a new phenomenon, is in danger of being worsened by a dearth of senior management in provincial administrations as compared to the comparatively smaller-staffed national departments (DPSA 2000). This is particularly problematic for provinces that have incorporated former homeland administrations in being able to provide general management co-ordination and oversight to an administrative agenda composed primarily of policy implementation (DPSA 1999). Furthermore, skills in strategic and change management would be considered vital for these provinces where, according to the DPSA (1999), provinces that inherited homeland administrations were characterized; amongst other things, as having low employment in high-level planning and administrative functions (finance, economic affairs and planning). Finally, Moerdijk's (1981) earlier point regarding Afrikaner senior management control over

homeland development corporations must also be factored into this discussion, as it relates to the character of development planning.

Something that has not changed since apartheid is that the public service remains an institution separate from the public, to whom it is responsible for providing a range of administrative and regulatory services. Regardless of how one characterizes the balance between procedural accountability and ethical values and standards, it cannot be assumed that new slate of legislation strategies and mechanisms will itself prompt a corresponding response from the public service.

Chandu (2004:Discussion) indicates that some of the principles of the new paradigm have since been adopted in the South African public service. Naidoo (2005:81) is of the opinion that these reforms focused on the transformation of the public service, for a greater emphasis on the service delivery outcomes and the involvement of different role-players in service delivery.

The present debate in the South African public service on improving service delivery, takes place in the environment of a changing public service.

Analysts argue that service delivery still requires much improved performance by the public service (Molopo, 2003:Discussion).

The focus of the South African public service is now on collaborative partnerships and alliances to improve service delivery and also improving civic governance, which is the regular citizen interaction and participation of communities in service delivery (Van Wyk et al., 2002:3).

5.6 Public Service Transformation in South Africa

The transformation of the public service in South Africa is an all-encompassing project corresponding to the complexities of wider political and socio-economic change. Despite these complexities, there appear to be interrelated yet discernible dimensions in the post-apartheid evolution of the public service. One dimension emphasis practical-administrative capacity for improving the processes of executing public policy. Another dimension emphasizes historical-political factors of culture change, which forces a consideration of the normative basis of transformation itself, and the influence of such

factors on evaluating the effectiveness of measures to enhance practical administrative capacity.

It often appears that, in urgently responding to severe socio-economic disparities and deprivation, calls to strengthen practical-administrative capacity risk sterility in underplaying historical-political factors associated with wider public service transformation.

Unless the South African public service transforms its service delivery backlogs, it cannot claim to have achieved the democratic goals outlined in section 195(1) of the South African Constitution (1996). An ethos and culture of service delivery first had to be created by the public service (Ncholo, 2000:22). There is a need for change and reform in the South African public service (Bardill, 2000:104).

Dynamism and flux have characterized the South African public service since the country's first democratic elections in 1994. The public service, officially comprising national departments and provincial administrations (excluding municipal government) under the Public Service Act (No. 103 of 1994), has undergone a major structural overhaul. The principal aim of this transition has emphasized integration, which, in the case of the public service, has involved the amalgamation of a scattered pre- 1994 system comprising 15 administrations serving 11 different governments, including four 'independent' states and six self-governing territories (Adler, 2000). Integration has also necessitated a more appropriately weighted representation of the country's population in the public service to redress a historically unequal distribution of decision-making power based on race preference. The role of the public service in policy development and implementation has also had to adapt to the demands of inclusiveness and transparency within the democratic process. Finally, the progressive shift to inclusive and socially geared legislation after 1994 also places greater demands on public servants to utilize discretion, flexibility, interpretation and adeptness in the implementation of corresponding public policy.

5.7 Public Service Delivery at present

Fox and Meyer (1996:118) define service delivery as "the provision of public activities, benefits or satisfactions". Service delivery relates both to the provision of tangible

public goods and of intangible services. According to Flynn (1997:163), the responsibility for service delivery denotes the delivery of collective or common services.

It can be argued that the basic principle of government in a true democracy is optimum service delivery, at minimal cost, in order to realize the ultimate goal of creating a good quality of life for every citizen. The business of every government is, or rather should be, to improve the lives of all its' people. It does so by providing services to the community (Naidoo, 2002:19).

In a democracy, citizens elect representatives to ensure that the services they need are provided. As part of the democratic process, governments are called upon to account for their mandate to govern, which, in practice, amounts to service delivery. Since 1994, the South African public service has been called upon by the South African society with greater intensity to provide and improve public services to South African communities (Naidoo, 2002:19).

If a government fails to meet the needs of its community, then the elected representatives and councilors should accept responsibility for such failure. According to Kickert (2002:89), members of the public can and should demand explanations from their elected representatives, if the demanded standard of service is not met. Meeting the service delivery needs of a community is thus an essential indicator of a truly democratic society. This does, however, require a sustainable public service.

At a National Conference held by the South African government on Public Service Delivery in 1997, it was indicated that the South African public service had to address two important issues (Du Toit and Waldt, 1999:22). Firstly, there was a need to provide services to all people in South Africa. Secondly, the need to improve service delivery imbalances and inequities among previously disadvantaged communities was highlighted as an urgent priority.

Improving public service delivery is essential for the future economic prosperity and social development of South Africa. The South African public service is pursuing different approaches to promote a sustainable public service to improve service delivery (Minister for the South African public service, Ms. Geraldine Fraser-Moleketi, Dialogue around Africanizing Public Administration: Issues for leadership and good governance,

October 2003). The public service has considered models of excellence and good practice in other institutions, communities and/or public service systems in other countries. In this respect, the trend is the transformation of a public bureaucracy to a model of public administration that is service driven. The focus is placed on performance and efficiency (Naidoo, 2002:5).

Lungu and Esua (1999:44) however state that the approaches adopted by developed countries would not be effective in a new developing democracy such as South Africa. They claim that it would be important for the South African public service to also consider local narratives and cultures. Nonetheless, the incorporation of both Eurocentric and Afrocentric models ought to be examined by the South African public service.

Van Wyk et al. (2002:193) argue that, a sustainable public service is conceptualized as the structural, functional and cultural ability of public service departments. This is necessary to implement the policy objectives of the government, that is, to deliver those public services intended to raise the quality of life of all citizens. A sustainable public service also refers to the availability of and access to concrete or tangible resources, for example, human, financial, material, technological and logistical. It also includes the intangible requirements of leadership, motivation, commitment, willingness, endurance, and other intangible attributes needed to transform rhetoric into action (Van Wyk et al., 2002:193). The political, administrative, economic, technological, cultural and social environments within which actions are taken should be conducive to successful policy implementation (Cloete, 2002:441). A sustainable public service depends on strong institutions, skilled personnel, accountability, transparency, responsiveness and enabling systems and processes, cost effectiveness and a competent and committed leadership cadre.

The early policy formulation phase, between 1994 and 1999, was characterized by the production and dissemination of policy papers, which formed the basis for legislations and regulations in the public service (Bardill, 2000:104). The aims and objectives of the South African government are manifested in these policies (Ramaite, 2002:1). Despite advances in policy design, the transition and implementation remains a challenge (Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001:20).

Many public service departments are unfocused, and that impacts negatively on service delivery. Leaders do not align subordinates to the vision of the institution. Moreover this vision is not communicated to subordinates, and they are not motivated to realize them (Ramaite, 2002:1).

Molopo (2003: Discussion), contends that the leadership and governance framework of the South African public service is not effective in promoting improvements in the quantity and quality of services, especially in previously disadvantaged communities. He argues that the pace of improving public service delivery is not fast enough and claims that large disparities are still evident in disadvantaged communities.

The message of service delivery in the post-apartheid period – the prevailing circumstances clearly require public servants to actively contribute to the public's material and psychological development, where needs are both wider in scope (as compared with neglected or differential services under apartheid) and depth (in many cases dealing with previously under-serviced areas). Although *service delivery* has become the most pressing issue on the public service agenda, the present cadre of public servants are in reality expected to do more than deliver services efficiently and effectively. They are expected to continuously examine and respond to circumstances that constrain the utilisation of and access to services. This goes beyond simply redressing material imbalances. In effect it involves a kind of psychological rehabilitation of the relationship between the public service and the public, progressively retarded by years of alienation climaxing in apartheid. The demands of this therefore require going beyond a minimalist provision of services where black takes preference over white.

There is no fundamental difference in the various ways the public service responds to its diverse mandate – be it at the dispensary level or at the facilitation level, the task is still based on service to the public. Although this is not the sole responsibility of less-developed countries, but most certainly more greatly felt in these, it ought to go beyond a minimalist technocratic understanding of the task to a kind of postmodern view of how formal bureaucratic institutions discourse with those whom they represent (Fox & Miller, 1995).

5.8 Public Service Accountability and Responsibility

Recent presidential 'State of the Nation' addresses (2002-04) have referred to the public service primarily in practical language, including references to improving skills levels, professional competency and efficiency for enhancing the quality of service delivery. In the most recent address in 2004, these improvements were linked to the public service having a 'clear understanding of the developmental tasks of a democratic state'. While this is clearly pertinent to post-apartheid public service accountability, it nonetheless requires constant scrutiny of the extent to which there is consistency with the expectations of democracy and development among political elites, public servants, and the citizenry.

Latib (1995) reminds us of the dynamics of public service accountability under apartheid, where he argues that performance was evaluated within tightly controlled hierarchical and secretive public policy decision-making between bureaucrats reporting to their political heads. The task therefore was highly prescriptive, regulatory, and geared towards what Latib (1995:11-13) calls 'procedural accountability', to the exclusion of 'ethical value and standards'. Since then, accountability (in form) under democracy has become more transparent and diversified, including extra-governmental processes comprising such provisions as a broad-based Bill of Rights, a constitutionally mandated group of government oversight institutions including the Public Protector, a reoriented Public Service Commission (PSC), the South African Human Rights Commission, legislation such as the Promotion of Access to Information Act (No. 2 of 2000), and specific provisions in the *White Paper on the transformation of service delivery* (1997) prescribing public consultation to determine service standards and the subsequent publication of these standards.

Although these gains in formal democratic procedures represent a broadening of the space for accountability, they do not in themselves guarantee a corresponding shift in the behaviour of the public service. The various accountability mechanisms outlined above are formal, procedural in their compliance, and represent expectations and responsibilities externally directed at the bureaucracy. Within this context, these are subject to certain limitations such as the willingness of public service entities to co-

operate, how these responsibilities are interpreted and formulated by entities to the satisfaction of external parties involved in the democratic process – Parliament, judiciary oversight institutions – and the extent of information shared and the quality thereof.

Something that has not changed since apartheid is that the public service remains an institution separate from the public, to whom it is responsible for providing a range of administrative and regulatory services. Regardless of how one characterizes the balance between procedural accountability and ethical values and standards, it cannot be assumed that new slate of legislation strategies and mechanisms will itself prompt a corresponding response from the public service.

The 2003 'State of the Nation' presidential address introduced the idea of deploying community development workers to improve the government's interaction with the public. However, what does this proposed deployment imply about the effectiveness of existing modes of interaction between the government and the public? The much anticipated *Towards a ten year review: Synthesis report on implementation of government programmes* (PCAS, 2003) observed that, although the government had put in place many inter-organisational forums to enhance the effectiveness of policy formulation and service delivery, greater involvement by the recipients of these services was needed. It specifically cited research showing that the poor in particular lacked 'formal organizational power' to engage and that where civil society organizations participated 'more fully', service-delivery gaps were better identified (PCAS, 2003:14). It would, however, be unfair to say that the poor simply lack 'formal organizational power', given the plethora of small-scale, informal community-based organizations in South Africa.

What seems more appropriate is to question the quality and effectiveness of government engagement with the poor, and indeed with all members of the public, through the public service. Moreover, it ought not be taken for granted that the existence of inter-organisational and indeed *inter-governmental* structures and forums represents sufficient indicators of accountability between the public service and the citizenry.

Although not afforded as much prominence in previous presidential 'State of the Nation' addresses, intergovernmental relations, it must be noted, are pivotal factor in the movement away from authoritarian and overly centralized decision-making processes. This is not, however, simply a matter of decentralizing administration closer to the public, but the extent to which the reconfiguration of the system promotes a two-way democratic conversation that moves away from the ineffectual development approaches of the past.

A key intergovernmental structural challenge confronting post-apartheid governments is that the public service does not officially incorporate local or municipal government as per the Public Service Act (No. 103 of 1994). This legislative technicality is constitutionally catered for by the expectation that national and provincial governments provide capacity support to local government. The government's ten year review report in fact remarked on capacity shortages in provincial and local governments, which have constrained delivery and forced the national sphere to consider intervening (PCAS, 2003).

The challenge of co-ordinating the various administrations representing the state are often remarked upon. This includes the PSC's submission to Parliament's Public Services and Administration Portfolio Committee on the release of its *State of the public service report 2002*. In this submission the PSC described the making and implementing of policy as being hampered by a lack of 'unison' between national and provincial governments and the public service, where the link between these agents was 'difficult to understand'. The PSC added that co-ordination and integration of service delivery efforts was also problematic (PMG, 2003). Inadequate co-ordination and integration are frequently cited as challenges by public servants, which is understandable given the complex organizational system Mokgoro referred to earlier. The problem can also be interpreted in at least two ways. The first relates to the PSC's statement to the Portfolio Committee that there is 'uneven alignment' of policymakers and implementers, which could be read as primarily a technical issue requiring logistical and organizational consistency in executing policy positions. Secondly, there are also situations where policy approaches may differ according to the fiscal and strategic

circumstances of provincial administrations. This may have less to do with the misalignment of policy and implementation and more to do with how priorities are planned.

Because the structure of intergovernmental administration is complex, the corresponding challenge of co-operative government could be said to largely follow suit. The solution then tends to be simpler than one can imagine, where this could entail simply improving communication and ultimately co-ordination. The deployment of community development workers needs to be reflected on within this context. Do they represent necessary supplementary resources reaching areas and depths not able to be penetrated by existing public servants, or is their deployment simply papering over the neglect in public servant outreach, depth of engagement and communication with the public?

This is an important question to ponder if we fall back on problems of co-ordination and alignment disrupting the reach and depth of administrative services, because we may be in danger of playing to a public perception not far removed from apartheid experience. Moerdijk (1981), for example, pointed to the administrative complexity of the structure governing homelands, including a mix of homeland, central government and agency entities, with specific powers flowing to each, all falling under the ultimate authority of the then Prime Minister and Cabinet of the Republic of South Africa. The post-1994 government system has continued with a decentralised unitary political structure with a great deal of authority residing in the President and Cabinet. This system has also suffered setbacks, including: imprecision about the sharing of powers and functions between the three spheres of government, which is being dealt with now occasions where severe provincial underperformance (Eastern Cape Provincial Administration) has resulted in direct central government intervention; and finally, instances of poor administrative engagement with the public that have even been compared by members of the public with apartheid-period treatment.

The point is not that decentralization and complexity are necessarily negative. Rather, it rests on the extent to which the decentralization and complexity of the post-apartheid government reaches and engages with people in a fundamentally different way than in the past. Clearly the allegiance of the post-1994 administrative dispensation is to a

non-racial democratic society. However, to what degree will neglect on the part of administrative entities to consistently reach and communicate with the public in a radically different way result in significantly increasing the public's confidence that a democratic government is not simply the same old complex structures, but only this time with blacks and women replacing whites (Mokgoro, 1996).

Some could then question the reconstitution of the public service, as described in the PSC's submission to Parliament, as a:

Network of delivery-oriented public service providers, each responsible for their own management according to national norms and standards, rather than the standardized rigid procedures that characterized the previous system. This has created a foundation for success, although major challenges remain in the areas of implementation, co-ordination and integration of services to end-users. (PMG, 2003)

It should be reiterated that post-apartheid public servants are in reality expected to do more than deliver services efficiently and effectively. They are expected to continuously examine and respond to circumstances that constrain the utilization of and access to services. This represents a fundamental break with the notion of accountability experienced in the past and could engender real credibility amongst the public about transformation. Finally, this issue is relevant to Adler's discussion of the sensitivity around debates about 'right-sizing' or rationalizing the public service whilst taking into account 'service delivery requirements' (Adler, 2000:19). The issue here is not that the negotiation between the government and public servant representatives simply agree to a quantifiably acceptable compromise (in terms of job retentions, retrenchments and redeployments), but is fundamentally about the extent and content of the normative discussion underpinning how service delivery requirements are defined, including what public service actors think the public requires versus what the public thinks, which will ultimately influence how service delivery is shaped and resourced.

5.9 South Africa an Emergent Market with Dual Economy

South Africa is an emerging market, with an abundant supply of natural resources, well-developed financial, legal, communications, energy, and transport sectors. It has a stock exchange that ranks among the ten largest in the world. South Africa also has one of the world's most progressive Constitutions (GOVZA: Imbizo: 2002) (Access <<http://www.gov.za/issues/imbizo/2002>). South Africa has had nine consecutive years of positive economic growth (World Factbook-South Africa, 2003:1). The gross domestic product (GDP) has grown by an estimated 3,1 percent, during 2002. In the first three quarters of 2002, household consumption expenditure increased by 3,2 percent on average and disposable income is at its lowest level since 1993 (State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa, Mr. Thabo Mbeki, House of Parliament, Cape Town, 14 February 2003). Over the last decade, real government expenditure on social services has grown by four percent per annum. The manufacturing sector has also grown by 5,4 percent in 2002.

There is, however, a structural fault in the South African economy and society and this is that South Africa has a dual economy (World Factbook-South Africa, 2003:1). One part of the economy is modern and relatively well developed, whereas the other is characterized by underdevelopment and an entrenched crisis of poverty. Moreover, there is a distinct relationship between underdevelopment, poverty and race in South Africa (GOVZA: Imbizo: 2002) (Access <<http://www.gov.za/issues/imbizo/2002>). The historical reason for this is that the previous National Party government (1949 to 1994) promoted mainly the interests of the White minority in all sectors of society in South Africa, to the detriment of the other race groups.

The South African population can be described as a fragmented portion of a whole (World Factbook-South Africa, 2003:1). Each race group has received uniquely different and racially based treatment from the previous National Party Government. For example, the new democratic government in South Africa (1994) inherited a divided and unequal system of education. Under the apartheid system of government, South Africa had nineteen different education departments separated by race, geography and ideology. Before 1994, each race group grew up in different social-political, educational

and cultural environments. This system of 'separate development' prepared people in different ways for the positions they were expected to occupy in social, economic and political life. The entire system reinforced inequality in all sectors of South African society. The advent of multi-party negotiations, in the early 1990s and subsequent democracy in April 1994 marked the end of three centuries of colonial conquest and White minority rule in South Africa (Naidoo, 2002:516).

5.10 The Political Influence on the Bureaucracy

The subject of political influence on the bureaucracy appear undecided nearly a decade after political liberation. Johnson, for example argues that the Mbeki administration 'restricts civil society organisations' to that of mobilization and implementing directives from above' (2002:9), the latter formulated by government and governing party experts. Oldfield makes a more measured and analytical, yet no less critical point, recognizing that 'the state is a product of political compromise, and a site and agent in post-apartheid struggles for resources and power, its relationships with organs of civil society are complex and uneven' (2000:35).

She further adds that state structures encompass multiple sites of power (and contestation) at various levels, and that the level of determination and co-ordination of priorities, as well as perspectives, of recipients impacts on the shape, pace and implementation of initiatives. Mokgoro illustrates this complexity by pointing out that we should 'consider the fact that each province has about 11 departments, which in turn means that there are about 90 approaches to management in government' (2000:2). Although these observations do not constitute satisfactory explanations concerning the extent of the accountability shift of the politico-bureaucratic complex, they do at least outline its size and complexity, which must be taken into account when evaluating technical performance.

Gildenhuys (1988:9) argues that "in the initial phase of the Administrative Sciences discipline, the tendency was to ascribe leadership leadership to the politicians". Leadership was rarely ascribed to administrative leadership (public servants).

Public servants were supposed to administer the state regulations and the conduct of public services in accordance with determined rules and procedures.

The mindshift that public servants had to exercise leadership to transform the public service and are more capable to execute the policy direction provided by the political leaders is clearly evident in the South African public service.

According to Gildenhuys (1988:9), "political and administrative leaders are mandated by the people to manage affairs of the public service, and the public service is essentially a vehicle for the delivery of public policy to society".

Mokgoro (200:3-5) provides insight into the complexity of interpreting public service 'capacity', describing as 'inadequate' a limited emphasis on training initiatives alone. He advocates for a greater focus on the process of public servants steering themselves through the complex of structures and relationships defining the public service, which both he and Oldfield have described earlier. Van der Waldt (2001) suggests an interesting administrative construct that attempts to address the shortfall in a narrower conception of capacity, through a 'management by projects' approach. The approach advocates for public servants having a wider departmental conscientiousness in the execution of their designated responsibilities. Given the scale and enormity of the public service mandate, it is necessary for public service entities to have clearly defined, demarcated, and specialized units. It is also necessary that these more confined responsibility designations do not limit the scope and ability of public servants to understand, respond and contribute to public policy issues that may not fall strictly within the ambit of their designated areas.

Van der Waldt appears then to be stressing management as a skill, and not that attached to specific task designations, implying (or one could say requiring) effective general management (Stacey, 1993 cited in Van der Waldt, 2001:301). This perspective is all the more persuasive considering the multiplicity of tasks expected of today's development-minder public servant, which include, among others, programme and project management, involvement in the design of new activities, negotiating the terms and use of resources with partners, and ensuring that activities that contribute to wider entity objectives and goals are planned and implemented.

Van der Waldt effectively raises our expectations of public servants as transcending their ability to implement a project, or two or three. Van der Waldt suggests teaming up specifically designated officials into project teams where officials collaborate on a specific cross-functional project or activity, thereby bringing together a wider mix and sharing of experiences and expertise to a particular problem. An advantage of this approach is that it forces public servants to think beyond the limitations of their designated areas of responsibility.

Structurally, Kotzé's concerns remains as relevant today as it has been in our repudiations of apartheid 'development' methodologies, insofar as the project framework for development interventions continues to dominate development discourse in South Africa. Although the development-co-operation regime has been legitimized post-1994, comprising public servants, donor agencies, consultants, researchers and non-governmental organizations, questions remain about the relative effectiveness of the project and empowerment (self-help) framework significantly reducing social and economic disparities. In particular, it is debatable to what extent this framework structurally limits and constraints development thinking to interventions that are not dealing more directly with the underlying causes of poverty and inequality (Kotzé 2004).

At one level Kotzé's critique relates to the appropriateness and orientation of social and economic policy, which defines the agenda of what is possible for even the most efficient of projects to respond to social and economic upliftment. At another level, that of project planning and implementation, her critique forces us to re-examine the ability of these interventions to operate according to a sharing of support and responsibility that dispenses with past approaches. Contemporary problems towards this end could include the beneficiaries of development projects trying to interpret public accountability to the public servant versus that to a service provider under project implementation strategies, the consistency of expectations between beneficiaries and members of the project regime with regards to the appropriate design of the intervention, and the subjectification of project beneficiaries as participant subjects (in participatory methods), where this might end up merely justifying project technique. Finally, there is concern with the character and depth of engagement with beneficiaries being pre-empted by

project managers and intermediaries objectifying development as an intervention rather than viewing the intervention itself as a means to understand development as a condition.

Turner (2002:493) is of the opinion that a new paradigm is impacting on the classical public management, with a shift from an administrative to a managerialist mode of operating, challenging classical public administration theory.

Kroukamp (2002:465) suggests that this trend indicates “the transformation from public bureaucracy to a model of public administration that is business like, but is not a business”.

Hughes (1998:3) contends that this transformation in the management of the public service has been since the mid-1980s, and Rhodes (2003:48) refers to a theory of the most recent paradigm change in the classical public administration model.

The classical public administration model, based on the wilsonian dichotomy, Taylorist scientific management and weberian hierarchical control, was not very effective in the public service (Naidoo, 2005:79).

5.11 *An Overview of the Provincial Government of the Western Cape (P.G.W.C)*

The information below was sourced from the Provincial Government Western Cape website www.pgwc.gov.za

5.11.1 Introduction

The Government in South Africa is divided into, three spheres: Local, Provincial and National. Each sphere’s responsibilities are outlined in the Constitution. National government makes laws and sets policies for the whole country. It also provides certain services (e.g. issuing of ID books).

The Provincial government can make and administer provincial laws in its areas of jurisdiction (e.g. liquor licenses, provincial planning, cultural matters, recreation, roads and traffic). It shares certain areas with national government, such as health, education and social services. Local government’s role includes local service delivery, promoting a safe and healthy environment, and promoting development. Governments have a

political and an administrative arm. The political arm creates the laws and policies. Citizens elect representatives to the national parliament, the provincial parliament and the local councils. The Administrative arm is the part of government that implements laws and provides services. It consist of all the Departments (e.g. Health, Agriculture). The Provincial Government of the Western Cape works in co-operation with the National Government to create laws for and provide services to the people of the Western Cape.

The PGWC consists of 12 Departments, namely:

Department of Agriculture

Department of Community Safety

Department of Cultural Affairs and Sport

Department of Economic Development and Tourism

Department of Environmental Affairs and Development Planning

Department of Health

Department of Local Government and Housing

Department of Social Development

Department of Transport and Public Works

Department of the Premier

Provincial Treasury

Western Cape Education Department.

These departments are responsible for implementing laws and providing services to the people of the Western Cape. The Western Cape is situated on the south western tip of the African continent. In total the Western Cape includes an area of 129 386 km²

There are approximately 4.2 million people, living in the province, the majority of whom are Afrikaans-speaking. The other official languages are English and Xhosa.

The Western Cape makes the third-highest contribution to the country's GDP. With over 170 000 people employed in the clothing and textile industry, this sector is the single most significant industrial source of employment in the Western Cape. The official unemployment figure for the province, 18, 4%, is substantially lower than that of most other parts of the country.

The National Constitution permits each provincial legislature to adopt a constitution for its province. The provincial constitution must correspond with the National Constitution. The status of our Constitution is found in the text itself. In section 2 of the National Constitution it is stated that the Constitution is the supreme law of the country and it thus binds all legislative, executive and judicial organs of the state at all levels of government. All other laws are thus subordinate to it.

On 4 February 1997 South Africa's New Constitution came into effect. This was the fruit of two years of negotiations in the Constitutional Assembly. For decades South Africa's constitutional system was based on the principle of parliamentary sovereignty, i.e, the Parliament was the highest authority and a court could not rule an act of Parliament unconstitutional. This was changed radically in 1997 when it was adopted the principle of a *rechtsstaat*. It means that the Constitution is the supreme law of the country and any other law or conduct that is inconsistent with it is unconstitutional and invalid. The current Provincial Constitution of the Western Cape is still quite new, but it is not the first Constitution in the history of the Cape. The Provincial Constitution came into effect on 16 January 1998, and is available in the official languages of the province, Afrikaans, English and Xhosa. The Western Cape Constitution was carefully drafted to fit within the parameters of the Constitutional space created by the National Constitution.

Organisation Structure

5.11.2.1 Political:

Executive Authority: Premier of the Western Cape

Provincial Cabinet: Provincial Cabinet

Provincial Ministry: Ministry of Agriculture

Provincial Ministry: Ministry of Community Safety

Provincial Ministry: Ministry of Cultural Affairs, Sport and Recreation

Provincial Ministry: Ministry of Education

Provincial Ministry: Ministry of Environment, Planning and Economic Development

Provincial Ministry: Ministry of Finance and Tourism

Provincial Ministry: Ministry of Health

Provincial Ministry: Ministry of Local Government and Housing

Provincial Ministry: Ministry of Social Development (Provincial)

Provincial Ministry: Ministry of Transport and Public Works

Provincial Parliament: Provincial Parliament of Western Cape

5.11.2.2 Administrative:

Department: Department of Agriculture

Department: Department of Community Safety

Department: Department of Cultural Affairs and Sport

Department: Department of Economic Development and Tourism

Department: Department of Environmental Affairs and D.v Planning

Department: Department of Health

Department: Department of Local Government and Housing

Department: Department of Local Government

Department: Department of Social Development

Department: Department of Transport and Public Works

Department: Department of the Premier

Department: Provincial Treasury

Department: Western Cape Education Department

5.12 Summary

The South African public service prior to 1994 had been structured according to the classical model of public administration (Peete, 2001:14).

It was characterized by a centralized control of management with the decisions made at national government level.

Chandu (2004:Discussion) indicates that some of the principles of the new paradigm have since been adopted in the South African public service. Naidoo (2005:81) is of the opinion that these reforms focused on the transformation of the public service, for a greater emphasis on the service delivery outcomes and the involvement of different role-players in service delivery.

The early policy formulation phase, between 1994 and 1999, was characterized by the production and dissemination of policy papers, which formed the basis for legislations

and regulations in the public service (Bardill, 2000:104). The aims and objectives of the South African government are manifested in these policies (Ramaite, 2002:1).

Despite advances in policy design, the transition and implementation remains a challenge (Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001:20).

Many public service departments are unfocused, and that impacts negatively on service delivery. Leaders do not align subordinates to the vision of the institution. Moreover this vision is not communicated to subordinates, and they are not motivated to realize them (Ramaite, 2002:1).

Molopo (2003: Discussion), contends that the leadership and governance framework of the South African public service is not effective in promoting improvements in the quantity and quality of services, especially in previously disadvantaged communities. He argues that the pace of improving public service delivery is not fast enough and claims that large disparities are still evident in disadvantaged communities.

The message of service delivery in the post-apartheid period – the prevailing circumstances clearly require public servants to actively contribute to the public's material and psychological development, where needs are both wider in scope (as compared with neglected or differential services under apartheid) and depth (in many cases dealing with previously under-serviced areas). Although *service delivery* has become the most pressing issue on the public service agenda, the present cadre of public servants are in reality expected to do more than deliver services efficiently and effectively. They are expected to continuously examine and respond to circumstances that constrain the utilization of and access to services. This goes beyond simply redressing material imbalances. In effect it involves a kind of psychological rehabilitation of the relationship between the public service and the public, progressively retarded by years of alienation climaxing in apartheid.

In the next chapter the student will address the discussion of Public Administration versus Public Management.

CHAPTER 6 *LITERATURE REVIEW*

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION VS MANAGEMENT

6.1 Introduction

A historic debate exists about the differences between public administration and public management. According to Meiring (1994:17), a universally acceptable viewpoint regarding the differences between public administration and public management is that administration must be undertaken to make the rendering of a service possible. Each of the administrative functions has an enabling characteristic and a utilization characteristic. When the function is undertaken to provide the means (for example money and personnel) for rendering a service, it implies enabling. When the function is undertaken to ensure the use or application of the means (money and personnel) for rendering a service, it implies management. The administrative functions thus include the management functions that are usually undertaken by the supervisors. In practice it can happen that the same official (usually an official in a managerial post) has to deal with both the enabling and the management part of administration.

Fox et al. (1991:2) states that, although public administration exerts a constant influence on people, it is difficult to define and describe, and provides the definition of public administration as, "that system of structures and processes, operating within a particular society as environment, with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate governmental policy and the efficient execution of the formulated policy."

This definition stresses the importance of the environmental context, politics and policy, policy execution and management. According to Fox et al. (1991:2), "public management is only a part of public administration and care should be taken not to reduce public administration to public management".

Andrews (1988:10), views the concepts management and administration as synonymous concepts. Notwithstanding Robbins' (1980:06) view of the two concepts being of equal status, he favours the use of the concept "administration" within the public sector context because generally the concept "management" is usually linked to profit-making institutions (Andrews, 1988:11).

Bayat (1991:4) holds that public management is only a part of the broader phenomenon of public administration and that care should be taken not to reduce public administration to public management. This view is upheld by Schwella (1991:2-3) when he refers to IASIA's argument (1978:17) in which the curricula for public administration are listed to include: "... *administrative processes with particular emphasis on managerial functions ...*" (Ferreira, 1993:16)

The theories of public administration need to be evaluated in terms of all the requirements that theory have to meet such as universality and validity. Cognisance must also be taken of the approaches that are followed in the construction of theories of public administration. This is necessary because theories constructed by the other social sciences have been adapted and modified by public administration theorists to find application with varying degrees of success in the study of Public Administration. Available fundamental theoretical bases for public administration in the literature will be used to arrive at a point of departure from where a theory for tendering as a component of the provisioning function can be developed. Subsequent to the establishment of the theoretical bases certain basic theoretical approaches to tendering as a component of the provisioning function will be explored.

Ferreira (1993:17) writes that it is pointless to attempt to pin down an exact definition of public administration because the many variables and complexities of public administration make almost every administrative situation a unique event, eluding any highly systematic categorization.

According to Coetzee (1988:134), different phases and paradigms in the development of the study field of Public Administration are suggested by different authors on the subject. Coetzee's opinion of the term "paradigm" refers to the status-orientated framework within which a subject is viewed for the purpose of conceptualizing its theoretical and practical substance pertaining to a particular continuance or time frame.

Fox & Meyer (1995:93), define the term paradigm as an overarching set of beliefs and unquestioned assumptions that are widely accepted by researchers and practitioners in a discipline. These assumptions are used to guide research and solve problems. However, Cloete (1995:95), is of the opinion that a paradigm is a description, pattern or mental picture to promote understanding of a matter.

6.2 Public Administration Stages of Development

The subject field of Public Administration can be viewed as having undergone various stages of development.

The following is a brief discussion of four phases signifying the development of Public Administration as an academic discipline according to Henry (1989:21-46).

6.2.1 Phase 1: The Politics/Administration Dichotomy, 1900-1926

Goodnow shows a separation between political processes and administrative processes in his book *"Politics and Administration: a study of government"*. The view was held that public administration did not concentrate on the policy-making processes that precede the executive function, but only on functions of executive governmental institutions.

Between 1914 and the late 1920's, formal training programmes in public administration were started at American universities. According to Ferreira (1993:19), policy-making was seen as the function of political scientists, rather than of administrators.

6.2.2 Phase 2: The Principles of Administration, 1927-1937

Willoughby, in his book entitled *"Principles of administration"* saw the legislature as a board of directors and the chief executive as a general manager. Gulick and Urwick formulated the anagram *POSDCORB*, meaning Planning, Organising, Staffing, Directing, Co-ordinating, Reporting and Budgeting. These steps were seen as the principles of administration as well as the functions of those engaged in administration (Ferreira, 1993:20).

It was in this paradigm that the subject matter of public administration was identified for the purpose of academic study.

6.2.3 Phase 3:

Public Administration as Political Science, 1950-1970

This third phase was largely an exercise in re-establishing the conceptual linkages between public administration and political science. In 1962 public administration was not included as a sub-field of political science in the report of the Committee on Political Science in the United States of America. In 1964, a survey of political scientists indicated a decline in faculty interest in public administration as an academic discipline.

In 1968, Waldo wrote that many political scientists had not identified with Public Administration. Between 1960 and 1970, only 4% of all the articles published in the five major political science journals dealt with public administration. Public Administration was threatened by absorption into other branches of administrative sciences, such as business administration (Ferreira, 1993:21).

6.2.4 Phase 4:

Public Administration as Management, 1956-1970

In Henry's description of the different paradigms of public administration, he explains that –

“public administration does appear to be emphasizing such areas as state and local government, executive management, administrative ethics and all those questions that seek to explain the ‘public interest’ phenomenon in a techno bureaucratic ‘Big Democracy’” (Henry, 1989:45)

Public administration is currently identified as a process that cannot be separated from politics. Until recently it was acceptable to view the public administrator as a politically neutral force in government activities. It was accepted that his/her function was merely to execute the policy determined by the political ruler. Nowadays it is accepted that the public administrator plays an active role in policy-making.

Traditionally, the term politics was associated with the activities of political parties. Politics was viewed as the process through which power and influence could be obtained and exercised. However, politics also includes decisions concerning the goals

to be achieved, the utilization of resources and the means of bringing about equilibrium in the various spheres of social life (Hanekom, 1988:16).

Particular administrative processes of functions and auxiliary activities have been described by various writers on the subject (Hanekom, 1988:73). However, according to Hanekom (1988:73):

“... an internationally acceptable theoretical framework to serve as a model for analytical purposes has yet to be formulated.”

Fox *et al.* (1991:2) defines public administration as –

“that system of structures and processes, operating within a particular society as environment, with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate governmental policy, and the efficient execution of the formulated policy.”

Thornhill and Hanekom (1983:110), are of the opinion that the generic administrative processes, identified by Cloete, namely policy-making, organizing, financing, personnel provision and their maintenance, determining of work methods and procedures and lastly, the exercising of control, is an example of an effort to develop a theory of public administration. This framework allows for a clear understanding and explanation of phenomena but falls short of being able to predict. It does not meet all the requirements of a theory for public administration. Marais (1984:28) is of the belief that it would be a mistake to limit oneself to the six generic processes when trying to formulate a theory of public administration. Environments, ethics, values and politics also need to be taken into account in the development of a theory of public administration. Ferreira (1993:27), states that instead of a universally valid theory of administration, there is a growing variety of part theories. Theories of business administration, public administration, hospital administration and numerous other types of administrations.

6.3 Public Administration as a Science?

According to Baker (1972:17), the study of public administration cannot claim the title of a “science”. Science, properly so-called, must always include the formulation of

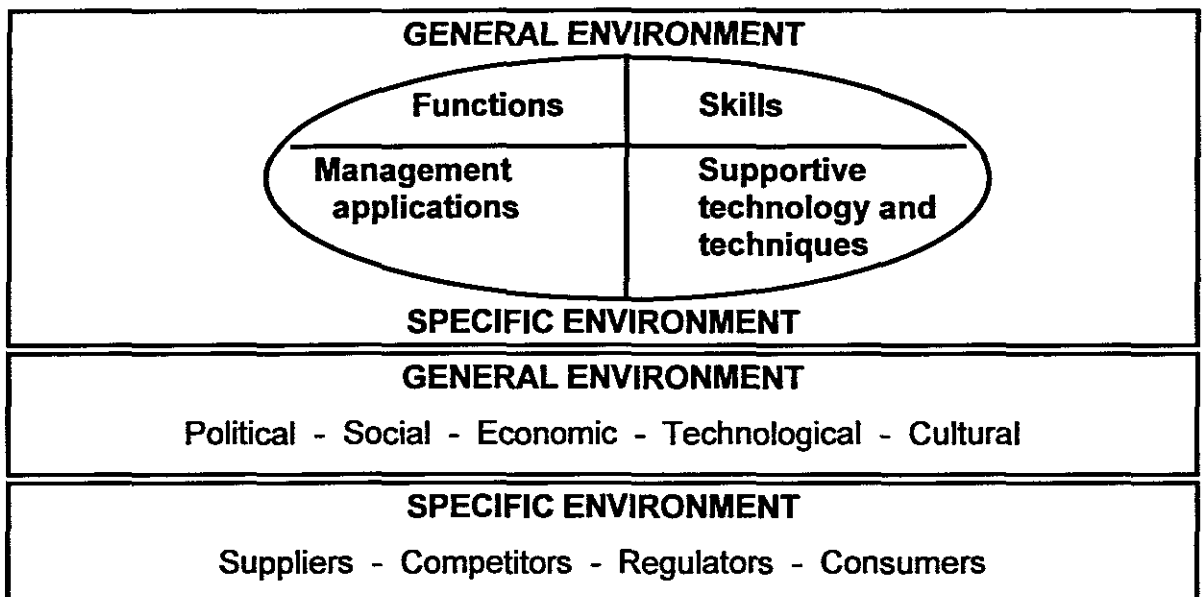
systematic hypotheses. It should also link the hypotheses with controlled experiments that can be independently replicated and tested (Baker, 1972:17).

Bhambhri (1975:21), is of the opinion that the scientific study of the “facts” of administration is possible and, therefore, to this extent Public Administration is a science. No science of public administration is possible unless -

- i. the place of normative values is made clear;
- ii. man’s role in the field of public administration is better understood (Marais, 1984:26), and
- iii. there is a body of comparative studies from which it may be possible to discover principles and generalities that transcend national boundaries and peculiar historical experience (Bhambhri, 1975:20)..

Public administration is recognized as a distinctive field of work because of the requirement that those who practice public administration, that is, the political office-bearers and public officials have to respect specific guidelines that govern their conduct in the execution of their work (Cloete, 1981:8). When the different points of view about the nature and extent of public management is considered, it becomes necessary to attempt to identify an analytic model for public management. Two models for public management will be considered, those of Fox *et al* (1991:3-6) and a model adapted from Hodge & Anthony (1991:48). (See figures 1 and 2.)

Figure 1



FUNCTIONS	SKILLS	APPLICATIONS
Policy-making Planning Organising Leading Control & evaluation	Decision-making Communication Management of change Management of conflict Negotiation	Policy analysis Strategic management Organisation development SUPPORTIVE TECHNOLOGY AND TECHNIQUES

The public management model of Fox *et al* (1991:8)

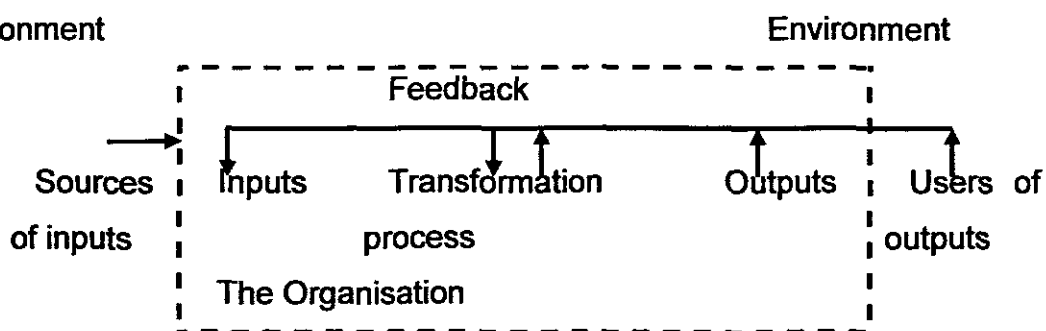
The model of Fox *et al* (1991:3), takes as its point of departure a perceived general environment. This general environment consists of various sub-environments, namely political, social, economic, technological, and cultural. These sub-environments are only examples of possible environments. Those mentioned are taken as being representative of most facets of contemporary human societal existence and its need-generating elements.

Fox *et al* (1991:3-4) shows a specific environment, within the general environment, that consists of suppliers, competitors, regulators and consumers. The interaction between the components of the general environment and the factors of the specific environment are then regulated by certain functions, skills and applications.

Fox *et al* (1991:5), also identifies five enabling functions or processes, namely policy-making, planning, organizing, leadership and motivation, and control and evaluation.

Another model within the above context is the Hodge & Anthony (1991:47-48) Open System Input-Output model illustrated below, in figure 2.

Figure 2



An open system is a system that interacts with its environment, usually a larger system. All biological and social systems are open systems. The environment not only affects but also is affected by the system. Since an open system interacts with its

environment, it is often useful to visualize this system as being affected by (taking or receiving from) and affecting (contributing or giving to) its environment or other systems and subsystems. Using input-output analysis, it endeavours to explain a system's relationship with its environment as well as to examine its internal procedure (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:47).

Input-output analysis involves examining, *inter alia*, a flow of materials, ideas, concepts, finance, people from the beginning to end through a system. It has six facets, namely:

Determination of inputs.

Determination of sources of inputs.

Determination of the transformation process.

Determination of outputs.

Determination of users of outputs.

Determination of the feedback process (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:47).

A commonly used input-output diagramme appears above in Figure 2.2. Reading this figure from left to right, one begins with *sources* of inputs. These sources exist in the environment. They may be outputs of other systems or outputs of a subsystem of the same system. The several arrows indicate that the sources for inputs are often multiple and varied (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:47).

The *inputs* are the major and minor resources coming into the system. They are the essential building blocks of the system, what the system must have to operate. The *transformation* process of a system is the process that works on the inputs. It changes the inputs, usually by adding value to them. It does this to produce *outputs*, or the end results of the system. These outputs are then used by the environment or by other systems or subsystems (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:48).

The operation of the transformation process, as well as its results (outputs), provides *feedback* for the system so that changes may be made in inputs and/or the transformation process in order to change outputs. Feedback can also be generated from the users of the outputs (such as customers) and other external sources, or it can be generated by an external source. An example in the private sector of an internal

source of feedback is a quality-control operation that inspects finished goods before they are shipped to customers. Feedback is provided to the system and it may change the inputs and/or transformation process of the system (Hodge & Anthony, 1991:48).

6.4 Approaches to Public Administration

The rapid expansion of administrative theory in recent decades precludes the possibility that justice can be done to all theories and theorists. There are now so many that it is almost impossible to reach agreement on how they should be classified since they no longer fit into a neat tabulation. The only common element they share is that they concentrate on how people at the pinnacle of social organizations, get things done (Caiden, 1982:212).

Against the above background, the evolution of Public Administration can be viewed from the following approaches: the *generic* approach, *eclectic* approach and the *systems* approach.

6.4.1 The Generic Approach

According to Cloete (1976:2-4), administration and by implication Public Administration, consists of a wide-ranging set of activities or processes that can be grouped according to their respective functions. Six main generic groupings of activities/processes will be obtained on the basis of the functions policy-making, organizing, financing, staffing, determining of effective and efficient work methods and procedures and determining of effective and efficient control measures (Ferreira, 1995:90). Administration is, therefore, a collection of activities/ processes and each of the six main groups mentioned above have to be carried out in full to achieve any objective (regardless of whether it is a tangible product or a social state) through action. This implies that administration is not merely a concept or an idea, but a social phenomenon consisting of mental effort and other activities. It is this state of affairs that makes administration an enabling activity that functions within a group context (Ferreira, 1995:90).

In practice the intention is that a taxonomy (systematizing) of the activities is usually addressed. Taxonomy is regarded as the first step in the scientific study of a subject. The joint action referred to above means that the generic administrative activities/processes will always precede and/or accompany the functional and auxiliary activities that are concerned with producing goods or rendering services (Ferreira, 1995:91).

According to Cloete (1986:2-3), the three categories of activities can be illustrated as follows, in table 4.

Table 4

Administrative activities and processes	Functional activities	Auxiliary services
Policy-making Financing Organising Determination and improvement of work processes. Staffing Control	For example: Nursing patients Educating scholars Providing tele-communication services. Building dams	Research Decision-making Data processing Collecting and analyzing statistics. Undertaking public opinion surveys

The six main groups mentioned under "administrative activities and processes" cannot be separated in practice.

The various activities/processes in question are usually considered and undertaken simultaneously. For example, when an objective is being set and "policy is being made", cognizance will have to taken of what can theoretically, as well as in practice, be expected of the other processes of administration, namely, organizing, staffing, financing, determining of work methods and procedures and exercising of control, to ensure that the goal is achieved. Thereafter, when the organizational arrangements are being considered, it will be necessary to attend to the availability of funds and the staff required to implement the action programme. Each of the aforementioned main groups of generic processes in the cycle of administration constitutes a complex field of activity

that becomes even more complex as the extent and size of the operation expand (Ferreira, 1995:91-92).

6.4.2 The Eclectic Approach

According to Henderson (1983:67-68), eclectic professionalism embodies a concern with and a rethink of the following:

Moral values such as justice and equity.

Institutions and values because of the occasional repressive character of existing practices.

Minority rights and representation in government.

The role of administrators as change agents.

The societal changes effected by the movement towards a post-industrial society where growing student numbers, the importance of health, research, recreation, government and welfare services as well as a shift in employment practices necessitate a "new" approach towards the role played by public administration, that is, an activating role.

6.4.3 The Systems Approach

General systems theories followed the search for a general theory of politics based on a conceptual scheme of the political system. Several models were formulated of which the most influential being Easton's energy system model (Caiden, 1982:235). Inputs in the form of demands and support were transformed by the political system (the making and execution of authoritative decisions for a society) into decisions and policies. Comparative analysis would concentrate on how demands arose and were transformed into issues and outputs, and on how systems maintain a steady flow of inputs.

A number of theorists transposed these general systems models by replacing the word "politics" with "administration" and modified them with administrative systems in mind. They broke away from traditional descriptions of formal institutions to direct attention to the administrative system in context, the administrative transformation of resources (inputs) into societal products (outputs), the structure and functions of the

administrative system, administrative behaviour, administrative stratification and administrative recruitment. They escaped from the bureaucratic paradigm and were especially helpful in reorienting the Western mind to nonbureaucratic administrative systems (Caiden, 1982:236).

Erasmus in Bayat & Meyer (1994:83-101) exposes the deficiencies of viewing the systems approach as an absolute dogma. In this context, Erasmus is of the opinion that the systems approach only has real value when viewed in a less reductionist and ideologically predetermined manner.

According to the general systems theory, the typifying characteristic of the relationship between elements of systems is their propensity to maintain or restore a condition of equilibrium among all the elements. This characteristic may contribute to a distorted view of the world (Erasmus in Bayat & Meyer, 1994:88).

Erasmus accedes, however, that simply because of the existence of assertions that the systems theory is fallacious should not result in the whole systems approach being rejected. There can be little doubt that systems do exist, and that their elements are integrally related (Bayat & Meyer, 1994:91-92). Also, those systems models can contribute to understanding of societal situations.

6.5 The behaviour of the Public Administrative Organisation

The observation of public administration organizations in action has shown that the behavior of their members – and therefore of the organization as a whole – is not solely guided by either the formal rules developed by the organization or the resources available to the organization. Neither is the political effect of many public administration organizations dependent solely on the results of their formalized decision-making processes and on the direct intention with their clientele. Rather – as the theory would harvest – they are grounded in the institutional shape of an organization (Beyer *et al.*, 1994) and thereby in its institutional performance capability.

6.5.1 Intra-organisational factors

Every member who is active at the different levels of an organization possesses subjective knowledge. The relationship between them – as determined by organizational and production factors – determines the intra-organisational information relationship and with it the information, desires, and interests actually present within the organization. Because an organization is generally set up to complete several (partial) missions, and is made up of employees dedicated to different production processes, overlapping communication relationships with differing contextual arrangements develop.

The formation and effects of institutional arrangements are mission-dependent. Where the missions to be performed tend towards risks and where the qualification or individual capacity are low, the members of an organization will tend to become more strongly institutionally oriented – filtered and concentrated on securing behavior in their individual areas of activity – thus stabilizing the organization as an institution.

Additional factors relevant to the organization structure and the administrative production also come into play to help form the institutional shape (Famulla *et al.*, 1992). The qualifications of the members within an organization also help determine their ability to communicate and the contents of communication. Thus, the breadth of available qualifications influences the contextual elements of the institutional shape (Brunsson, 1989).

The structure of the hierarchy is also important. Hierarchical structure has a dual meaning with respect to the formation of institutional arrangements: they act to amplify and filter basic activities.

Individual predispositions are very important to the formation of an institutional shape (Famulla *et al.*, 1992). Because of the influence the actual structure of the working environment has on the direction and span of employee attention, the level of knowledge, and communication, it is also a vital factor, to the extent that it incorporates the division of labor, the available resources, the disposition of the workplaces, and the flexibility of working time when missions are being carried out. The level of equipment at each workplace is determined by the financial resources of an organization.

Financial resources are also a decisive factor for an organisation's expenditures for working aids such as technical equipment, the availability of publications (either within a narrow technical range or general), and the possibilities of their employment.

This, in turn, results in determinations about the information and knowledge available within an organization, as well as how these are distributed. The manner in which resources are utilized is in itself subject to the institutional shape of the organization. This manifests itself in the organizational views of "what is normal", "what is proper", "how do we deal with this". The actual physical form of the buildings influences not only possible communication relationships, but also, because of its aesthetic effects, the consciousness of the members of the organization. Because of their multiplicity and varying degrees of strength, complexity, and virulence, it is very difficult to determine the individual contributions of these factors on the formation of behavior patterns and institutional shape.

It must, however, be emphasized, that formal organizational structures contribute to the formation of an institutional shape, while at the same time, the relevance of this contribution is institutionally linked. The information and communication relationships defined by the mission definition, the correspondents, and the utilization of resources is not the only factors influencing the transformation of an organization into an institution. In addition, the members of the organization also contribute their day-to-day experiences to the process of institutionalization, with all the knowledge and language skills this implies.

6.5.2 Organisational environment factors

Determining the environmental factors that are relevant to the formation of an institutional shape is even more difficult than identifying the intra-organisational factors. While an organization is in regular contact with an environment specifically determining its mission/purpose and its structure and acting as its direct field of interaction, this delineation dissolves with respect to the factors that are relevant for the development of an institutional shape. Administrative organizations not only include diverse expectations on the part of their clientele and correspondents, but an extended

environment also influences its possible performance and potential satisfaction function. The latter are selectively taken up by the members of the organization based on their mission allocation, level of responsibility, competence, and individual dispositions.

The information processes between the organization (and its members) and certain areas of expertise are also important. Thus, the increased interaction between administrative organizations and external consultants, experts, etc., is of note for the formation of institutional shapes. On the one hand, this process reveals new problem horizons to the members of the organization and integrates various fields of expertise while, on the other hand, reducing insecurities with respect to taking actions and making decisions. It is interesting that seeking the advice of external consultants can, in itself, be a result of the institutional shape, because the very complexity and generalized nature of the institution's orientation do not provide adequate levels of confidence for making decisions about specific, specialized problems. This presupposes a certain brittleness of the institutional shape where it is unable to supply a sufficient behavioral security in a situation where intra-organisational demands conflict with demands necessitated by the environment.

A dialect between internal and environmental factors in the formation of institutional shapes can be observed in the example of the performance of an organization. The quality of the performance not only determines environmental horizons, but expectation and classification effects of the environment are simultaneously 'mobilized', which in turn, again help determine the institutional shape (Brunsson, 1989).

The institutional shape of an organization cannot be determined from the sum of the constituent intra-organisational and environmental factors. Rather, it is dependent on the "might" of individual factors and their ranking in and for the organization and its surroundings. It is bound by the individual dispositions, on the information level, and on the structure of the communication relationships within the organization, and is shaped by socio-psychological processing mechanisms of the members of the organization and the environment (Stitchcomb, 1990:285).

This synthesis is characterized by a functional rationality, whereby an equilibrium is established between the missions of the organization, the interests of its various

members, the interests and expectations of its clientele, and the expectations of the larger, political surroundings, thus securing – but also binding – the ability of the organization to act.

6.6 Characteristics of Public Service Delivery

Lips, & Frissen (1997:325), argues that before looking at the organization of public service delivery or even its redesign, it is important to know what actually makes a service a “public” service and how “public service delivery” can be defined.

The reason for this is that the characteristics of public services and public service provision will have direct implications for the way public service delivery is organized.

Lips, A.M.B. & Frissen, P.H.A (1997:326-329) states that public service delivery is undertaken by public organisations that take care of policy development and implementation in a direct confrontation with their environment. In a broad sense, the public service delivery can be perceived as the relationship between the administration and its environment, in which the administrative organisation supplies public products, services, and information. He distinguishes these different levels in the “service environment” of administrative organizations:

- A macro level: the relationship between the administrative organization and houses of representatives (parliament, regional and local councils).
- A meso level: the relationship between the administrative organization and organized groups of the general public (political parties, interest groups, businesses).
- A micro level: the relationship between the administrative organization and the citizen(s).

The specific, “public” character of products and services can be derived from different aspects or characteristics. A first characteristic of public service delivery to citizens is the frequently existing monopolistic situation of the administrative organization that provides the public service. In many cases of public service provision, a citizen does not have a choice between different administrative organizations, but has to address his or her demands and needs to the responsible administrative organization located in that local or area. A second characteristic is the fact that public services will not increase

personal benefits or rights as in the private sector, but also consists of activities that address the duties of citizens. The nation state's general responsibility for the collective good leads to a situation in which citizens are not always voluntary "customers" of government, but in return, unlike customers of private sector products, citizens have a right to a say in the determination of public service delivery. For this purpose, they have different opportunities for participation in the policy process, such as voting, referenda, and public hearings. This can be perceived as a third characteristic of public service delivery. A fourth characteristic has to do with government's responsibility for the collective good. As a result, public services are subject to specific norms and values.

This characteristic of compliance with principles like legitimacy, legal security, and equality of rights, concerns the quality the administration has to offer in its services towards all citizens involved. As a result, an economic target of gaining profits is not the primary goal of administrative organizations in providing services as it is in the private sector, which points to a fifth characteristic of public service delivery. More important goals for administrative organisations are then, for instance, continuity in the delivery of services to citizens and accessibility of public services to all citizens.

These characteristics of public services and public service provision determine to a large extent the way government organizes the service relationship with its citizens.

However, the choice of a specific design of public service delivery will depend upon a government's value-orientation concerning its relationship with the environment, i.e. how government can deal with these characteristics of public service delivery in the shaping of its provision. Through time we may acknowledge different value-orientations of governments in their approach to citizens, and with that, in the information and communication relationships between government and citizens. For instance, although the previously mentioned characteristics of public services and public service provision have been stable over time, in many countries the concept of 'public service delivery' itself has only been invented in the last thirty years. Before that time, governments did not really perceive their citizens as clients. Generally through time, we can indicate shifts in value-orientations of governments in accordance with successive links of the public service chain. From this perspective, the deliverance of public services to citizens can be described as a chain connecting:

- 1) The determination of public products, services, and information to be provided to citizens.
- 2) The production and delivery of public products, services, and information.
- 3) The feedback of citizens on both wanted and received public products, services, and information Gaster (1996:41).

6.7 Organising Public Service Delivery

In public administration's history, the organization of public service delivery has not been a permanent or stable one. Although characteristics related to public service delivery did not change, differences in value orientations led to variations in the way public products, services, and information were offered to the citizen. For a long time for instance, governments did not pay much attention to the service relationship with the citizen.

The political process of determining the 'business of government' was perceived as the most important part of the service delivery process in the public sector. The basic idea was that the environment of government could be "helped" or steered most effectively through solid political decisions and detailed policy plans. The quality of the policy design was perceived as the guarantee for realizing intended policy effects in society. Besides, since political leaders were chosen by the people and their administrators hired on basis of expertise and neutrality, government was in the right position to deal with the organization of society. With this paternalistic attitude, government organizations know what was good for their citizens, and therefore also which way and form of service provision was most appropriate to address them. Public service delivery, in other words, was similar to policy implementation without paying much attention to the social context in which public products were provided. As a result, citizens did not have much contact with public administrators and were perceived by policy makers as passive target groups.

This dominant focus on the supplier-side of public service delivery led to an organization of the administration based on governments' demands and needs, i.e. a bureaucratic organization structured around specific public functions and tasks derived from the policy design. A shift in focus towards the second link of the public service

chain, the production and delivery of public goods, services, and information, can be marked with the acknowledgement of the value of the policy implementation process for policy effectiveness (see for instance Pressman and Wildavsky, 1974).

In the meantime, as a result of an increased attention to the spending of administrative organizations, standards like efficiency and effectiveness increasingly played a role in the analysis of administrative performance. Also, concepts and methods with proved success in the private sector, like 'management', 'budgeting', 'marketing', but also 'service delivery' itself, were introduced in the public sector. As a result of these developments, the functioning of the administrative organization in the process of service provision to its citizens came into the spotlight of public administrators.

During this period of time, administrative organizations started to pay more attention to the relationship with their now called 'clients'. Due to various studies of this relationship pointing to the difficulty citizens had in dealing with administrative organizations, public administrators become convinced of the need for the 'bureaucratic socialization' of citizens. Put differently, the idea was that citizens needed a 'bureaucratic competence', consisting of the following aspects (Daemen & Thomassen, 1989:235):

- Citizens know what their rights and duties are.
- Citizens know how they have to realize these rights and duties.
- Citizens master the needed pattern of behavior, for instance to put their own data in writing and to handle documents.

In the opinion of government, the fragmented understanding of citizens of the existing laws and rules and the low ability of many citizens to fill in forms (Lucassen & Priemus, 1977), could not only have far reaching consequences for the effectiveness of public policy, but particularly also for the equality of rights of citizens. Therefore, government decided to start to use government information campaigns to increase citizens' knowledge of how to approach and deal with administrative organizations. In addition, administrative organizations and their employees had to counsel citizens more about their rights and duties and to reach them the bureaucratic skills they needed.

The third link of the service chain has currently come into view with an increased awareness of governments that, to improve the service relationship with their citizens it

is not so much the citizen who has to be bureaucratically socialized, but the administration itself has to go through a reorganization. This idea has been intensified in various countries through a generally decreased confidence in government manifested for instance in low participation rates of citizens in various elections. In the eighties and nineties in these countries, strong reform movements like 'reinventing government' and 'new public management' emerged, aiming at the creation of an 'entrepreneurial' government (Osborne & Gaebler, 1992). According to these reform ideas, government should look for ways to shift from an internal, bureaucratic focus on procedures, to an outward, market-orientation on products. Therefore, government would have to give up its hierarchical attitude towards society, and become more responsive to societal developments. Besides, from a customer's perspective, criteria like efficiency and effectiveness of government activities would gain in importance. With that, public service delivery and customer-orientation have come to the heart of governments' attention.

Influenced by this broad reform movement, many governments are looking for opportunities to change the organization of public service provision. The monopoly position of government is currently perceived to put high demands on the accuracy and quality of public service delivery, as citizens are acknowledged to be fully dependent on these services. Additionally, governments' knowledge about the opinion or feedback of citizens on government performance has grown in importance, as adjustments in their organizations can be made accordingly. From a traditional 'we know what is good for you' attitude, governments are currently shifting towards a responsive posture of 'let us know what is good for you'.

In their search for ways to reform their organization, many governments currently perceive ICT as an important means to realize desired changes. This awareness has been raised through the current speed of technological developments. New ICTs seem to offer opportunities to bring about changes in society, which are perceived to be both inevitable and fundamental. In many policy documents and advisory reports for instance, we come across the metaphor of an 'Information Society' as the future development stage of society resulting from the broad application of new ICTs. As a result, a lot of national governments have started with 'National Information

Infrastructure' (N.I.I.) initiatives (see Kahin & Wilson, 1997) to try to facilitate the interplay between fast moving technological and societal developments.

Particularly in the area of public service delivery governments have major expectations about the reengineering ability of new technologies. The various challenges and opportunities that ICT could offer to public service delivery were for instance listed in an OECD paper (1992:10) as follows:

- The provision of information and service at the local level (e.g. through distributed processing, national data communication networks) or through national videotext systems (e.g. the increasing volumes of public administration information on the French Minitel system).
- The provision of an integrated service on the "whole person" concept rather than on administrative function (e.g. all tax matter dealt with by a single office rather than different aspects dealt with in different offices)

6.8 New Forms of Steering Public Service

Bekkers, V.J.J.M. (1992:341) argues that public administration has traditionally paid much attention to the limits of government. However, the idea that societal developments could be influenced from one central point has been seen the subject of much criticism. Society consists of a multitude of organizations, groups and institutions that are capable of influencing the development and implementation of policies in order to protect their interests and positions. The same is true of public administration. Government as a whole does not exist. Government can also be seen as a multitude of organizations and groups with different tasks, goals and interests.

During the last twenty years new forms of steering have been developed, which recognize the limits of government intervention. Characteristic for these new forms of steering is the proclaimed retreat of government. Steering gets the character of meta steering. Steering tries to influence and mobilize the existing capacities for the self-regulation of organizations, institutions and groups. Steering on the throughput of organizations has been exchanged for steering on the in- and output of organizations

(e.g. budget, planning and control cycles) and on the interdependencies between organizations (e.g. the establishment of network organizations).

Information plays an important role in steering. Government needs information to analyze and to value a societal problem, such as whether to intervene in the problems of air pollution or the rising crime-rates in suburban regions. Moreover, information is needed to evaluate and monitor the results of these interventions. How effective is the policy program which aims to reduce crime? Should government intensify its interventions or should government retreat and support for instance neighborhood organizations, to develop their own crime prevention strategies?

6.8.1 An analytical model of steering

A comparison of traditional and new forms of steering is only possible, if an analytical framework is available. Steering can be defined as a meaningful way of exercising influence in a specific context (In 't Veld, 1989). However, when we talk about steering, we often refer to steering conceptions, which can be seen as a set of assumptions about steering. In particular, the following assumptions can be distinguished (Bekkers, 1993):

1. Assumptions about the political and ideological legitimation of steering. Steering is not neutral, but has to be legitimated. Political doctrines, values and norms legitimize the ways and the extent of government interventions.
2. Assumptions about the steering capacities of the steering factor, especially assumptions about the desired structure and culture of the organization that intervenes.
3. Assumptions about the object and context of steering. Does the steering concept pay attention to the structure, culture and the resulting contingencies of the policy field or context in which government intervenes, e.g. the degree of fragmentation, professionalisation and centralization?
4. Assumptions about the role of knowledge, information and informatisation. Steering is based on an insight in the nature and course of the developments and processes

which one tries to influence. Knowledge, information and ICTs can – contribute to this insight.

5. Assumptions about the steering modality and instruments of steering. A steering conception can be translated in a modality, like steering on input and output parameters, and instruments, like budget systems and contract management. The object of steering also influences the modality of steering and the instruments that are used.

6.8.2 Traditional conceptions of steering

The flagship of the traditional ideas of steering is planning. Planning can be seen as the expression of a belief in the natural progress and the making of society on the basis of rationality and reason. Progress, rationality and pliability are values and norms, which legitimize government interventions (Van Gunsteren, 1976)

The steering capacity of government is based on some assumptions regarding the structure of government. These assumptions relate to the idea of 'perfect administration' (Hood, 1987:6). First, government is seen as a machine, operating in a routinized, efficient, reliable and predictable way (Mortan, 1986). This is only possible if the structure of the organization reflects a pattern of precisely defined functions organized in a hierarchical manner through precisely defined lines of command or communication. Secondly, the structure of government has the shape of a pyramid. As Brown (1975:214) puts it:

“The first topic concerns the machinery through which powers and duties conferred on the secretary of state by legislation are made operational and related to the provision of services on the ground. This requires a chain of command in which lower tiers have the duty of carrying out the secretary of state’s policies.”

The third assumption sees the structure of government as the reflection of goal-means-relations that constitute a policy program. From this perspective:

“Implementation, or the obtaining of a desired output form such a bureaucracy, was postulated to be a matter of linking together a sequence or set of sequences of offices, each of them contributing its characteristic

operations in requisite orders so as to effect the necessary, from a general idea or 'purpose' to a specific combination of outputs or actions. Movement 'down' the generality/specify scale is thus manifested by a progressive pragmatism or operationalisation of goals" (Dunsire, 1978:220).

When the government organisation meets the condition of the conception of 'perfect administration', it is capable to intervene effectively in society. Ineffective government interventions are primarily seen as the product of flaws in the machinery of government, which results in fine-tuning the cogwheels of the machinery (Garret, 1972; Brown, 1975; Dunsire, 1978). Not only is government seen as machinery, but society too is seen as machinery – (see Mannheim, 1935). If one has a profound insight in and knowledge of the context and nature of societal processes, say the functioning of the cogwheels, societal developments and problems could be managed in the desired direction with reference to a common or public interest. Government interventions come from outside the system to be influences, from the "cockpit of society:" a centralized point of steering which is detached from society (Den Hoed *et al.*, 1983).

In the traditional approach of steering, the internal operations and the internal functioning of organizations are the object of government interventions. They take place through detailed instructions and commands and they are accompanied by detailed information relations for feedback and monitoring purposes (Garret, 1972; Brown, 1975; Dunsire, 1978; Kastelein, 1980).

Knowledge and information play a crucial role in the traditional conception of steering. The belief is that more knowledge of and insight in the functioning of a policy sector will lead to more effective interventions (Van Gunsteren, 1978). Government can only act rational, if it invests in improving its information processing capacities. Knowledge is not only expanded, but it also represents power; power to produces new outcomes, outcomes that were not previous attainable (Zinke, 1990:188). From this point of view, government is often seen as an information processor, where effective steering is based on the efficient and effective processing of large amounts of data which enhances the rationality, comprehensiveness and the controllability of planned actions (Deutsch, 1963; Brown, 1975; Van Gunsteren, 1978; Zinke, 1990).

The traditional conception of steering can be seen as 'a command and control' approach of steering, which favors two instruments: planning and legislation. The rise and fall of PPBS (Planning-Programming-Budgeting-System) is a classical example of the pretensions of planning. The core idea was that analysis, planning, strategic decision-making and day-to-day budgetary decision-making could be tied together into an unified structure of information and power in order to make planning and analysis more relevant and effective, and budgeting more rational and informed (Van Gunsteren, 1978:54; Garret, 1972). The traditional conception of steering also favors direct regulation. Rules, laws and regulations are seen as tools, which are used for the creation of the welfare state (Hood, 1978). The rules and regulations are one-sidedness, because government unilaterally restricts the behavior of actors by imposing prohibitions and commands. Moreover, rules and regulations immediately try to restrict undesirable behavior, or impose the desired behavior (Hood, 1986; Schön, 1971). If these rules fail to produce the desired outcomes, more rules are imposed in order to enforce the law and to control behavior.

6.8.3 New conceptions of steering

An analysis of the context and object of steering is taken for granted in the traditional approach of steering. Ideas about the functioning of society are a reflection of the ideas about the functioning of government: that is society and government are both machines. Ineffective interventions are seen as the structure of the machine being in bad order. Traditional steering focuses on an analysis of the steering capacity of government. New forms of government focus on the analysis of the context and the object of steering, because the characteristics of the policy sector in which government interventions take place, determine the limits of government interventions and their effectiveness. Insight into these characteristics can be acquired by using the ideas of the inter-organisational network theory (Scharpf et al, 1976; Hanf & Schrpf, 1978; Rogers & Whetten, 1982; O'Toole, 1988; Gage & Mandell, 1990).

A policy sector consists of a configuration of actors or organizations with different tasks and domains and therefore with different interests. Government is only one of these tools. Each organization depends on vital resources, such as money, materials,

knowledge, experience, authority, which are not completely at ones disposal. These resources are not free, but they are controlled by other organisations.

The key word is therefore interdependency. Thus the organizations are interdependent, which implies that there is no central actor that can unilaterally enforce its will. The image of a network tries to underline this. Between the organizations in the network horizontal power relations exist. The degree in which an organization controls the access and distribution of resources affects the degree of power of other organizations (Levine & White, 1961; Warren, 1967; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978).

The result of this interdependency is that organisations try to diminish the uncertainty and dependence of the access and distribution of vital resources by looking for permanent or temporary arrangements of cooperation and exchange (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). Within a network two strategic options exist: competition and co-operation. On the one hand organizations compete, because they can have conflicting interests and goals; on the other hand cooperation occurs, because an organization needs resources which are controlled by other organizations.

Because the acting of organizations in acquiring vital resources moves between the two poles of competition and cooperation, organizations develop all kinds of intended and explicit as well as unintentional and implicit strategies. The positions and the strategies of the organizations involved will lead to a game with players, interests at stake and playing rules (Crozier & Friedberg, 1978).

What does this mean for the object of steering? The fact that the behavior or organizations and groups cannot be seen as parameters in a policy program which can be manipulated and controlled, in combination with the fact that they are able to exercise influence on the shaping and implementation of policy programs, imply that they have self-regulating capacities. Steering is only successful, if it appeals to these capacities and to the 'frames of reference' or 'dominant patterns of communication' that are embedded in these organizations. These frames and patterns are an indication of what an organisation defines as relevant (Willke, 1983).

In discussions about new forms of steering little attention has been paid to the question how government should be organized in order to steer effectively. However, two principles can be derived. First, that the variety of the environment of governmental

organizations has to be reflected in the internal structure and functioning of government. According to Ashby's law of requisite variety (1965), an organization can only survive or act effectively, if the variety in its environment is reflected in the organization (e.g. Lawrence & Lorsch, 1977; Aiken & Hage, 1986). A decentralized structure is advocated consisting of autonomous, empowered agencies or units. Secondly, that these agencies and units should be fully responsible for their actions. Accountability, that is another principle that should be taken into consideration.

What is the role of knowledge, information and information technology in the network theory of steering? The access and control of information in a network of organizations is a very important power resource, because it reduces uncertainty (Crozier, 1964; Crozier & Friedberg, 1978; Pfeffer, 1981). However, information is not neutral. The control of information implies that an actor can try to influence the definition of the perceptions of other actors according to his own interests and preferences (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978).

New forms of steering, inspired by the network theory, use two kinds of steering modalities: steering on the boundaries of organizations and steering on the interdependencies between organizations. But what does this mean? The respect for self-regulating capacities of organizations leads to the idea that steering should be based on the control and distribution of resources within the policy network. The distribution of financial means is a very important steering instrument. This can be done by developing a budgeting system in combination with a system of contract management. Steering with incentives can also be discerned. The steering actor uses positive (e.g. subsidies) or negative (penalties) incentives to influence the decision-making process of the actor to be steered in a desired direction by influencing the costs and benefits of the alternatives to be taken into consideration.

Moreover, steering can be focused on the management of interdependencies between organizations. The steering actor tries to influence the process of interaction and coordination between organizations by trying to structure and guide this process. The so-called 'network organisation' is introduced. This organization can be seen as a platform for cooperation and coordination between quasi-independent organizations which try to

find – mainly through bargaining, communication and exchange – a shared definition of policy problems and solutions (Mayntz, 1983; Snellen, 1987; Godfroy, 1992).

Steering gets the character of meta steering: that is the steering of the self-steering capacities of organizations and groups. Meta steering means that definition of the contents of steering is replaced by a process-orientation. It focuses on the interaction process itself.

6.9 Public Administration Organisations as Institutions

6.9.1 Organisations

Grimmer, K. (1990:360-368) states that as the observation of political practices has shown, the transformation of a public administration organization in an institution depends on the purpose of the organisation and on its condition. With this in mind, even a weakly organized political establishment can exhibit a high degree of institutional effectiveness. Grimmer, defines organisations as an assemblage of individuals and objectives to achieve a purpose or perform tasks. An organization can be described by its organizational structure (that is, a specific number of interrelated positions, each with a specific area of competence), a defined mission or purpose, the resources available for its use, and a process organization (that is, a defined set of procedures specifying in which order which position will perform which activities within the framework of their individual areas of competence, and employing the available resources, to contribute to the solution of the defined problem or the completion of the designated task).

An organization is established by intraorganisational interaction processes – otherwise there exists no process-related connection between the individual positions and by information processes with a more-or-less limited environment. This environment can be made up of other organizations, associations, or individuals. Part of the purpose of the organization is to communicate with its environment (clients or addressees of the organization), which is generally made of the organisation's social, economic, and political surroundings, that provide the organization with an 'experiential horizon', and either indirectly or directly form a part of its mission-related activities (for example, the city could be considered as the environment in which some ancillary departments of a

local government operate). Based on the missions defined for an organization and according to the degree of normative bonding between the mission and its execution, we can differentiate between strongly regulated management organizations and those that are less strongly regulated (Van Ripper, 1966; Grimmer, 1990:63).

The defined purpose, the subdivision of the organization into working units with specific areas of competence, and the information and communication relationships between these units all have structure-building effects for the organization.

6.9.2 Institutions

Grimmer, K. (1990:360) indicates that institutions can be described as effect mechanisms (and as images). In an initial definition, we characterize the roles of institutions as providing orientation capacities and control capacities, both internally as well as externally. Both of these performance capacities include structuring and integration effects with respect to the members of the organization and with respect to the organisation's environment (Beyer *et al.*, 1994, Sec. 4.1., 4.3.). The institution can manifest itself to the members of the organization as well as for the organisation's environment by means of symbols. These symbols can be a name, a building, an organization picture, or a representative of the organization. Institutions do not have a subject of their own; rather, they are the result of an interaction of intra-organisational factors and relationships with the surrounding environment. These manifest themselves in the behavior of the members of the organization and in the attitudes of the members of the environment. To the extent that the institution is based on an organization, one of the characteristics that we recognize is that the members of the organization and the surrounding environment tend to view it as an independent entity, characterized by specific orientation and control capacities.

An institutional shape does not, however, need to incorporate an entire organization in its complete formal/legal definition. For example, before the German Federal Postal Authority was split to form three independent operations, the telephone branch or the postal banking branch already possessed an independent, institutional shape and, to a certain extent, even represented independent institutions.

6.10 Summary

The subject field of the Public Administration can be viewed as having undergone various stages of development, as an academic discipline. It developed over different phases. Public Administration is currently identified as a process that cannot be separated from politics. Nowadays it is accepted that the Public Administration play an active role in policy making. Environments, ethics, values and politics need to be taken into account in the development of a theory of Public Administration. A sustainable public service depends on strong institutions, skilled personnel, accountability, transparency, responsiveness and enabling systems and processes, cost effectiveness and a competent and committed leadership cadre.

In the next chapter the researcher will discuss an overview of Leadership versus Management

CHAPTER 7 *LITERATURE REVIEW*

OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP VS MANAGEMENT

7.1 Introduction

Considered as a vital commodity since the beginning of humanity, leadership remains a topic of central interest, vested with the trappings of myth, legend and imagery. A review of the leadership literature suggests that there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are scholars who have attempted to define the concept (Stogdill, 1974). Further, leadership is applied to a diversity of behaviours, ranging from that of supervisor to that of prophet. Perhaps the closest to consensus over a definition of leadership is that of a social influence process, although the same may be said for most experiences that involve more than one person (Pondy, 1978).

There is an enormous difference between the person who is content to squirt oil on the existing machinery of an organization and one who envisions and builds new machinery. As long as organizations are able to coast along, peacefully maintaining the status quo, administrators or managers are quite sufficient. But those that remain stagnant in a fast-changing environment fall behind over time. To keep pace, an organization must continually undergo real change – and strong leadership makes changes happen.

7.2 Management versus Leadership

Historically, the source of wisdom and direction for leaders stemmed primarily from their position in the organization, whereby subordinates were simply required to comply (Manz & Sims, 1990).

However, the focus has shifted increasingly to the role of the “organizational architect” (Bolttinger, 1989; Forester, 1989; Korae-Boisvert & Kougmui, 1994).

According to Porat, 1997; Drizzand, 1985; Forester, 1989; Koen, 1991; Marcean, 1992; Nohria & Eccles, 1992), in order to effectively cope with a variety of dynamic

demands such as aggressive competition, employee needs, market demands, IT advances and globalization, the contemporary leader continuously contends with the tasks of redesigning, renovating or reinventing existing organizations.

Kakabadse (1998:12) argues that over time, leadership has come to mean a variety of things, with the usual definition that considers leadership either as a personal property (courage, stamina, power, charisma) or a property of position.

Selznick (1957:135) examines leadership by distinguishing it from management. The leader, in his view, is concerned with 'critical' as opposed to 'routine' decisions in the organization. Critical decisions have to do with the definition of the purpose of the organization. However, the definition of purpose, for Selznick, is not simply the linkage of means to ends, but more the balance between the two, 'the cult of efficiency in administrative theory and practice is a modern way of over stressing means and neglecting ends' (Selznick, 1957:135). Furthermore, purpose is not concerned with human relations' efforts designed to develop a 'harmonious team'. As such, leadership is not equivalent to position, rather, it is concerned with statesmanship. Therefore the 'institutional leader' is primarily an expert in the promotion and protection of values (Selznick, 1957:28). Selznick's generative ideas for the conceptualization of leadership are expressed by three premises:

- 'Leadership is a kind of work done to meet the needs of a social situation' (Selznick, 1957:22). That is, leadership may involve the interaction of leaders on behalf of the organization or institution. However, 'it does not follow that the nature of leadership varies with each social situation. If that were so, there would be nothing determinate about it, its study would be a scientific blind alley' (Selznick, 1957:23).
- 'Leadership is not equivalent to office holding or high prestige or authority or decision making' (Selznick, 1957:24). That implies that leadership may or may not be exerted by those in position of authority.
- 'Leadership is dispensable' (Selznick, 1957:24). The idea suggests that not everything that occurs in an institution can be called 'leadership'. The assumption is that there exist social processes which occur without any need for leadership.

According to Kakabadse (1998:13) Selznick's (1957) construct of leadership explains certain human actions in the organization, emphasizing in particular the maintenance or transmittal of values, which steer the direction of the institution.

In contrast, Burns (1978:12) sees leadership 'as a special form of power', where power is the mode of utilizing resources to achieve certain goals. Power, however, is not interpreted in any mechanical sense and as such is not always coercive. The most powerful influences consist of deep human relationships, in which 'two or more persons engage with one another' (Burns, 1978:11). For Burns, power is a basic aspect of humanity, and occurs in practically all relationships where there are motivations and resources. However, power need not be 'power over' but it can reflect a host of motivations such as the motive to achieve as opposed to the motive to dominate. For Burns (1978) leadership is 'purposive and oriented towards a goal, a vision or a change'. It involves competition and accepts that followers have motives of their own. Burns (1978:8) defines leadership action as the action that a 'person with certain motives and purposes mobilizes, in competition or conflict with others, institutional, political, psychological, and other resources, so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers'. For Burns (1978:19) leadership 'unlike naked power wielding, is thus inseparable from followers' needs.'

In his reformulation of leadership, Burns (1978) classifies leadership as 'transactional' and 'transformational'. He considers that transactional leadership involves the exchange of valued goods, such as the exchange of votes for particular programs on the part of politicians and the electorate. Transactional leaders may be found as leaders of small groups; opinion leaders in political parties; and in legislative and executive leadership (Kakabadse, 1998:14).

Transformational leaders do not simply engage in an exchange of valued goods, as they engage followers and transform the followers' vision of the world. Thus transformational leaders are 'moral but not moralist' (Burns, 1978:455). In this sense 'leaders engage with followers, but from higher levels of morality; in the enmeshing of goals and values both leaders and followers are raised to more principled levels of judgement' (Burns, 1978:455), where much of leadership 'asks sacrifices from followers

rather than merely promising them goods' (Burns, 1978:455). Transformational leadership can occur as intellectual leadership, using ideas to transform and reform leadership, reforming particular structures of governance; revolutionary leadership, heroic leadership and ideological leadership. Such leaders use 'charisma' and 'enticing ideas' to sway followers, where the task of leadership is conscious raising on a wider plan' (Burns, 1978:43).

Burns' (1978) work served to re-acquaint scholars with a critical distinction first raised by Weber (1947), namely the difference between economic and neo economic sources of authority, which served as one basis for Weber's (1947) discussion of charisma. Burns' (1978) amplified and focused this important definition, using leadership illustrations such as Ghandi and Roosevelt, that made the distinction between leaders and managers too striking for such assertions to be ignored.

While Burns' (1978) leadership definition excludes political leadership, namely that which is coercive or dictatorial, Tucker (1981) sees politics as leadership where politics is considered as the active direction of a political community and can thus be equated with leadership. For Tucker (1981), politics is not simple power seeking, though it can involve power. Therefore dictators can exert political leadership which is power based and power seeking. Tucker (1981) defines the political leader's task as a threefold function:

- Diagnostic: defining situations authoritatively for the group;
- Prescriptive: prescribing courses of group action that will meet the defined situation;
- Mobilising, or diagnostic: policy formulating and policy implementing (Tucker, 1981:18).

For Tucker (1981) leadership involves activities, which are political in nature and are responses to addressing problem situations.

Bennis' (1984:42-60) study of corporate leaders reinforces some of Burns' (1978) and Tucker's (1981) works. Bennis (1984) finds that leaders need to share vision, which involves clarifying the present and proposing a view of the future; communicating and gaining support for the vision; being persistent, consistent and focused, in order to

maintain the vision; empowering, creating a 'social architecture' which allows for the expression of energy and organizational learning and the ability to monitor performance and learn from errors. Bennis (1984:42-60) argues that a combination of these factors provides 'transformative power'; the ability to 'translate an intention into reality and sustain it' (Bennis, 1984:64). He argues that the transformational power of leadership is the 'ability of the leader to reach the souls of others in a fashion which raises human consciousness, builds meaning and inspires human intent' (Bennis, 1984:70). Bennis (1988:3) identifies five qualities that are essential for successful leadership, conclusions reached through his study of chief executive officers:

- Technical competence defined as the combination of knowledge, broad experience and the ability to do whatever one does, as well as possible. These are people who are usually pragmatists and who have risen through the ranks as smart, insatiable and tireless workers.
- People skills defined as the possession of self understanding of one's talents and flaws, plus the ability to eliminate the latter or to compensate for them; also the capacity to understand and work with others in terms of common needs.
- Conceptual skills consist of a viewpoint and vision that permits one to capitalize on existing opportunities and anticipate future ones.
- Judgement defined as the artful mix of cognitive capabilities and intuition that translates into understanding and steadiness. With such judgement, leaders see and understand what's happening, responding immediately, decisively and intelligently.
- Character, that is defined as the perfect balance of ambition, ability and conscience; capable of doing the right thing and taking full responsibility for one's actions and those of his/her organization.

While Burns bypasses the key question of what it is that leaders do, or how they function as leaders, apart from interacting motivationally with followers, Kakbadse (1991:23) redefines and operationalises Burns' leadership classification into the categories of 'discretionary' and 'prescribed'. Where discretionary leadership activity involves attending to non-prescribed tasks, comparable to Selznick's (1957) 'critical' decisions, Kakabadse's (1991:23) discretionary leaders concern themselves with tasks

such as setting agendas and vision, and the establishment and maintenance of relationships. Prescribed leadership involves spending time on more structured tasks, such as activities within functions as sales and marketing, or implementation of strategies or tasks that Selznick (1957) calls 'routine' decisions in the organization. Effective leadership for Kakabadse (1991) is one where the leader adopts a philosophy that is discretionary and developmental in nature. Like Bennis (1984), Kakabadse (1991) focuses on the operationalisation of leadership in private and public sector organizations, at both the individual and team level.

While Selznick (1957), Burns (1978), Tucker (1981) and Bennis (1984) studies made advances from the functionalist approaches to leadership, in so far as they account for political and social action in more than objectivistic terms, they still contain an implicit hierarchical definition of leadership, which abstracts leadership as property possessed by some individuals (Sayles, 1979). In so doing, they do not address the essence of leadership, the critical spirit, that aspect which is necessary for a leader to be able to understand contexts. Furthermore they treat leadership as a volunteristic trait, where one simply chooses to exert leadership. Kakabadse's (1991) model goes a step further and addresses the essence of leadership, raising human consciousness by creating meanings and evaluating motives and goals against existing and emerging structures and vision that is located in the near and far future.

Kakabadse (1998:17) states that the overview of definitions of leadership has provided for two distinctions in the subject that clearly need to be taken into account, namely transformational and transactional. In essence, transactional leadership refers to the interactions between individuals and groups and by so doing, the context within which the intervention occurs needs to be taken into consideration. Context is a powerful force, for it can influence both the quality of the interaction and the parameters that bind its beginning and end. By being so context bound, transactional leadership more neatly equates with management.

Kakabadse (1998:17) further indicates that in contrast, transformational leadership is proactive but beyond particular contexts. Transformational leaders may not only extend the boundaries of particular contexts but may equally dismantle the very pillars of that contextual framework. By so doing, transformational leadership is individualistic by

nature with, at times, little respect paid to the maintenance of existing contextual patterns of interaction, a hallmark of transactional leadership. With transformational leadership, boundaries are broken and rebuilt, with the uncomfortable occurrence of scant attention being paid to the ensuing human cost. Within the bounds of transactional leadership, incremental adjustment to boundaries highlights its conceptual underpinnings and fundamental philosophical precept of 'get the best out of the people you've got!' (Thomasma, 1993). Hence, context is a fundamental differentiation between transactional and transformational leadership, attributing the former to the management camp. A second differentiation requires highlighting within the transformational category, and that is, the nature of individualism. Is the individual 'born with' a greatness that transcends boundaries, or is an individual of 'normal' propensities required through circumstance and crisis to redefine direction and contextual parameters, with a superiority that is not based on a formality of command? From the so called 'great man theory' (Bernard, 1926; Tead, 1935) to the more current flavour of 'developed from humble beginnings'; both of which underly the transformational leadership thesis (Ticky & Devanna, 1986; Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991), which includes 'new age' value leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Banner & Blessingame, 1988; Fairholm 1991; Senge 1992), the debate of 'was I born great', or 'was greatness thrust upon me', continues (Kakabadse, 1998:19).

Leaders also shape the culture and values that distinguish their organizations from all others. The philosophy and values of the Thomas Watsons, Sr. and Jr., shaped IBM. Roy Kroc's fetish for order, cleanliness and quality spearheaded the success of McDonald's. Walt Disney's creative passion for technology and insistence on a clean park and well-trained employees created the legacy of Disneyland and Disney World. Lee Iacocca transformed Chrysler from a nearly defunct company into a serious competitor. Chrysler required a Lee Iacocca to survive.

Yet leadership is not the exclusive domain of one or two people at the top of the pyramid. Strong leaders may be scattered throughout an organization.

Many believe, rightly or wrongly, that they understand management. Volumes of research over the past decades have defined management as planning, organizing,

staffing, directing and controlling. While debate continues over details, hundreds of textbooks describe the management process, and the descriptions are essentially the same.

Leadership has been far less well defined, partly because often it is associated with charisma. And the concept of charisma falls into the same category as beauty – impossible to define and totally in the eye of the beholder. If you are ever to develop leadership more broadly among the managers of an organization, you must first understand it. You need an operational definition of how leaders behave and how that behavior separates them from managers.

Zenger (1985) states that leadership can be described across the following six behavioural dimensions:

7.2.1 Leaders create values through communication

The first, and most obvious, thing about leaders is that they are good communicators, particularly when they are talking about their organisation's value and mission. They are articulate. They express themselves persuasively in groups. You often can pick the leader out of a group by observing the pattern of communication: Who talks last on a subject? Who is most persuasive? Who speaks authoritatively? Who do people really listen to?

A leader's message often has to be repeated again and again.

Leaders focus on emotional issues that connect them with their followers. Business leaders talk about the quality of their product or their dedication to customer service or their commitment to the dignity of all employees. They focus on values that appeal to employees, enlisting them in a cause that gives meaning and purpose to their work.

Leaders also convey a vision of the future. They are the catalysts that define the organisation's mission and potential, transmit that vision to their associates and enlist their help in attaining it. They become a mirror for the group to see its own unique qualities.

Leaders use a range of techniques to communicate. Some rely on large meetings; others write their messages. But nothing is quite as effective as a leader who gets out

among employees and, face-to-face, talks about his or her vision of the organisation's future and the values inherent in getting there.

Most leaders instinctively enjoy communicating. They are comfortable in large meetings or in one-on-one discussions. They use brief interactions to gather and give information. Wherever they go, they exploit every opportunity to convey what they deem to be the important messages about mutual goals.

Some leaders, however, are basically shy and do not always grab center stage, especially in their formative years. Lincoln, Gandhi and Washington fall into this category.

Some of those leaders acquired the skill of communicating through a painful process of self-discipline. Deep convictions about their missions propelled them into a limelight that was uncomfortable initially, and in which they were not totally at ease. But they never shied away from communicating their vision and their values.

Contrast this with the attitude of many managers about communication. Some curtail it. They communicate only on a "need-to-know" basis. Managers are inclined to stay in their offices. Communication, they complain, takes too much time. For many, information is power to be hoarded, not something to be shared. And indeed, these perceptions have some validity – if you define your role as one of control and administration, not leadership.

7.2.2 Leaders develop committed followers.

Leaders make a direct, emotional connection with associates that go far beyond the usual boss-subordinate relationship. Leaders involve others, seek advice, ask for information, solicit solutions to problems and provide frequent positive feedback. In other words, they make the people who work for them feel responsible for what happens.

By involving people, leaders also empower them. They encourage people to be self-reliant and to practice self-management. John Kennedy's exhortation – "Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country" – is one example of how leaders encourage people to act responsibly.

The current trend in business toward employee participation offers a natural path to responsible followership. Quality teams, quality circles or any form of group participation can be a first step toward developing individual and team responsibility. Such programs succeed when corporate leaders are genuinely committed to giving employees more responsibility.

The best leaders recognize that strong associates are a must. They foster and thrive on the success of others. They recognize that weak subordinates “yes people” may make them look good by comparison – momentarily – but will contribute little to the long-term effectiveness of the organization.

Leaders meet frequently with their groups to create strong team spirit. They understand the power of groups and the benefit of communicating in a group setting. Leaders prepare and run effective meetings.

Managers, by contrast, emphasize results or meeting the numbers. They analyze why there is a failure to produce according to plan. They focus on the task rather than on individual development or motivation. They prefer to deal with people one-on-one instead of risking the uncertainty of group behavior.

7.2.3 Leaders inspire accomplishments.

The leader begins by accepting personal responsibility for the group’s accomplishment of objectives – with no excuses. Effective leaders believe that people can be remarkably productive and the leader sets standards that inspire them.

Leaders use small wins to build confidence and motivate people to do more. Then they move on to larger challenges, constantly striving to surpass past levels of achievement. The goal is more important to leaders than immediate personal popularity, so they will take risks and bend the rules to meet their goals.

Although managers are usually concerned with meeting production schedules and getting results, they lack the passion and commitment that leaders display. They are less tenacious. They go for modest linear gains, not quan-turn leaps forward.

7.2.4 Leaders model appropriate behavior.

As George Homan pointed out in *The Human Group* (Harcourt Brace, 1950), leaders earn their roles in part because they symbolize the values and norms of the group. A captain of a football team has got to be a good player. A minister or priest exemplifies the moral values of the congregation. A leader of a scientific organization is first and foremost a respected scientist.

Business leaders must represent the values of the units they lead. If the group is a technical one, they must be technically capable. To lead a marketing group, they must possess strong creative or analytical talents.

In his classic *Study of History*, Arnold Toynbee speaks of *mimesis*, the process by which people mimic their leaders. When leaders fail to send a clear signal or when they say one thing and do another, their effectiveness as role models is in serious jeopardy.

Leaders know that people emulate their behavior. If they move quickly, the organization will pick up the pace; if they slow down, the pace slackens.

When difficult times arise in a business, people look to their leaders for reassurance. They want to see a calm, steady hand on the rudder that is capable of taking action, but never precipitously. A leader does not magnify others' anxiety by behaving frantically, regardless of personal trepidation.

The most dramatic example of the leader's role as a model was one company president's simple formula for conduct in the organization: "You may do anything you see me doing."

Managers are less concerned about modeling behavior. They have often been removed or less visible to the rank and file because they manage from their offices. Their emphasis is on control, decision-making and analysis, and the impact of their own behavior on others is not a paramount concern.

7.2.5 Leaders focus attention on important issues.

Leaders ferret out key issues and tough problems, then focus attention on them. Often they begin by asking questions: "How did this happen?" "How long has it been happening?" "Why does it continue to happen?" Asking questions turns the searchlight on an issue.

Leaders recognize that only a limited number of goals can be pursued at any one time, so they take care in choosing what to emphasize. Managers focus on many performance dimensions simultaneously, because managers want to control them.

7.2.6 Leaders connect their group to the outside world.

A leader serves as a link to the rest of the organization and to the rest of the world, both giving and getting information. This function is difficult for anyone else to perform because external groups expect the senior person to be the one to contact.

In *The General Managers* (Free Press, 1982), John Kotter reported that effective general managers, i.e. leaders, are in frequent contact with community and labour union officials. They participate in trade associations. They get involved with university professors and researchers who are interested in their technology. They make it their business to stay in touch with top officers of other companies. In short, they are the hub of a complex network of relationships with outside groups.

Harold J. Leavitt, professor of organizational behavior at the Graduate School of Business at Stanford University, points out that the most valuable time executives spend is out of their offices. While there is obviously a limit to such absence, it is a mistake for leaders to stay chained to their desks.

Managers, on the other hand, tend to focus on the immediate group under their supervision. They stay close to their desks and spend little time away from the office. There is always a stack of reports to read, problems to consider or correspondence to answer.

With significant advances in the understanding of the human psyche (Freud, 1922; Jung, 1953; Kets de Vries, 1977; Argyris, 1982); human behaviour (Asch, 1956;

Zimbardo, 1970; Milgram, 1974); learning (Krebs and Miller, 1985); action (Argyris, 1957; Argyris & Schon, 1974, 1978; Argyris, 1982); and the unsuccessful attempt of the psychological perspective, through the 'age of psychological testing' (circa 1930-1940), to define universal traits of good leadership (Korman, 1968); the behavioural perspective, in the 'age of grid training'(circa 1950), to train managers to become good leaders and the contextual perspective, in the 'age of causality'(circa 1960-1970), to define an appropriate management style for the diversity of praxis situations exemplified by crisis (Wolfenstein, 1967; Staw & Ross, 1989; Rosenthal & Kouzes, 1993) emerged the need for transforming managers into the leaders in the 'age of re-invention'.

The quest for new leadership has resulted in the theoretical distinction between leaders and the leadership role and managers and the management role (Levinson, 1981). The transformational leadership thesis flags this separation and opens the floodgates for a leadership revival through the reincarnation of the 'charismatic' leader (irrespective of whether charisma is a born with or developed characteristic). The 'age of value' (circa 1990) aids their distinct differentiation. The emerging argument holds that 'most leaders are good managers, but managers are not necessarily good leaders' (Warburton, 1993:29) and that the world beyond the 1990s will not belong to managers but to passionate driven leaders who are innovative path finders, able to empower others to lead themselves (Leavett, 1987; Manz & Sims, 1990; Fairholm, 1991; Warburton, 1993).

Managers are transactional technologists, maintaining balance in operations, are process – or means – oriented (Burns, 1978), are 'caretakers of the status quo (Warburton, 1993:28) who think in terms of replicability with a focus on control and accountability (Bennis, 1984) and who relate to each other in role terms and favour loyalty, conformity, coordination and team spirit (Bradford & Cohen, 1984; Nibly, 1984; Manz & Sims, 1990; Fairholm, 1991). Managers prefer security and are effective in situations where they can direct the desired behaviour, control deviation from set norms and punish recalcitrance (Zemke, 1987). Managers favour proven technologies and hierarchical structures as they are predictable and are, in themselves, a form of control

(McDermott, 1969:35). Managers from the more negative perspective avoid complexity and attempt to ensure tangible, detailed control to limit the danger and insecurity of uncertainty (McAdam, 1993:8), producing mediocrity and suffocating innovation and creativity (Fairholm, 1991), but from a positive viewpoint, build a culture satisfactory to those involved through daily, efficient transactions (Kakabadse, 1982; Kakabadse, Brovotto & Holzer, 1988).

Notwithstanding that 'rationality' and 'irrationality', human forces that seldom can be ordered and controlled, appear to be central to the human condition and the fact that rationality is often irrationality in disguise (Freud, 1922), managers tend to fear the irrational and use reason to bring its manifestation under control. The danger is that those adopting the mental set of manager often miss the hidden meaning and significance of actions that shape organizations (Morgan, 1986).

For example, the rationality expressed by Taylor (1911) may have disguised an extreme form of compulsiveness, just as the contemporary manager's excessive concern for clear-cut targets and goals may disguise a basic insecurity in life, anxiety, inferiority or insignificance (Kanter, 1977; Morgan, 1986; Manz & Sims, 1990). Psychologically powerless managers turn to the domination and control of others, invoking 'power tools' (status, rules and procedures) as a response to the restrictiveness of their own situation (Kanter, 1977). Thus, it is argued, considerable evidence supports the view that managers are autocratic leaders or 'strong men' (Manz & Sims, 1990) who, through their commands, exercise positional power in order to secure fear-based compliance from others. In terms of leadership style, they are limbic leaders (instinctive, tangible and results oriented) dominated by left brain functions (analytical, elemental and rational) and exhibit behaviour that values analytical precision, close control and supervision, punitive and evaluative measures (Burgelman, 1990; McAdam, 1993). They are evaluative thinkers that are convergent in character, who, through the control of the flow of information and ideas, build emotional and physical blocks that prevent innovation (Henry, 1991). Managers are in action by 'operating the ship' or 'rowing the boat'.

Furthermore, it is argued that managers exhibit a Kantian (1901) attitude towards the world, characterized by hostility and distrust of everything that is new; they dread chaos. They, in a Kantian (1901) fashion, consider that both contextual parameters (Kant's external world) and human behaviour (Kant's internal nature) have to be formed, organized and dominated by rationality (Kantian understanding and reason) and by a rationality guided volition in order to make them safe (Kant, 1909). Thus, they share the Kantian (1909) fear of 'transcendental contingency'. They fear that the objects (actors, artifacts) could behave amongst themselves in a way quite different from the laws of their experience and thinking, unless they bind actors from the outset by these laws.

In contrast (perhaps influenced by the writings of Confucius, Aristotle, Plato and the Bible), leaders are considered to be transformational philosophers who are creative and outcome or ends oriented (Zaleznick, 1977; Burns, 1978; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Bennis, 1984; Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Their attitude towards the world can be characterized as loving, trusting, and surrendering to it in affectionate vision of philosophical genius. They are designers who think globally the long-term horizons in terms of renewal and operate outside the constraints of structure, of the breaking the mould in order to create and achieve a set vision (Selznick, 1957; Bradford & Cohen, 1984; Nibly, 1984; Henry, 1991; McAller, 1991). They actively search for new frontiers and place a high emphasis on values, creativity, intelligence, integrity, cooperation and sobriety.

Leaders are self confident, mature individuals who understand themselves and how they differ from the group (Bennis, 1984, 1989; Bass, Avolio & Goodheim, 1987; Frey, 1993; Warburton, 1993). The behavioural responses of self-assured leaders (Maslow, 1971; Mg, 1980; Bass, 1981; Metzger, 1987) generate an empowering, freedom enhancing environment (Kanter, 1977).

Leaders build socio psychological contacts with their followers that allow them to lead voluntarily towards common action, whether or not they are present to oversee the behavior of followers and, as such, inspire innovation (Hodgson, 1988; Fairholm, 1991; Warburton, 1993). In terms of leadership style, they are cerebral leaders (conceptual, intellectual and design oriented), dominated by right brain functions (holistic, integrative

and artistic/emotional) and exhibit behavior that values a sense of identity, emotional integrity, flexibility and empowerment (Manz & Sims, 1991; McAdam, 1993). They are imaginative thinkers who are expansive in nature and who actively work on the removal of barriers to creative actions by fostering a creative formative context, encouraging innovation (Henry, 1991). They are in the center of action by 'steering the ship'.

It is argued that the contemporary leadership literature supports the view that leaders are 'ideological' (visionary or philosophical) super heroes, who can inspire and empower others to lead themselves. These super heroes have ascended from the first order of knowledge; knowledge for the sake of domination, also known as knowledge of positive science, to the second order of knowledge; the knowledge of essence or the knowledge of personal culture. 'New age' scholars express a need for an intellectual leap forward of transcendence from the pragmatic dimension of leadership to the philosophical dimension of leadership. The same values and traits that define leaders (creativity, vision, intelligence, integrity, energy) are screened out in the organizational selection process, in favour of conformity, loyalty, mediocrity, masculinity and team spirit (Fairholm, 1991; Korac-Boisvert, 1994a).

After a century of management control, measurements, systems, performance and productivity, managers predominate in contemporary organizations to the virtual exclusion of leaders (Fairholm, 1991; Korac-Boisvert, 1994b). The CEO of General Electric, Jack Welch (quoted in Manz & Sims, 1991:27), poignantly summarizes this situation by stating that 'we have to undo a 100 year old concept and convince our managers that their role is not to control people and stay "on top" of things but rather to guide, energize and excite'. Perhaps this scarcity of leadership resources is the 'raison d'être' for the quest for sensuous, knowledgeable, practical and active business athletes or 'new age' leaders (Banne & Blessingame, 1988; Senge, 1992) who can transcend mediocrity and provide synergies which excite and empower others, generate instability in institutional arrangements and yet still provide direction through the economical, political, ideological and social landscape (Ahrne, 1990).

The conventional wisdom of managerial control is seriously challenged as being appropriate to all social and organized settings, where contextual dynamics are intense,

rapid or 'turbulent' (Emery & Trist, 1965) and, perhaps, even chronic (Korac-Boisvert & Kouzmin, 1994a).

Summarized below, are examples from the body of literature that emphasizes different characteristics of leadership as distinct from management (Selznick, 1957; Burns, 1978; Zaleznick, 1977; Bennis, 1984; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Zemke, 1987; Fairhol, 1991; Kakabadse, 1991).

In the evolving organisational landscape where information is shared (Boettinger, 1989; Powell, 1990), the key aspect of leadership will be the leader's ability to influence the organization by winning the confidence of the stakeholders.

Table 5

Comparing manager versus leader attributes (Kakabadse, 1998:55)

<i>Attributes</i>	<i>Leaders</i>	<i>Managers</i>
Approach	Innovative, creates opportunity to imagine new areas to explore	Balance of operations
Interaction	Personal in their orientation to group members	Role bounded
Focus	Focus on vision, expectations and context	Focus on control, production and results
Influence	Within and outside the construct of structure and their immediate jurisdiction	Within the designated group
Motivates through	Volitional activity, emotion, offering suggestions	Formal authority mechanisms
Use	Influence (power)	Control
Values	Cooperation, unity, equality, justice and fairness in addition to efficiency and effectiveness	Coordination, efficiency, and effectiveness
Communicate	Indirectly and directly, give overlapping and ambiguous assignments	Directly giving clear direction solitary assignment
Represents	Direction in history	Process
Orientated towards	Ends	Means
Is	Philosopher	Technologist
Has	Transforming impact	Transactional impact
Role primarily	Discretionary	Prescribed
Main tasks	Defines and communicates goals, motivates	Implements goals, referees, coaches

Thinking time frame	Futuristic, tomorrow and the day after	Current, yesterday's output and today's problems
Thinking context	Global	Local
Main direction	Renewal	Maintenance
Source of authority	Non economic	Economic or quasi economic

According to Kakabadse (1998:56) the leader's capabilities for social networking depend on a variety of aspects of the cognitive phenotype. These include communicative ability, personality, background knowledge, generated trust, motivation, as well as the perceived status of the organization in the landscape (Thacker, 1990). In highly open information organizations, such as 'network organisations' characterized by lateral and horizontal patterns of exchange, interdependent flows of resources and reciprocal lines of communications (Nolan, Pollock & Ware, 1988, 1989; Powell, 1990), policy implementation will depend on the ability of the leader to communicate policies and visions to peers, followers and other stakeholders.

Kakabadse (1998:56) argues that leadership action/inaction depends on a hierarchical interplay of causal elements. Increasingly, leaders require an ability to set the vision and energize the commitment of others through the creation of shared values and a shared understanding within the parameters of a 'global' context (Maier, 1967; Morgan, 1986; Keen, 1991). Leadership is becoming synonymous with 'networking' (Nohria & Eccles, 1992), 'framing' and 'bridging' processes (Morgan, 1986) that can energize and focus the efforts of people in ways that resonate with challenges and demands posed by their local and 'global' contexts. Contemporary leaders are required to be all round generalists who are able to achieve short and long term integration between technical, human, operational, socio cultural and creative areas of management and plan today's learning for future global activities (Morgan, 1986).

7.3 Leadership Style

An important determinant of the levels of efficiency within an organization is the leadership style of the key members. In explaining the importance of leadership in public institutions, Owens (1987:125) refers to T.J. Sergiovanni:

“Of course public organizations are much too complex for effectiveness to be attributed to any single dimension. Nevertheless, leadership quality owns a fair share of responsibility for effectiveness.”

In attempting to identify the tangible characteristics of an effective public service, Beare, Caldwell & Millikan (1989:10) refer to Edmunds (1979) who said, *“They have strong administrative leadership.”*

Armstrong (1990:83) sees the main objectives of the leader as:

- To gain the commitment and co-operation of his team
- To get the group into action to achieve agreed objectives
- To make the best use of the skills, energies and talents of the team.

In describing the task of a leader, Francis & Milbourn (1980:249) refer to two orientations:

- A leader who has an employee or relationship orientation is very concerned about the human element.
- A leader who has a task or production orientation is more concerned with levels of production.

The question is not which is a better orientation, but rather that a good leader should recognize when a situation calls for a particular kind of action.

Bilanich (1988:6) in his discussion of leadership emphasizes the manager’s ability to adapt.

Likert & Likert (1976:123) argue that a supportive leadership style contributes greatly to productive problem solving and the constructive attainment of objectives. In emphasizing the importance of leadership, Maier (1963:19) talks of conference leadership skills to gain high quality decisions in an organization. Tausky & Peacock (1978:202-203) in summarizing, state that the essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals best by directing their own efforts towards organizational objectives. In referring to the role of the principal as an educational leader, the editorial of Educamus (May 1984) has a strong injunction,

“... the leader is duty bound to leave no stone unturned in his pursuance of those abilities and qualities that will enhance his stature as the leader of the team and the manager of an organization.”

Van Rooyen (1987:8-9), Buckley (1985:22) and Brauer (1980:40-41) all see the leadership role of the leader increasing in complexity and scope with the emergence of new challenges posed by the present and future much more dynamic environment.

Botes (1994:22) argues that the leadership style of the supervisor will determine the climate or atmosphere in the workplace. The surly, abrupt manager can cause his workers also to be grim and rigid, intolerant with each other and both irritating and irritable. On the contrary, having a jovial “eternal clown” as a leader might cause laziness, absenteeism, laxity and “chat clubs” in the workplace.

Botes (1994:23) goes on to distinguish between the following management styles that can be detected among managers in the public sector.

7.3.1 The Autocratic Manager

The autocratic manager is normally rigid and intolerant. He acts in a very conformist way and ensures that his subordinates act accordingly. He demands and expects obedience and uses his power and authority to give rewards or apply sanctions. He instills a feeling of fear and he often has a high turnover of personnel. The leader is sometimes typified as a “slave driver”.

7.3.2 The Democratic Manager

The democratic manager is sometimes also described as the participatory leader, because he encourages participation by his co-workers and subordinates in the planning and decision making process. The supervisor acts on the advice of his subordinates, and will not make significant decisions without consulting them. These supervisors rely heavily on meetings, take few decisions on their own and can be depicted as dialectic leaders.

7.3.3 The Laissez-Faire Manager

The laissez-faire manager exercises no or very little authority and leaves everything to the subordinates to accomplish on their own. This type of manager relies greatly on the capabilities of his co-workers and subordinates. He believes that his subordinates set their own objectives; work out their own strategies and organizational frameworks. The danger of this approach is that important organizational goals and objectives may be lost (Botes 1994:23).

Steinmetz & Todd (1986:133), argues that public service leaders – can no longer behave like a traditional “bull of the woods” – issuing orders and handing out rewards and punishment. Changes in social values, worker expectations, and the emphasis on the quality of life have significantly changed what it takes to be an effective leader.

7.4 Culture: Culture matters

In 1980, many managers and scholars believed that organizations could become more effective if they built or developed the ‘right’ kind of culture (Schein, 1986). Some argue that ‘strong’ cultures are linked with effectiveness that can be deliberately created (Ouchi, 1981; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Others argue that strength or culture depends on the stage of evolution of the organization and its current capability for adaptiveness. Thus that strength is in understanding and using the existing culture (Schein, 1985, 1986; Kinmann, Saxton & Serpa, 1986a).

However, the strong culture organization has also a negative side, as it forms organizations with common social attributes, which may lead to conformity (Janis, 1972; Janis & Mann, 1977; Janis, 1982; t’Hart, 1990) where others interact effectively with each other by adopting a similar ‘vocabulary of motives’ (Mills, 1940). Through this vocabulary of motives, actors exchange information and develop similar perceptions and opinions (Rogers & Kincaid, 1981; Tichy, 1981; Hackman, 1983; Wellman, 1983, 1988), which may lead then to the cultural ‘dark side’ (Korac-Boisvert & Kouzmin, 1994; Janis, 1972; Janis & Mann, 1977; Janis, 1982; t’Hart, 1990). Here strength of culture encompasses both ends of the positive/negative continuum.

Negative culture is associated with a culture, which promotes the growth of mistrust and contentiousness with uncertainty and confusion, where confidence in both the organization and its leadership diminishes (Davis, 1984). A strong belief may exist that favouritism rules, that success is not rewarded and that risk taking is penalized, which has a demotivating effect on the employees who lose enthusiasm and disregard pursuing a performance orientation. Those organizations deemed to have a more negative culture are frequently governed more by vested interests or political expediencies than by concerns for efficiency or effectiveness. Furthermore, actions and behavior that get rewarded in negative cultures are often dysfunctional ones, such as 'playing politics', manipulating rules and policies and 'managing' impressions (Kilmann, Saxton & Serpa, 1986).

A positive culture is one that integrates, shows high concern for people, which is matched with strong performance expectations. The sense of fulfillment from meaningful and challenging work is one of the more important rewards of a deemed positive culture. Because performance is considered to be a core value, significant rewards are usually contingent on performance, especially on group performance rather than just on the individual (Kilmann, Saxton & Serpa, 1986b). Even if non-performance criteria are taken into consideration pertinent to issues such as internal and external equity and the individual's potential, people are expected to make reasonable efforts in their day-to-day work. For example in the public sector, where everybody of a certain grade can expect similar increases, people are still expected to make reasonable efforts towards continuous improvement. Hence, irrespective of tangible rewards, actions and behaviour that are valued in a positive culture include self management, cooperation, teamwork, risk taking, innovation, experimentation and skill building, as well as conformity and receptivity to guidance from superiors (Kilmann, Saxton & Serpa, 1986).

Even organizations with 'right' or effective cultures that reinforce the mission, purpose and strategies of the organization, may find it necessary to change culture to foster greater cooperation across business units, as some parts of the business may have reached maturity. In attempting to develop further business, new artifacts are introduced that are positioned to persist in behaviours that may have worked well in the past but that clearly are dysfunctional today. The organization lives in cultural age or

'cultural gap' (Kilmann, 1986). Therefore, although strong culture norms can make an organization efficient where everyone knows what is important and how things are done, those cultures are more difficult to change (Gordon, 1986; Kilmann, 1986). To be effective, the culture must not only be efficient but also appropriate to the needs of the business, organization and the employees. Furthermore, if left alone, a culture becomes dysfunctional as fear, insecurities, over sensitivity, dependencies and paranoia seem to take over, unless a concerted effort to establish an adaptive culture is undertaken (Kilmann, 1986).

However, changing culture in organisations is a slow, difficult and ongoing process. Some advocate leadership succession as the essential ingredient to culture change. Pettigrew (1979), for example, contends that since leaders are the 'creators' of culture, culture change is accompanied by a change in leadership. O'Tool (1979) argues that since culture is imbedded in organizational structure, such as a company's reward system, hierarchy or authority, then change of culture can be achieved by a change of structure, the new structure, supporting a regenerated culture. Others (Ouchi, 1981; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Sathe, 1983) argue that culture can be changed by developing a new set of values, or leadership philosophy which is then inculcated into employees. Where change processes involve the development of new organizational goals and ideals and the socialization of both old and new employees to the new set of beliefs, managing symbols and their accompanying meanings, is the agent of cultural change.

Thus the view of leadership as central in setting and changing culture cannot be over emphasized. Alongside visioning, communication and the creation of the mission, is the creation of the culture within the ethical dimensions and standards the leaders have set (Alderson & Kakabadse, 1994). A leadership which is badly out of touch with organizational values, negatively influences managers and employees but is still in charge of the organization. On the other hand, the good leadership, one which is 'in touch' with dominant values, creates momentum to make things happen (Gordon, 1986).

Thus, culture and its change appear to lie within the bounds of organizational leadership, as the organisation's founders and leaders bring with them a set of

assumptions, values, perspectives, philosophies and artifacts and impose them on their employees through interaction with one another in order to solve the fundamental problems of internal integration of group members and of environmental adaptation (Pettigrew, 1979; Schein, 1983; Dyer, 1984). The values organisations nurture and people exhibit are only manifestations of the culture, not the driving force of the culture. The driving force of culture are the deeply held assumptions that may be seen as the 'ideology', 'philosophy', 'charter', or basic 'credo' of the organization, nurtured by the adopted leadership philosophy. Where values are debated and discussed, basic assumptions, in most cases, are not. Values come from early conditioning, experience and significant events such as individual training and experience (Fairholm, 1991). As such values connote desirability, they are conclusive beliefs individuals evolve about what is true or beautiful or good about the world. As organization members accept a particular set of values and act upon them, these values become the truth for them.

Shared values, therefore, are strong determinants for group actions. Because assumptions have provided solutions for contextual problems that have worked consistently for a group in the past, assumptions are evolved on a 'taken for granted basis', dropping out of awareness and forming a group culture. The emerging culture is then positioned to new members as the correct way to perceive, think about, and feel in relation to the organisation. The power of culture is derived from the fact that it operates as a set of assumptions that are unconscious and taken for granted. As such, culture does not only limit strategic choice, but strategies cannot be implemented if they run against powerful cultural assumptions (Schein, 1986; Kilmann, Saxton & Serpa, 1986b). To change culture requires leaders who have the determination and perseverance to effect change and find it necessary to remould the organization at any point in its history.

7.4.1 Cultural differences and leadership

In industrial and developing societies, both public and private organizations are joining forces with counter partners in recipient economies, in transitional joint ventures and in generating new joint ownership conglomerates, requiring dependency, collaboration and compromise of domestic technological skills and capabilities (Kevin, 1980).

Contemporary executives operate within a global socio economic political network, where the internal organizational context (internal cultural values and work standards) are only a part of the diversified global context.

The reality of 'networked organisations' becomes synonymous with 'electronic networks', where remote, asynchronous and, often dysfunctional, communication may replace face-to-face communication, further redefining and distorting relationships, actions and formal roles.

The globalisation of work environments adds a new dimension to the cultural diversity of constituencies and stakeholders and adds additional complexity to the management of these interactions and intimate dependency relationships within global mindsets exemplified by multinationals and transnational organizations. 'New age' executives need to satisfy the needs of all groups and individuals who have a stake in the success of networked organizations. They must deal effectively with contradictions, ambiguities, different values and measurement standards, conflicting goals and a plurality of methods for the attainment of goals. They need to synthesize and reduce ethnocentrism and arbitrarily manipulate cultural relativism, because in their extreme forms, both sources of diversity pose equal dangers to transitional effectiveness. The formal becomes insensitive to cross cultural differences, the latter becomes blind to cross cultural similarities.

For example, executive, operating even within those few multicultural organizations within multicultural Australia, need to consider the European respect for structure and chain of authority as well as the Asian concern for broad based involvement of all organizational participants. They also need to accommodate people socialized in cultures that accept intuition and fate as a key element of organizational life, along with others from diverse, sometimes antagonistic, cultures and learn to communicate effectively with individuals not overly familiar with the idiomatic Australian language.

Increased global mobility transforms predominantly ethnocentric organizations into multicultural ones. The past executive tendency to make independent decisions often poses difficulties in cross-cultural relationships. Traditional management assumptions such as the fact that strategy and structure closely correlate, are increasingly

invalidated by barrier breaking IT technology. The emergence of 'meta business' or network organizations, a quasi firm created through IT linkages and dependencies between organizations, leads to a situation where individuals are tightly coupled, making it impossible to define where the boundary of one organisation ends and the boundary of another begins.

Executives will have to accommodate less arbitrary, more culturally ambiguous and, in the least, globally transacted, even collegial like decisions arrived through protracted cultural negotiation, formal discussion, compromise and high levels of residual and personal uncertainty.

Furthermore, leaders of multinational or multicultural organisations need to be sensitive to cross cultural issues in designing reward policies. For example, 'self actualization needs' appear to generate high preferences for reward items such as participation (power distance dimension) and work challenge (individualism dimension). However, participation may not work as well as a reward for those from a high power distance society. Similarly, work challenge may be ineffective as a reward in a collectivistic culture. Therefore, contemporary leaders must find psychological rewards and inspiration for people whose psychological development patterns are unfamiliar. Contemporary leaders must find new ways to tap the intrinsic motives of individuals to achieve optimum outputs.

7.4.2 Organisational Climate: A direct bearing on performance

Just as every individual has a personality that makes him unique, each organization has an organizational climate that distinguishes its "personality" from other organizations (Francis & Milbourn, 1980:92).

Organisational climate has a direct bearing on job performance and job satisfaction. In attempting to explain organizational climate, Francis & Milbourn (1990:94-95) refer to the definition of Forehand & Gilmer who define organizational climate as:

"A set of characteristics that describe an organization and that:

- *Distinguishes one organization from another;*
- *Are relatively enduring over a period of time;*
- *Influence the behaviour of people in the organization.*

Francis & Milbourn (1980:95) argues that the factors that influence organizational climate are:

- Organizational context – goals, objectives and functions;
- Organizational structures – size and degree of centralization;
- Physical environment – employee safety;
- Systems, values and norms – conformity, loyalty, impersonality and reciprocity

Likert & Likert (1976:7) affirms that the success of an organization is influenced greatly by its capacity to achieve co-operative co-ordination rather than hostile conflict among its functional departments and also to stimulate differences and then to capitalize on them by productive problem solving, leading to creative and acceptable solutions.

In attempting to describe a climate highly conducive to the attainment of organizational goals, Likert & Likert (1976:8) refer to an organizational system called SYSTEM 4, which they describe as being made up of:

“inter-locking work groups with a high degree of group loyalty among the members and favourable attitude and trust among peers, superiors and subordinates.

Consideration for others and relatively high levels of skill in personal interaction, group problem solving, and other group functions are also present. Members of the organization are highly motivated to achieve the organisation’s goals ... The leadership in the organization has developed a highly effective social system for interaction, problem solving, mutual influence and organizational achievement.”
(Likert & Likert 1976:16).

Likert & Likert (1976:287-305) refer to the research findings of Walton (1966) and to Guest’s (1962) study that revealed that a System 4 model is far more effective in attaining the desired goals.

Caldwell & Millikan (1999:68) states that, a good organizational climate is one that is conducive to meeting the objectives of the organizations while allowing individuals to accomplish individual goals.

7.5 Organisational Cultures

Culture is learned, not inherited. It derives from one's social environment, not from one's genes. Culture should be distinguished from human nature on one side, and from an individual's personality on the other.

Human nature is what all human beings, have in common: it separates the universal level in one's mental software. It is inherited with one's genes and determines one's physical and basic psychological functioning. The human ability to feel fear, anger, love, joy, sadness, the need to associate with others, the facility to observe the environment and to talk about it with other humans all belong to this level of mental programming.

However, what one does with these feelings, how to express fear, joy, observation, and so on, is modified by culture. Human nature is not as "human" as the term suggests, because certain aspects of it are shared with parts of the animal world.

The personality of an individual, on the other hand, is his/her unique personal set of mental programs which (s)he does not share with any other human being.

It is based upon traits, which are partly inherited with the individual's unique set of genes and partly learned. Learned means: modified by the influence of collective programming (culture) as well as unique personal experiences (Ivancevich & Matterson, 1996:103).

Culture is always a collective phenomenon, because it is at least partly shared with people who live or lived within the same social environment, which is where it was learned.

The world is full of confrontations between people, groups and nations who think, feel, and act differently. At the same time, these people, groups, and nations, are exposed to common problems which demand cooperation for their solution.

Most of the world problems do not stop at regional or national borders. It demands the cooperation of leaders from many countries. They in turn need the support of broad groups of followers in order to implement the decisions taken.

Understanding the differences in the ways these leaders and their followers think, feel, act, is a condition for bringing about worldwide solutions that work. Too frequently questions have been considered as merely technical.

One of the reasons why so many solutions do not work or cannot be implemented is because differences in thinking among the partners have been ignored. Understanding such differences is at least essential as understanding the technical factors.

“There are forces that drive a great many organizations to favor one configuration overall. But within these organizations, there are always forces that favor different structures in different places. Each part of the organisation strives for the structure that is most appropriate to its own particular needs, in face of pressures to conform to the most appropriate structure for the overall organization, and it ends up with some sort of compromise” (Mintzberg, 1973:475).

The public sector has been relatively rife with those strongly leaning toward the internal process model of stability and control and internal focus, to the detriment of flexibility and readiness, transformation and resource acquisition, productivity and efficiency, cohesion and human resource morale.

Van Wart (1998:89) states that there can be little doubt that the most common cultural type in the public sector, is the Hierarchical Culture type with its low-performing, hierarchical bureaucracies, suffering by either becoming too stable (rigid) and thus unresponsive, or by becoming too rule bound and thus diminishing their efficiency, effectiveness and creativity. Factual and systematic analyses are important. Organisational rank is highly valued. Roles are formal and distinct. Inputs and processes are all carefully stipulated by technocrats. Rules and regulations are plentiful. Success is not a satisfactory excuse for breaking a rule. Risk avoidance and control is the norm.

Peters & Waterman (1984:280) wrote, “every excellent company is clear on what it stands for, and takes the process of value shaping seriously.

Berman & West (1993) assert that the same is true for the public sector: “Public institutions are beginning to take seriously the possibility of deliberate and systematic management of values.” Lack of clarity about the values to be endorsed, their priority,

their application in different situations, their support, and their enforcement leads to ineffectiveness as employees work at cross-purposes. Values are the foundations of ethical systems. Values determine what is right and what is wrong.

Core social values such, as honesty and forthrightness are relatively easy to comprehend, as are public administration values like abiding by the law and attending to the public interest.

Values are also important in the political judicial context. Public Administration is a part of the political system in which societal values are authoritatively determined. Although there is much disagreement about the degree to which public administrators actually play a role in choosing values as expert analysis, decision makers, implementers, and evaluators, there is little disagreement that they do play a large and vital role in the political system (Rosenbloom & Ross, 1994:145-168).

Such changes represent a great challenge to Public Administration because "reinventing government, involves a profound commitment to new ideas, values and roles (Berman, 1993:16-17).

Van Wart (1998:9) states that Public Administrators are expected to have "civic integrity", which means an appreciation of the Constitution and the laws of the land and a respect for the political – legal system.

Civic integrity requires working through the law and the "system", and also includes universally held cultural values as, honesty, consistency, coherence and reciprocity, i.e. a reasoned attempt to act towards others, as you would have them act towards you under similar conditions.

Katzenbach & Smith (1993:9) affirms that when these four values are in place, a high-trust culture is established, which characterizes both high performing teams and organizations.

This is a rigorous test and is akin to principle-centered decision-making, the level of ethical consciousness ranked highest by psychologist and ethicist Lawrence Kohlberg (Kohlberg, 1981).

Manz & Sims (1990) argues that administrators who base decisions on principles exercise the most powerful form of control, because their control comes from within. A difficult question for public administrators is personal conviction. Unless you want an

administration of yes-people, you must allow a range of statements and actions based on personal belief.

Richardson (1998:38) states that: "Integrity requires of you to consistent pursuit of the merits, your willingness to speak up, to argue, to question, and to critique is as essential to determination of the merits as the readiness to invite ideas, encourage debate, and accept criticism."

Administrative moral choice involves the competing pulls of routine and reason, obedience and initiative, narrow interest and the public interest (Warwick, 1998:115), so no single formula or set of rules automatically takes precedence. Ethics is doing the right thing, that is, acting on right values. This also means no acting on wrong values (Van Wart, 1998:23).

Politicians have been involved in so many scandals in the last years that, through guilt by association, public opinion have deteriorated dangerously for public administrators as well.

Van Wart (1998:316) states that, at a minimum being ethical means following reasonable social, legal, and moral norms. For public administrators, legal norms are especially important, since they are themselves agents and executors of law, and they expected to be fully and faithfully compliant with the law.

Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1981:89) distinguishes four types of organizational cultures (hierarchical, rational, group or team, and adaptive), as follows, in table 6.

Table 6

	Rational Culture	Hierarchical Culture	Group or Team Culture	Adaptive Culture
Organisational Purpose	Pursue objectives	Execute regulations	Maintain group	Transformation, Flexibility
Performance Criteria	Productivity, Efficiency	Stability, Control	Cohesion, Morale	External support
Motivation	Achievement	Security	Attachment	Adaptation
Compliance	Contract, Rules	Regulations	Affiliation	Ideology
Decision making	Decisive	Factual	Participative	Intuitive
Locus of Authority	Boss, Rules	Regulations, Rank	Membership	Charisma, Environmental needs
Power Base	Competence	Technical knowledge	Informal status	Values, Adaptive skills
Evaluation of Members	Tangible output	Formal criteria	Quality of relationship	Intensity of effort
Organisational Form	Market bureaucracy	Hierarchical bureaucracy	Team-based organization	Project-based organization (Adhocracy)

Source: Used with permission from Quinn and Rohrbaugh, "A Competing Values Approach to Organisational Effectiveness," *Public Productivity Review* 5 (1981).

It only makes sense, that the four different organizational cultures would have four different ideals for leadership styles.

Quinn & Hall (1983:92) calls these different styles: empirical experts (hierarchical culture), rational achievers (rational culture), team builders (group culture) and creative movers (adaptive culture).

Table 7

	Rational Achiever	Empirical Expert	Team Builder	Creative Mover
Prime Function	Directing	Coordinating	Team building	Boundary spanning
	Rational Achiever	Empirical Expert	Team Builder	Creative Mover
Leader Roles	Director, producer	Monitor, coordinator	Mentor, group facilitator	Innovator, broker
Behaviours	Provides structure, initiates action	Provides information, maintains structure	Shows consideration, facilitates interaction	Envisions change, acquires resources
Leadership style	Directive, goal oriented	Conservative, cautious	Concerned, supportive	Risk oriented, inventive
Motivation	Competence	Security	Attachment	Adaptation
Decision Style	Decisive	Hierarchic	Integrative	Flexible

Source: Adapted from R.E. Quinn and R.H. Hall, "Environments, Organisations, and Policy Makers: Toward an Integrative Framework," in *Organisation Theory and Public Policy*, R.H. Hall and R.E. Quinn, eds. (Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1983). Used with permission.

7.6 The Need for Ethical Values

Managerial, ethical and political values are not separated. Decisions must be based on a single set of values that blends all three considerations simultaneously. The challenge of Public Administration is to achieve a mixture of values in a workable whole.

This requires a never-ending dialectic because of legitimate competition of values and inevitable shifts in priorities. Indeed, for organizational leaders and managers there may be no more important task in today's turbulent environment than to provide the means to classify values, support values consensus, and ultimately, to provide systems to monitor appropriate compliance within accepted parameters (Van Wart, 1998:xviii).

"It is the responsibility of administrators not only to be able to understand the values implicit in their important decisions, but to be able to articulate those values clearly for others in the organization – especially subordinates, clients, and legitimate overseers outside the organization (Van Wart, 1998:4)

Rokeach (1973:5-6) argues that the values in roles (values set) change during the lives or evolution of individuals, organizations, countries, and civilizations.

He asserts that if values were completely stable, individual and social change would be impossible. If values were completely unstable, continuity of human personality and society would be impossible. Any conception of human values, if it is to be fruitful, must be able to account for the enduring character of values as well as for their changing character.

7.7 Summary

Leadership was voted the most crucial ingredient of business success (34%) in a recent survey of world business leaders, followed by vision (16%) and response to change (also 16%) (Naude, C. & Van Zyl, J. 2003).

This means business accept the need for constant change to remain competitive and for top management to provide strong leadership.

Management with leadership is the organ of institutions, the organ that converts a mob into an organization, and human efforts into performance (Drucker, 1981:226). Organisations need both leadership and management. All leadership and no management would leave organizations without the required systems for analysis and control that make them more efficiently.

It is possible to succeed by being merely a manager, but truly effective executives and managers – those who contribute most to their organizations – combine managerial and leadership skills. However, all leadership and no management would be as serious a problem as our current imbalance in the other direction (Drucker, 1987:117).

Gildenhuis (1988:9) argues that “in the initial phase of the Administrative Sciences discipline, the tendency was to ascribe leadership to the politicians”. Leadership was rarely ascribed to administrative leadership (public servants).

Public servants were supposed to administer the state regulations and the conduct of public services in accordance with determined rules and procedures.

The mind shift that public servants had to exercise leadership to transform the public service and are more capable to execute the policy direction provided by the political leaders is clearly evident in the South African public service.

In the next chapter the researcher is going to discuss the Research Methodology.

Chapter 8 *RESEARCH METHODOLOGY*

8.1 Introduction

This study was not an Empirical Study. It was primarily a phenomenological research inductive in its approach

Due to the subjective nature of the research concepts, the researcher has chosen to make use of Quantitative and Qualitative research methodologies, with special emphasis on Qualitative design and methodology. The interest in a contextual understanding of events, led the researcher to be more concerned with idiographic rather than nomothetic research strategies, usually associated with quantitative research. On the other hand, the idiographic strategy associates normally with qualitative studies. Idiographic (or “contextualizing”) studies are solely intended in understanding the particular and specific events or case within its own context.

The Qualitative research is especially appropriate to the study of those attitudes and behaviors best understood within their natural setting, as apposed to the somewhat artificial setting of experiments and surveys.

The main concern was to understand social action in terms of its specific context (idiographic motive) rather than attempting to generalize to some theoretical population.

The primary aim was in-depth descriptions and understanding of actions and events with a focus on process rather than outcomes.

The phenomological roots of qualitative research views human behaviour as a product of how people interpret their world and the task was to capture this process of interpretation, attempting to see things from the person’s point of view.

8.2 Sources of Knowledge

The majority of the research reports of organizations, either, private, public or government organizations are written in technical papers known as journals.

Some of these journals are devoted entirely to topics of Management and Leadership, while others are focused on the results of laboratory studies or are devoted largely to general business issues.

All of these journals contain articles of interest to studies of management and often provide information, data, and discussion concerning organized institutions, providing researchers and managers with invaluable research knowledge.

8.3 The scientific approach of knowledge

The experience and science approach as a way of knowing about organizations is of critical importance in the New World Era we live in.

The author believes that the science approach is applicable to management and organizational studies, and agree with (Gribben & Hunt, 1978: 43-139), (Behling, 1978: 193-201), and (Behling, 1980: 90-483), whom they share the same belief, that a science of human behavior and organization is attainable through the scientific procedures used to gain knowledge, similar to knowledge gain in the physical sciences.

Kerlinger (1973:6) argues that "the greatest advantage of the scientific approach is that it has one characteristic not found in any method of attaining knowledge: self-correction". Because there is no single scientific method, but several instead, it makes sense to say that there is a scientific approach instead of method. However there are other means other than scientific procedures that have contributed great knowledge concerning the management of organizations. The manager, like the physical scientist is also a practitioner. He or she must make decisions in the present, whether or not science has all the answers, and cannot procrastinate until it finds them before acting.

8.4 Qualitative Research

The notion of applying qualitative research methods to studying behavior within organizations recently has been addressed in leading research outlets. (Maanen, J.V. 1983) indicates that the term *qualitative methods* is used to describe an array of interpretative techniques that attempt to describe and clarify the meaning of naturally occurring phenomena. It is by design rather open-ended and interpretative. The researcher's interpretation and description are the significant data collection acts in a qualitative study. In essence, qualitative data are defined as those (1) whose meanings

are subjective, (2) that are rarely quantifiable, and (3) that are difficult to use in making quantitative comparisons.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994:2), the qualitative approach is multifaceted method involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. In other words, qualitative researchers study phenomena in their natural settings by attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings that participants give them.

Further Creswell (1998:15) indicates that qualitative research is a process of understanding that is based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting. This involves going out to the setting of study, gaining access, and gathering material. This takes the reader into the multiple dimensions of a problem or issue and displays it in all its complexity. These distinct methodological traditions of inquiry are the historian's biography, the psychologist's phenomenology, the sociologist's grounded theory, the anthropologist's ethnography, and the social, urban studies, and political scientist's case study.

According to Stake (2000:5), qualitative research is a form of systematic empirical inquiry into meaning. Empirical inquiry is any form of inquiry that depends on the world of experience in some fundamental way. Qualitative research involves the collection of a variety of empirical materials; namely: case study, personal experience, introspective, life story, interview, observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts, that describe routine and problematic moments and meaning in individuals' lives. Qualitative research is not haphazard, nor idiosyncratic, nor even subjective. It is planned, ordered, and public (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:2). The researcher spends many hours in the field, collects extensive data, and labours over field issues of trying to gain access, rapport, and an insider perspective.

Cadwick, et al. (1984:206) indicates that qualitative research involves several different methods of data collection, including triangulation and in-depth interviews. There are

substantial differences among these research strategies, but they all emphasize the idea of getting close to the data and are based on the concept that experience is the best way to understand social behaviour.

Qualitative research takes the researcher into the multiple dimensions of specific problems or issues and displays them in all their complexity. Authors often define qualitative inquiry in comparison to quantitative inquiry. In general terms, quantitative researchers work with a few variables and in many cases, whereas qualitative researchers rely on a few cases and many variables (Creswell, 1998:15). Creswell (1998:17) reiterates that qualitative research can be defined in terms of its relation to quantitative research. Quantitative research measures and answers questions such as: 'how many, how often, what proportion or what size'. Qualitative research in contrast, leads to understanding and often answers questions like, "why", "how", "in what way", "will" and "to what extent".

Goodwin & Goodwin (1984:378) and Stone (1985:63) argues that using both quantitative and qualitative methods in the same study can, in some cases, achieve a comprehensiveness that neither approach, if used alone, could achieve. Another possible advantage of the combined use of the quantitative and qualitative methods is that the use of multiple methods could help check for congruence in findings. This is extremely important, especially when prescribing management interventions on the base of research.

Daft (1983:539) states that the quantitative approach to organizational behavior research are exemplified by precise definitions, control groups, objective data collection, use of the scientific method, and replicable findings. These characteristics were presented in Exhibit Characteristics of the Scientific Approach.

The importance of reliability, validity, and accurate measurement is always stressed. On the other hand, qualitative research is more concerned with the meaning of what is observed. Since organizations are so complex, a range of quantitative and qualitative techniques can be used side by side to learn about individual, group, and organizational behavior.

Qualitative methodology uses the experience and intuition of the researcher to describe the organizational processes and structures being studied. Wallace (1972:467) argues that the data collected by a qualitative researcher requires him or her to become very close to the situation or problem being studied. For example, one qualitative method used is called the ethnographic method by anthropologists. Here the researcher typically studies a phenomenon for long periods of time as a participant-observer. The researcher becomes part of the situation being studied to feel what it is like for the people in that situation. The researcher becomes totally immersed in other people's realities.

Participant observation usually is supplemented by a variety of quantitative data collection tools such as structured interviews and self-report questionnaires. A variety of techniques is used so that the researcher can crosscheck the results obtained from observation and recorded in field notes.

In training researchers in the ethnographic method, it is a common practice to place them in unfamiliar settings. A researcher may sit with and listen to workers on a production line, drive around in a police car to observe police officers, or do cleanup work in a surgical operating room. The training is designed to improve the researcher's ability to record, categorize, and code what is being observed.

An example of qualitative research involvement is present in Van Maanen's participant-observer study of a big-city police department. He went through police academy training and then accompanied police officers on their daily rounds. He functioned with police officers in daily encounters. Thus, he was able to provide vivid descriptions of what police work was like (Van Maanen & Faulkner 1982).

Other qualitative techniques include content analysis (e.g., the researcher's interpretation of field notes), informal interviewing, archival data surveys and historical analysis, and the use of unobtrusive measures (e.g., data whose collection is not influenced by a researcher's presence). Qualitative research appears to rely more on multiple sources of data than on any one source. The current research literature suggests a number of characteristics associated with qualitative research (Van Maanen, 1982: 255)

8.4.1 Qualitative Research Characteristics

According to Dooley (1999:44), a research design is a detailed plan or method for obtaining data scientifically and it provides the necessary structure. Mouton (2001:4), in this regard states that “a research design is a plan or blueprint of how you intend conducting the research”. The research design thus focuses on the end product of the study, for example, what kind of study is being planned and what kind of result is expected.

Puth (1996:87) is of the opinion that “selecting an appropriate research design is often complicated by the availability of a large variety of methods, techniques, procedures and ever-more-sophisticated computer programming and technology”. Smith (1998:29), similarly, emphasizes the reality that the design of the research study is one of the most challenging steps in the research process. Smith (1998:29) explains, “decisions have to be made about what degree of precision is needed and how much depth of understanding is required. This trade-off also needs to be balanced against the time and budget available.

1. *Analytical induction.* Qualitative research begins with the close-up, first-hand inspection of organizational life.
2. *Proximity.* Researchers desire to witness firsthand what is being studied. If the application of rewards is what is being studied, the researcher would want to observe episodes of reward distribution.
3. *Ordinary behavior.* The topics of research interest should be ordinary, normal, routine behaviors.
4. *Descriptive emphasis.* Qualitative research seeks descriptions for what is occurring in any given place and time. The aim is to disclose and reveal, not merely to order data and to predict.
5. *Shrinking variance.* Qualitative research is geared toward the explanation of similarity and coherence. Greater emphasis is placed on commonality and on things shared in organizational settings than on things not shared.

6. *Enlighten the consumer.* The consumer of qualitative research could be a manager. A major objective is to enlighten without confusing him or her. This is accomplished by providing commentary that is coherent and logically persuasive.

Researchers and managers do not have to choose both quantitative or qualitative research data and interpretation. There are convincing and relevant arguments that more than one method of research should be used when studying organizational behavior. Quantitative and qualitative research methods and procedures have much to offer practicing managers. Blending and integrating quantitative and qualitative research are what researchers and managers must do in the years ahead to better understand and improve management and leadership skills in organizations.

8.5 Research Information for this thesis

The researcher selected the qualitative and quantitative research approach to conduct this study and analyse of the role of leadership, management, and governance practiced by the Western Cape Public Service, and its positive and negative factors impacting on results. The researcher also intended to explore and present a detailed view of the new paradigm: Public Service New Era Leadership, and its need for an effective framework to promote service delivery outcomes.

(Ely, et al. 1991:4) suggests that there are several examples of Qualitative Research, such as action research, biography, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study.

It was argued that there is an urgent need for an effective and efficient leadership, management and governance new mindshift framework in the South African Public Service to achieve the goal of South Africa becoming a winning nation.

The qualitative case study approach required the researcher to conduct an in-depth analysis of information obtained from different authors and different sources of data, using a method known triangulation.

Data analysis was conducted concurrently with data collection from various sources mentioned above. The final conclusions to the study emerged when all the data had been collected.

The information for the research was divided into primary and secondary sources. Brynard & Hanekom (1997:28) argues that *“when researchers collect their own data, it is called primary data. Should they use data collected by other researchers concerning other research problems, this data is referred to as secondary data”*.

8.5.1 The Primary sources

The primary research was done using Qualitative and Quantitative Research Techniques, involving the identification and exploration of a number of often-related variables that give insight into the nature and causes of certain problems and into the consequences of the problems for those affected.

The “Qualitative” information was recorded in narrative form and included flexible techniques, such as:

- Loosely structured interviews using open-ended questions;
- Focus group discussions,

It was a descriptive analysis exploring how senior managers lead their organizations within the Western Cape Public Sector, drawing conclusions and examining their implications for the future of the sector.

Quantitative research is largely empirical or experimental; it involves the manipulation of variables and therefore an attempt to control natural phenomena. Quantitative research would entail the drawing up of research questionnaires and or hypotheses.

Qualitative Research expresses that there is no objective reality to be observed; therefore it is analytic and interpretative. It approaches a phenomenon in a holistic manner, not attempting to influence or control variables or events. Qualitative research will make use of a research goal/objective as a starting point.

Although, according to Goodwin & Goodwin (1984:380), the advantages of combining methodologies do not apply to every research study, many studies can be enhanced by such a combination. Brannen (1992:73) provides an additional perspective on the topic. It is her contention that research, often presented as the product of a mixture of methods, is in reality a single methodology that is deriving both qualitative and quantitative data from the same research instrument.

The “Quantitative Research” technique in this thesis was structured with a number of questionnaires to quantify pre-categorized answers.

It was based on questions on how to deal with pertinent factors that can improve the understanding, acceptance and practice of a New Era Management and Leadership in the workplace.

The researcher while the Chief Engineer in charge of the “Hospitals Engineering Services” in the Province, had the duty of visiting all Provincial Hospitals, Provincial Aided Hospitals and Provincial Health Care Centres, within the Department of Health, to ascertain their needs in terms of any mechanical, electrical, civil, or clinical engineering services. He was therefore in a position that allowed him direct contact with the staff of over 100 different institutions.

The researcher was also a lecturer of Project Management for the Cape Administration Academy of the Provincial Administration Western Cape. In this capacity, he has trained more than 350 public servant officials.

Thus, the researcher has used this opportunity to conduct research among the students of the Provincial Academy. They were middle and senior managers of all thirteen Provincial Departments of the Provincial Administration, naming, Health, Education, Housing, Public Works, Transport, Cultural Affairs, Environmental Affairs, Safety and Security, Social Services, Treasury, Agriculture, Corporate Services.

The researcher used these opportunities to conduct an “Informal Survey” regarding the “Employees perceptions of management and leadership in the Western Cape Public Sector in General and the Health Sector in particular”.

8.5.2 The Secondary sources

Information for the secondary sources was obtained by studying, journals & newspaper articles, books, computer searches, abstracts & other publications, enabling the review of existing knowledge on the subject of Management & Leadership. The bibliography indicates the study of literature undertaken, to gather information and data collected by other researchers.

Puth (1996:86) notes that “often there is a wealth of information and data on the research problem already collected by others, in which case it may not be cost-effective or necessary to conduct a whole new research project in order to answer the research question. In many cases existing secondary data may be sufficiently relevant and comprehensive to answer at least a certain part of the overarching research question”.

An exploration of secondary sources begins with a study of published and unpublished relevant information and knowledge. It is of utmost importance to search all the possibilities of secondary sources before proceeding with the other research methodologies.

Miles and Huberman (1994:40) argue that: “by discarding previous lessons as irrelevant, researchers fail to learn from the studies from others”.

8.6 The Research Questions and Target Population (Sample)

Collins (1998:69) reiterates that the way to learn about a large group or an entire population is by looking on only a small part of it, i.e. a sample. He indicates that the “population” is not necessarily the totality of everybody, but the totality of the target group from which the sample is drawn.

As indicated before, a case study relies on a sampling that is bounded in time and place (Creswell, 1998:120). The boundaries of this study are the Western Cape Public Service Western Cape Provincial Administration and the time from 1994 to 2006.

8.6.1 The Qualitative Research Questions

The research design was primarily of a qualitative nature, based on the purpose and aims of the study. However, a definite empirical focus was also of great value in deriving the finalized model.

For the purpose of gathering “qualitative information” through focus groups the interviews were conducted in an informal way and the participants were pushed to think and to express their feelings and opinions freely.

The interviews were loosely constructed, allowing “much more scope for depth in respondent’s answers”, and it involved ten (10) focus groups with a minimum of six (6)

staff members. Each focus group was composed of middle management members of each of the 10 Departments of the Provincial Administration Western Cape, as follows:

- Health, Education, Cultural Affairs, Housing, Safety and Security, Works Transport and Property Management, Corporate Services, Social Services, Treasury and Information Technology

These groups took place during the time of the author's lecturing of Project Management at the Provincial Training Academy, of more than 350 officials of the different departments mentioned above, as well as during his official visits to the different institutions of the Health Department, as Chief Engineer.

In order to achieve the Objectives mentioned in Chapter 4 the researcher developed open-ended questions to test the focus groups member's perceptions of Senior Management in the Public Sector, around 2 main parameters:

1. *What behaviours, attitudes and management styles displayed by senior managers in your organization reduce your effectiveness and efficiency and that of the organization?*
2. *How in your opinion, would it be possible to bring about change, increase productivity and achieve effective results?*

To direct the focus of the interviews on the objective of the study the researcher developed a set of questions around the following ten critical topics:

- The need for Leadership
- Participative vs. non-participative style
- Communication
- Reward management
- Motivation
- Delegation
- Human Relation Skills
- Management of Diversity
- Goal-Oriented Behaviour
- Use of Supervisory Power

In order to guide the discussion of these topics the researcher presented the respondents with a list of statements to explore their views on each topic, comprising 10 questionnaires, shown as appendixes.

Besides the qualitative research mentioned above the researcher have embarked on a research project since 1994, after he obtained his HND Diploma in Management, and subsequently his Master's Diploma in Management and Master's degree in Business Administration. Since the time the researcher joined the public service with the Provincial Government Western Cape in 1989 he immediately developed a great interest in researching the reasons for the low productivity and critical service delivery failures in the public sector. Among such research is a qualitative research initiated during 2001 to test the opinions of more than 600 respondents on why the public service delivery is unable to meet the customer's expectations.

The researcher used every opportunity, every time he came in contact with public officials, either through his Project Management lectures at the Provincial Academy, delivering of papers at national and international conferences, or official visits to public institutions, to illicit the respondents to orally answer the following statements:

Statement 1: The public sector still has a core of competent, highly skilled professionals and technical staff, capable of competing with the best in the private sector.

Statement 2: The main reason why public service delivery do not come up to customers expectation is mainly due to the fact that it lacks competent, skilled senior management and leadership, to bring the best in every worker, and to change the state bureaucracy and red tape.

The respondents were requested to answer if they agree or disagree with the two statements advanced by the researcher. During this informal and conversational research, the researcher applied the technique of face-to-face interviews, with the aim of getting the informants to "open up" and let them express freely their opinions about the two pre-defined statements. It helped to discover relevant information and it was also useful for building rapport with the informants, while behaviour and attitude could as well be observed throughout the face-to-face meeting.

8.6.2 The Quantitative Research Questions

For the purpose of “Quantitative Research” the technique was structured around 3 types of questionnaire, each comprising a number of questions. It was delivered to 100 staff members, from supervisors to middle managers. An assurance was given to all respondents that their identities would be kept confidential. Without this assurance, no one was prepared to participate, for fear of victimization by Senior Management.

The respondents were asked to indicate:

1. If they agree or disagree with the statement of practice;
2. If they think that senior management knows such practices and practices them in the work environment.

The design of the questionnaires is shown at the end under Appendixes.

8.7 Summary

This thesis explored the leadership behaviors required for the Public Service senior management, within the context of the Afrocentric culture and the cultural diversity of South Africa. It aims to defend the claim that Business Management theories and practices would have a profound impact on public administration passing from modernity to post modernity.

This study was a phenomenological study inductive in its approach, to try to understand social actions in terms of idiographic motive, rather than attempting to generalize to some theoretical population, or nomothetic explanations in terms of universally valid laws. A qualitative and quantitative method and approach was chosen for this study of leadership. The intent was to create a number of implications arising from the findings of this study for leadership models in general, and more specifically, for the development of leadership skills in the Public Management sector. Such information may then inform future administrative policy and executive development initiatives. The research might lead to further specific studies on the effectiveness of senior management in these organizations and also provide a basis for more specific research hypotheses. The Analysis of results is discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 9 *ANALYSIS OF RESULTS*

9.1 Introduction

For the purpose of this research, both Qualitative and Quantitative Research techniques were used.

The study deployed multiple approaches in both primary data gathering and data analysis. A semi-structured, open-ended interview instruments and 3 survey questionnaires were developed for gathering field data. Analysis of the questionnaires included quasi-quantification, using terms like “never”, “sometimes”, “frequently”, “always”, and “strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “agree”, “strongly agree”, as means of summarizing ideas and some quantification relating to demographic data. Manual techniques were utilized in classifying, sorting and combining risk, descriptive field information and in the construction of the concepts.

9.2 Data Analysis, Verification and Report

Miles & Huberman points out that the word analysis derives from the Greek word *analyein*, which means “to break apart or to resolve into its elements” (Miles & Huberman, 1991:50). In this study the Data Analysis reduced the accumulated data to a manageable amount, summarizes, compared and synthesized, to obtain the results interpretation to the research topic. Stake remarks that, data analysis can start together with data collection, or start at any time (Stake, 2000:71). He indicates that, analysis is “a matter of giving meaning to first impressions as well as to final compilations (Stake, 2000:77). Stake also indicates two strategies to find meaning in the data; direct interpretation of a single illustration or instance, and aggregation of instances for the purpose of deriving conclusions as a class (Stake, 1995:77). He argues that the use of so-called “categorical data” is more important than direct interpretation (Stake, 2000:71).

According to Houton (2001:109) “interpretation” bring the analysis of data into larger coherent wholes, while for Miles & Huberman (1994:11) the reduction of data “sharpen, sorts, focuses, discards, and organizes data in such a way that final conclusion can be drawn and verified”.

Miles and Huberman points out that “final conclusions would not emerge until all the data had been collected, even though tentative conclusions could be drawn much sooner (Miles & Huberman, 1994:11). Miles & Huberman also describes, “verification” as the other side of conclusion.

In Naidoo, (2005:57-59) a very good description is given of data analysis and verification methods, following the suggestions of Miles & Huberman (1994:11), Stake (2000:78) and Creswell (1998:154) as shown in the table 8 below.

Table 8: A comparison of data analysis and verification methods

Stake (2000)	Miles and Huberman (1994)
Coding data	Noting patterns, themes
Stake (2000)	Miles and Huberman (1994)
Triangulation	Seeing plausibility
Category aggregation	Clustering
Naturalistic generalizations	Making metaphors
Correspondence	Counting
Correspondence Description (Creswell, 1998)	Making contrasts / comparisons

(Adapted from Miles and Huberman [1994:11], Stake [2000:78], and Creswell [1998:154])

Miles and Huberman (1994:245) suggest a number of data analysis tactics for finding meaning and for drawing and verifying the quality of conclusions. These tactics are the following:

- (i) Noting patterns and themes. Miles and Huberman (1994:246) suggest that the human mind is able to find patterns quickly and that no ‘how-to-advice’ is needed. However, the researcher was skeptical in reviewing

patterns in order to be open to disconfirming evidence when it appeared and to recognize additional evidence for the same patterns.

- (ii) **Seeing plausibility.** The idea that certain conclusions are plausible, make good sense (Miles & Huberman, 1994:246). The researcher remained open to a lack of plausibility, which was a trustworthy tactic for judging conclusions.
- (iii) **Clustering.** Clustering is the process of grouping similar categories and as with the preceding tactics, Miles and Huberman (1994:250), suggest being cautious so as to avoid premature closure of categories. Verification of clusters may include questioning where extreme cases belong, and whether data used in a cluster are fully representative of the events, actors or setting being studied. Clusters can overlap and complex data clustering involves a process of moving from the more mundane toward increasingly higher levels of abstractions.
- (iv) **Making metaphors.** Miles and Huberman (1994:250) propose that metaphors add richness and complexity to qualitative data analysis in such a way as to clarify and elucidate meanings. The definition of metaphor as data-reducing devices, by taking several particulars and making a single generality of them, is useful in handling the volume of data generated in qualitative research. Metaphors are also pattern-making devices that can center data within a larger context; this is a potentially useful device in a case study where context is integral to the research.
- (v) **Counting.** Using numbers in qualitative research should not be ignored according to Miles and Huberman (1994:253). Numbers were thus used to see what the researcher had, to verify ideas, and to stay honest by avoiding overweighing some items, or ignoring others.
- (vi) **Making contrasts and comparisons.** Comparing, according to Miles and Huberman (1994:254), is "a natural and quick method to evaluate experiences, as well as a time-honoured, classic way to test a

conclusion”. Comparing different cases involves asking questions such as “How big must the difference be before it makes a difference?” and “How do I think I know that?” Both questions require assessing practical significance since statistical significance is not relevant.

Stake (2000:109) in Naidoo (2005:59) advocates using high standards in the validation of case study research. Stake proposes that, despite the complexity of the phenomenon of study, the researcher is fully responsible for the consequences of the research and ethically obligated to “minimize misrepresentation and misunderstanding”.

Finally, in accordance with Naidoo (2005:59), preparing the research report and communicating the research findings and recommendations are the final steps in the research process.

The ultimate objective of the report is “to enable the client to make an informed and scientifically verified decision to solve the original problem that prompted the undertaking of the research in the first place” (Puth, 1996:90). “The report is the culmination of the whole research project” (Van Wyk, 1996:398) and further states that: regardless of the sophistication displayed in the other portions of the research process, the project is a failure if the research report fails”.

9.3 The Qualitative Research findings

The qualitative research was structured around flexible techniques, such as, loosely structured interviews using open-ended questions and ten focus group discussions with staff members. Each focus group was composed by members of the 10 different departments of the Provincial Government Western Cape as indicated in chapter 6 Research Methodology.

Participants were encouraged to express their feelings and opinions around the following 10 critical topics: 1 - The Need for Leadership; 2 – Communication; 3 – Human Relations; 4 – Participative vs. Non Participative Management; 5 – Reward Management; 6 – Motivation; 7 – Use of Supervisory Power; 8 – Delegation; 9 – Goal Oriented Behaviour; 10 – Management of Diversity. In

order to guide the discussion of these topics the researcher presented the respondents with a list of statements to explore their views on each topic and to direct the focus of the interviews on the objective of the study.

It was a descriptive analysis exploring how senior managers lead their organizations within the Western Cape Public Sector, drawing conclusions and examining their implications for the future of the sector.

One immediate result of the survey was to find out that without an assurance that the questionnaires and interviews were 100% confidential, no one was prepared to participate for fear of being victimized by their immediate supervisors. Such behaviour suggests that public service employees do not trust their managers in terms of subordinate criticism, and evaluation.

It immediately demonstrated a weakness and mistrust in the manager / subordinate relationship. An in-depth discussion with the focus group members revealed that their behaviour is in line with the findings of (Schuitema, 1999) who states that: "What is at issue in the workplace is not a contract between employer and employee but a legitimacy of a relationship of power.

This legitimacy can only be established if the person who exercise power, the manager or supervisor, has an authentic interest in the subordinate's well-being and development.

Managers are not made accountable for what they are given to their subordinates, but what they are getting out of them.

This reduces the relationship to one where the supervisor is only concerned with subordinates in so far as they are his tools or a means to an end. Employees, in turn, only give to the extent that they are reduced by money rewards or intimidation and threats."

9.3.1 The Questionnaires and findings of results

The respondent's findings are indicated as a percentage of the total number of respondents, i.e. a percentage of respondents out of 60. So, if the 60 respondents answered yes, it is equivalent to 100%. If 6 respondents answered yes, it is therefore equivalent to 10%. For the sake of simplification the symbol %,

is not shown. Based on the percentages, an analysis of results is also indicated, in graphical form (bar chart) for easier comparison of results.

In the case of 0% (zero percentage), the result of no respondent's answers, a number zero is indicated on the bar chart for easier understanding.

9.3.2 Conclusions

From the perspective of the respondents some changes in public service delivery may be acknowledged, but a revolutionary renewal in Public Administration does not seem to occur.

The many decades of dormancy in the administrative and organizational structure of the public sector were reflected in and influenced by the unchanging nature of public service culture. In contrast, there has been a rush to reform during the past 10 years, reflected in new structures, financial management frameworks and service outcomes. This, however, has not been accompanied by a new vision for the new public sector organizational culture and leadership.

Despite advances in policy design, the transition and implementation remains a challenges. Leaders do not align subordinates to the vision of the institutions.

Moreover this vision is not communicated to subordinates, and they are not motivated to realize them.

9.3.2.1 The Qualitative Research questionnaires and finding of results

9.3.2.1 Questionnaire 1 – The Need for Leadership







Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Vision is about systemic and strategic thinking, holistic views and purpose – it is the ability to see the larger picture and to think fresh and creatively, playing with scenarios.	100	0	7	93
Reality means responding to the facts, figures and practical details of a situation. It means planning, budgeting, pragmatic structures, analytic market research, feedback and ratios. It implies an endless drive for results and task completion. The organisation's bottomline falls under reality.	100	0	10	90
Ethics means sensitivity to people and interpersonal relationships. People, their feelings, attitudes and emotions matter. Results are most effectively achieved through teamwork and people caring for each other. It also means loyalty, trust, integrity and idealism, where ubuntu is alive and part of everyday living.	100	0	4	96
Courage means to take risks and to act. Sometimes it requires standing alone and standing up for what you believe. Courage is the ability to manage anxiety and severe stress situations.	100	0	2	98
Leaders are: Kind but not Weak Bold but not Bullies Humble but not Timid Proud but not Arrogant Decisive but not Imprudent Participative but not an Abdicator Determined but not Fanatic Firm but not Authoritarian.	100	0	0	100

Analysis: 100% of respondents agree with the statements. Between 93 and 100% of respondents indicate that Senior Management do not practice it.

Questionnaire 1 – Leadership

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?

B: Does senior management practice it?

<p>Vision is about systemic and strategic thinking, holistic views and purpose – it is the ability to see the larger picture and to think fresh and creatively, playing with scenarios.</p>	<p>A</p>	 <p>0</p>	<p>100% 0%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
<p>Reality means responding to the facts, figures and practical details of a situation. It means planning, budgeting, pragmatic structures, analytic market research, feedback and ratios. It implies an endless drive for results and task completion. The organisation's bottom line falls under reality.</p>	<p>A</p>	 <p>0</p>	<p>100% 0%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
<p>Ethics means sensitivity to people and interpersonal relationships. People, their feelings, attitudes and emotions matter. Results are most effectively achieved through teamwork and people caring for each other. It also means loyalty, trust, integrity and idealism, where ubuntu is alive and part of everyday living.</p>	<p>A</p>	 <p>0</p>	<p>100% 0%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
<p>Courage means to take risks and to act. Sometimes it requires standing alone and standing up for what you believe. Courage is the ability to manage anxiety and severe stress situations.</p>	<p>A</p>	 <p>0</p>	<p>100% 0%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
<p>Leaders are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Kind but not Weak Bold but not Bullies Humble but not Timid Proud but not Arrogant Decisive but not Imprudent <p>B</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participative but not an Abdicator Determined but not Fanatic Firm but not Authoritarian. 	<p>A</p>	 <p>0</p>	<p>100% 0%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
	<p>B</p>	 <p>0</p>	<p>0% 100%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>

9.3.2.2 Questionnaire 2 – Communication

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Public organizations still operate with multiple layers of information relayers, and under the concept of "need to know". They build up "knowledge dams", i.e. like building a dam and preventing any water from nourishing the earth downstream.	98	2	97	3
Because people do not receive adequate Knowledge, they either make poor decisions or have to pass them up the chain of command – leading to delays, while also perpetuating the belief that subordinates are incapable of making decisions or accepting responsibility.	96	4	95	5
Honesty and openness in communication are essential. Paying lip service to an "open door" policy is not enough; it must be backed up by visible action on the part of management.	100	0	6	94
The person who bears bad news or admits to having made a mistake should not be punished – by contrast the person who tries to hide it should be.	100	0	0	100
We need flattened organizations for easier communication and faster and easier decision-making.	100	0	0	100
Channels of information, upward, downward and laterally must be opened and maintained.	100	0	2	98
Managers must shift from talking and giving orders to the listen mode in order to become compulsive listeners. They must focus on two aspects of communication: (1) listening to employees ideas about ways in which we can be more effective and (2) listening to employee personal concerns and problems. Communication must be expanded beyond merely delivering a message to an intended audience to include truly listening and understanding, in a spirit of truth and co-operation.	100	0	3	97

Questionnaire 2 – Communication

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Effective communication begins with a culture of collaboration and truthfulness, where every voice is heard and considered important. It's a daily interaction, a concerted effort built on foundations of trust, honesty and sincerity.	100	0	7	93
It is an exercise that stretches the mind and the emotions to understand the full implications of actions or inactions, to listen to one another and to be "big enough" to admit wrong doing or misunderstanding.	100	0	4	96
Meetings, if conducted efficiently and effectively are indispensable for getting through. However too many meetings are a clear sign that an organization is in trouble. Frequently there is a tendency for every meeting to drift towards collective incompetence. Meetings fail in inverse proportion to preparation time and direct proportion to meeting time.	96	4	10	90

Analysis: 99% of respondents agree with the statements. Between 93 and 100% of respondents indicate that Senior Management do not practice the right behaviour in regard to Communication.

Questionnaire 2 – Communication

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?


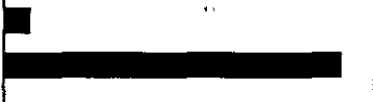






B: Does senior management practice it?

Public organizations still operate with multiple layers of information relayers, and under the concept of "need to know". They build up "knowledge dams", i.e. like building a dam and preventing any water from nourishing the earth downstream.	A		98% 2%	Yes No
	B		97% 3%	Yes No
Because people do not receive adequate Knowledge, they either make poor decisions or have to pass them up the chain of command – leading to delays, while also perpetuating the belief that subordinates are incapable of making decisions or accepting responsibility.	A		96% 4%	Yes No
	B		95% 5%	Yes No
Honesty and openness in communication are essential. Paying lip service to an "open door" policy is not enough; it must be backed up by visible action on the part of management.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		6% 94%	Yes No
The person who bears bad news or admits to having made a mistake should not be punished – by contrast the person who tries to hide it should be.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		1% 100%	Yes No
We need flattened organizations for easier communication and faster and easier decision-making.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		0% 100%	Yes No
Channels of information, upward, downward and laterally must be opened and maintained.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		2% 98%	Yes No

Questionnaire 2 – Communication (continue)

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?

B: Does senior management practice it?

<p>Managers must shift from talking and giving orders to the listen mode in order to become compulsive listeners. They must focus on two aspects of communication: (1) listening to employees ideas about ways in which we can be more effective and (2) listening to employee personal concerns and problems. Communication must be expanded beyond merely delivering a message to an intended audience to include truly listening and understanding, in a spirit of truth and co-operation.</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>100% 0%</p> <p>3% 97%</p>	<p>Yes No</p> <p>Yes No</p>
<p>Effective communication begins with a culture of collaboration and truthfulness, where every voice is heard and considered important. It's a daily interaction, a concerted effort built on foundations of trust, honesty and sincerity.</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>100% 0%</p> <p>7% 93%</p>	<p>Yes No</p> <p>Yes No</p>
<p>It is an exercise that stretches the mind and the emotions to understand the full implications of actions or inactions, to listen to one another and to be "big enough" to admit wrongdoing or misunderstanding.</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>100% 0%</p> <p>4% 96%</p>	<p>Yes No</p> <p>Yes No</p>
<p>Meetings, if conducted efficiently and effectively are indispensable for getting through. However too many meetings are a clear sign that an organization is in trouble. Frequently there is a tendency for every meeting to drift towards collective incompetence. Meetings fail in inverse proportion to preparation time and direct proportion to meeting time.</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>96% 4%</p> <p>10% 90%</p>	<p>Yes No</p> <p>Yes No</p>

9.3.2.3 Questionnaire 3 – Human Relation Skills















Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
There is a need for competency in perceiving feeling and responding with empathy, respect, and warmth when interacting with others. Personal problems can inhibit an individual's performance at work ... a manager needs to be able to use the skills of a counselor and coach.	100	0	4	96
It is only by being open with our employees about our standards that we will be able to know whether we are delivering to their satisfaction. The highest and best form of efficiency is the spontaneous co-operation of a free people.	100	0	6	94
If you put your people first, you win their faith and loyalty, and success will follow. It is a two way process, the spirit of which is expressed in the saying: "one hand washes the other", and "both washes the face".	100	0	2	98
True leaders, expect the best of people. Their tools of choice are dialogue, respect, trust, openness, challenges and praises. They create a climate in which problems are opportunities, and everyone's a hero, by harnessing the enthusiasm of their people, and aligning their energy.	100	0	3	97
Focused on day-to-day bush fires, public managers are preoccupied with short-term goals. They don't know how to create new choices, and still they can't find the time to continually push their people to think ... to dream ... to experiment ... to ask ... what if.	96	4	96	4
Public Service Top Managers have difficulty in understanding that the vitality of any organization depends on individual initiative, team work, creativity and intreprenuer endeavour, meeting challenges, growing, developing and keep moving.	97	3	2	98
Public Service Managers, on the whole, are more interested in "administering and controlling the job", and least competent at coaching and mentoring, facilitating change and innovation, managing conflict and relationships and building trust – all crucial factors in the new era.	100	0	100	0

Analysis: 98% of respondents agree with the statements. Between 94 and 100% of respondents indicate that Senior Management does not practice it.

Questionnaire 3 – Human Relation Skills

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?

B: Does senior management practice it?

<p>There is a need for competency in perceiving feeling and responding with empathy, respect, and warmth when interacting with others. Personal problems can inhibit an individual's performance at work ... a manager needs to be able to use the skills of a counselor and coach.</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>100% 0%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
<p>It is only by being open with our employees about our standards that we will be able to know whether we are delivering to their satisfaction. The highest and best form of efficiency is the spontaneous co-operation of a free people.</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>100% 0%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
<p>If you put your people first, you win their faith and loyalty, and success will follow. It is a two way process, the spirit of which is expressed in the saying: "one hand washes the other", and "both washes the face".</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>100% 0%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
<p>True leaders expect the best of people. Their tools of choice are dialogue, respect, trust, openness, challenges and praises. They create a climate in which problems are opportunities, and everyone's a hero, by harnessing the enthusiasm of their people, and aligning their energy.</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>100% 0%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
<p>Focused on day-to-day bush fires, public managers are preoccupied with short-term goals. They don't know how to create new choices, and still they can't find the time to continually push their people to think ... to dream ... to experiment ... to ask ... what if.</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>96% 4%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
<p>Public Service Top Managers have difficulty in understanding that the vitality of any organization depends on individual initiative, team work, creativity and intreprenuer endeavour, meeting challenges, growing, developing and keep moving.</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>97% 3%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>
<p>Public Service Managers, on the whole, are more interested in "administering and controlling the job", and least competent at coaching and mentoring, facilitating change and innovation, managing conflict and relationships and building trust – all crucial factors in the new era.</p>	<p>A  0</p> <p>B </p>	<p>100% 0%</p>	<p>Yes No</p>

9.3.2.4 Questionnaire 4 – Participative vs. Non Participative Management



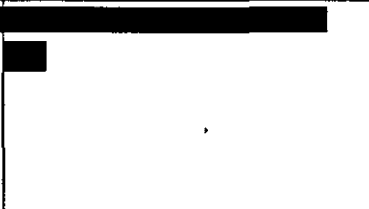







Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Management should create systems that are participatory and self-managing in order to empower staff and to increase motivational levels of employees.	100	0	4	96
In empowered organizations the primary role of management is not to be the problem solver, technical expert, or conductor but the facilitator, the person who fosters the organisation's development through active participation, co-ordination, and permitting others to provide the specific leadership skills needed.	94	6	5	95
There is a need for managers to work in a participative manner to determine employee work responsibilities in line with organizational priorities, to decide on methods for evaluation, to jointly assess performance, and to agree on improvement activities where necessary.	96	4	8	92
Goals must be developed in a participative manner and communicated throughout the organization; there should be consistency in goals; goals must be revised and updated; and employees must be rewarded for goal achievement.	100	0	10	90
Developing, articulating, and gaining commitment to an organization – or unit –wide vision are key competencies of managers / leaders – those who hope to transform and improve the institution as opposed to maintaining the status quo.	100	0	3	97

Analysis: 97% of respondents agree with the statements. Between 92 and 100% of respondents indicate that Senior Management do not practice it.

Questionnaire 4 – Participative vs. Non Participative Management

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?

B: Does senior management practice it?

Management should create systems that are participatory and self-managing in order to empower staff and to increase motivational levels of employees.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		4% 96%	Yes No
In empowered organizations the primary role of management is not to be the problem solver, technical expert, or conductor but the facilitator, the person who fosters the organisation's development through active participation, co-ordination, and permitting others to provide the specific leadership skills needed.	A		94% 6%	Yes No
	B		5% 95%	Yes No
There is a need for managers to work in a participative manner to determine employee work responsibilities in line with organizational priorities, to decide on methods for evaluation, to jointly assess performance, and to agree on improvement activities where necessary.	A		96% 4%	Yes No
	B		8% 92%	Yes No
Goals must be developed in a participative manner and communicated throughout the organization; there should be consistency in goals; goals must be revised and updated; and employees must be rewarded for goal achievement.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		10% 90%	Yes No
Developing, articulating, and gaining commitment to an organization – or unit – wide vision are key competencies of managers / leaders – those who hope to transform and improve the institution as opposed to maintaining the status quo.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		3% 97%	Yes No

9.3.2.5 Questionnaire 5 – Reward Management

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Managers need to encourage employee involvement, team work and integrated reward systems. They should reward people who are willing to streamline, to change and to take risks. Success and accomplishment are what really motivate people.	100	0	2	98
A high level of autonomy makes workers more responsible and accountable for their acts. Feedback gives them a useful understanding of their roles and functions.	100	0	4	96
Always treat your employees exactly as you would like them to treat your best customers. Learn to help them with more than just their jobs: help them with their lives. Build them up, don't tear them down. The only justification for looking down on someone is to lift them up. Trust them and they will be true to you: treat them greatly and they will show themselves great.	100	0	0	100
Our organizations are covered with negative incentives. These are all sorts of inducements and rewards for counter-productive behaviour. Managers hope for A, unwillingly or willingly reward B and they wonder why they get B.	98	2	96	4
Managers should reward: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - SIMPLIFICATION instead of needless complication - DECISIVE ACTION instead of paralysis by analyses - SOLID SOLUTIONS instead of quick fixes - RISK TAKING instead of Risk avoiding - SMART WORK instead of busy work - EFFECTIVE BEHAVIOUR instead of squeaking joints - QUALITY WORK instead of fast work - LOYALTY instead of turnover - WORKING TOGETHER instead of working against 	100	0	0	100
The manager's job is to create a reward system through which workers get what they want, the managers get what they want and the right things get done.	96	4	2	98

Questionnaire 5 – Reward Management

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?





B: Does senior management practice it?

<p>Managers need to encourage employee involvement, team work and integrated reward systems. They should reward people who are willing to streamline, to change and to take risks. Success and accomplishment are what really motivate people.</p>	<p>A 0</p> <p>B</p>		<p>100% 0%</p> <p>2% 98%</p>	<p>Yes No</p> <p>Yes No</p>
<p>A high level of autonomy makes workers more responsible and accountable for their acts. Feedback gives them a useful understanding of their roles and functions.</p>	<p>A 0</p> <p>B</p>		<p>100% 0%</p> <p>4% 96%</p>	<p>Yes No</p> <p>Yes No</p>
<p>Always treat your employees exactly as you would like them to treat your best customers. Learn to help them with more than just their jobs: help them with their lives. Build them up, don't tear them down. The only justification for looking down on someone is to lift them up. Trust them and they will be true to you: treat them greatly and they will show themselves great.</p>	<p>A 0</p> <p>B 0</p>		<p>100% 0%</p> <p>0% 100%</p>	<p>Yes No</p> <p>Yes No</p>
<p>Our organizations are covered with negative incentives. These are all sorts of inducements and rewards for counter-productive behaviour. Managers hope for A, unwillingly or willingly reward B and they wonder why they get B.</p>	<p>A</p> <p>B</p>		<p>98% 2%</p> <p>96% 4%</p>	<p>Yes No</p> <p>Yes No</p>
<p>Managers should reward:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - SIMPLIFICATION instead of needless complication - DECISIVE ACTION instead of paralysis by analyses - SOLID SOLUTIONS instead of quick fixes - RISK TAKING instead of Risk avoiding - SMART WORK instead of busy work - EFFECTIVE BEHAVIOUR instead of squeaking joints - QUALITY WORK instead of fast work - LOYALTY instead of turnover - WORKING TOGETHER instead of working against 	<p>A 0</p> <p>B 0</p>		<p>100% 0%</p> <p>0% 100%</p>	<p>Yes No</p> <p>Yes No</p>

Questionnaire 5 – Reward Management (continue)

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?

B: Does senior management practice it?

The manager's job is to create a reward system through which workers get what they want, the managers get what they want and the right things get done.	A		96%	Yes
			4%	No
	B		2%	Yes
			98%	No

Analysis: 99% of respondents agree with the statements. Between 96 and 100% of respondents indicate that Senior Management do not practice the required behaviour.











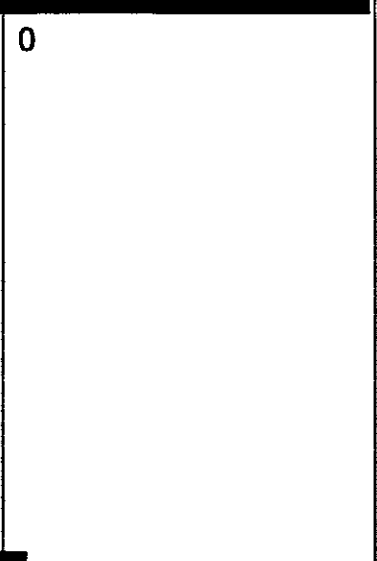

9.3.2.6 Questionnaire 6 – Motivation

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
The general feeling that the work environment is a rewarding environment rather than a punishing environment seems to be a key to employee involvement and commitment.	100	0	0	100
Managers and organizations create the very conditions that lead to poor morale and low productivity.	100	0	4	96
People have long been considered expenses, while stock, supplies, equipment, buildings are viewed on the balance sheet as assets.	100	0	6	94
Employers have to learn that people are the assets.	100	0	4	96
Everybody wants to be considered somebody. Make them feel important.	100	0	2	98
Managers should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be assertive rather than aggressive - Trust and treat people with respect - View, frank, open opinions by staff not as disrespectful, or a threat - Encourage subordinates, to speak up their minds - Welcome people being frank and critical - Enjoy disagreement and a bit of conflict - Not install systems and procedures that control people's lives, but introduce systems that are the servants of the staff. - Manage to use to advantage the strengths and talents of the staff - Bring out the best in people and not to concentrate on their weaknesses, reducing their self-esteem and confidence. 	100	0	2	98
People want to belong. They want to have a "place to go". They want to interact with other people and to receive recognition and appreciation. They want the human contact and the sense of personal significance associated with inclusion and acceptance. They want to feel competent – to do things, which challenge them within limits of their abilities, and to conquer those challenges. They want to grow as individuals. People should find these satisfactions within the work environment.	100	0	0	100

Questionnaire 6 – Motivation

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?

B: Does senior management practice it?

The general feeling that the work environment is a rewarding environment rather than a punishing environment seems to be a key to employee involvement and commitment.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		0% 100%	Yes No
Managers and organizations create the very conditions that lead to poor morale and low productivity.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		4% 96%	Yes No
People have long been considered expenses, while stock, supplies, equipment, buildings are viewed on the balance sheet as assets.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		6% 94%	Yes No
Employers have to learn that people are the assets.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		6% 94%	Yes No
Everybody wants to be considered somebody. Make them feel important.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		2% 98%	Yes No
Managers should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be assertive rather than aggressive - Trust and treat people with respect - View, frank, open opinions by staff not as disrespectful, or a threat - Encourage subordinates, to speak up their minds - Welcome people being frank and critical - Enjoy disagreement and a bit of conflict - Not install systems and procedures that control people's lives, but introduce systems that are the servants of the staff. - Manage to use to advantage the strengths and talents of the staff - Bring out the best in people and not to concentrate on their weaknesses, reducing their self-esteem and confidence. 	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		2% 98%	Yes No

Questionnaire 6 – Motivation (continue)

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?

B: Does senior management practice it?

People want to belong. They want to have a "place to go". They want to interact with other people and to receive recognition and appreciation. They want the human contact and the sense of personal significance associated with inclusion and acceptance. They want to feel competent – to do things, which challenge them within limits of their abilities, and to conquer those challenges. They want to grow as individuals. People should find these satisfactions within the work environment.	A		100%	Yes
		0	0%	No
	B	0	0%	Yes
			100%	No

Analysis: 100% of respondents agree with the statements. Between 97 and 100% of respondents indicate that Senior Management do not practice it.

9.3.2.7 Questionnaire 7 – Use of Supervisory Power

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
"Because I'm the Boss, and I say so" should rarely be the basis on which decisions are made and work gets accomplished.	100	0	3	97
Most of weak managers concentrate their effort on keeping power and control to themselves by blocking information and not giving clear directions to expedite the job.	100	0	100	0
This centralization will always lead to delays, dissatisfaction, and loss of interest on the part of subordinates, which will ultimately lead to reduction in efficiency and effectiveness.	100	0	98	2
Manage by your knowledge and experience and not by the authority of your office. Do not obsess with power, and never degrade people or think you are above them.	100	0	0	100
It is legitimate for managers and leaders to say: "We do not know enough about this" and to ask for help from subordinates, without automatically being seen to be weak and unsuitable for the direction – giving role. To inspire trust: keep your commitments, admit your mistakes and say sorry.	100	0	6	94
Leaders should rely more on expert power, built on a foundation of continuous learning and a demonstrated ability to manage continuous quality improvements than a status derived from titles and positions within the hierarchy of the organization.	100	0	2	98
Good managers manage relationships up, down and sideways. They handle tasks by leading and empowering team members, collaborating for value-added wins with peers, and actively following superiors (supporting the superior's direction but challenging the direction if there is a better way).	100	0	15	85

Analysis: 100% of respondents agree with the statements. Between 85 and 100% of respondents indicate that Senior Management do not practice the correct behaviour in this regard.

Questionnaire 7 – Use of Supervisory Power

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?

B: Does senior management practice it?

<p>“Because I’m the Boss, and I say so” should rarely be the basis on which decisions are made and work gets accomplished.</p>	A		100%	Yes
	B		0%	No
<p>Most of weak managers concentrate their effort on keeping power and control to themselves by blocking information and not giving clear directions to expedite the job.</p>	A		3%	Yes
	B		97%	No
<p>This centralization will always lead to delays, dissatisfaction, and loss of interest on the part of subordinates, which will ultimately lead to reduction in efficiency and effectiveness.</p>	A		100%	Yes
	B		0%	No
<p>Manage by your knowledge and experience and not by the authority of your office. Do not obsess with power, and never degrade people or think you are above them.</p>	A		100%	Yes
	B		0%	No
<p>It is legitimate for managers and leaders to say: “We do not know enough about this” and to ask for help from subordinates, without automatically being seen to be weak and unsuitable for the direction – giving role. To inspire trust: keep your commitments, admit your mistakes and say sorry.</p>	A		100%	Yes
	B		0%	No
<p>Leaders should rely more on expert power, built on a foundation of continuous learning and a demonstrated ability to manage continuous quality improvements than a status derived from titles and positions within the hierarchy of the organization.</p>	A		6%	Yes
	B		94%	No
<p>Good managers manage relationships up, down and sideways. They handle tasks by leading and empowering team members, collaborating for value-added wins with peers, and actively following superiors (supporting the superior’s direction but challenging the direction if there is a better way).</p>	A		100%	Yes
	B		0%	No
			15%	Yes
			85%	No

9.3.2.8 Questionnaire 8 – Delegation

Statement	<i>Do you agree with this statement?</i>		<i>Does Senior Management practice it?</i>	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
If conventional management is largely about controlling the performers, successful management, on the other hand, is about encouraging and enabling talented performers to take appropriate control of their own work.	100	0	6	94
Delegation means working through people, breaking the barriers of fear of loss of power and authority, and fear of making mistakes. Delegation is not abdication. Co-ordination is retained, to hold an organization together.	100	0	7	93
Stewardship delegation is focused on results instead of methods. It gives people a choice of methods and makes them responsible for results. It involves clear, up-front, mutual understanding and commitment regarding expectations.	100	0	9	91
Managers must delegate responsibilities according to employee willingness and abilities and not to dump work. They must assign responsibility, granting authority.	95	5	9	91









9.3.2.9 Questionnaire 9 – Goal Oriented Behaviour

Statement	<i>Do you agree with this statement?</i>		<i>Does Senior Management practice it?</i>	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
The best managers are those with vision. They think about the future and what to do next, rather than what we did decades ago. They plan rather than react, and they act.	100	0	10	90
Effective managers are proactive, not reactive, and results driven as a result of being goal-oriented. When developing goals, they involve the employees meaningfully.	100	0	5	95
Too often, organizations, especially public entities, drift along, merely making incremental changes from one year to the next, without assessing the needs for course corrections.	100	0	2	98
Goals must be developed in a participative manner and communicated throughout the organization; there should be consistency in goals; goals must be revised and updated; and employees must be rewarded for goal achievement.	100	0	10	90
Establishing and reaching goals that are in support of the mission and strategic plans of the organization is one of the most important responsibilities of management.	100	0	8	92

Questionnaire 9 – Delegation

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?

B: Does senior management practice it?











If conventional management is largely about controlling the performers, successful management, on the other hand, is about encouraging and enabling talented performers to take appropriate control of their own work.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		6% 94%	Yes No
Delegation means working through people, breaking the barriers of fear of loss of power and authority, and fear of making mistakes. Delegation is not abdication. Co-ordination is retained, to hold an organization together.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		7% 93%	Yes No
Stewardship delegation is focused on results instead of methods. It gives people a choice of methods and makes them responsible for results. It involves clear, up-front, mutual understanding and commitment regarding expectations.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		9% 91%	Yes No
Managers must delegate responsibilities according to employee willingness and abilities and not to dump work. They must assign responsibility, granting authority.	A		95% 5%	Yes No
	B		9% 91%	Yes No

Analysis: 99% of respondents agree with the statements. Between 91 and 100% of respondents indicate that Senior Management do not practice it.

Questionnaire 9 – Goal Oriented Behaviour

Legend A: Do you agree with this statement?

B: Does senior management practice it?

The best managers are those with vision. They think about the future and what to do next, rather than what we did decades ago. They plan rather than react, and they act.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		10% 90%	Yes No
Effective managers are proactive, not reactive, and results driven as a result of being goal-oriented. When developing goals, they involve the employees meaningfully.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		5% 95%	Yes No
Too often, organizations, especially public entities, drift along, merely making incremental changes from one year to the next, without assessing the needs for course corrections.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		2% 98%	Yes No
Goals must be developed in a participative manner and communicated throughout the organization; there should be consistency in goals; goals must be revised and updated; and employees must be rewarded for goal achievement.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		10% 90%	Yes No
Establishing and reaching goals that are in support of the mission and strategic plans of the organization is one of the most important responsibilities of management.	A		100% 0%	Yes No
	B		8% 92%	Yes No

Analysis: 100% of respondents agree with the statements. Between 90 and 98% of respondents indicate that Senior Management do not practice it.

9.3.2.10 Questionnaire 10 – Management of Diversity

Q1. *What, in your opinion, is Management of Diversity?*

90% of the respondents were under the impression that Management of Diversity was about Affirmative Action, Employment Equity, i.e., about the need to have the numbers right. 90% of the respondents also tended to use diversity to refer to designated persons in terms of race and gender or simply anyone who is not a white male. So, white males were not included.

No one saw Managing Diversity, as the process of creating and maintaining an environment that naturally enables all organizational participants to reach their full potential, and that it relates to all members of the organization, not just selected target groups.

Most of the people failed to recognize that Diversity refers not only to the dimensions of race and gender but rather to an infinite number of dimensions and it means more than just cultural diversity, or managing quotas.

However 80% of respondents agreed that it would be difficult to have Affirmative Action succeed without generating white male backlash and charges of preferential treatment, since AA does not include white males.

Q2. *Do you think that Management of Diversity is an important issue for South African organizations? Can managing diversity make a difference?*

50% of the respondents said, yes, it is important. However the non-white respondents saw it as important to only redress the inequalities of the past discrimination.

For the white respondents, it took the form of affirmative action. "We don't have enough of the previously disadvantaged people, such as blacks and woman – we'd better hire some to make up for all those years of negligence".

100% of the white respondents felt that this attitude created a backlash with the white male respondents. They felt that they will be overlooked so that a “quota can be filled”. It created an “us versus them” mentality, and an adversarial environment that is unproductive.

Only 10% of the respondents agreed that it is important for managers to develop the real potential of the mix of the people, thus capitalizing on the competitive opportunities offered by employee diversity.

Q3. *Do you see Diversity as a problem or an opportunity? Do you believe that diversity of racioethnic, gender cultural, and other identities in the work force brings net added value to the organization?*

70% of the respondents saw people's diversity as a problem, mainly because diversity was positioned in a way that one group take continuous blame for the past, making unity impossible.

A focus on only culture, race and gender, which ignores ability (skills) and competence – and constantly blames the white male for past injustices – only increases the polarization between groups.

For 80% of the respondents, managing diversity was viewed as controlling or coping with, and believed that associating diversity with management is to imply that diversity is a problem, and a liability.

85% of the respondents failed to see the advantages and benefits offered by work groups that are not unified in one culture, history, race, or gender, and how much more can be achieved with a cross-section of the richest mix of ethnic groups and races.

They failed to understand that the richer the mix, the broader the perspectives and the greater the creativity.

Q4. *Do you think that ignorance of cultural differences is a source of ineffectiveness and inefficiency in the work performance of diverse workgroups?*

On this question the respondents were 50% equally divided in their responses.

About half said yes, ignoring cultural differences can be a source of lower work performance.

The other half did not think that it will make a difference, or even by acknowledging those differences it will only create more problems.

80% of the respondents failed to understand that Managing Diversity and differences are not the same, and Diversity includes similarities and differences.

Another limitation on the respondent's answers was the assumption that the major source of discrimination is within personal relationships. This premises, ignores discriminatory capability unintentionally and intentionally built into organizational systems and cultures, and leaves in place conditions that do not work naturally to enable all people to reach their full potential in pursuit of the organization's objectives.

Only about half of the respondents agreed that managers should learn that differences do not mean weaknesses and that by diversifying the workforce the competitive ability in the long term is optimized.

Q5. *Who do you think is responsible for managing diversity?*

Because 90% respondents, saw managing diversity as quota filling, as laws imposed on people, they perceived Managing of Diversity, being just about race and gender or the previously disadvantaged groups in the work place, to be the responsibility of the Human Resources Department.

They did not see diversity as a responsibility of everyone for creating proactively a culture where each individual can develop and contribute to the organization, and human plurality thrives in harmony not in danger of potential destructive conflicts.

Q6. *What, in your opinion, are the most important “direct change drivers”, that when incorporated into the overall strategic management process, will bring about effective diversity leadership.*

90% saw Affirmative Action and Employment Equity as the most important change drivers, driven by legislation, focused on demographic profile change, government mandated to change historic patterns of discrimination, with the sole beneficiaries as the protected groups.

90% of the respondents did not see the change drivers as a process of creating and maintaining a positive environment where the differences of all personnel are recognized, understood, and valued, so that all can reach their full potential, and maximize their contribution, without discrimination.

In fact 90% of the respondents did not see Diversity being the uniqueness of all individuals that encompasses different personal attributes, values, and organizational roles.

90% of the respondents see diversity mainly in terms of racial fortresses.

Q7. *Do you think Diversity Management and Affirmative Action / Employment Equity is the same?*

90% respondent's answers to question 1, have shown a general misconception about Diversity Management being the same as Affirmative Action (AA) or Employment Equity (EE). Most of the respondents saw AA and EE as management of diversity practices to get the numbers right, the “right the wrongs” approach, and mainly through “quota filling”.

They see managing diversity as legislative laws. 95% of the respondents failed to understand that Diversity Management entails an inclusive and positive attitude, which does not focus on the partition of differences, but celebrates the commonality of difference.

Q8. *South Africa is a rainbow nation. Do you think it is a correct statement?*

80% of the respondents expressed the feeling that it is only in name. It success will depend on managing the high expectations of the black people for improved quality of life on the one hand, and the white negative fears on the other hand. In other words, the issue of Affirmative Action and

how it will be managed will determine the success of the current efforts at nation building in South Africa.

85% of the respondents agreed that there are still too much distrust based on class, ethnicity, and other factors, setting people apart, so the various ethnic groups still do not have a common agenda.

85% of the respondents agreed that many people tend not to have a sense of national identity and tend to be hooked up in narrow ethnic and racial mind-sets.

So 85% of the respondents see South Africa as a rainbow nation only when an ethnic and racial trust is created to overcome the tragedy of apartheid.

60% respondents expressed the fear that the slogan "Rainbow Nation" promotes multiculturalism and not non-racialism and hence the reproduction of a neo-apartheid state, with people remained forever in their racial fortress.

9.4 The Quantitative Research findings

The quantitative research was structured around the 3 questionnaires comprising a total of 80 questions.

The questionnaires were personally delivered by the researcher to 100 staff members from supervisory to middle management level of the different Provincial Administration departments.

The respondent's findings are indicated as a percentage of the total number of respondents, i.e. a percentage of respondents out of 100. So, if the 100 respondents answered yes, it is equivalent to 100%. If 60 respondents answered yes, it is equivalent to 60%. For the sake of simplification the symbol %, is not shown.

Based on these percentages, an analysis of results is also indicated, in graphical form (bar chart) for easier comparison.

In the case of 0% (zero percentage), the result of no respondent's answers, a number zero is indicated on the bar chart for simpler understanding.

9.4.1 The Quantitative Research questionnaires and finding of results

9.4.1.1 Questionnaire 1

Please place a where you think it is appropriate.

1. NEVER 2. SOMETIMES 3. FREQUENTLY 4. ALWAYS

Statement of practices	Do you agree with this practice or statement?		Do you think that Senior Management practices it in the work place?			
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4
1. Change from Vertical, Empirical organizational structures, to Horizontal, more flat structures, to promote better communications and decision making.	100	0	100			
2. Organisations are shifting from purely functional organizations, to those that better accommodate Horizontal Work Flows, replacing narrowly focused departments and functions, each working in silos, independent of the others.	95	5	100			
3. The existing bureaucratic organization structure of the Public Service, make subordinates "passive", if not negative, and "dependent", and decrease their sense of responsibility and self control. Particularly at lower levels, employees become dissatisfied and frustrated in their work. The results are increased unhappiness and more problems in meeting goals and standards of performance.	100	0				100
4. Organisational transformation begins with people. It begins inside every employee. It begins with something who causes each of us to think, see, feel and act in new ways.	100	0	90	10		
5. I-centric behaviours end up catalyzing toxic behaviours within the Public Service such as Internal competitions, Self-interest and Attachment to the past.	100	0			40	60

1. NEVER 2. SOMETIMES 3. FREQUENTLY 4. ALWAYS

Statement of practices	<i>Do you agree with this practice or statement?</i>		<i>Do you think that Senior Management practices it in the work place?</i>			
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4
6. Power over Leadership: Exclusive, Being in control, Criticising and judging others, Punishing risk taking, Instilling fear, Silo mentality, Dictating commands, Compliant	0	100			15	85
7. Power with Leadership: Inclusive, Developing partnerships, Appreciating others, Encouraging Risk taking, Instilling hope, Encouraging sharing, Developing, Committed to a higher purpose	100	0	90	10		
8. We-centric Leadership ends up catalyzing co-creation and building collaboration in a mutual partnership for shaping and crafting the future.	100	0	95	5		
9. Context of community: give the whole team a chance to see the larger challenges facing the company, look at the business issues and focus on what the organization needs to survive and thrive. Think of the organization as a community of people who depend on one another for mutual success.	100	0	100			
10. Agreement: help the team members find things they can agree on as they talk about the business issues, so they will emerge with successful decisions together.	100	0	90	10		
11. Reframe conflict: give the team a chance to look at conflict in a healthy way and come up with new and better decisions and perspectives.	100	0	80	20		
12. Teamwork: give the team a way to look at its team dynamics and improve them.	100	0	80	20		

1. NEVER 2. SOMETIMES 3. FREQUENTLY 4. ALWAYS

Statement of practices	<i>Do you agree with this practice or statement?</i>		<i>Do you think that Senior Management practices it in the work place?</i>			
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4
13. Conversational skills: teach the team new ways to communicate to turn breakdowns into breakthroughs.	100	0	100			
14. Co-creating is the we affirming style of leadership that brings colleagues together to create the culture they need for success, an interactive dialogue about creating the future together.	100	0	100			
15. Co-creating is a shared investment in creating the future. For a fundamental shift to occur in the organization, leaders need to embrace inclusion and mutuality, to encourage co-creation rather than competition and blind conformity to rules and regulations.	100	0	100			
16. When we become aware of how we affect others and the experience we create with them, we are living a three dimensional experience of leadership – our view, other's people's view and the view of the person we become from our synthesis of the rich feedback we absorb from both outside and inside.	100	0	100			
17. People need to know "what's important around here". They need to know what concerns top management. They need to know the organisation's mission and their role in it. They need to know that they can create and share ideas – and that their ideas count. They need to know that when they speak, someone is listening.	90	10	85	15		
18. True Leadership is the creation of a culture or a relationship surrounding a common vision. It is knowing the difference between cornering people and getting them in your corner.	100	0	100			

1. NEVER 2. SOMETIMES 3. FREQUENTLY 4. ALWAYS

Statement of practices	Do you agree with this practice or statement?		Do you think that Senior Management practices it in the work place?			
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4
19. The image of the manager in the 1980's does not fit the manager of the year's 2000. What worked in the organizations of 1980's, either public or private, may not work at all in the twenty first century.	92	8	100			
20. To productively produce high quality Goods and Services, and Learn faster how to Innovate For Competitive Advantage, Public Service Managers should pay more attention to their people and to understand that when they hire people, they don't just get their hands; they get their hearts and minds and souls as well.	100	0	100			
21. Success in the future will come to those with the ability to cast aside old assumptions and reinvent themselves in surprising new ways. New perspectives lead to re-thinking business values and policies, so that learning and leading replace controlling and copying.	100	0	90	10		
22. Focused on day-to-day bush fires, public managers are preoccupied with short-term goals. They don't know how to create new choices, and still they can't find the time to continually push their people to think ... to dream ... to experiment ... to ask ... what if.	95	5	?	?	?	?
23. Public Service Top Managers have difficulty in understanding that the vitality of any organization depends on individual initiative, team work, creativity and intreprenuer endeavour, meeting challenges, growing, developing and keep moving.	92	8	?	?	?	?
24. Public Service Managers, on the whole, are more interested in "administering and controlling the job", and least competent at coaching and mentoring, facilitating change and innovation, managing conflict and relationships and building trust – all crucial factors in the new era.	100	0			10	90










1. NEVER 2. SOMETIMES 3. FREQUENTLY 4. ALWAYS

Statement of practices	<i>Do you agree with this practice or statement?</i>		<i>Do you think that Senior Management practices it in the work place?</i>			
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4
25. Many of our institutions are reasonably well "administered" but not so well "managed", and very poorly led.	100	0	?	?	?	?
26. Strategic Planning in the Public Service is subject to the first law of bureaucracy: it focuses on form rather than substance, through "remote control" management methodology.	90	10			20	80
27. True leaders, expect the best of people. Their tools of choice are dialogue, respect, trust, openness, challenges and praises. They create a climate in which problems are opportunities, and everyone's a hero, by harnessing the enthusiasm of their people, and aligning their energy.	100	0	.100			
28. The key strategic issues that now face organizations revolve around escaping their limits, applying their knowledge in new ways and building an environment where, Excellence, Innovation and Anticipation are the norm.	100	0	100			
29. The Public Service should create incentives to control costs and eliminate waste, with the goal of limiting public spending more closely to the rate of real economic growth.	100	0	90	10		
30. The Public Service should have an informed understanding of customer expectations, coupled with the ability to execute what it decides to do, with and end-to-end process management capability.	100	0	90	10		

Questionnaire 1

Legend: Does Senior Management practice it in the work place?













1. Never 2. Sometimes 3. Frequently 4. Always

1. Change from Vertical, Empirical organizational structures, to Horizontal, more flat structures, to promote better communications and decision-making.	1		100%
	2	0	0
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
2. Organisations are shifting from purely functional organizations, to those that better accommodate Horizontal Work Flows, replacing narrowly focused departments and functions, each working in silos, independent of the others.	1		100%
	2	0	0
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
3. The existing bureaucratic organization structure of the Public Service, make subordinates "passive", if not negative, and "dependent", and decrease their sense of responsibility and self control. Particularly at lower levels, employees become dissatisfied and frustrated in their work. The results are increased unhappiness and more problems in meeting goals and standards of performance.	1	0	0
	2	0	0
	3	0	0
	4		100%
4. Organisational transformation begins with people. It begins inside every employee. It begins with something who causes each of us to think, see, feel and act in new ways.	1		90%
	2		10%
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
5. I-centric behaviours end up catalyzing toxic behaviours within the Public Service such as Internal competitions, Self-interest and Attachment to the past.	1	0	0
	2	0	0
	3		40%
	4		60%
6. Power over Leadership: Exclusive, Being in control, Criticising and judging others, Punishing risk taking, Instilling fear, Silo mentality, Dictating commands, Compliant	1	0	0
	2	0	0
	3		15%
	4		85%

Questionnaire 1 (continue)

Legend: Does Senior Management practice it in the work place?

1. Never 2. Sometimes 3. Frequently 4. Always

7. Power with Leadership: Inclusive, Developing partnerships, Appreciating others, Encouraging Risk taking, Instilling hope, Encouraging sharing, Developing, Committed to a higher purpose	1		90%
	2		10%
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
8. We-centric Leadership ends up catalyzing co-creation and building collaboration in a mutual partnership for shaping and crafting the future.	1		95%
	2		5%
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
9. Context of community: give the whole team a chance to see the larger challenges facing the company, look at the business issues and focus on what the organization needs to survive and thrive. Think of the organization as a community of people who depend on one another for mutual success.	1		100%
	2	0	0
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
10. Agreement: help the team members find things they can agree on as they talk about the business issues, so they will emerge with successful decisions together.	1		90%
	2		10%
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
11. Reframe conflict: give the team a chance to look at conflict in a healthy way and come up with new and better decisions and perspectives.	1		80%
	2		20%
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
12. Teamwork: give the team a way to look at its team dynamics and improve them.	1		80%
	2		20%
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
13. Conversational skills: teach the team new ways to communicate to turn breakdowns into breakthroughs.	1		100%
	2	0	0
	3	0	0
	4	0	0

Questionnaire 1 (continue)

Legend: Does Senior Management practice it in the work place?






1. Never 2. Sometimes 3. Frequently 4. Always

14. Co-creating is the we affirming style of leadership that brings colleagues together to create the culture they need for success, an interactive dialogue about creating the future together.	1	100%
	2	0
	3	0
	4	0
15. Co-creating is a shared investment in creating the future. For a fundamental shift to occur in the organization, leaders need to embrace inclusion and mutuality, to encourage co-creation rather than competition and blind conformity to rules and regulations.	1	100%
	2	0
	3	0
	4	0
16. When we become aware of how we affect others and the experience we create with them, we are living a three dimensional experience of leadership – our view, other's people's view and the view of the person we become from our synthesis of the rich feedback we absorb from both outside and inside.	1	100%
	2	0
	3	0
	4	0
17. People need to know "what's important around here". They need to know what concerns top management. They need to know the organisation's mission and their role in it. They need to know that they can create and share ideas – and that their ideas count. They need to know that when they speak, someone is listening	1	85%
	2	15%
	3	0
	4	0
18. True Leadership is the creation of a culture or a relationship surrounding a common vision. It is knowing the difference between cornering people and getting them in your corner.	1	100%
	2	0
	3	0
	4	0
19. The image of the manager in the 1980's does not fit the manager of the year's 2000. What worked in the organizations of 1980's, either public or private, may not work at all in the twenty first century.	1	100%
	2	0
	3	0
	4	0

Questionnaire 1 (continue)

Legend: Does Senior Management practice it in the work place?

1. Never 2. Sometimes 3. Frequently 4. Always

20. To productively produce high quality Goods and Services, and Learn faster how to Innovate For Competitive Advantage, Public Service Managers should pay more attention to their people and to understand that when they hire people, they don't just get their hands; they get their hearts and minds and souls as well.	1		100%
	2	0	0
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
21. Success in the future will come to those with the ability to cast aside old assumptions and reinvent themselves in surprising new ways. New perspectives lead to re-thinking business values and policies, so that learning and leading replace controlling and copying.	1		90%
	2		10%
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
22. Focused on day-to-day bush fires, public managers are preoccupied with short-term goals. They don't know how to create new choices, and still they can't find the time to continually push their people to think ... to dream ... to experiment ... to ask ... what if.	1	?	?
	2	?	?
	3	?	?
	4	?	?
23. Public Service Top Managers have difficulty in understanding that the vitality of any organization depends on individual initiative, team work, creativity and intreprenuer endeavour, meeting challenges, growing, developing and keep moving.	1	?	?
	2	?	?
	3	?	?
	4	?	?
24. Public Service Managers, on the whole, are more interested in "administering and controlling the job", and least competent at coaching and mentoring, facilitating change and innovation, managing conflict and relationships and building trust – all crucial factors in the new era.	1	0	0
	2	0	0
	3		10%
	4		90%

Questionnaire 1 (continue)

Legend: Does Senior Management practice it in the work place?

1. Never 2. Sometimes 3. Frequently 4. Always

25. Many of our institutions are reasonably well "administered" but not so well "managed", and very poorly led.	1	?	?
	2	?	?
	3	?	?
	4	?	?
26. Strategic Planning in the Public Service is subject to the first law of bureaucracy: it focuses on form rather than substance, through "remote control" management methodology.	1	0	0
	2	0	0
	3		20%
	4		80%
27. True leaders expect the best of people. Their tools of choice are dialogue, respect, trust, openness, challenges and praises. They create a climate in which problems are opportunities, and everyone's a hero, by harnessing the enthusiasm of their people, and aligning their energy.	1		100
	2	0	0
	3	0	0%
	4	0	0%
28. The key strategic issues that now face organizations revolve around escaping their limits, applying their knowledge in new ways and building an environment where, Excellence, Innovation and Anticipation are the norm.	1		100%
	2	0	0
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
29. The Public Service should create incentives to control costs and eliminate waste, with the goal of limiting public spending more closely to the rate of real economic growth.	1		90%
	2		10%
	3	0	0
	4	0	0
30. The Public Service should have an informed understanding of customer expectations, coupled with the ability to execute what it decides to do, with and end-to-end process management capability.	1		90%
	2		10%
	3	0	0
	4	0	0

9.4.1.2 Questionnaire 2

Please place a where you think it is appropriate.

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Agree 4. Strongly Agree

Does the Public Service		1	2	3	4
1.	Need better results but rewards those who look busiest and work the longest hours?			8	92
2.	Asks for quality work but set unreasonable deadlines?			15	85
3.	Want solid solutions to problems, but rewards quick fixes?			10	90
4.	Needs simplicity but rewards those who complicate matters and generate trivia?			7	93
5.	Asks for harmonious work environment but rewards squeaking joints who complain the most?		5	12	83
6.	Needs creative workers but chastise those who dare to be different?			4	96
7.	Talks about frugality but awards the largest budget increases to those who exhaust all of their resources?			6	94
8.	Asks for teamwork but rewards one team member at the expense of another?			2	98
9.	Needs innovation but penalizes unsuccessful risks and reward going by the book?			2	98
10.	Has lots of people in motion but not much getting done?		4	16	80
11.	Believes that the way the department has always done a job is the only way to do it?		2	8	90
12.	Awards the largest budget increases and new staff positions to those who spend the most?			8	92
13.	Finds it impossible to make rapid decisions or changes because of a morass of policies procedures, forms and committees?			0	100

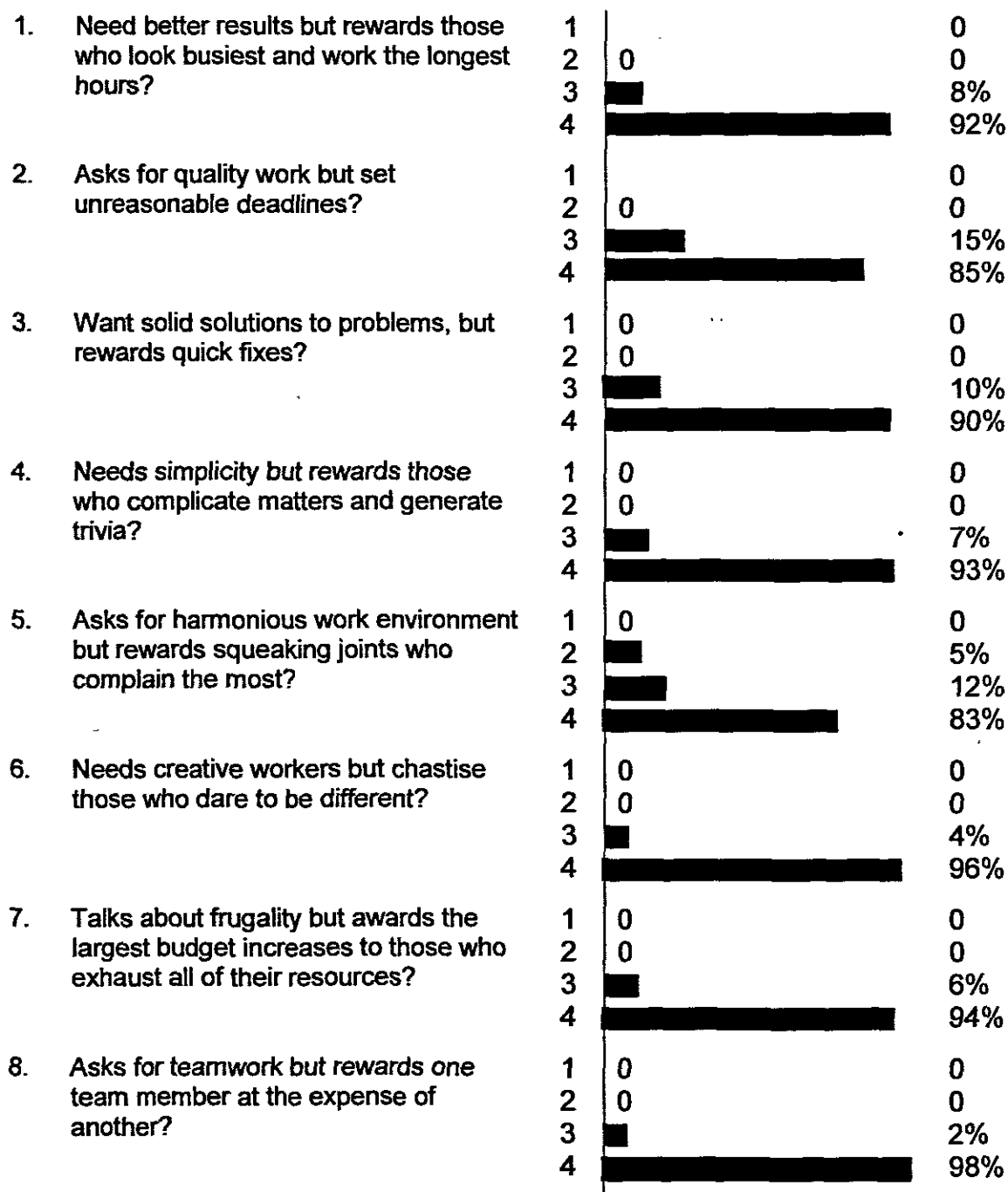
1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Agree 4. Strongly Agree

Does the Public Service		1	2	3	4
14.	Never remembers when you're right and never forgets when you're wrong?		6	14	80
15.	Has difficulty understanding why people aren't committed to their jobs?		15	20	65
16.	Lives in perpetual rush without a vision and no goals, no work pride, no accountability.		4	6	90
17.	Accepts detachment and resentment as normal work practices?		6	4	90
18.	Confuses activity with accomplishment?		6	6	88
19.	Confuses contribution with commitment?		4	4	92
20.	Confuses compliance with commitment?		4	4	92
21.	Confuses busy work with results?		4	5	91
22.	Confuses information with communication?		8	4	88
23.	Confuses movement with motivation?			6	94
24.	Confuses abdication with delegation?		2	17	81
25.	Confuses paralysis by analysis with decision-making?		4	15	81
26.	Confuses intentions with deeds?			6	94
27.	Confuses administration and control with management & leadership ?			10	90
28.	Rely on "Systems", "Procedures", "Power" and other weapons in its effort to get things done?			2	98
29.	Foster a climate in which secrecy prevails and covering up and playing it safe is the first priority? The way they get things done is by using orders, threats, anger, arguments, and punishment. Its followers fear and resent them.			3	97
30.	Foster a climate where Politics and who you know, becomes more important than who you are?			2	98

Questionnaire 2

Legend: Does the Public Service -

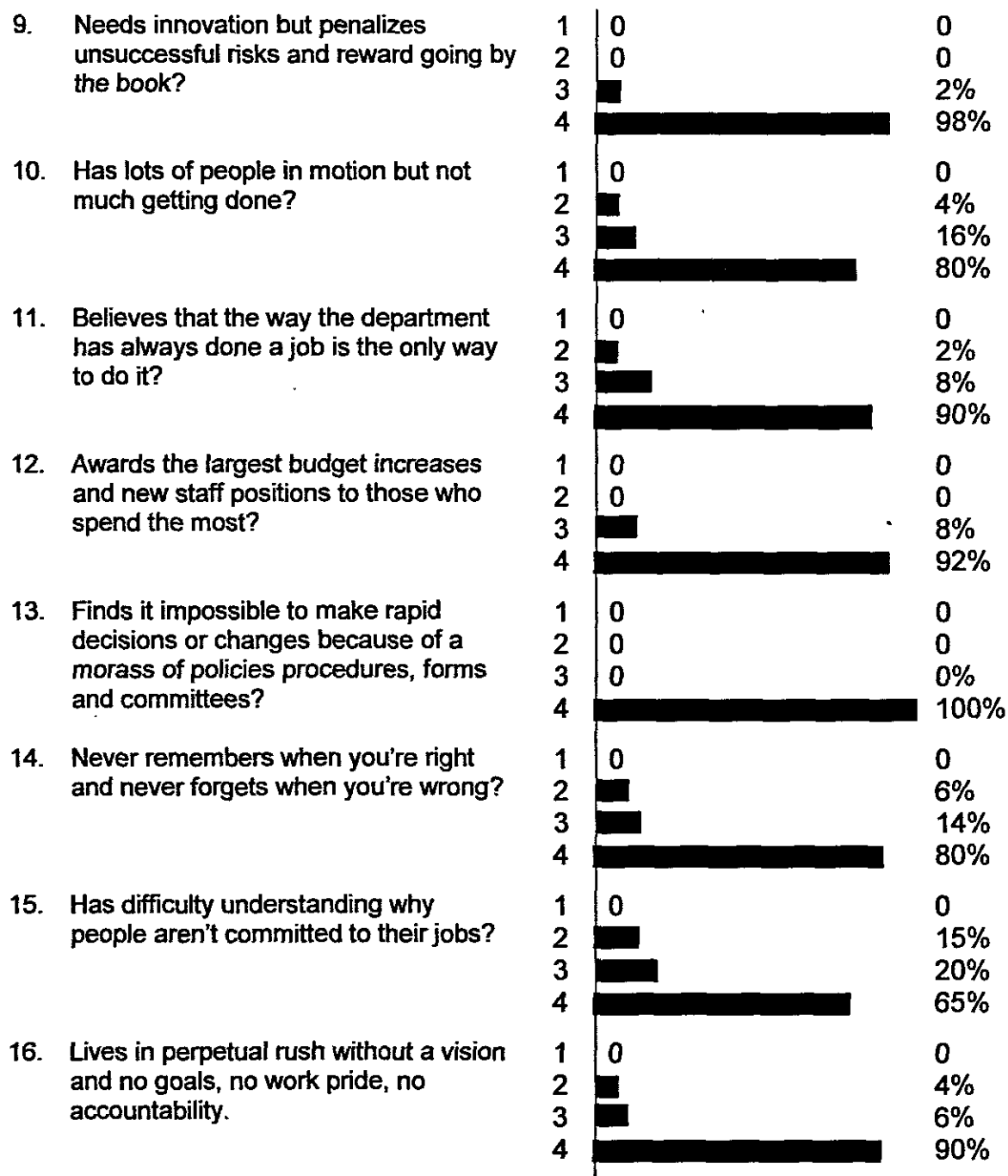
1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Agree 4. Strongly Agree



Questionnaire 2 (continue)

Legend: Does the Public Service -

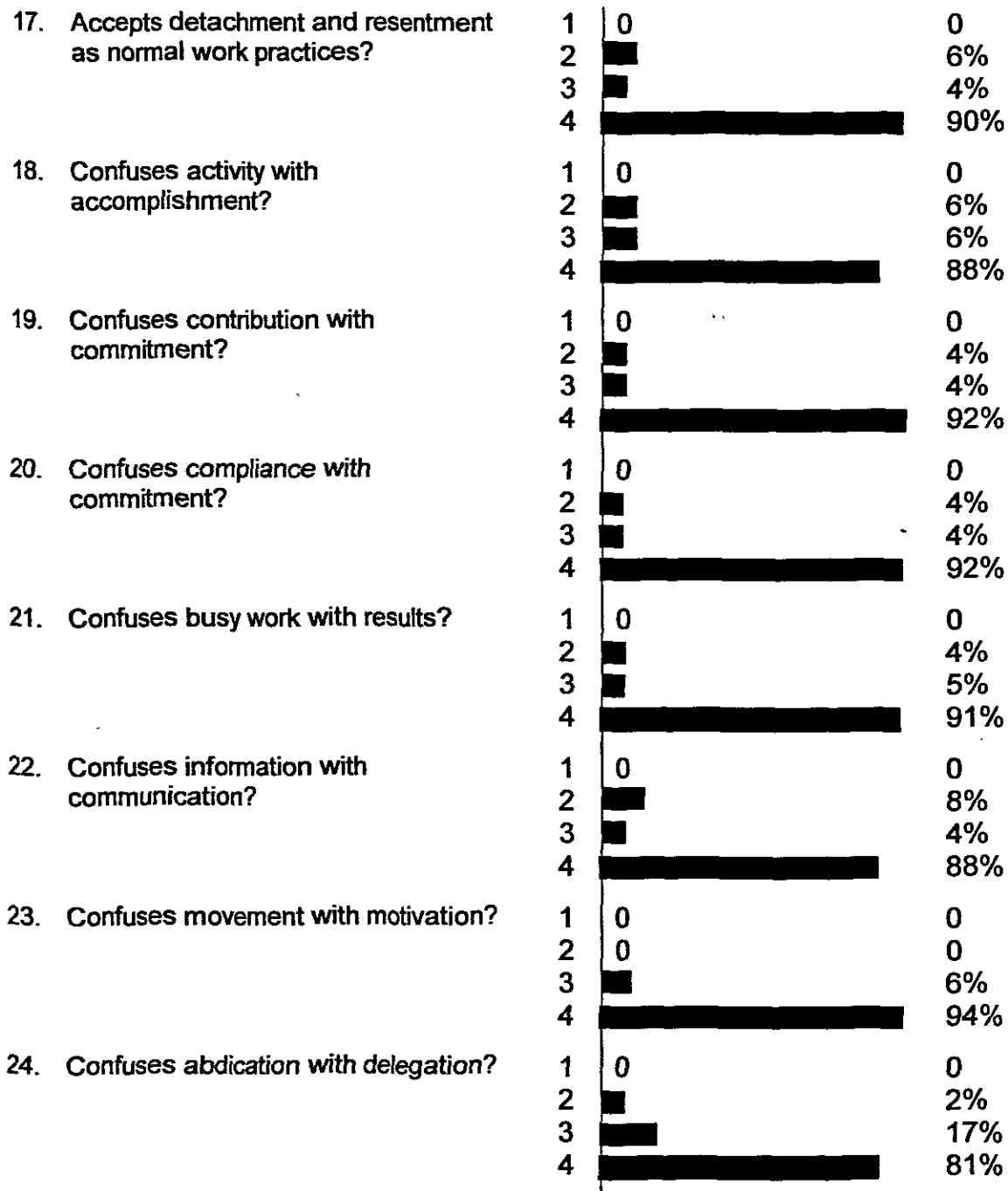
1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Agree 4. Strongly Agree



Questionnaire 2 (continue)

Legend: Does the Public Service -

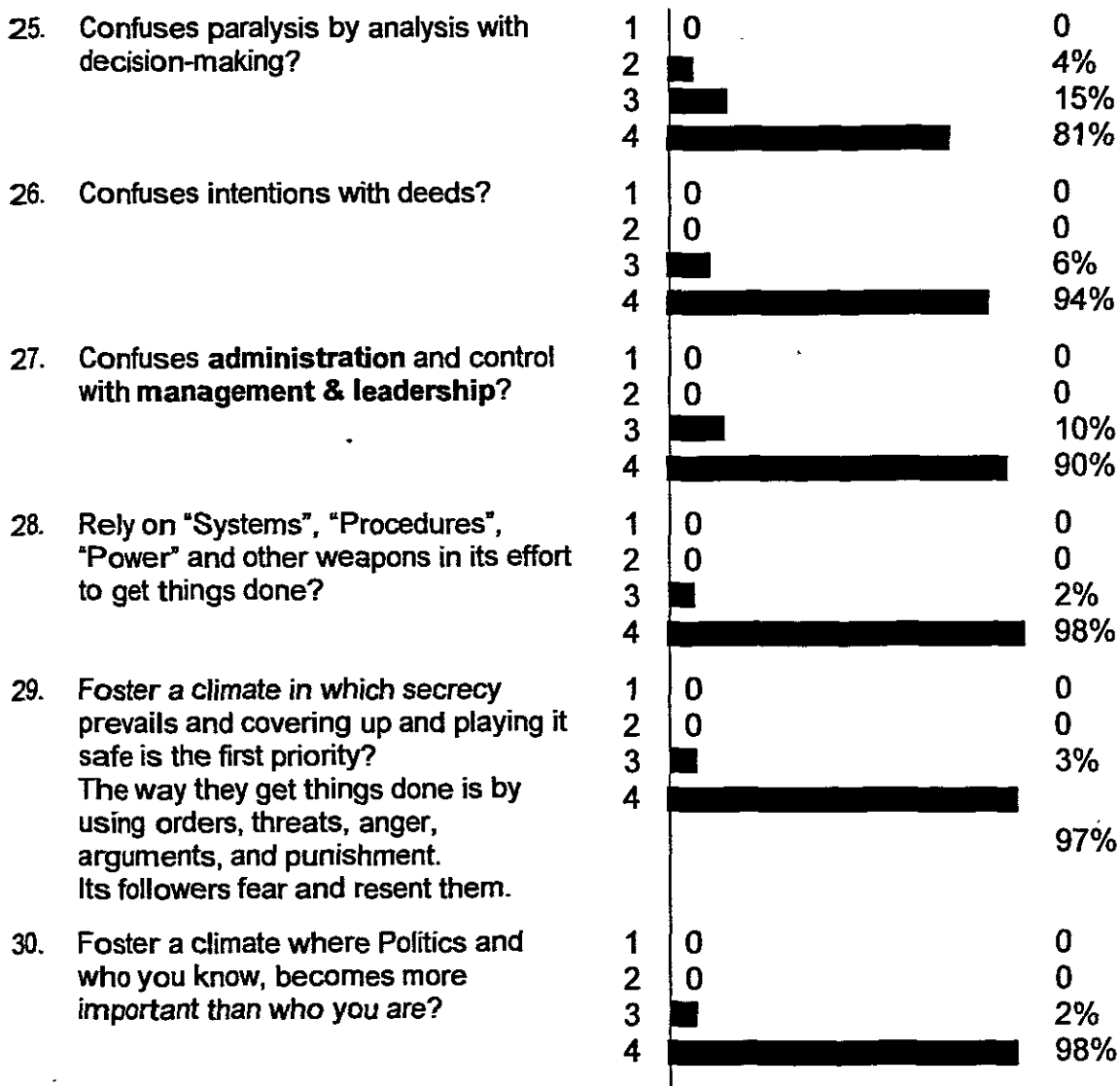
1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Agree 4. Strongly Agree



Questionnaire 2 (continue)

Legend: Does the Public Service -

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Agree 4. Strongly Agree



9.4.1.3 Questionnaire 3

Below are statements for different management attitudes.

In the Public Sector environment, which statement do you think is closer to the reality you experience in the work place?

Please place a where you think it is appropriate. (Choose between right or left statement.)

	Statement	X	Statement	X
1	Managers who make reasonable efforts to supply staff with the "tools" needed to perform their functions.	0	Managers who portray the attitude "If I could do without it in my day, you can do without it today".	100
2	Managers who provide appropriate training so staff is capable of performing in a professional manner.	4	Managers who are "too busy" to train their people how to perform in the appropriate manner.	96
3	Managers who are trained in supervisory and management skills.	2	Managers who have received no training in management skills	98
4	Managers who are sincerely interested, and who assist their subordinates in career development and advancement, even if it means losing good people to other departments.	6	Managers who selfishly hold their people back from job enrichment and advancement opportunities.	94
5	Managers who reinforce the organisation's staff training programmes.	5	Managers who don't let employees use the new skills they learn.	95
6	Managers who take the time to get more people involved in special assignments and projects.	8	Managers who use only a chosen few for special projects and assignments.	92
7	Managers who take the time to coach their staff for improved performance.	0	Managers who do not coach or do so in a way that damages the subordinate's self-esteem.	100
8	Managers who are fair to their employees.	0	Managers who are inconsistent in their dealings with staff and exhibit signs of favouritism.	100
9	Managers who are promoted to their respective positions because they have performed well and shown signs of leadership.	8	Managers who are promoted to their respective positions, without regard for their leadership abilities.	92

	Statement	X	Statement	X
10	Managers who sincerely care about staff and demonstrate this attitude. They treat subordinates as mature adults. Staff feels comfortable, important, co-operative and motivated.	0	Managers who rule by fear, threats, and intimidation. This is usually perceived as a threat to a person's need for safety, belonging and self-esteem.	100
11	Managers who communicate on a regular basis with subordinates. Staff feels important, part of a team, and well informed. These employees feel comfortable because they are not embarrassed by customer enquiries about matters of which they should be aware but aren't.	2	Managers who do not take the time and interest to keep their staff informed. Another de-motivator is lack of uniformity in the information disseminated to staff. A person's self-esteem is attached when a customer learns of changes before the staff is informed.	98
12	Managers who defend and "protect" their staff's self-esteem in problems and conflicts.	8	Managers who embarrass their employees in front of others, especially in situations where the person on the staff is following established procedures.	92
13	Managers who encourage and seriously consider the ideas and suggestions of employees.	10	Managers who always respond or react negatively to the ideas and suggestions of employees.	90
14	Managers who sincerely compliment staff for jobs well done. The compliments are given immediately, whenever a situation warrants praise.	8	Managers who never say thanks, or who wait for the annual appraisal to do so.	92
15	Managers who take the time and interest to place each employee in the job for which he is most suited and in which he is most interested .	7	Managers who fill slots with people not equipped with the appropriate talents or dispositions to achieve success and happiness.	93
16	Managers who take the time simply to say hello to their subordinates.	2	Managers who seldom chat with their subordinates.	98
17	Managers discuss and agree systems with those who will do the work.	2	Managers impose their own systems and ways of working	98
18	Managers let others make decisions within their capabilities and stand by those decisions.	1	Managers insist on clearing all decisions themselves	99
19	Managers take hostile or defensive attitude towards other groups.	3	Managers collaborate as much as possible with the rest of the organization.	97
20	Managers who love change and are pro-active , always looking to exploit new opportunities.	2	Managers who love the maintenance of the status quo and only react to problems.	98

Questionnaire 3

Legend: In the Public Sector environment, which statement do you think is closer to the reality you experience in the work place?

1. Managers who make reasonable efforts to supply staff with the "tools" needed to perform their functions. or Managers who portray the attitude "If I could do without it in my day, you can do without it today".	0 ████████████████████ 100%	0 100%
2. Managers who provide appropriate training so staff is capable of performing in a professional manner. or Managers who are "too busy" to train their people how to perform in the appropriate manner.	████████ ████████████████████ 96%	4% 96%
3. Managers who are trained in supervisory and management skills . or Managers who have received no training in management skills	████████ ████████████████████ 98%	2% 98%
4. Managers who are sincerely interested , and who assist their subordinates in career development and advancement, even if it means losing good people to other departments. or Managers who selfishly hold their people back from job enrichment and advancement opportunities.	████████ ████████████████████ 94%	6% 94%
5. Managers who reinforce the organisation's staff training programmes. or Managers who don't let employees use the new skills they learn.	████████ ████████████████████ 95%	5% 95%
6. Managers who take the time to get more people involved in special assignments and projects. or Managers who use only a chosen few for special projects and assignments.	████████ ████████████████████ 92%	8% 92%
7. Managers who take the time to coach their staff for improved performance. or Managers who do not coach or do so in a way that damages the subordinate's self-esteem.	0 ████████████████████ 100%	0 100%

Questionnaire 3 (continue)

Legend: In the Public Sector environment, which statement do you think is closer to the reality you experience in the work place?

13. Managers who encourage and seriously consider the ideas and suggestions of employees.	■	10%
or		
Managers who always respond or react negatively to the ideas and suggestions of employees.	■	90%
14. Managers who sincerely compliment staff for jobs well done. The compliments are given immediately, whenever a situation warrants praise.	■	8%
or		
Managers who never say thanks, or who wait for the annual appraisal to do so.	■	92%
15. Managers who take the time and interest to place each employee in the job for which he is most suited and in which he is most interested.	■	7%
or		
Managers who fill slots with people not equipped with the appropriate talents or dispositions to achieve success and happiness.	■	93%
16. Managers who take the time simply to say hello to their subordinates.	■	2%
or		
Managers who seldom chat with their subordinates.	■	98%
17. Managers discuss and agree systems with those who will do the work.	■	2%
or		
Managers impose their own systems and ways of working	■	98%
18. Managers let others make decisions within their capabilities and stand by those decisions.	■	1%
or		
Managers insist on clearing all decisions themselves	■	99%
19. Managers take hostile or defensive attitude towards other groups.	■	3%
or		
Managers collaborate as much as possible with the rest of the organization.	■	97%

9.5 Summary of findings

During the qualitative research the researcher as applied the technique of unstructured interviews and semi structured interviews, with face-to-face interviews utilized as part of the methodology for the study.

With the unstructured interviews, the researcher had an idea in mind of the topics to be covered, but neither the specific questions to be asked nor the range or type of possible answers were pre-defined.

It involved mainly an unstructured interviewing, informal and conversational, with the aim to get the informants to “open up”, and to let them express themselves in their own terms, without injecting too much of the researcher’s words, ideas or concepts into the conversation. Doing it this way, it allowed the interviewer to be responsive to individual differences and situational characteristics. It helped to discover relevant questions and their appropriate wording for semi-structured interviews and questionnaires. It was also useful for building initial rapport with informants and for studying sensitive topics such as information about their perception of senior management performance.

An advantage of using interviews to obtain information was that questions could be explained while behaviour and attitude used could be observed through the face-to-face meeting.

The semi-structured interviews were based on the use of an interview guide (qualitative research, questionnaires 1 to 10). The questionnaires were a written list of questions and topics that needed to be covered during the interview. In this way the researcher has decided how best to use the time available for the interview. The interview had the explicit purpose of obtaining information through a structured conversation based on a prearranged set of questions.

The qualitative methods used by the researcher, did not primarily seek to provide quantified answers to research questions. The goal was mainly the development of concepts which would help to understand the phenomena in natural settings, giving due emphasis to the meanings, experiences, and views of all participants.

However, the questionnaires helped the researcher to focus on what he wanted from the interview, but still allowed both the researcher and informant to follow new leads. It also, because the same core of list of questions were asked of each respondent, the data from the interviews were easier to systematize.

The qualitative research was also useful as a complementary, rather than exclusive, to the quantitative method. It was conducted as an essential preliminary to quantitative method, to help discover the most comprehensible terms to use in a subsequent survey questionnaire and to provide a description and understanding of a situation or behaviour, i.e. the interviewee's own *framework of meaning*.

During the quantitative research the structured interview involved every informant in a sample to the same stimuli (i.e. asking each informant the exact same question).

The questionnaires were designed to reflect a particular sequence for the extraction of observable data. The scale is called a summative scale (Pfeiffer & Heslin, 1973:34) that measures a statement a person can use to describe his or her level of understanding, skill, behaviour or attitude.

The data collection produced numerical, quantifiable data, by using rating scales and rank order methods, requiring the informants to rank items (i.e. from most to least) in terms of a specific characteristic, by putting numbers next to each item, or by asking them to order the items from, strongly agree to strongly disagree, or whatever the attribute of interest was. The rating scales and rank order methods produced a great deal of information, it was very productive for the time spent by the informant, and proved to be ideal for studying individual opinions and differences.

The use of a questionnaire was particularly useful when trying to ascertain the characteristics of a large population. Descriptive assertions can be made and can generally be proven to be accurate, whilst a standerdised questionnaire allowed the researcher the capability of ascertaining different intentions derived from the same question. Babie et al (2001:266) state that the use of self-administered questionnaires can be advantageous in the sense that they are speedy,

economical, lack interviewer bias (in terms of predetermined research objectives) while protecting privacy and ensuring anonymity.

However, a questionnaire cannot evaluate the context of social life in a department and the researcher rarely develops a comprehensive understanding of the dynamics for the total life situation that the respondents are facing. Finally, questionnaires can be subjective due to the fact that even though a respondent provides prejudiced answers, it does not necessarily mean that the respondent is prejudiced (Babbie et al. 2001:262-263).

The interviewer had to record the responses of interviewees accurately especially when answers describe attitudinal responses.

Initially, during the unstructured interviews the researcher used a tape recorder mainly for debriefing, although he also used it for recording in the setting, thinking that in this way, data collection and data recording could be combined. However the researcher found that without exception, the recording disrupted the naturalness of the conversation and the frankness and openness of the respondents, by fear of the informants being victimized by top management.

Even, the simple fact of the researcher trying to make notes during actual participant observation could significantly affect what occurs, due to fear of victimization.

Babbie et al. (2001:266) states that an essential characteristic of an interviewer should be to stay neutral without inflicting his or her own attitudes or interpretations on the response of the interviewee. The presence of the interviewer should, in no way affect the recording of the response given to the question.

In conclusion the qualitative and quantitative research results show that all respondents see senior management in a very negative way, regarding the practice of general management and leadership.

However, regarding Diversity Management the Qualitative research has shown that:

1. Most respondents are ignorant of any issues pertaining Management of Diversity;

2. Management of Diversity is seen mainly as a need for quota filling, and to conform with Affirmative Action and Employment Equity government directives;
3. However, an organization that emphasizes quota filling as diversity management will undermine the true intent of valuing diversity;
4. There are no formal policies with the aim of efficient and effective management of diversity within the workplace: i.e. to create a harmonious work environment without racial or cultural conflict, for the benefit of workers and the organization;
5. There is a general lack of understanding that Diversity can be very valuable and beneficial for the organization is properly managed, but can also be destructive, if not managed efficiently and effectively.

Besides the qualitative and quantitative research questionnaires already mentioned, there was also a set of questions that the researcher for the last 5 years has put to more than 600 staff members of the public service, in face to face interviews. The researcher used every opportunity, every time he come in contact with public officials, either through his Project Management lectures at the Provincial Training Academy, presentation of papers at national or international conferences, or official visits to public institutions to illicit the respondents to answer the following statements:

Statement 1: The public sector still has a core of competent, highly skilled professionals and technical staff, capable of competing with the best in the private sector.

Statement 2: The main reason why public service delivery do not come up to customers expectation is mainly due to the fact that it lacks competent, skilled senior management and leadership, to bring the best in every worker, and to change the state beaurocracy and red tape.

It was very relevant to know that not one single respondent have disagreed with both statements. Every respondent strongly agreed with the statement that the real problem is poor senior management and leadership.

Chapter 10 **RECOMMENDATIONS**

10.1 Introduction

The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector and their own experiences in the public service employment. They do not necessarily represent their points of view in relation to their immediate supervisors.

10.2 Recommendations based on the author's qualitative and quantitative research, and analysis of results

A general summarized overview of the recommendations is shown below as follows:

1. Based on the respondent's answers to the statements in every questionnaire, the researcher indicates by means of an (x) if the Public Service delivery would benefit, if Senior Management practices such statement practices.
2. If there is a benefit the cross (x) is placed under the column Yes; if there is no benefit the (x) is placed under the column No.

10.2.1 The need for Leadership: Vision, Reality and Courage

Statement	Generally			Recommendation	
	Is the statement correct?	Does Senior Management practice it?		Public Service Delivery will benefit if Senior Management practice it.	
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector, and their own experiences.					
Vision is about systemic and strategic thinking, holistic views and purpose – it is the ability to see the larger picture and to think fresh and creatively, playing with scenarios.	x		x	x	
Reality means responding to the facts,	x		x	x	

figures and practical details of a situation. It means planning, budgeting, pragmatic structures, analytic market research, feedback and ratios. It implies an endless drive for results and task completion. The organisation's bottom line falls under reality.					
Ethics means sensitivity to people and interpersonal relationships. People, their feelings, attitudes and emotions matter. Results are most effectively achieved through teamwork and people caring for each other. It also means loyalty, trust, integrity and idealism, where ubuntu is alive and part of everyday living.	x		x	x	
Courage means to take risks and to act. Sometimes it requires standing alone and standing up for what you believe. Courage is the ability to manage anxiety and severe stress situations.	x		x	x	
Leaders are: Kind but not Weak Bold but not Bullies Humble but not Timid Proud but not Arrogant Decisive but not Imprudent Participative but not an Abdicator Determined but not Fanatic Firm but not Authoritarian.	x		x	x	

10.2.2 Reward Management

Statement	Generally		Recommendation		
	Is the statement correct?	Does Senior Management practice it?		Public Service Delivery will benefit if Senior Management practice it.	
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector, and their own experiences.					
Managers need to encourage employee involvement, team work and integrated reward systems. They should reward people who are willing to streamline, to change and to take risks. Success and accomplishment are what really motivate people.	x		x	x	

A high level of autonomy makes workers more responsible and accountable for their acts. Feedback gives them a useful understanding of their roles and functions.	x		x	x	
Always treat your employees exactly as you would like them to treat your best customers. Learn to help them with more than just their jobs: help them with their lives. Build them up, don't tear them down. The only justification for looking down on someone is to lift them up. Trust them and they will be true to you: treat them greatly and they will show themselves great.	x		x	x	
Our organizations are covered with negative incentives. These are all sorts of inducements and rewards for counter-productive behaviour. Managers hope for A, unwillingly or willingly reward B and they wonder why they get B.	x	x			x
Managers should reward: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - SIMPLIFICATION instead of needless complication - DECISIVE ACTION instead of paralysis by analyses - SOLID SOLUTIONS instead of quick fixes - RISK TAKING instead of Risk avoiding - SMART WORK instead of busy work - EFFECTIVE BEHAVIOUR instead of squeaking joints - QUALITY WORK instead of fast work - LOYALTY instead of turnover - WORKING TOGETHER instead of working against 	x		x	x	
The manager's job is to create a reward system through which workers get what they want, the managers get what they want and the right things get done.	x		x	x	

10.2.3 Use of Supervisory Power

Statement	Generally		Recommendation	
	Is the statement correct?	Does Senior Management practice it?	Public Service Delivery will benefit if Senior Management practice it.	
	Yes	Yes No	Yes	No
<i>The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector, and their own experiences.</i>				
"Because I'm the Boss, and I say so" should rarely be the basis on which decisions are made and work gets accomplished.	x	x	x	
Most of weak managers concentrate their	x	x		x

effort on keeping power and control to themselves by blocking information and not giving clear directions to expedite the job.					
This centralization will always lead to delays, dissatisfaction, and loss of interest on the part of subordinates, which will ultimately lead to reduction in efficiency and effectiveness.	x	x			x
Manage by your knowledge and experience and not by the authority of your office. Do not obsess with power, and never degrade people or think you are above them.	x		x	x	
It is legitimate for managers and leaders to say: "We do not know enough about this" and to ask for help from subordinates, without automatically being seen to be weak and unsuitable for the direction – giving role. To inspire trust: keep your commitments, admit your mistakes and say sorry.	x		x	x	
Leaders should rely more on expert power, built on a foundation of continuous learning and a demonstrated ability to manage continuous quality improvements than a status derived from titles and positions within the hierarchy of the organization.	x		x	x	
Good managers manage relationships up, down and sideways. They handle tasks by leading and empowering team members, collaborating for value-added wins with peers, and actively following superiors (supporting the superior's direction but challenging the direction if there is a better way).	x		x	x	

10.2.4 Communication

Statement	Generally		Recommendation		
	Is the statement correct?	Does Senior Management practice it?		Public Service Delivery will benefit if Senior Management practice it.	
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
<i>The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector, and their own experiences.</i>					
Public organizations still operate with multiple layers of information relayers, and under the concept of "need to know". They build up	x	x			x

"knowledge dams", i.e. like building a dam and preventing any water from nourishing the earth downstream.					
Because people do not receive adequate Knowledge, they either make poor decisions or have to pass them up the chain of command – leading to delays, while also perpetuating the belief that subordinates are incapable of making decisions or accepting responsibility.	x	x			x
Honesty and openness in communication are essential. Paying lip service to an "open door" policy is not enough; it must be backed up by visible action on the part of management.	x		x	x	
The person who bears bad news or admits to having made a mistake should not be punished – by contrast the person who tries to hide it should be.	x		x	x	
We need flattened organizations for easier communication and faster and easier decision-making.	x		x	x	
Channels of information, upward, downward and laterally must be opened and maintained.	x		x	x	

10.2.4 Communication (continue)

Statement	Generally		Recommendation		
	Is the statement correct?	Does Senior Management practice it?		Public Service Delivery will benefit if Senior Management practice it.	
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector, and their own experiences.					
Managers must shift from talking and giving orders to the listen mode in order to become compulsive listeners. They must focus on two aspects of communication: (1) listening to	x		x	x	

employees ideas about ways in which we can be more effective and (2) listening to employee personal concerns and problems. Communication must be expanded beyond merely delivering a message to an intended audience to include truly listening and understanding, in a spirit of truth and co-operation.					
Effective communication begins with a culture of collaboration and truthfulness, where every voice is heard and considered important. It's a daily interaction, a concerted effort built on foundations of trust, honesty and sincerity.	x		x	x	
It is an exercise that stretches the mind and the emotions to understand the full implications of actions or inactions, to listen to one another and to be "big enough" to admit wrongdoing or misunderstanding.	x		x	x	
Meetings, if conducted efficiently and effectively are indispensable for getting through. However too many meetings are a clear sign that an organization is in trouble. Frequently there is a tendency for every meeting to drift towards collective incompetence. Meetings fail in inverse proportion to preparation time and direct proportion to meeting time.	x		x	x	

10.2.5 Human Relations Skills

Statement	Generally		Recommendation		
	Is the statement correct?	Does Senior Management practice it?		Public Service Delivery will benefit if Senior Management practice it.	
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector, and their own experiences.					
There is a need for competency in perceiving feeling and responding with empathy, respect, and warmth when interacting with others. Personal problems can inhibit an individual's performance at	x		x	x	

work ... a manager needs to be able to use the skills of a counselor and coach.					
It is only by being open with our employees about our standards that we will be able to know whether we are delivering to their satisfaction. The highest and best form of efficiency is the spontaneous co-operation of a free people.	x		x	x	
If you put your people first, you win their faith and loyalty, and success will follow. It is a two way process, the spirit of which is expressed in the saying: "one hand washes the other", and "both washes the face".	x		x	x	
True leaders, expect the best of people. Their tools of choice are dialogue, respect, trust, openness, challenges and praises. They create a climate in which problems are opportunities, and everyone's a hero, by harnessing the enthusiasm of their people, and aligning their energy.	x		x	x	
Focused on day-to-day bush fires, public managers are preoccupied with short-term goals. They don't know how to create new choices, and still they can't find the time to continually push their people to think ... to dream ... to experiment ... to ask ... what if.	x	x			x
Public Service Top Managers have difficulty in understanding that the vitality of any organization depends on individual initiative, team work, creativity and intrepeneur endeavour, meeting challenges, growing, developing and keep moving.	x		x	x	
Public Service Managers, on the whole, are more interested in "administering and controlling the job", and least competent at coaching and mentoring, facilitating change and innovation, managing conflict and relationships and building trust – all crucial factors in the new era.	x	x			x

10.2.6 Participative vs. Non Participative Management

Statement	Generally		Recommendation		
	Is the statement correct?	Does Senior Management practice it?		Public Service Delivery will benefit if Senior Management practice it.	
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector, and their own experiences.					
Management should create systems that are participatory and self-managing in order to	x		x	x	

empower staff and to increase motivational levels of employees.					
In empowered organizations the primary role of management is not to be the problem solver, technical expert, or conductor but the facilitator, the person who fosters the organisation's development through active participation, co-ordination, and permitting others to provide the specific leadership skills needed.	x		x	x	
There is a need for managers to work in a participative manner to determine employee work responsibilities in line with organizational priorities, to decide on methods for evaluation, to jointly assess performance, and to agree on improvement activities where necessary.	x		x	x	
Goals must be developed in a participative manner and communicated throughout the organization; there should be consistency in goals; goals must be revised and updated; and employees must be rewarded for goal achievement.	x		x	x	
Developing, articulating, and gaining commitment to an organization – or unit –wide vision are key competencies of managers / leaders – those who hope to transform and improve the institution as opposed to maintaining the status quo.	x		x	x	

10.2.7 Motivation

Statement	Generally		Recommendation		
	Is the statement correct?	Does Senior Management practice it?		Public Service Delivery will benefit if Senior Management practice it.	
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
<i>The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector, and their own experiences.</i>					
The general feeling that the work environment is a rewarding environment rather than a punishing environment seems to be a key to employee involvement	x		x	x	

and commitment.					
Managers and organizations create the very conditions that lead to poor morale and low productivity.	X		X	X	
People have long been considered expenses, while stock, supplies, equipment, buildings are viewed on the balance sheet as assets.	X		X	X	
Employers have to learn that people are the assets.	X		X	X	
Everybody wants to be considered somebody. Make them feel important.	X		X	X	
Managers should: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be assertive rather than aggressive - Trust and treat people with respect - View, frank, open opinions by staff not as disrespectful, or a threat - Encourage subordinates, to speak up their minds - Welcome people being frank and critical - Enjoy disagreement and a bit of conflict - Not install systems and procedures that control people's lives, but introduce systems that are the servants of the staff. - Manage to use to advantage the strengths and talents of the staff - Bring out the best in people and not to concentrate on their weaknesses, reducing their self-esteem and confidence. 	X		X	X	
People want to belong. They want to have a "place to go". They want to interact with other people and to receive recognition and appreciation. They want the human contact and the sense of personal significance associated with inclusion and acceptance. They want to feel competent – to do things, which challenge them within limits of their abilities, and to conquer those challenges. They want to grow as individuals. People should find these satisfactions within the work environment.	X		X	X	

10.2.8 Delegation

Statement	Generally		Recommendation		
	Is the statement correct?	Does Senior Management practice it?		Public Service Delivery will benefit if Senior Management practice it.	
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
<i>The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector, and their own experiences.</i>					
If conventional management is largely about controlling the performers, successful management, on the other hand, is about encouraging and enabling talented	X		X	X	

performers to take appropriate control of their own work.					
Delegation means working through people, breaking the barriers of fear of loss of power and authority, and fear of making mistakes. Delegation is not abdication. Co-ordination is retained, to hold an organization together.	X		X	X	
Stewardship delegation is focused on results instead of methods. It gives people a choice of methods and makes them responsible for results. It involves clear, up-front, mutual understanding and commitment regarding expectations.	X		X	X	
Managers must delegate responsibilities according to employee willingness and abilities and not to dump work. They must assign responsibility, granting authority.	X		X	X	

10.2.9 Goal Oriented Behaviour

Statement	Generally		Recommendation		
	Is the statement correct?	Does Senior Management practice it?		Public Service Delivery will benefit if Senior Management practice it.	
	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
The respondent's answers were based on their generalized perceptions of the public service sector, and their own experiences.					
The best managers are those with vision. They think about the future and what to do next, rather than what we did decades ago. They plan rather than react, and they act.	X		X	X	
Effective managers are proactive, not reactive, and results driven as a result of being goal-oriented. When developing goals, they involve the employees meaningfully.	X		X	X	
Too often, organizations, especially public entities, drift along, merely making incremental changes from one year to the next, without assessing the needs for course corrections.	X		X	X	
Goals must be developed in a participative manner and communicated throughout the organization; there should be consistency in goals; goals must be revised and updated; and employees must be rewarded for goal achievement.	X		X	X	
Establishing and reaching goals that are in support of the mission and strategic plans of the organization is one of the most important responsibilities of management.	X		X	X	

10.3 Summary Recommendations

The research indicates that the main doctrines of what must be done are that:

- Direct public sector costs should be cut and labour discipline raised so as to improve resource use;
- Private-sector-style management practices applied to increase flexibility in decision-making;

- *Competition in the public sector (through term contracts and tendering) increased, as rivalry is the key to lower costs and better standards;*
- *The public sector disaggregated and decentralized to make units more manageable and to increase competition among them;*
- *Controls shifted from inputs to outputs, to stress results rather than procedure;*
- *Explicit standards and performance measures established, because accountability requires clearly stated aims and efficiency requires attention to goals; and*
- *Managers given powers to conduct hands-on professional management, because accountability requires clear assignment of responsibility, not diffusion of power.*

Improved accountability in the conduct of public affairs is another reform objective. There is plenty of empirical evidence to show that even in consolidated democratic states in Africa, there are mayor deficits in accountability (Olowu, 1999; Therkilsden, 2001).

Good public management and administration, with emphasis on accountability and responsiveness to customer needs is an aspect of good governance and improved public sector management systems.

Managerial, ethical and political values are not separated. Decisions must be based on a single set of values that blends all three considerations simultaneously.

The challenge of Public Administration is to achieve a mixture of values in a workable whole, and to provide the means to classify values, support values consensus and articulate them clearly inside and outside the organization.

In terms of management and leadership the South African mindset and practice is drawn from only the "Euro centric Heritage" and ignores the "Afro-Asian and Afro centric" heritage of Ubuntu, with its concern for people.

The European heritage contributes to task efficiency and effectiveness and business competitiveness. The African heritage provides a better way of managing people and performance relationships, through the spirit of business cooperation, the spirit of serving in harmony and the spirit of African hospitality, and cultural tolerance, as shown in table 8.

Table 8

Euro Centric	Afro Centric
Belief in individualism and free will.	Social orientation.
Belief in capitalism and self-interest.	Working for the common good.
Belief in managing top-down: telling people what to do.	Non-adversarial style. Co-operation.
Belief in systems and structures to keep things orderly.	Emphasis on common goals with other members of the community.
Belief in defining people in terms of their roles and functions	Stress on the humanity of individuals (ubuntu).
Emphasizes the rights of the individual.	Demands for balancing the rights of individuals and the group.

Euro Centric	Afro Centric
Authority derives from position. Positional power, through knowledge and skills. Whether their peers have confidence in them is unimportant. Power / authority granted from the levels above	The individual receives an identity through the community. Authority derives through acceptance and ability to interact with other members of the group. Requires consensus from the levels below. Right to lead must be granted by those down the line.

These two different leadership approaches in the country represent one of the dilemmas South African managers face. On the one hand there is the Eurocentric or Western approach that has proven value in improving organizational and work performance worldwide and in South Africa.

On the other, the supporters of the Afrocentric management approach argue that, for managers to be relevant in South Africa, they must accept concepts embodied in the indigenous black philosophy. The same dilemma applies to foreign companies that want to do business in South Africa.

Either Eurocentric or Afrocentric culture have positive and negative influences on economic performance. The challenge is for the maximization of the positive and elimination of the negative factors. The glorification, alone, of the one culture, will not take Africa, and African organizations into the path of economic progress.

Managers do not, and should not, attempt to choose between Eurocentric and Afrocentric management approaches in South Africa. Instead, business needs to marry these two sets of values, even if the marriage is a rather hasty one.

However, the previous thinking, action and behaviour of the South African corporate world and culture lay somewhere between those of Europe and the USA and had little to do with Africa.

If South African organizations are to survive, the dominant Western management paradigm needs to move in the direction of valuing the Western as well as the Afrocentric management systems alongside each other as equally important.

South African leaders need to understand the different cultural expectations of all South Africans and corporate South Africa needs to 'South Africanise' in order to mobilize the people of South Africa effectively.

In culturally diverse organizations, members will have significant group related differences in norm and value orientations in such areas as time and space,

leadership styles, individualism-collectivism, cooperation-competition, locus of control, and communication styles.

- 1: Ignorance of cultural differences is a source of ineffectiveness in the work performance of diverse workgroups. Likewise, knowledge of the cultural differences in diverse workgroups will enhance work relationships and work team effectiveness.
- 2: In traditional assimilationist-oriented organizations, cultural differences between designated and non-designated group members will create barriers to full participation of designated group members.
- 3: In pluralistic/multicultural organizations, cultural differences among members will be utilized to enhance creativity and problem solving.

The reality of South Africa is that people tend not to have a sense of national identity and tend to be hooked up in narrow ethnic mindsets. People think of themselves first as blacks or whites, Zulu or Xhosa, English speaking or Afrikaans.

No society developed and prospered without a high degree of trust and social capital, without a sense of shared destiny and, shared national identity. "Societies that are driven with barriers of distrust, based on class, ethnicity, kinship or other factors, will face extra roadblocks in their adoption of new organizational forms." (Francis Fukuyama, 1995: 38)

South Africa needs to create this sense of patriotism of "We are South Africans first".

One of the critical issues and main obstacles and barriers to building a culture of valuing diversity in South African organizations is the socialized mindsets of the different cultural groups. The entrenched mental barriers tend to manifest in the implicit norms, values and perception of self and others and tend to find explicit expression in management practices and behaviour.

In order to build a corporate multicultural identity, a strategy for managing cultural diversity is required. This strategy would have to build consensual

realities through an acute awareness and understanding of the differences and commonalities in cultural preferences of the diverse cultural forces present in the organization. The common vision should emerge from the perception of a common identity and shared values through a culture of valuing diversity.

The impact of this learning process of discovering the mutual benefits of multiculturalism to South African organizations should not be underestimated.

Transformation must be systemic and a holistic approach should be applied to change organizational practices, procedures, systems, strategies and leadership as well as individual attitudes and values so that we can ultimately achieve a culture of valuing diversity and organizational effectiveness and efficiency.

The research indicates that the traditional public service organizations are designed to provide for the first 3 levels of Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of human needs – food, shelter and belonging. They fail to address the higher order needs of self-respect and self-actualization.

The research also suggests, that only a conception of a public service leadership and good governance working together and supporting each other, drawn from a New Era Leadership paradigm, will be effective in redressing service delivery imbalances and inequalities in South Africa.

Good governance, good leadership, and good professional and technical staff are the 3 legs of the stool which have to be in place simultaneously, all together, supporting and facilitating each other. If one of the legs is removed the stool will tumble, and serves no purpose. Likewise in private or public organizations, good professional and technical staff cannot be created or even looked after and maintained without good leadership, and good leadership cannot be safeguarded without good political and institutional governance.

As a result the starting leg of the stool is about good governance; not good politics. In many instances good politics is contrary to good governance. An organization, either private or public can have competent employees, skilled and knowledgeable professional and technical staff, but without good management

and leadership at all levels of the organization, the competent people will in time lose their motivation, and become doers without purpose and commitment.

However an organization could have both good, competent, skilled and knowledgeable professionals, as well as competent and skilled managers and leaders, but without good governance the good managers and leaders will also die of starvation, and with their death comes the death of everything else. Good governance fosters good institutional management and leadership, and good management and leadership creates the necessary environment for the good professional staff to grow, to drive, and to excel.

Moving from “where we are” to “where we want to be” may seem daunting. But to squarely meet the challenges of the future, to succeed with the desired and needed transformation, the public service sector must address the following key issues:

- Managing transition remains a significant priority in an effort to bridge the leap from the old to the new. It deals with redefining business lines, and includes the elements of change management, learning organization, and attracting, developing and retaining required competencies.
- Building a Learning Organisation is key to developing an ongoing flexibility and capacity to adapt quickly to the changing needs of public service customers and employees. This means developing approaches to human resources management within the public sector to support a more fluid organization based on knowledge and expertise rather than operational processes and functions.
- Building leadership, and one key element of leadership is credibility and trust. For any organization to move forward, trust must exist between employees, between managers and employees, and among managers. Practicing leadership is an issue about how to ensure that the public sector has leaders with requisite competencies and relevant experience and commitment.

From these issues, the priorities for action become clear. In a perfect world, the development of an action plan to address the human resource needs of the Public Service would follow the redefinition of business lines, with an identification of competencies required and in place. But with the current ever-changing environment, there is a need for more immediate results. The action plan must give priority to setting in place a human resource management process for the development of ongoing changes and challenges within the public service, while at the same time achieving immediate results in areas of mobility, managing diversity, development programs and, acquisition of a New Era Leadership paradigm at all levels of an organization. It must have a commitment to creating a work environment, which supports and brings the best in every employee, continuous learning and the well being of its human capital. It should be founded on the provision of maximum support to the demonstrated and potential abilities of its staff while engaging the principles of learning organization key values. An extensive recommendation is provided by the author, on the compilation of a normative model, which was part of the research's objectives.

The normative model covers the following topics: Leadership; Communication; Human Relation Skills; Participative vs. Non Participative Management; Reward Management; Motivation; Use of Supervisory Power; Delegation; Goal Oriented Behaviour; Decision Making; The role of the H.R. professional; Trade Unions vs. Management; Strategic Management; Customer driven orientation; Customer relationship management; Organisation and Structure; Strategic Business Units; Performance Leadership; Matter matters less, and Cultural and Political influences. This normative model is a "living" document, based on the author's doctoral research, to help managers and leaders of private and public organizations to acquire the critical skills of a New Era Leadership paradigm. This normative model provides the workforce with a supple yet comprehensive foundation, from which could spring the future design and competencies of the Public Sector, ready to meet and overcome the challenges of the future.

Chapter 11 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

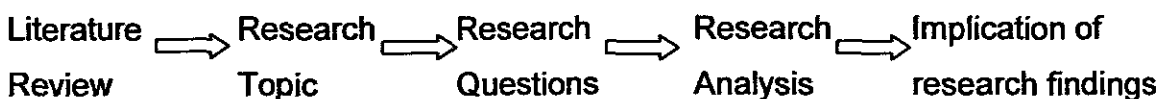
11.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study has been to explore the need for a New Era Leadership, as a new paradigm for the improvement of the Public Service delivery in South Africa.

To fulfill this purpose the researcher applied mixed methodologies (see chapter 6) in order to obtain:

- Open ended contextual information and descriptions of public service supervisory and middle management staff views about, and experiences of the Public Sector in general and its Top Management.
- Semi-structured accounts of transformational strategies to be used by Top Managers and factors that might impact on the effective implementation of such strategies.

The methodologies were combined in a developmental sequence as follows:



The research was therefore carried out in a number of phases. The first phase was a critical review of literature on the generic characteristics of the transformational strategies. Documentation on major changes in the South African public sector, pertinent to organizational culture and transformational change and leadership was investigated concurrently.

Phases two and three were interdependent, field research phases. They involved the use of questionnaires and inclusive information-gathering techniques to discover how respondents view the Western Cape Provincial Administration top management performance and results.

The field research phases were followed by in-depth analysis of the data. This led finally to a discussion of the major findings and their implications for Top Managers as they lead their organizations into the new millennium.

The research analysed the following main topics:

1. *What behaviours, attitudes and management styles displayed by senior managers in the Public Sector, reduce the effectiveness and efficiency of their staff and that of the organization?*
2. *How in the opinion of the respondents, would it be possible to bring about change, increase productivity and achieve results?*

The research was done with the purpose of achieving six (6) main goals.

1. To review the various theories on Management and Leadership concerning Private and Public Sector.
2. To introduce managers in the Public Sector to the current thinking about Organisation, Management and Leadership and to make them understand that the kind of management required in this new cybernetic, ever changing world, is not principally Administration, but Leadership and *Intrepreneurship*.
3. To impress upon all Public Service management levels that new kinds of public institutions are required which are more flexible, and customer oriented, and to defend the claim that:
 - a. *Public Administration theory is neglecting the meaning and the value of more business management "think alike".*
 - b. *Business Management theories and practices would have a profound impact in the migration of Public Administration from modernity to post-modernity.*
4. To elicit staff views on the skills, knowledge and attributes needed by Senior Public Managers, to become effective leaders and the more specific

application of such leadership to achieve successful change in public sector organizations.

Linked thematically and sequentially to these attributes is the exploration of specific strategies that senior managers should adopt in order to bring about cultural and structural change and the extent to which senior managers regard their new type of Leadership as part of their roles.

5. To analyse what behaviours, attitudes and management styles are displayed by senior public management in terms of the following critical factors:
 - 5.1 The need for Leadership
 - 5.2 Participative vs. non participative style
 - 5.3 Communication
 - 5.4 Reward management
 - 5.5 Motivation
 - 5.6 Delegation
 - 5.7 Human Relations Skills
 - 5.8 Management of Diversity
 - 5.9 Goal-Oriented behaviour
 - 5.10 Use of Supervisory Power
6. To give recommendations on how to bring about change and improvements, increase productivity and achieve effective results. This was intended to develop a normative model by which to introduce the concept of New Era Leadership.

Against this backdrop, the study examined the present state of service delivery by the Provincial Administration Western Cape.

Using the primary research questions as the focus, this chapter aimed to integrate findings from the field data collection secondary research.

The discussion, focused on the summative value of the findings and linkages to the research literature.

Some conclusions were generalized from the study samples to all Western Cape Provincial Administration and Top Management. This is considered justifiable, based on the rate of the survey questionnaire and wide coverage of the 10 Provincial Departments and the listing and further refinement of survey findings through the *focus groups in-depth-interviews*.

The following pages identifies the leadership concept clusters examples and most common leadership characteristics that emerged from the survey questionnaires. Adjacent to these items are leadership constructs identified in the research literature. -

The leadership characteristics, identified as important by Public Sector Top Management, are consistent with those identified in the research review.

Generally absent from the broad range of respondents responses, to the survey in-depth interviews, were perceptions that emphasized the management end of a “management versus leadership” dichotomy of changing organizational culture. In this dichotomy managing change focuses on the set of processes required to keep a complex institution running efficiently, such as budgeting, planning, directing and controlling. Leading change, in contrast, relates to processes that aim for sustainable adaptation to ever changing circumstances and creation of new paths to followers. These processes include adjusting direction, aligning values, trust and behaviours to this direction, motivating and inspiring staff and stakeholders.

Leadership without management sets a direction or vision that others follow, without considering too much how the new direction is going to be achieved.

Management without leadership controls resources to maintain the status quo or ensure things happen according to already established plans. Leadership combined with management does both – it both sets a new direction and manages the resources to achieve it.

Here is where it resides the greatest weakness in the public sector: too many administrators, shuffling paper around, oiling the existing outdated machine, and no leaders to create a new path, a new direction, a new vision with courage, ethics and reality. The general feeling of the respondents was that, public organization are over administrated, poorly managed and under-led.

Transformational leadership has been identified in this study as a leadership approach that is most likely to create sustainable change for improved efficiency and effectiveness.

Transformational leaders of the future will have to be perpetual lifelong learners who have -

- Objective insight into organizational problems and culture and their personal strengths and weaknesses in situational leadership;
- The motivation and skill to “unfreeze” the culture of their own organization (this is particularly pertinent in the public sector where top managers tenure is limited and loyalty to the organization or the Government of the day may be divided);
- Emotional strength to manage their own and other’s anxiety as learning and change become more a way of life.
- Skills in bringing to the surface, analyzing and changing the actual assumptions of the organizational groups;
- A willingness and ability to involve others and elicit their participation in change processes, and
- An ability to learn a new culture.

The leadership qualities that are required to make a good leader can vary in different organizations, teams and situations. This is one of the most fundamental principles underlying most leadership systems.

How you approach leadership qualities will depend on whether you are looking at the subject from the perspective of an organization or an individual.

The aim of an organizational perspective is to improve organizational performance by identifying and developing leadership potential. At the outset, the needs of the organization are usually reasonably defined but the individuals, who may become leaders, are unknown. The organization task is therefore one of:

- Identifying the profile of leadership qualities that will enhance organizational performance;
- Selecting individuals whose character, skills and potential closely match that profile, instead of merely looking at quotas filling without regard to merit;
- Developing those individuals so their potential becomes a reality.

That is, an organization develops a framework to assess people and develop those who are chosen by merit.

A New Era Leadership and all New Public Management reforms essentially implies fundamental changes to the power relationships between the key players in the system of government and requires considerable attitudinal and courageous changes on the part of the bureaucrats.

Political and Administrative leadership in the Public Sector should work together in the pursuit of the following summarised leading ideas and values:

An incorporation of private-sector approaches; development of a stronger external orientation, incorporation of foresight and anticipation into decision making; a shift from process-oriented to results-oriented government; the importance of visionary leadership found at all levels throughout organizations; the need to change the culture of the public sector; the development of alternative organizational designs based upon principles of decentralization, delayering and openness to outside influences; the promotion of continuous organizational and individual learning, including the development of key competencies of employees; the widespread use of empowerment, team work and participation in decision-making, the development of a focus on the customer as the chief source of feedback on how well the organization is doing; the need

to manage diversity both within the organization and in terms of the people it serves; the development of more robust performance systems and the use of more imaginative types of incentives to promote improvements; a reshaping of the boundaries between the public and private sector through privatization; contracting out and partnerships; and the demonstration of greater responsiveness to ministers, as well as greater accountability to legislatures and the public.

In the Public Service arena, the leadership question is not, however, the question about government performance that is usually asked. Traditionally, we have asked the systems question. Rather than develop public managers with the transformational and transactional leadership capacity to improve the performance of their organizations, the public service bureaucracy sought to create performance systems that will impose such improvements. Thus, the public sector has tended (if not unapologetically) to ignore the leadership question and, instead, have focused on the system question: How can we compel, command, or coerce public officials into improving their performance. This systems approach has proved not to be effective. Administrative requirements (for performance or anything else) are not designed to elicit discernment and adaptation. They are created to impose obedience conformity and mediocrity. Rather than impose systems requirements and pay higher salaries for managers who have reached their level of incompetence, develop public managers to acquire the crucial transactional, transformational and visionary New Era Leadership Skills.

The benefits expected rests on bringing service delivery closer to consumers, improving the central government's responsiveness to public demands, improving the efficiency and quality of public services, and empowering lower units to feel more involved and in control. It also meant to reduce overload and congestion at the center and speed up operational decision-making and implementation, by minimizing the bottlenecks associated with over-centralization of powers and

functions at the top of the hierarchy. It allows the operational autonomy of line managers and departments, leaving only policy guidelines to be worked out at the center.

11.2 Summary Overview

11.2.1 The need to change

The nature of the world in which we live and work and the range of problems, constraints, and opportunities confronting public administrators have changed.

Public service professionals can no longer afford to be ethnocentric, inward looking, focused on the past, and defensive. They must be forward-looking, globally oriented, innovative, adaptable, and ready to take advantage of opportunities to serve the community more effectively. Public Administration, if it is to be done well, must be an aggressive, not a passive enterprise; in the pursuit of public interest.

The enterprise of public administration is a worthy endeavor, essential to the maintenance of a quality of life in the modern community and at every level of society. Public Administration is an eminently practical profession, based in an important body of theory.

The critical muse is a blend of expertise and experience applied in a manner that is sensitive to cultural and other factors that shape administrative reality.

Culture in turn, affects the possibilities for organizational governance. The role of the leader in the organization varies according to the significance of culture for its governance. Thus understanding organizational cultures and their significance is fundamental to understanding how management might matter.

The extent of managerial contributions depend on the possibilities inherent in the policy environment, on the strength of institutional influences an agency cultures, and on the extent and complexity of an agency's network relationships.

Among the skills public managers must possess, then, is the ability to identify and evaluate contextual factors having a bearing on their preferred strategies. Traditional management efforts to implement change that are based on a rational – mechanical model are not adequate to today's task.

The implication has been that there is one best way to do things and that management's task is first to find this way and then to get it accepted by others.

However, Organisational reality is made up of a range of experiences and meanings, and these are a number of realities and a number of ways of arriving at workable solutions. No single method of influence is sufficient to do the job of transformational change.

Like Paradigms, Organisational realities are hard to change and for many of the same reasons: they are self-perpetuating, members become emotionally invested in the status quo, and the prevailing reality is sustained by a community of agreement as to the ways things should be.

All the education and persuasion in the world will not change people if they continue to live in an environment that reinforces old behaviors.

It requires people to examine and alter the basic assumptions driving and supporting the present state of their organizational life. It is about change that asks people to do things in dramatically new and different ways, as opposed to making small improvements in current practice.

In the latter approach, the underlying behavioral model remains basically the same. In the former, a transformation occurs in the organisation's fundamental external form and inner nature, calling for a set of entirely new, interdependent behaviors.

There is a growing need in today's organizations of all kinds to make multiple discontinuous changes in significant aspects of their being. The requirements for remaining competitive often include sharp breaks with past beliefs and practices. This kind of change is very difficult to bring about, because established entities do not easily support internal revolutions against themselves.

Their assumptions have institutionalized and have a tenacious life of their own.

To make a revolution is to attack values and practices that are valued or accepted within the prevailing culture.

Leaders confront a "brain barrier" composed of persisting and successful mental maps. The incredibly powerful maps determine how people see the world of work, guiding their daily steps and behaviors. The maps in our head, far more than the eyes on our face, frame our personal views of the world.

It is not that "an old dog can't learn new tricks". Rather it is that an old dog has a devil of a time unlearning old tricks.

People in enterprise, in government ... are by and large well intentioned. They'd like to get things done. To be of service to others, but they are thwarted at every step of the way ... by absurd organizational barriers ... and by the egos of petty tyrants. The organizations we created have become tyrants. They have taken control, holding us fettered, creating barriers that hinder rather than help our business. The lines that we drew on our neat organizational diagrams have turned into walls that no one can scale or penetrate or even peer over. Walls, Barriers, Tyrants.

What is at issue in the workplace is not a contract between employer and employee but the legitimacy of a relationship of power. This legitimacy can only be established if the person who exercise the power, the manager or supervisor, has an authentic interest in the subordinate's well being.

This is mostly **not** understood to be the role of Leadership. Supervisors are not made accountable for what they are giving to their subordinates but what they are getting out of them. This reduces the relationship to one where the supervisor is only concerned with subordinates in so far as they are his tools or a means to an end. Employees, in turn, only give to the extent that they are seduced by money rewards or intimidation and threats

One of the great paradox of organizations is that, their people are its greatest asset, but they are also potentially its greatest liability.

Lack of the necessary human qualities and Knowledge is the most common cause of business failure.

The public policy movement grows from an assumption that orthodox public administration had reached a dead end. The field's scholars started essentially from scratch by creating a new approach, which they named "public management". The field rejected the orthodox public administration focus on organizational structure and process, and its emphasis on the organization of the unit of analysis as its method of drawing insights from common sense. Instead focused on public decisions and individual policy areas. It drew its method from the business school practice of extracting insights from close analysis of cases

11.3 Summary Conclusions

The South African context is characterized by the legacy of apartheid, namely inequality and poverty. The current South African reality calls for emphasis to be put on policies and services that will address these challenges.

The key challenge facing South Africa is the establishment of a model developmental state, i.e., the creation of a strong, efficient and effective Public Government bureaucracy.

A central question has been which priorities should drive the agenda of the public sector in order to achieve the MDG's vision for a developmental state.

Firstly it requires that public service senior management take the challenge seriously, and commit themselves to act in ways that will push forward the agenda of the New Era Leadership. This in turn will require that political leaders as well as managers in the public sector are able to clearly articulate and communicate a vision and a mission that resonates with frontline public servants. This vision and mission must be translated into clear operational strategies.

Secondly, it needs a programme of action that is developed with and that captures the imagination of those charged with its implementation. This is possible if the vision and mission are clearly defined, and a shared understanding

thereof prevails among committed and motivated leaders and managers at all levels of the organizations, as well as, with community ownership of the change process.

The third crucial element is effective, efficient and competent governance and management and leadership systems.

The fourth necessary ingredient is a critical mass of skilled, knowledgeable and motivated public service professional and technical staff at all levels of the systems.

This implies that government has to address the low management and leadership capacity as well as all other manifestations of poor supervision and human resource management which lead to demoralization, demotivation and unproductive workers.

The key to ending the “management and leadership poverty trap” is to create, maintain or procure the necessary leadership, management, professional and technical staff based primarily on the tenets of merit and competency, firmly supported by good political and institutional governance.

This requires that the state builds a system that is efficient and effective, and in particular, a public service that delivers and is customer driven.

The public needs to be assured that competitiveness and efficiency will be pursued, while simultaneously ensuring access for many more people who were previously denied equal opportunities to participate in the economy.

Citizens of South African and of every country want, need and aspire to responsive and accountable systems of governance and leadership which at the same time demonstrate the capacity to provide these citizens, not only with the economic foundation for sustainable employment and income, but with a minimum range of affordable goods and services such as education, health, water, energy, transportation, communications, and so on.

But the main conclusion of this paper must be that these desirable objectives are unlikely to flow without the concurrent implementation of a New Era

Leadership simultaneously at both, the political arena governance, as well as at the institutional management level.

Good governance and Good Leadership are regarded as mutually supportive reforms, with greater political accountability contributing to more efficient and less corrupt government. After all, poverty, corruption and bureaucratic pathologies are the products, not the causes of underdevelopment.

Service delivery by the South African public service has been and is still being influenced by various factors such as, human resources, financial constraints, corruption and ineffective management and leadership, as well as deficient supporting political governance.

The study suggested that it is necessary to better the current leadership and governance framework; to drastically improve the service delivery at the pace needed in South Africa especially the service delivery backlogs in disadvantaged communities.

This study has identified the serious need for a New Era Leadership in the Public Service appropriately supported by competent and effective governance.

A New Era Leadership and Public Management essentially implies fundamental changes to the power relationships between the key players in the system of government and requires considerable attitudinal and courageous changes on the part of the bureaucrats.

The new public administration model should be manifested through a new set of techniques, values, methods, skills and behaviours, related to results and performance instead of status quo maintenance, and with the adoption of a more customer driven and business like mentality, while taking cognizance of the unique diversities, strategies and socio-economic, political perspectives.

It is expected that the compilation of a normative model based on the literature review and the research conclusions and recommendations will serve the purpose of a training tool for managers to acquire and or improve their transactional and

transformational leaderships skills, and to embrace a more customer driven and business like mentality.

The impetus for change manifests itself at the top of the organization.

This does not mean that ideas and pressure for change cannot come from below, but short of revolution in the organization, it is the top that actions the requirement for change.

The structures and cultures created by the Public Service are incapable of generating the results truly desired. It doesn't matter how hard people try, how good they are as people, or how lofty their aspirations are.

It reminds of those peoples trying to fly all sorts of machines before the airplane was invented. Despite their differences, all these inventions achieved the same result: they were incapable of sustained flight. It didn't matter how hard the pilots tried. It didn't matter how imaginative or clever they were. It didn't matter how good they were as people or how noble their aspirations were. There was nothing these pilots were going to do to make these inventions fly, because they were structurally incapable of flight. This is precisely most organizations fail to fly as well.

Structure is not boxes on charts showing reporting relationships. Unfortunately, that's what most public service managers think of when they hear the term structure. But who reports to who doesn't tell us anything about structural dynamics that drive an organization to perform and behave as it does. It is a whole thing, something that has a totality to it, an integrated wholeness made up of parts, like a car is made of parts, but parts don't make a car. They must function together in predictable ways, i.e. they impact each other, by the relationship they form.

Organisational structure is dynamic, and like anything dynamic, it is governed by laws, so, organizations follow inescapable structural laws. Only organizations that take structural laws into account when redesigning themselves are likely to succeed.

Public service leaders, can no longer behave like a traditional “ball of the woods” – issuing orders, controlling and handing out rewards and punishment. Changes in social values, worker expectations and the emphasis on the quality of life have significantly changed what it takes to be an effective leader.

Public service managers need to ask, continually from everybody in their organizations:

1. What do we in the organization do, and what do I do, that helps doing what you are being paid for?
2. What do we do, and what do I do, that hampers you?

Unfortunately, there are many things that hamper and few things that help, but there are no choice, than to move from administering and controlling to managing and leading. Public Administration definitively needs a new professional and ethical foundation (Van den Hoven, 1994:16).

It implies, the critical need for a New Era Leadership paradigm mind shift leaders with vision, who kindles the process, someone who believes, because without that belief, it doesn't happen. It is about fashioning a future ready organisation and a workforce with the requisite competency base. It is about ensuring the continuity of necessary skills and bring together in harmony an adept, diverse, versatile and knowledgeable workforce.

In this new world of Information Age and Globalization, public service management must face up to the new realities and start managing for tomorrow. In this dynamic times, public service organizations, like private organizations, must be kept lean and fit, capable of taking strain but also of moving fast, focused and flexible to exploit opportunities, and to control the assignment of its resources, for productivity.

How well an organization recruits, selects, retains, and motivates a skilled workforce to espouse the best in themselves, and appreciate the humaneness of workers, will have a major impact on its ability to compete in the more globally interdependent world.

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APPENDIXES

Qualitative Research

Questionnaire 1

TOPIC: THE NEED FOR LEADERSHIP: VISION, REALITY, ETHICS AND COURAGE

Statement	<i>Do you agree with this statement?</i>		<i>Does Senior Management practice it?</i>	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Vision is about systemic and strategic thinking, holistic views and purpose – it is the ability to see the larger picture and to think fresh and creatively, playing with scenarios.				
Reality means responding to the facts, figures and practical details of a situation. It means planning, budgeting, pragmatic structures, analytic market research, feedback and ratios. It implies an endless drive for results and task completion. The organisation's bottomline falls under reality.				
Ethics means sensitivity to people and interpersonal relationships. People, their feelings, attitudes and emotions matter. Results are most effectively achieved through teamwork and people caring for each other. It also means loyalty, trust, integrity and idealism, where ubuntu is alive and part of everyday living.				
Courage means to take risks and to act. Sometimes it requires standing alone and standing up for what you believe. Courage is the ability to manage anxiety and severe stress situations.				
Leaders are: Kind but not Weak Bold but not Bullies Humble but not Timid Proud but not Arrogant Decisive but not Imprudent Participative but not an Abdicator Determined but not Fanatic Firm but not Authoritarian.				

Qualitative Research

Questionnaire 2

TOPIC: COMMUNICATION

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Public organizations still operate with multiple layers of information relayers, and under the concept of "need to know". They build up "knowledge dams", i.e. like building a dam and preventing any water from nourishing the earth downstream.				
Because people do not receive adequate Knowledge, they either make poor decisions or have to pass them up the chain of command – leading to delays, while also perpetuating the belief that subordinates are incapable of making decisions or accepting responsibility.				
Honesty and openness in communication are essential. Paying lip service to an "open door" policy is not enough; it must be backed up by visible action on the part of management.				
The person who bears bad news or admits to having made a mistake should not be punished – by contrast the person who tries to hide it should be.				
We need flattened organizations for easier communication and faster and easier decision-making.				
Channels of information, upward, downward and laterally must be opened and maintained.				
Managers must shift from talking and giving orders to the listen mode in order to become compulsive listeners. They must focus on two aspects of communication: (1) listening to employees ideas about ways in which we can be more effective and (2) listening to employee personal concerns and problems. Communication must be expanded beyond merely delivering a message to an intended audience to include truly listening and understanding, in a spirit of truth and co-operation.				

Qualitative Research

Questionnaire 2

TOPIC: COMMUNICATION

Statement	<i>Do you agree with this statement?</i>		<i>Does Senior Management practice it?</i>	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Effective communication begins with a culture of collaboration and truthfulness, where every voice is heard and considered important. It's a daily interaction, a concerted effort built on foundations of trust, honesty and sincerity.				
It is an exercise that stretches the mind and the emotions to understand the full implications of actions or inactions, to listen to one another and to be "big enough" to admit wrong doing or misunderstanding.				
Meetings, if conducted efficiently and effectively are indispensable for getting through. However too many meetings are a clear sign that an organization is in trouble. Frequently there is a tendency for every meeting to drift towards collective incompetence. Meetings fail in inverse proportion to preparation time and direct proportion to meeting time.				

Qualitative Research

Questionnaire 3

TOPIC: HUMAN RELATIONS SKILLS

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
There is a need for competency in perceiving feeling and responding with empathy, respect, and warmth when interacting with others. Personal problems can inhibit an individual's performance at work ... a manager needs to be able to use the skills of a counselor and coach.				
It is only by being open with our employees about our standards that we will be able to know whether we are delivering to their satisfaction. The highest and best form of efficiency is the spontaneous co-operation of a free people.				
If you put your people first, you win their faith and loyalty, and success will follow. It is a two way process, the spirit of which is expressed in the saying: "one hand washes the other", and "both washes the face".				
True leaders, expect the best of people. Their tools of choice are dialogue, respect, trust, openness, challenges and praises. They create a climate in which problems are opportunities, and everyone's a hero, by harnessing the enthusiasm of their people, and aligning their energy.				
Focused on day-to-day bush fires, public managers are preoccupied with short-term goals. They don't know how to create new choices, and still they can't find the time to continually push their people to think ... to dream ... to experiment ... to ask ... what if.				
Public Service Top Managers have difficulty in understanding that the vitality of any organization depends on individual initiative, team work, creativity and intreprenuer endeavour, meeting challenges, growing, developing and keep moving.				
Public Service Managers, on the whole, are more interested in "administering and controlling the job", and least competent at coaching and mentoring, facilitating change and innovation, managing conflict and relationships and building trust – all crucial factors in the new era.				

Qualitative Research

Questionnaire 4

TOPIC: PARTICIPATIVE VS NON PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Management should create systems that are participatory and self-managing in order to empower staff and to increase motivational levels of employees.				
In empowered organizations the primary role of management is not to be the problem solver, technical expert, or conductor but the facilitator, the person who fosters the organisation's development through active participation, co-ordination, and permitting others to provide the specific leadership skills needed.				
There is a need for managers to work in a participative manner to determine employee work responsibilities in line with organizational priorities, to decide on methods for evaluation, to jointly assess performance, and to agree on improvement activities where necessary.				
Goals must be developed in a participative manner and communicated throughout the organization; there should be consistency in goals; goals must be revised and updated; and employees must be rewarded for goal achievement.				
Developing, articulating, and gaining commitment to an organization – or unit –wide vision are key competencies of managers / leaders – those who hope to transform and improve the institution as opposed to maintaining the status quo.				

Qualitative Research

Questionnaire 5

TOPIC: REWARD MANAGEMENT

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Managers need to encourage employee involvement, team work and integrated reward systems. They should reward people who are willing to streamline, to change and to take risks. Success and accomplishment are what really motivate people.				
A high level of autonomy makes workers more responsible and accountable for their acts. Feedback gives them a useful understanding of their roles and functions.				
Always treat your employees exactly as you would like them to treat your best customers. Learn to help them with more than just their jobs: help them with their lives. Build them up, don't tear them down. The only justification for looking down on someone is to lift them up. Trust them and they will be true to you: treat them greatly and they will show themselves great.				
Our organizations are covered with negative incentives. These are all sorts of inducements and rewards for counter-productive behaviour. Managers hope for A, unwillingly or willingly reward B and they wonder why they get B.				
Managers should reward: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - SIMPLIFICATION instead of needless complication - DECISIVE ACTION instead of paralysis by analyses - SOLID SOLUTIONS instead of quick fixes - RISK TAKING instead of Risk avoiding - SMART WORK instead of busy work - EFFECTIVE BEHAVIOUR instead of squeaking joints - QUALITY WORK instead of fast work - LOYALTY instead of turnover - WORKING TOGETHER instead of working against 				
The manager's job is to create a reward system through which workers get what they want, the managers get what they want and the right things get done.				

Qualitative Research

Questionnaire 6

TOPIC: MOTIVATION

Statement	<i>Do you agree with this statement?</i>		<i>Does Senior Management practice it?</i>	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
The general feeling that the work environment is a rewarding environment rather than a punishing environment seems to be a key to employee involvement and commitment.				
Managers and organizations create the very conditions that lead to poor morale and low productivity.				
People have long been considered expenses, while stock, supplies, equipment, buildings are viewed on the balance sheet as assets.				
Employers have to learn that people are the assets.				
Everybody wants to be considered somebody. Make them feel important.				
<p>Managers should:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Be assertive rather than aggressive - Trust and treat people with respect - View, frank, open opinions by staff not as disrespectful, or a threat - Encourage subordinates, to speak up their minds - Welcome people being frank and critical - Enjoy disagreement and a bit of conflict - Not install systems and procedures that control people's lives, but introduce systems that are the servants of the staff. - Manage to use to advantage the strengths and talents of the staff - Bring out the best in people and not to concentrate on their weaknesses, reducing their self-esteem and confidence. 				
People want to belong. They want to have a "place to go". They want to interact with other people and to receive recognition and appreciation. They want the human contact and the sense of personal significance associated with inclusion and acceptance. They want to feel competent – to do things, which challenge them within limits of their abilities, and to conquer those challenges. They want to grow as individuals. People should find these satisfactions within the work environment.				

Qualitative Research

Questionnaire 7

TOPIC: USE OF SUPERVISORY POWER

Statement	<i>Do you agree with this statement?</i>		<i>Does Senior Management practice it?</i>	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
"Because I'm the Boss, and I say so" should rarely be the basis on which decisions are made and work gets accomplished.				
Most of weak managers concentrate their effort on keeping power and control to themselves by blocking information and not giving clear directions to expedite the job.				
This centralization will always lead to delays, dissatisfaction, and loss of interest on the part of subordinates, which will ultimately lead to reduction in efficiency and effectiveness.				
Manage by your knowledge and experience and not by the authority of your office. Do not obsess with power, and never degrade people or think you are above them.				
It is legitimate for managers and leaders to say: "We do not know enough about this" and to ask for help from subordinates, without automatically being seen to be weak and unsuitable for the direction – giving role. To inspire trust: keep your commitments, admit your mistakes and say sorry.				
Leaders should rely more on expert power, built on a foundation of continuous learning and a demonstrated ability to manage continuous quality improvements than a status derived from titles and positions within the hierarchy of the organization.				
Good managers manage relationships up, down and sideways. They handle tasks by leading and empowering team members, collaborating for value-added wins with peers, and actively following superiors (supporting the superior's direction but challenging the direction if there is a better way).				

Qualitative Research

Questionnaire 8

TOPIC: DELEGATION

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
If conventional management is largely about controlling the performers, successful management, on the other hand, is about encouraging and enabling talented performers to take appropriate control of their own work.				
Delegation means working through people, breaking the barriers of fear of loss of power and authority, and fear of making mistakes. Delegation is not abdication. Co-ordination is retained, to hold an organization together.				
Stewardship delegation is focused on results instead of methods. It gives people a choice of methods and makes them responsible for results. It involves clear, up-front, mutual understanding and commitment regarding expectations.				
Managers must delegate responsibilities according to employee willingness and abilities and not to dump work. They must assign responsibility, granting authority.				

Questionnaire 9

TOPIC: GOAL ORIENTED BEHAVIOUR

Statement	Do you agree with this statement?		Does Senior Management practice it?	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
The best managers are those with vision. They think about the future and what to do next, rather than what we did decades ago. They plan rather than react, and they act.				
Effective managers are proactive, not reactive, and results driven as a result of being goal-oriented. When developing goals, they involve the employees meaningfully.				
Too often, organizations, especially public entities, drift along, merely making incremental changes from one year to the next, without assessing the needs for course corrections.				
Goals must be developed in a participative manner and communicated throughout the organization; there should be consistency in goals; goals must be revised and updated; and employees must be rewarded for goal achievement.				
Establishing and reaching goals that are in support of the mission and strategic plans of the organization is one of the most important responsibilities of management.				

Qualitative Research

Questionnaire 10

TOPIC: MANAGEMENT OF DIVERSITY

1. What, in your opinion, is "Management of Diversity"?
2. Do you think that Management of Diversity is an important issue for South African organizations: Can managing diversity make a difference?
3. Do you see diversity as a problem or an opportunity? Do you believe that diversity of racioethnic, gender, cultural, and other identities in the workforce brings net added value to the organization?
4. Do you think that ignorance of cultural differences is a source of ineffectiveness and inefficiency in the work performance of diverse workgroups?
5. Who do you think is responsible for managing diversity?
6. What, in your opinion, are the most important "direct change drivers" that when incorporated into the overall strategic management process, will bring about effective diversity leadership".
7. Do you think Diversity Management and affirmative action / employment equity is the same thing?
8. South Africa is a rainbow nation. Do you think that it is a correct statement?

Quantitative Research Questionnaire 1

Please place a where you think it is appropriate.

1. NEVER 2. SOMETIMES 3. FREQUENTLY 4. ALWAYS

<i>Statement of practices</i>	<i>Do you agree with this practice or statement?</i>		<i>Do you think that Senior Management practices it in the work place?</i>			
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4
1. Change from Vertical, Empirical organizational structures, to Horizontal, more flat structures, to promote better communications and decision making.						
2. Organisations are shifting from purely functional organizations, to those that better accommodate Horizontal Work Flows, replacing narrowly focused departments and functions, each working in silos, independent of the others.						
3. The existing bureaucratic organization structure of the Public Service, make subordinates "passive", if not negative, and "dependent", and decrease their sense of responsibility and self control. Particularly at lower levels, employees become dissatisfied and frustrated in their work. The results are increased unhappiness and more problems in meeting goals and standards of performance.						
4. Organisational transformation begins with people. It begins inside every employee. It begins with something who causes each of us to think, see, feel and act in new ways.						
5. I-centric behaviours end up catalyzing toxic behaviours within the Public Service such as Internal competitions, Self-interest and Attachment to the past.						

1. NEVER 2. SOMETIMES 3. FREQUENTLY 4. ALWAYS

Statement of practices	Do you agree with this practice or statement?		Do you think that Senior Management practices it in the work place?			
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4
6. Power over Leadership: Exclusive, Being in control, Criticising and judging others, Punishing risk taking, Instilling fear, Silo mentality, Dictating commands, Compliant						
7. Power with Leadership: Inclusive, Developing partnerships, Appreciating others, Encouraging Risk taking, Instilling hope, Encouraging sharing, Developing, Committed to a higher purpose						
8. We-centric Leadership end up catalyzing co-creation and building collaboration in a mutual partnership for shaping and crafting the future.						
9. Context of community: give the whole team a chance to see the larger challenges facing the company, look at the business issues and focus on what the organization needs to survive and thrive. Think of the organization as a community of people who depend on one another for mutual success.						
10. Agreement: help the team members find things they can agree on as they talk about the business issues, so they will emerge with successful decisions together.						
11. Reframe conflict: give the team a chance to look at conflict in a healthy way and come up with new and better decisions and perspectives.						
12. Teamwork: give the team a way to look at its team dynamics and improve them.						

1. NEVER 2. SOMETIMES 3. FREQUENTLY 4. ALWAYS

Statement of practices	<i>Do you agree with this practice or statement?</i>		<i>Do you think that Senior Management practices it in the work place?</i>			
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4
13. Conversational skills: <i>teach the team new ways to communicate to turn breakdowns into breakthroughs.</i>						
14. Co-creating is the we affirming style of leadership that brings colleagues together to create the culture they need for success, an interactive dialogue about creating the future together.						
15. Co-creating is a shared investment in creating the future. For a fundamental shift to occur in the organization, leaders need to embrace inclusion and mutuality, to encourage co-creation rather than competition and blind conformity to rules and regulations.						
16. When we become aware of how we affect others and the experience we create with them, we are living a three dimensional experience of leadership – our view, other's people's view and the view of the person we become from our synthesis of the rich feedback we absorb from both outside and inside.						
17. People need to know "what's important around here". They need to know what concerns top management. They need to know the organisation's mission and their role in it. They need to know that they can create and share ideas – and that their ideas count. They need to know that when they speak, someone is listening.						
18. True Leadership is the creation of a culture or a relationship surrounding a common vision. It is knowing the difference between cornering people and getting them in your corner.						

1. NEVER 2. SOMETIMES 3. FREQUENTLY 4. ALWAYS

Statement of practices	<i>Do you agree with this practice or statement?</i>		<i>Do you think that Senior Management practices it in the work place?</i>			
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4
19. The image of the manager in the 1980's does not fit the manager of the year's 2000. What worked in the organizations of 1980's, either public or private, may not work at all in the twenty first century.						
20. To productively produce high quality Goods and Services, and Learn faster how to Innovate for Competitive Advantage, Public Service Managers should pay more attention to their people and to understand that when they hire people, they don't just get their hands; they get their hearts and minds and souls as well.						
21. Success in the future will come to those with the ability to cast aside old assumptions and reinvent themselves in surprising new ways. New perspectives lead to re-thinking business values and policies, so that learning and leading replace controlling and copying.						
22. Focused on day-to-day bush fires, public managers are preoccupied with short-term goals. They don't know how to create new choices, and still they can't find the time to continually push their people to think ... to dream ... to experiment ... to ask ... what if.						
23. Public Service Top Managers have difficulty in understanding that the vitality of any organization depends on individual initiative, team work, creativity and intreprenuer endeavour, meeting challenges, growing, developing and keep moving.						
24. Public Service Managers, on the whole, are more interested in "administering and controlling the job", and least competent at <i>coaching and mentoring</i> , facilitating change and innovation, managing conflict and relationships and building trust – all crucial factors in the new era.						

1. NEVER 2. SOMETIMES 3. FREQUENTLY 4. ALWAYS

Statement of practices	<i>Do you agree with this practice or statement?</i>		<i>Do you think that Senior Management practices it in the work place?</i>			
	Yes	No	1	2	3	4
25. Many of our institutions are reasonably well "administered" but not so well "managed", and very poorly led.						
26. Strategic Planning in the Public Service is subject to the first law of bureaucracy: it focuses on form rather than substance, through "remote control" management methodology.						
27. True leaders, expect the best of people. Their tools of choice are dialogue, respect, trust, openness, challenges and praises. They create a climate in which problems are opportunities, and everyone's a hero, by harnessing the enthusiasm of their people, and aligning their energy.						
28. The key strategic issues that now face organizations revolve around escaping their limits, applying their knowledge in new ways and building an environment where, Excellence, Innovation and Anticipation are the norm.						
29. The Public Service should create incentives to control costs and eliminate waste, with the goal of limiting public spending more closely to the rate of real economic growth.						
30. The Public Service should have an informed understanding of customer expectations, coupled with the ability to execute what it decides to do, with and end-to-end process management capability.						

Quantitative Research

Questionnaire 2

Below are statements for different management attitudes.

In the Public Sector environment, which statement do you think is closer to the reality you experience in the work place?

Please place a where you think it is appropriate. (Choose between right or left statement.)

	Statement	X	Statement	X
1	Managers who make reasonable efforts to supply staff with the "tools" needed to perform their functions.		Managers who portray the attitude "If I could do without it in my day, <i>you</i> can do without it today".	
2	Managers who provide appropriate training so staff is capable of performing in a professional manner.		Managers who are "too busy" to train their people how to perform in the appropriate manner.	
3	Managers who are trained in supervisory and management skills .		Managers who have received no training in management skills	
4	Managers who are sincerely interested , and who assist their subordinates in career development and advancement, even if it means losing good people to other departments.		Managers who selfishly hold their people back from job enrichment and advancement opportunities.	
5	Managers who reinforce the organisation's staff training programmes.		Managers who don't let employees use the new skills they learn.	
6	Managers who take the time to get more people involved in special assignments and projects.		Managers who use only a chosen few for special projects and assignments.	
7	Managers who take the time to coach their staff for improved performance.		Managers who do not coach or do so in a way that damages the subordinate's self-esteem.	
8	Managers who are fair to their employees.		Managers who are inconsistent in their dealings with staff and exhibit signs of favouritism.	
9	Managers who are promoted to their respective positions because they have performed well and shown signs of leadership.		Managers who are promoted to their respective positions, without regard for their leadership abilities.	

	Statement	X	Statement	X
10	Managers who sincerely care about staff and demonstrate this attitude. They treat subordinates as <i>mature adults</i> . Staff feels comfortable, important, co-operative and motivated.		Managers who rule by fear, threats, and intimidation. This is usually perceived as a threat to a person's need for safety, belonging and self-esteem.	
11	Managers who communicate on a regular basis with subordinates. Staff feels important, part of a team, and well informed. These employees feel comfortable because they are not embarrassed by customer enquiries about matters of which they should be aware but aren't.		Managers who do not take the time and interest to keep their staff informed. Another de-motivator is lack of <i>uniformity</i> in the information disseminated to staff. A person's self-esteem is attached when a customer learns of changes before the staff is informed.	
12	Managers who defend and "protect" their staff's self-esteem in problems and conflicts.		Managers who embarrass their employees in front of others, especially in situations where the person on the staff is following established procedures.	
13	Managers who encourage and seriously consider the ideas and suggestions of employees.		Managers who always respond or react negatively to the ideas and suggestions of employees.	
14	Managers who sincerely compliment staff for jobs well done. The compliments are given <i>immediately</i> , whenever a situation warrants praise.		Managers who never say thanks, or who wait for the annual appraisal to do so.	
15	Managers who take the time and interest to place each employee in the job for which he is most suited and in which he is most interested .		Managers who fill slots with people not equipped with the appropriate talents or dispositions to achieve success and happiness.	
16	Managers who take the time simply to say hello to their subordinates.		Managers who seldom chat with their subordinates.	
17	Managers discuss and agree systems with those who will do the work.		Managers impose their own systems and ways of working	
18	Managers let others make decisions within their <i>capabilities</i> and stand by those decisions.		Managers insist on clearing all decisions themselves	
19	Managers take hostile or defensive attitude towards other groups.		Managers collaborate as much as possible with the rest of the organization.	
20	Managers who love change and are pro-active , always looking to exploit new opportunities.		Managers who love the maintenance of the status quo and only react to problems.	

Quantitative Research

Questionnaire 3

Please place a where you think it is appropriate.

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Agree 4. Strongly Agree

Does the Public Service	1	2	3	4
1. Need better results but rewards those who look busiest and work the longest hours?				
2. Asks for quality work but set unreasonable deadlines?				
3. Want solid solutions to problems, but rewards quick fixes?				
4. Needs simplicity but rewards those who complicate matters and generate trivia?				
5. Asks for harmonious work environment but rewards squeaking joints who complain the most?				
6. Needs creative workers but chastises those who dare to be different?				
7. Talks about frugality but awards the largest budget increases to those who exhaust all of their resources?				
8. Asks for teamwork but rewards one team member at the expense of another?				
9. Needs innovation but penalizes unsuccessful risks and reward going by the book?				
10. Has lots of people in motion but not much getting done?				
11. Believes that the way the department has always done a job is the only way to do it?				
12. Awards the largest budget increases and new staff positions to those who spend the most?				
13. Finds it impossible to make rapid decisions or changes because of a morass of policies procedures, forms and committees?				

1. Strongly Disagree 2. Disagree 3. Agree 4. Strongly Agree

Does the Public Service	1	2	3	4
14. Never remembers when you're right and never forgets when you're wrong?				
15. Has difficulty understanding why people aren't committed to their jobs?				
16. Lives in perpetual rush without a vision and no goals, no work pride, no accountability.				
17. Accepts detachment and resentment as normal work practices?				
18. Confuses activity with accomplishment?				
19. Confuses contribution with commitment?				
20. Confuses compliance with commitment?				
21. Confuses busy work with results?				
22. Confuses information with communication?				
23. Confuses movement with motivation?				
24. Confuses abdication with delegation?				
25. Confuses paralysis by analysis with decision-making?				
26. Confuses intentions with deeds?				
27. Confuses administration and control with management & leadership ?				
28. Rely on "Systems", "Procedures", "Power" and other weapons in this effort to get things done?				
29. Foster a climate in which secrecy prevails and covering up and playing it safe is the first priority? The way they get things done is by using orders, threats, anger, arguments, and punishment. Its followers fear and resent them.				
30. Foster a climate where Politics and who you know, becomes more important than who you are?				