

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The Public Service reform is adopted worldwide to improve performance and enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of services in the New Public Management (NPM) style. The NPM entails the public sector reform by transforming the traditional Public Administration (professional bureaucracy) and adapting to the business management styles peculiar to the private sector. Four stages of civil service systems, namely: Autocratic System, Spoils System, Merit System and New Public Management System have historically laid a basis for reform processes in Western democracies. The managerial reform process started in Britain under the Conservative Party in power since 1979, and followed shortly by the United States of America in the early 1980s, is sometimes regarded as an international phenomenon as other countries around the globe rapidly adopted similar programmes. Although the NPM approach is achieving common purposes in most of the countries, its application is largely diversified as different countries have unique opportunities to reform their civil services principally based on the prevailing socio-economic conditions and on the internal political environment.

Namibia has also embraced the ‘public service reform’ concept and has conducted some reforms including the area of public service appointments. The improvement was necessary to introduce Public Administration practices compatible with state-hood. At independence, Namibia inherited the central administration and ethnic administration structures that served the purposes of the South African colonial apartheid regime. The old civil service personnel were to be retained until their honourable retirement as per constitutional guarantees. Besides the incorporation, a complement of new civil servants, mostly people from exile, was integrated into the enlarged structure.

This Chapter is on the background of the study and highlights the historical perspectives of the Public Administration in Namibia and the conditions that led to the reform process. In the early sections of the Chapter, the researcher concentrated on political developments and transformation of the civil service from 1960 to 1990, the protracted liberation struggle, and the United Nations (UN) role during that period until independence on 21 March 1990. The research design is clearly presented in the last sections, outlining the statement of the research problem, the purpose of the study and objectives of the study, the research question, the importance of the study, limitations, and demarcation of research.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The South African colonial Government Services of Namibia and the bureaucracy were perverse in dealing with the indigenous people, thereby promoting supremacy of settler administration whilst instilling in the natives a sense of being inferior in social standing, race, religion and culture. The pattern of ascending to public office was prejudiced against Blacks in Namibia as bureaucratically inept to run civil service affairs. Vilakazi (1967:240) in the Odendaal Commission Recommendations Review observed that for important positions the South African Government considered Africans as not adequately developed for high posts in the public service...professions. The only paid job a Black man could get, usually on a temporary basis, ranged between unskilled cleaner, tea-boy, guard or messenger, to semi-skilled jobs such as mail-clerks and interpreters.

The administration of Bantustans required the services of Black officials recruited on loyalty-basis. As a result, unskilled personnel were brought into the government service and retained after the independence. The transition period to independence was brokered by the UNTAG. It entailed the existing government structures to continue with the daily administration of the country. The idea was to leave the Civil Services intact when South

Africa pulled out its military personnel and part of the police force, as per the agreement influenced by the Western-five. In the economic field, the move would also guarantee the confidence of the financial institutions, mining companies, and investors in the tourism industry and the farming sector in the new government. And on the political field, the civil servants would be expected to remain loyal to the government of the day despite political affiliation to parties previously aligned with the occupation administration. The SWAPO government had, therefore, inherited a civil service that was fragmented in terms of the shortage of skilled manpower, the gap caused by fleeing high professionals, and competencies based on colour lines.

Concluding from the above, racial relations in *apartheid*-South Africa ruled Namibia had been imbedded in the colonial administrative structures. Systematic repression after occupation and illegal rule by apartheid South Africa is testimony to institutional racism Namibians had been systematically subjected to under colonial governments. The social and political pluralism that emerged still haunts race relations in post-independent Namibia. The “apartheid” pluralism manifests in employment structures whereby the wealthy white ethnic group dominates the ownership of private entities, colored groups are predominantly in the middle management of the private sector, while the majority of the employed Blacks are occupying the lower ranks in the non-managerial occupations.

The policy of National Reconciliation, meaning acceptance of peaceful coexistence and social justice in post-independence society, as initially emphasized in the *Preamble of the Constitution of Namibia*, has helped to narrow the gap between the new elite in terms of economic prosperity and job opportunities in both public and private sectors, thus creating images of an egalitarian and secure social milieu. Such a stratified social structure is superficial and does not address the Equal Opportunity for Employment principles advanced in the Affirmative Action Policy.

1.2.1 Public Service Appointments

Historically, racial segregation was constitutionally enforced in Namibia under South African rule between 1960 and 1990. The Public Service was racially structured without equal opportunity for a diverse labor force. Public officials were recruited, selected and appointed along color lines. The apartheid South African administration relied on the separate development policies to reserve better paying jobs for the White group, skilled technical jobs and artisans for Coloureds who got special consideration next to white citizens, and non-skilled low wage jobs for the less educated Blacks. Although the majority, Blacks remained at the bottom of the employment pyramid, prohibited by racist laws to run for high posts in the public services, state security units or private sector.

With the exception of former homelands and Black areas inside the Police Zone urban centers, local authorities (towns and mining settlements) where Africans were considered not adequately developed for high posts in public service, formal appointments to the public office were a privilege and were never a right to choose from (Vilakazi, 1967: 240). The situation has changed with the advent of independence. The *Constitution of the Republic of Namibia* was drafted and adopted unanimously by the Constituent Assembly of elected leadership comprising 72 representatives of ten political parties on the 9th of February, 1990. *Chapter 20, Article 141, Section (1)* stipulates that: Existing Appointments – Subject to the provisions of the Constitution, any person holding office under any law in force on the date of Independence shall continue to hold such office unless and until he or she resigns or is retired, transferred or removed from office in accordance with law. This provision has made it possible to retain part of the old Civil Service, albeit with a high rate of over-standardized low qualifications levels and questionable experience as the basis of their competencies.

Nevertheless, the outgoing regime made last bids by entrenching old civil servants – Whites, Colored, and Blacks in an attempt to influence the future transformation of the public service. In most cases, these incumbent bureaucrats were hastily promoted into high ranks as a token of appreciation for long services shortly before the implementation of the UN Security Council Resolution 435. The practice evident in the post-transition minimum-jobs-requirements was Standard Six, the upper-primary school certificate then regarded standard for entry-posts (Control Officers or middle managers), plus ten-years of experience in the related job category. Standing rules were strictly followed to appoint those personnel with no recognized experience into entry posts only. Thus, the unjust practice judicially guaranteed the elevation of staff members from the pre-independence administration into senior positions, to the detriment of new civil servants sometimes holding degrees, high-diplomas and certificates from foreign countries, particularly the UNIN graduates.

Anomalous practices by the outgoing regime were obvious within the state power vacuum that United Nations Transitional Assistance Group, operating in an unfamiliar environment, had created during the transitional period. Appointments of ex-servicemen and former lackeys of the apartheid occupation regime into the key civil service positions were feared, and where noted, left speculations that the motives were only for the retirement packages and accrued benefits from the new public posts. For the contemporary restructuring process, staffing of the Public Service is highly influenced by Public Service initiatives to redress the colonial past by bringing more previously disadvantaged people into decision-making structures. The army, police, prisons, immigrations and customs services were the most restructured to absorb the high number of ex-combatants demobilized from the war of liberation and otherwise swelling the ranks of unemployment in the early years of independence. The mode of recruitment was largely by identifying individual former fighters and calling them up for re-orientation training before integration into the units of state services. Albeit partisan in form, these

initiatives have seen to it that smooth reintegration into society reached those who deserved and qualified under the scheme.

The recruitment is now voluntary for all services to address problems engendered by the colonial past. The famous Social and Economic Integration Programme for the Ex-combatants (SIPE), specifically created for engaging individuals once displaced by war, has been implemented on behalf of the government to allocate non-managerial manual jobs to those with limited or no basic education at all. Categories of services through this programme ranked as low as cleaners or security personnel in state hospitals, clinics, government offices, and public schools on government wage payroll. The receding fund, aimed at achieving the targeted numbers within the time frame of five-years running concurrent with the NDP-2, was nearly exhausted, and as such no further allocation was made in the next national budget. The National Youth Services (NYS) that was part of the Ministry of Higher Education and now forms a part of the Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture as from 21st March, 2005, will continue to recruit and cater for disadvantaged youths within its budget with the specific mission to afford them a meaningful productive life.

The selection in both instances is determined by the opportunity available and for most this offer is only the hope of being employed. By analysis, this process does not leave room for job choice based on individual motivation or attraction peculiar to the professional management concept. Therefore, the competency-based model will not be applied where findings indicate that the above two approaches were used to fill public posts.

1.3 NAMIBIA: HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES

1.3.1 Geographical Location of Namibia

Namibia is geographically located on the South Western Atlantic coast of the African

continent. The territory covers a land area of 825,000 square kilometers. It borders Angola in the north, South Africa in the south, Botswana in the east, and Zambia in the northeast. It was first called German South West Africa under Germany colonial rule, and then South West Africa under the South Africa occupation referring to the geographical location on the African continent. But indigenous political movement for independence changed the name to Namibia, meaning *shield* in the Damara-Nama local language, and a metaphor attributed to the Namib Desert which is a natural buffer between the ocean and the hinterland. For centuries the desert protected the interior from colonial settlers who sought to conquer and claim land concessions for European monarchies (*Map 2*).

The name *Namibia* was first adopted by SWAPO (South West Africa People's Organisation) of Namibia in the early sixties to advance a national consciousness and mobilize international support for the liberation struggle against occupation and oppression in Namibia perpetrated by the racist regime of South Africa. The United Nations (UN) General Assembly adopted the new name in 1968 and officially documented it upon recognizing the inalienable right of the Namibian people and their legitimate struggle for freedom by all possible means with SWAPO as their authentic representative in the international arena. SWAPO was granted this status when the UN opened and materially maintained the office of SWAPO Permanent Observer Mission to the UN at its Headquarters in New York, United States of America. The UN role is depicted in detail in the paragraphs below.

1.3.2 Population

At independence, the population size of Namibia was estimated at approximately 1.03 million based on figures supplied by the South African government in 1970. The 1991 Census recorded Namibia's population at 1.4 million (NDP1, 1995: 6). In the 2001 census Namibia's population, Walvis Bay included, was estimated to be 1.8 million (Vision 2030, 2004:28).

1.3.3 Population Density

The geographical distribution of the population is skewed as a result of colonial division of the country along ethnic lines into Bantustans (Black Homelands) and the Police Zone (area reserved for White-settlers) as reinforced upon implementing the recommendations of the Odendaal Commission Report of 1962 (*Map 3*). Consequently, most of the rural people live in the north and northeast of the country and, according to the 2001 census, some 40% of the population lives in urban areas as compared to about 10% in 1936 (Vision 2030,2004:28). Nevertheless, racial segregation and the system of ethnic group-settlement were done away with at independence in 1990. Namibia thus became a unitary state with thirteen administrative regions populated by citizens with equal status irrespective of their ethnic origin (*Map 4*). Compared to most countries in Africa (*Map 1*), Namibia makes up 3% of Africa's land area, but only 2% of its population, that is only about 2 people per square kilometer (Vision 2030,2004:28) (*see Map 5*). The Table 1.1 below presents the 1991 statistical structure of the population in Namibia (*Map 5*).

Table 1.1: Selected Population Statistics, 1991

Total population (excluding Walvis Bay)	1,409,920
Population growth rate (annual average, 1981-91)	3.16%
Population per square kilometer	1.7
Rural population*	68%
Rural growth rate	2.0%
Urban growth rate	5.5%
Males per 100 females	94.8
Population under 15	41.7%
Population over 65	4.8%

Note: * all non-urban population (based on definition prior to 1992 Local Authorities Act which includes only proclaimed areas)

Source (original): 1991 Population and Housing Census, CSO [Central Statistic Office], through NDP1, 1995

1.3.4 Geopolitical Standing

Namibia became independent under UN supervision on the 21st of March, 1990. However, the enclave of Walvis Bay, formerly a British concession until the League of Nations granted Mandate over SWA to South Africa through the British Crown, together with a number of offshore islands, remained under South African control. South Africa's claim was never recognized by Namibia, and after Independence a Namibian-South African Joint Administrative Authority (JAA) was established to administer the enclave (First National Development Plan, (NDP1: 4). In the interim, the two governments created a Transitional Executive Council to negotiate the reintegration of the disputed territories into Namibia. The three year long talks culminated in a bilateral agreement reached in August 1993, and cleared the way for the formal reintegration on the 1st of March, 1994 (NDP1: 4).

The strategic importance of Walvis Bay is due to the fact that it is a deep-sea water harbour that is linked to the national transport networks by a modern railway (*Map 2*). The system plays a vital role in economic development locally and internationally in terms of capacity to handle imports and exports for neighbouring countries via the Walvis Bay Corridor. With the reintegration of the port, Namibia had not only gained sovereignty over its entire territory but also managed to establish its geopolitical position in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the rest of the African continent.

New territorial issues have nevertheless emerged in the form of a dispute with Namibia's eastern neighbour Botswana over Kasikili, a tiny island on the Linyandi-Chobe River. The two countries resolved their dispute in the International Court of Justice at The Hague in the Netherlands. The verdict granted the ownership to Botswana, and both parties accepted the ruling. Namibia and its southern neighbour, democratic South Africa, still have to resolve the claims dating back to the colonial era that their borders on the Orange River are the northern bank and not the middle of the main stream, as Namibia would dispute. Neighbouring Angola to the north has recently signed the treaty

on sea boundaries with Namibia. These engagements have strengthened Namibia's geopolitical position in the SADC sub-region where it emerged as one member country committed to peaceful resolution of issues of common concern. Namibia's Foreign Policy is dedicated to the maximization of welfare for Namibian citizens whilst realistically continuing to live in harmony with their neighbours.

1.3.5 Government Structures

The government of Namibia consists of democratic institutions based on a Constitutional Parliamentary System of bicameral legislature, consisting of the National Assembly of 72 members, and since 1993 the National Council of 26 members, both directly elected after every five years (NDP1: 7). In the Namibian democracy, Cabinet serves as the executive arm of the legislature, the Parliament. The President whose prerogative to appoint or reshuffle cabinet ministers is only limited by the Constitution and laws, is the executive Head of State. The system of government in Namibia, having met the criteria, is considered among the successful multi-party parliamentary democracies in the SADC region.

SWAPO won the Presidential, National Assembly and Regional Council elections by a two-thirds majority in 2004, giving the ruling party an open mandate to adopt its Election Manifesto as a government programme. The new Head of State, His Excellency President Hifikepunye Pohamba, at a consultative meeting with his Cabinet instructed the director generals of Agencies and Offices, and ministers and their deputies to implement the Manifesto. Gaomas (2005) commented that:

... [President Pohamba] appealed to his Cabinet to implement the 2004 SWAPO Party Election Manifesto during the next five years without fail, since it is their duty to live up to the promises they...need to work on policies that respond to the needs of the people.

Domestic policies, National Reconciliation and Affirmative Action, pursued hand-in-hand, has ensured the promotion of peaceful democracy and political stability in Namibia (NDP1: 8-9). The ruling SWAPO Party Election Manifesto (2004: 9-11) states that:

Our policy of national reconciliation has helped Namibians overcome hatred of the past...racial, ethnic and tribal divisions [that today] are fast disappearing... [And]...believe that good governance is all about the partnership of all stakeholders... respect for government and for civil society... [and] brings about a common purpose to our efforts and resources.

Unity of common purpose, peace, and political stability have been high on the central government priority list since independence. The former President, Dr. Sam Nujoma, had for many years been a driving force in reforming government institutions particularly through implementation of the Decentralization Policy. Former Prime Ministers, Honourable Hage Geingob and Honourable Theo-Ben Gurirab, have during their terms of office committed the Public Service to a complete overhaul of *Central Government Structures* inherited from the previous caretaker administration of the apartheid (separate development) South Africa, all within the framework of decentralization and good governance. The process is now rooted in the implementation of the Second National Development Plan (NDP2) that pursues policies of public sector reform to enhance efficiency; improving the placement of civil servants; modifying procedures for recruitment; and staff development programmes for professionals. With the adoption of the SWAPO Election Manifesto 2004 as government programme, the reform process is continuing well into the post-Nujoma era.

1.3.6 Colonialism and South African Occupation

The territory of SWA that forms present-day Namibia (*Map 1*) was a subject of ruthless colonial rule by Germans and British Dominion, then Union of South Africa. German colonialism began with the arrival of traders, among them Adolf Luderitz who in 1883 claimed the entire coastal region, except for the British possession of Walvis Bay annexed in 1878, for the Germany Empire. In 1884 the rest of the country was declared a German protectorate (Vision 2030, 2004: 28). They maintained a militaristic type of administration with Generals appointed as governors and limited participation for settlers.

The outbreak of the First World War in 1914 marked the end of German overseas possessions and protectorates including the SWA territory. The Union of South Africa

troops took over South West Africa in 1915 firmly transforming the territory into a South African Colony. However, the League of Nations, predecessor of the United Nations (UN) had decided by Article 119 of the Treaty of Peace with Germany signed at Versailles on June 28th, 1919, that SWA would become a Mandate under the world body of nations (Council of League of Nations, 1920).

Notwithstanding the new international status, the colonial administration in the territory was almost intact except for the change of masters. Land policy continued to deprive the indigenous Blacks of the productive land in favour of White settlers of the German era and Afrikaners (Europeans of Dutch descent) arriving from SA at that time. Blacks continued to live in native reserves created by Germans in ethnic cleansing drives meant to confiscate productive land for White settlers. The trend did not change until the “Bantustan” policies were formally entrenched in SWA on the recommendations of the infamous Odendaal Commission of Inquiry into the rightness and appropriateness of separate development for non-White inhabitants (Vilakazi in Segal and First, 1967: 223).

Apartheid laws forbade the Black people to own any property or have settlement rights inside the Police Zone (*Map 3*). Blacks had to carry special permits to visit relatives or seek employment in urban centers inside the Police Zone. Specially appointed White-Commissioners, who worked through the tribal headmen and a myriad of government agents, oversaw native affairs in the Reserves to ensure that the “apartheid” segregation policies were effectively implemented.

Dr. Hendrik Verwoerd, then Prime Minister of SA, on the 11th of September, 1962, authorized the Odendaal Commission to prepare the playing ground for entrenching neo-colonialism in the territory under the guise of independent homelands largely referred to as Bantustans. As part of the terms of reference the Commission, in proportion to existing plans already implemented, was expected to:

[I]nquire thoroughly into further promoting the material and moral welfare and the social progress of the inhabitants of South West Africa and more particularly its non-White inhabitants, and to submit a report with recommendations on a comprehensive five-year plan for the accelerated development of the various non-

White groups of South West Africa, inside as well as outside their own territories [homelands], and for the further development and building up of such territories in South West Africa (Odendaal Commission Report, 1963).

The investigation was to assess the social and economic development of non-white (Black) population groups in the homelands and in the Police Zone (territory reserved for White Settlers) for the period beginning from 1946, when the Union of South Africa defied the UN and went on to administer SWA as its Colony, until the declaration of the Republic of South Africa in 1961.

Serious note was taken of the state of health in SWA in comparison with the unspecified “other territories of Africa” naturally regarded as falling far below in terms of health care provision (Odendaal, 1962-1963:507). The Commission would recommend further improvement in education and training in specialized services to ensure the development of well-planned towns, welfare facilities and provision of modern public services for Blacks in their respective homelands. As per the Odendaal Commission Report: the attention of the Commission is particularly directed to the task of ascertaining...how further provisions should be made for their social and economic advancement, effective health services, suitable education and training, sufficient opportunities for employment, proper agricultural, industrial and mining development in respect of their territories and for the best forms of participation by Natives in the administration and management of their own interest (Odendaal Report, Chapter XXXVI (1558), 1962-1963: 519).

Vilakazi (1967: 223) concluded that the mission of the Odendaal Commission was to ensure the entrenchment of the apartheid-oriented socio-political structure. The author views the motive as an opportunity partially guaranteed by the League of Nations Mandate, Article 2, that the Mandatory ... may apply the laws of the Union of South Africa to the territory [of SWA] ... and in part re-enforced by lack of physical action by the United Nations to enforce its decisions on SWA. In the final analysis, the requirement to recommend on further provisions particularly for sufficient opportunities for employment would support the bias of suitable education and training basis for separate development, in other words apartheid policies (Odendaal Commission Report, 1963).

However, the liberation struggle was launched by SWAPO in 1966, and the Mandate over SWA was terminated by the UN General Assembly Resolution 2145 (XXI) Sections (1)-(10) of 27 October 1966, and as condensed in Resolution 3111 (XXVIII) of December 12, 1973 on the Question of Namibia and subsequently reaffirmed in Resolution 31/146, Sections (1)-(5) of December 1976 on the Situation in Namibia, and also by the entire 20 October 1971 UN Security Council Resolution 301, particularly Section (6)((1-3)) thereof based on the International Court of Justice advisory opinion of 21 June 1971 which adjudicated that the presence of SA in SWA was illegal, then reaffirmed by the UN General Assembly Resolution 2871 (XXVI) (2 and 6 (a) – (d)). These events dealt a blow to the plan of separate development along racist lines.

The South African government had, nevertheless, instituted racism by constitution, and separate development was made law not only in the Republic of South Africa but also in SWA. Draconian Dutch laws such as “Pass System” and “Detention without Trial” were put in operation to undermine the liberation movement and derail any progress towards the attainment of independence by means of UN auspices. Alarming, the UN Security Council Resolution 435 of 1978, which drew up the strategic plan for the transition to independence in Namibia, was countervailed by the racist-South African regime with a new agenda for a neo-colonial settlement. Bogus elections where Black Namibians were cajoled to vote for the so-called interim government towards independence from South Africa were held at the exclusion of the UN and the SWAPO liberation movement. Therefore, the South African Administration had systematically defied the UN efforts for genuine independence in Namibia and led its people to self-determination.

The so-called Turnhalle Constitutional Conference, a grouping created in September 1975, was hurriedly installed as an interim government for Namibia (Moorsom in Wood, 1988:308). The move came shortly after the South African aggression into Angola began to turn the tide into victory for the MPLA government with military backing of the Cuban Armed Forces. The intention was to present the Conference to the world as the representative interim-government, alternative to the SWAPO liberation movement

aligned with communist forces in Angola and Eastern Europe at that time. SWAPO, to the contrary, had agreed to the UN plan as proposed by the ‘contact group’ consisting of United Kingdom of Great Britain (UK), United States of America (USA), Federal Republic of Germany (FRG), France and Canada, generally referred to as the ‘Western-five’. By a “strategic decision in July 1978, SWAPO compromised on [certain] issues” pressed for by the Western-five such as South Africa’s retention of the Walvis Bay seaport and enclave, presence and limited control in the country besides the United Nations Transitional Assistance Group (UNTAG) whilst fulfilling the international mission of supervising and monitoring the transition to Namibia’s independence (1988: 309).

1.3.7 Migrant Labour

The political economy of colonialism dictated that trade with the colonial power should continue unabated extracting raw materials for the metropolis in return for capital investments. Namibia was treated as the source of raw material for South African industries, extracted at low cost by Black labour recruited from Native Reserves. Inspection of labour resources in the reserves was distorted to conceal facts so as to overcome labour shortages by dubious methods of swelling labour supplies (First in Wood, 1988: 329). Thus, increased labour exploitation without meeting the mandated requirement to develop human resources to advance social, economic, political and cultural conditions of the territory prompted the UN General Assembly, upon change from the League of Nations Mandate to an International Trusteeship of Civilization for category “C” territories, to resolutely address concerns for a continued occupation of SWA by the South African Administration (UN General Assembly Resolution 2372 (XXII) (4) (a-c) of 12 June 1968).

Labour policies continued to benefit the white settler farmers, expanding mining industry and railways. In a tribute to Ruth First, Wood (1988: 324) noted that there was no national wage legislation protecting the Black labourers. Their recruitment mostly from the northern reserves was handled by a pro-government monopoly, the South West African Native Labour Association (SWANLA), who with government approval laid

down the basically minimal rates for eighteen months period of service (1988: 325). The unnamed administrator of SWA, in his 1926 Report to the League of Nations had appraised native developments in that: “Labour remained perverse... although the efforts of the missionaries...will surely in time bring about improvement...” (Wood, 1988:325). The Permanent Mandates Commission at Geneva later trashed one of the reports for having registered the religious missions as ideal collaborators in advancing ...the policy of the administration (1988:326). There was practically no legislation towards transforming contract labour into permanent wage employment across the colour line. The indigenous black people were for such a long time regarded as a reserve of cheap labour, exploitable but yet seen as unfit for employment on a living wage scale.

The United Nations General Assembly had time and again passed resolutions rejecting the exploitation of Namibia’s mineral-wealth and natural and human resources, Resolution 31/146, Sections (12), (14) and (15) of 20 December 1976, and called for the recognition and respect for inalienable rights to equitable wage employment. In historical perspective, UN Resolution 31/46, Section (1) upheld the moral responsibility to free the people of Namibia from apartheid-South Africa’s colonial domination for independence and self-determination.

1.3.8 Legislation history

The initial stage of occupation by the then Union of South Africa began with the defeat of Germany in the First World War in 1915, whereupon the Mandatory status conferred upon His Britannic Majesty for and on behalf of the Union of South Africa by the Council of the League of Nations, Article 1 and specifically Article 2, came into force until the declaration of the Republic of South Africa in 1961. Article 2 had particularly granted the Union of South Africa full power of administration and legislation to apply its laws to the territory subject to such local conditions as circumstances may require. The Mandate was inherited and redefined into International Trust by the United Nations, successor to the League of Nations, on 14 February 1946.

The study by Carroll (1967:13-14) produced evidence of limited legislation in SWA in accordance with the Constitutional Act of 1920 that provided for the establishment of the local Whites-only Legislative Assembly, Executive Committee and Advisory Council accountable to the Governor-General of the Union of South Africa. Black residents were effectually excluded and had neither rights nor privileges to participate in the election of members to the legislature. Native Affairs were handled by the Secretary for South West Africa acting under the authority of the Administrator (member of the legislature), who also served as Accounting Officer and Native Commissioner (1967:14-15). The racially structured legislature was not representative but congregative and exclusive.

The second period was marked by the termination of the UN Trust (then Mandate) in 1966, international condemnation of apartheid illegal rule of Namibia, the political processes and the military campaign by the South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) liberation movement operating from the neighbouring Zambia and Angola until the implementation of the UN Security Council Resolution 435 of the 29th of September, 1978, that ended hostilities and oversaw independence for Namibia in 1990.

At independence legislation took a turn for the better, even for the labour system. In accordance with the *Constitution of Namibia, Chapter 7, Article 63, Section (1)*: "The National Assembly, as the principal legislative authority in and over Namibia, shall have power...to make and repeal laws for peace, order and good government of the country in the best interest of the people of Namibia".

The Independence Era has marked the end of racial discrimination in the legislation process. And the laws would never consider colour of skin, race, and ethnic origin nor segregate any one. In any given circumstance, the laws are repealed to respond to the needs of the people. Decentralization calls for policy initiatives that solve problems resulting from the negative impacts perceived or unforeseen through the planning stages. Therefore, in terms of *Article 63, Section (2) (i)*: The National Assembly shall have power and function to remain vigilant and vigorous for the purpose of ensuring that the

scourges of apartheid, tribalism and colonialism do not again manifest themselves in any form in a free and independent Namibia and to protect and assist disadvantaged citizens of Namibia who have historically been the victims of these pathologies.

Whilst the discussion on the appointments in Chapter four will concentrate on documental evidence rather than on historical values, the Public Service Act would remain a key document providing points of departure in search for evidence. Affirmative Action (AA) safeguards the rights of “previously disadvantaged persons” to compete for jobs in both public and private sectors and opportunities to systematic promotion without discrimination (NDP1: 9). A dialogue is, therefore, necessary to link AA to the power of legislation and the operational standards required, to ensure that the labour market as a whole complies and implements relevant principles. (AA is discussed in Chapter three in the literature review to examine the treatment of previously disadvantaged groups in public employment.)

1.3.9 The Liberation Struggle

The founding of the South West Africa People’s Organisation (presently the ruling SWAPO Party of Namibia) at Windhoek on the 19th of April, 1960 was also the birth of organized political movement and armed struggle against SA military occupation of Namibia. Early anti-colonial movement had manifested in separate uprisings and isolated armed resistance by indigenous groups against the German colonial troops. The German authority would impose rules restricting Black ethnic groups’ free movement on traditional pastures and, thus, effectively denied them rights to their own land. The loss of sovereignty provoked the Black people to take up arms to stop settlers’ encroachment onto their land, which in most cases resulted in a ruthless German military campaign to subdue the resistance. The tribes suffered deliberate genocides, first the Namas in 1904-1907, and second, the Hereros in 1904. The attack by Chief Nehale IyaMbingana on the northernmost German military outpost of Fort Namutoni at Etosha Pan in 1904, and the defense put up by Chief Mandume yaNdemufayo against the Portuguese army at Ondjiva and the invading Union of South Africa troops at Oihole in 1917, both inside southern Angola after boarder demarcation, signified the indigenous consciousness for self-

emancipation and independence from any foreign domination. The spirit of self-determination that drove the forefathers' resistance therefore provided the basis for the contemporary revolution.

1.3.10 Political Process

Namibians started petitioning the UN for the realization of independence in accordance with the UN International Trust of 14 February, 1946. The two pioneers, well known for their tireless petitions to the UN Secretary General for the last half of the 1950's until the early 1960's, were the late Chief Hosea Kutako and the late Reverend Theophilus Hamutumbangela. The South West Africa National Union (SWANU), the first political movement formed in the post-World War II, became active among college and university students from SWA in South African universities, advocating Pan-African ideology and petitions to the UN. The group opened the first Office of Representative of the SWA people abroad in Dar-es-Salaam, and then Tanganyika. Through the new office they gained recognition from independent African states and an audience at the UN. SWANU tactics have remained at a low ebb ever since. At independence, they were registered as a political party but gained no seat in the parliament until the 2004 elections when they won the regional constituency of Otjiombinde in the Omaheke Region. It was their first ever seat in the Parliament of Namibia.

SWAPO was established on the 19th of April, 1960, following the original course dedicated to protesting by demonstrations against repressive laws, forced removals of Black residents from urban areas, and above all, to abolish migrant labour. The racist regime in SWA ruthlessly suppressed the political process, and the SWAPO leadership went into exile to mobilize for international support for the armed liberation struggle. The reality of political isolation and military weakness of the early resistance preempted new strategies for a modern approach to anti-colonial resistance and tactics of combating occupation troops on the ground. SWAPO formulated two fundamental policy documents: The *Constitution* and the *Political Programme* to guide the political process and the armed struggle for the liberation of Namibia. The same organisational frameworks provided the basis for recognition of SWAPO by the international

community in the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) and the United Nations Organisation (UNO).

The logic of choosing the military option rather than expecting passive transformation of power to the Blacks in SWA, the African anti-colonial crusade, and the international solidarity in recognition of the inalienable right of the people of SWA to independence and self-emancipation, had prompted neighbouring states in the Southern African sub-region to provide rear bases for logistical and rehabilitation support for the duration of the liberation struggle.

1.3.11 SWAPO Constitution

The Constitution of the South West Africa People's Organisation (SWAPO) of Namibia was a declaration of its aims and objectives, membership (individual/affiliate) rights and obligations, organisation structures and organs at national, regional, district and branch levels, and duties and responsibilities of national officers. For the liberation movement, the aims and objectives consisted of ten fundamental principles guiding the revolution as follows:

- 1) *To fight relentlessly by all means, for the immediate and total liberation of Namibia from colonial and imperialist occupation;*
- 2) *To unite all the people of Namibia, irrespective of race, religion, sex or ethnic origin, into a cohesive, representative, national political entity;*
- 3) *To foster a spirit of national consciousness expressed by a sense of common purpose and collective destiny among the people of Namibia;*
- 4) *To combat all reactionary tendencies of individualism, tribalism, nepotism, racism, sexism, chauvinism and regionalism;*
- 5) *To co-operate to the fullest extent with all the genuine national liberation movements, progressive governments, organizations and individuals throughout the world towards complete elimination of imperialism;*
- 6) *To establish in Namibia a democratic, secular (not theocratic or church controlled) government founded upon the will and participation of all the Namibian people;*
- 7) *To ensure that the people's government exercises effective control over the major means of production and distribution and pursues a policy which facilitates ways to social ownership of all the resources of the country;*

- 8) *To work towards the creation of a non-exploitative and non-oppressive classless society on the basis of the principles of scientific socialism;*
- 9) *To ensure that the people's government in independent Namibia co-operates with other free and independent states in Africa to promote and consolidate African unity; and*
- 10) *To see that the people's government works in close co-operation with all peace-loving states towards world peace and security (SWAPO Political Programme, 1976).*

1.3.12 SWAPO Political Programme

The programme was the plan of action for the armed struggle and also the key policy flagship for international mobilization. It outlined ten *Present and Future Tasks* in the implementation of the constitutional aims and objectives in contextual terms defined as: *SWAPO Foreign Policy* isolating the racist South Africa Regime internationally; *Internal Political Guidelines* for the political cadres in organisational structures and organs inside Namibia; *Armed Struggle* as an extension of politics by other means; *Economic Reconstruction* to readdress the present status quo serving the social interest of the white settler group; *Education and Culture Training* of technical and professional cadres, thus laying the foundation of a free and universal education for all Namibians; and *Health and Social Services* in the rear bases and in preparation for such services in independent Namibia.

The first half of the ten aims and objectives of the SWAPO Organisation, outlined in the Political Programme in accordance with the stipulations of its Constitution, constituted the “present tasks” which were effectively implemented during the liberation struggle. The last five consisted of the “future tasks”, that became incorporated into the SWAPO Party Election Manifesto of 1989, and were reflected in the *Preamble and Chapter 11, Articles 96, 98, and 100* of the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia drafted and adopted by the Constitutional Assembly on 09 February 1990. The ruling SWAPO Party has, therefore, transformed its liberation struggle policies into a government programme of action.

The constitutional transformation from a colonial caretaker administration to the legitimate government of national unity had in the process adapted to good governance and best practices deemed crucial to implementing the national reconciliation policy as manifested in the implementation of the First National Development Plan (NDP-1) 1995/1996 – 1999/2000. For these purposes the *future-tasks* based reform of the public service was embarked upon spanning the Nujoma and the Pohamba eras in a pre-emptive pursuit of the Vision 2030.

The SWAPO Constitution and Political Programme are both important to this research as they provide valuable background information on the origin of the public service reform. Imperative to the research is the adoption of the SWAPO Party Election Manifestos of 1989 and 2004 that are basically post-liberation struggle party policy documents, for daily operations of the Government programmes. The assumption is that reform is an internal requisite rather than an externally imposed condition for change. Chapter 5 gives a specific focus on research findings that embody the analysis of policy frameworks in reforming the public service.

1.3.12.1 Cadre Principle

The *cadre principle* in the liberation movement setting refers to leading members in terms of patriotism, dedication, commitment and courage to uphold the supremacy of the Organisation (SWAPO, 1976). SWAPO regarded leaders of the People's Liberation Army of Namibia (PLAN) as commanding cadres for their role as leading combatants and political educationists of the Namibian masses in the war zones (SWAPO, 1976). Thus, in all instances cadre appointments were based on merit – a distinctive character, in other words a particular trait rather than personal, in line with the vanguard party structures and its aims and objectives. Therefore, cadre qualification in this perspective has been the measure of loyalty shown towards the party and respect for the leadership.

The cadre principle as described above helps to understand merit appointments across civil services and organizations in transformation. A dialogue on cadre appointments

ought to diagnose the Merit System and its advantages in comparison to the Competency Management approach as may be adopted for Public Service Reform. An elaborative discussion is presented in the concept definition in Chapter three.

1.3.12.2 Liberation Movement

The historic experience of the Namibian Liberation Movement is synonymous with SWAPO activities as opposed to the racist South African apartheid camp. The movement took three dimensions: political, military and diplomacy, essential for a pronged but coordinated approach to gain momentum in the face of intensive repression, military occupation, and collaboration between the racist South African regime and the Western interest in Namibia.

1.3.12.3 Political Mobilization

National structures and political mobilization of the Namibian masses were suppressed under draconian laws and persecutions designed to further deny them organisational expression and a developed political consciousness. The cadres would go underground or opt for exile. Essentially, the movement used rear bases (offices, radio stations and settlement centers) for political and universal education for exiled masses. Because the situation inside the country was not right, radio broadcasting – “The Voice of Namibia” from Radio Programmes of Angola, Congo (Brazaville), Tanzania and Zambia – was the most viable means to align the political aspirations of the people with the aims and objectives of the SWAPO Liberation Movement. The entire population was thus linked by the radio mode of mobilization in all locally spoken indigenous and European languages. Printed information was more beneficial to local intellectuals and for international mobilization than for ordinary layman.

1.3.12.4 Military Resistance

The SWAPO Liberation Movement created the Peoples’ Liberation Army of Namibia (PLAN), a military arm that carried out guerilla operations in Namibia from four fronts

with logistical bases in Angola and Zambia. The Political Programme (1976:10) on the Armed Struggle states that:

SWAPO holds the conviction that [organized] military resistance to the South African occupation ... is the only viable and effective means left for us to achieve genuine liberation in Namibia.

Conscious of the violent nature of the war, the movement envisioned the winning of victory as helping to bring about conditions under which war will be ended forever (1976:10). SWAPO has just achieved that vision, and the mission now is to consolidate state power and to protect the gains of the long struggle (The Republic of Namibia Constitution, 2000:1). The review of historical background of the armed liberation struggle helps the researcher to examine independent Namibia's central government structures where merit appointments remain appropriate despite Public Service Reform.

1.3.12.5 Diplomacy

The liberation struggle by means of political mobilization and military campaign against the illegal occupation and rule of Namibia by the racist regime of South Africa alone would not have reached its logical conclusion alone. Diplomacy and international mobilizations were vital for soliciting support from the international community of sovereignty states (UN members) by bilateral engagements of SWAPO leadership with sympathetic governments and through SWAPO foreign missions in various parts of the world. Foreign missions' main objective was to focus on isolating SA internationally. The SWAPO Permanent Observer Mission to the UN Headquarters in New York, established in recognition of the Liberation Movement as the genuine representative of the people of Namibia and their legitimate armed liberation struggle for freedom and self-determination, was the principal link between the movement and United Nations Council for Namibia (UNCN) in discharging its duties and responsibilities towards the people of Namibia. The UNCN was transformed from the United Nations Council for SWA at the same time as the UN Commission for Namibia (UNCN) was transformed from the UN Commission of SWA by the UN General Assembly Resolution 2372 (XXII) of 12 June, 1968.

1.3.13 The United Nations' Responsibility

The League of Nations was established on the 25th of January, 1919, mainly consisting of European powers and Japan (RecipeLand.com, 2005). On 17 December 1920 the Council of the League of Nations in accordance with its Charter, Article 22, placed a number of former German overseas possessions – colonies and protectorate territories – under its Mandate. The territory of SWA, which formally constituted the German Protectorate until the Treaty of Peace with Germany signed at Versailles on 28th June 1919, was placed under the Union of SA Administration through His Britannic Majesty on 17 December 1920, for eventual transition to independence. South Africa itself had been a Commonwealth Protectorate and then Dominion of Great Britain on the same model as Australia, Canada and New Zealand, and for its proximity to the territory, was, in the League of Nations' opinion, the right custodian of the Mandate. Nevertheless, with the autonomy granted SA from Britain, the *broederbond* movement of the predominantly *Afrikanner* community that sought greater political powers and subjugation of Blacks, and the National Party coming to power by advocating racism ideology in 1948 in South Africa and in 1950 in South West Africa, hope for the fulfillment of the sacred trust of civilization was dashed and thus escaped the escarpment of world politics of that time (Namibia Peace Plan, 1987: 8). The trust was abused to the extent that the lives and social well-being of the Black inhabitants of SWA Africa, as the principle of the Mandate, were not promoted but rather deteriorated.

When the League of Nations was transformed into the United Nations in 1946, the Mandate then redefined in the UN Charter, Chapter XII, Article 75 into an International Trustship System over former Mandates was reaffirmed under Articles 77 and 79. However, the Union government, in territorial ambitions drive, had applied to the UN to annex SWA as the fifth province of South Africa contrary to the trustship principles. The UN General Assembly by Resolution 65 (I) of 14 February, 1946 rejected the application and invited the Union of SA to apply for Trustship Agreement consideration. The latter declined the offer whilst it continued to occupy the territory in defiance of the UN Trustship. SA was obliged to report on an annual basis to the UN General Assembly

Headquarters in New York on the progress being made to uplift the well-being of the natives of SWA towards self-determination. On many occasions, the SA government had acted illegally, such as imposing racial segregation on SWA in violation of the International Trusteeship System.

The UN General Assembly, being dissatisfied with South Africa's failure to meet the trust obligations, passed Resolution 2145 (XXI) (4) of 27 October, 1966 effectively terminating the SA Mandate on SWA entrusted to it by the League of Nations on 17 December, 1920, and declared itself the only authority over the territory. In the same vein the UN had adopted the name Namibia, then only used by the South West Africa People's Organization (SWAPO) liberation movement as a symbol of the struggle for freedom and independence. SWAPO launched the armed struggle on the 26th of August 1966, with the aim of liberating Namibia from South African occupation and colonialism.

The UN, having terminated the trusteeship that was abused by SA, had in the meanwhile resumed the responsibility of uplifting the morale, promoting culture and ensuring the social well-being of the Namibian people towards independence and self-determination. First, the United Nations Commission for Namibia (UNCN) was created by the UN General Assembly Resolution 2372 (XXII) of 12 June, 1968 and funded from the UN Headquarters in New York to administer the Namibian affairs in the absence of a legitimate government until genuine independence was achieved. Regional Offices were set-up in Lusaka, Zambia and in Gaborone, Botswana for close monitoring of developments inside Namibia. Second, the United Nations Institute for Namibia (UNIN) was established in accordance with the UN Resolution 2372 (XXII) Section 4 (b) at Lusaka in 1976 to provide universal based training in Public Administration and other fields essential for the future public service in an independent Namibia. The people who joined SWAPO ranks in exile, then recognized as the genuine representative of the Namibian people and other exiled Namibian groups, were selected for studies at the UNIN in preparation for future roles as civil servants. Those who displayed aptitude for further studies were offered opportunities through other UN Agencies such as United

Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in accordance with the UN General Assembly Resolutions, 3111(XXVIII) Section II (2).

1.4 STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

Since independence in 1990 and the enactment of the *Public Service Act*, Act 13 of 1995, which is the legal framework for the Public Service reform, there has not been a comprehensive study to determine the effect of the reform process on cadre appointments in the Public Service. What is on record are incremental measures recommended in the Wages and Salary Commission (WASCOM) Report of 1995 to the Prime Minister intended to rationalize the civil service in order to reduce public spending on personnel. No matter what the investigation was focusing on, the aim was to suspend the number of pending appointments as a measure of cutting Government costs. The *Public Service Act* provisions put emphasis on appointing qualified persons procedurally. Appointments in the Public Service are supposedly merit-based because the objective is to ensure quality, effectiveness and efficiency in the delivery of services. It implies that the requisite for reforming the public office is the appointment of motivated and ethically driven professional management cadres. The general public portrays the Namibian public service as non-competent and inefficient, which is a negative reflection on the application of the Public Service Act and its sub-sect Recruitment Policy. The Central Government through the OPM Department of Public Service Management has recognized the importance of competencies crucial for quality service delivery. But the employee selection criteria which is followed, mostly with a pragmatic emphasis on appointing cadres, ignores inevitable skills-gaps in the bureaucracy. The lack of concern towards narrowing skills-gap at onset potentially poses a problem in the process of reforming the public service.

Informal explorations indicated that most persons appointed to top positions have to pass the political test to give them additional advantage as suitable candidates. Unfair strategies have been observed where those candidates qualified to teach in the institutions

of higher learning where shortages are visibly acute would compete for vacancies in the public service. In the process, senior public servants tend to defect from central services to well paid jobs in public corporations and private sector under somewhat chaotic situations. Media reports on good governance criticize the lack of competency and capacity in the Public Service and the tendency of senior civil servants serving on more than five Boards of Directors of government owned corporations or parastatals, and Foundations by virtue of seniority as qualifying credentials. Although some of these instances have been occurring since independence in 1990, there has been no attempt from the government as an employer to rectify the anomaly or even find a realistic solution to the problem. Thus, the preliminary observations of recruitment scenarios presented an opportunity for the researcher to study the meritocratic appointments phenomena. The study aims at determining the extent of reform effect on cadre appointments, and to formulate recommendations that could best resolve the problem.

1.5 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to:

1.5.1 Critically examine the role of the Office of the Prime Minister in the public service appointments, focusing on:

1.5.1.1 Recruitment of Management Cadres

- Standard procedures
- Transparency and fairness

1.5.1.2 Selection of candidates for Management Cadre positions

- Political consideration
- Competency consideration
- Gender consideration

1.5.2 Use the findings of the study in determining the effects of reform on cadre appointments and make recommendations for realistic solutions that can help to

reduce the skills-gap and enhance critical competencies in the central Public Service and the general Namibian public bureaucracy.

The focus of the study is on the magnitude of the reform effect on merit-based appointments. Understanding that the research objectives should be free of ambiguity, as abstracted from Ngau and Kumssa (2004: 23-24), provides the insights needed to justify the choice of objectives in order to specify the issues.

1.6 THE OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

Given the purpose of the study, it is logical to justify the research objectives which are chosen to:

- Examine how senior public servants perceive appointments in real life experience
- Determine the effect of reform on appointments of Management Cadres
- Determine present and future maintenance of competency levels

Firstly, relevant data on real life experience of the Senior Civil Servants is collected and analyzed, thereby generating adequate information to answer the Research Question that says: **How effective has the meritocratic cadre appointments been in transforming the central public service?** The ultimate goal of filling senior Public Service posts is to ensure that competent people are retained and a loyal career oriented bureaucracy is maintained and sustained for the central government. Once this objective is achieved, it is possible to provide a scientific explanation for the appointments as they have been carried out in the public service from 1990 until in the present time.

Secondly, the understanding of the Public Service appointments in Namibia would enhance the capacity to determine how the cadre-principle was applied to the selection of candidates for the Public Service posts. In order to accomplish this objective, it would, however, entail a critical examination of the pragmatic stance in the Merit System that

was supposedly adopted as the preferred approach to the staffing and personnel administration in the Public Service of Namibia. Thus, the researcher would then be able to make meaningful conclusions on the extent of relationship between reform and cadre appointments.

Thirdly, the empirical evidence needs to be customized to serve the purposes of policy formulation and implementation. The research culminates in the formulation of recommendations that can be translated into tangible applications thereby resolving the problem of a skills-gap in the bureaucracy.

In defense of the choice of topic, the Public Service Act/Recruitment Policy was closely examined and analyzed to understand the process of recruiting management cadres in the Namibian context. A particular interest in Public Service recruitment has developed out of observing the unexplained tendency of previously disadvantaged citizens to seek Public Service employment rather than the comparative private sector. In line with the topic of research, the author has decided to investigate the area of Public Service reform from the narrow perception of the Merit System to new prospects of Competence-Management. The motive behind the selection of this area of study is to objectively manifest the notion that Public Service is where Public Administration is practiced and applied. It is, thus, worth investigating this phenomenon in the magnitude of existing policy frameworks and theories that will be dealt with at length in Chapter three. Using qualitative research methods described in Chapter two to collect empirical data for analysis in Chapter five would, therefore, serve to provide a scientific explanation of the recruitment phenomenon that could help to recommend realistic solutions to skills-gap emanating from the process of recruiting and selecting management cadres. Perhaps the justification of the chosen topic starts with the mystique pronounced in these statements as manifested in the application of recruitment policy reforms since 1990.

A research design in a separate section below essentially gives the outline and schedule

of research augmenting the breakdown of purposes as presented above. Again, the research design is elaborated in the research methodology Chapter two so as to align the research methods to various theories informing the scientific analysis.

1.7 RESEARCH QUESTION

How effective have the meritocratic cadre appointments been in transforming the Central Public Service?

Assessing the present state of public service reform raises the question of how the Merit System has been applied in the public service. The assumption is that merit principles have not been properly followed, thus, producing an inefficient bureaucracy. Since the ultimate goal is a reformed public service, merit based filling of senior public service posts shall be done with a view that competent people are retained and a loyal career oriented bureaucracy is maintained and sustained for the central government. However, the opposite has happened, and the supposedly meritocratic selection of cadres did not enhance competency and professional management that would guarantee quality service delivery. That indicates serious inconsistency in assessing the prospective candidates for bogus motives, and failure to address the political patronage element imbedded within the merit-based appointments. Motives that are questionable and political patronage can hypothetically translate into undue inefficient delivery of services, an impact that is undesirable. There is no transparent system of constituting interview panels. Members are nominated on discretion of the chairperson, usually the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry, where the vacancy is to be filled. A committee ought to be appointed every time a top vacancy occurs to examine traits, technical competency and educational qualifications of individual candidates. But, that has never been the case because in the present pragmatic set up even unfair practices are applauded as meritocratic. Ironically, peers identify and nominate candidates at O/A/M levels for Prime Minister's formal recommendation to the President for appointments in top-level management positions, especially Deputy Permanent Secretary and Permanent Secretary. More tangible adjustments could be done to realize the desired changes. Thus, field research prospects

in this view are feasible to make recommendations that can transform the public service into a meritocratic one.

1.8 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Studying the effects of reform necessarily invokes policy analysis fundamental to understanding institutional change. Namibian government institutions have been under reform since independence in 1990. However, no official record exists documenting a comprehensive research study on how effective this reform process was in transforming the public service. It is evidently overdue. The examination of the OPM aims at producing results. It means the study is result-oriented, which is the context determining its importance. Preliminary surveys did not find significant studies that took place before or concurrently with this study. Probably this is a unique opportunity for the researcher to explore indicators that there is congruence between reform agendas intended to transform government structures and the actual appointments of management cadres at policy implementation and directive levels of these structures. It might happen that another researcher has done similar surveys elsewhere outside Namibia pioneering into the recruitment subject, but no substance of such study was conceptualized so as to induce future comparative studies. Thus, this research is important to deduce from the public sector any evidence of a particular formula adopted that pre-determines the disposition of peer groups in the transformed Public Service in terms of status, social milieu, efficacy and intellectual capacity. The end results could help to analyze the basis for diverse recruitment that is appointing a certain disposition of cadres to top positions while others are falling in categories that would require managerial development before promotion. Since serving the public can be prompted by personal motivation and inclination of an individual to enhance social development, the filling of public posts in the central government must have something to do with the quality driven and preference of the political office bearers. Depending on the selection, conducting of civil service affairs could be considered transparent and efficient or unethical and unaccountable. Based on

these assumptions, the research does not rest on the centreline, but rather seeks a conceptual deduction to interpret the two premises and justify the study at the same time.

The filling of public service posts to retain a professional public service in Namibia was emphasized in accordance with the *Public Service Act, Act 13 of 1995* and supposedly implemented from onset. Intermittently, the political, academic and social circles debate insist that the civil service is either too large for a country with a small population of 1.8 million or incompetent to run critical services. The private sector, to the contrary, has proved that it cannot absorb the surplus labour force on the market as more school leavers and those with tertiary education are joining the waiting list every year. Ideally, the public service is, nonetheless, their last option. This tendency of previously disadvantaged citizens seeking public service employment signifies additional levels of importance in the study. Thus, the research objectives mirror the study focus within the dimension of the *Merit System* as affecting the appointment of management cadres. The latter, which is competency-based approach, underlies the models of civil service reform towards professional management and efficiency in service delivery.

1.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

This research is significant in that it addresses the effects of reform on appointments of management cadres imperative in transforming the delivery of services in the central government of Namibia. It intends to examine a specific area of public management function that is transparent and fair appointments of Management Cadres, crucial to molding a meritocratic, efficient and effective civil service. Upon examining, one expects results implying that the research is actually output oriented. As previously stated in the research question section, the researcher seeks to unearth how the Merit System was applied to have a negative impact on appointments, evident in the increased incompetence of the public bureaucracy. Based on these perceptions, it is justified to embark on a realistic research study.

A realistic research study is one that takes cognition of limitations in the field and makes provisions for addressing the cumbersome situations through “delimitation”. In any of the research approaches presented (*Appendix: 3*) and techniques described, there are limitations. They are constructed tools for research, and if circumstances do not allow, they may fail. The financial implications of research are high in terms of research costs ranging from traveling and accommodation to printing materials. Some prohibitive sources are by law out of bound such as confidential government documents, court cases including labor disputes in progress, and corporate banking transactions and contract agreements. Constraints to this investigation are envisaged where unforthcoming public service officials fear the negative impact on their reputation, and those with attitudes can withhold vital information. Bureaucracy could be the cause of fears and suspicions displayed among contacts, thus putting a limit on the targeted number of 55 identified participants. Problems which were experienced during empirical research are reported in Chapter six on conclusion.

1.9.1 Delimitation of Research

Research delimitation was necessary to focus the field research on chosen substance relative to the objectives and the research question. Delimitation was also important to ensure that technical aspects, which included empirical research ethics, confidentiality with contacts and reliability of data, were procedurally applied before presenting the conceptual map of research. To support the above stated application, a number of important issues were taken into consideration as follows bellow.

First, the unit of analysis was explored to establish rapport with the contact persons ahead of interviews, which worked fairly well. Acquainting was one thing and convincing the subjects was another daunting task to the delimitation list. Face-to-face meetings were conducted and complete cancellation effected where inevitable bias, for example one OPM department head rejected the substance of interview as not official, could be detected. That helped to draw the boundary of the field research confining data collection

to the selected departments within the Office of the Prime Minister.

Second, caution is taken to ward off both potential and perceived threats to the study. Potential threats could come from own causes or other causes associated with the manner in which this research study is conducted. Notably, the selection of participants has initially entertained a large group of respondents. The majority of respondents were junior civil servants who, even in their numbers, could not satisfy the expected outcomes. However, seeing that this will not guarantee reliability of results, the list was revised to involve influential management cadres – deputy directors, directors and under secretaries. The internet sources consulted for this research can, likewise, generate unreliable information and carries the risk of losing money, which is wasting of scarce financial resources. Incidents are imaginable such as deceitful exchanges in the process of research that might jeopardize the study. Others may be related to an approved study leave, which could be revoked while one is already in the field thereby thwarting hard won chances to carry out a successful research. In all anticipations, delimitation is plotted on the activity map with alternative action plan to avert a complete collapse of research efforts. Thus, delimitation became apparent to focus this research study to specific issues in the Public Service.

Third, the field of public administration is too broad and a focused research is quite difficult without prior preparation. It involved scanning for eventuality such as choosing a topic that is researchable. The literature survey conducted at University of Pretoria (UP) has not produced any single clue on similar topics that might have been researched before no matter how closely the subject is related. The School of Public Management and Administration SPMA had, however, approved and accepted research topics for PhD Theses on public administration and reform in the post-apartheid democratic SA. But, in essence, their influence and impacts on this research are minimal, as the purposes widely differ in terms of theme and context. Most of the literature compiled has been cited to allow the flow of ideas and give overviews at the same time. This is essentially ensuring compliance with the UP research standards where duplication may occur. However, this

research is not necessarily indemnified from incidental duplication of ongoing or completed works at external institutions outside the SPMA, its umbrella body, the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, and the UP as a whole.

Nevertheless, caution was taken to keep this research as authentic as possible from the onset. The materials reviewed clearly demarcated the area of staffing as related to other functions of management. Baroukh and Kleiner (2002:28) have defined recruitment coupled to selection as complex, two way processes that affect each other in maximizing organizational objectives. The objective of this process is to attract prospective job candidates and afford them an opportunity to decide whether the organization's condition of service appeals to the quality they have to offer (2002:28). Thus, recruitment and career development is basically a "traditional" personnel administration activity integrated with line managerial function (2002:28). The recruitment and the selection functions, and career development concept, both important terms in this research and generic in HRM, will be used interchangeably with merit-based or competency-based appointments and competency development, respectively. The above statements constitute the delimitation of the research reflected in Chapter two on Methodology of Research.

1.10 ORGANIZATION OF RESEARCH

An outline of this research is systematically introduced to capture the related technical and conceptual perceptions on: background; statement of research purposes and objectives; importance and research question; limitations and delimitation; and, the organization of the research. Basically, this outline constitutes the schedule of research encompassing different management aspects pertinent to the reform process in the Public Service of Namibia. Chapter one was prepared, in the first place to contextualize those historical perspectives bearing influence on administrative reforms and organizational transformation in post-colonial Namibia, in the second place to identify the problem and give focus of the research, and specify the issues being investigated. In the third place, it

was imperative to state the rationale of the research – technical and conceptual reality, while justifying the choices made.

Chapter two is on the Methodology of the Research that provided a philosophical grounding to the study. A number of qualitative (naturalistic) research methods and empowerment evaluation involving an empirical study based on Mouton (2001) were identified and contrasted for their validity.

Chapter three concentrates on review of conceptual materials from important sources consulted in preparation of this thesis. Understanding the cadre appointments beyond a conceptual study requires investigation of the public service motivation phenomena that lead potential employees to seek employment in the civil service. Hondeghem (2005) held that Self-determination “...aimed at achieving an interaction between institutional and individual level...” helps to explain the Public Service motivation phenomenon (Hondeghem, 2005:3). The argument here that individuals are motivated by their inclination to serve the public and enjoy the job security guaranteed by Public Service employment policies is perhaps justified. Nevertheless, the theoretical basis of Public Service Motivation (PSM) embodied in Hondeghem’s Self-determination Theory, must be tested.

Basically, the study proffers on using pragmatic approaches in policymaking process and policy implementation as complementing spheres of governance. In both instances the reason is that there is a government at the end of the day. Streamlining of the Public Service ensures efficiency and that accountability prevail in the delivery of services. Contrary views on streamlining can, nevertheless, be advanced relative to other perspectives such as its economic impacts on employees. Whilst effectiveness may be regarded as a component of such measures, it is in fact a goal for creating a loyal and efficient bureaucracy. For the purposes of qualitative data collection and explicit analysis, Grounded Theory has been adopted for this research. Moreover, a comprehensive and detailed Review of Literature in Chapter three presents the advantages and disadvantages

of the merit system. Contrasting NPM conceptions advance competency-management as the emerging yardstick for a meritocratic civil service.

Chapter four presents the Namibian context of filling posts in the central public service. Recruitment and selection (a prerogative to choose) of public officials is considered to be generic. The appointment of civil servants is purportedly merit based. The term appointment and the concept of merit, if separated and analyzed, reveal the reasons for which employees are engaged in different job categories. This analysis does not only categorize but also helps to deduce and unpack what merit-based appointments mean in the public sector as comparative to the private sector.

Chapter five is on presentation and analysis of data in a manner that resulting evidence supports or rejects the research question of this thesis. The empirical data, collected on merit based cadre appointments adopted for the public service reform in the Namibian context, will help to understand how the merit system has been applied effectively. Based on the employment policies, public service motivation might have changed to reflect principled behavior as opportunities widen.

Chapter Six constitutes the conclusion of the research study and recommendations. An overall synopsis on how the research was conducted features in this chapter basically explaining the difficulties encountered as well as highlighting successes scored when collecting the primary and secondary data. It sums up the research in a systematic way. That means the synopsis is comprehensive and constitutes an abstract of the thesis. The conclusion of research does not compose information introducing sub-topics, but summarizing or actually rounding up the research and its findings. After the conclusion in the chapter, there is a full section of recommendations that can help to solve the problem of skills-gaps in the bureaucracy.

1.11 SUMMARY

So much weight was thrown into historical perspectives to give the reader some background of the processes that led to the independence of Namibia. Ultimately, the research focuses on Public Service Reform in Namibia, concentrating on specific issues pertaining to the merit-based appointments of management-cadres for the central public service. Merit-based and Competency-based appointments in public service, whilst introduced in the current chapter, are defined in Chapter three of the research.

This chapter has outlined an insightful research design, which is a coherent flow of proceedings systematically presented to guide the conceptual work and field research. Full research work is necessary and this norm is realized in the following chapter.

1.12 CONCLUSION

Early in the independence period, Namibia has conducted some reforms to depart from the colonial apartheid style of Public Administration and introduce new practices amenable to state-hood. Importance was given to sectors that could transform government institution to serve the purposes of policymaking and implementation for nation building while strengthening the new democracy. Obviously, democratic governance required a meritocratic civil service that is less bureaucratic and adopted business like style in executing government business, but effective and efficient in delivering services.

The central public service of Namibia was initially structured to embrace a Merit System approach so as to attract the most qualified personnel into government employment. It encouraged administrative principles that are pragmatic and responsive to quality demand in delivering standardized services to the citizens. Nevertheless, with global level

transformation from Public Administration to the New Public Management, the Merit System naturally became redundant probably, worthy only where New Public Administration, which is an incremental modification to the former, is in practice. However, by global standards New Public Administration has outlived the era of being a flagship paradigm for any significant reform process.

The background of the study as given in this Chapter highlighting the historical perspectives of the Public Administration in Namibia and the conditions that led to the reform process, also enlightened the focus and choice of appointment of management cadres as among specific issues for investigation. There are limitations though, and as stated in the corresponding section above, the research is demarcated to contain inevitable disarray and bias in data collection and analysis. Thus, empirical research concentrates on the Office of the Prime Minister as the unit of analysis.