CHAPTER 4:   AN OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

INTRODUCTION

The search for what makes great leaders and what promotes effective governance in the public service has been pursued with enthusiasm by researchers of public administration. However, despite a growing interest in, and research on leadership and governance in public administration, it can be argued that knowledge of these topics remains limited. This became evident, when the researcher undertook this current study. This chapter seeks to examine a theoretical base for leadership and governance and the various approaches relating to them. In particular, attention is paid to their fundamental characteristics. In addition, both Eurocentric and Afrocentric approaches are examined because of their relevance to the South African local context.

The study is based on the premise that valuable lessons can be learnt from the breadth of approaches. The discussion focuses specifically on leadership and governance in traditional African societies as well as the classical and post-1987 Western leadership approaches. The Western approaches of governance focus on the five domains of governance, (i.e. political, administrative, economic, civic and systemic) (Rhodes, 2003: 12). The fundamentals of effective governance are discussed, namely accountability, transparency and access to information, human resources management, development and training, and the need for ICT (information and communication technology) as a potential contributor to effective service delivery. The integration of all of the above in the unique South African context, in response to political, social and cultural dynamics, is discussed in this chapter.

A PLETHORA OF LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

A review of scholarly studies on leadership and governance indicates that there is a wide variety of different theoretical approaches that try to explain the complexities of these concepts. There are also many dimensions to these concepts in both an African and a Western context (Kuye, 2003: Discussion; Naidoo, 2003: Discussion). Given their importance in promoting public service delivery, it is essential to examine these

concepts in detail. It is essential to examine the phenomenon of leadership and governance for the purpose of promoting public service delivery. In this regard, scholarly studies commonly indicate that leadership and governance, in relation to public service delivery, are reflected as policy implementation processes (Kuye, 2003: Discussion).

Leadership researchers such as Northouse (2000) conceptualise leadership from a personality perspective, which suggests that leadership is a combination of special traits or characteristics, which individuals ought to possess, so that they can persuade others to accomplish tasks through effective governance practices (Kets de Vries, 2001: 22). Other approaches to leadership indicate that it is an act or behaviour, or that it is what leaders effect in order to bring about change in a group or institution (Taylor, 2003: 81). It can be argued that leadership is neither only a trait or characteristic, nor an act or behaviour of the leader. Rost (1993: 123), for instance, indicate that leadership is about transformation and reform, two concepts that are the cornerstones of the South African public service. Rost (1993: 123) postulates that: "Real transformation involves leadership, engaging in influence relationships based on persuasion, intending real changes to happen, and insisting that those changes reflect their mutual purposes." Maxwell (1998: 205) proposes that leadership is to be regarded as a relationship or partnership between leaders and followers. A partnership occurs when the control shifts from the leader to the group member, and thus towards shared decision making. Each person is responsible for service delivery outcomes, and therefore takes personal accountability for the success or failure of departmental objectives.

People who engage in leadership are referred to as leaders, whereas individuals, toward whom leadership is directed, are referred to as followers (Northouse, 2000: 4). Leadership is a transactional event that occurs between the leader and his or her followers within a particular context to promote or achieve an outcome through effective governance practices. Leadership can therefore be viewed as an instrument of goal achievement, which helps followers to achieve the goals and meet the needs of the institution. Leadership has to do with directing a group of individuals or role-players towards accomplishing a particular task. Both leaders and followers are therefore involved together in the leadership process, in the sense that leaders need followers and followers need leaders. Nonetheless, although they are so closely interlinked, it is the

leader who often initiates the relationship, creates the communication linkages and maintains the relationship.

On a different note, Sashkin and Sashkin (2003: 65) define leadership in terms of the power relationship that exists between different role-players, such as between leaders and followers. In terms of this perspective, leaders have power and wield it to effect change in others (Northouse, 2001: 1). From this point of view, leadership transforms followers through vision setting, role modelling, and individualized attention (Lourens, 2001: 5). In institutions, there are two major kinds of power, namely, position power and personal power (Adair, 2003: 155). Position power refers to the power that a person derives from a particular office or rank in a formal institutional system. Departmental heads in the public service, for example, have more power than their subordinates. Personal power refers to the power a leader derives from his or her followers. In this instance, power is conceptualized as a tool that leaders use to achieve their own ends (Burns, 1978: 25). Burns (1978) explains power from a relationship standpoint. In this instance, power occurs in relationships and should be used by leaders and followers to benefit their collective goals.

Within the context of this study, the aim of leadership is to transform people in the public service, who engage themselves in the promotion of service delivery. In the process, the public service may also be transformed. Leadership is therefore about transformation of people. Within the context of this study, leadership is a multidimensional influence relationship between public servants, who use persuasion to implement public policy. A leader is therefore someone who formulates and decides the direction of a particular effort and influences people to follow that direction in order to promote service delivery through effective governance practices.

Muthien, *et al*. (2000: 240) indicate that the concept governance refers to a set of institutions and actors for example, between governments departments and other sectors of society. These new relationships are essential for realising service delivery outcomes (Institute of Governance, 1999: 5). As issues become more complex, and as the limitations of the public service became more apparent, it is clear that the public service is not the sole provider of services to society. The increasing demands and needs of service delivery by society are too complex to be addressed by the public service acting

alone. In South Africa, for example, important constitutional changes enacted in the 1990s were inspired by the belief that the public service needed to become more inclusive, and more effective at working in collaboration with citizens and other sectors of society to promote service delivery performance. Governance therefore refers to the capacity to get things done. It does not rest only on the public service to be a sole provider of services to society.

Effective leadership and governance require a policy framework that mandates accountability, transparency and participation (Fox and Meyer, 1996: 55). Accountability, transparency and participation are evident in both traditional African and Western governance models (Naidoo, 1996: 9). With both models, participation encourages society to be involved in decision-making. However, in the Western governance model, participative management promotes decision-making by the public at a secondary level, whereas in traditional African societies participation in decision-making is at a primary level. In traditional African societies participation is referred to as collective management.

The reform programmes of the public service in a country should be shaped by the specific context in which these services are delivered. In countries that have huge service delivery disparities, such as South Africa, the need to improve policy implementation is at the top of the agenda (Service Delivery Review, 2003). In countries were services are accessible to all citizens, there is nonetheless pressure to continue improving services. The centrality of leadership and governance for effective policy implementation has been recognized by many governments, including South Africa (Vil-Nkomo, 1998: 137). It is, however, evident that the South African government has mainly replicated other countries' approaches with little consideration to the local context of the South African public service (Molopo, 2003: Discussion).

Kaul (2000: 3) has warned that if the South African public service does not appoint leaders who are committed to local issues and narratives, then governance will fail. It can be argued that a government that is not based on the approaches that are pertinent to that society will inevitably tend to reflect the cold, calculating and coercive ways of the modern state. According to Freedman and Tregoe (2003: 156), leadership and governance practices that do not take into account the local culture, values and

principles will lead to an inefficient and ineffective public service. Kuye (2003: Discussion) argues that inefficiency and ineffectiveness reinforce one another. Each dimension of leadership and governance can therefore be likened to a link within a larger system of public administration. If one or more links are weak, the integrity of the entire system of public administration is compromised.

Within the context of this study, leadership and governance focuses on transformation. It is clear from the discussion above that transformation is about people and institutions towards effective service delivery. Transformation means insisting that the changes reflect the mutual purposes of public servants and the public service. Transformation should therefore happen in the public service when public servants and departments develop common purposes towards service delivery outcomes. Leaders perform various functions within an institutional or community context, within a governance framework, which is relevant to the South African public service. These are elaborated in the discussion below.

Leadership functions

Roos (1991: 244) succinctly captures the different aspects of leadership functions; namely: executive, policy-maker and exemplar. Other authors such as Schacter (2000: 11) added an important strand that focused on the achievement of goals in an institution or community. In this regard, all leaders within an institutional or community context ought to serve many functions to some degree towards the achievement of goals. In short, they constitute a process, which implies movement through a series of events. They also include giving direction in the sense of guiding, steering, inspiring, and actuating people. They include managing and directing the efforts of others and they refer to the performance of tasks through people to achieve a specific goal. Roos (1991: 245) and Schacter (2000: 9) maintain that the leader performs a number of functions. These are elaborated in the discussion below.

Executive: In his or her executive capacity, the leader does not perform the work alone: He or she assigns it to other persons. This, however, requires the leader to know how to delegate authority and maintain accountability. Should he or she be ignorant about the

delegation of authority, he or she will create a bottleneck and an obstacle in the group's success.

Planner: The task of deciding how a group will achieve its objectives is part of a leader's functions. Planning in this respect entails the determination of intermediate steps, as well as the long-term planning of future steps to attain the final objective. The leader is often the sole custodian of the plan and the only one who knows the entire programme of action.

Policy-maker: The leader is the central determinator of the policies and goals of any group. It is as policy-maker that the style of leadership employed by the leader becomes clear, since policies originate from three sources, namely, superimposed from above by authorities using the leader first as consultant and eventually as messenger; from below where the policy is dictated by the group, although the leader is still expected to guide the discussion; and from the leader himself in those cases where he has the autonomy to make independent policy decisions.

Expert and informational role: The leader acts as monitor, disseminator of information and spokesperson of the group or team. The leader is often required to act as a ready source of information and skills. Especially in informal groups, the leader is the person of whom the impossible is often expected.

External group representative: It is impossible for all members of a group to deal with other groups directly. The leader thus assumes the role of representative of the group and as such will deal with outgoing and incoming communications.

Controller of internal relations: The leader determines the detail of the group structure and thus functions as the controller of intra-group relations. Depending upon the leadership style, the leader will be central, remote or one of the team. The involvement of the leader with the group may vary over time; for example, a group may have started with a new task and it may be necessary for the leader to be one of the team members. Subsequently, as the task or project develops, the leader may decide to be more remote to allow continuation of the project without further direct involvement.

P*urveyor of rewards and punishments (motivator)*: Due to the leader's power to reward or punish, he or she can control group members. The leader has the power to decide on promotions, to award honours, to reduce status, and, in extreme cases, to dismiss group members.

Arbitrator, mediator and decision maker: The leader is entrepreneur, conflict handler, negotiator and resource allocator. In intra-group conflict, the leader is expected to act as

the arbitrator and mediator. The leader has to act as judge and as conciliator, which does however put him or her in a position to encourage cooperation within the group, depending on the aims he or she seeks to achieve.

Exemplar: Many groups use their leader as the example of what they should be and do. In military and religious circles, for instance the leader's bravery or piousness is often used as an example of what the soldier or the churchgoer should aspire to.

Symbol of the group: A leader has to play a similar role as a badge, uniform, or name in providing a cognitive focus for group identity and unity.

Substitute for individual responsibility: The leader plays an important role for individual members by relieving them of responsibility for individual decisions and acts. The individual thus trusts the leader to make the final decision.

Scapegoat: As much as the leader constitutes an ideal object for positive emotions, he or she will also be the target for aggression and feelings of frustration, disappointment and disillusionment. This ambivalence is inherent in the leadership position. To the extent that the leader takes responsibility, he or she should be prepared to take the blame for failures.

In sum, leadership is not a freestanding activity that occurs in some leadership functions, but it occurs in all the functions. Leadership is one function in a group or institution among many. Leaders thus fulfil different roles. Within the context of this study, each role should represent the activities that leaders in the public service undertake in pursuit of the ultimate aim of accomplishing service delivery outcomes. Although it is necessary to identify the components of the leader's job to understand the different roles and activities of the leader, it is also important to remember that the real job of leadership cannot be practiced as a set of independent parts. All the roles will interact in the leadership function. As Daft (1988: 22) states, "the leader who only communicates or only conceives never gets anything done, while the leader who only 'does' ends up doing it all alone." Thus, diligently fulfilling each role will contribute to the effectiveness of the leader and ultimately to the promotion of a sustainable public service. This, in turn, should lead to effective service delivery to society.

An important practical implication for the South African public service is that managers at every level should exercise leadership. Leaders in the management echelons of the public service should, for instance, serve as mentors to their subordinates. More

importantly, leaders in the South African public service should help other public servants to become leaders. In this regard, everyone has an opportunity to be a leader as well as a follower.

It can be argued that change is the most distinguishing characteristic of leadership and governance in the South African public service. However, only when leaders and followers actually intend real changes to happen within departments, will service delivery be successful. There has to be a transformation to a marked degree in the attitudes, norms and behaviours within the South African public service. The leadership and governance process should be seen to carry through the issues from the decision stages to a point of delivery, embodying concrete changes in attitudes and behaviours in the South African public service. Leadership and governance can be effective only when it achieves service delivery outcomes. Within the context of this study, leadership and governance ought to redress service delivery imbalances and inequities in South Africa, taking into account local narratives, such as diverse political differences. In this regard, it is important to consider traditional African and Western leadership and governance approaches that are relevant to the South African public service context. This is elaborated on in the discussion below.

TRADITIONAL AFRICAN LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

Leadership and governance within the South African public service context ought to fit well within the general theme of the African renaissance. The notion of African renaissance seeks to empower African people, to rebuild and revitalize a people's identity including the recovery of African peoples' identity and dignity (Setsabi, 2001: 2). Kuye (2003: Discussion) indicates that the African renaissance entails a process of rebirth, renewal, revitalization, rededication, learning and value reorientation, positive transformation, taking charge of one's identity, and bringing about an end to poverty and deprivation in Africa. The African renaissance focuses on the quest for the integration of traditional African leadership and governance in the workplace (Tshikwatamba, 2003: 299).

Many studies have thus far concentrated on leadership and governance within the context of Western societies (Nuzvidziwa, 2003: 3). They have ignored the dynamic

111

nature of traditional African societies. More importantly, these studies did not see the positive content of traditional African leadership and governance. Maylam (1986: 1) observes that "African practices are perceived as being peripheral and belonging only outside the world stage, appearing rarely on the central stage and considered a hindrance to Western civilization." Colonialism has hindered African development. Nonetheless, there are useful approaches that can be adopted within an institutional context from traditional African leadership and governance. Aspects such as accountability, responsibility, transparency, collective management (participation) and humaneness are prerequisites for effective leadership and governance in traditional African societies, which can contribute positively to the South African public service.

Moral and value-based leadership is essential in traditional African societies (Molopo, 2003: Discussion). There are many sayings in African culture that point leaders in the direction of democratic leadership and effective governance. These could enrich our understanding of an improved leadership and governance framework for the South African public service. Traditional African leadership and governance for instance focus on a strong system of common beliefs and values (Naidoo, 1996: 10). Naidoo (2003: Discussion) indicates that these beliefs and values are still widely respected and adhered to in South Africa, although, Molopo (2003: Discussion) suggests, in some communities, particularly those in urban areas, these beliefs and value systems are gradually being eroded. Nuzvidziwa (2003: 1) argues that culture is one resource that Africans should turn to in order to reap the benefits of transformational and team leadership and governance in the South African public service. It is thus necessary to review and investigate of traditional African leadership and governance as it exists in South Africa today.

In reviewing traditional African leadership and governance, Molopo (2003: Discussion) points out that there are certain key phrases in the Sesotho language (which is one of the eleven official languages in South Africa) that pertain to leadership and effective governance in the South African public service. One such phrase is: *"Morena ke Morena Ka Sechaba, eseng ka lelapa la hae kappa labo, che*!" In other words: "a chief is a chief by the people and through the people and not by his own immediate family or through relatives." Chiefs are people who head tribes or communities in rural villages in traditional African societies in South Africa (Nuzvidziwa, 2003: 3). In other words,

people become leaders through the emergent leadership process. Adair (2003: 9) indicates that this type of leadership is not assigned by position, but instead it emerges over a period of time through communication and interaction.

Lourens (2001: 21) suggests that in Western leadership when others perceive an individual as the most influential member of an institution or community, regardless of that individual's title, the person is displaying emergent leadership. In traditional African societies, too, when an individual is perceived by the community as the most influential member of the clan or tribe, regardless of his title, the person is displaying emergent leadership (Naidoo 2003: Discussion).

In contrast to the above, leadership that is based on occupying a position within an institution or community, is called assigned leadership (Rost, 1993: 118). Team leaders or departmental heads, as is the case in public service departments throughout South Africa, are all examples of assigned leadership within an institutional context. A community leader appointed by the community is another example of assigned leadership, for example, traditional leaders in African societies. Northouse (2001: 4) nonetheless posits that persons who are assigned to a leadership position do not always become the real leaders in a particular setting.

Adair (2003: 9) reiterates that the individual acquires emergent leadership through other people in an institution or community, who support and accept the individual's behaviour. Researchers have also found that the person's personality plays a role in such emergent leadership. Other members of their group more frequently identify those individuals who are more dominant, more intelligent, and more confident about their performance, as leaders. It can be argued that, when an individual is engaged in leadership, that individual is a leader, whether or not the individual was explicitly assigned to be the leader or instead emerged as a leader.

Tshikwatamba (2003: 299) discusses the question of *ubuntu* (humanness) extensively as being inseparable from the integration of traditional African leadership and governance in the workplace. Even a brief look at traditional African leadership and governance reveals that effective leadership and governance involves the integration of *ubuntu*. *Ubuntu* has a particularly important place in the African value system and emanates

from African mores. Mbigi (1997: 2) literally translates *ubuntu* as collective personhood and morality. *Ubuntu* entails that an individual who is part of the collective, for example a tribe, family or institution, should be afforded unconditional respect and the right to be heard irrespective of his/her social status. It creates images of supportiveness, cooperation and solidarity. According to Naidoo (1996: 1), *ubuntu* positively contributes to the sustenance and wellbeing of a people, community, society or institution, by promoting the common good of all people. *Ubuntu* seeks to bring back humanness into interpersonal and group relationships (Naidoo, 1996: 1). Spontaneous cooperation is the proper basis for relationships in an institution. This may lead to harmonious institutions.

Setsabi (2001: 5) argues that *ubuntu* is a universal concept, because it brings about tolerance and recognition of the humanity in all cultural groups. According to Nuzvidziwa (2003: 3), these attributes underpin institutional and personal success stories, and can be are viewed as an institution's intangible assets. They will, moreover, ensure a dynamic and effective public service (Nuzvidziwa, 2003: 3). *Ubuntu* will create favourable conditions within an institutional context. It would therefore be appropriate to call traditional African leadership and governance value-based and ethical leadership. Traditional African leadership differs from Western participatory in both conceptualization, and fundamental application (Henry, 1975: 24). Molen, *et. al.* (2002: 59) define participation as "an activity undertaken by one or more individuals previously excluded from decision-making process." Participation is viewed as people involving themselves to a greater or lesser degree, in institutions indirectly or directly concerned with the decision making about, and implementation of development.

Within an institutional context in Western democracies, participatory leadership is a practice by which employees are offered full explanations of decisions already made by management as pseudo decisions (Pateman, 1970: 68). In this scenario, employees are not really part of the decision-making processes, although they may be informed of the decisions taken. Ideally, participatory leadership should be a way of increasing the involvement of employees in policy making and establishing corporate goals. This practically means that, employees are merely involved secondarily and that their involvement is at the implementation level of decisions and not at the level of formulations. Although the argument put forward in the South African public service is

that it promotes participative leadership, it is contended that traditional African leadership can in fact be more feasible in promoting effective governance. The majority of employees are regarded as passive and ill-informed participants. On this note, a few people reach consensus and employees at large merely participate and are involved in the policy implementation level.

In the traditional African leadership model, competence is the ability to pursue strategies that contribute to the realization of collective goals. In this setting, individual goals are aligned to the achievement of collective objectives. Traditional African leadership centre on dedication of the community, which has been connected to self-discipline, self-sacrifice, solidarity and sociality. Markus and Kityama (1991: 227) assert that, when collectiveness is the dominant value orientation, people, employees and communities experience fundamental connectedness to each other. This determines the institutional culture and values. The institution enjoys the custodianship of process and ownership thereof. The desire to maximize employees' commitment to the institution and the ultimate object of motivating them to operate as co-owners, and not as mere employees, is attainable when the practices and values of traditional African leadership are integrated.

In traditional African leadership, according to Mbigi (1997: 2) and Tshikwatamba (2003: 302), harmonious relations between individuals are bonded by *ubuntu*. Traditional African leadership is both the theory and the practice of 'Afrocentriciting' and of placing leadership and management practices at the centre of the social and cultural orientation. It is about anchoring African practices, ethos and value system, and exemplifying the African collective will. Tshikwatamba (2003: 302) points out that, in its theoretical sense, traditional African leadership entails interpretation and analysis from the perspective of Africans as subjects rather than as objects on the periphery of Western leadership and management practices. In its practical sense, collectiveness entails authentic African based leadership and governance (Khoza, 1994: 118).

Setsabi (2001: 3) argues that Africans by implications do not need to be lectured on effective leadership and governance, as the basis of leadership and governance is found within traditional African societies. The example given by Setsabi (2001: 3), is the right

to be heard and the need for tolerance, expressed in the phrase: "*Le bo Motanyane, Molomo-mosehlanyana*." In other words: "Everyone has the right to openly express themselves at Chiefs' gatherings, without fear of intolerance." Tolerance has been the basis of democracy in South Africa since 1994. It is important to ensure that this principle continues to be respected in the South African public service. There is a Sotho saying reminding leaders of the need for tolerance and democratic leadership: "*Mooa Khotla ha a tsekisoe*" In other words: "Any member can say anything in a public gathering and should not be charged." (Maminime, 2001: 2). This calls for tolerance and the need for a balanced leadership that embraces the demands of different types of people.

Mbigi (1997: 2) states that diligence and honesty are part of the moral basis on which traditional African societies are built. According to Molopo (2003: Discussion), the emphasis of traditional African leadership and governance is on a system that works, by using for instance, "*Khahlametsano* (compromise), and *le lumme* (consensus)." Molopo (2003: Discussion) stated that there are other values found in traditional African societies that will be applicable within the South African public service. Amongst these are "*hlompho* (respect) and *kutloelo bohoko* (empathy)." The underlying system of traditional African leadership and governance is based on a set of values with regard to morality, reconciliation, equality of all people, human dignity, sharing, peace and justice. Naidoo (1996: 11) suggests that, traditional African leadership and governance are purely indigenous African philosophy of life. Naidoo (1996: 11) also states that traditional African leadership and governance recognizes other people's human dignity and integrity, encompassing the universal values of brotherhood and sisterhood.

Moral leadership is essential in traditional African societies, which means not only taking responsibility for one's actions, but also explaining them. Leadership means to give explanations of one's actions, not only to society but also ultimately to the ancestors. Leadership in traditional African societies involves an obligation to act responsibly on behalf of ones people. A leader's actions are subject to sanction by the ancestors (Nuzvidziwa, 2003: 3). Leaders are not regarded as ordinary men or women. Instead, it is their duty to serve the community productively and with humility. Leaders in traditional African societies balance their responsibilities and power through societal and self-imposed safeguards that require of all leaders to consult and listen to their

people in order to govern in the interests of these people. "Traditional African leadership and governance derives much of its legitimacy from its embeddedness in the social and cultural life of rural communities, where the discourses of tradition and cultural identity remain persuasive for many of the residents." (Mbigi, 1997: 2).

Traditional African leadership and governance generally emphasized participatory values as tools to be utilized by effective leaders (Nuzvidziwa, 2001: 11). It was seen as imperative for leaders to involve their followers in decisions that concerned them. In almost all African communities the use of open-air informal gatherings as assemblies for reaching consensus on contentious and non-contentious issues is well documented and fairly widespread. The sayings extolling the virtues of participatory leadership in Sotho society confirm this; for instance, there is a saying: "*Letlaila le tlailela Morena*." In other words, "let people say what they want even if it is not good." (Nuzvidziwa, 2001: 11).

Although it is emphasized that these leadership and governance practice are African, they are not sectarian, as they can be applied to any setting; cultural orientation and *ubuntu* will always be essential ingredients. According to Mbigi (1997: 2) and Khoza (1994: 118), traditional African leadership and governance is fundamentally positioned at the centre of African cultures, and uses a communitarian approach to conflict resolution and other essential transactional (day-to-day) aspects of leadership and governance. Within an institutional context, this would entail taking joint accountability and responsibility for goals in an institution.

This principle of joint leadership and governance could be particularly important for the South African public service. In promoting this principle, both leadership and public servants would have co-ownership for public service delivery. Both leadership and public servants would be jointly responsible and accountable for service delivery outcomes. In this way, effectiveness and efficiency could be increased in the public service.

CLASSICAL WESTERN LEADERSHIP APPROACHES (1841 TO 1987)

There are a number of approaches of leadership within the classical Western time period, and it is crucial to consider these for the purpose of this study because it is

117

instructive to place them in their context within the evolution of leadership (Lourens, 2001: 23). This will assist the researcher in examining their positive attributes in order to develop an integrated holistic framework for promoting service delivery by the South African public service. Scientific research on the concept of leadership did not begin until the 20th century (Bass, 1981: 23). Since then, there has been considerable research on the subject, from a variety of perspectives. It may be possible to group many diverse leadership approaches into specific and ordered categories.

In the first three decades of the twentieth century, emphasis was placed on concepts such as control and the centralization of power (Rost, 1993: 2). Subsequently, in the 1930s, Bogardus, a social psychologist, developed a trait and also a group theory of leadership. The group approach to understanding leadership began to dominate the leadership literature in the 1940s, in which the leadership function was analyzed and understood in terms of a dynamic relationship. In the 1950s, many leadership scholars defined leadership as a relationship that developed shared goals. The bulk of the definitions in the 1950s indicate that scholars viewed leadership as a process of influence, which was oriented toward achieving shared purposes.

Leadership definitions in the 1960s viewed leadership as behaviour that could influence people toward shared goals (Northouse, 2001: 3). In the 1970s, leadership studies challenged the mainstream views of institutional behaviourists and psychologists. In the 1980s, leadership was defined as 'basically doing what the leader wants done.' At the end of the 1980s, leadership was still predominantly thought of as leaders getting followers to obey the leader's wishes in order to achieve group or institutional goals that reflected excellence, defined as higher-level effectiveness. At the beginning of the 1990s, leadership was defined in terms of a culmination of great leaders, traits, group, institutional, and management theories of leadership that focus on excellence, charisma, culture, quality, vision, values, peak performance and empowerment (Rost, 1993: 40).

Given the variety of the above-mentioned approaches, it can be argued that the authors of each era were reflecting their reality and conceptualisations of leadership. Evidently, though, no definitive understanding exists of what differentiates leaders from non-leaders and effective leaders from ineffective leaders. The major leadership dispositions, eras and periods as briefly mentioned above, are presented in Table 4/1, along with

examples of particular theories. The purpose of the table is to place leadership approaches in their proper context in a summarized format. Each new era represents a higher stage of development in the leadership process. The various phases and theories overlap from a chronological point of view. The most influential ones will, however, be discussed below. The purpose is not to present an elaborate description of each leadership approach, theory or model.

Table 4/1

Evolutionary stages of leadership approaches (1841 to 1987)

(1) Personality Era	Great Man Period Trait Period	Great Man Theory (Bowden, 1927; Carlyle, 1841; Galton, 1869) Trait Theory (1900)
(2) Influence Era	Persuasion Period Power Relations Period	Leader Dominance Approach (Schenk, 1928) Five Bases of Power Approach (French, 1956; French & Raven, 1959)
(3) Behaviour Era	Early Behaviour Period Late Behaviour Period Operant Period	Style Approach (Reinforced Change Theory (Bass, 1960); Ohio State Studies (Fleishman, Harris & Burtt, 1955); Michigan State Studies (Likert, 1961) Managerial Grid Model (Blake & Mouton, 1964) Four-Factor Theory (Bowers & Seashore, 1966), Theory X and Y (McGregor, 1960, 1966) Action Theory of leadership (Argyris, 1976); Sims (1977) Ashour & Johns (1983)
(4) Situational Era	Environment Period Social Status Period Socio-technical Period	Environment Approach (Hook, 1943); Open-Systems Model (Katza & Kahn, 1978) Role Attainment Theory (Stogdill, 1959) Leaders' Role Theory (Homans, 1959) Socio-technical systems (Trist & Bamforth, 1951)
(5) Contingency Era		Contingency Theory (Fiedler, 1964, 1967) Path-Goal Theory (Evans, 1970; House, 1971) Situational Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; 1977)
(6) Transactional Era	Exchange Period Role Development Period	Leader Member Exchange Theory (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975) Reciprocal Influence Approach (Greene, 1975) Emergent Leadership (Hollander, 1958) Social Exchange Theory (Hollander, 1979, Jacobs, 1970) Role-Making Model (Graen & Cashman, 1975)
(7) Anti-Leadership Era	Ambiguity Period Substitute Period	Attribution Approach (Pfeffer, 1977) Leadership Substitute Theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978)
(8) Culture Era		McKinsey 7-S Framework (Pascale & Athos, 1981) Theory X (Ouchi & Jaeger, 1978, Ouchi, 1981) In Search of Excellence Approach (Peters & Waterman, 1982) Organisational Culture (Schein, 1985); Self-Leadership (Manz & Sims, 1987)
(9) Transformational Era	Charisma Period Self-fulfilling Prophecy Period	Transformational Leadership Theory (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Tichy & DeVanna, 1986) Transactional Leadership Theory (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985; Tichy & DeVanna, 1986) Self-fulfilling Prophecy Leadership Theory (Field, 1989; Eden, 1984); Performance Beyond Expectations Approach (Bass, 1985)

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

(1)   Personality era

This included the first formal leadership theories, and represents the origin of our understanding of the leadership process (Luthans, 1973: 32). This era is divided into the 'Great Man Period' and the 'Trait Period'. In the 'Great Man Period', researchers focused on famous people in the history of the world and suggested that a person who copied their personalities and behaviours would become a strong leader (Taylor, 2003: 83). The process was hampered by the realizations that many effective leaders in fact had widely differing personalities. Furthermore, personalities are extremely difficult to imitate, thereby providing little value to aspiring leaders. Leadership theory progressed slightly in the 'Trait Period', when attempts were made to remove the links with specific individuals and simply to develop a number of general traits, which, if adopted, would enhance leadership potential and performance (House, 1976). The trait approach is elaborated on hereunder.

The trait approach was one of the first systematic attempts to study leadership (Adair, 2003: 10). In the early 1900s, leadership traits were studied to determine what made certain people great leaders (Bichard, 1998: 328). The theory focused on identifying the innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great social, political and military leaders. It was believed that people were born with these traits and that only great people possessed them. In the mid 1900s, this was challenged by research that questioned the universality of leadership traits. In 1948, for instance, Stogdill suggested that no consistent set of traits differentiated leaders from non-leaders across a variety of situations (Marx, 1959: 151). An individual with leadership traits who was a leader in one situation might not be a leader in another situation. Personal factors relating to leadership continued to be important, but researchers contended that these factors were relative to the requirements of the situation (Northouse, 2001: 16).

Some of the characteristics used to define effective leaders include unique physical factors, personality features and abilities. The process viewpoint of leadership however suggests that leadership is a phenomenon that resides in the context (Lourens, 2001: 21). The process viewpoint is leadership that can be observed and learnt. Leadership as a trait is thus different from leadership as a process. The trait viewpoint sees leadership as a set of characteristics possessed to varying degrees by different people. It suggests

that leadership resides in a select few, who are believed to have special, usually inborn, talents. Kuye (2001: 17) introduces the notion that leadership is based on the idea that the leadership process is a function of the leader, group members, and other situational variables. Leadership thus has to take into account factors related to the leader, the person or persons being led, and a variety of situational factors in the environment.

Goleman (2003: 327) claims that "leadership can best be understood by examining its key variables namely, leader characteristics and traits; leader behaviour, leadership style; group member characteristics and the internal and external environment." Leadership effectiveness refers to attaining desirable outcomes such as productivity, quality, and satisfaction in a given situation. Kuye (2001: 18) states that, leadership effectiveness is dependent on all of these variables mentioned by Goleman (2003).

In recent years, there has been resurgence of interest in the trait approach, in terms of explaining how traits influence leadership (Goleman, 2003: 327). This can be seen in the current emphasis placed on visionary and charismatic leadership by researchers. The trait approach, therefore, began in the early 1900s with an emphasis on identifying the qualities of great persons, it then shifted to include the impact of situations on leadership, and most recently, it shifted back to re-emphasize the critical role of traits in effective leadership.

The identification of effective leadership qualities that make some particular people outstanding leaders would be to the advantage of the South African public service. Smit and Cronje (1992: 340) propose that strong leaders have basic traits that distinguish them from non-leaders and that if these traits could be isolated and identified, then potential leaders could be recognized. However, in the search for identifiable leadership traits, research studies conducted by Lourens (2001: 26) show that effective leadership is not the result of a specific set of traits, but rather how well a leader's traits correspond with the qualities required for a specific position.

In this regard, Bichard (1998: 327) suggests that leaders are people who will ensure that their institutions flourish, and they are the people who will have the skills to provide leadership in the wider institution. Leaders will create a climate where innovation and initiative are encouraged, where risk is accepted and well managed, and where the first

reaction to mistakes is to learn and not to blame. They will create a climate were people feel empowered to make a difference and motivated to use their potential for the benefit of the public service and the community that they serve.

Kotter (1996: 15) postulates that leaders will not shy away from conflict but will instead see it as an inevitable and necessary ingredient of any institution. They are prepared to earn respect from their colleagues afresh each day. It is argued that the leaders who are likely to succeed in the South African public service, will generally be those who have genuinely been able to persuade a critical mass of public servants, that the public service does indeed have a sense of direction and that they, the employees, have an investment therein. True leaders will form and maintain successful partnerships inside the public service and, increasingly, beyond it. Partnerships are necessary to promote effective governance, which is essential for improving service delivery. It can be argued that leaders in the public service should ensure that their external focus is international and national, as well as relevant to the local context.

Effective leaders believe that people are the most valuable resource in institutions (Chaleff, 2003: 217). Leaders proceed by listening, coaching, mentoring and developing, so that their followers can realize their own potential and make an effective contribution. Leaders ought to ensure that no one is prevented from contributing by discrimination of any kind and they should insist that colleagues are judged, above all, on their ability to deliver results. Leaders should also be visible, to understand the power of non-verbal messages which their behaviour sends out. Leaders ought to devote time to keeping abreast of developing trends because they know that the speed of change at the moment in the environment is such that one is either in the process of developing oneself as a leader or one is in the process of decline. Some important attributes and skills of effective leaders are conscientiousness, extroversion, dominance, self-confidence, energy, agreeableness, intelligence and openness to new experiences (Cohen and Wheeler, 1997: 307). It is, however, both difficult and dangerous to generalize about such leadership attributes by saying that all leaders must have all these traits and attributes. A literature review by Roos (1991: 243) reveals that virtually all leaders possess, to a greater or lesser extent certain attributes. Table 4/2 provides a summary of the traits and characteristics that were identified by researchers from the trait approach.

Table 4/2

Studies of leadership traits (1948 to 1991)

Stogdill (1948)	Mann (1959)	Stogdill (1974)	Lord, DeVader And Alliger (1986)	Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991)
Intelligence	Intelligence	Achievement	Intelligence	Drive
Alertness	Masculinity	Persistence	Masculinity	Motivation
Insight	Adjustment	Insight	Dominance	Integrity
Responsibility	Dominance	Initiative		Confidence
Initiative	Extroversion	Self-confidence		Cognitive ability
Persistence	Conservatism	Responsibility		Task Knowledge
Self-confidence		Cooperativeness		
		Tolerance		
		Influence		
		Sociability		

(Adapted from Northouse, 2001: 18)

Table 4/2 clearly illustrates the range of traits and characteristics related to leadership, as they have been identified and emphasized by theorists of the different eras. It also shows how difficult it is to select specific traits as definitive leadership traits. A century of research on the trait approach gives an extended list of traits that 'would-be' leaders might hope to possess or wish to cultivate if they want to be perceived by others as leaders. Some of the traits that are central to this list include: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity and sociability.

Firstly, a number of theorist list intelligence as an important trait of leaders; it can thus be argued that intelligence and its cultivation will enhance leadership qualities and abilities. Moreover, it appears that strong verbal ability, perceptual ability and reasoning can make one a better leader. To paraphrase Roos's (1991: 243) view, intellectual flexibility is an important attribute, which requires that the leader be able to communicate at different levels of intellect and understanding. A leader ought to have a thorough knowledge of human nature, which will enable the leader to understand his or her followers, and to mobilize their latent ability to work. A leader ought to have insight coupled with knowledge. This knowledge comprises the authoritative knowledge characteristics of a true leader. The leader acquires this knowledge through discussion, observation, listening, reading and thinking.

Self-confidence is a second trait that helps an individual to be an effective leader. It is the ability to be certain about one's competencies and skills (Adair, 2003: 91). It includes a sense of self-esteem and self-assurance and the belief that one can make a contribution. A third trait exhibited by many effective leaders is determination. This refers to the desire to finish a job or task, and includes characteristics such as initiative, persistence, dominance and drive (Northouse, 2001: 19). Being determined at times includes showing dominance in situations where followers need to be directed.

Integrity is a fourth important leadership trait. It is the quality of honesty and trustworthiness (Goleman, 2003: 6). A leader ought to have integrity coupled with a sense of duty, punctuality, politeness and courtesy. Leaders who adhere to a strong set of principles and take responsibility for their actions are exhibiting integrity (Northouse, 2001: 19). Leaders with integrity inspire confidence in others, because they can be trusted to do what they say they are going to do. Integrity makes a leader believable and worthy of his or her followers' trust. A fifth and final trait that is important for leaders is sociability. This refers to a leader's inclination to seek out pleasant social relationships. Leaders who show sociability are friendly, outgoing, courteous, tactful and diplomatic (Kets de Vries, 2001: 215). They are sensitive to others' needs and show concern for their well-being. Social leaders have good interpersonal skills and create cooperative relationships with their followers (Maxwell, 1998: 99).

In addition to the above five main traits, a leader ought to be impartial and balanced. A leader should be able to instil trust in his or her subordinates. He or she should divorce him or herself from prejudices and preferences within the sphere of the activity, and be considerate and stable. A leader with energy and initiative, who can set the pace and inject energy and enthusiasm into his or her subordinates, is a successful leader and will ensure group success. The leader should be generous and sympathetic in dealing with others, maintaining a fine balance between generosity and sympathy on the one hand, and firmness and determination on the other.

The trait of masculinity as espoused by Mann (1959) and Lord, *et al.* (1986), however, is no longer relevant for leaders to be effective. According to numerous studies carried out in recent years, many women who are in leadership positions are effective without

having to display masculine traits (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003: 158). Naidoo (1996: 4) argues that women in leadership positions are generally assertive rather than masculine. However, in a study conducted by Sashkin and Sashkin (2003: 160), it was found that although men scored slightly higher than women on the 'masculine aspects' of their roles, this difference was very small and not statistically significant. Although women leaders scored slighter higher than men on interpersonal expressiveness, i.e. the feminine aspects of their roles, this difference was also insignificant. Sashkin and Sashkin (2003: 160) in fact found that stereotypical differences, such as a greater tendency by women leaders to express respect and caring for others, were either absent or, when present, were trivial.

With respect to the South African public service, there is a need to train women for leadership positions (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). Prior to 1994, leadership in South Africa was highly gendered and Eurocentric (Naidoo, 1995: 15). Furthermore, the literature on gender and leadership at the time was mainly drawn from Western experience. The majority of people in leadership positions in the South African public service are men (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2004). However, the present government is undertaking a number of projects in promoting gender equality in South Africa (Public Service Review, 2004). The evidence nonetheless suggests that far more should and can be done to promote gender equality and representativeness in the public service.

There is a tendency to blame tradition for the gender inequalities that exist in African societies (Naidoo, 1996: 1). But, in some traditional African societies, there were instances when women participated in the effective governance of their societies and were accorded respect for doing so. There were spheres in traditional African societies, which were regarded as the domain of women. In some traditional African societies, women could effectively broker peace and stop warring parties fighting (Nuzvidziwa, 2001: 11). Women were thus a central part of traditional society. It is my contention these traditional African societies actually acted in a gender-sensitive manner.

It is important for the South African public service to draw on the strength of women whom would be of benefit to effective and efficient leadership. For example, in team building, the leadership styles of women may be more important than those of men in achieving set goals. A study by Naidoo (1996: 5) on gender equality indicates that

women generally emphasize co-operation, teamwork and empathy. Naidoo (1996: 5) stressed that these are qualities that are essential for success by leaders.

The trait approach, as we have seen, focuses exclusively on the leader, and not on the followers, nor the situation. It suggests that institutions will be effective if the people in leadership positions have designated leadership profiles. Consequently it provides some benchmarks against which individuals can evaluate their own personal leadership attributes. Lourens (2001: 26) suggests that people who possess certain traits that make them leaders in one situation may not be leaders in another situation, or may not maintain their leadership over time. The situation thus influences leadership. It is therefore difficult to identify a universal set of leadership traits in isolation from the context in which leadership occurs.

Despite its shortcomings, the trait approach provides valuable information about leadership. Individuals at all institutional levels including, in the South African public service can apply it. Although a definitive set of traits is not provided by the trait approach, the approach does provide direction regarding which traits are effective in different situations. It is important to note, however, that an individual does not become a leader solely because he or she possesses certain traits. Rather, these traits must be relevant to the situations in which the leader is functioning. These traits must be relevant to the situations in which the leader is functioning, as well as taking into account his or her followers.

(2) Influence era

The second era following the personality era was the influence era (Lourens, 2001: 27). The theorists of this era improved the theories on the personality era by recognizing that leadership is a relationship between individuals and not a characteristic of the solitary leader. Adair (2003: 37) echoes the importance of a relationship between the leader and his or her followers. Van Seters and Field (1989: 7) summarize the approaches of this era in their work on the 'evolution of leadership theory'. In sum, Van Seters and Field (1989: 7) highlight the importance of a cordial relationship between leaders and followers and of mutual respect. Mutual respect is undoubtedly an important component in a relationship, and one that is highlighted in traditional African leadership as well.

The influence era comprises two periods, viz. the persuasion period and the power relations' period. In the persuasion period, the use of coercion was removed from the leadership behaviour or style. Rost (1993: 105) indicates that if leadership is conceived as an influence relationship and influence is persuasion, then two consequences follow. The leadership relationship is multidirectional, involving interactions that are vertical, horizontal, diagonal and circular. This means that anyone can be a leader and/or a follower. In the power relations' period, attempts were made to explain leader effectiveness in respect of the source and amount of power they commanded and how it was used. Pfeffer (1981: 3) argues that while the power influence is certainly prevalent in public service leaders, the dictatorial, authoritarian and controlling nature of this type of leadership is no longer considered effective.

Leadership as an influence or persuasion relationship means that the behaviours used to persuade other people should be non-coercive. This means that leadership is not based on authority, power or dictatorial actions but on persuasive behaviours, thus allowing anyone in the relationship to freely agree or disagree and ultimately to drop into or out of the relationship. This view is similar to that of the traditional African leadership style, which is multidimensional.

(3) Behaviour era

The behaviour era was divided into the early behaviour period, the late behaviour period and the operant period (House, 1976: 28). During the early leadership behaviour period, for a period of thirty years, leaders were studied by observing their behaviour in laboratory settings or by asking individuals in field settings to describe the behaviour of individuals in positions of authority. According to Bryman (1992: 13), many leadership behaviour researchers believed that once the behaviour that leads to effective leadership was known, leaders could be trained to display that behaviour, in order to become more effective within an institutional setting. In general, theorists or researchers during this era described leadership behaviour in terms of a relatively small number of styles or dimensions.

During the early behaviour period, the style approach originated from three different lines of research, namely, the reinforced change theory by Bass (1960), the Ohio State University studies by Fleishman, Harris and Burtt (1955) and the Michigan state studies by Likert (1961) (Luthans, 1973: 35). The style approach is very different from the trait approach. While the trait approach emphasizes the personality characteristics of the leader, the style approach emphasizes the behaviour of the leader. The style approach expanded the study of leadership to include the actions of leaders toward subordinates in various contexts.

Researchers at Ohio State University developed a leadership questionnaire called the 'Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire' (LBDQ), which identified initiation of structure and considerateness towards subordinates as the two core leadership behaviours (Hunt and Larson, 1997: 49). Blake and Mouton (1964) developed a practical model of training managers that described leadership behaviours along a grid with the axes "concern for productivity" and "concern for people".

Research conducted by the University of Michigan in 1983 identified two forms of leadership styles that are essential for effective leadership (Drucker, 1993: 96), namely the task-oriented leader behaviour and employee-oriented leader (relationship) behaviour. On the one hand, then, with respect to task-oriented leader behaviour, the leader is concerned primarily with careful supervision and control, to ensure that subordinates do their work satisfactorily. This leadership style involves applying pressure on subordinates to perform. Subordinates are, therefore, merely instruments to get the work done. Task behaviours facilitate goal accomplishment. They help the group to achieve their objectives (Northouse, 2001: 35). In employee-oriented leader behaviour, on the other hand, the leader uses motivation and participative management to get the job done. This leadership style focuses on people, their needs and their progress (Drucker, 1993: 96). This style helps subordinates to feel comfortable with themselves, with each other, and with the situation.

The central purpose of the above style approach is to explain how leaders combine these two kinds of behaviours to influence subordinates in their efforts to reach a goal (Adair, 2003: 45). The task-oriented leadership style stresses the actual job, while the employee-oriented leadership style concerns the development of motivated groups

(Northouse, 2001: 36). Northouse (2001: 36) found that performance was higher among employee-oriented leaders than task-oriented leaders. More importantly, job satisfaction was high and labour turnover and absenteeism low, while the opposite was true of task-oriented leaders (Drucker, 1993: 96). Leadership effectiveness, therefore, not only depends on the leader, but to a large extent, is also dependent on the contributions made by group members. Their contributions in turn are based on the extent to which the leader is successful in obtaining the co-operation of the group members in identifying themselves with their common objective(s).

In the South African context, it can be concluded that leadership does not have only one dimension, and that both dimensions (task-oriented leadership and employee-oriented leadership) may be necessary to promote a sustainable South African public service for effective service delivery. Many studies have been done to determine which style of leadership is more effective in a particular situation. The goal has been to find a universal set of leadership behaviours capable of explaining leadership effectiveness in every situation however the results from these efforts have not been conclusive. Researchers have had difficulty identifying the ideal style of leadership for all situations. The personality characteristics that leaders ought to have, their behaviours and their effects on followers are summarized in Table 4/3.

Table 4/3

Personality characteristics and behaviours of leaders and its effects on followers

Personality Characteristics of Leaders	Behaviours	Effects on Followers
Dominant	Sets strong role model	Trusts in leader's ideology
Desire to influence	Shows competence	Belief similarity between leader and follower Unquestioning acceptance Affection toward leader
Confident	Articulates goals	Obedience
Strong values	Communicates high expectations Expresses confidence Arouses motives	Identification with leader Emotional involvement Heightened goals Increased confidence

(Adapted from Lourens 2001:29)

The style approach is not a refined theory that provides a neatly organized set of prescriptions for effective leadership behaviour. It merely provides a framework for assessing leadership in a broad way, as behaviour with both a task and a relationship dimension. The style approach does not tell leaders how to behave, but describes the major components of their behaviour. The approach reminds leaders that their actions towards others occur on a task level and/or a relationship level. In some situations, leaders need to be more task-oriented, whereas in others they need to be more relationship-oriented. Similarly, public servants in the South African public service need leaders who can nurture and support them, which will improve job satisfaction and promote productivity. The style approach gives the leader a way to look at his or her own behaviour by subdividing it into these two dimensions discussed above.

The style approach makes positive contributions to the understanding of the leadership process. Firstly, it marked a major shift in the general focus of leadership research. Prior to the inception of the style approach, researchers had treated leadership exclusively as a personality trait. Secondly, the style approach broadened the scope of leadership

research, to include the behaviours of leaders and what they do in various situations. The focus of leadership on the personal characteristics of leaders expanded to include what leaders did and how they acted. The significance of the style approach is not to be understated for the South African public service together with the positive attributes of leadership traits and other leadership approaches.

Apart from its strengths, the style approach does have several weaknesses. The research on the style approach has not adequately shown how leaders' styles are associated with performance outcomes. Researchers have not been able to establish a consistent link between task and relationship behaviours and outcomes such as morale, job satisfaction, and productivity. This link between the different variables would be important to assess whether the style approach would be valuable in the South African public service.

Overall, the style approach provides a valuable framework for assessing leadership, for example in assessing behaviour with task and relationship dimensions. The style approach reminds leaders that their impact on others occurs along both dimensions. This approach could be useful for the South African public service altogether it would be more effective to combine it with positive attributes of other approaches, such as transformational leadership, team leadership and traditional African leadership. These approaches to leadership are elaborated in the discussion.

The late behaviour period evolved from the theories of the theories of the early behaviour period by adapting them for managerial application. The best known theory is the Managerial Grid-model which uses a 9 x 9 grid indicating considerate behaviour along one axis and initiating structure and behaviour along the other (Blake and Mouton, 1982: 275). This model suggests that the most effective leader will be rated 9 on both of these behavioural dimensions. This model could be useful in rating the behavioural dimensions of leaders, in the South African public service and helpful in promoting effectiveness and efficiency.

The operant period was the third one to exist in the behaviour era. It focused on the leader as "the manager of reinforcements" (Lourens, 2001: 29). In this regard, the appropriate behaviour would be reinforced on the desired subordinate (Adhour and Johns, 1983: 603). The idea is that the individual can be trained to learn specific

behaviour traits. A subset of appropriate human behaviours would be chosen for this purpose (Hunt and Larson, 1997: 2), for example, assertiveness training. Much of the work of the operant period focused on typical behaviour patterns of leaders, while other work analyzed differences in behaviours between poor and effective leaders (Yukl, 1989: 5). The most appropriate behaviours were then chosen for subordinates. According to Fleshman and Harris (1962: 43), this was a major advancement in leadership theory, as it had enjoyed strong empirical support. Furthermore, Blake and Mouton (1982: 275) indicated that practicing managers could easily implement this theory to improve their leadership effectiveness.

The evidence suggests that theorists described leadership behaviour in terms of a relatively minute number of dimensions (Wright, 1996: 46). Wright (1996: 46) conceded that there would be two to four styles. However, different leadership theorists gave the behaviour dimensions a wide variety of different names. For example, Bass (1990: 39) furnished twenty-nine diverse classifications for leadership behaviour, and yet this list is neither very extensive nor well articulated. Despite the different names, the concepts were often similar.

(4) Situational era

The situational era is divided into the environment period, the social status period and the socio-technical period (Lourens, 2001: 30). The characteristics of this era are summarized in the discussion below. The situational era as whole made significant advances in leadership theory by acknowledging the importance of factors other then the behaviour of the leader and the subordinate (Van Seters and Field, 1989: 29). Examples include the type of task, the relative position power of the leader and subordinates, and the nature of the external environment (Bass, 1981: 12). These situational factors influence the style of leader traits, skills, influence and behaviours that would promote effective leadership. Leaders in the personality era were thought to emerge only by being at the right place at the right time in the right circumstance; their actions were inconsequential (Hook, 1943: 21). In terms of this approach, the particular person in the leadership position was irrelevant, because if he or she were to leave, someone else would simply take his or her place (Luthans, 1973: 500).

The first of the three periods in the situational era was the environment period, which focused on the task. The second period, the social status period, stressed the social aspect in a particular situation. It was based on the idea that, as group members undertake specific tasks, they reinforce the expectation that each individual will continue to act in a manner congruent with his or her previous behaviour (Van Seters and Field, 1989: 40). The roles of the leader and the subordinate are defined by mutually confirmed expectations of their behaviour. The third period is the socio-technical period, essentially combined environmental and social parameters (Lourens, 2001: 31). In this respect, the crucial aspect that the leader has to consider was the internal setting (inside the institution) impacting on subordinates, for example cultural imperatives.

The internal factors within the institution revolve around aspects such as whether the subordinates had adequate facilities to allow them to perform their tasks. The leader focuses on the social factors impacting on the effectiveness of subordinates (Hughes, 2003: 5). For example, do subordinates have transportation to get to work? Questions such as these are important, as the social wellbeing of an individual affects their performance as public servants, and thus their productivity. Human relation and behaviour theorists in public administration and the traditional African leadership approach also emphasize this theory. Traditional African leadership focuses on the human relations and behavioural aspects as crucial to successful leadership.

(5) Contingency era

The contingency era represents major advancement in the evolution of leadership theory (O' Toole, 1996: 116). In essence, effective leadership during this era was seen as contingent or dependent on one or more of the factors of behaviour, personality, influence and/or situation. The leadership approaches of this era attempted to select the situational moderator variables that best revealed which leadership style to use. The most noteworthy theories of this era were the contingency theory (Fiedler, 1964; 1967), the path-goal theory (Evans, 1970; House, 1971), and the situational theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977). As the most relevant for the present study they are discussed below. It is not necessary to cover the whole gamut of theories for the purpose of this study. The reason for focussing on these three theories is that they have been important in

promoting leadership effectiveness and efficiency within an institutional set-up (Van Seters and Field, 1989: 35).

Contingency theory

Although a number of approaches to leadership could in fact be categorised as contingency theories, the most widely recognized one is Fiedler's (1964, 1967, Fiedler and Gracia, 1987) contingency theory. Contingency theory tried to match leaders to appropriate situations. The theory tried to see whether there were any links or connections between leaders and situations, in a sense that particular leaders were effective in particular situations but not in others. Fiedler (1964) combines trait and situational approaches, to develop an integrated leadership theory (Luthans, 1973: 500). It is called 'contingency' because it is based on the premise that a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits the context. Effective leadership is contingent on matching a leader's style to the right setting. Contingency theory was developed by studying the styles of many different leaders who worked in different contexts, although it looked primarily at the military (Northouse, 2001: 76). Fiedler (1964) assessed the styles of leaders, the situation in which they worked, and whether or not they were effective. After analyzing the styles of a number of leaders, Fiedler (1964) was able to make empirically grounded generalizations about which styles of leadership were most appropriate and which were not appropriate at all.

According to Luthans (1973: 501), within the framework of contingency theory, leadership styles are described as either task-motivated or relationship-motivated. Task-motivated leaders are concerned primarily with reaching a goal, whereas relationship-motivated leaders are concerned with developing close interpersonal relations. These two forms of leadership are integrated into the behaviour era (section (3) above). According to Northouse (2001: 75), contingency theory suggests that situations can be characterized by assessing   (i) leader-member relations (ii) task structure, and (iii) position power. Leader-member relations refer to the group atmosphere and to the degree of confidence, loyalty and attraction that followers feel for their leader. If the group atmosphere is positive and subordinates trust and get along with their leader, then leader-member relations are defined as good; on the other hand, if the atmosphere is

unfriendly and friction exists within the group, leader-member relations are defined as poor.

The second situational variable, task structure, refers to the degree to which the requirements of a task are clear and spelt out. Northouse (2001: 77) argues that tasks that are completely structured tend to give more control to the leader, whereas vague and unclear tasks lessen the leader's control and influence. According to Lourens (2001: 31), a task is considered structured when (i) the requirements of the task are clearly stated and known by the individuals who are required to perform them; (ii) the path to accomplishing the task has few alternatives; (iii) the completion of the task can be clearly demonstrated; and (iv) only a limited number of correct solutions to the task exist. It is important for the task to be clearly outlined, so that the desired outcome can be achieved. In 1994, this has proved to be a challenge in the South African public service, with the role of different levels of government not being clearly articulated (Public Service Review, 2001).

With respect to the South African public service, it is important for tasks to be clearly spelt out, as it will provide a clear sense of direction. According to Molopo (2004: Discussion) tasks are not clearly spelt out in the South African public service. This will also promote effectiveness and efficiency. However, public servants also need a degree of flexibility in being presented with several alternative ways of achieving particular departmental goals. If the South African public service is too rigid in this regard, it will hinder creativity and innovation, and a more flexible approach is more likely to lead to compliance. The risk of such flexibility is that leaders may only receive a weak level of commitment from their employees. The problem with a flexible approach is that it is weak in times of change, such as transformation and reform. It could be argued that flexibility is in fact required in times of change to prevent the public service from becoming too bureaucratic and static.

Position power is the third characteristic of the situational variable. It refers to the amount of authority a leader has to reward or to punish followers (Lourens, 2001:31). It includes the legitimate power that individuals acquire as a result of the position they hold in an institution. Position power is strong, for instance, if an individual has the

authority to hire and fire, or give a raise in rank or pay. Conversely, it is weak if a leader does not have the right to do these things.

According to Kets de Vries (2001: 216), the three situational factors, discussed above; leader-member relations, task structure, and position power determine the 'favourableness' of various situations in an institutional context. Situations that are rated 'most favourable' are those having good leader-follower relations, well-defined tasks and strong leader position power. Situations that are 'least favourable' have poor leader-follower relations, unstructured tasks and weak leader position power. Situations that are rated 'moderately favourable' fall in between these two extremes. Sashkin and Sashkin (2003: 108) re-iterate that the contingency theory posits that certain styles will be effective in certain situations. Individuals who are task-motivated will be effective in both very favourable and in very unfavourable situations. Individuals who are relationship-motivated will be effective in moderately favourable situations.

Fiedler (1967: 142) proposed a personality-like measure called the 'Least Preferred Co-worker' (LPC) scale is used to measure leadership style. According to Van Seters and Field (1998:45), it delineates individuals who are highly motivated (low LPCs), those who are socio-independent (middle LPCs), and those who are relationship-motivated (high LPCs) (see Figure 4/1). Van Seters and Field (1998: 45) indicate that, by measuring a leader's LPC and the three situational variables, one can predict whether or not a leader will be effective in a specific setting. This scale may be an important instrument that could be used by the South African public service to measure leadership style. As it could allow organisations to predict whether and in what situations an individual may be most effective as a leader.

Figure 4/1: Contingency model of leadership

Leader Member Relations	GOOD				POOR			
Task Structure	High Structure		Low Structure		High Structure		Low Structure	
Position Power	Strong Power	Weak Power	Strong Power	Weak Power	Strong Power	Weak Power	Strong Power	Weak Power
Preferred Leadership Style	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**
	Low *LPCs Middle LPCs			High LPCs				Low LPCs

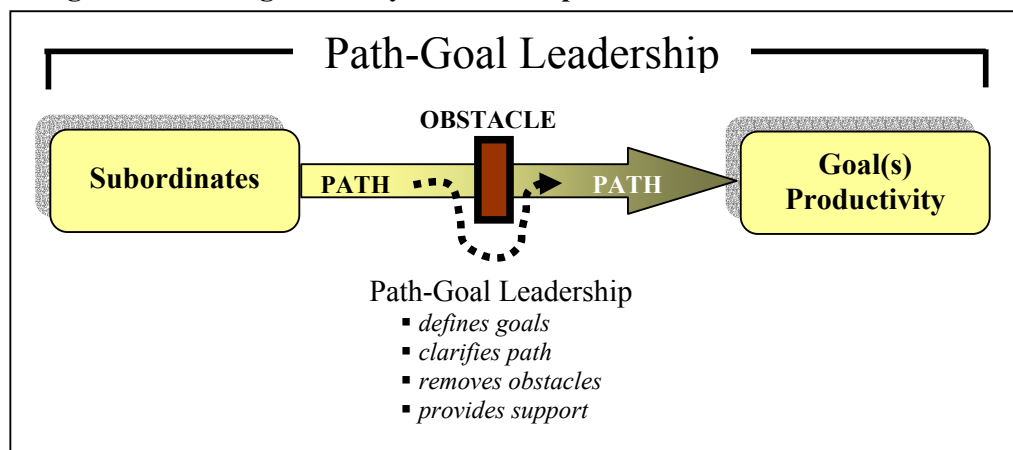(Northouse 2001:77)

*(LPC refers to least preferred co-worker)

It is important to note that, in terms of the contingency theory, leaders will not be effective in all situations. The contingency approaches have generated strong empirical support as well as controversy, but they are still used in contemporary leadership studies. Nonetheless, there are drawbacks with this approach. Firstly, the approaches are very different from one another. It is difficult to establish distinct periods within this era. Secondly, many of the approaches are too cumbersome for day-to-day use in public service organizations. The contingency theory does, however, have some major strengths, which may be particularly important in the South African public service. It forces the public service to consider the impact of situations on the leader, and it emphasizes the importance of focusing on the relationship between the leader's style and the demands of various situations.

Path-goal theory

The path-goal theory is about how leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish designated goals (House, 1971: 14). The goal of this leadership theory is to improve employee performance and employee satisfaction by focusing on employee motivation.

138

The path-goal theory stresses the relationship between the leader's style and the characteristics of the subordinates and the work setting. It suggests that subordinates will be more motivated if they think they are capable of performing their work, if they believe their efforts will result in a specific outcome, and if they believe that the payoffs for doing their work are worthwhile. The challenge for the leader is to use a leadership style that best meets subordinates' motivational needs. The basic rationale behind the path-goal theory is reflected in the simple diagram below (Figure 4/2).

Figure 4/2: Path-goal theory of leadership

(House 1971:320)

In terms of the path-goal theory, leaders are required to choose behaviours that complement what is missing in the work setting (Northouse, 2001: 89). Leaders will try to enhance the desire of subordinates by providing rewards in the work environment (see Figure 4/2). Leaders provide subordinates with the necessary support that they think that their subordinates need to reach their goals. Leaders will, for instance, generate motivation by increasing the number and kinds of payoffs that subordinates receive from the institution. Another motivator is when leadership makes the path to the goal clear and easy to travel through coaching and direction, when it removes obstacles and roadblocks to attaining the goal, and when it makes the work itself personally more satisfying (Kets de Vries, 2001: 217). The path-goal theory suggests that each type of leader behaviour has a different impact on the motivation of subordinates.

Path-goal theory is explicitly left open to the inclusion of other variables. Many different leadership behaviours could be selected to be part of it, such as directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours (see Figure 4/3). Firstly, according to House (1971: 321), directive leadership involves a leader who gives subordinates instructions about their tasks. This includes what is expected of them, how it is to be done, and the time frame when it should be completed. A directive leader sets clear standards of performance. In addition, he or she makes the rules and regulations clear to subordinates. Secondly, Lefton and Buzzotta (2004: 31) state that supportive leadership means, "being friendly and approachable as a leader." This includes attending to the well-being and human needs of subordinates. Lourens (2001: 31) argues that leaders who use supportive behaviours go out of their way to make work pleasant for their subordinates. Supportive leaders also treat subordinates as equals, and give them respect for their status. This scenario whereby subordinates are treated equally is similar to the one prevailing in traditional African leadership.

Thirdly, Maxwell (1998: 121) indicates that participative leadership refers to leaders who invite subordinates to share in decision-making. A participative leader consults with subordinates, obtains their ideas and opinions, and integrates their suggestions into decisions about how the group or institution will proceed. Participative leadership has been encouraged to promote effective governance in South Africa since 1994: Leadership in the South African public service now widely consults with public servants, as well as with other stakeholders on policy issues impacting on service delivery. Furthermore, participative leadership has been highlighted as one of the core principles of effective governance in policy documents in South Africa. However, there are differing views on participative leadership by various authors, such as Henry (1975: 24) and Nuzvidziwa (2003: 3), were highlighted earlier in the discussion. Both these authors have argued that participative leadership is an elitist model of policy making. They argue that employees are involved on a secondary basis in decision making with the participative model as opposed to in the traditional African model where subordinates are directly involved in decision making.

On a different note, Peters and Austin (1986: 265) suggest that, "achievement-oriented leadership is characterized by a leader who challenges subordinates to perform work at the highest level possible." According to Lourens (2001: 31), this type of leader sets a

140

high standard of excellence for subordinates and seeks continuous improvement. In addition, this leader shows a high degree of confidence that subordinates are capable of establishing and accomplishing challenging goals. It is important for the South African public service to take cognizance of these important attributes that leaders ought to have, to motivate subordinates to promote a sustainable public service for improved service delivery. The major components of the leadership behaviour in the path-goal theory are reflected in Figure 4/3.

Figure 4/3: Leadership behaviours in path-goal theory
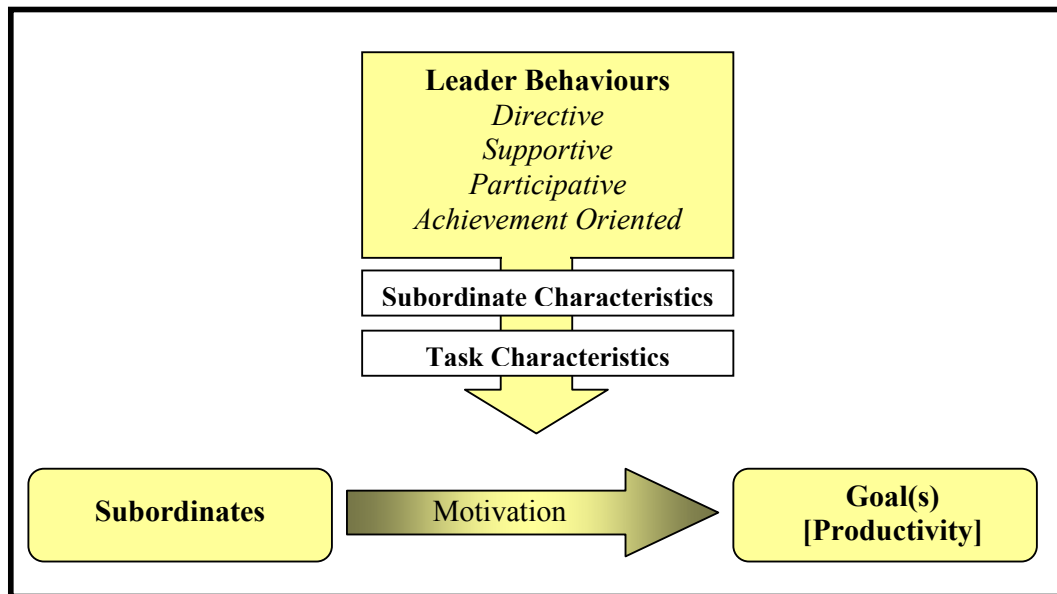
(House 1971: 321)

It is evident that the path-goal theory does not demand leaders to adopt only one kind of leadership approach, but, instead, indicates that leaders should adapt their styles to suit the situation or the motivational needs of their subordinates. If subordinates were to need directive leadership at one point in a task and participative leadership at another point of the task, the leader can change his or her style as needed. Different situations will thus call for different types of leadership behaviour. There may be situations where it would be necessary for a leader to use a variety and a combination of leadership styles. The path-goal theory may be important for the diverse South African public service, where a variety of situations may arise.

There are two other crucial components of path-goal theory namely; subordinate characteristics and task characteristics (see Figure 4/3). According to Adair (2003: 15), these characteristics will undoubtedly influence the way in which the leader's behaviour will affect subordinate motivation. In other words, the impact of leadership is contingent upon the characteristics of both subordinates and their collective task. Lourens (2001: 31) states that the path-goal theory predicts that, subordinates who have strong needs for affiliation, will prefer a supportive leadership. Lefton and Buzzotta (2004: 55) argue that friendly and concerned leadership is a source of satisfaction. In contrast, for subordinates who are dogmatic and authoritarian and have to work in uncertain situations, the path-goal theory recommends a more directive leadership, because this provides psychological structure and task clarity, which will help subordinates by clarifying the path to the goal.

According to Northouse (2001: 96), an authoritarian type of individual will feel more comfortable if the leader provides a greater sense of certainty in the work setting. The path-goal theory suggests that for subordinates who have an internal locus of control, participative leadership will be the most satisfying because it allows them to feel in charge of their work and as integral part of the policy making process. For subordinates with an external locus of control, in contrast, the path-goal theory suggests that directive leadership is best because it will parallel subordinates feelings that outside forces control their circumstances.

Task characteristics also have a major impact on the ways in which a leader's behaviour influences the motivation of subordinates (Chaleff, 2003: 217). Task characteristics are the design of the subordinate's task, the formal authority system of the institution, and the primary work of subordinates. These characteristics can provide motivation for subordinates. Freedman and Tregoe (2003: 15) argue that when a job provides a clearly structured task, strong group norms and an established authority system, then subordinates will find the paths to desired goals apparent and will not need a leader to clarify goals or to coach subordinates in how to reach these goals. House (1971: 321) indicates that subordinates will feel that they can accomplish their work and that their work is of value. Leadership in these types of contexts may be seen as unnecessary and over controlling. In some situations the task characteristics, however, may call for leadership involvement.

According to Kets de Vries (2001: 256), unclear tasks will require leadership input to provide structure. Tasks that are highly repetitive also require leadership input that gives support in order to maintain the motivation of subordinates. In work settings where the formal authority system is weak, leadership becomes a tool that helps subordinates by making the rules and work requirements clear. If norms are weak or non-supportive, leadership will assist in building cohesiveness and role responsibility. In this respect, the South African public service experiences similar challenges, and should therefore take cognizance of ideas.

The path-goal theory has three major strengths, which may be beneficial to the South African public service. Firstly, it provides a theoretical framework that is useful for understanding how directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented styles of leadership can affect the productivity and satisfaction of subordinates. Secondly, it is unique in that it integrates the motivation principles into a theory of leadership. Thirdly, it provides a practical model that underscores the important ways in which leaders can help subordinates.

In the South African public service, the new approach to human resources management and development integrates such motivation principles. The recognition of individual effort and systematic efforts to strengthen teamwork are fundamental to current approaches in the South African public service (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). In this regard, a performance-based compensation system has been introduced in the South African public service and is currently utilized to grant special recognition to personnel who have an above-average level of work performance (Kaul, 2000: 167). This is expected to stimulate the initiative of personnel, and to encourage public servants to be more productive. Cash payments or commendations can be granted to public servants in South Africa for suggestions, inventions or improvements. Departmental-specific awards may also be granted to persons for exceptional ability, or to those who possess special qualifications, which could be utilized to the benefit of the public service. Awards may be awarded to public servants who have rendered sustained meritorious service over a long period in the public service. This is an excellent incentive to motivate public servants towards improving service delivery outcomes in South Africa.

There are similarities between the path-goal theory and the ideas of traditional African leadership. In traditional African communities a greater emphasis is placed on working for the common good, which has significant practical implications for corporate life. These implications are that traditional African leadership provide empathetic communication, teamwork, and joint effort, nurturing leadership and determination and the achievement of common objectives. The South African public service is well positioned to conduct an in-depth exploration of issues related to traditional African leadership and governance with a view to developing a composite acceptable framework in the public service. In traditional African communities, followers subject their wishes and goals to those of the relevant social unit. With diligent cultivation, traditional African leadership approaches can be integrated and extended to the South African public service.
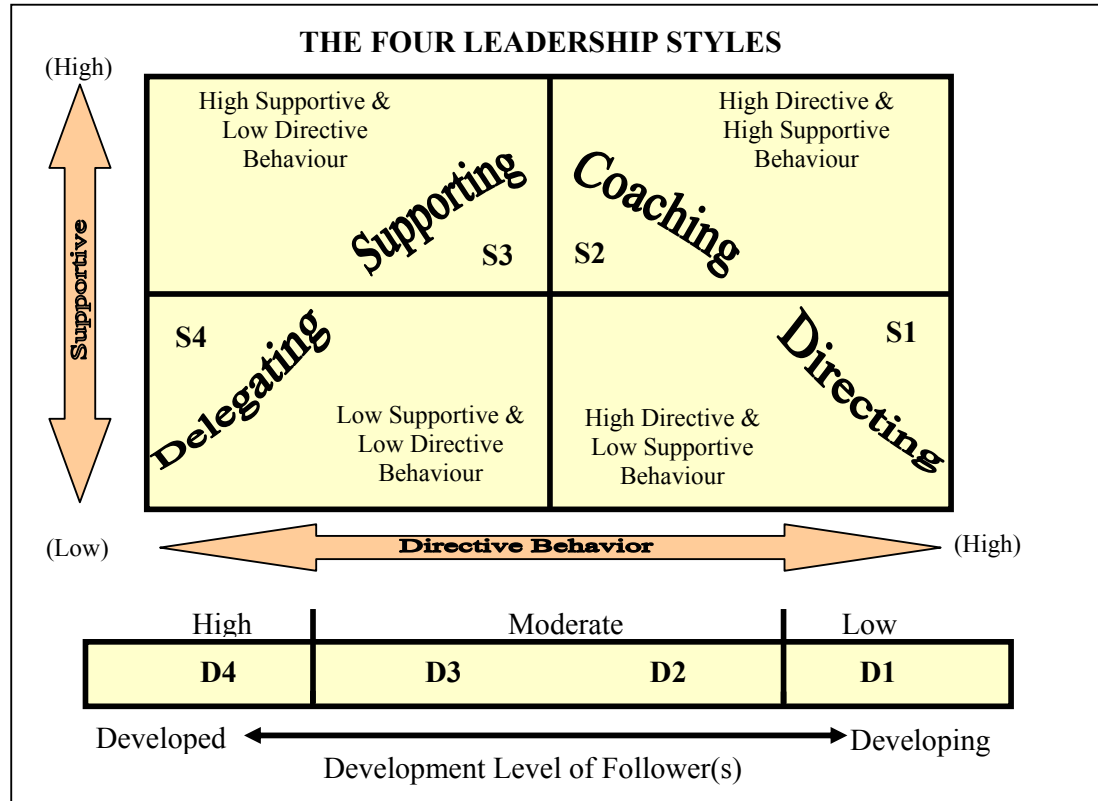
Situational theory

Apart from the contingency theory and the path-goal theory discussed above, one of the most widely recognized theories of leadership in the contingency era is the situational theory, which was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969), based on Reddin's (1967) 3-D management style theory. The situational approach has been refined and revised several times since its inception, and has been used extensively in training and development for leadership in institutions throughout the United States (Northouse, 2001: 55). As the name of the approach implies, situational leadership focuses on leadership in specific situations (Kuye, 2001: 32).

Based on the assumption that employees' skills and motivation will naturally vary over time, situational leadership suggests that leadership should change the degree to which they are either directive or supportive in order to meet the changing needs of the subordinates more effectively (Chaleff, 2003: 22). The essence of situational leadership demands that a leader must match his or her style to the competence and commitment of his or her subordinates. Effective leaders are those who can recognize what employees need and then adapt their own style to meet those needs. It is important for leaders in the South African public service to adapt their leadership style to the needs of their employees, as well as to the needs of the public service. The situational approach is

illustrated in the model developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969) called the SL11 model (see Figure 4/4).

Figure 4/4: Leadership styles

THE FOUR LEADERSHIP STYLES

(High)

High Supportive &
Low Directive
Behaviour

Supporting

S3

High Directive &
High Supportive
Behaviour

Coaching

S2

S4

Delegating

Low Supportive &
Low Directive
Behaviour

High Directive &
Low Supportive
Behaviour

Directing

S1

(Low)   Directive Behavior   (High)

High   Moderate   Low

| D4 | D3 | D2 | D1 |

Developed ← Development Level of Follower(s) → Developing

(Northouse 2001:56)

According to Northouse (2001: 55), the model is an extension and refinement of the original situational leadership model developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969). Lourens (2001: 29) indicates that the dynamics of situational leadership are best understood by separating the SL11 model into two parts: (a) leadership style and (b) development level of subordinates. This is echoed by Northouse (2001: 56).

The first of these, leadership style, refers to the behaviour pattern of an individual who attempts to influence others (Goleman, 2003: 89). It includes both directive (task) behaviours and supportive (relationship) behaviours. This echoes the path-goal theory. According to Kennedy (2002: 144), leadership styles can be classified further into four categories of directive and supportive behaviours (see Figure 4/4). The first style (S1) is

145

a high directive-low supportive style, where the leader focuses his or her communication on goal achievement and spends a smaller amount of time using supportive behaviours (Northouse 2001:58). A leader will thus give instructions about what and how goals are to be achieved by subordinates and then supervise them carefully.

The second leadership style (S2) is called the coaching approach and is a high directive-high supportive style (Northouse, 2001: 58). Such a leader focuses communication on both goal achievement and fulfilment of subordinates' emotional needs in the workplace. This coaching style requires the leader to involve him or herself with subordinates through giving encouragement and soliciting subordinate input. Coaching is particularly encouraged in the South African public service (Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001: 5) and forms part of its overall development strategy.

Style 3 (S3) is a supporting approach that requires the leader to adopt a high supportive-low directive style (Northouse, 2001: 58). The leader does not focus only on goals, but uses supportive behaviours that bring out and enhance the employees' skills in response to the task to be accomplished (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003: 109). The supporting style includes listening, asking for input and giving feedback. A leader using this style gives subordinates control over day-to-day decisions, and also remains available to facilitate problem solving.

Style 4 (S4) is called the low supportive-low directive style (Northouse, 2001: 58). Such a leader offers little task input and little social support, although he or she does facilitate employees' confidence and motivation in respect to the task (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003: 109). The leader reduces his or her involvement in planning, control of details and goal clarification. After agreeing on the definition of the task they are to do, this leadership style lets subordinates take responsibility for getting the job done the way they see fit. The leader exercises some control over subordinates but also refrains from intervening with unnecessary social support. This leadership style may be particularly important in the South African public service in allowing subordinates to take responsibility for achieving the service delivery objectives of the public service. Furthermore, subordinates ought to be held accountable for delivery or non-delivery of public services in South Africa as this is one way of improving performance. In this

respect, the public service in South Africa has embarked on performance management contracts to promote accountability (Report on the State of the Public Service, 2003: 7).

The South African public service furthermore ought to promote an achievement-driven performance culture through an emphasis on results and improved leader and subordinate communication, understanding and commitment. There needs to be better planning by identifying and linking the objectives and strategies of the public service to the task of each public servant. In addition, there needs to be a better understanding of work by clarifying of individual work tasks and responsibility boundaries. Each public servant's key tasks for a year should be identified, and it should be clearly indicated what is expected of them. There also needs to be ongoing participation in work planning and ongoing discussions, feedback and open appraisal, which would ensure improvements in service delivery performance.

The SL11 model (see Figure 4/4) illustrates how directive and supportive leadership behaviours combine for each of the four different leadership styles. The model suggests that directive behaviours are high in the S1 and S2 quadrants and low in S3 and S4, whereas supportive behaviours are high in S2 and S3 and low in S1 and S4. The situational leadership model is concerned with the development level of subordinates (Lourens, 2001: 28). This refers to the degree to which subordinates have the competence and commitment necessary to accomplish a given task or activity (Kaul, 2000: 155). Employees are at a high development level, if they are interested and confident in their work and know how to complete the task. Employees are at a low development level if they have little skill for the task at hand but feel as if they have the motivation or confidence to complete the job. These levels of development are illustrated in the lower part of the diagram (Figure 4/4). The levels describe combinations of commitment and competence for employees in respect of a given task, with employees being classified into four categories: D1, D2, D3, and D4, ranging from low development to high development.

Figure 4/4 indicates that D1 employees are low in competence and high in commitment (Northouse, 2001: 58), which means that, although they are new to the task and do not know exactly how to do it, they are nonetheless excited about the challenge of it. D2 employees are described as having some degree competence but low commitment. D3

147

represents employees who have moderate to high competence but may lack commitment; they may have developed the skills for the job, but are uncertain as to whether they can accomplish the task by themselves. D4 employees are the highest in development, having a high degree of competence and a high degree of commitment to getting the job done. They have both the skills to do the job and the motivation to get it accomplished.

As emphasized throughout this chapter, it is imperative for leaders to be flexible in their leadership behaviour in the South African public service. Subordinates may move from one development level to another over a short period of time, or may move more slowly on tasks that take a long time. Leaders will thus need to adapt their style to suit their subordinates and their unique situations. Unlike the trait or contingency approaches, which demand a fixed style for leaders, the situational approach is based on the realization that leaders need to be flexible.

It can be argued that situational leadership can be easily applied in a variety of institutional settings, including in the South African public service. Situational leadership provides a straightforward approach that can be easily used and adapted. It tells leaders what to do or not to do in various contexts. For example, if a subordinate is low in competence, situational leadership prescribes a directing style for the leader. These prescriptions provide leaders with a valuable set of guidelines that can facilitate and enhance the effectiveness of their leadership styles. Effective leaders are those who can change their own style based on the task requirements and the subordinates' needs, even in the middle of a project.

(6) Transactional era

The transactional era encompasses the exchange period and the role development period (Lourens, 2001: 32). The transactional era in general suggested that leadership resides not only in the person or the situation, but also in role differentiation and social interaction. This theory essentially addresses the influence process between the leader and subordinate (Adair, 2003: 177). Examples from the exchange period include the vertical dyad linkage theory (Dansereau, Graen and Haga, 1975), the leader-member exchange theory and the reciprocal influence approach (Greene, 1975). Examples from

the role development period include social exchange theory (Hollander, 1979) and role-making models (Graen and Cashman, 1975). In all these theories, leadership involves transactions between leader and subordinates that affect their relationships. The leader may have different types of transactions and different relationships with different subordinates. The leader-member exchange theory is discussed in-depth, as it clearly articulates the essence of the transactional era. The social exchange and the role-making model are briefly discussed thereafter. The leader-member exchange theory is elaborated on.

Leader-member exchange theory

During the exchange period the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory conceptualized leadership as a process that centres on the interactions between leaders and followers (Dinesh and Liden, 1986: 618). The LMX theory first appeared twenty-five years ago in the works of, among others, Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975). According to Lourens (2001: 32), it has undergone several changes since, and it continues to be of interest to researchers who study the leadership process. Northouse (2001: 115) argues that the LMX theory directs our attention to the differences that might exist between the leader and each of his or her followers. The initial studies of this theory addressed the nature of the differences between in-groups and out-groups.

A subsequent line of research examined how the LMX theory was related to institutional effectiveness (Gardner, 1986: 6). These studies focused on how the quality of leader-member exchanges was related to positive outcomes for leaders, followers, groups and the institution in general. In this regard, researchers found that high-quality leader-member exchanges produced less employee turnover, more positive performance evaluations, higher frequency of promotions and greater institutional commitment. It also produced more desirable work assignments, better job attitudes, more attention and support from the leader, greater participation and faster career progress over twenty-five years. Institutions clearly stand to gain from leaders who can create good working relationships. When leaders and followers have good exchanges, they feel better and accomplish more, and the institution prospers. The South African public service should take cognisance of this theory to improve its institutional effectiveness and efficiency.

The current research on the LMX theory focuses on how exchanges between leaders and subordinates can be used to promote effective leadership (Chaleff, 2003: 11). Leadership emphasizes that a leader should develop high-quality exchanges with all of his or her subordinates, rather than just few. Leaders in the South African public service should thus attempt to make every subordinate feel as if he or she is a part of the in-group, and by doing so, avoid the inequities and negative implications of being in an out-group.

Dinesh and Liden (1986: 618) state that, "leaders should look for ways to build trust and respect with all their subordinates. In addition, leaders should create quality partnerships with individuals throughout the institution. Northouse (2001: 117) concedes that, in general, leadership making promotes building partnerships in which the leader tries to build effective relationship with all employees in the work unit. In addition, leadership making suggests that leaders can create networks of partnerships throughout the institution, which will benefit the institution's goals as well as their own career progress.

There are several positive features of the LMX theory. Firstly, it is a strong descriptive approach that explains how leaders use some subordinates (in-group members) more than others (out-group members) to accomplish institutional goals effectively. Secondly, it is the only leadership approach that makes the concept of the dyadic relationship the centrepiece of the leadership process. Thirdly, it LMX emphasizes the importance of communication in leadership. Communication is the vehicle through which leaders and subordinates create, nurture, and sustain useful exchanges. Effective leadership occurs when the communication of leaders and subordinates is characterized by mutual trust, respect and commitment. Lastly, it is supported by a number of studies that link high-quality leader-member exchanges to positive institutional outcomes.

Social exchange theory and the role-making model

The role development period recognised an element of exchange, but it referred specifically to the relative roles of the leader and the subordinate (Bass, 1981: 29). Theories of this period are social exchange theory (Hollander 1979; Jacobs 1970) and the role-making model (Graen and Cashman, 1975). In these theories, the group

conveys esteem and status to the leader in return for the leader's abilities in furthering goal attainment. Leadership then becomes an equitable exchange relationship, with no domination on the part of the leader or subordinate (Adair, 2003: 121). According to Naidoo (1996: 5), this type of leadership is evident in traditional African societies, where leaders are equal partners in a relationship. This is re-iterated by Henry (1975: 25), and clearly articulated in traditional African leadership. This leadership theory is presented on the idea that the leadership process is a function of the leader, group members and other situational variables. These aspects are important for effective leadership.

(7) Anti-leadership era

The anti-leadership era consists of the ambiguity period and the substitute period (Van Seters and Field, 1989: 30). The salient characteristics of this era are summarized below. During the anti-leadership era numerous empirical studies were conducted to test the various theories presented up to that point. The results were inconclusive. Although many variables in the leadership equation had been explained, there was no clear concept of leadership (Van Seters and Field, 1989: 31). The leadership paradigms existing prior to the ambiguity period and the substitute period was regarded as ineffective. As a result of these sentiments, the anti-leadership era arose.

In the ambiguity period, leadership was regarded as only a perceptual phenomenon in the minds of the theorists (Mitchell, 1979: 243). The leader was as spoken of as a symbol, a term that recalls to the 'Great Man Period' in the personality era. This implied that the leader's performance was of little consequence (Pfeffer, 1977: 104). For example, if the leader were a figurehead in society, he or she would be revered, irrespective of whether he or she was an effective or ineffective leader.

The substitute period evolved in the anti-leadership era, which attempted to identify substitutes for leadership (Van Seters and Field, 1989: 36). In other words, theorists attempted to replace leadership with other theories. Leadership was viewed as negative towards subordinates and productivity. This phase was more a constructive developmental phase. Lourens (2001: 33) suggested that the task, which is well structured, and the positive characteristics of the subordinates (such as motivation) and

a strong ethos in the institution could prevent leadership from negatively affecting subordinate performance. The work concentrated on leader substitutes and leader neutralizers in the work situation to prevent the negativity of leadership. Leadership was then dissuaded during this period. During this period the importance of management was highlighted rather then leadership.

(8) Culture era

The culture era proposed that leadership is a phenomenon of the entire institution (Van Seters and Field, 1989: 36). The leadership focus changed from one of increasing the quantity of work accomplished (productivity, efficiency) to one of increasing its quality (through expectations, values). The theorists of this leadership era included the '7-S framework' (Pascale and Athos, 1981: 22), as well as 'Theory Z' (Ouchi, 1981: 14). This theorists of this era suggested that if a leader could create a strong culture in an institution, employees would lead themselves, moreover, once the culture had been established, it creates the next generation of leaders would be created.

According to Schein (1985: 111), formal leadership is needed when the existing culture is changed and a new culture has to be created. It could be argued that the culture era is a descendant of the transactional era, since culture can be created by emergent leadership at the lower levels of the institution and then directed to the top levels of the institution. The leadership in the South African public service could in this regard take cognizance of the previous culture (prior to 1994), the existing culture and the changing paradigm in the public service, to create a strong culture for effective service delivery. In this regard, various positive aspects could be incorporated to promote an ethos of service delivery. There has been a recent debate at a conference on leadership and governance at the University of Pretoria, around the need to integrate the principles of traditional African leadership and governance to promote an ethos of service delivery in the South African public service (Geraldine Fraser-Moleketi, 2003: Presentation).
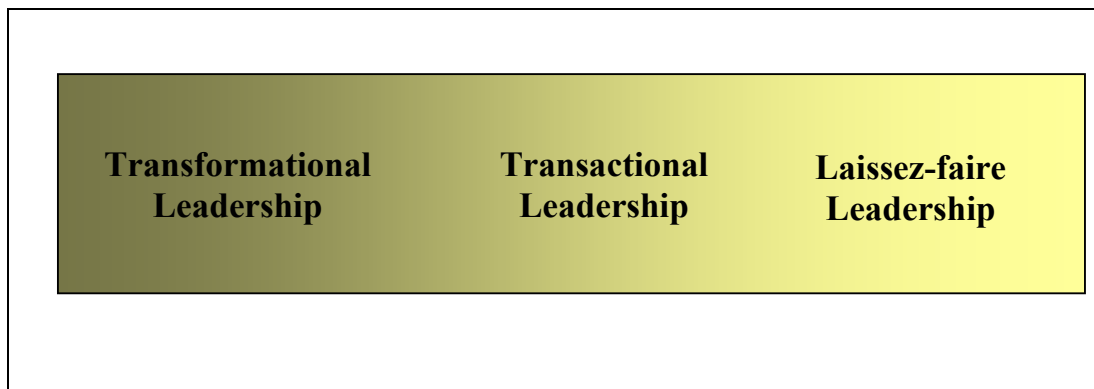
(9) Transformational era

The transformational era represents the most recent phase in the evolutionary development of leadership theory (Freedman and Tregoe, 2003: 1). This era comprises

on the charisma and the self-fulfilling prophecy periods (Van Seters and Field, 1989: 37). During the charisma period the theory of leadership began to be coloured by the strategic importance of leadership in introducing change. The former leadership theories with a change orientation are for example, transformational and transactional leadership. As encapsulated by Bryman (1992: 44), these leadership theories focused on a number of visionary aspects. The vision of the institution occupies a central position in leadership. The leader should be able to communicate this vision to others in the institution, and create a corporate culture that is in line with the vision. This demands that formalities be kept to a minimum. The leader should have the ability to create trust and confidence, as without trust, it would be almost impossible to communicate the vision to co-workers.

The self-fulfilling prophecy (SFP) period is based on recent theorizing by Field (1989) on the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon. This deals with the transformation of individual self-concepts and improves on previous theories by considering the transformation as occurring from the leader to the subordinate, just as much as from the subordinate to the leader (Lourens, 2001: 35). Kets de Vries (2001: 264) distinguishes between transactional and transformational leadership, emphasizing the importance of leadership as an interactional and innovative phenomenon. Bass (1978) distinguishes between a transformational and a transactional leadership style, and a third type, namely a laissez-faire style. These are reflected in Figure 4/5 as a leadership continuum.

Figure 4/5: Leadership continuum

Transformational Leadership   **Transactional Leadership**   **Laissez-faire Leadership**

(Northouse, 2001: 135)

Bryman (1992: 54) concedes that the model of transformational and transactional leadership incorporates seven different factors (see Figure 4/6), which are divided into three parts: transformational factors (4Is), transactional factors (2), and the nonleadership/nontransactional factor (1). The 4Is in transformational factors refer to idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS) and individualized consideration (IC), which are considered to be essential for effective leadership. Transactional factors refer to contingent rewards, in which followers are rewarded. It also refers to management-by-exception and refers to leadership that involves corrective criticism, negative feedback and negative reinforcements. The nonleadership or nontransactional factor refers to the absence of leadership. According to Bryman (1992: 55), there is a tendency not to see transformational leadership as occurring along a continuum that incorporates several components of leadership. This is elaborated on in the discussion below.

Transformational leadership theory

The focus of leadership has shifted from traditional or transactional models of leadership to a new genre of leadership theories, with an emphasis on transformational leadership, which has been termed visionary leadership, charismatic or simply new leadership (Ozaralli, 2003: 335). The transformational approach to leadership has grown in popularity since 1980 (Lourens, 2001: 36), and is part of the 'New Leadership' paradigm.

Bryman (1992: 23) indicates that the term transformational leadership was first used by Downton (1973). It began with a classic work by the political sociologist James MacGregor Burns titled, simply, "leadership" (1978). Northouse (2001: 23) claims that Burns (1978) linked the roles of leadership and followership. Burns (1978), for instance, indicates that leaders are individuals who tap into the motives of followers, in order to better reach the goals of both leaders and followers. Burns (1978) argues that leadership is quite different from wielding power because it is inseparable from followers' needs. Furthermore, Burns (1978) distinguished between two types of leadership: transactional and transformational (Northouse, 2001: 23).

154

Transactional leadership refers to the bulk of leadership models, which focus on the exchanges that occur between leaders and their followers (Adair, 2003: 23). Politicians who win votes by promising housing, employment or low taxes, are examples of politicians demonstrating transactional leadership. Other examples of transactional leadership within an institutional context include managers who offer promotions to subordinates who surpass their goals. According to Bass (1985: 27), the transactional leader adjusts his or her actions to expected behaviour and rewards goal achievement. The transactional leader rewards people for performing the tasks as defined by the leader, which promotes motivation amongst subordinates. The rewards are thus incentives to increase productivity. The exchange dimension of transactional leadership is a very common one, and can be observed at many levels throughout all types of institutions.

Transformational leadership, in contrast, refers to the process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both leader and follower (Bryman, 1992: 23). Bass (1990: 44) posits that this type of leader is attentive to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their fullest potential. Within an institutional context, an example of transformational leadership would be a manager who attempts to change his or her corporate values to reflect a more human standard of fairness and justice. Both manager and followers may emerge with a stronger and higher set of moral values in the process.

In the 1980s, Bass provided a more comprehensive and refined version of transformational leadership, one that was based on, but not fully consistent with, the works of Burns (1978) and House (1976). Bass (1981) directed more attention to the needs of followers rather than those of the leader, by suggesting that transformational leadership could apply to situations in which the outcomes were not positive, and by describing transactional and transformational leadership as a single continuum, rather than as mutually independent continua. Bass (1978) also paid more attention to the emotional elements and origins of charisma by suggesting that charisma is a necessary but not sufficient condition for transformational leadership. Bass and Avolio (1994: 11) propose that transformational leadership motivates followers to do more than is expected, by (i) raising the levels of consciousness of followers about the importance and value of specified and idealized goals, (ii) getting followers to transcend their own

155

self-interest for the sake of the team or institution, and (iii) motivating followers to address higher-level needs. Rost (1993: 121), in describing transformational leadership, consistently developed the notion that leaders shape, alter and elevate the motives, values and goals of followers through the vital teaching role of leadership.

Transformational leadership thus goes beyond transactional techniques (Daft, 1998: 514). It is difficult to define the parameters of transformational leadership as the theory covers such a vast array of issues. Amongst others, these include the creation of building trust and giving support. The impact of transformational leaders normally starts with: stating a vision of an imagined future that employees can identify with; shaping a corporate value system which everyone supports and believes in trusting subordinates and earning their trust in return (Zinkin, 2003: 201). Transformational leaders tend to be less predictable than transactional leaders. They create an atmosphere of change, and have visionary ideas that excite, stimulate and drive other people to work hard. Furthermore, transformational leaders have a vision of the future, are able to communicate that vision to subordinates, and motivate them to realize them.

In embracing transformational leadership, leaders in the South African public service ought to empower public servants to translate their vision into reality and to promote service delivery. It is imperative for leaders to motivate public servants, so that they can transcend their own self-interest for the benefit of the public. Furthermore, the leadership in the South African public service ought to pay attention to the needs of public servants, and to encourage their full participation in achieving the public service's goals. The South African public service should, for example pay close attention to how public servants are appraised, how grievances are resolved and how conduct is managed. An emphasis ought to be placed on employee empowerment, commitment and achievement of results rather than on subordination and control. An annual review of the vision, mission, values, overall goals and strategies is essential. The South African public service needs to move from a greater concentration on inputs (for example, how much is the budget) to outputs (what results have been achieved). The quality of the service provided to society is determined by applying the South African government's Batho Pele Policy, for example customer surveys are conducted to determine consumer satisfaction. The South African government's Batho Pele Policy has been discussed in Chapter Three of the study.

Transformational leadership is meant to result in followers performing beyond expected levels of performance as a consequence of the leader's influence. The underlying influence process is described as raising an awareness of the importance and values of designated outcomes and by developing intellectually stimulating and inspiring followers to transcend their own self-interests for a higher collective purpose, mission or vision (Ozaralli, 2003: 335). In the South African public service, leaders should work with their subordinates to accomplish the public service's mission and purpose. The dynamics of transformational leadership are similar to those of traditional African leadership, which involves personal identification with the leader, joining in a shared vision of the future, and going beyond self-interest exchange of rewards for compliance (Henry, 1975: 25). Leaders in the South African public service who have a clear vision can create a climate that is conducive to empower employees to goal-achievement, an idea that is in keeping with traditional African leadership. This ought to enhance the vision and build subordinates' self-confidence with respect to goal-attainment in the South African public service. The components of transformational leadership are highlighted in Figure 4/6, which is discussed below.

Figure 4/ 6: Components of transformational leadership
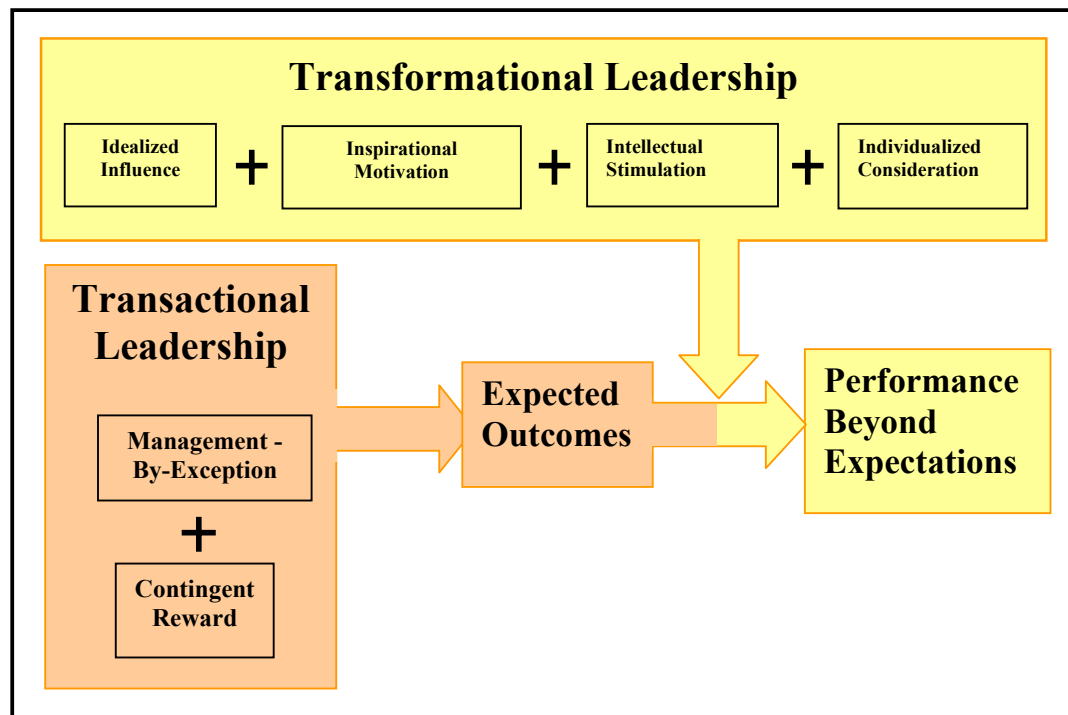
(Adapted from Ozaralli, 2003: 335)

Figure 4/6 clearly indicates that transformational leadership is concerned with the performance of followers and with developing their fullest potential (Bryman, 1992: 52). According to Northouse (2001: 137), individuals who exhibit transformational leadership often have a strong set of internal values and ideals. They are effective at motivating followers to act in ways that support the greater wellbeing of the institution rather than their own self-interests (see Figure 4/6 and Figure 4/7). These are categorized as the four I's in transformational leadership, namely: idealized influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS) and individualized consideration (IC) (Bryman 1992:54). The most salient points, as postulated by Bryman (1995: 54), Bass (1985: 44) and Northouse, (2001: 137) are summarized below.

Figure 4/7: Leadership factors

Transformational Leadership	Transactional Leadership	Laissez-faire Leadership
Factor 1 Idealized Influence	**Factor 5** Contingent Rewards	**Factor 7** Laissez-faire Nontransactional
Charisma	**Factor 6** Management-by-Exception Active and Passive	
Factor 2 Inspirational Motivation	Corrective Transactions	
Factor 3 Intellectual Stimulation		
Factor 4 Individualized Consideration		

(Bryman, 1992: 50)

Factor 1 is called charisma or idealized influence. It describes leaders who act as strong role models for followers (Taylor, 2003: 89). Followers identify with such leaders and want very to emulate them. These leaders usually have high standards of moral and ethical conduct and are deeply respected. They provide a mission and a sense of vision (Bass, 1985: 44). The previous President of South Africa after the first democratic election in 1994, President Nelson Mandela, can be viewed as such a leader: His high

moral standards and vision for South Africa resulted in monumental changes in how the people of South Africa were governed and how they perceived themselves and their role in the country.

Factor 2 is labelled as inspiration or inspirational motivation (Northouse, 2001: 138). This factor is descriptive of leaders who communicate high expectations to followers, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and a part of the shared vision in the institution. According to Bryman (1992: 52), this type of leadership enhances team spirit. An example of this would be a manager who motivates his or her staff to exchange ideas in their work by using encouraging words and pep talks that clearly communicate the integral role they play in the future success of the institution.

Factor 3 refers to intellectual stimulation (Sloane, 2003: 4). It describes a form of leadership that stimulates followers to be creative and innovative, and to challenge their own beliefs and values, as well as those of the leader and the institution. This type of leadership supports followers as they try new approaches and develop innovative ways of dealing with institutional issues (Bass, 1985: 44). According to Bryman (1992: 54), it encourages followers to think through challenges on their own and to engage in careful problem solving.

Factor 4 of transformational leadership is called individualized consideration (Northouse, 2001: 39). This factor is representative of leaders who provide a supportive climate in which they listen carefully to the individual needs of followers (Bryman, 1992: 38). Leaders act as coaches and advisers, while trying to assist individuals in becoming fully actualized (Kennedy, 2002: 94). These leaders may use delegation as a means to help followers to grow through personal challenges (Bass, 1985: 44). An example of this type of leadership is a manager who spends time treating each employee in a caring and unique way. For some employees, the leader may give strong affiliation, whereas for others, he or she may give specific directives with a high degree of structure.

There are several positive features of the transformational leadership approach that could be applied to the South African public service. The current model emphasizes the importance of followers in the leadership process. It goes beyond traditional

transactional models and broadens leadership to include the growth of followers, and it places a strong emphasis on morals and values. According to Goleman (2003: 221), transformational leadership is a widely used approach in many public services.

From the above discussion, it emerges that transformational leadership is one of the newest and most encompassing approaches of Western leadership models. It is concerned with the process of how certain leaders are able to inspire their followers to accomplish institutional objectives. Such leaders understand and adapt to the needs and motives of followers. The transformational approach focuses on leadership as a personality trait rather than a type of behaviour to be taught and learnt. The present study proposes that, for South African public service leaders to become more effective in meeting their objectives, departments ought to need to be successful in developing the behaviour and characteristics of transformational leadership. This could be appropriate for a transforming public service. Eisenbach, Watson and Pillai (1999) argue that transformational leadership is better for non-routine situations, such as major institutional transformations, large scale re-engineering, mergers and acquisitions.

Leaders in the South African public service have the responsibility to ensure that services are provided in the most cost-effective, efficient and equitable manner (Druskatt and Wolff, 2001: 1). Failure to a do so will not only contribute to a waste of scarce resources, but also result in the needs of communities not being met (Service Delivery Review, 2003). The adoption of transformational leadership by leaders should ensure that the public service achieves service delivery outcomes. It is only when every employee is committed to providing efficient and friendly services and meeting the goals of the public service that society will receive the service to which it is entitled. The long-term objective of the South African public service requires leadership to improve service delivery (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12).

Amongst all these options presented on leadership, it can be argued that transformational leadership is beneficial for the South African public service. While transactional leadership results in expected outcomes, transformational leadership results in performance that goes well beyond what is expected. Northouse (2001: 139) postulates that individuals who exhibited transformational leadership were perceived to be more effective leaders with improved work outcomes than were individuals who

exhibited only transactional leadership. In a study conducted by Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam (1996) of 39 studies on transformational literature, they concluded that these studies were true for leaders in both public and private settings (Lourens, 2001: 35). In sum, there is a high probability that the leadership factors advocated by Bryman (1992), Sloane (2003), Kennedy (2002) and Taylor (2003) can promote effective service delivery in the South African public service. Moreover, these characteristics can promote a sustainable public service, which in turn will improve its ability to deliver services to society.

Transactional leadership theory

Transactional leadership is at the middle of the range of the leadership continuum between transformational leadership on the one hand and laissez-faire leadership on the other (see Figure 4/7). Leaders who are transactional enter into agreements with their followers, colleagues or supervisors to complete tasks. If such agreements are established and fully understood, then the performance levels should meet both parties' expectations. Further down the continuum (see Figure 4/7) are leaders who establish rules and regulations, which they monitor closely for any deviations. They attend to exceptions and focus on the extreme to prevent problems. They typically spend an amount of significant time inspecting work systems, processes and performance (Drucker, 1993: 96). Rost (1993: 140) argues that the model of transactional leadership propounded by Burns (1978), is really management, while the model of transformational leadership presented by Burns (1978) is leadership.

According to Rost (1993: 140), transactional leadership diverges from transformational leadership in that the transactional leader does not individualize the needs of subordinates, nor focus on their personal development. Transactional leaders exchange things of value with subordinates, to advance their own as well as their subordinates' agendas. Transactional leaders are influential, because it is in the best interest of subordinates to do what the leader wants. Factor 5, labelled contingent reward, as a transactional leadership factors (see Figure 4/7). It refers to an exchange process between leaders and followers in which the efforts by followers are exchanged for specified rewards. With this kind of leadership, the leader endeavours to obtain

161

agreement from followers on what needs to be done and what the payoffs will be for the people doing it.

Factor 6 is referred to as management-by-exception and refers to leadership that involves corrective criticism, negative feedback and negative reinforcement (Northouse, 2001: 140). According to Fox (1991: 93), management-by-exception takes two forms: active and passive. A leader using the active form of management-by-exception can be illustrated in the leadership of a manager, who daily monitors how employees in the public service approach the public. The leader quickly corrects those employees who are slow to attend to the public in the prescribed manner. A leader using a passive form intervenes only after standards have not been met or problems have arisen (Fox, 1991: 93). An example of passive management-by-exception is illustrated in the leadership of a manager, who gives an employee a poor performance evaluation without ever talking with the employee about her or his prior work performance. Both active and passive management types use more negative reinforcement patterns than the positive reinforcement patterns described in Factor 5 under contingent reward. In terms of the model, the nonleadership factor diverges further from transactional leadership and represents behaviours that are nontransactional.

Factor 7 describes leadership that falls at the far right side of the transactional-transformational leadership continuum. This factor represents the absence of leadership, called laissez-faire leadership. This type of leader abdicates responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feedback, and makes little effort to help followers satisfy their needs (Northouse, 2001: 141). There is no exchange with followers, nor any attempt to help them grow. An example of a laissez-faire leader could be a head of a department in the public service who calls no meetings with management, has no long-range plan for the institution, and makes little or no contact with employees within the institution (Sashkin and Sashkin, 2003: 193).

In conclusion the transformational era, has looked at transformational leadership theory, transactional leadership theory and laissez-faire leadership. The latter two theories focused on a change orientation. Transformational leadership, however, goes beyond transactional leadership, which broadens leadership to emphasise the importance of

followers in the leadership process. Laissez-faire leadership refers to an absence of leadership, where by leader there is no exchange with followers.

In view of this, it is proposed that the next era of leadership in the South African public service should add further variables to an evolutionary model. This ought to broaden our understanding of leadership. The future should be called the 'Integrative Era' with leadership theories integrating ideas from traditional African leadership and institutional structural factors, electronic governance, social exchange theory and the role-making model fast-paced change, multiple decision arenas, multicultural contexts and extensive political activity. What is required in the South African public service is a conceptual integrating framework, which ties together the positive aspects of different approaches and makes possible the development of a comprehensive, sustaining theory of leadership for effective service delivery. This is investigated in Chapters Five and Six of the study.

POST-1985 WESTERN LEADERSHIP APPROACHES

The concept of team leadership has recently and increasingly been receiving attention in institutions. Adair (2003: 75) concedes that leadership in institutional groups or work teams has become one of the most popular and rapidly growing areas of leadership theory and research after 1985. It is thus important to examine the basic ideas of this approach for the purpose of this study.

Team leadership

Teams are organisational groups composed of interdependent members (Taylor, 2003: 103). Team members share common goals and who coordinate their activities to accomplish these goals (Northouse, 2001: 162). Examples of such groups include project management teams, task forces, work-units, standing committees, quality teams and improvement teams. Taylor (2003: 103) suggests that, "all teams are groups, but not all groups are teams." Taylor (2003: 103) and Northouse (2001: 162) argue that a group generally has or needs a strong leader, who bonds the group together and instils a sense of mission in its members. They point out that teams imply a strong sense of shared mission and collective responsibility and on the other hand they further concede that

team members may share the leadership role, and adopt it at different times and in different contexts and situations.

Freedman and Tregoe (2003: 24) point out that some of the reasons for the increased interest in work teams stem from the rapidly changing conditions facing the modern public service, such as increasing diversity and expanding technology within departments. Within a rapidly changing environment, Northouse (2001: 162) found that the use of departmental teams lead to greater productivity, more effective use of resources, better quality services and increased innovation and creativity.

Druskatt and Wolff (2001: 12) indicate that such new empowered teams will still have a team leader in the traditional Western sense, or that the leader's role might be rotated among team members in the traditional African sense. The formal team leader's role might be limited to serving as a liaison with those external to the group, as a process facilitator within the group, or both. It is important to understand the role of leadership within these teams to ensure team success and to avoid team failure.

Adair (2003: 74) reports that successful team leaders will be individualistic and will encourage challenges. Based on the evidence presented by Adair (2003: 74) and Northouse (2001: 162), it may appear on the surface that shared leadership is challenging, in that accountability is, shared by team members. In the practical sense, this may present numerous difficulties within the South African public service, such as evasion of responsibility for service delivery performance. In a group, the leader should thus remain ultimately accountable. It is also important to examine how teams operate and why some teams succeed and others fail.
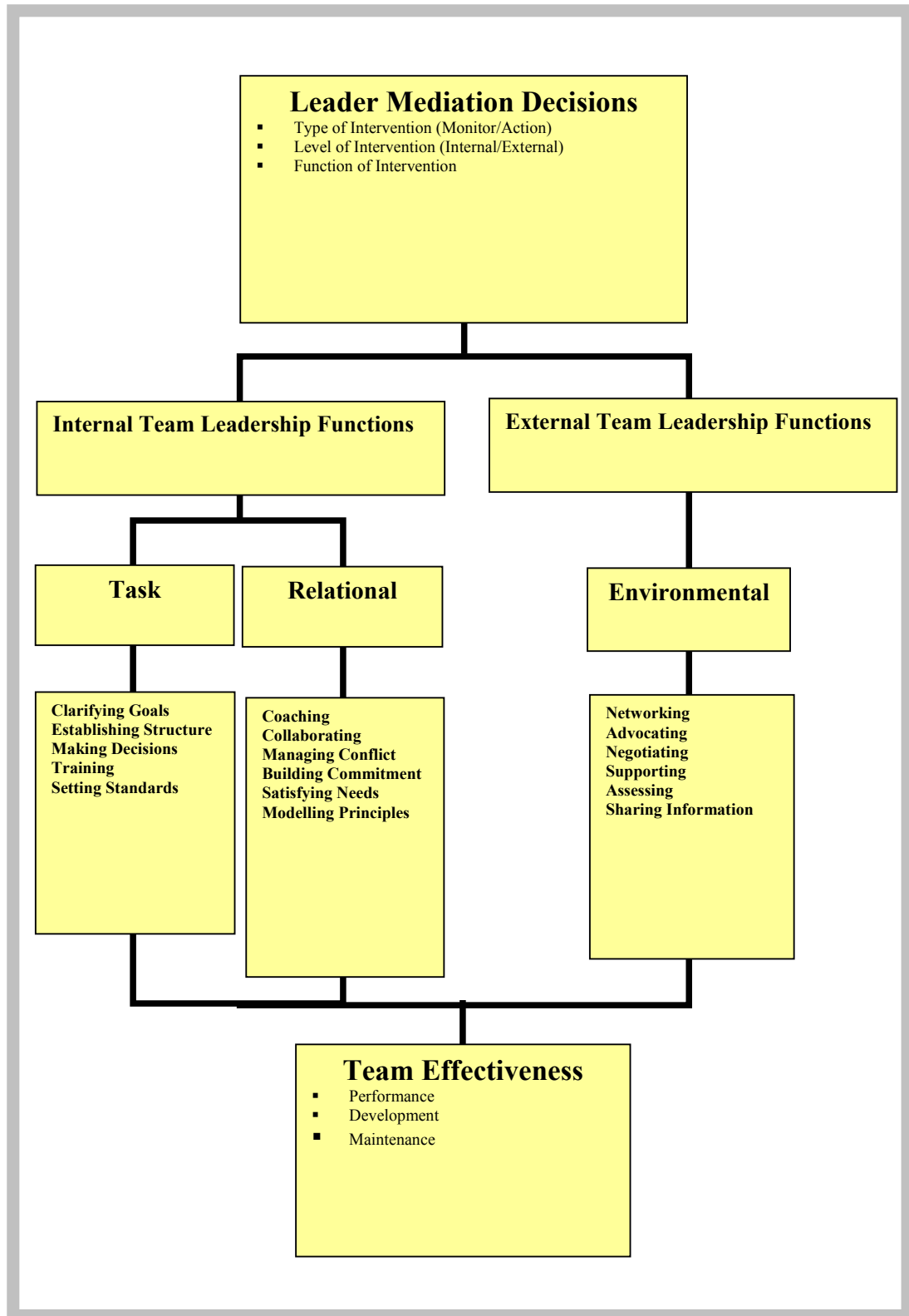
The effectiveness of a leader lies in the degree to which the team follows him or her and his or her instructions (Northouse, 2001: 163). The degree to which the team executes its tasks will determine the team's success. In this process, both the leader and the group will influence each other and thus every person may to some degree be regarded as a leader. However, the question remains as to the degree to which the leader exercises an influence. From the discussion earlier on leadership approaches (pre-1985) the evidence suggests that, the extent to which a leader can influence the group will depend on his or her style, type of leadership behaviour and contextual factors. It would be important to

examine whether the ideas of team leadership can be of benefit to the South African public service.

Adair (2003: 75) argues that, even though a team may have everything going for it in terms of resources, skilled members and a clear mission, it may still fail. They argue that this failure is usually the result of a leadership failure. In this regard, either the team's emotional intelligence was not up to the challenge, or the leader simply did not fulfil his or her roles effectively. In the first case, team members may be holding back, whilst in the second instance, there may be a flawed relationship between leader and team members. To avoid this state of affairs in the South African public service, it would be advisable for the leader to set reachable milestones and to control progress within his or her department. It is also suggested that, in building a team, the leader should carefully consider the individuals who will be involved and their fit, as well as their potential contribution to the team's performance.

There are many models that have been developed to integrate the various components of teams, leadership and team effectiveness (Hackman, 1986: 104). Figure 4/8 is one such team leadership model that integrates the mediation and monitoring concepts with team effectiveness. The model also provides specific actions that leaders can perform to improve effectiveness. Effective team leaders are required to possess a wide repertoire of communication skills to monitor and take action appropriately.

Figure 4/8: Model of team leadership

Leader Mediation Decisions
- Type of Intervention (Monitor/Action)
- Level of Intervention (Internal/External)
- Function of Intervention

Internal Team Leadership Functions

External Team Leadership Functions

Task

Relational

Environmental

Clarifying Goals
Establishing Structure
Making Decisions
Training
Setting Standards

Coaching
Collaborating
Managing Conflict
Building Commitment
Satisfying Needs
Modelling Principles

Networking
Advocating
Negotiating
Supporting
Assessing
Sharing Information

Team Effectiveness
- Performance
- Development
- Maintenance

(Ozaralli, 2003: 341)

The team leadership model illustrated in Figure 4/8 demonstrates that a leader needs to make decisions when determining whether to intervene to improve team functioning. The first decision confronting leadership is whether monitoring or action taking is the most appropriate for the issue at hand. Is it a time to gather and interpret information, or to intervene and shape the course of team activity? Figure 4/8 elaborates the skills necessary for internal and external team leadership. Researchers have historically focused exclusively on task and relational types of internal team behaviours. With the increased focus on intact work teams, leadership behaviours need to include the external environmental context as well.

The model in Figure 4/8 lists a number of leadership skills that can be used internally (task, relational) and externally (environmental levels). These skills reflect the ingredients of team excellence, and it is up to the leader to select the right behaviour(s) to meet the demands of the current situation. The leader needs to possess the ability to perform these skills, as well as the ability to make a strategic choice about which behaviour is most appropriate at that moment.

The first set of skills reflects those that the leader needs to implement to improve task performance (see Figure 4/8) (Northouse, 2001: 172). In this regard, internal task leadership functions are focused on goals. This refers to clarifying and gaining agreement on the goals. Another crucial skill is preparation for ensuring results. This includes planning, organizing, clarifying roles and delegating. The facilitation of decision-making is also significant. This involves informing, controlling, coordinating, mediating, synthesizing and issue focusing. The training of team members in task skills is equally important and entails educating and developing members. The maintenance of standards of excellence carries tremendous weight, requiring team and individual performance to be assessed and confronting inadequate performance. If, after monitoring the team's performance, the leader observes that the team members do not have the skills necessary for the task, then the leader might educate the team members or provide them with the necessary skills or professional development.

The second set of skills/behaviours comprises those that the leader needs to implement to improve team relationship (see Figure 4/8) (Druskatt and Wolff, 2001: 12). Internal relational leadership functions include coaching team members in interpersonal skills.

167

Collaboration is also important, as it entails involving team members. The management of conflict and power issues is another skill that the leader is required to have. This involves avoiding confrontation and questioning ideas. A strong commitment and *esprit de corps* is essential, which entails being optimistic, innovating, envisioning, socializing, and rewarding. It is also crucial to satisfy team members' needs, which involves trusting, supporting, advocating and modelling ethical and principles practices. If the leader observes that some of the group members are in conflict, then the leader may need to intervene to manage this conflict.

The third set of skills or behaviours reflects those the leader needs to implement in order to improve the environmental interface with the team (see Figure 4/8). To stay viable, the team needs to monitor this environment closely and determine what actions need to be taken to enhance team effectiveness (Northouse, 2001: 174). Environmental monitoring suggests that the leader needs to select external environmental leadership functions. In this respect, networking and forming alliances is essential. It is critical for the leader to negotiate with the department to secure the necessary resources, support and recognition for the team. The leader should assess service delivery outcomes for establishing team effectiveness, and to share relevant information with the team.

The final section of Figure 4/8 focuses on team effectiveness, or the desired outcome of teamwork (Nadler, 1998: 24). The figure represents the two critical functions of team effectiveness: team performance (task accomplishment) and team development (maintenance of team). With regard to the South African public service, team performance or achievement of service delivery outcomes also involve the quality of decision making, the ability to implement decisions, the outcomes of teamwork in terms of problems solved and work completed, and finally the quality of institutional leadership provided by the team (Nadler, 1998: 24). Team development is the second aspect of team effectiveness, and it focuses on the maintenance of the team as a cohesive and functioning body able to produce service delivery results and achieve high performance (Adair, 2003: 77). Adair (2003: 78) postulates that most scholars studying teams agreed that there are two critical functions of leadership. Firstly, leadership should help the team to accomplish its task, and secondly, leadership should maintain the group and keep it functioning smoothly. Scholars such as Larson and Lafasto (1989: 167), studying teams, have also referred to these two functions as team performance and

team development. The team leadership model (Figure 4/8) is a useful tool for understanding the very complex phenomenon of team leadership, with its mediation decisions, its critical functions, and its focus on outcomes of team excellence. This model is based on functional leadership, which claims that the leader's function is to monitor the team and then to take the necessary action to ensure its effectiveness.

In light of the above, it could be argued that team leadership in the South African public service should be focused on both team performance and team development. If teams are well maintained and developed in the South African public service, then the public servants should be able to work together effectively and achieve service delivery outcomes. Similarly, if the team is productive and successful, it ought to be easier to maintain a positive climate and cordial relations between leaders and followers. In dealing with and balancing the task and relational needs of the team, it is suggested that the leader ought to help the group to adapt to both the internal and external environment. Northouse (2001: 166) thus indicates that effective team leaders need to learn to analyze and balance the internal and external demands of the group, and to react appropriately by either changing or remaining consistent.

Hackman (1986: 104) indicates that leaders need to monitor service delivery performance conditions (goals, structure, resources and culture). Leaders also need to monitor performance processes (effort, knowledge, approaches, theories, models and strategies) and outcomes (qualitative and quantitative ones, such as satisfaction and performance). The question is: Should the leader continue monitoring these factors; or should the leader take action based on information already gathered? If an action is to be taken, the leader should make a strategic decision and determine what level of process needs leadership attention, that is, internal team leadership (task/relational) or external team leadership (environment).

Other important questions that leaders need to ask are: Is their conflict among members of the group? Are the team's goals clear? Is the public service providing proper support to teams to do their job? Moreover, leadership is to determine the most appropriate function or skill to be performed in the intervention. To be effective, leaders in South African public service should respond with the action in the situation.

In a study conducted by Ozaralli in 2003, a significant correlation can be found between transformational leadership and team effectiveness (Ozaralli, 2003: 434). It is evident that there is also a correlation between team leadership, transformational leadership and traditional African leadership. The commonalities relate to working in groups, having a clear vision, goal attainment, and a strong focus on values and morals. In relating these commonalities to the South African public service context, the leadership framework ought to include improved service delivery, job satisfaction and commitment. It can be argued that an inculcation of traditional African leadership, fuelled by transformational leaders, can ultimately result in a high level of team effectiveness in the South African public service, thereby promoting optimal service delivery.

In light of the above, it appears that there is an increased importance placed on teams and the leadership needed within them. The team leadership model provides a framework within which to study the systematic factors that contribute to a group's outcomes or general effectiveness. The strength of this approach includes its focus on real-life institutional teams and their effectiveness. The model also emphasizes the functions of leadership that can be shared and distributed within the work group. It offers help in selecting leaders and team members by providing appropriate diagnostic and action-taking skills.

As has been emphasized throughout this study, leadership is essential in the South African public service to improve service delivery. In evaluating whether the leadership approach adopted in the South African public service promotes service delivery, it becomes evident in Chapter Five of the study that the results do not totally add up to optimal service delivery outcomes. It can therefore be concluded that service delivery needs to be improved by the adoption of an effective leadership framework. This is elaborated in Chapters Five and Six of the study. The positive attributes of an integrated leadership and governance framework can lead to a sustainable South African public service that improves service delivery. Thus far the study has looked at leadership approaches, but now the study will discuss governance approaches.

WESTERN GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

The intellectual tradition that has contributed to the etymology of the term governance in public administration relates to the study of governance within the public service has emphasized the multi-layered structural, normative and the context of government. Governance in this sense is an arrangement of distinct but interrelated elements, including statutes and policy mandates. It focuses on institutional components such as systems, processes and procedures. Furthermore, programmatic structures and institutionalized rules and norms enable implementation of the tasks, priorities, and values that are incorporated into policy implementation process.

According to Mohiddin (2002: 2), five operational structures or domains of governance can be identified, namely, political governance, administrative governance, economic governance, civic governance and systemic governance. Each of these will be examined in turn.

Political governance is concerned with the participation of the individual in the decision-making processes that affect his or her life, livelihood and lifestyle (Mohiddin, 2002: 2). These relate to the issues of democracy, representation, inclusion and power sharing, and to the relationship between institutions of governance, such as the legislature, the executive and the judiciary, political parties and civil society organisations.

The foundations of a democracy are based on the ability of politically elected leaders to deliberate and consult with the electorate on the issues that affect their daily lives, such as public service delivery (Van Niekerk, *et al*. 2000:65). Van der Molen (2002:3) argues that the manner in which the South African public service executes its activities in the best interest of the communities it serves needs to be reviewed continually. Deliberation and consultation can assist in ensuring that the needs and demands of the people are in fact identified and correctly prioritized in South Africa.

Political governance focuses on the relationship between the different spheres of government. The South African Constitution (1996) rules the relationship between national, provincial and local government. A basic principle of effective governance is

171

that authority should be properly devolved to lower spheres of government, and to allow these the maximum autonomy possible (Rhodes 2003:50). Devolution thus means the transfer of authority by way of legislation, preferably through the constitution, to the lower spheres of government.

Devolution of political authority is constitutional decentralization. It refers to the constitutional distribution of political authority among political institutions. Effective governance in the South African public service thus similarly demands devolution of authority to and the autonomy of regional (provincial) and local spheres, as not everything can be done efficiently and effectively at the national sphere. Co-operative government moreover ensures that duplication is avoided and that co-ordination between the various spheres of government takes place, to ensure the optimal use of resources and effective service delivery.

The devolution of authority to the lowest spheres of government to ensure execution of activities and implementation of policies is essential in the South African public service. Each sphere of government should be in a position to pass legislation that will serve the interests of the particular communities it represents. In turn, the various organs of civil society in South Africa have an obligation to identify service delivery challenges common to the community and to mobilize the community around these issues.

Administrative governance is concerned with the implementation of decisions, the establishment of the institutional framework, the knowledge, skills and experience of the public servants involved and the resources needed to ensure efficient and effective implementation of public policies (Mohiddin, 2002: 2). In the realm of administrative governance, there are a number of generic benchmarks against which the public service can measure itself (Taylor, 2000: 118).

An efficiently managed public service has a clearly articulated mission that drives its work, and provides the measures for evaluating performance and identifying improvements (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). According to the 1989 'Independent Sector Study', an efficiently managed public service has a clearly articulated mission that drives the commitments and work of the governance group and staff, and serves as the benchmark against which the public service evaluates its achievements and adjusts

its behaviour over time. This implies that an efficient public service also has a clearly measurable vision, set of goals and objectives, and/or strategic plan that is quantifiable and time specific. An efficient public service can actually determine exactly when it has achieved its ends, and the responsibility for its achievement is clearly identified as being that of the administrative leadership in the public service.

Efficient and effective public service departments identify with and pursue their mission and core business with single-minded intensity (Service Delivery Review, 2004). These departments are continuously focused on their outcomes and clients, and are driven by a service delivery ethos. The leadership that creates a culture that enables and motivates the achievement of the mission leads an efficient department. Missions of efficient public service departments are crafted in such a way as to set high expectations for achievement. The key to this benchmark, are the departments with a highly competent leadership, will lead by example.

There is pressure on those South African public service departments that are not performing effectively, to become more effective in providing services to society (Taylor, 2000: 109). The structure of the South African public service ought to be such that performance service delivery objectives can be set, measured and accomplished. The public service and all its personnel ought to have a structured way to deal with the idiosyncrasies of individuals, so that they do not interfere with the public service's ability to accomplish its goals and objectives, and specific day-to-day tasks. If governance in the public service is about overseeing a department's achievement of its strategic ends, then the administrative leadership should be held accountable to the political leadership for the achievement of those same ends (Gildenhuys and Knipe, 2000: 98).

The public service will be effective and high performing, if there is a high level of mutual confidence and trust (Smit and Cronje, 2001: 227). This will be especially so between the political and administrative leadership. For example, in South Africa, a cordial relationship between the Minister, the Director-General (DG) and Deputy Director-General (DDG) is of crucial importance to promote effective governance in the public service. Governance is not the responsibility of the political leadership (i.e. the

minister alone), and is definitely not the responsibility of the administrative leadership (the Director-General) (DG) or thus Deputy Director-General (DDG), separate from the political leadership (Minister) (Ayee, 1998: 109). It is a necessary partnership. To preserve the integrity of that partnership, it is crucial that each partner has undivided loyalty to the greater entity that they administer. The administrative leadership (the Director-General and the Deputy Director-General) is thus responsible for all the parts of the department coming together in an acceptable whole, thereby enabling the political leadership (Minister) to govern by dealing conceptually with only the whole. This is the simple - albeit crucial - single interdependency between the political leadership (Minister) and the administrative leadership (Director-General and Deputy Director-General). The administrative leadership (Director-General and Deputy Director-General) is accountable to the political leadership (Minister) as a whole for department's performance. The performance of each public service department is thus synonymous with the administrative leadership's performance (Ayee, 1998: 109), whereas the political leadership (Minister) is ultimately accountable to Parliament.

The administrative leadership is consequently responsible for seeing that departmental outcomes (mission, vision, values, goals and plans) are achieved, within the budget and within a particular timeframe (Freedman and Tregoe, 2003: 9). The political leadership (Minister) and the administrative leadership (Director-General and Deputy Director-General) should mutually determine these departmental objectives, to ensure that they are realistic, achievable and measurable, and not in conflict with one another.

The starting point in building integrated administrative governance in South Africa should be that the created systems and structures should ensure a sustainable public service that delivers an effective and cost-efficient service to the country's citizens to improve the quality of life of society (The Machinery of Government, 2003: 34). It is, for example, not much use to anyone if upon completion of the construction of health clinics the necessary water, electricity or road access remains incomplete. A planning framework for government must be designed to integrate and synchronize strategic policy processes within the budget, once the institutional structures are in place. The South African public service can, invent ways to administer the public service effectively and to use its capacities creatively.

For the South African public service to be sustainable, it is crucial that there be a high degree of strategic alignment, fit or congruence among the mission, vision, values, goals, strategy, structure, culture, leadership style, resource deployment, incentive system, skills sets, and performance measures. The successful management of the South African public service requires a good partnership with leadership, especially between the political leadership (Minister) and the administrative leadership (Director General), who must have a common, shared vision of the future, have a clear, commonly-held understanding of the public service's primary commitments, and know exactly what they want to create, why and how.

Economic governance is concerned with the decision-making processes related to the efficient allocation of economic resources in order to promote a sustainable public service (Mohiddin, 2002: 2). It entails the creation of an enabling environment, within which such decisions can take place. There are two key aspects: due diligence and corporate intangibles (Taylor, 2000: 109). Due diligence refers to the careful examination of the budget, or short-, medium- and long-term goals. Due diligence also refers to the institutional culture, reputation, integrity, and relationships, and above all, values. According to Ayee (1998: 109), testing every departmental activity in the public service against the overall mission and values is the standard check. The need for an overall mission and values are sacrosanct, that drives accountability, transparency and participation and gives governance its mandate.

Limited resources dictate that the South African public service should identify the needs and priorities of South African society and deliver services in an efficient and effective manner in relation to the numerous needs that exist (Institute of Governance, 1999: 5). A continuous review of the manner in which the South African public service renders its services is moreover necessary to ensure efficiency, effectiveness and economy. In this respect, every department in the South African public service is expected to develop its own planning cycles within the overall financial planning framework of government, as agreed on by the South African Cabinet. This framework links the electoral, parliamentary and budgetary cycles, and ensures that policy decisions taken by Cabinet inform planning throughout the public service (The Machinery of Government, 2003: 34). The planning also framework includes a sequence of activities that will culminate each year with a Medium- Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF). This is a limited but

focused set of medium-term strategic objectives that are shared by all spheres of government, and that inform the Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) that has been in operation for some time.

Civic governance is concerned with the relationships between and among the various voluntary and non-profit civil service organisations, NGOs (non-governmental organisations) and CBOs (community-based and grassroots organisations), cultural, ethnic, religious organisations and the business sector (Mohiddin, 2002: 2). These institutions consist of groups of people who are engaged in their own activities, whether these are in pursuit of private interests and profits, for leisure or in the promotion of public interests. In the pursuit of these activities they do not depend on government's support. However, to the extent that civil society is part of the wider society, it is also influenced by and is influential to the other structures of governance. In examining South Africa, it is apparent that NGOs and the CBOs are engaged in the promotion of the community interests (Rhodes, 2003: 15). They are also dependent on financial support from government

Although the South African public service should secure the provision of goods and services to society, this does not imply that it ought to generate all inputs and solutions. The United Nations Development Programme states that, "Without the full involvement of major stakeholders and beneficiaries in design and implementation, programmes shall not be effectively and efficiently delivered." Such partnerships will thus lead to improved information gathering, sharing of ideas, a reduction of search costs and present the future possibility of pooling resources (Institute of Governance, 1999: 5). Therefore, the South African public service should encourage partnerships with other sectors, such as with NGOs and CBOs. The privatization of public goods and services awarded through the competitive bidding process may lead to considerable gains in efficiency, effectiveness and economy. It will also foster greater openness and transparency in decision-making, as both private enterprises and non-profit organisations openly submit bids to offer services.

These characteristics are undoubtedly important in promoting effective governance and effective service delivery. It is crucial that the principles of effective governance are taken into account. There is a new 'paradigm' of governance in international literature,

which was introduced by the Commonwealth (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 7). The 1990s produced widespread political and economic transitions on all continents, which resulted in an era of bold experimentation and innovation in public sector reform. In this regard, traditional notions of public administration and reform were replaced with a concept of governance that makes provision for multi-agency networks, such as clusters and public-private co-operation partnerships (Rhodes, 2003: 16).

The South African public service may benefit from drawing upon the knowledge and skills of experts in the field, at a lower opportunity cost than would have been incurred by building that particular capacity within public service ranks. The ambition of the South African government to provide services faster, cheaper and at a lower cost should be balanced with the requirement to guarantee citizens the delivery of public goods and services, especially among previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

The South African public service is responding constructively to the resolution of these challenges by engaging the government through various forms of action. This will be investigated in Chapter Five of the study. South African communities are actively involved in joint partnerships with government, in for example, the housing sector and social sector. South African communities need to be capacitated to embark on a process of reconstruction. This will ensure that relationships between civil society and the government of South Africa are mutually supportive in achieving the common objective of promoting the quality of life of all citizens.

Systemic governance is concerned with the convergence of all the structures and processes of governance, bringing together government, private sector and civil society in an efficient, effective and meaningful decision-making framework (Mohiddin, 2002: 3). Society has many needs and aspirations. These range from the basic needs of preserving and sustaining life, peace, security and stability, to the aspirations of improving the quality of life, from basic freedoms and human rights to the right to participate in decision-making processes and implementation processes. Effective governance in the South African public service should be based on more efficient systems and structures within and outside government to promote a sustainable public service for effective service delivery.

177

There is also a greater need to work together with local citizens and communities, to find mutually acceptable ways to meet their needs and improve the quality of their lives. Coston (1998: 482) argues that representative, accountable and effective leadership are also necessary in the South African public service to promote effective governance. According to the South African Yearbook 2000/2001 (2001), effective governance should be based on finding new ways to accelerate the delivery of services to the public (particularly to the poor).

According to Schedules 4 and 5 of the South African Constitution (1996), the national sphere of government makes decisions and has legislative power concerning matters of national interest. These include aspects such as education, health and defence, which are of a national nature and affect the nation as a whole. The provincial sphere of government, in contrast, makes decisions and has legislative power on matters that are dealt with in the provincial context. Examples include roads, hospitals and provincial health issues. Lastly, at the local government sphere, municipalities make decisions and have legislative powers over local issues. This is often referred to as grass-roots government, because of its direct association with communities at a local level. Matters include refuse, electricity, water and sanitation. In 1995, only two hundred and eighty four municipalities were in operation. In 2001, approximately eight hundred and forty three municipalities were in operation. The South African public service's capacity to act expeditiously will depend on these structures, created to ensure that such delivery in fact takes place. There is a need, therefore, to ensure that all government structures are geared towards achieving the efficient and effective rendering of public service.

In selecting, developing and implementing a particular model or framework of governance, the South African public service also has to recognize and abide by the general principles of effective governance (Nyambi, 1998: 10). It is important that each public service department understands what its role is, and that its primary responsibility is overseeing and ensuring the achievement of its mission and service delivery outcomes, which have been clearly articulated and need to be shared by all.

The leadership cadre in the public service, especially the relationship between the political leadership (Minister) and administrative leadership (Director-General and Deputy Director-General, in the case of South Africa) is integral to the success of

improving service delivery and should be viewed as a partnership (Vil-Nkomo, 1998: 137). The unity principles of direction, command, accountability and responsibility should not be violated. Ambiguity in the chain of command, lines of accountability, or direction charted for the public service almost guarantees the increased likelihood of strategic error, negligence, fraud mismanagement, below-average performance, waste, detachment from reality, and responsibility not being taken by anyone for any of the foregoing (Rugumamu, 1998: 250). By understanding the needs of ownership or community, embracing self-improvement, and understanding both the direct and indirect costs of governance and striving to make it efficient and effective, are required by the governance structure to meet, and possibly exceed, expectations.

It is apparent that both Western and traditional African models of governance conceptually abide by the principles of political, administrative, civic and systemic governance. However, the emphasis given to different aspects of governance varies from setting to setting (Institute of Governance, 1999: 5). For example, in some utilitarian Western cultures, great emphasis is placed on administrative governance such as efficiency, within the public service. In other cultures, emphasis is placed on political or democratic governance such as individual rights, whereas others will place more stress on communal obligations and the involvement of the community in fulfilling those needs, such as by means of civic governance. This type of governance is clearly prominent in traditional societies (Mule, 2001: 74). Some will prioritise applying of the rule of law, while others may stress the importance of tradition and clan in decisions about governance.

In sum, political, administrative, economic, civic and systemic governance all too varying degrees have relevance and importance in improving service delivery by the South African public service. Vil Nkomo (1998: 138) argues that, in respect of the South African public service, efficiencies can be realized through the rationalization of public services and the centralization of support services, while values and missions should not be unaffected. The only way to guarantee that values and missions are not affected negatively is through separate governance structures, which comply with the principles examined above, which measure up well against the benchmarks of excellence.

To conclude this section, governance takes place in a community, human society or an institution, it is conducted by people, and it is guided by legal and ethical principles, cultural and traditional values. It is also inspired by political and ideological considerations. The latter in particular play an important role in sustaining the governance process, but not necessarily in ensuring effective governance. Working in unison and in deference to the ethical, cultural and traditional values of the people and in support of their general welfare are conducive to effective governance. This happens when these principles are respected and the institutions belong to the people, are run and led by the people and for the benefit of the people. It is therefore important that cognizance should be taken of their relevance by the South African public service. There are a number of core characteristics or fundamentals that affect effective governance in the public service. These will be investigated below.

FUNDAMENTALS OF EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE

The World Bank succinctly summaries effective governance as; consisting of public accountability, transparency in government procedures, abiding by the rule of law, and efficient and effective public service leadership and management (Adejemboi, 1998: 26). According to Naidoo (1996: 7), accountability is the most fundamental principle of effective governance and leadership in traditional African societies. Mule (2001: 73) reiterates that effective governance focuses on effective leadership, openness and transparency, responsiveness and accountability.

The concept of effective governance is perceived to be holistic and consequential, rather than specific and procedural (Somoleka, 1998: 164). It is not expressed by the process or course of a political rule, but its effects. At a micro-level, effective governance denotes institutional effectiveness. It is the capacity of an institution to achieve tasks assigned to it, with rules and regulations laid down by it. This is important within the context of favourable environmental conditions (Adejemboi, 1998: 2627). At a macro-level, effective governance essentially derives from the theory of utilitarianism. In other words, effective governance is measured by the extent to which a political regime can guarantee popular welfare and promote the greatest happiness of the greatest number of people in society.

A number of principles ought to be followed to promote effective governance in the public service. According to Smit and Cronje (1992: 111), a principle is a fundamental truth or law forming the basis of reasoning or of action. It can therefore be argued that principles are fundamental for the proper functioning of any system, such as a community or an institution. This also means that principles do not change for simple reasons. A principled public service or community is one that sticks to its basic principles. The principles, in which governments believe, may differ depending on the political ideology they support. Nonetheless, there are common constitutional, political, social, economic principles and values forming fundamental truths or laws of reason and action that have stood the test of time in public administration. These common principles should be adhered to for realizing government's ultimate goal.

There are internationally accepted political, social, economic principles and values that are generic to all races and cultural groups and that, have been accepted as principles of effective governance (Gildenhuys and Knipe, 2000: 92). Nevertheless, many governments ignore them, and then cannot be regarded as effective. Failure to apply these principles can, and usually does, lead to social and political upheavals in and general impoverishment of countries that ignore them. It is therefore imperative for every citizen, politician and public official to understand the principles and to act in accordance with this doctrine. They should serve as fundamental guidelines for public servants, especially in their relationships with members of the public who they are supposed to serve.

According to Taylor (2000: 108) and Ayee (1998: 104), one of the most important generally accepted tenets or principles of governance in the public service is unity of management, which entails accountability. Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2001: 65) indicates that the core characteristics to affect effective governance are transparency and accountability. Both schools of thought are acceptable in respect of effective governance in the public service. Human resources management, development and training are also important in promoting effective governance and improving service delivery outcomes. Technology can also enable the government to deliver public services in innovative ways. Accountability, transparency and access to information, human resources management, development and training, information and communication technology (ICT) are presented below.

Accountability

Taylor (2000: 109) defines governance as "responsibility and accountability for the overall operation of an institution." Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2002: 3) define accountability as the obligation to render an account for a responsibility that has been conferred. Accountability thus means that individuals and public service departments charged with the performance of particular actions or activities are held responsible. In the South African public service responsibility are conferred on all public servants. According to Straussman (1985: 329), the essence of accountability is answerability.

Being accountable means having the obligation to answer questions regarding decisions and/or actions. Two types of questions can be asked (Botes, *et al.* 1992: 252). The first type asks simply to be informed and this can include financial information and/or a narrative description of activities or outputs. This type of question characterizes basic monitoring and implies a one-way transmission of information from the 'accountable' person to the overseeing person. In democratic terms, the informing aspect of answerability relates to transparency. The second type of question moves beyond mere the reporting of facts and figures, and asks for explanations and justifications (reasons), that is, it inquires not just about what was done, but why it was done. Justification goes beyond dialogue between the accountable and the overseeing actors. This dialogue can take place in a range of venues, from internal to a particular agency (e.g. staff members answering to their hierarchical superiors) to more public arenas (e.g. parliamentary hearings where departmental secretaries and agency directors answer to legislators, or city hall meetings where local officials answer to city residents). The justification aspect of answerability, and its expression through public dialogue and debate, contributes to government responsiveness and to the exercise of voice by citizens.

There is a definite need to ensure that accountability is fostered in the South African public service in terms of Section 195(1) of the South African Constitution (1996). According to Van Niekerk, *et al*. (2001: 66), this will ensure that communities are able to call upon their elected representatives to answer and account for the manner in which they perform their duties. "Public accountability constitutes the pivot of democratic governance and public administration." (Muthien, *et al*. 2000: 69). In this respect, accountability can be exercised through a complex system of institutional safeguards.

Within the context of this study, accountability includes developing of policies and plans and monitoring and measuring institutional performance, for example, measuring service delivery outcomes within the public service against those policies and plans (Ayee, 1998: 104). Accountability is also the management practice that defines key reporting relationships and the chain of command within the public service structure (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 69). Whichever structure a department chooses to adopt, its overall effectiveness is at all times contingent on its ability to instil measures of accountability. The promotion of service delivery by the South African public service can, in part, be tested against the strength of its accountability.

There is a definite need to ensure that the created accountability structures are in line with legislative policy imperatives. Improved accountability and financial controls would improve service delivery and promote the sustainability of the South African public service. At the political level, accountability means making administrative leaders accountable to political leadership, typically through the contestability of political power (Institute of Governance, 1999: 5). At a departmental level, the traditional form is hierarchical, based on administrative leadership reporting to the political level.

The current global concern with accountability indicates that citizens everywhere are dissatisfied with their governments (Straussman, 1985: 329). In industrialized countries, this concern has centred mainly on cost and effectiveness issues, whereas in developing countries, discontent has focused upon lack of basic services, abuses of power and mismanagement. The application of sanctions for inappropriate actions uncovered through answerability constitutes a crucial element of accountability (Botes, *et al.* 1992: 252). The ability of the 'overseeing actor' to impose punishment on the 'accountable actor' for failures and transgressions gives 'teeth' to accountability. In this regard, the South African government uses various measures to impose punishment on any transgressions in the public service, for example, in terms of the Public Finance Management Act, of 1999. Answerability without sanctions is generally considered to be weak accountability. In this respect, legal sanctions are at the core of enforcing accountability. It also includes professional codes of conduct, which do not have the status of law. The South African Constitution (1996) has enshrined an elaborate array of

institutions which support constitutional democracy, and which serve as checks on political and administrative authority (Constitution of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996). Furthermore, there is a code of conduct that public servants are required to abide by in South Africa.

It is important for public servants in South Africa to identify where the accountable and overseeing actors are located within a particular pubic service, and to determine the nature of their relationship with each other. A distinction can be made between institutions and actors located within the state, and those located outside (Van Wyk, *et al.* 2002: 296). Accountability within the state refers to public institutions that curb abuses by other public agencies and branches of government. Accountability is the core feature of democratic governance, which institutionalizes restraint over the exercise of state power and authority. These institutions comprise the separation of powers and also include oversight entities, such as the Public Protector and the Auditor-General's office (Van Wyk, *et al.* 2002: 296). The effectiveness of these entities depends both on the autonomy, which is required to pursue effectively their control and sanctioning functions, and on their links to other institutions within the governance system.

The other category concerns accountability from outside the public service framework (Du Toit, 2002: 103). This refers to overseeing actors located outside the state who play a role in holding state actors accountable. This category involves elections, citizens, media, civil society organisations (CSOs), and the private sector in various activities that seek to articulate demands, investigate and denounce wrongdoings, enforce standards of conduct, and provide commentary on the behaviour and actions of public officials and agencies (Van Wyk, *et al.* 2002: 297). There are various aspects of governance that contain accountability dimensions.

Democratic or political accountability is a core feature of democracy itself, where societies select their leaders via periodic elections (Van Niekerk, *et al*. 2001: 115). This dimension of accountability is a measure of democratic quality, and is necessary for democratic governance systems to be sustainable. Democratic or political accountability extends beyond holding leaders accountable through elections, and touches upon the administrative machinery of government that elected leaders directly to achieve public purposes. Financial accountability, deals with the control and monitoring of the

resources that fuel the administrative machinery of government. The focus is on ensuring that resources are used for their intended purposes and according to proper and transparent procedures.

Performance accountability connects resource use with the achievement of mandated and/or expected results (Van Wyk, *et al.* 2002: 297). This dimension encompasses effectiveness and goal achievement. Increasing accountability is key in a wide variety of governance reforms, from the national level to public service restructuring, from anti-corruption campaigns and to decentralized service delivery at the local sphere. The governance landscape is filled with an array of institutional actors with multiple connections. In some cases, these actors are both accountable to one set of actors while simultaneously exercising accountability with regard to another set.

The South African Constitution, (1996) and other South African legislation determine the framework within which public servants in the South African public service function and exercise their authority. The Acts require that public servants should be held accountable, should they overstep the boundaries of the framework (Du Toit, 2002: 103). The Public Finance Management Act (1999) (as amended) was introduced to demand increased accountability from South African public service entities (The Public Finance Management Act, Act 1 of 1999). This Act has provided a firmer legal framework for accountability by managers in the public service and transparency in national and provincial spheres of government in South Africa. The reason for this is that accountability is extremely for promoting efficiency, effectiveness and equity in South Africa. It is clear that, as a result of these measures undertaken by the government of South Africa, several national government departments and provincial administrations are introducing far-reaching institutional changes and policy reform to address weaknesses and challenges inherited from the previous system of government (pre-1994) and to promote an effective and efficient public service (Minister for Public Service and Administration, Ms Geraldine Fraser-Molekete's Parliamentary Media Briefing, 11 September 2003) (Access<http:www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97: *Retrieved: 17th October 2003*). Since the inception of the new South African government in 1994, significant changes have been effected to promote a sustainable public service for the redress of service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

From 2000 to 2001, more initiatives were undertaken by the South African government to promote accountability within the South African public service. The 2001 National Treasury Regulations stipulated National Minimum Information Requirements (NMIR) and annual reporting requirements, aligned with the National Treasury's requirements on annual reporting (Department of Public Service and Administration 2003) (Access<http:www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97: *Retrieved: 17th October 2003*). One of the more important amendments during 2001 was the extension of the financial disclosure requirement to all members of the Senior Management Services (SMS). These are intended to empower managers to create a logical and fair framework, based on the principles and values of the new democratic Constitution of South Africa (1996). From 2002, a performance management system was established (Department of Public Service and Administration 2003) (Access<http:www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97: *Retrieved: 17th October 2003*). This supported by a competency framework and competency-based recruitment and selection processes.

Special courts have been established to adjudicate corruption cases (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). The Administrative Justice Act (2000) is the cornerstone of anti-corruption legislation in South Africa. It enforces minimum administration standards for government officials in South Africa. However, most officials in the South African public service have been found to be ignorant of the various pieces of legislation governing their jobs. There is clearly a need to educate public officials on the different pieces of legislation to ensure that they are actually implemented. By 2003, it could not be established how effective the PFMA, Treasury regulations and the Administrative Justice Act were in improving financial accountability and curbing corruption.

The Department also recognized the need for developing a multi-sectoral approach to preventing corruption (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). In this respect, a number of initiatives were undertaken to prevent of corruption for example, a new Prevention of Corruption Bill was designed. In addition, mechanisms to protect 'whistle-blowers', such as the Protected Disclosures Act 2001, have been passed by the South African Parliament. 'Whistle-blowers' are individuals who report corruption or waste of resources in a bureaucracy (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2001: 123). This Act provides

protection from recrimination against employees who speak out about their concerns. It also protects the interests of employers, encouraging them to create an open culture where concerns can be raised and dealt with internally at an early stage. In addition, a statutory reward is offered to persons disclosing fraudulent activities.

With financial control in the South African public service, the South African government introduced the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) (2002) and the Treasury Regulations (2001) with the aim of tightening its financial control systems, to reduce irregularities in expenditure and to promote accountability. All South African public service departments are obliged according to these Acts to conduct risk assessments and to implement fraud prevention plans in accordance with risk assessments.

Reforms in the South African public service have focused on performance contracts in managing public administration, or on leadership accountability based on outputs, rather than using inputs and performance indicators. Such macro-level accountability can be reinforced by mechanisms of micro-level accountability, i.e. decentralization and participatory arrangements (Theron, 2000: 65). The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) state the need for democratisation in the South Africa public service, which will require a comprehensive approach. At one level, a democratic approach will facilitate internal accountability within the operations of the public service. At another level, it will ensure that its relationship with the public is also transparent, consultative, participative and democratic. A number of mechanisms of accountability have been established in terms of the South African Constitution (1996) and in the functioning of the South African parliament.

Numerous independent statutory institutions have been created in terms of Chapter 9 of the South African Constitution (1996) to ensure accountability (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2001: 79). The Public Protector and the Auditor-General are two state institutions in South Africa, which were respectively instituted in terms of Sections 182 and 188 of the Constitution (1996) to ensure accountability (Ayee, 1998: 104). These state institutions are independent and subject only to the Constitution and the law (Constitution of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996). They must be impartial and must exercise their powers and perform their functions without fear, favour or prejudice. Moreover, these institutions

are accountable to the National Assembly and must report their activities and the performance of their functions to the National Assembly at least once a year.

According to Section 182(1) (a) of the South African Constitution (1996), the Public Protector has the right "to investigate any conduct in state affairs, or in the public administration in any sphere of government, that is alleged or suspected to be improper, or to result in any impropriety or prejudice." The Public Protector has to report on that conduct and take appropriate remedial action. It has additional powers and functions prescribed by national legislation, such as the following: It can receive complaints from aggrieved persons against government officials. It can investigate matters relating to misadministration, dishonesty or improper dealings, with respect to public money and improper enrichment. It may, however, not investigate court decisions. It must be accessible to all persons and communities, and the reports produced by the Public Protector are open to the public. Only in exceptional cases may the report be kept confidential, which is, determined by national legislation. According to Section 182(1) (a) of the South African Constitution 1996, the Public Protector is independent of government or any political party.

The creation of the Auditor-General's Office is independent of the executive (Constitution of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996). It is answerable only to the South African Parliament. The Auditor-General's Office scrutinizes the accounts of government and thereafter prepares a report to Parliament. In terms of Section 188 of the Constitution (1996), the Auditor-General must audit and report on the accounts, financial statements, and financial management of all national and provincial state departments and administrations, all municipalities, and other institutions or accounting entity required by national or provincial legislation. In addition to these duties, the Auditor-General may audit and report on the accounts, financial statements and financial management of any institutions funded from the national revenue fund or a provincial revenue fund or by a municipality. This also includes any institution that is authorized in terms of any law to receive money for a public purpose. The Auditor-General must submit audit reports to any legislature that has a direct interest in the audit and to any authority prescribed by national legislation. All reports are to be made public. Moreover, the Auditor-General has the additional powers and functions prescribed by national legislation, which include monitoring efficiency of public

spending. The Auditor-General must be appointed for a fixed, non-renewable term of between five and ten years.

The existence of the above two institutions, the Auditor-General's office and the Public Protector' office, illustrate the importance of public accountability by public servants. Furthermore, they have been created to ensure that public resources are utilized efficiently and effectively. The challenge for the South African public service is to develop a creative set of mechanisms and strategies to ensure public service accountability and transparency through 'public access systems' (Cohen and Wheeler, 1997: 320). The South African government delegates its responsibility for the delivery of public services to leadership within departments. South African public service leaders (those at senior managerial level), through lines of hierarchical responsibility, are accountable to parliament and thus to the public. Executive government in South Africa is accountable for broad policy and strategic direction. Political leadership (Ministers), through the South African Cabinet, is collectively responsible for policy implementation and individually accountable for the policy implementation of their own departments. Public servants are accountable for the implementation of that policy.

Accountability is the obligation to render an account for a responsibility that has been conferred (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2000: 3). The responsibility principle in the public service states that, firstly, subordinates' are responsible for their performance directly to their superiors and, secondly, that supervisors are directly responsible for the performance of those they supervise. Authority within the public service should always be commensurate with responsibility. Where it is not, decisions may be delayed or not made at all because of the affected individual's refusal to act beyond his or her authority limits   (Van der Molen, 2002: 267). Responsibility is an important aspect of leadership and governance, which greatly influence outcomes, for example service delivery   (Van der Molen, 2003: 293). Only when a leader accepts responsibility and commits him or herself fully to the task, can meaningful results be expected in terms of outcomes (service delivery). As Winston Churchill rightly states; "the price of greatness, is responsibility." We, unfortunately live in times where people generally do not like to commit themselves and accept responsibility (Drucker, 1993: 96). Leadership in the public service should be empowered to achieve results and take responsibility for doing so. To this end, the

189

leadership within the South African public service ought to operate with greater enthusiasm to attain this objective.

Needless to say, it would be detrimental for the South African public service if the administrative leadership (Director General) did not carry out his or her responsibility. Authority is, therefore, a requirement of responsibility. Yet everyone, including the Director General, must be held accountable for the exercise of authority in executing his or her responsibilities in South Africa. If there is duality in the channels of accountability, then responsibility will be bifurcated and authority weakened.

In the case of the South African public service, there ought to be different dimensions of accountability to promote effective governance. Firstly, there should be 'political accountability' for the public service to achieve all externally imposed mandates within the set boundaries. Secondly, there should be 'commercial accountability' for the net value created within the services provided by the public service. Thirdly, there should be accountability for service delivery outcomes. Finally, there should be 'community accountability' for the public service's role in improving the services for its client or to the public. The governance structure and culture of the South African public service should enable the fulfilment of each.

Transparency and access to information

Transparency and access to information refer specifically to community involvement and consultation as to the manner in which the people will be governed (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2001: 65). Gildenhuys and Knipe (2000: 112) indicate that transparency assumes the free flow of information. The transparent disclosure of public spending and service delivery outcomes is a powerful overall control mechanism in the new system of budgeting proposed by the Public Service Commission (PSC) in South Africa, particularly in ensuring the transparency and accountability of the operational aspects of the budget. While recent reforms in the budget process in the South African public service have resulted in a more transparent and 'bottom-up' approach, opportunities for popular consultation and participation still remain quite limited (Service Delivery Review, 2003).

The South African government implemented measures for the promotion of transparency in the South African public service (South African Government Reform and Transformation 2003) (Access<http:www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97: _Retrieved: 17th October 2003_). In this respect, the South African government formulated the Public Service Regulations (1999). This is an important milestone in the South African government's reform initiatives. On 31st March 2000, a new chapter of the Regulations was inserted to provide for annual financial disclosure by all heads of departments, deputy directors-general and all accounting officers at lower levels of the South African public service. During 2000, further minor amendments were implemented in the Regulations. The Public Service Regulations (1999) were subsequently amended with these provisions as the Public Service Regulations (2001).

Moreover, the Promotion of Access to Information Act, 2000 (Act 2 of 2000) received assent on 3rd February 2000, as part of the government's efforts to promote transparency within the South African public service. The Act gives citizens the right of access to information referred to in Section 32 of the South African Constitution (1996). The Act generally aims to promote transparency and accountability in all private and public bodies. In this regard, the Act aims to empower and educate everyone to understand their rights in terms of the Act and to exercise these in relation to public and private bodies. In other words, the public has the right to know how public institutions apply the power and resources entrusted to them.

The South African government has furthermore established an institution of higher ethical conduct (Department of Public Service and Administration 2003) (Access<http://www.gov.za/issues/imbizo/2002: _Retrieved: 20 October 2003_). This institution is instrumental in demanding the disclosure of financial interests from public servants. The actions by the South African state, to create a policy and operating framework for combating public service corruption in the public service, is an important milestone in promoting a sustainable public service that offers effective service delivery (Department of Public Service and Administration 2003) (Access<http://www.gov.za/issues/imbizo/2002: _Retrieved: 20 October 2003_).

In light of the above, it can be re-iterated that the essence of governance in the public service includes effective leadership, accountability and transparency. The

establishment and strengthening of a democratic public service, the inculcation of traditional African values, processes and social order should all be of equal importance in South Africa. These ought to be based on the principles of equality, probity, accountability, transparency and competence. Moreover, the eradication of corrupt practices and abuse of power is vital to promote effective governance in the South African public service, as is, institution building is also essential to promote public service delivery in South Africa.   In this regard, human resources management, development and training are of importance to promote effective governance.

Human resources management, development and training

The main question to be answered with regard to leadership is whether a leader is 'born' or trained. Roos (1991: 241) writes, "If you command wisely, you'll be obeyed cheerfully." To command wisely requires not merely a natural ability to lead but also some training to enable one to perform leadership functions more effectively. In all spheres of life, someone will come forward to take the lead. In some cases, they will be natural leaders, whereas others will need to be trained as leaders. Whether one is a natural leader or not, it is submitted that training can be useful to equip any person to become a leader (Lungu and Esau,1999: 6).

It can be argued that no one person is likely to, possess all the attributes, nor will he or she be fully equipped to perform all the functions of a leader without some training. Roos (1991: 247), for instance, reiterates that "leadership not only can be taught it should be at the core of any good executive training curriculum." It can be argued that the South African public service cannot survive without a strong and competent executive leadership. In 1998, the Presidential Review Commission indicated that the South African public service requires a large number of intelligent and technically well-trained persons. According to the Portfolio of South Africa Delivery of 1999/2000, since particular qualifications and skills are in short supply in the South African public service, the need to train persons in leadership becomes all the more pressing. Leadership programmes have thus been designed by the South African Management and Development Institute (SAMDI) to equip the public service leadership cadre with the necessary skills to become more effective leaders.

The key questions are: How can a leader be trained to suit the situation? Can one be taught to lead? There are two schools of thought in this regard (Christopher and Smith, 1987: 5). On the one hand, there is a belief that the ability to lead can be acquired through learning. On the other hand, it is believed that the ability to lead cannot be taught and that one can only create the circumstances under which leadership potential can be developed. Protagonists, who believe that leaders can be trained, represent two views. The first is that training produces behaviours and attitudes, which will assist the individual to identify the circumstances under which he or she will be able to lead, and to know how to adapt his or her actions or approaches accordingly. The second is that training contributes to fostering insight, understanding and creative thinking. Such training should be formal and involve several disciplines.

According to Roos (1991:248), the leader in a managerial position should be formally trained in different disciplines, such as psychology, industrial psychology, public administration, economics, politics, sociology and anthropology. The leader is not expected to be an expert in every field, but should have sufficient knowledge in those fields that are likely to influence the work place. Formal training in any of the above fields or a combination of them will enable the individual to interpret the challenges that could confront him or her as a leader. Training will also enable the leader to select the most appropriate solutions for particular challenges.

Despite the statement above, training is useful though, and leadership training will assist a leader to perform his or her functions more effectively. Although it can be agued that a leader cannot be made, his or her effectiveness can be improved if particular training methods are used. Commonly used methods, such as case studies, role playing, conferences and seminars, project methods, panel methods, and buzz sessions, are all recognized as valid methods that co-exist with formal training, which is vital for general formative training (Lefton and Buzzotta, 2004: 139). It may be concluded that training will contribute to producing a more effective leader, whether the individual is a natural leader or not. Training and continuous professional development will always be necessary in any workplace situation (i.e. not only with regard to leadership) to promote efficiency and effectiveness.

The primary challenge facing the South African public service is its transformation into a learning organisation. Senge (1990: 3) defines a learning organisation as "an organisation where people continually improve their capacity, where new and comprehensive patterns of thinking are encouraged, where collective goals are pursued and where people are repeatedly learning how to learn together." Life-long learning is the key to promoting effectiveness within the South African public service. The role and capacity of the South African public service ought to be rooted in its ability to attract and retain quality leaders. A learning public service ought to ensure that its departments are able to locate, collect, process and share information effectively, as well as be able to promote learning at the individual, team and corporate level (Institute of Governance, 1999: 5). Leaders in the South African public service ought to be involved in a dynamic environment that encourages workers and equip them to achieve set objectives and outcomes.

From 1994, the new South African public service focused on creating and strengthening new institutional arrangements, building of human resources capacity and streamlining links between the different spheres of government (Theron, 2000: 10). The Skills Development Act 1998 (Act 97 of 1998), and the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998), were designed to promote effective human resources management and development (A Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001: 11). The Skills Development Act (1998) aims to develop human resources through various initiatives, such as training, mentoring and coaching. The South African public service has also intensified training and development to improve government's ability to overcome services delivery imbalances and inequities. The Employment Equity Act (1998), similarly, aims to promote representivity in the South African public service by addressing personnel imbalances and inequities.

A new chapter on the establishment of the Senior Management Services (SMS) in the South African public service was included in the Public Service Regulations, 2001. Its aim was to improve leadership and management by developing a competency framework and a competency-based recruitment and performance management system for the SMS. (Department of Public Service and Administration: Senior Management System 2002). The overall goal of the SMS initiative is to improve the South African government's ability to recruit, retain and develop quality managers and professionals.

To this end, a number of measures have been put in place to improve terms and conditions of service for managers and professionals in the South African public service (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). For example, there has been an improvement in the salaries of public servants. Moreover, mechanisms have also been put in place to improve interdepartmental mobility of senior managers and professionals.

The matching of roles to capabilities of public servants is important for determining not only what the public service does but also how it does it (Makhubedu-Mametja and Bauer, 2003: 370). The South African public service should, firstly, focus its activities and apply existing capacity towards tasks that can be managed readily and capably. Secondly, the goal is to build as much capacity as possible. Capacity "is the ability to undertake and promote collective actions efficiently such as law and order, public health and basic infrastructure." (Soobryan, 2004: Discussion). Effectiveness is a result of using that capacity to meet society's demand for those services (Hughes, 2003: 262). A state may be capable, but not very effective, if its capability is not used in society's interest. In preparing a balanced assessment of the roles and capabilities of public servants, governments are able to prioritize activities and to develop logical, iterated implementation strategies toward realizing their visions for growth (Institute of Governance, 1999: 5). The public service is required to provide the basic functions of government, namely the provision of public goods such as public health, safe water and housing. For the South African public service this remains a challenge, as the ability to deliver services effectively to society is impeded by its human resources constraints (Public Service Review, 2003).

When examining leadership in the South African public service, it becomes evident that leaders not only require a wide spectrum of attributes but should also be equipped to fulfil many roles. There is a major need for investment in public service training, leadership development and capacity building, as an indispensable precondition for a sustainable public service for effective service delivery. The South African public service can also use technology to enable government to deliver public services in innovative ways.

Information and communication technology (ICT)

During the second global forum on governance, Pillay (2002: 105) who was one of the speakers at the forum addressed the issue of information technology as a potential contributor to effective service delivery. There is a growing international consensus that efficient and effective governance and public service delivery are indivisible. Technology as a tool to promote effective governance is participatory, transparent and accountable. It can be used to improve efficiency and equity, especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. The concept e-governance thus presents both opportunities and challenges for the South African government. The South African public service faces demands to make services more accessible, responsive and affordable to rural communities in South Africa, but it first needs to address the lack of basic services in previously disadvantaged communities, such as the lack of electricity and telephone lines, before embarking on an e-governance approach to service delivery. The level of Internet connectivity and the promotion of e-governance are, after all, affected by the lack of electricity and telephone lines. The leadership in the South African public service is therefore faced with the challenges of having to facilitate and work with changing structures and models of service delivery. One of the main objectives of the South African public service is to overcome the barriers to redressing service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities.

As a first step, it is important to define electronic technology. According to Shilubane (2001), electronic technology "is the continuous optimization of government service delivery, constituency participation and governance by transforming internal and external relationships through technology, the Internet and new media" (Service Delivery Review, 2001). According to Shilubane (2001), electronic governance or e-governance, "is the use of information technology, in particular the internet, to deliver public services in a much more convenient, customer-oriented, cost-effective, and altogether different and efficient way to the South African population." (Service Delivery Review, 2001) The concept affects an agency's dealings with citizens, businesses and other public agencies, as well as its internal business processes and employees.

E-governance can be described as information technology that may be used by the public service to achieve its service delivery objectives, fulfil customer requirements, reduce costs, and improve overall operating efficiency and effectiveness. It necessitates the investigation and formulation of new methods to enable the public to access government services. According to Kuye and Naidoo (2003: 3), efficiency can be enhanced by sharing data among public service departments. With the use of networks and information sharing, departmental boundaries no longer impede to service delivery, as is the case with traditional organisational models for service delivery. For example, citizens can pay for their municipal services electronically, such as electricity and water or rates, rather than physically visiting public service departments. New information technologies also allow for integrated databases and common programme delivery. The improvement of service delivery in many areas can actually enhance the legitimacy and relevance of the public service. E-governance thus offers the possibility of close and ongoing interaction between the public service and citizens.

E-governance is vital for the South African public service, as it opens up new opportunities, namely, reducing the number of paper transactions involved in government operations, public participation in decision making, government purchasing of goods and services, electronic payments and improvement in service delivery. In this regard, Keen and McDonald (2000: 42), argue that e-governance is important because it can rapidly improve service delivery and productivity.

In order to reap the real benefits of e-governance, the South African government is preparing a comprehensive system for implementation in the public service (Green Paper on E-Commerce, 2000: 100). It entails a shift to the customer, with citizens becoming able to access more public services online at their convenience. Thus, services ought to be integrated and customer-centric and aligned with the South African government's 'Batho-Pele' service delivery framework. The South African public service recognises the value of e-governance as an efficient means to deliver public services, such as education and health care, to the broader population (Green Paper on E-Commerce, 2000: 100).

By linking the public service at all levels within and across department lines, and by improving citizen access, convenient and efficient methods of conducting government

business will be facilitated (Kuye and Naidoo, 2003: 3). The institutional and operational changes will take place on many fronts and in many ways. However, at their core, all are driven by an architecture and an infrastructure that allows for information to be efficiently shared across government departments, between its various programmes and, ultimately, with citizens and businesses. By providing online access to information and services through telephone, facsimile, self-service kiosks and on the home pages of the worldwide web, the South African public service can provide higher quality and faster service to the public. Such initiatives offer great benefits, but the lack of strategy and synergy among various departments may continue to be a significant barrier in practice (Green Paper on E-Commerce, 2000: 105).

By applying advanced network technology and deploying of multiple service delivery points, the South African public service can overcome barriers of time and distance and become better positioned to deliver certain public services, especially to disadvantaged communities (Liebenberg, 2000: 1). Continued progress in areas such as competitiveness, quality and effectiveness of public services, will enable the South African public service to address a number of criticisms, such as that government is not customer-focused, that it is not delivering on its promises and it is failing to stimulate economic growth. As a result, the public service is striving not only to improve the efficiency and quality of its services, but also to ensure that services are delivered at the most convenient times and locations via electronic media. The adoption of e-governance will, however, involve a fundamental shift in the public service, because the changes implied by e-governance will affect the core operational and managerial aspects of government (Kuye and Naidoo, 2003: 3). The scope of e-governance in the public service will extend to what it can do, to a network of stakeholders (such as the public/customer, a network of suppliers, intermediaries and others). However, the public service must integrate vertical operations with virtual integration.

In the Budget Vote Speech for 2002, the Minister for Public Service and Administration announced that South Africa On-line is a single electronic Gateway that will facilitate access to all information about, and services provided by the government. In October 2003, the South African government launched its electronic Government Gateway (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Briefing on Governance and Administration, Presented by Minister of Public Service and Administration, Fraser-Moleketi, 4 August 2003)

(Access< http://www/gov.za/search97cgi/s97: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*).   This multi-access electronic system comprises an Internet access portal, a call centre, a service point namely, a Multi-Purpose Community Center, existing government offices and other mobile service units. This initiative is a drive to improve access to services among all South Africans in the most convenient and affordable way. The overall vision that will be provided by the so-called Gateway is to provide access to public services, anytime, any place, within a clearly defined and executed e-governance strategy. Access to services is the most important aspect of the Gateway. This initiative implies an end to cumbersome processes and travelling long distances to visit a multitude of government departments to conduct business. Citizens will be able to access all the government services from a single point, for example, in multipurpose walk-in community kiosks that will be established across South Africa. As part of effecting e-governance, the South African government has embarked on a number of initiatives, which are summarised below.

The South African Revenue Service's (SARS) e-filing of tax is a co-ordinated effort between SARS and private business (e-Gov News, Oct/Nov 2001: 1). The main aim of an e-filing system is to facilitate the electronic submission of tax returns and payments by taxpayers and tax practitioners. Taxpayers may still submit their returns in the traditional way though, but e-filing is intended to improve operational efficiencies in order to deliver a better and quicker service. Those who wish to make use of the e-filing system are required to register at the particular service provider, conclude an agreement and receive a private access code and password to access the available services that are offered by SARS (e-Gov News, Oct/Nov 2001: 1).

Another initiative is being undertaken by the Department of Justice. The need to promote effective service delivery necessitated that the justice system of a country be re-evaluated (e-Gov News, Oct/Nov 2001: 1). E-justice in South Africa aims to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of prosecutors in the process of jurisprudence. The e-justice system seeks to transform the justice administration system from a manual to an automated system, in light of the fact that a current analysis revealed that the justice system is facing human capacity shortages. Currently the courts in South Africa have huge backlogs, and prisons in general are overcrowded with a large number of

awaiting-trail prisoners. E-justice is one of the ways in which the Department of Justice hopes to alleviate some of their problems (e-Gov News, Oct/Nov 2001: 2).

The National Automated Archival Information Retrieval System (NAAIRS) is an innovation by the South African government to assist members of the public to identify and locate public records in archival positions, containing information that they may require (e-Gov News, Oct/Nov 2002: 2). The NAAIRS interface is located in the newly designed web-site of the national archives, which is an important vehicle for electronic service delivery, providing extensive information and documentation about the national issues to the public and to government bodies (e-Gov News, Oct/Nov 2002: 2).

In 2002, the Department of Home Affairs launched the Home Affairs Identification System to combat crime (e-Gov News, April/May 2002: 3). The Department of Home Affairs is currently building an automated identification database in which massive amounts of fingerprint data will be recorded. The new system will be used in conjunction with the population register to provide life profiles of all citizens; this system will be used for identification and verification purposes. Immense potential exists in applying this system in policing, elections, population registration and immigration.

The Cape Online strategy in the Western Cape Province is another innovative service-driven and citizen-focused e-governance initiative (e-Gov News, Oct/Nov 2001: 3). The vision of Cape Online is to deliver access to public services and its goals is to improve efficiency and a more effective service by the Provincial Administration to the community. Cape Online focuses on digital delivery, digital democracy and digital development. Digital delivery allows government to provide information and deliver services more efficiently and effectively. The goal of digital delivery is to make it easier for businesses and individuals to deal with government. Digital democracy is a government strategy that attempts to make the functioning of local government more transparent and improve both accountability and legitimacy. Digital democracy envisages the posting of government tenders, reports and meeting transcripts on the Internet. Digital development is a development strategy to improve public access, develop information technology skills and develop regional information and communication technology (e-Gov News, Oct/Nov 2001: 3). Cape Online presents a

simple interface that will remove the complexities that citizens and businesses currently face in order to obtain services in the Western Cape area.

The South African government's online web-site has over the past few years increased the information that is available to the public (Access<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). Information that is available on the web-site includes: access to government department web-sites, government documents, reports and forms. These include visa applications, passport applications, birth certificates, marriage certificates, death certificates, temporary residence permits, and permanent residence permits, application for registration as a voter and unemployment insurance fund registration. It also includes all government speeches. An overview is also provided of South Africa's political, economic, social and cultural issues on the web-site. Furthermore, there is information about travel and tourism and government notices. More significantly, there is information on the various acts, bills and draft bills. Citizens can also access information on new government tenders and tender regulations. Moreover, information is provided on frequently asked questions about the South African Government system. The site is updated daily with news statements made by the South African Government.

The South African Government's online web-site has increased its services and information to the public. At what stage of development is this web-site? According to the United Nations paper "Benchmarking E-governance: A Global Perspective", there are five stages of e-governance, which are summarized in Table 4/4 below.

Table 4/4

Stages of electronic-governance

Stage	Explanation
Emerging	Government has an official online presence.
Enhanced	At this stage government has increased the information on the site and become more dynamic.
Interactive	Citizens are able to download forms, e-mail officials and interact through the web.
Transactional	Users are able to pay for services and other transactions online.
Seamless	At this stage e-services have been fully integrated.

(Source: Adapted from information found in Benchmarking E-governance: A Global Perspective, UN. 2002)

In terms of Table 4/4, South Africa has characteristics of both enhanced and interactive e-governance. Although it is possible to download various forms from the South African government web-site, it is still not completely interactive. For example, it is not possible to complete the various government forms online after printing them, they should be mailed or delivered to the various government departments. The successful implementation and use of e-governance in South Africa will to a large extent depend on citizens' ability to make use of the Internet and information and communication technology (ICT). The issue of understanding the intricacies involved in applying the functions of such facilities is also in question. In terms of Internet infrastructure, Internet subscription statistics in South Africa is estimated at approximately seven hundred and fifty thousand. According to the United Nations report "Benchmarking E-governance: A Global Perspective", published in May 2002, it was found that South Africa is internationally ranked sixty-fifth in the world with regard to e-governance capacity. On the African continent, however, South Africa is ranked first, which allows the government to emulate the programs of industrialized countries. South Africa far exceeds the rest of the continent in information and communication technology capacity and capability (Access<http://www.un.org: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). However

even though South Africa rates best in Africa, in this regard the statistics do not reflect infrastructurally disadvantaged areas, such as remote rural areas. Access to electricity and telephone lines are still limited in rural communities in South Africa.

There are various challenges that impede the South African public service from promoting e-governance to improve service delivery to the poorest of the poor (Naidoo, 2003: 1). In this respect, Naidoo (2003: 1) indicates that literacy plays a big role in the use of computers and new technology in South Africa. It is estimated that the adult literacy rate is merely 15,1% (Naidoo and Schutte 2002:113) (Access<http://www.aau.org/english/documents/gate99.htm: *Retrieved: 20 January 2002*).

Furthermore, it is apparent that there are vast differences in literacy rate between rural and metropolitan areas in South Africa, as well as between races and between socio-economic groups (Singh and Naidoo, 2002: 5). Schools in South Africa play a significant role with regard to literacy and teaching students to use computers and the Internet, but schools also face tremendous challenges (Naidoo and Schutte, 2001: 113) (Access<http://www.aau.org/english/documents/gate99.htm: *Retrieved: 20 January 2002*). For instance, many schools lack even basic resources such as electricity. Many schools also lack financial resources, which results in the non-payment of electricity. More significantly, there is a lack of leadership, management, technical, and software expertise in ICT facilities in schools. This lack of competence impacts on the quality of teaching in ICT. Another challenge is the substantial security problem with regard to ICT equipment at schools. Naidoo and Schutte (2001: 113) found that many schools in rural areas in South Africa are prone to theft and vandalism (Access<http://www.aau.org/english/documents/gate99.htm: *Retrieved: 20 January 2002*). Moreover, they found that there is no ICT budget in schools (Access<http://www.aau.org/english/documents/gate99.htm: *Retrieved: 20 January 2002*). Only six schools in rural areas in South Africa currently have full Internet access, and this is funded by the parents.

Another aspect that needs to be taken into account is the diverse language groupings within the country (Naidoo, 2003: 2). Many people are able to speak different languages but the appropriate reading and comprehension proficiency, especially

relating to computer utilization, may be limited. Furthermore, infrastructure in the form of electricity, telecommunications, computers and Internet access is especially needed in rural areas, if e-governance is to become a reality. Information and communication technology is an expensive resource and the cost of hardware remains considerable for many citizens. Technology also implies constant upgrading of both equipment and software. The cost of online telephone charges for the use of the Internet remains high in South Africa, except where it is subsidized by government. South Africa has a poorly developed infrastructure (lack of electricity and telephone lines) in rural areas, which implies that the cost of obtaining hardware and software, plus maintenance and training, are likely to be out of reach for many rural communities (Byron and Gagliardi, 1998: 1).

A generally low per capita income also limits ICT utilization, in that affordability, standard of living and education are related (Roadmap for E-governance in the Developing World, 2002: 12) (Access<http://www.pacificcouncil.org/pdfs/e-gov.paper.f.pdf: _Retrieved: 17 January 2003_). If the South African public service wishes to make e-governance a practical reality, it should simultaneously address socio-economic aspects. A well co-ordinated effort and a holistic approach to development to ensure effective service delivery are needed. Furthermore, additional challenges need to be addressed by the South African public service, before e-governance initiatives can be implemented.

E-governance is envisaged to be a priority for the South African public service. In this respect political commitment to drive the process is imperative. It can be argued that if little attention is paid to ensuring that policies and programmes meet the needs of the citizens or are implemented at all, then the initiative will fail. An example in this regard concerns researchers, policy analysts and practitioners who conducted an extensive investigation into information and communications technology and e-governance aspects relating to government's role and policy in an African country. A submission was made to the relevant ministry, but due to the fact that the minister concerned was not supportive of the propositions, the recommendations ignored and were not implemented (Roadmap for E-governance in the Developing World, 2002: 12).

According to Naidoo (2003: 3), in many cases the government is slow in making and implementing choices with regard to e-governance, which can lead to delays in developing e-governance. Government structures are also slow to change (Singh and Naidoo, 2003: 5). In addition, from a service rendering point of view, public servants in South Africa should also have the skills to properly utilize the information and communication technologies in their work environment. According to the South African Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) (Budget Vote Speech 2002), the ICT literacy levels of public servants and current patterns of access to computers indicate that less than twenty percent of the public service functionaries are actually computer literate or computer users (Access<http://www.gov.za/speeches: *Retrieved: 2 March 2002*). Clearly, it is crucial for public servants and the citizens of the country to obtain computer literacy and Internet skills, as without the proper skills and knowledge, e-governance cannot succeed.

The South African Minister of Public Service and Administration (Budget Vote Speech 2002), remarked that the increased introduction of ICT's in government instead of being an equalizer and a tool for development, was increasing the divisions between different socio-economic sectors of South African society (Access<http://www.gov.za/speeches: *Retrieved: 2 March 2002*). One effective way of improving ICT skills would be to transform curricular tertiary education and training programmes by, for instance, making use of the Internet to teach Public Administration.

The South African public service should consider suggestions discussed below, with regard to ICT-utilization and e-governance implementation. The government needs to change the mindset of public servants. Training programs and information sessions can inform and educate them, which will create a positive climate for the new developments in the public service.

Public servants in South Africa have to become computer literate, and to have knowledge of the different technologies that are available (Information Management, 2002: 41). Public servants should be able to use the Internet and should know how to deliver services by making use of the Internet. Government employees will, thus be required to change their attitudes. It is consequently important that government

employees understand what e-governance is and that employees become willing to promote it.

The South African public service needs to develop a centralized strategy to improve the public services ICT infrastructure, while upgrading information management.   This strategy will help government to decide how new policies will be implemented and how to create better administration in the public service. The upgrading of the government's information management infrastructure and the creation of an integrated and coherent ICT strategy for government is important. Thus far, various government departments in South Africa have developed ICT systems separately instead of developing an inter-connected system.

It is important that service delivery is assessed in the South African public service in order to identify services that would be economically viable to be delivered electronically, especially to previously disadvantaged communities. The findings of the study in Chapter Five indicate that particular health services, for example, can be provided by tele-medicine initiatives in some hospitals and clinics in South Africa (Access<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.html: _Retrieved: 17 October 2003_).   A starting point for the South African public service would be to do an assessment of the services that are currently being offered by the various government departments and to evaluate the savings that can occur when the same service is offered on-line.

It could be argued that e-governance is an innovative approach to redress and improve service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. It is necessary for public servants and citizens to acquire the applicable skills and knowledge. Public servants should be constantly learning to keep abreast of developments in their areas of specialization. Skills in using computers, the Internet, telecommunication and related technologies also need to be part of the core curriculum for schools, beginning at the primary level, through universities and graduate programmes. Without proper training, it will be difficult to optimise the usage of e-governance and its associated benefits. The programmes online, could inculcate the required skills and knowledge that will be needed for future e-governance applications.

The provision of locally relevant content should be added to the e-governance strategy in South Africa (Van Jaarsveldt and Naidoo, 2004: 138). Many citizens, especially in rural areas, are illiterate. The public service ought to take cognisance of this. Citizens should be educated and trained to become computer literate. Furthermore, information and communication technology should become user-friendly. The public service should work together with private sector partners and other institutions to maximize the benefits of e-governance through co-ordinated policies and programmes. More significantly, extensive research, both normative and empirical, is needed, between the realities associated with South Africa's capacities and the opportunities presented by information technologies.

E-Governance does not suggest that the South African public service should do away with traditional contact-type service delivery mechanisms, but rather, that these be complemented by more effective and convenient means by taking advantage of technological innovations. For the public service to work better, it is essential that it be organized according to business processes rather than according to departments, as is currently the case. It should be such that citizens can easily interact with government, and this could result in improved service delivery. The citizens should be able to obtain services and information about the public service from a single point of access. ICT offers avenues that can facilitate effective service delivery.

In light of the abovementioned developments, it is evident that there are vast amounts of information about leadership and governance approaches. Many leadership and governance research findings on these are confusing. However, many positive attributes are appropriate for guiding the South African public service towards improving service delivery. It is thus essential to integrate the most pertinent characteristics of leadership and governance approaches and this topic will be discussed in the final section of this chapter.

INTEGRATION OF LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

The findings of this study suggest that the public administration framework in the South African public service is dominated by Western approaches that are not effective in addressing service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged

communities in South Africa. It is my contention that the South African public service needs to consider attributes of both Western and traditional African leadership and governance frameworks that are applicable to the uniquely South African context.

It is obvious that no single leadership approach will be equally effective in all situations. According to the contingency or situational approach to leadership, a leader's success can be attributed only partly to certain traits and behaviour patterns. A leader's success is often determined by his or her ability to sum up a situation and adapt his or her style of leadership accordingly. Instead of searching for the best style of leadership for the South Africa public service, leaders should rather adapt their leadership style to the situation and the nature of their subordinates (Kuye, 2003: Discussion). For want of a single best style, successful leadership thus depends on the fit interface between leader, the subordinate and the situation.

In order to provide effective leadership in the South African public service, leaders will have to develop required competencies. Thus four most important competencies are strategic competencies; group leadership competencies and interpersonal competencies (The Personal Side of Leadership, 2001: 10; Smit and Cronje (1992: 340). These are briefly discussed below.

Strategic competencies include a strategic and lateral mindset, which involves innovativeness and creativeness in the definition of challenges and their solutions (Sloane, 2003: 4). Leaders in the South African public service ought to be incisive, which involves: analytical rigor; the ability to identify the real issues quickly; prioritising and focusing; synthesizing and simplifying concepts and issues related to service delivery. Leaders in the public service should have an understanding of the institution's vision, mission, objectives, goals, structure, trends, dynamics and players (Freedman and Tregoe, 2003: 2). Strategic competencies also involve the ability to provide leadership for effective action in all aspects of the public service activities to maintain customer focus, and to link public service delivery to the customer's needs. An additional dimension is the ability to integrate environmental demands and the public service's ability to deliver.

Group leadership competencies are important in performing the leadership role (Kennedy, 2002: 22). They include the impact and influence of the leader in inspiring others around the vision of the public service. The leader ought to be able to be a team player, and to have the ability to build effective teams. The leader ought to be able to energize a team around the vision or objectives of the public service, and to facilitate group work in the areas of creativity, problem finding and solving and decision-making.

Interpersonal skills are another essential requirement. This includes relationship building or networking (Adair, 2003: 14). The leader should also have the ability to express emotional investment in a relationship; to give supporting behaviours; to establish a low threat environment; to build trust; to display consulting skills and networking skills. The leader ought to have the ability to communicate persuasively, and to transmit a message in a variety of ways, as well as to be an effective listener and able to elicit information (Sloane, 2003: 99). There ought to be accountable, set direction and facilitate others towards a goal in the institution.

The other characteristics required of a leader, as recommended by Flanagan and Thompson (1993: 30), are sensitivity, to both the internal public service environment and the external macro and competitive environment. This is necessary to determine the interpretative capability, insight and wisdom of the leader, which are the result of experience developed over time. The leader should at all times consider the public service as being an open system, so that information is effectively exchanged and evaluated. Congruent behaviour is only possible when the leader has developed the necessary sensitivity, can reflect on the task at hand and can successfully integrate all considerations. Kakabatse and Kakabatse (1999: 335) emphasize the need for leaders to stay sufficiently long in the public service to adjust, fully understand the task and build the necessary interface with other public servants. A realistic vision must also find its roots in a sense of place and purpose from where it can evolve and at least be approachable.

According to Chaleff (2003: 22), the leader ought to have ability to optimise resource utilization and outputs between groups through collaboration. The ability to understand the culture and its impact, valuing differences and diversity as a source of potential strength is also a crucial requirement in performing the leadership role in the South

African public service. The ability to implement transformational change and manage the process and ability to embed a culture of continuous improvement in the South African public service is also required.

Within the South African context, it is important to take into account the diversity of the public service. In the main, personal power in traditional African communities comes from below and is bestowed upon the leader by the people. In contrast, in Western societies, power originates from the higher authority in the form of positional power vis-à-vis other forms of power in the institution that promote social relationships in the context of *ubuntu* (Koopman, 1993: 70). A uniquely South African leadership framework, however, should lead to partnership, equality, collaboration and inclusivity. Moreover, it should lead to empowerment and development of human capacity. It should permit the creation of personal meanings, values and dignity. It should make employees appreciate their diversity, were differences and similarities are strength to the institution. A South African leadership framework would thus offer greater empowerment for employees. In order to apply a unique leadership and governance framework in the South African public service, the mindset of both the leadership and followership must be transformed to ensure that the necessary changes take place.

It is important to take cognizance of Setsabi's (2001: 11) arguments in this regard. Setsabi (2001: 11) points out that a leadership and governance framework that is not founded on a society's political, social and cultural imperatives is doomed to fail. Leadership and governance cannot be completely value-free. According to Van Niekerk, *et al*. (2001: 115), no government can function efficiently and effectively without a set of directives that will steer it in the direction in which society expects it to move. Governments are confronted with different political, social and cultural scenarios, which they must take into account. There should to be a shared understanding across government on these dynamics. The integration of cultural values is a key factor in the quality of governance. The lack of integration of unique diversities and political accommodations can lead to a lack of trust and a lack of confidence in government. Such values in South Africa could include the principle of *ubuntu* (humanness). Values such as this can provide the basis for responsibility and accountability, and can ensure that the public service will exercise its authority in such as way that the interests and welfare of society are served. Simply put, when there is a cordial relationship between

210

leaders and followers, efficiency and effectiveness would naturally improve in the public service.

In the South African context, two dimensions can be differentiated with respect to values, namely an internal and an external dimension (Van Niekerk, *et al*. 2001: 117). The internal dimension is unique to individuals and is based on an individual's religious and moral beliefs, values and attitudes. The external dimension refers to groups, societies or institutions; it pertains to the collective consciousness of groups of people, and is based on their cultural beliefs, norms, values and attitudes. Since the public service functions in a political context, it must act in a way that is consistent with democratic and other values. Both dimensions should apply to the South African public service. Within the South African context, the integration of local culture is important. Furthermore, cultural values, norms and trends have a direct bearing on the way in which government functions. It is therefore important to consider the various guiding values from society, including traditional African leadership and governance, which will ultimately encourage effective service delivery by the South African public service.

Setsabi (2001: 11) emphasizes the need to incorporate traditional African leadership and governance models into Western leadership and governance models for possible adoption by the South African public service. South Africa needs leaders who accept that we live in a state of interdependence, and that we should act accordingly in order to benefit all. In this regard, it would be important to determine the differences in terms of individualistic Western cultures and communal oriented (traditional African) cultures.

In contrast to African cultures, Western cultures are individualistic; consequently separate individuals get together to form a team (Naidoo, 1996: 12). In communally oriented cultures, such as traditional African cultures, an individual emerges out of a group. In the Western culture, profit for the individual is a reward for personal initiative. In traditional African cultures, profit for the communal person, is a vote of confidence given by his or her society for services rendered to it. As a result, in Western cultures the more individualistic a person is, the more powerful he or she is. Conversely, in African tradition, the more the communal person is prepared to give and share, the more respected he or she becomes. Whereas in Western cultures the one is encouraged to be self-reliant and independent, in communally oriented cultures, one is cooperative and

211

dependent. In traditional African cultures, the communal group's greatest hope is for the upliftment of the entire community.

The communally orientated person only desires to achieve control through the followers, and a clear case for personal power only arises from the willingness of followers to be led by him or her (Koopman, 1993: 46). In individualistically orientated groups, the election of leaders is based on arguments as to why a person should be elected and using assent decision-making. In a communally orientated group, it is not a case of the majority assenting to a person being elected, but of the majority not dissenting (Koopman, 1993: 47). While the Western culture makes use of reward and punishment to influence people, the communally based culture emphasizes recognition as the means to influence people.

The imposition of apartheid in South Africa has had a negative impact on the development of traditional African leadership and governance. Prior to 1994, the government had focussed on Eurocentric approaches. It has been argued throughout this study that Western approaches do not provide the most effective framework for improving service delivery in a diverse society such as South Africa. The complete adoption of Western approaches without adapting these to local narratives, presents itself as a misfit in a post-apartheid South Africa. The study suggests that the adoption of Western leadership and governance models is also not effective in addressing public service delivery, especially among previously disadvantaged communities.

Naidoo (2003: Discussion) argues that the validity of a uniquely South African leadership and governance framework should be recognized in the South African public service. According to Mbigi (1997: ix) accountability and transparency are prerequisites for successful and effective leadership and governance in traditional African societies (Naidoo 1996: 11). They are not new inventions of the modern capitalist society. The African renaissance could serve as a vehicle for advancing and understanding both Western and African approaches, which could be translated meaningfully into the South African public service.

To improve service delivery, it is necessary to incorporate a uniquely South African leadership and governance framework in the public service. A comprehensive strategy

should be designed to strengthen core leadership values and commitments. All these suggest that effective leadership and governance is required to establish mutual trust between the people and government and to build an enabling environment for service delivery.

According to Ragumamu (1998: 250), the central factors in effective governance are the allocation of responsibility for service delivery performance and to hold leadership accountable for their achievements or lack thereof. Responsibility arises from the allocation of functions or roles to an individual. Responsibility does not carry with it a duty to explain, so accountability should be added to the system to make sure that the required standards of performance within departments are achieved, and that those accountable will be subject to some sanction or penalty, if performance is poor. Within the context of this study, leadership, accountability, transparency and human resources management, development and training are viewed as important enablers of effective leadership and governance. These characteristics are essential ingredients for a sustainable South African public service. To this end, effective leadership and governance in the South African public service should imply a strategic fit between the various policies, institutional mechanisms, processes, systems, human resources, cultural imperatives, finances and institutions (all the role-players both inside and outside the public service).

It is important to note that the factors that contribute to effective leadership and governance do not operate in isolation. They overlap and, thus, cannot be considered independently. Many of the principles of effective governance are mutually re-enforcing. For example, accessible information means more transparency, and participation means more effective decision-making. In this regard, broad-based participation contributes both to the exchange of information needed for effective decision-making and to the legitimacy of those decisions. In this respect, legitimacy means effective implementation and encourages further participation. The foundations of democracy are based on the ability of politically elected officials to deliberate and consult with the electorate on issues that affect them. The need exists to review continuously the manner in which government executes its activities in the interest of the community it serves. Deliberation and consultation can assist in ensuring that the

true needs, wants and desires of people are identified and correctly prioritised (Van Niekerk, *et al*. 2001: 65).

The transitional phase of transformation of the mindset is essential towards the final acceptance of the expected changes in the South African public service. It allows transitional mechanisms to be constructed and creates readiness for implementation. It is necessary to transform the mindset to the level of transformation that will allow implementation of a uniquely South African leadership framework, which incorporates positive attributes from Western transformational and team leadership approaches as well as from African leadership approaches. This integration does not undermine the role of leadership and governance in South Africa; rather it will shape it positively within a public service context.

SUMMARY

This chapter covered several important aspects of leadership and governance. With traditional African leadership, the discussion focused on ethical and moral leadership. It also focused on the importance of human relations and behavioural aspects for effective leadership and governance. *Ubuntu*, which has an important place in the African value system, is also discussed extensively as inseparable from traditional African leadership and governance.

The chapter then discusses research done by theorists of Western leadership approaches, which focused on personal traits, such as intelligence. Later, the discussion focused on the attention of theorists, which shifted to leadership behaviours that are appropriate to an institutional situation. Behavioural approaches dominate the early work in leadership. The evolution of leadership from the transactional approach to the charismatic and transformational behaviours is examined. The importance of team leadership is also explored within an institutional context.

With regard to effective governance, the chapter focused on both Western and African governance. Both approaches highlight the importance of accountability, transparency and public participation in decision-making. The importance of human resources management, training and development for effective service delivery was outlined.

214

Specific emphasis in the discussion is placed on the role of e-governance in improving service delivery in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. In order to create a competitive advantage, the South African public service ought to have the infrastructure and resources to use these mechanisms effectively to improve service delivery. The new technologies require skills and a new mindset, as traditional service delivery systems are changing and are no longer effective in the South African scenario. However, the South African public service ought to take cognisance of the poorest of the poor and their ability to use information and communication technology (ICT). Many previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa are illiterate. The South African public service should therefore ensure the usability of these services and that it is user friendly to cater for the needs of previously disadvantaged communities.

It is my contention that, service delivery performance in the public service is either constrained or enhanced by how well its leadership and governance framework is geared to its policy objectives. The clearer and more appropriate the leadership and governance framework the more likely it is that public service departments will achieve service delivery outcomes. Drawing on the information from this chapter, an integrated framework of the positive attributes to Western and traditional African leadership and governance could be developed for possible adoption by the South African public service. In an attempt to contextualise service delivery performance by the South African public service, Chapter Five will mainly focus on four case studies. An overview will be given of service delivery performance in selected public service departments and an analysis will be undertaken simultaneously.