PUBLIC SERVICE REFORM IN NAMIBIA: A CASE STUDY OF CADRE APPOINTMENTS IN THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

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DEDICATION

To My beloved Mother, the Surviving Inspiration in my Life
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere thanks to my promoter in this study, Professor Jerry O Kuye, for technical guidance and supervision of the thesis with an unprecedented dedication to the academic perfection. One ought to appreciate his academic leadership and mentorship qualities that sustained the entire study period I have spent at the University of Pretoria. Professor Dr. Chris Thornhill, co-promoter, too deserves special thanks for the unreserved support and encouragement in my academic endeavors.

I would also wish to convey my appreciation for the opportunity offered me by the Secretary to the Cabinet, Mr. Frans Kapofi, to acquaint and build rapport with the senior officials in the Office of the Prime Minister for the ultimate semi-structured interview. I am particularly indebted to Dr. Tara Elyssa, the English Language Editor, who has done the splendid edition of the Thesis. Her contribution is paramount to the success of this study.

Finally, my deepest gratitude goes to my wife, Elisia. Her profound encouragement rekindled the confidence I needed to pursue my study.
ABSTRACT

The study examined the effects of Public Service Reform in the appointments of management cadres in the Public Service of Namibia from 1990 to 2005. Specific focus was given to the Office of the Prime Minister, the core institution in the management of the Central Government operations. The study found that the need for a new post-colonial dispensation compatible with the requirements of statehood prompted the structuring of Government institutions. The Research Question explicitly sought to explain the extent to which the Post-independent Public Service Reform initiatives have transformed the structures and reoriented the government institutions to adopt the New Public Management principles, which can ensure efficiency and effective delivery of services. The legislative frameworks, particularly the Constitution of Namibia and the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995), have provided the bases for analyzing the Recruitment Policy in the Public Service of Namibia.

A systematic semi-structured interview with respondents has significantly unveiled a highly structured institution, with complex mechanisms of planning and executing programmes within managerial frameworks. The empirical research conducted for the study explored the political, economic, social and historical significance of Public Service Reform and indeed produced sufficient evidence confirming the adoption of new ways of improving performance and of enhancing accountability of the civil servants. Qualitative research methods were employed to evaluate the participants’ daily life experience for the purpose of describing the Public Service Reform from the insider’s perspective.

The findings show that the traditional culture of administration is evidently being phased out and the New Public Management is gradually taking root. The Merit System has
given way to new practices without loss of values that are generic to the selection of the “right type of people” for the meritocratic Public Service.

Nevertheless, the current managerial reform initiatives appear to be superficial, taking a pragmatic approach with no serious provisions for structural change. Options for Namibia should include adopting structural changes that responds to its social, economic and political conditions in the face of globalisation. The study has ultimately recommended Competency-Management as the best approach to achieve a meritocratic and professional civil service.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENTS PAGES

DEDICATION ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT iii
ABSTRACT iv
TABLE OF CONTENTS vi
LIST OF TABLES xiv
ACRONYMS xv
DEFINITION OF TERMS xviii
MAPS xxiv

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION 1

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY 2
1.2.1 Public Service Appointments 4

1.3 NAMIBIA: HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES 6
1.3.1 Geographical Location of Namibia 6
1.3.2 Population 7
1.3.3 Population Density 8
1.3.4 Geopolitical Standing 9
1.3.5 Government Structures 10
1.3.6 Colonialism and South African Occupation 11
1.3.7 Migrant Labour 15
1.3.8 Legislation History 16
1.3.9 Liberation Struggle 18
1.3.10  Political Process  19
1.3.11  SWAPO Constitution  20
1.3.12  SWAPO Political Programme  21
1.3.12.1  Cadre Principle  22
1.3.12.2  Liberation Movement  23
1.3.12.3  Political Mobilisation  23
1.3.12.4  Military Resistance  24
1.3.12.5  Diplomacy  24
1.3.13  The United Nations responsibility  25

1.4  STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM  27

1.5  PURPOSE OF THE STUDY  28

1.6  OBJECTIVE OF THE RESEARCH  29

1.7  RESEARCH QUESTION  31

1.8  IMPORTANCY OF THE STUDY  32

1.9  LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH  33
1.9.1  Delimitation of the Study  34

1.10  ORGANIZATION OF THE RESEARCH  36

1.11  SUMMARY  39

1.12  CONCLUSION  39

CHAPTER TWO

2.  METHODOLOGY  41
CHAPTER THREE

3. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES OF ADMINISTRATIVE REFORM

3.1 INTRODUCTION

3.2 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION SYSTEMS
3.2.1 Autocracy
3.2.2 Democracy
3.2.2.1 Institution
3.2.2.2 Political Appointment
3.2.2.3 The Bureaucracy
3.2.3 Meritocracy
3.2.4 Spoils

3.3 ADMINISTRATIVE REFORM CONCEPTS

3.4 NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT
3.4.1 Management Development
3.4.2 Competency-Management
3.4.3 Recruitment and Selection

3.5 PHILOSOPHICAL CONCEPTIONS
3.5.1 Phenomenology
3.5.2 Metaphysical Realism
3.5.3 Scientific Realism
3.5.4 Structural Realism
3.5.5 Critical Realism
3.5.6 Pragmatism

3.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK
3.6.1 Public Service Motivation
3.6.2 Self-determination
CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA 182

5.1 INTRODUCTION 182

5.2 DATA PRESENTATION 183
5.2.1 Merit System category 183
5.2.2 Competency Management Category 184
5.2.3 Political/Cadreship Category 185

5.3 DATA ANALYSIS 188
5.3.1 Institutional Profiles 189
5.3.2 New Institutions 189
5.3.3 Selection criteria 190

5.4 EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY 191

5.5 MERIT SYSTEM APPOINTMENTS 193
5.5.1 Transparency 194
5.5.2 Competitive Salaries 194
5.5.3 Security of Job Tenure 194
5.5.4 Build-up Competencies 194
5.5.5 Individual Qualities 195

5.6 COMPETENCY MANAGEMENT 195

5.7 RESEARCH RESULTS 197

5.8 RESEARCH FINDINGS SYNTHESIZE 198
CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS 204

6.1 INTRODUCTION 204

6.2 DOCUMENTATION RESEARCH CHALLENGES 206

6.3 PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED WHILE COLLECTING THE DATA 206

6.4 POSITIVE ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE RESEARCH 207

6.5 CONCLUSIONS 209

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS 215

BIBLIOGRAPHY 217

1. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND LITERATURE 217
2. BOOKS ON BEHAVIOR THEORIES AND ETHICS 217
3. MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION LITERATURE 218
4. POLICY-MAKING, IMPLEMENTATION AND ANALYSIS LITERATURE 220
5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY LITERATURE 221
6. PERIODICALS AND JOURNALS 221
7. INTERNET SEARCH – ELECTRONIC JOURNAL ARTICLES 223
8. ORIGINAL DOCUMENTS AND POLICY PAPERS 227
APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Typology on Qualitative Evaluation Approach 232
Appendix 2: Ethnographic Research Model 233
Appendix 3: Qualitative Approaches 235
Appendix 4: Documental Evidence Validation Approach 236
Appendix 5: Research Questionnaire 240
Appendix 6: Invitation Letter for Semi-Structured Interview 246
Appendix 7: Public Service of Namibia Summary of Staffing 247
Appendix 8: Public Service of Namibia Appointments in Management Posts (Grade 4A L1 – 6B) 247
Appendix 9: Public Service of Namibia Appointments in Posts Below Management 248
Appendix 10: Promotions in Management Posts (Grade 4A L1 - 6B) 248
Appendix 11: Wages Commission (WASCOM) Recommended Salary Structure – Junior Bands 249
Appendix 12: WASCOM Recommended Salary Structure – Middle and Senior Bands 252
Appendix 13: Affirmative Action Scheduling of Candidates for Advertised Posts in Public Service 255

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1 Selected Population Statistics, 1991 8
Table 4.1  Public Service of Namibia Appointments/Promotions 2004/2005  147
Table 4.2  Regional Councils Appointments/Promotions 2004 – 2005  149
Table 4.3  Areas of Competency Emphasis for the Public Service of Namibia  155
Table 5.1  Presentation of Data Collected by the Questionnaire  186
Table 5.2  Key Results of Semi-Structured Interviews by the Questionnaire  187
Table 5.3  Data Categories  188

ACRONYMS

AA  Affirmative action
ASP  Applied Strategic Planning
AU  African Union
BPR  Business Process Reengineering
CAFRAD  Centre Africaine de Formation et de Recherche Administratives pour le Développement – French translation for: African Training and Research Centre in Administration for Development
CD-ROM  Compact Disc Read Only Memory
CELL  Cellular
CEO  Chief Executive Officer
CGA  Central Government Agency
CIT  Critical Incident Technique
CPST  Center for Public Service Training
CSC  Civil Service Commission
CSO  Central Statistics Office
CSRA  Civil Service Reform Act
DAIT  Department Administration and Information Technology
DCSPA  Department Cabinet Secretariat and Policy Analysis
DPEAC  Department President’s Economic Advisory Council
DPSCS  Department Public Service Commission Secretariat
DPSITM  Department Public Service Information Technology Management
DPSM  Department Public Service Management
DR  Doctor
ECU  Efficiency and Charter Unit
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EEO</td>
<td>Equal Employment Opportunity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMU</td>
<td>Emergency Management Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAX</td>
<td>Facsimile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLRA</td>
<td>Federal Labour Relations Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FRG</td>
<td>Federal Republic of Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR</td>
<td>Human Resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>HRIMS</td>
<td>Human Resources Information Management System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRM</td>
<td>Human Resources Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JAA</td>
<td>Joint Administrative Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSA</td>
<td>Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes</td>
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<tr>
<td>LAC</td>
<td>Legal Assistance Center</td>
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<tr>
<td>M/F</td>
<td>Male/Female</td>
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<td>MEI</td>
<td>Management Excellence Inventory</td>
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<tr>
<td>MISS</td>
<td>Mistress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIT</td>
<td>Ministerial Implementation Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MP</td>
<td>Member of Parliament</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPLA</td>
<td><em>Movimento Popular para Liberdacao de Angola – Portuguese translation for: Popular Movement for the Liberation of Angola</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MR</td>
<td>Master</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MRLGH</td>
<td>Ministry of Regional, Local Governments and Housing</td>
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<tr>
<td>MRLGHRD</td>
<td>Ministry of Regional, Local Governments, Housing, and Rural Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>MRS</td>
<td>Mistress</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSPB</td>
<td>Merit System Protection Board</td>
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<td>MTEF</td>
<td>Medium Term Expenditure Framework</td>
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<tr>
<td>NACHE</td>
<td>National Advisory Council for High Education</td>
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<td>NAPWU</td>
<td>Namibia Public Workers Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>NDP</td>
<td>National Development Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>NIMPA</td>
<td>Namibia Institute of Management and Public Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>NPA</td>
<td>New Public Administration</td>
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<td>NPM</td>
<td>New Public Management</td>
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<td>NUNW</td>
<td>National Union of Namibian Workers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<td>NYS</td>
<td>National Youth Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>O/M/A</td>
<td>Office/Ministry/Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>OAU</td>
<td>Organisation of African Unity</td>
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<tr>
<td>OBO</td>
<td>Outcome Based Objectives</td>
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<td>OD</td>
<td>Organization Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>OPM</td>
<td>Office of Personnel Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>OPM</td>
<td>Office of the Prime Minister</td>
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<tr>
<td>PAC</td>
<td>Pan-African Conference</td>
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<tr>
<td>PEMP</td>
<td>Performance and Effectiveness Management Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Doctor of Philosophy</td>
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<tr>
<td>PLAN</td>
<td>Peoples’ Liberation Army of Namibia</td>
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<tr>
<td>PMS</td>
<td>Performance Management System</td>
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<tr>
<td>PRC</td>
<td>President’s Re-organisation Committee</td>
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<td>PRC</td>
<td>Presidential Review Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>PS</td>
<td>Permanent Secretary</td>
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<td>PS</td>
<td>Public Service</td>
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<td>PSC</td>
<td>Public Service Charter</td>
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<td>PSC</td>
<td>Public Service Commission</td>
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<td>PSCA</td>
<td>Public Service Charter in Africa</td>
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<td>PSM</td>
<td>Public Service Management</td>
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<td>PSM</td>
<td>Public Service Motivation</td>
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<tr>
<td>RSA</td>
<td>Republic of South Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>SADC</td>
<td>Southern African Development Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEIPE</td>
<td>Social and Economic Integration Programme for Ex-combatants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SES</td>
<td>Senior Executive Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGP</td>
<td>Strategic Generic Training Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOE</td>
<td>State Owned Enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPMA</td>
<td>School of Public Management and Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSC</td>
<td>States Services Commission</td>
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<tr>
<td>SWA</td>
<td>South West Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>SWANLA</td>
<td>South West Africa Native Labor Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWAPO</td>
<td>South West Africa People’s Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEL</td>
<td>Telephone</td>
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</table>
DEFINITION OF TERMS

Apartheid: The term refers to the system of separate development along racial lines (Carroll, 1967:4). It was a policy for segregating the Black population from the White population (Wikipedia Free Encyclopedia, 15 March 2006:1).

Autocracy: It means one man dominated “rule by word or command” or a system of administration dominated by an elite who may do whatever their ability to command allows them to”, and both instances are usually equated to “tyranny” (Wiley, 2003:22).

Bantustan: This was the apartheid system of Homelands, formerly native reserves during the German colonialism, designated enclaves where the Black population was restricted after the expropriation of productive land for White settlers (D’Amato, 1966:3). “Bantustans (a country or region that lacks any real legitimacy or power) refers to any of the territories designated as tribal ‘homelands’ for black South Africans and Namibians during the Apartheid era” (Wikipedia Encyclopedia, 2006:1). The researcher says, Homelands were territories within the then South West Africa and the Republic of South Africa demarcated by virtue of Group Act and inhabited by indigenous tribes identified by their culture and traditional rules based on customary laws.

Bureaucracy: The term bureaucracy is useful to this research to describe the body of the civil service officials responsible for managing the government business. The
bureaucracy is a system of complex organization structured to perform technical and hierarchical roles such as implementing policies made by the politicians (Pfiffner and Presthus, 1967:39). The bureaucracy is characterized by the principle of political neutrality and is expected to serve a succession of elected governments without bias (La Palombara, 1967:17). However, for the bureaucracy to remain competitive, usually it demands specific qualities from its members such as consistency, loyalty, adaptability and professionalism (Pfiffner and Presthus, 1967:39).

**Career Autonomy:** It is a career system where top civil servants acquired the status of permanency position in the public service (Halligan, 1997). It entails that Senior Civil Servants are politically appointed as a bureaucratic elite accountable only to the Political Executive. In this research study, career autonomy is used to explain the difference between the bureaucratic elite and the professional managers.

**Cadre:** The term cadre refers to the core membership of Vladimir Lenin’s *Vanguard Party*, a “political party or grassroots organization at the forefront of a mass action, movement, or revolution.” These members are supposedly “professional activists having no other duties” interfering with their revolutionary commitments (Wikipedia, 2007). The Chinese Communist classification implies that political cadres are dedicated party members recommended at the next high level of organisation or appointed to high positions according to seniority (China Today, 2002). This traditional system of cadre appointment has seen reform establishing a system of open selection of leading cadres by public notification to solicit the opinions of the masses within a limited period of time. Regarded as a modern social administration concept, the new approach is considered to be an acceptable democratic form in China (China Today, 2002).

**Competency-Management:** It is important that the government institutions retain the knowledge, skills and experience it has developed over a period of time to be able to promote professionalism. Kamoche (1997:272) defines Competency-Management as the “process involved in cultivating the requisite stock of knowledge” the organisation needs to improve its performance. Fidello (2004), explains that “competencies are the knowledge and skills required to achieve desired performance outcome” in the organisation. Whilst recognizing that Competency Management is a strategic part of “integrated Human Resources [HR] processes and systems”, its application in this research is more toward strategic consideration and policy intervention for Public Service reform (Fidello, 2004).

**Democracy:** In terms of the “ancient wisdom”, democracy means “rule by the people” which in contemporary terms means “government by consent of the governed” (Unknown Author).

**Effectiveness:** For the researcher, effectiveness measures the quality of service delivery. In terms of the Namibian *Public Service Act, (Act 13 of 1995) Section*...Government
policies and directives are effective when promptly executed by a professional and impartial civil service. Cameron and Stone (1995:xii) define effectiveness as the “measure [of] achieving objectives or goals” of the organisation. Nze and Nkamnebe (2003) on “internalizing effectiveness” in Africa’s public sector bureaucracies defined effectiveness as the “achievement of defined goals and objectives measured in terms of results”.

**Efficiency:** It entails that the public resources are optimally utilized so that efficiency is achieved in the delivery of services. Efficiency for the researcher refers to cost-effective delivery of service whereby public servants must ensure that the public duties are efficiently carried out in the “most economical fashion” whilst ascertaining quality for money (Cameron and Stone, 1995: xii). Cameron and Stone (1995:xii) defined efficiency as “output at the lowest cost”. The public servants are “guided by the social implications of all their actions rather than by the profit or loss guiding private managers” (Cameron and Stone, 1995: xii).

**Ethics:** For the researcher ethics is in essence referring to “loyalty to duty and to the government as a whole” (Baroukh and Kleiner, 2002:33). In philosophical terms, ethics is the “study of moral judgment of right and wrong conduct” (Cameron and Stone, 1995:74-75). It is, therefore, worthwhile defining ethics in terms of “moral behaviour” to determine the developed “human personality” in relation to the organisational culture.

**Managerial Development:** It entails the development of required administrative and managerial capabilities in civil servants (Dixon, 1996).

**Managerial Reform:** It is the process of administrative reform entailing the adoption (in public administrations) of business management techniques, greater service and client orientation, market mechanism, and competition (Kickert, 1995:1). In the researcher’s view, the Managerial Reform implies a complete transformation of the generic management competency required of Senior Civil Servants for “performance fit” in the Public Service (Donaldson, 2001:9-13).

**Merit System:** This is the principle of public personnel administration system based on the civil service rules to ensure that transparency and consistency are maintained (Klopp, 2002:1-2). It entails the public’s expectations of a system that is efficient, effective, fair, open to all, free from political interference, and staffed by honest, competent, and dedicated employees (USA Merit Protection Board, 1997). It is the condition of “appointments based on open competitive examination” of aspiring individuals that entails political neutrality of the bureaucracy (Ruhil and Camoes 2003:3).

**National Reconciliation:** It is a policy adopted in Namibia to ensure peace and justice in the post-independence society. Pankhurst, (http://www.jstor.org/sici) says that it carries dual meaning: “abandonment of violence and commitment to peaceful coexistence; [and]
implication of compromise – that such an acceptance requires sacrifice and some element of active persuasion or coercion” to maintain peace and social justice.

**Neocolonialism:** As defined in Wikipedia (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neocolonialism), “Neocolonialism is a term used by post-colonial critics of developed countries' involvement in the developing world...[and] argue that existing or past international economic arrangements created by former colonial powers were or are used to maintain control of their former colonies and dependencies after the colonial independence movements of the post World War II period”. It implies that powerful countries capitalize on dependency relations to sanction conditions of exploitation of natural resources and people of independent former colonial territories.

**Organizational Development (OD):** It is both a theory entailing the “Action Research [which] is a time-honoured procedure for systematically improving [the] organizations”, and a “tool” for the empirical study of organisations essentially useful to the researcher for describing the reform impacts from the insider’s perspective (Wiley, 2003:1). It is also the method applied to identify the problem involving members of the organisation (in other words consultation) whereupon the information collected is communicated (feedback) to members for action plans to solve the problem (Wiley, 2003:4). The “steps of the Action Research” enlightens the understanding of the organization’s future opportunities and advantages crucial for strategic planning, implementation and evaluation. When the OD is adapted to for practical experimentation, it minimizes the stressful experience of dealing with suspicious unforthcoming officials and removes mistrust among members.

**Pass Law System:** It is an apartheid regulation (law) requiring Blacks residing or intent to visit the towns inside the Police Zone to carry special permits issued by the Office of the SWA Native Commissioner and later Commissioner for Bantu Affairs (Carroll, 1967:6).

**Performance Fit:** The term refers to the capacity of the organisation to remain compatible with change. Donaldson (2001:9-13) explains that the organisational size and structures need transformation to fit high performance (rather than experience a misfit, causal to performance loss). It entails the devise strategies in response to changes in the operational environment to improve performance (Donaldson, 2001:9-13).

**Police-Zone:** The term refers to the land area inside South West Africa (present Namibia) “retained” for the White population “after the Bantustans are excised from the territory” (D’Amato, 1966: 4-5). Black Namibians had no rights in the Police Zone demarcated on the Pre-Independence Namibia – Bantustan Map.

**Professional Manager:** For the researcher, being professional manager is measured by competencies, developed consciousness for articulating organisational performance and
adaptability to public service ethics. It entails the characteristics of a “new type of entrepreneurial professional manager [who has] little loyalty to institutions, highly paid, overworked, insecure and job-hopping” (Misztal in Dent and Whitehead, 2002:19). Misztal, 2002: 19; Leinberger and Tucker, 1993: 367 concurred that the new professional managers are self-interested, adventurous and seeking change.

Professionalism: This is the application of market principles and decisions making practice based on consumer interest. The “[p]rofessional activity needs to be organized by professional managers” (Boyask, Boyask and Wilkinson, 2006). Putting professionalism in the Public Service context implies that the professional managers should be accountable for the consequence of action and are ever available to rectify the errors within relevant policy frameworks.

Public Service Motivation: It is important that the Public Service Motivation phenomenon is explained to banish the mystique around the preferences of previously disadvantaged Namibians seeking public service employment. Perry (2000: 471) defines Public Service Motivation as “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in the public institutions and organizations”. This study associates the Public Service Motivation with job security and the politically sanctioned tenure of office in Namibia.

Public Service: This is the system of work done for public good within the public sector, be it at local, state/provincial/regional or national/central levels of government (Baroukh and Kleiner, 2002:28). The Public Service is systematically transformed through the streamlining and down sizing to a manageable size so as to enhance the performance and, thus, productivity of its employees. For the researcher, this entails the public service to be conceptually analyzed in a reform perspective.

Recruitment and Selection: This is a complex process of attracting prospective job applicants for job openings, while selection is the process of choosing from the pool of job applicants the right type of person preferred for the job (Baroukh and Kleiner 2002:28). The author defines recruitment as the process of inviting and assessing the suitability of individual competences (personality traits, skills and knowledge) compatible with the organization’s strategic requirements; and, selection as a prerogative exercise to choose from among the potentials (equally qualified), a candidate with most preferred qualities appropriate for the job in a hierarchically structured organization.

Self-Efficacy: It entails the person’s self-beliefs in his or her ability to perform specific tasks (Apperbaum, 1996:33). As people are making intelligent choices when applying for jobs, they “attempt to look attractive” to the prospective organisations (Baroukh and Kleiner 2002:28). Self-efficacy beliefs are considered to be the outcome of a process of weighing, integrating, and evaluating information about one’s capabilities, which, in turn, regulate the choices people make and the amount of effort they apply to a given task.
The term was used in the research to determine the caliber and identify the type of people who are vying for top posts in the Public Service.

**Spoils System:** This is the system of “public Personnel System” for a democratic model of government such as the USA Federal and State Governments in the 1830’s, whereby “people in public positions were counted on to faithfully administer its policies” (Klopp, 2002:1).
MAP 1: AFRICA

Geo-Political Map of Namibia
MAP 2: PRE-INDEPENDENCE NAMIBIA

Physical and Administrative Map
MAP 3: PRE-INDEPENDENCE NAMIBIA

Bantustans / Homelands and Police Zone Map
MAP 4: POLITICAL MAP OF NAMIBIA

13 Administrative Regions
MAP 5: DEMOGRAPHICAL MAP OF NAMIBIA

Population Density of Namibia (inhabitants per km²)
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 (Map1), 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**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total population (excluding Walvis Bay)</td>
<td>1,409,920</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population growth rate (annual average, 1981-91)</td>
<td>3.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population per square kilometer</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural population*</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural growth rate</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban growth rate</td>
<td>5.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males per 100 females</td>
<td>94.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population under 15</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population over 65</td>
<td>4.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 Gaingob 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. Germany 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 forebade 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 neocolonialism 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:

1. Inquire 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. Alarminly, 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 endependence 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 Trustship 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 Otiole 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 25\textsuperscript{th} 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 28\textsuperscript{th} 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 \textit{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 Trustship 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 trustship 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
University of Pretoria – Nghidinwa, A N (2007)

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 Namibian. 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
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.
CHAPTER TWO

METHODOLOGY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

A sound research in social science is guided by different theories to produce scientific knowledge of the social world. Theories, otherwise known as principles, have been adopted for this study to help analyze the facts about the phenomena being investigated. The objective is to establish the truth posited in theory and, using facts, to prove the reality – what presents the phenomenon in the real world. Reality is the intended results usually based on phenomenological conception of object (being world) and consciousness (perceived world). Phenomenology, the study of relationship between the object and the consciousness, is the philosophical grounding, which was applied in this research. Depending on what the research is intended to achieve, the causal theory – cause and effect relationship – of independent variable and the dependent variable or phenomena can be introduced to the study. The understanding is that when the researcher employs any of these patterns, it is referred to as methodology of research that might have links in historical perspectives or even have effect in the daily experience.

Methodology conceptions are broad and interfaced with narrowly styled methods of collecting data. As outlined in the Introduction Chapter, this normative study is using techniques such as participatory observation, focused group discussions or semi-structured/questionnaire interviews and informal face-to-face interviews, and analyzing data for factual information. Facts are presented in the data collected using methods that are supportive to the research topic and the research question. Within methods, the researcher identifies relevant techniques of issue identification, sampling, and data coding for primary data, and accessing documental sources of secondary data.
This chapter is dedicated to the methodology of the study. A single case study has been adopted for the research for the purpose of studying the effects of reform on cadre appointments in the Central Public Service of Namibia. Qualitative research methods were used in collecting data, which is different from quantitative data as defined in the sections below. Important aspects of the research design are also discussed these sections.

The methodology inducts the study with fundamental philosophical conceptions for better articulation of research methods. Conceptual analysis presented as a generic method in this research implicitly sought to understand the reform of public service in philosophical terms. The reform process was observed and experienced as it takes place in the natural setting, but knowledge of the conception behind the reform was still needed. It became apparent that the knowledge should basically come from philosophical groundwork of research methods (Wilson, 2007).

Public Service appointments conversely need further elaboration beyond concept definition and terms explanation, hence, the investigation on real life experience to collect and analyse primary data. Methodology is, therefore, the domain for scientific application of theory, approaches, and methods useful for the analysis of data in this research study.

2.2 METHODS

Methods adopted had to be clearly explained to avoid ambiguity. The author is cautious about detailed dialogue but also conscious of implications if the methods are not clearly stated. The methods are scientific bases for collecting and analysing data. As methodological constructs, methods of research are systematic but vary with investigations in natural science and social science. It was, therefore, important to identify the methods before conducting the research from the classified:

- Experimental research method which is common in Natural Science;
2.2.1 Experimental Research Method

The experimental research method is popular with natural science where the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable can be controlled (Kumssa in Ngau and Kumssa, 2004:7). Experimental research characteristics quantify the results and are measurable in quantitative methods, hence, the identification with quantitative research typology. Scientists conduct natural science tests and experiments using this method.

2.2.2 Historical Research Method

This method is used to collect existing data on past events and analyse such information to learn about the causes, effect, and trends as might be reflected in the phenomena (Kumssa in Ngau and Kumssa, 2004:7). An example of historical research is the conduct of situational analysis for planning purposes in organisation and management studies. This research method can quantify measurable outcomes and generalize the relationship between variables or lead to outcomes that cannot be measured or generalized. It means that quantitative and qualitative evaluations can be combined in a historical method. Relative to this case study was the Wages and Salary Commission (WASCOM) 1995 study on the historical causes of the burgeoning Public Service after independence and the predicted future trends in public expenditures on wages for public employees. The historical method could take the WASCOM investigations back to the stage of integration of former homelands administrations employees into the mainstream public service structures as recognized causes of higher public expenditures on public personnel. This finding might have entailed a situational analysis on current state of public service and a prediction on future trends. Quantitative methods would simply apply because the type of data collected could have been subjected to measurement and generalization. Nonetheless, where qualitative data occurred that may not be subjected to such generalization and measurement despite its validity and combination to add meaning to
the study, empirical methods would apply. To achieve this difficult combination, the researchers might have adopted a multiple cases studies.

Kumssa explained that normative research is applied in social science where the control of independent variable in human behaviour is not possible, leading to analysis of causal and effect relationship (Ngau and Kumssa, 2004:7). Placed in context, normative research can be applied to the study of appointments in the public service.

2.2.3 Normative Research Method

A normative research method has been adopted for the research. The method responds to the research question formulated in conjunction with the statement of research in Chapter one on the background of study. Adopting normative research method does not contradict with the formative deterministic orientation of the study. The purpose of having both models is to collect and analyze the relevant data and integrating such data as a part of the research focus in a case study. Depending on conclusions drawn from the interpretation of data into information, it is established whether or not a cause and effect relationship exists between independent variables and dependent variables. This relationship is systematically explained using the Grounded Theory that is generalization about the phenomena, which is empirically tested for consistency or inaccuracy (Ngau and Kumssa, 2004:8).

The Multiple-methods application necessitated a delimitation of published sources and field survey sources to qualitative data, which is information that describes the quality of a phenomenon under investigation using affirmative terms such as good, and yes, or non-affirmative terms, bad and no, for the analysis of the collected data (Ngau and Kumsssa, 2004:8).
2.3 QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE RESEARCH TYPOLOGIES

Research approaches in quantitative and qualitative domains differ in ways of application. Ngau and Kumssa (2004); Mugenda and Mugenda (2003); Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, (1996) held that:

- Quantitative research produces quantifiable and numerical data, deductive in nature and deals directly with operationalization, the manipulation of empirical variables, prediction and testing. [Other issues being] emphasis on methodology; procedure; and statistical measures of validity.
- Qualitative research is limited to producing data in the form of statements or words rather than numbers… [But] deductive in nature and uses field research methods, primary case studies and participant observations within natural settings (Ngau and Kumssa, 2004:6-7).

2.3.1 Quantitative Research Typology

Quantitative evaluation as presented in Mouton (2001:137-139), namely: the world of everyday life (pragmatic interest) and lay knowledge; the world of science (epistemic interest) and scientific research; and, the world of meta-science (critical interest), is linked philosophically to realism and positivism meta-sciences. As a methodological approach, quantitative paradigm (structured) is applied in the real world to reflect the everyday life of an outsider (real-life objective). Quantitative paradigm (outcome focusing) is not being applied to this research as qualitative paradigm (descriptive oriented) is in use, and thus the two cannot by choice be mixed without confusing the mode of reasoning. For this reason, it is logical to choose the qualitative methods for data collection and analysis.

2.3.2 Qualitative Research Typology

The design chosen for this research study follows Mouton’s (2001:146) classification framework on dimensional typology relevant to qualitative evaluation of the empirical data. The aim is to “describe and evaluate” reform programmes in the Public Service
setting. It requires adaptation to descriptive methodological approaches peculiar to empirical research. Thus, in essence, it entails that the multi-model should be adopted to reflect the political and organisational (business) perspectives of the case study. The typology on qualitative evaluation approach (Appendix 1) presents Mouton’s definition and detailed characteristics of the qualitative (‘naturalistic’) evaluation approaches, and the qualitative (ethnographic) research case study model (Appendix 2).

A comparison of major qualitative approaches is also presented with Advantages and Disadvantages categorically stated (Appendix 3). Since inductive and a-theoretical modes of reasoning are partially dealt with in this Chapter, the rest of the contents of the typology referred to are discussed according to their importance in the sections below.

2.3.2.1 Qualitative Research Approaches

A set of qualitative approaches has been identified as applicable and adopted from Rogelberg for different dimensions throughout the research (Appendix 1). The magnitude of qualitative application (Appendix 3) is presented with a brief discussion on strengths and weaknesses in the following paragraphs.

- Ethnographic Research
- Action Research
- Case Studies

a) Ethnographic Research

Ethnography is learning about groups of people usually in small numbers and one social setting (Rogelberg, 2002:111). Cultural theory is commonly used to explain phenomena in sociological studies (Appendix 3). Participant observation is the key technique besides several general applications in this method. Although ethnographic approach has little effect on this research in comparison to the case study approach, it nevertheless holds an answer to the non-explained phenomenon of previously disadvantaged citizens seeking public service employment. Race-relations among stratified social groups were
highlighted in Chapter one, and documentary evidence still proves that until independence ethnic grouping continued to overburden the size of the lower ranks of the “government” service. Strength of the ethnographic approach is its characteristic to study the social interactions of members of a society, and cultural values as affecting their daily life practice. Nonetheless, its methodical relevance in sociology does not necessarily enhance a holistic approach desired for this case study.

b) Action Research

Action Research approach is defined in Brewerton and Millward (2002:13) as essentially a problem solving process, appropriate to any situation where any specific knowledge is required to address a specific problem or when a new approach is to be introduced into an old system. Applying the Action Research Model in a given research process would enhance the improvement of research participants’ situation over a long time (2002:13).

The research for empirical evidence takes the Organisational Development (OD) approach that empowers members to participate in ‘issue definition’ and plan action for improving the functioning of their organisation. A number of issues were put into consideration before adopting qualitative methods of empirical studies to determine the level of technical competency and its management in the Public Service of Namibia. One particular reason for identifying Action Research is that there is a close but parallel relationship between the methodological application of the qualitative paradigm and participatory technique.

This method is applied to identify the problem involving members of the organisation (in other words consultation) whereupon the information collected is communicated (fed back) to members for action plans to solve the problem (Wiley, 2003:4). Action research, therefore, is a tool in the application of the Organization Development (OD) Theory to research processes. The OD is the “application of the scientific method of fact-finding to practical problems requiring action solutions” in any organisation as may be “required”
by permanent members (Wiley, 2003:4). OD process is supposedly an element of Action Research that empowers staff-members to initiate change in consultation with an outside expert for the effective functioning of their organisation. Wiley’s (2003:1) view the OD approach is empowering members of the organisation to:

[I]dentify and solve their own problems…distinguished from expert consulting …OD-Action research is an ideal instrument for consultants…to hybridize abstract research with [internal] action to solve problems…

Thus, Action Research is a model for improving the organizations. Wiley, (2003:1) defined OD as sub-activity of Action Research, “a time-honoured procedure for systematically improving organizations”. In practice, the model has the following values:

- [A]ction research is an essential tool for behavioral scientists who are conducting organizational-improvement interventions.
- In their classic… [definition,] ‘the basic intervention model that runs through most organization development effort’.

The OD entails the internal survey to unearth institutional-level rather than individual job-level motives leading to explaining public service appointments phenomenon. When adopted for practical experimentation, the OD approach minimizes the stressful experience of dealing with suspicious unforthcoming officials and removes mistrust among members. Understanding “steps of the action research” entails a better view of the organization’s future opportunities and advantages crucial for strategic planning, implementation and evaluation. We are not going into debates based on this classification as we have already focused on Organization Development (OD). Therefore, beginning with the dialogue in Chapters three and four, the researcher in examining secondary data literature, reinforces the choice of Grounded Theory as the basic theory for understanding Public Service appointments based on merit system and cadre-principles, which are in contradiction with competency-management approaches.

In a case study, action research that is synonymous with OD would help to deduce merit-based appointments as the basis for enhancing efficiency and professionalism. In applying qualitative research approaches one could choose to empower the insider or participant by using techniques that are non-quantitative but “collaborative and...
participatory [in] nature” (Appendix 1). Action research (OD) is partially useful to guide empirical research for evidence on organizational sub-units that might not fit in with this study.

c) Case Study

Case study approaches can be applied in many contexts as a qualitative method. Tellis (1997:3) observes that: Case study incorporates the views of the ‘actors’ in the case under study. Case study can be “single-case design [or] multiple-case design – replicating the pattern matching [of cases] rather than [issues] sampling logic” (Tellis, 1997:4). Rogelberg (2002:110) recognizes that in the study of organization the object is a single or several organizations, an organizational sub-unit, or a particular organizational practice such as selection, the latter being the focus of this study. Tellis (1997:3) further contributed that: The Case Study Method satisfies the fundamental doctrine of qualitative methods, being describing, understanding and explaining.

Rogelberg (2002) and Stake (1995) distinguished three types of Case Study: intrinsic case studies focus on understanding and describing the uniqueness of a particular case; instrumental case studies [that] are concerned with understanding substantive issues for their potential to advance theory; and Yin’s (1984) collective case studies are distinguished by their choice of multiple cases for instrumental purposes. These multiple-models are useful for addressing problems in service oriented organizations.

A single case study on appointments in the central government emphatically presents the design type fundamentally considered for this research. For these very purposes, this chapter was composed to design and present a research typology for scientific explanation of the competency gap in the existing bureaucracy.
2.4 THEORETICAL GROUNDING

In defining the theoretical grounding for the research, the researcher adopts the theory that is approximate to reality – true facts of the phenomena being investigated. To come up with accurate information, a survey of sources such as library data bases and internet has to be conducted using a Literature Review and information validation technique. Based on facts as presented in the empirical data, the researcher justifies the choice of theory to articulate the scientific analysis of the findings.

Theory frameworks for study include: Organization Theory (organization behaviour), Organization Development Theory (functioning improvement / organisational change), Grounded Theory (meaning-making and experiences process) and Contingency Theory (organisation environment) help to explain organisational behaviour. Wide ranges of applied research models are informed by these theories in many meaningful ways. Given the multitude of conceptual frameworks that may result from this mix, it would be conceivable to hybrid between the Organisation Theory of which Organization Development is a sub-division and the Grounded Theory and Contingency Theory. Thus, the theoretical perspectives would be expanded.

2.4.1 Organization Theory

The Organization Theory: Taylor and Anderson (2000) have looked at the application of the Organisational Theory and Behaviour in a case study. They extended theorizing to organisational metaphors arguing that:

Each metaphor presents an advantage way of looking at organisations, depending upon the circumstances surrounding the particular organization’s situation…view Organization as organism…in relation to its environment. As the environment changes, the organization responds and adjusts to a new equilibrium point.
The Organization Development Theory proponents have advanced the Action Research as a radical approach on transformation of institutions. Action Research could be applied to study a specific public service issue as a subset of the Organisation Theory. Since this research would particularly look at the pragmatic approach to the management of government business as a form of democratic governance, this approach should perhaps serve as the departing point. Moreover, moving away from incremental change that only improves performance rather than enhancing the institutional reform entails adopting a system approach in broader terms. That is when organization culture would be considered as an aspect fostering competency development. Conceptual frameworks may be difficult to define as the research problem extends deep into the structures and culture of the institution.

2.4.2 Contingency Theory

The Contingency Theory is concerned adoption responding to the operational environment. Taylor and Anderson construed that:

…Contingency Theory is a practical outgrowth of the organism metaphor…brain [metaphor, meaning] capacity to learn…and to anticipate change and self-organise through innovation…cultural metaphor [that] examines the aspects of organisational culture…[literally] ‘shared reality’ of the members: norms, values, expectations, and beliefs.

Fusion between Organisation Theory and Contingency Theory would possibly set off a hybrid that could constitute the analysis of findings. Grounding contrasting theories as a hybrid could pose a problem of generalizing the relationship between the variables. Given generalizability as a vital stage in quantitative research, theory choice should carefully try to remove ambiguity obvious in the analysis based on unscrupulous grounding.

2.4.3 Grounded Theory

The Grounded Theory is a sociological qualitative research method that results in substantive theories that explain action in context (Rogelberg, 2002:113). The grounded theory is linked to Chassell’s Critical Incident Technique (CIT) study and contribution in
Symon and Chassell (1998:52, 54-55), firstly, to investigate the impact of culture on entrepreneurial/managerial behavior; secondly, for transcribing and coding of interviews, and thirdly, for analyzing the data (1998:60):

[T]he researcher may have developed or adopted a conceptual framework, which he/she wishes to test in the field. Grounded theory assumes, on the whole, that the researcher abandons preconceptions and, through the process of analysis, builds up an explanatory framework through conceptualization of the data…extant conceptual framework [nonetheless]…suggests a set of preconceived categories – a coding framework for which evidence may be sought in the data.

Locke (2001) and Blumer (1976) believe that the grounded theory approach is based on symbolic interactionism’s pragmatic conceptions that:

[E]ach and every aspect of inquiry process must be subjected to a test of the empirical world and has to be validated through such a test …The kind of issues appropriate for study are those that are relevant and problematic in the social situation studied (Locke, 2001:25).

This methodological approach of grounded theory is useful to the research process. The researcher will still find a realistic solution to the problem as grounded theory is identified with data interpretation in case studies. Because there is a possibility of empirically testing and validating the findings, the adoption on these bases, is justified. Thus, the choice was not merely impromptu but an objective decision to provide a relevant theoretical grounding for the research. In the end, only a realist approach would remain synonymous with this research, as the flexibility in the application of grounded theory allows further postulation without contradiction. Other theories under the spotlight could not provide a stable theoretical grounding for the research.

2.6 RESEARCH APPROACH

Discussing a number of approaches isolates and eventually eliminates the characteristics that cannot work in tandem with the chosen theory. Grounded theory applies to almost any kind of environment in the organization making the choice of approaches more complex and challenging. Several approaches are looked at in this section to examine their validity for the research but only one emerges reliable for research purposes.
Symon and Chassell’s (1999) have advanced the Life Histories Research Method useful in the application of qualitative methods. The Life History technique, upon which the questionnaire was partially built, implies that, because individual lives move through changing history and organisational structures, culture and societies, they can provide an understanding of the change process within organizations and their environmental settings (Symon and Cassell, 1999:12). The model allows checking the validity of research explanations imbedded in assumptions and theoretical frameworks against meanings of real life experience through the scrutiny of organisational members.

This interaction brings us closer to the Action Research Approach where organisation members are empowered participants in the solution of the identified problem. Thus, the choice of the Life History technique, to start with, provides an option to see whether the statement of research resonates with and informs the senior civil servant participants’ own understanding of their subjective experience (1999:12).

The self-administering questionnaire was designed to search for the background and experience of participants and the profile of the organisations they have served or are continuously serving. Again this brings the research to the point of empowerment evaluation discussed in a separate paragraph below.

### 2.5.1 Empowerment Evaluation

This qualitative evaluation is based on interpretive meta-theories that are fundamental in Fetterman’s (2001) work as presented in a book reviewed by Peters (2003). The resulting critique reflects a lack of rigor in the methodology, and thus, is believed to be less effective. Fetterman’s writing appears again in the book review by Wild, who pointed out that empowerment evaluation can empower the client system, referring to programmes being evaluated for funding. This conclusion brought to light the limited extent of the empowerment evaluation particularly where “larger structural issues that limit the extent
of self-determination” apply (Wild’s Book Review of Fetterman, Kaftarian and Wanderman, 1996: xi and 411). In comparison, our purposes are quite different from empowerment evaluation for a community or social project. Nevertheless, larger structures such as institutions lend themselves to the qualitative evaluation in as much as Action Research and Organisational Analysis Approaches empower their members to participate. Scriven (1997) regards early definitions of empowerment evaluation as those that are:

[P]erfectly consistent with the use of evaluation as a tool by those with power, to require that programs being evaluated foster self-determination in those being served by the program without in any way involving the program staff in the evaluation.

Self-determination is a conceptual description of emancipation of empowered programme participants to do the evaluation of their programme requirements and needs with outsider evaluators only acting as consultants. Adopting this conception demands efforts to involve junior ranked officials to provide adequate evidence that could reflect their experience with the transformation of the public service. The definition may leave out self-determination for the time being to allow the validation of empowerment evaluation at a rather larger structural issue level such as the OPM. Alternatively, the ambiguity that comes with the limited conception of self-determination would complicate the empirical evaluation to the point of rejecting the outcome of the action research. Self-determination will be discussed under structured interviews as part of explanation for why the technique takes different conceptual approaches to collect and eventually evaluate the empirical data.

A new definition, which Scriven considers generically relevant, was identified in his book review of Fetterman’s writing on the subject. The review suggests that: Empowerment evaluation ‘is designed to help people to help themselves and improve their program using a form of evaluation and reflection. Program participants could conduct their own evaluations and typically act as facilitators. [Thus,] an outside evaluator often serves as a coach or additional facilitator ’. This definition supports the methods adopted for the collection of qualitative data but lacks the accuracy to generate
information be integrated in the analysis. The questionnaire technique is important for contacting the participants who are scattered in various departments of the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM), which is the central institution of governance.

Empowerment in this particular case study resonates with the culture and practices of the organisation or institution. If bureaucracy were ostensibly pervasive in the institution, then the behavior of organization members would be influenced accordingly. The applicability of empowerment evaluation, therefore, would enhance chances of access to the unit of analysis. The participants have a greater degree of self-determination in deciding what answers to give and which questions to respond to. Thus, induced freewill to reflect on their life history, critical incidents (experiences) with change in organisation environment, and structural transformation processes constitute an empowerment evaluation.

Empowerment evaluation is related to an empirical study based on implementation process as a method. This method is not entirely process evaluation focused, but is also partly qualitative in nature and has an element of empowerment evaluation. Keen and Packwood (1995) suggested that ethnography only comes in at the policy analysis level, seeking to explain the impact of intervention. Keen and Packwood (1995) further observed is that:

> Empirical evaluative studies are concerned with placing a value on an intervention or policy change, they typically involve forming judgments … about the appropriateness of an intervention for those concerned about whether their inputs and processes justify the outputs and outcomes of interventions.

If the case study method was adopted with the critical incident as a specific analytical technique, having in mind the “political and institutional setting” of the Public Service Reform, it would then help to determine whether an emphasis on a particular technique may have implications for the political process (Hogwood and Gunn, 1996:6). The issue definition and problem identification stages for this research, composed in the statement of the research problem, are the starting point for political debate, which is the
appropriate form of analysis (1986:6). Therefore, the implementation stage and the evaluation stage of the policy process serve as frameworks for qualitative judgment in this analysis (Hogwood and Gunn, 1986:4-6).

The judgmental techniques are largely concerned with forecasting possible future on the basis of intuitive judgments that have no additional theoretical value other than ‘soft’ qualitative statements arising from intuitive judgments (Hogwood, 1986:135-6). Keen and Packwood (1995: 2) concluded that: Case Study evaluations are valuable where broad, complex questions have to be addressed in complex circumstances. No one model is sufficient to capture all salient aspects of an intervention, and the case studies typically use multiple methods that are qualitative or quantitative. The methods that have been discussed in this chapter contribute to the collection, validation and analysis of data before reporting on the findings. The complexity of an empirical study as per Keen and Packwood requires that a case study is conducted, but other models too must be adopted for qualitative evaluation. Thus, every model cited is defined to determine their relevance to this case study research. Therefore, models in use might support the research objectives at any stage of the investigation, and judgmental techniques, in particular may be integrated in the thin layers of the analysis section.

2.5.2 Fourth Generation Evaluation Principles

Guba and Lincoln (1989) provide alternative approaches to evaluation of programmes with possible solutions to the dilemma associated with self-determination in large structures. They argue that the “Fourth Generation evaluations are never completed. They pause until a further need and opportunity arises” (Guba and Lincoln, 1989:4). The OPM and O/M/A have mechanisms in place such as the ECU that monitor efficiency and evaluate on a continuous basis programs based on *Charter for Public Service in Africa* and the *Public Service Charter of Namibia*. The claims, concerns, and issues of stake holding audiences are the basis of organizing of Fourth Generation evaluation (Guba and Lincoln, 1989:4). Their methodology is the constructionist paradigm. Case studies affecting groups of people in organisational hierarchies identify stakeholders at risk in the
evaluation process; provide context; and, methodology for qualitative evaluation (Guba and Lincoln, 1989:4).

2.5.3 Nature of Empirical Evidence

The focus of empirical research involves a normative inquiry into the life history of participants, their experience with the changing environment, structural transformation, culture, and practices of their organisations. The evidence comes in narrated stories, observed events over a period of time, and documented occurrences. Documentation is basically the records kept or circulated to communicate directives, procedures, and policy guidelines that are subjective to amendments. A description that fits this type of evidence in its original form and when literally analyzed is documental evidence (Appendix 4). This classification may not necessarily substitute for a literature review because the methods followed in a case study fundamentally serve to determine what particular sources are accessed with the purpose of collecting data consistent with the analysis stages. Thus, the nature of empirical evidence is pertinent to functional issues in the existing organisations, establishments and structures.

Archival and primary data collection has produced vital documental evidence that forms part of the data evaluation in Chapter four (Appendix 4). Additional documentation collected during the information verification interviews with the participants and the results were simultaneously subjected to empirical evaluation.

2.6 RESEARCH DESIGN

Adopted from MacMillan and Schumacher (1984), Ngau in Ngau and Kumssa (2004) held that design is the way a study is planned and contacted. A researcher must outline the title of the research, purpose and problem statement, objectives of his/her research and methods of data collection and analysis in a logically designed plan. In exception of the methods featuring in this section, other elements of the design are presented in Chapter one.
2.6.1 Data Collection

Qualitative research designs follow their characteristic of collecting statements from the subjects describing the objects of research in a peculiar manner. Instruments used in data collection essentially must reflect the validity of such designs. As the type of data being collected can not be measured, a descriptive design was adopted.

The method used to gain access to the sources involved the identification of officials in high positions of authority in the departments forming the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM). A preliminary survey by telephone reached out to the Permanent Secretary, Undersecretary, Acting/Undersecretary, Director, and Deputy Director, all involved with the facilitation of policy proposals to the cabinet and policy implementation directives to the rest of the government structures namely Offices, Ministries and Agencies (O/M/A). Similar arrangements were completed for an interview with the Executive Director of the Central Governance Agency (CGA), an autonomous institution but accountable to the OPM, that is responsible for carrying out policy coordination between the central government and the parastatals. Parastatals are public corporations wholly or partially owned by the Government of Namibia. Then, to focus on decentralization as a policy tool for reform, two Chief Regional Officers, in other words Professional Managers of two selected Regional Councils, were also consulted.

The first phase was to deliver the letter of introduction and the questionnaire by hand, thus avoiding delays, and set up the follow-up verbal appointment one week apart. The second phase started with the confirmation of the appointment, and where necessary, adjustments were made by telephone. The contacts then took place after ascertaining that no obstacles or inconveniences might interrupt the interviews. Research ethics would be compromised if bureaucratic rigidity or personality cult were to dictate the terms of contacts with the participants.
The Department Public Service Information Technology Management (DPSITM) and Department Administration and Information Technology (DAIT), Department President’s Economic Advisory Council (DPEAC) and Emergency Management Unit (EMU) were excluded to maintain consistence in the research focus. Nevertheless, in as far as specialty descriptions of these departments denote, there is a strong relevance to competency-management for a professional civil service. But the data from this source is only relevant for the analysis of professional management initiatives. The site that could not render itself to empirical data evaluation was thus absolutely precluded from the analysis of findings. Therefore, the demarcation was necessary to ensure that the data collection could be evaluated qualitatively.

2.6.2 Semi-Structured Interviews: Questionnaire
This method is particularly based on the Questionnaire to collect primary data targeting persons serving in high positions such as Permanent Secretaries and Senior Professional Managers in order to capture the sense making of the past and the present individual experiences (Symon and Cassell, 1999:16). The questionnaire (Appendix 5) constitutes the semi-structured interview that is followed up in a face-to-face contact to verify the evidence gathered. The empirical evidence being collected will help the author to better understand the Public Service reform process particularly the implementation of the Recruitment Policy and “managerialism” initiatives entailing the filling of top and senior level posts in the Central Government of Namibia. The information and data collected by means of this questionnaire will be treated as confidential and no personal particulars or details will be revealed or published.

2.6.3 Face-to-face Interviews
This research technique by design involves no Focus Group answering specific open-ended questions that intend to evaluate policy supportive programmes in the natural setting with regard to the implementation process. As the Focus Group would be composed of the professional elite Permanent Secretaries and Under-secretaries
management cadre category, senior management cadre (Directors), and deputizing management cadres, group composition is not possible due to high bureaucracy at all afore-mentioned levels. The questions to be answered are those seeking to deduce evidence leading to the assumptions of the research statement and question. The second group is composed of junior public service officials in line for promotion to high posts. This group will assist in explaining the public service motivation phenomenon that attracts previously disadvantaged citizens to seek employment in the public service. The face-to-face interview technique will also assist to enlighten the researcher on how a certain breed of cadres is destined for high-ranking posts, excluding others who are equally qualified in terms of academic and Affirmative Action (AA) requisites.

Preference for the case study (*Appendix 3*) that entails peculiar semi-structured interviewing methods is imperative in this systematic collection of data to ensure research subjects – senior cadres in the Offices, Ministries and Agencies (O/M/A) targeted for empirical data on staffing and personnel development, are accessible. However, the time factor has been taken into consideration and the sampling and randomization, normally created for observation in Ethnographic Research Models, are not adopted for this research (*Appendix 3*).

The research statement and question assumptions presuppose the preference of political executives (cabinet ministers) that implicitly underpin cadreship principles and *or merit system* values in practical appointments of public service officials. It implies that a *pragmatic approach* preferred for the Public Sector developments in Namibia, would virtually seek workable solutions to such appointments in whatever form. According to Hogwood and Gunn (1986:227), what matters to politicians “is the success or failure of a programme they committed their reputation to. Thus, it is expected that the data presentation and analysis in Chapter five should unearth quasi-patronage practices that might have caused a skills gap in the bureaucracy.
2.6.4 Documental and Textual Data

The review of documental sources explores published data informing the research. It is a method of accessing records on the issues being investigated and basically serves as a conceptual framework for the study. The sources should be relevant to the situation or issue being investigated. The researcher must focus on issues that are related to the chosen topic.

The literature study has led to sources such as libraries and special collections at the National Archives in Windhoek. The University of Namibia (UNAM) Human Resources Center/Library is the main source besides the University of Pretoria (UP) Information Services Center/Library. These sources are being revisited from time to time as may be necessary for new and additional secondary data. The review of literature and textual analysis based on the online data collection has identified new sources. A considerable number of library sources have been consulted and listed in the bibliography compiled for this study.

For speedy reference, it became imperative to list the material in subject clusters, which are history, public administration, policy and management as they appear in the Bibliography. Periodicals and newspapers have been consulted when current events produced new evidence or views essential to back up the research. These sources range from the print media, namely The Namibian, The Republikein and New Era, to name only the standard ones, to the journals that cannot be ignored amid recent transformation in state power structures. All such sources have been acknowledged although their reliability is sometimes questionable and difficult to evaluate.

2.6.5 Delimitation

Hogwood and Gun (1986:6) have argued that Policy Analysis “techniques and processes” applications demarcate political and institutional settings. For our empirical research, it became imperative that recruitment policy be analyzed in an institutional setting not to
propose policy changes, as the political setting would imply, but to establish the pragmatic principles, their practicality and implications to the reform process. On these bases demarcation, therefore, defines the terrain of research and delimitation identifies sources to be consulted exclusively.

Since the research continuously requires adding new data for updating where appropriate, delimitation served to minimize chances of being dragged into meaningless research. The emphasis is to control data collection methods that differ between disciplines. Some of the research methods (eg. Qualitative and Quantitative) overlap a great deal mostly making distinguishing difficult. This Researcher avoided collecting quantitative data that is appropriate for the multiple case study models rather than a single case study. Besides that, this research did not use fieldworkers or clinical laboratory methods to obtain data. Policy documents and programmes not fully covered in Chapter three in the Literature Review have been listed (Appendix 4). The surplus information, which was compiled but became redundant after the evaluation, has been kept for future perusal.

2.6.6 Demarcation
Rogelberg (2002:164) defines the Focus Group Method as pre-selected groups of people participating in a facilitated discussion with the purpose of answering specific research questions that ultimately yield qualitative data for evaluation by the researcher. Nevertheless, Rogelberg further explained that the Focus Group and Interview Methods generate a general understanding of an issue or phenomenon without constituting a statistical representative survey. Basically, these research techniques are sufficient to unilaterally test the validity of empirical data collected on the basis of research question assumptions, against the real life experience as narrated by insiders.

Target groups being interviewed by questionnaire include top executives and management cadres in the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM). It is imperative that data collection is extended to Chief Regional Officers (professional managers or top public
servants) in two selected Regional Councils: Khomas and Otjozondjupa, all former Police Zone districts but transformed into second level governments implementing the Decentralization Process that is part of public service reform, as well as labor union officials in the Namibia Public Workers’ Union (NAPWU) and the National Union of Namibian Workers (NUNW). The latter mainly involves top office bearers for their advocacy of good governance in Namibia.

A demarcation of access unit for empirical research, as a prelude to data collection, was emphasized to establish limits and designate sites. The OPM structure is relatively big but only selected departments were targeted simply because the complexity of issues requires that data sources are specific and reliable. Indiscriminate data collection would obviously compromise quality and validity thus rendering such data only worth discarding. Essentially, demarcation is about creating the boundaries within which the research took place, in this case study, Cabinet Office, Department Cabinet Secretariat and Policy Analysis (DCSPA), Efficiency and Charter Unit (ECU), Department Public Service Commission Secretariat (DPSCS), and Department Public Service Management (DPSM).

Although other government offices, ministries and agencies could equally yield as much data as required for evaluation, focusing on the OPM is critical to the demarcation of the unit of analysis. Adding selected Regional Councils serves to provide sites where the life history technique is applicable with successful response. Important to state here is that, in both instances appointments are recommended through the Public Service Commission for approval by the Prime Minister and Regional Councils, respectively. The unions are collective bargaining units whose interests are at stake whenever Recruitment Policy intervention negatively impacts their members. The WASCOM was a case in question.

Documental evidence at hand, too, is all encompassing for a data presentation and analysis using the chosen theories. The complexity of methods, approaches and techniques may render the research ineffective to produce expected results. Therefore,
demarcation sets parameters for the research. This demarcation is an integral part of Chapter four.

2.7 SUMMARY

Qualitative research methods are dynamic processes, as presented in Appendix 1 and 2, 3, applying a variety of relevant models and theories in research approaches to empirical evaluation – naturalistic and empowerment evaluations. Hogwood and Gunn, (1987: 6-7) debate that: Value laden techniques used in policy analysis frameworks may be too complex for a single or multiple-case study. Political debates can ensue typically influencing issue definition for stages of analysis. Whilst political and institutional settings would help to determine whether particular techniques are most relevant to the desired result, it is the “technical” analysis techniques that explicitly bring the actor to a structured opportunity to explore issues and how to analyse an issue (1987:6). Policy analysis framework therefore helps to understand the Recruitment Policy in both political and institutional settings of the Public Service of Namibia. A debate in political and institutional context is necessary to differentiate between, but not separate the two settings, as both address democratic governance issues.

2.8 CONCLUSION

Introducing the single-case study approach for this research required a systematically defined methodology where-after the qualitative data collection methods were explicitly highlighted. This design involved the semi-structured interview by an open-ended questionnaire (Appendix 5) that is sent out in accordance with the methods detailed in the methodologies. The data collected is presented and analysed in Chapter five.

Chapter two objectives are to map-out the research design adopted from a wide range of options. As a methodology chapter, it outlines scientific methodologies, the composition
of theories, models, methods, approaches and techniques for the research. This creates the basis for the analytical frameworks crucial for meeting the research objectives.
CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON ADMINISTRATIVE REFORM

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The Public Management and Administration field, in essence, is broad, necessitating a specific study of theoretical frameworks. A review of conceptual literature and contemporary case studies material on structural transformation and policy reform was conducted to enlighten the research question and the statement of research. The existing knowledge was highlighted in terms of its relevancy to this research, thus enabling the incorporation of valid citation on previous experiences with civil service reform. Conceptual definitions by proponents usually do not provide generic approaches on administrative reform process, hence, the need for a focussed review of literature. The objective is to consult the theoretical material relevant to public service reform.

For any research, it is important to establish a relationship between theoretical and research perspectives (Procter, 2002) and identify gaps in the literature (Johnson, J. 1991). Varying views of different schools of thought cited must be contrasted so that what has happened over time helps to show how others handled similar problems in the past (Gerstenfeld, 2004). Philosophical or metaphysical nature of the phenomena being investigated, whether observable or unobservable, has to be proved early before the scientific knowledge of the object that is theory informed and the paradigms position used in the research is established, appropriately in the concept definition section.

Research in the Public Administration field must not overlook or underlook the societal imperatives – dynamics, which are underpinning public service reform. Political, social and economic imperatives of a given society determine the type of public administration
adopted for a particular developmental state. Each societal imperative would obviously contribute differently to the internal environment. This pattern is not common in every country as developed and developing societies likewise experience their unique situation where peace and stability enhance the conditions for reform.

In this review of theoretical literature, the author looked at liberal democracy, autocracy and aristocracy as administrative system models adopted for developmental states in Africa. At independence, many African nations had adopted developmental state models deemed optimal for political emancipation and social progress. However, the political economy of dependency relations with former colonial masters persisted despite efforts to improve bilateral ties with other countries for mutual economic benefits. Dependency was for post-colonial states the determinant of survival on the global arena. What was initially post-independence social and economic dynamic was soon transformed into an internal tool for change in favor of neo-colonialism. In face of economic challenges and lack of social progress internally, governments had resorted to multi-lateral relations that required structural adjustment as a condition for assistance. Countries like Egypt and Tanzania had, for instance, introduced radical reforms embracing ideologically oriented national socialism and African socialism to consolidate their economic independence.

The geo-political situation of the continent was afflicted by the East-West rivalry of the Cold-War Era leading many countries into intra-state political instability and civil wars. As a result, only few countries in Africa were able to adopt some of the administrative models defined herein bellow. Western democracy was gradually adopted in the Post-Cold-War Era when pragmatic lines of administration in many cases replaced the ideologically oriented African socialism and nationalism systems across the continent.

Influenced by the Post-Cold-War Era, the administrative reform process in Africa took a fast track to catch up with globalization. Governments started addressing democratic changes as they were introducing market economy. Countries in development transition have experienced a sudden transformation from autocratic regimes and authoritarian
democracies, to liberal democracies where pragmatism substitutes other forms of rational policy making and implementation. Adoption of New Public Management models pioneered in the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA) before the end of the Cold War has become a reform fashion, which is a new paradigm, for civil services the world over.

In this chapter, the author chose to review the literature on conceptual definitions that would unveil and help explain the public service appointment phenomenon. Then the conclusion enunciates the insights derived from the review of administrative reform.

### 3.2 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION SYSTEMS

Public administration is an ancient practice traced back to the 5th Century BC in the mandarin bureaucracy in China (Bayat and Meyer, 1994:5). Contemporary development in practical science of administration began with the publication by President Woodrow Wilson of the United States of America in 1887, reorienting the government from the spoils system (Bayat and Meyer, 1994:5; Gortner, 1981:5). The liberal democracy system adopted in America nurtured freedom of association in political spheres, social progress and economic prosperity. The citizens enjoy the freedom of choice manifested in the universal suffrage franchise, which is the constitutionally guaranteed right to vote in elections for the type of government of the day.

Administrative systems, classified as autocracy/aristocracy, democracy, spoils and meritocracy have development out of political, social and economic imperatives prevalent in any given society. Political spheres denote the environment in which the citizens exert influence on the management of public affairs. Social organization and institutions shape group interests that foster professional associations and formation of political parties. Economic dynamics of the society determine the social status of its members and thus their role in the political spheres. Every administrative system nurtures a public bureaucracy, “the salaried officials”, who make up the civil service (Hague and
Weber referred to organisation as having “internal structures” consisting of the supreme authority that is political, religious, profit-making business or charitable entity, and the administrative staff he called the bureaucracy (Gortner, 1981: 100-101). Bureaucrats occupy a “hierarchy of offices” on “free contractual relationship” with the employer, selected and appointed, not elected, on the basis of their “technical qualifications” (1981: 100). Thus, organization can be described as the integrated structures of authority with necessary competency to administer over the business of its entity.

Cloete (1994:167) referred to distinct staffing or personnel systems developed under different political milieus such as the autocratic system where public posts are reserved for the aristocracy; the democratic system where public officials are elected to office; the spoils system where patronage is a common practice to appoint public servants; and, the merit system where the public posts are subjected to open contestation. These theoretical perspectives will be highlighted in the review of relevant literature but only Merit System, which is the most modern of all systems listed, will form the base for analysing the staffing system applied in the Namibian Public Service.

3.2.1 Autocracy

Autocracy refers to the system of administration dominated by absolute power of one person, usually a monarch. The Autocracy System is a “form of government where a single individual holds unlimited power” (Cloete (1994:167). An emperor may rise to power due to hereditary line, but is referred to as an “autocrat rather than a monarch when his power overshadows his bloodline” (Cloete (1994:167). Wiley (2003: 22) defines autocracy as: the arbitrary rule of the ‘chiefs’ over the subordinates with ‘structures of domination,’ such as patriarchalism, feudalism, and charismatic authority, ‘which had no rational character’. Wikipedia (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/aristocracy)
presents autocracy as a system of multiple forms, totalitarian or military dictatorship, but which can also be liberal, allowing a significant amount of individual rights such as freedom of speech and private property. Cloete (1994:167) describes autocracy as the system where public posts are reserved for the aristocracy – a privileged class of citizens of the country or state under autocratic rule. The term autocracy can also refer to a country that is ruled in this manner, hence, the multiple-definitions of autocracy as:

- A form of monarchy in which, at least in theory, there are no constitutional restrictions on the power of the monarch;
- Political theory: one person rule, where the rule is hereditary, the government in question is a ‘monarchy’;
- Rule by one person with absolute power. Consensual – arriving at a decision or position by mutual consent;
- A country or state that is governed by a single person with unlimited power;
- A government in which one person possesses unlimited power;
- A political system governed by a single individual;
- A political theory favouring unlimited authority by a single individual (Cloete, 1994:167).

The definitions above provide a broad description of the type of organization in the autocratic society. Wikipedia (2007) compares autocracy with oligarchy – rule by a minority small group of powerful people, and democracy – rule by the majority of the people. The conclusion might be drawn here that a political system governed by a single individual, ironically fashioning centuries-old practice, forms the weakest type of government in the contemporary epoch. The most published autocracy in Africa was Ethiopia under the autocratic rule of Emperor Haile Selassie from the 1930–1936 and 1941 until 1974. Autocracy in Ethiopia depended on military loyalty and the bureaucracy largely appointed from kith and kin of the monarch. But as the economic imperatives of feudalism declined, the emperor’s power was eroded, pre-empting the ideologically inspired young military officers to “depose the ruler” (Wikipedia, 2007). The empire came to an end as a result of a “revolution” in 1974 that established a pro-communist government in Addis Ababa, headed by Colonel Mengistu Haille Mariam.
3.2.2 Democracy

Democracy, a translation from the Greek word *demokratia*, means rule by the entire body of citizens and originated from the political organization of the ancient Greek city-state of Athens (History Guide, 2007:4). Plato, a Greek philosopher, promoted the meaning of democracy, which to this date is inspiring modern scholars. Proponents have advanced different conceptions of democracy denoting the contexts in which it is applied. Direct democracy is participatory in that citizens enjoy political participation in voting on all major decisions, but no representatives are involved (Wikipedia/Democracy, 2007:2-3). This type of democracy is synonymous with small communities of civic organizations and large polity referendums.

Representative democracy, to the contrary, empowers electorates to elect representatives to a governing body, such as the constituency, to manage most of the public policy (Wikipedia/Democracy, 2007: 8). The commonwealth model of government mostly employs proportional systems of voting for representatives to the Local Authority Council.

Liberal democracy is based on free and fair elections of representative representatives to parliament, but only a relatively small representative body of the powerful elite is elected (Wikipedia/Democracy, 2007:3; 10). The system guarantees the protection of minorities, the rule of law (constitutional law), a separation of powers, and protection of individual liberties for all citizens, hence the liberal democracy as found in the USA political domain.

Social democracy fundamentally reflects a broad movement of socialist evolutions peculiar with social welfare states and the dictatorship of the proletariats (Wikipedia/Democracy, 2007:3). Contemporary social democracy evolved after socialist revolutions: Soviet democracy was a proletariat dictatorship for in a one-party state.
Democratic socialism – mainly adopted in states such as the former Germany Democratic Republic (GDR), formerly had bonds with communism and the social democracy in Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden) that are Western democracies with social welfare state systems. The use of the term democracy emphasizes the rule by people usually holding elections of representatives to governing bodies, usually structured governments, but with various forms of application. Despite this commonality, only the Scandinavian countries have notably had multiple-party types of elections. Renwick and Swinburn’s (1980:151) definition is that:

Democracy originally meant a system of government on the participation of all qualified in decision-making. It is now usually used to describe a political system in which the individual is involved in choosing a representative from competing political parties, or sometimes, from one party.

Cameron and Stone (1995: xii) describe democracy as the manifestation of the people influencing the government of the day by elections. Elections are either presidential, where the president of the country is elected, parliamentary, where political parties contest for seats in the parliament, or provincial/state/county/regional and local authority, where political parties contest for constituencies or the equivalent, to control subnational levels of government.

Fundamentally, electorates – citizens eligible to vote in an election – legitimise the victorious political party or coalition of parties to form the government. Renwick and Swinburn, (1980:152) view politics as the playing sphere for societal conflict about how problems are to be resolved and the methods to be used such as elections. Thus, in a democracy, the people must have the voting power – a political franchise guaranteed by the constitution of the country – to remove the government by some peaceful and orderly mechanism, usually elections (Cameron and Stone, 1995).
3.2.2.1 Institution

Cloete, (1994:73) referred to public institution arrangement as a hierarchical structure of offices and officials in place for implementing the laws passed by legislatures. This arrangement, where subordinates give account to their superiors, was given the term “public accountability” (1994:73). Furthermore, in this arrangement are workplace duties meant to prevent time being wasted and duplications of functions on the central government level (1991:74). Thus, a concept of public accountability refers to the management of public institutions and official behaviour of the executive officials guided by procedural codes or manuals designed to ensure that they act within prescribed frameworks and obey instructions (1994:74). A democratic government, as the body of executive function of the state, must have structures in place to serve the administration of the state and ensure democratic governance is sustained, and must deliver quality services to the citizens in an efficient and effective manner.

The literature contradicts the practicality of appointments devoid of open competition for the post. Citing Farnham and Horton (1996:168), the British system heeds a more systematic approach in that:

Recruitment should continue to rest upon the principles of fair and open competition, promotion on merit, a non-political civil service and an emphasis on personal characteristics of integrity, objectivity and impartiality, but there should be more explicit criteria for the selection, appraisal, development and promotion of all staff…

For career management and succession, planning undertaking similar principles, although not necessarily a replication thereof, should have been part of public service reform initiatives for developing competencies in a systematic way, to build up knowledge reserve for the Central Government. What is in place is the Charter for the Public Service in Africa, Article 5: Principle on political neutrality in respect to the government of the day. Nonetheless, the issue is, are all these being implemented?
3.2.2.2 Political Appointment

In both liberal and social democracies of Western Europe, relationship between ministers and the public servants is strongly embedded in political appointments of the bureaucracy. Senior public service employees are at the center of policy-making and policy-implementation, which in Hague and Harrop’s (2004: 299) definition implies bureaucratic accountability. They argued that:

[H]ierarchical control by a minister remains an essential part of bureaucratic accountability. Recognizing that senior bureaucrats should possess political craft, many established democracies now tend to staff important ministries with politically loyal and sympathetic civil servants.

Some readings cited have provided conceptual guidance crucial to this explicit analysis. According to Albanese (1981:640) accountability implies that managers (or management cadres) are accountable to their immediate superior for performance results in their area of responsibility. He argued that the reason for “manageable position” is to improve the efficiency and the effectiveness of the job performance of others, that is subordinates, peers, specialists who assist them in performing their job and the entire organization for competent performance (1981:14). He exerted further that accountability is an obligation on the part of the managers (or management cadres) to improve the quality of organizational function. That view held that accountability is literally a relationship of responsibility within the organization and outside the organization where managers use their social power to assist in setting standards for the entire social good, and that the “profession” of managers in public institutions and private sectors alike upholds high standards of conduct in the society.

Efficiency in New Public Administration as defined by Oman (1992:164) denotes producing the maximum output for a given level of input. Albanese (1981:15) defined efficiency as a ratio of output to input. This supports Oman’s (1992: 16-17) idea of doing well and without waste whatever is being done, and focuses on how work is done, what should be done, in a world of options. It is the “more, better, faster and cheaper” side of
performance. Efficiency is, thus, a concept related to productivity as well as to performance, which are separately related to any form of management functions such as staffing in the public institutions.

### 3.2.2.3 The Bureaucracy

The bureaucracy conception is rooted in Max Weber’s description of the organization through the study of the society. The term is widely used to describe officials in control of the public sector and administrators of the civic and private organizations. Characteristics, which are usually hierarchical, subordinate the bureaucracy to the supreme authority of the organizations. This kind of relationship implies the selection and appointment based on technical competencies of individual officials and neutrality in the exercise of delegated powers (Gertner, 1981: 100).

La Palombara (1963:14) writing on classic neutrality of the bureaucracy in political development and transformation suggests that:

> [R]esponsible neutrality would require that bureaucrats play a major role…in the implementation of programmes …in their definition and development into policies…the bureaucracy, particularly in its upper reaches, will always be deeply involved in the political process.

The resulting argument indicates that the classic Weberian conception of bureaucracy is an ideal formulation and not subject to empirical verification (1963:13). Thus, it is not compatible with all requirements of modern reform. The role of bureaucracy in modern political and socio-economic changes emphatically requires, as the central tendency, such Weberian public administration values: hierarchy, responsibility, rationality, achievement orientation, specialization and differentiation, discipline, and professionalization of the civil service (1963:10). But, the neutrality insisted on in the Weberian model partially conflicts with the realities of reform in developing countries.

For Riggs (in La Palombara, 1963: 120) what has become associated with public administration systems of highly industrialised and democratically pluralistic societies of
the Western World, (specifically Britain and the United States political power domains), is the habit of thinking of the bureaucracy as an instrumental apparatus for the execution of policies established through ‘political’, non-bureaucratic institutions. Comparably, Pfiffner and Presthus (1967:39) define bureaucracy in Western terms as a system of complex organisation(s), made up of a vast number of technical and hierarchical roles, used to carry out policies usually made by others, and peculiarly suited for large-scale operations, demanding from its members consistency, loyalty, and adaptability.

Chipeta (1997:2) defines policies as statements of objectives and the means of achieving them. Policy objectives must be translated into concrete goals or measurable targets. It entails the “use of intervention techniques known as policy instruments”, and thus “policy measures are the steps used to put policy instruments into effect” (1997:2). Hogwood and Gunn (1986:14) suggest that anything meriting the title policy must contain some element of purposiveness. Nine typical usages have been presented, but only “policy as a process” fits in with the “study of public policy” as the subject of reform (1997:18-19). Policy as a purposive course of action takes place in innumerable contexts basically explicit or implicit for political, economic, social purposes or in this case study, managerial objectives within public policy reform. For our purposes, therefore, policy may be denoted as an interaction or process that takes place over a period of time (1997:22).

Further elaboration indicates that policy is “subjectively defined” and many approaches, such as policy-making (legislation), policy-implementation, policy-reform, and policy-analysis, may be purposely applied. Nevertheless, Hogwood and Gunn (1997:23) added that it is the individual observer who subjectively perceives the interaction or process. From this view, the following must be benchmarked in this pursuit, that:

[P]olicy is often the cumulative outcome of many operational decisions or responses to problems first perceived at relatively very low levels of the organisation (Hogwood and Gunn, 1997:23)
Adomolekun (1993:38-39) questioned the applicability of the Weberian conception of a “career bureaucracy” whereby:

[C]ivil servants are expected to be politically neutral that would normally make them acceptable to a new set of political leaders taking over governmental powers in succession to a defeated incumbent leadership team. The obvious advantage here is that governments...political leadership teams...change, [but] the administration with its security of tenure remains, thus ensuring some measure of continuity and predictability in the contact of government business.

The advantageous application of the Weberian neutrality is prone to radical criticism from proponents of “rationalisation”, that is restructuring and staff reduction and streamlining of functions of the civil service. It is bound to come into conflict with the reformist view that inefficiency and ineffectiveness are due to “overlap and duplication of functions”, and unsustainable size of the public serves (NDP-1, 95-2000: 443). Thus, neutrality implies that the bureaucracy remain passive in the implementation of policies articulated by the political executive rather than proactive to influence change in the internal and external environments. The executive bureaucracy would, therefore, seek to maintain the status quo, where power “symbiosis” continues to guarantee them a professional relationship with the political leadership.

The review in this section covers the gap that leaves the dialogue incomplete and thus confusing if not defined. A few more concepts need further elaboration at issue level to capture relevant intervention techniques or instruments common to contemporary structural transformation in both technologically highly advanced and developing countries. While the review may not intensify the rounding up of every technique and instrument for definition, a wide range of descriptions is essentially given to zero-in on government measures planned or in place to implement executive decisions.

3.2.3 Meritocracy

Defined in Wikipedia (2007:1) as the system of distinction, with pure democracy based on merit, that is demonstrated ability and competence, not nepotism, which is the backing of wealth or family connection and class privilege, the meritocracy conception refers to
government or other organisations and competitive societies. Radical views opposing the meritocratic conception have emerged lamenting that a meritocratic class monopolizes merit and amasses power, social status and privileges in societies that have embraced meritocracy (Wikipedia/Meritocracy, 2007:2).

Building on Ruhil and Camoes’ (2003) study of the “political roots of state merit system” in the United States of America (USA), merit in our definition differs widely from the merit pay system linked to individual employee performance in a given Human Resource Management (HRM) structure. Accordingly, merit system is conditioned by either political or economic dynamics in the given state. In turn election competition and migration (inflows of foreign-born white immigrants) raise transition rates for merit systems (Ruhil and Camoes, 2003: 8-10). The Pendleton Civil Service Act of January 16, 1883, that laid foundations for the merit system in the USA, was based on the British model requirements: competitive examination, relative service tenure, and political neutrality (Ruhil and Camoes, 2003:3).

As per Merit System Protection Board (MSPB, October 24, 1997) definition, present day USA merit system, likewise based on the British model, suggests that:

[T]he public’s expectations of a system that is efficient, effective, fair and open to all, free from political interference, and staffed by honest, competent, and dedicated employees implies that change in the management of human resources (centralisation, deregulation, delegation) becomes increasingly important that line supervisors and managers incorporate the merit system principle[s] into every decision they use.

The principles are:

- Recruit qualified individuals from all segments of society and select and advance employees on the basis of merit after fair and open competition, which assures that all receive equal opportunity;
- Treat employees and applicants fairly and equitably, without regard to political affiliation, race, color, religion, national origin, sex, marital status, age, or handicapping condition, and with proper regard for their privacy and constitutional rights;
• Provide equal pay for equal work and recognise excellent performance;
• Maintain high standards of integrity, conduct, and concern for the public interest;
• Manage employees efficiently and effectively;
• Retain and separate employees on the basis of their performance;
• Educate and train employees when it will result in better organisational or individual performance;
• Protect employees from arbitrary action, personal favouritism, or coercion for partisan political purposes;
• Protect employees against reprisal for the lawful disclosure of information in a ‘whistleblower’ situation (i.e. protecting people who report things like illegal and/or waste activities) (USA/MSPB, October 24, 1997)

The principles and their definitions are far reaching in as much as their contribution adds meaning to the process of reform. In order to ensure that the necessary structures are in place and composed of the competency categories and professional levels capable of efficient and effective delivery of quality services to the general public, a standardized recruitment practice should be incorporated and be a part of any given but comprehensive employment policy.

3.2.4 Spoils System

Partisan politics of patronage dominate the spoils system. Again the American experience provides the backdrop for examining what spoils is all about. Economic dynamics were listed as values at the centre of spoils. Political parties campaign for support before going to election mostly with promises of better jobs and improved public services such as Social Welfare, and with the passing of time the Keynesian model. Ruhil and Camoes (2003:2) wrote that:

For much of the nineteenth century the spoils system dominated the personnel policy in American government, largely because politicians recognised the benefits associated with staffing public offices with loyal individuals of the
same political persuasion. In particular, politicians deemed a forced [pecuniary] interest to be necessary if executives were to implement their pet [party] programs in the face of legislative resistance…Consequently, technology, expertise, training, and competence did not guide recruitment, retention and promotion of civil servants.

In the end, American politics had changed with competitive economic conditions that compelled federal and state administrations to adopt the merit system. Patronage became costly, and politicians no longer value the electoral benefits of spoils politics (2003:2). Whilst spoils in America are presented in historical perspectives, the image captured is vital for the argument put up in defense of the competency-based system. It is, nevertheless, imperative that we reinforce the renouncing of spoils in the older periods and contemporary reform processes. The renouncing of spoils should be commensurate with relevant legislations.

3.3 ADMINISTRATIVE REFORM CONCEPTS

Administrative concepts and reform concepts should be defined separately to provide the basis for explicit analysis of the reform process. Post-colonial administrations posited in historical perspectives as developmental states, have experienced functional inadequacies as a result of inherent weak public institutions and incompetent public bureaucracies. Exacerbated by donor community reform conditionality, African governments were unable to implement strategies and displayed lack of commitment to the reform process (Pohjola in Kayizzi-Mugerwa, 2003: ix).

Post-colonial civil services in Africa had mostly adopted structures deemed compatible with a developmental state. The executive officials in the Public Service, the bureaucracy, spearhead the implementation of development policy through the administrative functions. However, the serious lack of capacities in individual countries has derailed institutional reforms. Kayizzi-Mugerwa (2003:5) pondered on the reform in Africa as primarily focussed on: improvement of incentives (salaries) by reducing the
size of civil service, and performance in the public sector; improvement of management systems and raising accountability in the civil services; and, training for skills required for the developmental state to create an enabling environment for growth. These strategies which supposedly supported the institutional capacity building often were crippled either by political turmoil, economic crisis or social strife associated with internal instability.

La Palombara (1967:17), studying the succession of colonial bureaucracy in newly independent countries of Africa, noted that:

Colonial administration[s], which …did not recruit large numbers of Africans to positions of policy responsibility, [have] been replaced by public administration[s] that … [are] closely tied to goals of national development … [But the new bureaucracy at most lacked competency requisite for] the top of the hierarchy, where they are expected to advise ministers and politicians regarding major programs of economic and social development. The resulting ineffective structures in the long run undermine good governance and engender corruption (Nze and Nkamnebe, 2003:281). Any remedial consideration should thus embrace structural transformation whilst taking a generic competency creation approach as the key objective of civil service reform. Kamoche (1997:270) argues that:

Creating human resources functions that are able to focus attention on the selection, development and retention of individuals who can contribute to organizational functioning will be an essential part of public sector reform.

Adding the author’s view, Public Service Reform is not unique to Africa alone nor exclusively associated with developing countries’ paradox in adapting to new systems. Adaptation is the process, rather than spontaneous results, of adjusting organizational culture and practices along external trends. It is inherent in organization structures to respond when prevailing conditions, internal political, economic, and social dynamics and external trends of a given era present a new environment to operate from. Organizational change strives to match the reality of internal environment, hence, the imperative for reform. One case in study is the developmental state in the Post-colonial Era.
The imposition of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) lending conditions on developing countries, with the prescription of Structural Adjustment, has adversely impacted emerging economies. The impact from IMF conditions compounded with unstable internal social, economic and political “ambiance” essentially undermined the search for viable solutions to the public service crisis of newly independent states. Nze and Nkamnebe (2003:283) suggest that:

To enhance the effectiveness of civil service bureaucracies [particularly] in Africa the political and career executives who lead these organizations should adopt strategic planning as an important management tool...The shifting [internal and external] environments in which public sector executives work today, suggest that these executives must be effective [achieving objectives or goals] strategists if their organizations are to fulfill their mission and satisfy the public they serve, in the years ahead.

With this indispensable message African political and bureaucratic elite should be able to face the challenges of reform to guarantee the effectiveness of state apparatus and public institutions that ought to efficiently serve the public. The search for a solution to the problem of weak public institutions has led African states to adopting, in 2001, realistic approaches aimed at public service reform, which pre-empted the inception of the Charter for the Public Service in Africa. The principles of this charter have been adopted in a uniform manner pertaining to institutional capability in Africa in the post-cold war era:

a) *Article 5*: Principle of Neutrality:

- The public service that serves the interests of the public shall not discriminate against its employees because of their personal traits;
- The public as a whole remains neutral in respect to the government of the day and all administrators will respect this fundamental principle;

b) *Article 15*: Recruitment and promotion:

- Public service employees shall be recruited, appointed and promoted on the basis of their competence and professional skills and in accordance with transparent and objective procedures that guarantee equal opportunities for all, women, disabled and particularly disadvantaged groups.

c) *Article 17*: Staff training and development:
• Considering that public service employees are entitled to training and development, the public service administration shall provide an enabling environment and the necessary resources for enhancing and adapting, on an ongoing basis, their knowledge and skills, including through allowing them to specialise and become versatile.

d) Article 18: Motivation:

• The organisation and functioning of the public service administration, as well as the management style and quality of management of managers, shall address the aspirations of public service employees for self-fulfilment and development in the leadership capacities, responsibility and a sense of initiative;

• The public service administration shall foster dialogue between subordinates and management, not only with regard to improving working conditions, but also to prospective reforms (OPM/InWEnt, 2002: 49-51).

Every country that participated in the second conference at Rabat-Morocco from 13 –15 December, 1998, and the third conference held under the aegis of the Organisation of African Unity (OAU), predecessor of the African Union (AU), in Windhoek on 5th February 2001, was encouraged to peg their public service reform endeavours and service delivery improvements to the new practical principles.

In historical perspective, each country in Africa went its separate way to effect public sector reforms. Post-colonial transformations were under experimentation, and Egypt was the first country in Africa to introduce radical reforms in the Public Service as early as the 1950s. According to Coutsoukis (2004), the Egyptian Prime Minister heads the Egyptian policy implementation process through the public bureaucracy encompassing thirty ministries and 600 public agencies and companies. The Nasser Era civil service is composed of First-undersecretary, Under-secretary, and Manager. Reform focussed on achieving the raised professional qualifications of senior civil servants, wider recruitment from the educated middle class, seniority as the main criterion for advancement in the civil service, and bureaucracy as a catalyst for providing employment for university graduates. The Sadat Era negated the revolutionary ideology of the Nasser Era, and reform of the public service collapsed under rampant corruption, favouritism, nepotism,
overlapping and duplication of functions, and general lack of day-to-day governance at lower and middle levels of the civil service structures. The Mubarak Era pursued a limited but moderate Nasserite restoration of the public sector. A balanced power structure became necessary under Mubarak, where Arab socialism and nationalism advocated by Nasser and Sadat respectively, came to a collision that produced a polarised political elite. The Egyptian example presents a reform process that could be progressive for the era or produce disastrous consequences for the civil service when the new dispensation favors the opposite.

For courtesy purposes, the full names and short details of the three Egyptian presidents are presented as follows:

- Hosni Muhammad Mubarak – elected President since 1981 (re-elected 2005)
- Anwar Mohammed El Sadat – former President since 1970 (assassinated 1981)

The importance of the Egyptian system as a reference is the type of administrative structure functioning under different successive political leaders who initiated civil service reform to implement their ideologically based or free policies.

Looking at the American example, from Jimmy Carter, Ronald Reagan to George Bush administrations, the American civil service has seen major transformations with similar purposes of enhancing efficiency and cost-effectiveness in the provision of public services. Restructuring of the Federal department was necessary to make the initiatives work. When Jimmy Carter (a Democrat) “became President of the United States of America in 1977, his first step sought to restructure the civil service” for the reason that:

… the federal service was unnecessarily complex, unrepresentative of society, inefficient and unaccountable, unable to reward merit and excellent performance, and unable to provide sound policy advice at its top levels for politicians (Massey, 1993:88-89).
The Civil Service Reform Act (CSRA) was passed to outline the aims, and the President’s Reorganization Committee (PRC) was set up with President Carter himself as its Chairman to implement the Act. Of its eight provisions, only the following three were selected for this research and will be part of this discussion:

- The abolition of the Civil Service Commission [CSC] and the creation of the Office of Personnel Management [OPM], the Merit System Protection Board [MSPB], and the Federal Labour Relations Authority [FLRA];
- Creation of the Senior Executive Service [SES] … that was intended to create a top level of elite generalist managers on the model of the British high civil service. Membership of the SES would become part of a rank-in-person system, would compete for financial rewards, would be eligible for training and development opportunity and would participate more actively in the policy formation and design activities.

The commissioning of the MSPB, SES, and PRC has kick-started two notable reform initiatives. The SES functioned as the catalyst for efficiency and measuring performance of public officials through the instigation of performance indicators and annual review (Massey, 1993:90). The political executives controlled the bureaucracy through SES procedures that mandate top managers to discipline or dismiss those non-performing, whilst rewarding excellence with merit payment or promotions (1993:90). The Reagan and Bush (Republicans in office from 1981 to 1992) administrations were pragmatic in realising the SES principles. Nonetheless, implementing the CSRA remained the central focus for the Republicans, although this resulted in most of the reform programs initiated by the Democrats being suspended.

Universal power structures and categories of professions are “dominated by the bureaucratic and political high-level decision makers whose main function is to implement and interpret policy mandates” (Balk, 1996: 22-23). This profession constitutes the policy elite. In relation with the political leadership, their function is to “suggest, maintain and develop initiatives for [leaders] such as presidents” (1996: 22-23). In this group you find under-secretaries, directors and deputies, and professional managers. The power structure extends down to “middle layers of managers and
specialists [with technical competencies] largely called *bureaucratic professions* because advanced education and special experience are necessarily requisites” (1996:22). This group provides support services to the policy elite basically involving activities that perform liaison duties and propose new policies at designation levels of Counsel, Budget Director, Policy Analyst, Chief Economist and Public Relations Director (1996: 22).

### 3.4 NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

The New Public Management (NPM) or managerialism, is a new ‘paradigm for public management’ which emerged in the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries in the 1970’s (Ocampo, 2007: 249; Kickert, 1997:733). OECD sought a universal solution to inefficiency in public administration by adopting a model with both an “internal” and “external” environment outlook (Ocampo, 2007: 249). The NPM principles are borrowed from private sector managerial techniques originally founded on Scientific Management and Human Relations approaches (Barry and Dent; Pollitt, 1990; and, Ranade, 1997). Adopting NPM principles entails change in the composition of the bureaucracy and liberalization of civil service roles.

A New Public Administration (NPA) doctrine was developed in the early periods attempting to make changes to traditional Public Administration principles of “life long careers and legalistic procedures” followed in western bureaucracies (Ocampo, 2007: 252; Hood, 1995: 408-409). But with the paradigm-shift from public administration to public management, organizations including governments initially in western countries, have adapted to managerialism as their new doctrine of public administration reform.

Managerialism, first introduced to the public services of Britain in 1979 and the USA in the 1980’s, is a new philosophy of governance (Horton, 2002). It implies less government control and more private sector initiative in the economy to maximise profits and generate wealth (Horton, 2002). Applied to public service from private business, the
approach proved effective and efficient, and thus worked better for respective democratically elected administrations ultimately replacing the traditional merit systems (Horton, 2002).

Exponents of NPM conceptually contrast this model with Reinventing Government and the Business Process Reengineering (BPR), which are radical models of reform in the public administration. Differing views exerted held that each model constitutes the solution approach or appeals to the serious reformist better than the other. What distinguishes NPM is its distinct principles “aimed at reengineering the policy making process and public administration [along] management and controlling techniques from private-sector and successful strategies of enterprises rather than on bureaucratic rules” (Steiner, 2007; Osborne and Plastrik, 1997). Ocampo (2007) shared Hood’s (1996) view that “NPM is in many ways a reflection of the reinvention model, but emphasizes certain crucial areas more than the later does” (Ocampo, 2007:250). Further elaborations reflect Hood (1996) insights that the “first dimension of NPM is ‘active control of public organizations by visible top managers wielding discretionary power’; hence, the professional managers should be in control. For the OECD ‘a new paradigm for public management’ had emerged, with eight characteristic trends:

- Strengthening steering function at the center
- Devolving authority, providing flexibility
- Ensuring performance, control, accountability
- Improving the management of human resources
- Optimizing information technology
- Developing competition and choice
- Improving the quality of regulation; and,
- Providing responsive service

(Ocampo, 2007: 249; Kickert, 1997; Bouvaird and Hughes, 1995)

Reinventing government or entrepreneurial government conception emphasizes the promotion of environment where public and private competition enhances efficient
service delivery; community empowerment to limit bureaucratic control of public affairs; outcome oriented performance of public agencies; goal driven, rather than rules and regulations, mission; customer care principles; value for money; decentralization of authority and embracing participatory management; discerning market mechanisms over bureaucratic mechanisms; and, adopting Public Private Partnerships (PPP) to resolve community problems (Ocampo, 2007: 248, citing Osborn and Gaebler, 1993: 19-20).

Business Process Reengineering (BPR) redesigns the government to change traditional public administration carried out by bureaucracy to ‘businesslike’ styles peculiar to private business. Principally, BPR is concerned with the “internal” environment of the private business institution. Critics dismiss the applicability of BPR as not compatible with government structures and operations citing downsizing of the civil service staff and a cost-cutting budget. BPR disregards the rent seeking motives of the bureaucracy and the value placed on security of tenure in the public office (Ocampo, 2007: 250).

A broad array of public sector management reform concepts is being alluded to for the purpose of providing a focus on professionalization and restructuring of civil services. NPM, as a new model adopted in the OECD with a unified purpose, provided further insights needed in changing the structure and functions of the organization as well as its members (Ocampo, 2007:250). Because there is no specific guiding principle for reform, adapting to NPM should be regarded as a paradigm-shift in configuring the public sector reform process.

The managerialism philosophy that underlies the system of New Public Management (NPM), was first introduced in contemporary history in Great Britain under the Conservative Government of Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher shortly after she came into power in 1979 (Farnham and Horton, 1996: 259-260). The Americans were second to adopt the system at the peak of east-west ideological rivalry in 1980. Assumably, former Communist Eastern Europe was inspiring Trade Unions in the West to press for more improvement in the welfare state. Managerialism was to ensure that privatization
prevailed over social welfare systems. The rest of Western Europe started to introduce civil service reforms slightly late, as the European Union became the undisputed option for economic integration in the post-cold war era. On the periphery, tangible civil service reforms in non-European commonwealth governments were only realized long after the end of Cold War. African states, South Africa and Namibia included, who retained the legacy of British Westminster Model of administration were most likely to “replicate” the British style of civil service reform (Halligan, 1997). Similarities were nevertheless noted in the commonwealth civil service systems so far cited for the purposes of this research. The citation was meant to obtain clarity on similarity of conditions that might lead to the adoption of NPM to diverse civil services.

3.4.1 Management Development

McNamara, (1999) noted that historically, “[o]rganizations developed managers in strong occupational positions to posses knowledge about the organisation’s products or services that included work direction as a basis for promotion”. Martin (1998) on British experience noted that “[i]n public service management, managers need to balance the competitive environment of new market with traditions based in the past and with expectations of consumer choice”. It means that knowledge of organizations need a complement of competency to articulate management strategies. For the same reason, British emphasis on critical management development initiatives include the development of standards of competence required of any system of managerialism.

Flanders and Utterback (1985:403) wrote that:

…the USA developed the Management Excellence Inventory (MEI) at federal level in 1984... [It] was designed to assist organizations in identifying managerial job requirements and skills [and] to help in assessing individual and organization[al] management strengths and needs. MEI is [a] competency-based model [that] covers the functions common to management jobs, for example planning, coordination, supervising, monitoring, and generic skills, attitudes and perspectives (e.g. communication, leadership, strategic orientation) needed to perform these responsibilities.
Dixon (1996) has alluded to the “development of required administrative capabilities in civil servants” as a perspective of managerialism system in Australia. Nze and Nkamnebe (2003) concluded that:

African governments recognise that most public services tend to be [too] huge to embark on New Public Management (NPM) reforms. The challenge is too high and soon[er] or later discrepancies will destabilise the reform process. The viable solution is for the African governments to assimilate those practicable values in the new public management and integrate with national policies for implementation.

Farnham and Horton (1996: 259-260) say that NPM is about generic application of private sector management system and techniques into the public service. Additional values have been identified as the actual transformation of the public service from the Social Welfare State to one more cost effective, efficient and responsive to their users (1996:62). The American Federal Civil Service under the Carter, Reagan and Bush administrations, discussed under Public Administration Systems earlier in the chapter, had emulated this kind of transformation closely. Farnham and Horton (1996:260) have advanced eight key features of Managerialism but only six fit for discussion on a comparative basis:

- Adopting a rational approach to managing, which emphasises the role of strategic management in setting objectives and clarifying policy issues;

- Changing organisational structures designed to separate policy from administration and creating executive units with delegated responsibility for service delivery, whether internally to other parts of the organization or externally to the ‘public’;

- Changing organisational structures, which are designed to shorten hierarchies, devolving managerial responsibility for achieving set targets of performance and holding individual managers responsible for achieving them;

- Measuring organisational achievement in terms of the criteria of economy, efficiency and effectiveness; developing performance indicators enabling comparisons and measures of achievement to be made and providing information upon which future decisions can be determined;
• Developing active policies for changing the cultures of public organisation from ones dominated by traditional public service values to ones attuned to the market, business and entrepreneurial values of the ‘new’ public service model;

• Implementing human resources management (HRM) techniques aimed at weakening collectivist approaches and introducing individualist ones, including seeking to mobilise employees’ support and commitment to continuing structural and organisational change;

The Canadian Federal Public Service has established an Advisory Committee on Senior Level Retention and Compensation (appointed in 1997 for a three-year term) with a mandate to recommend strategic initiatives with an emphasis on reviewing Human Resources responsibilities. The committee suggested what initiative planning needs:

• An agreed definition of future skills and competencies to use throughout the core Public Service;

• A regime for evaluation of all incumbents (on the same status as the PMS in Namibia);

• A Human Resource Information System to ensure that the information can be effectively collected and used; and,

• Agreed future needs (Advisory Committee on Senior Level Retention and Compensation, 1997).

The Canadian example has helped to isolate issues that produce similar approaches elsewhere without necessarily contradicting the variation in the environments of their application being North America, Europe or Africa. The benefit we are gaining from the above sources, first of all is the generic nature of issues presented and the attached assumption that the Canadian Committee might have arrived at these initiatives using the Organization Development (OD) approach, which is not necessarily the theoretical grounding of this research. Secondly, the areas of activities in essence are related to some of the initiatives taken with the aim of enhancing efficiency, effectiveness and accountability in the Public Service of Namibia introduced in Chapter four of this
research. Effectiveness, as a term featuring in this research and used elsewhere in the study, is in essence the goal sought for at all stages of public service reform. The reason for consulting the above literature is, however, none other than relevancy to the discipline of “New Public Administration” in general and new public service management practices in particular.

3.4.2 Competency-Management

Kamoche (1997:272) defines competency management as the process involved in cultivating the requisite stock of knowledge (the pool of skills and expertise) which the organization has built up over time, and which constitutes its stock of knowledge. Fidello (2004) says that:

[C]ompetencies are the knowledge and skills required [in the organization] to achieve desired performance … thus, Competency management [entails] the organization that takes care of its employees and offers them the best opportunities to develop both personally and professionally will get the best employees – and it will have a better chance of training [and developing] them.

While recognizing that competency management is a strategic part of “integrated Human Resources [HR] processes and systems”, its application in this research is more of strategic consideration and policy intervention for Public Service Reform (Fidello, 2004).

Stuart-Kotze (1972:56) defines competency concepts in terms of organizational change as follows:

A powerful variable determining types of organizational change is the level of competence of the organization’s members, that is the degree and type of skill, or competence, possessed by the managers of the organization…[classified as] intellective, rational, technical competence” referring to the ability to plan, control, design, schedule, produce…and “interpersonal competence” function of the degree to which organizational members are aware of their impact upon others and, they upon them…[,] that are] “interrelated but analytically separable components…”

The competency-management process should, thus, be interpreted in two dimensions: first, the technical competencies concept compatible with public service managerialism or New Public Management paradigm for strategic change, and second, the interpersonal
competencies paraphrased as developed consciousness or professionalism required of members of organizations at operational levels. Each dimension represents a level of competence, which can be classified as a recruitment standard for merit-based appointments.

Although competency-management is peculiar to private business practices, similar values are also found in the merit system that is common to public service practices. Nonetheless, both approaches stress competence as an ingredient of the organization’s performance. According to Stuart-Kotze (1972: 56) competence is two-pronged: technical competencies and interpersonal competencies. Their analysis should take technical as concerned with management and interpersonal as concerned with staff awareness of impacts and accountability for their work related activities. Basically, interpersonal competencies are the human resource area that underlies employee motivation for individual performance and staff development, and technical competencies are managerial functions strategically aimed at achieving the organization’s goals.

Although the recruitment and selection stage of staffing does not prescribe how competency-management differs from competency-based staffing, in essence they have different meanings not only by mere words, but also certainly in their application. For this research, technical competencies are the rational basis for the study of competency-management, where the interpersonal competencies are to be incorporated in the analysis of a skills gap in the bureaucracy. A relevant assumption is that the competency-management process guarantees a culture for attracting, employing and retaining professional (developed conscious) managers in the organization. Competency-management approach can help organizations to build necessary capacity to address issues of globalization, which is in essence the liberalization of world-economic markets. The “organizations [operating under managerialism systems] must adapt to changing environments in order to survive… [world-economic] dynamic and highly competitive marketplace” (Wiley, 2003:18).
The Merit System can be described, in the author’s view, as the administrative setting where loyalty to political ideology and cadre principle-based appointments to high posts are relished. Its culture (normative practices) of appointing new staff members in entry-posts, disregarding flexible procedures of competency–based appointments, and induced bureaucratic neutrality, are basic characteristics that help to cultivate and maintain the status quo for the bureaucratic elite. Thus, merit-based appointments combined with cadre-principle are equal to *spoils* where patronage is a practice. Therefore, Competency-Management fits in with managerialism, whereas the Merit System falls short of required values.

### 3.4.3 Recruitment and Selection

Baroukh and Kleiner (2002) have defined public service as work being done for the public good. In their view, it is important that the concept is defined to provide a better understanding of what is meant by the recruitment process in the public service. Barton and Chappell (1985:100) strategize that the personnel administration process could be divided into three categories, namely: recruitment and selection to bring employees into the public agency; in-service personnel process for workforce / employee development; and, separation procedure that cares for employees departing from the organization. These categories are discussed to support evidence of how in practice the staffing and promotion of individual public officials is executed in the public service.

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 competent, and strategic oriented professional management cadres. However, the employee selection criteria with a *pragmatic* emphasis, which is operational in the Public Service of Namibia, overlooks the inevitable skills-gap in the bureaucracy that may inhibit the competency-based approach from being the best practice for retaining a professional public service. This differentiation could be problematic when measuring competencies essential for quality service delivery. The *Competency-Management* concept is,
nevertheless, being widely adopted as the most effective approach to contemporary transformation of civil services. For this approach to take root as an organizational culture, a comprehensive reform process must embrace New Public Management paradigm and cause public organizations to address adaptive changes.

3.5 PHILOSOPHICAL CONCEPTIONS

Philosophy as a discipline concerned with ethics –how one should live – is an important element of social science studies. Since philosophy is fundamental to the understanding of what sort of things exist and their essential nature or metaphysics, scientific knowledge (epistemology) and principles of reasoning (logic), philosophy should be the starting point in the review of social science literature (Wikipedia, 2007:1). Research methodologies need to reflect the philosophical conception of the existing things being investigated. This reflection is referred to as phenomenology, which the author has applied in this research as one variant in the analysis of qualitative data.

3.5.1 Phenomenology

Phenomenology refers to the “study of how human phenomena are experienced in consciousness, in cognitive and perpetual acts” without pondering on “questions of their causes, their objective reality, or even their appearances” but derived “values” (Wilson, 2007:1). Hegel, Husserl and Heidegger, German philosophers, held a common conception that phenomenology is a philosophical exploration, approach, and vision of phenomena, but had advanced different interpretations representing separate schools of thought.

Hegel is associated with:

‘dialectical phenomenology’ interpretation of phenomena (what presents itself to us in conscious experience) as a means to fully grasp the absolute, logical, ontological and metaphysical Spirit that is behind phenomena.

Husserl, a mathematician, developed:
a ‘transcendental phenomenology’ notion of intuitive experience of phenomena (what presents itself to us in phenomenological reflexion) from which attempted to make sense of the essential features of experience and essence of what we experience.

Heidegger, critical of metaphysics, created:

‘existential phenomenology’ suggesting that the phenomenological vision of a world [of] beings must be bypassed towards the apprehension of the Being behind all beings (Wikipedia, 2007:1).

The understanding derived from these philosophical outlooks is that investigations are based on established theory, which is approximate to the truth, and seek scientific knowledge of the phenomenon through observation. This study is examining a problem in social science, which cannot be measured, and it is critical to interpret the cadre appointment phenomena under the philosophical spotlight before the intended investigation. Thus, on the basis of these outlooks, one should consider using the phenomenological values to understand the object being investigated.

3.5.2 Philosophical Realism/Metaphysical Realism:

Realism is, in modern philosophical terms, asserting that objects in the external world (outside the human mind) exist independently of what is thought about them (Rausch, 2007:2). Developed from Platonic (School of Plato’s thought) theory of Forms, realism was for classic and medieval:

The theory of knowledge that “universals” (general concepts representing the common elements belonging to individuals of the same genus or species—such as red or man) have a separate existence apart from individual objects. Nominalism…in contrast held that universals had no reality apart from their existence in the thought of an individual (Rausch, 2007: 2)

Conceptualism holds that universals exist, but only insofar as they are instantiated in specific things – they do not exist separately (Wikipedia, 2007:3).

3.5.3 Scientific Realism: Boyd (2002:1) defined scientific realism as:

[T]he common sense (or common science) conception that, subject to a recognition that scientific methods are fallible and that most scientific knowledge
is approximate, we are justified in accepting the most secure findings of scientists “at face value”.

Scientific realists hold that scientific research produces knowledge, and scientific theories are the approximate truth about both unobservables and observables (Boyd, 2002:7). Pragmatists reject this scientific realist conception of theory, contending that scientific knowledge is the product of experience, and certain methods lead to truth or high probability (Conant and Zeglen, 2002:2). Other pragmatic views assert that beliefs are dispositions, which qualify as true or false, and, thus, truth is what works---any idea that has practical utility is true (Wikipedia, 2007: 1-2).

3.5.4 Structural Realism: Proponents favor the theory that reflect on structural relations (causal structures), and leading thinkers such as Worral caution that the most serious departures from the truth in scientific theories tend to be errors about the natures of basic phenomena (Boyd, 2002:8).

3.5.5 Critical Realism: Proponents of the critical realist paradigm held that:

[S]omething is real if it can bring about visible/material consequences – real if it is casually efficacious (eg. a magnetic field, unemployment, poverty) (Kaboub, 2007).

Critical realism is the theory that some of our sense-data (those of primary qualities) can and do accurately represent external objects, properties, and events, while other of our sense-data (those of secondary qualities and perpetual illusions) do not… (Wikipedia, 2006:1)

Critical realism [encompasses two of Bhaskar’s works:] a general philosophy of science that he described as transcendental realism---refers to the fact that in order for scientific investigation to take place, the object of that investigation must have real, manipulable, internal mechanisms that can be triggered to produce particular outcomes [eg.] when we conduct experiments; and,

[A] special philosophy of the human science that he called critical naturalism---[which] prescribes social scientific method which seeks to identify the mechanisms producing social events, but with a recognition that these are in a much greater state of flux than they are in the physical world (as human structures change much more readily than those of, say, a leaf) (Wikipedia, 2006:2).
In its broad sense, realism offers many ways in which public service reform can be experienced. Critical realism can be advocated to support the phenomenology view against pragmatic rejection of scientific knowledge. Nevertheless, this research must now seek to explain in realistic terms what the underlying causes of public service appointments phenomena are.

### 3.5.6 Pragmatism

Pragmatism as an intellectual construct can be contrasted in organization studies. Wicks and Freeman (1998:8) have looked at the development of a pragmatic approach to organization studies built around the pragmatist criterion of usefulness and argued that:

> [P]ragmatic value of usefulness simply requires that those engaged in research or decision-making scrutinize the practical relevance of a set of ideas as defined by their purposes and those shared by their community (e.g., within a country, a corporation, a research stream). There are a number of challenging problems that emerge from this approach, particularly sorting out which values or purposes can be morally defended and (especially in pluralistic society) which values can be used to guide the interactions of people in organizations.

The question why pragmatism is so useful to researchers remains unanswered beyond Wicks and Freeman’s (1998:8) perception that:

A pragmatist approach fosters an environment in which people see the relevance and importance of values to the study of organizations and the need to engage in discussion about which purposes are advanced and why.

Pragmatism is inexhaustible, but like all other theories needs practice. Binswanger, (2004:1) argues that:

Pragmatism is not realism… the philosophy, which dispenses with reality. Their primary is “experience”---a package deal of existence and consciousness, of facts and feelings. Pragmatists deny that there are any absolutes… scorn the conceptual level---rejecting anything that gets very far above the sensory experience.

Blair, (2004:1) critically observes that:

Pragmatism holds that theoretical knowledge is true when it works ‘in practice’. If…theory or principle leads to certain predictions, and those predictions turn out to be true in reality, then your theory is true. [But] then just because you learn that
[prediction] is true does not mean that [theory] is true --- there could be many other reasons why [prediction] is true.

Public administrators and theorists have debated the relationship between the theory and practice interdependent variables, but found “the theory/practice gap” (Chatelaine Press, 1999:1). For its public characteristic and program “practical value”, the theory could be substituted for government theory (1999:1). The gap in finding and using theoretical insights does, however, pose a challenge to “practicing administrators” and “scholars of organization theory” (1999:1). The problem comes also from the “diversity of theoretical perspectives on organization” particularly where scholars presumed correctness of their own particular perspectives (1999:1). These difficulties are a limitation to the effective application of theories.

Programatic activities seek to resolve a perceived problem by constructing the social environment around a problematic area. Relevant models must be adopted or constructed for a program and tested if they are applicable in practice. The resulting action plan must be rational to produce tangible outcomes. While dealing with theoretical ambiguity, public administrators and scholars alike employ the Rational Science Models (e.g. in theory and practice) that partly enables them to be rational. Nonetheless, the ethical dimension and practical relevance of organization studies provide the common ground for these arguments. A critical perspective advanced for organization development approach elaborates that:

Once researchers drop the notion that organization studies need to model reality and research for essentialist underlying structure via scientific study, they can embrace a more diverse and interpretive approach (Wicks and Freeman, 1998:16).

Pragmatism does not morally distinguish between ‘science’ and ‘nonscience’ values or usefulness. Unlike the realist notion of explaining phenomena in their natural occurrence (as they are), and or social setting (construct), and the rationalist (normative – ought to be) moral-laden view kinds of inquiries, the pragmatist ethically emphasizes practical usefulness of programs and workable solutions in policy interventions. Pragmatists,
precisely regarded as equivocal because of their study of organization combining ‘descriptive’ and ‘prescriptive’, ‘science’ and ‘nonscience’, “better and worse metaphors”, reject the “separate…view of normative and empirical research” over [their] various forms of symbiosis (Wicks and Freeman, 1998:16). Pragmatic foundations are as follows (Wicks and Freeman, 1998:16):

- **Positivism** – Sharp and categorical divisions across three distinctions (making versus findings; descriptive versus prescriptive; science versus nonscience); [Where] Science as the only basis for generating knowledge; Concepts/ Terms as Value-neutral (stripped of moral content); Reality as Unequivocal.

- **Anti-Positivism** – Relativizes, but retains, the categorical distinction of positivism; No basis for determining which accounts are better than others; Concepts/Terms as Value-Neutral (stripped of moral content); Reality as Equivocal.

- **Pragmatism** – Rejects the categorical distinction of positivism (no privileged status, as such, to science); Can [and does] draw useful (pragmatic) distinctions among methods and forms of evidence in terms of what is useful (e.g. between “descriptive” v. “prescriptive”, “science” and “nonscience”; better and worse metaphors); Concepts/ Terms as Value-Laden; Reality as Equivocal, but grounded in terms of languages, history, [and] culture.

By contrasting pragmatism with positivist theories, the researcher means to explain the ambiguity of the former theory. Pragmatism equivocally draws values from both positivist and anti-positivist concepts. Wicks and Freeman’s differentiation shows that pragmatism is balanced between the two other approaches. Evidently, the resulting hybrid requires and leads to qualitative and quantitative methods of research.

The author chose to contrast the pragmatic concept with realism and rationalism in order to capture the ambiguity that the former brings to organizational study. The contradictions found in pragmatism invites a debate on a new platform devoid of ambiguity of “state capitalism” but a free-market economy system is necessary. Pragmatism is susceptible to external pressures to move public service management in an undesired direction. This research refers to pragmatism only where the approach to reform in the Public Service of Namibia is ideologically based on mixed economy to realize the implementation of National Reconciliation and Affirmative Action policies.
The theoretical integration of pragmatism conceptually is too low to support the assumptions in the research statement and the research question. Realist conceptions by comparison are philosophical and, thus, could hold scientific facts.

3.6 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Phenomenology implicitly applies theories that underlie facts about the phenomena being investigated, in this case study the behavioral theories. In the research context, the focus is on the theoretical grounding of the study. Because application of theory to the research is realized in varying degrees relative to the phenomena and research model, it was imperative to present this variation in an explicit way in paragraphs below.

3.6.1 Public Service Motivation

In theory, Public Service Motivation (PSM) is concerned with “an individual’s predisposition to respond to motives primarily or uniquely grounded in public institutions and organizations” (Perry, 2000). It was further elaborated that the “public nature of the service…appeals to the unique and particular mission of government” (Hondeghem and Lens, 2005:1). Putting it in a broader perspective or practical context, the definition implies that the public sector has a capacity to attract people with competencies into its services. This statement should not be construed as dogmatic because it was literally built on the observation that the “term motives is used in a sense of [individual] psychological needs” (Hondeghem and Lens, 2005:1). People are self-interested as individuals, hence “attracted to and self-select particular organizational settings as functions of their own particular interests and personalities” (Wiley, 2003:17 and Schneider, 1987).

The choice is not an end in itself, but procedurally serves as a prelude to the selection process. The organization does the selection within its “prerogative” to appoint the most suitable candidate for the job. Thus, organizations “predictably…admit only those who fulfill a need and who are perceived” as compatible with organizational expectations
Therefore, the new ‘right type’ of people must at most share some primary and secondary characteristics with the old ‘right types’ to show that they have something in common with the organization culture (Wiley, 2003:18).

3.6.2 Self-determination

The Hondeghem and Lens (2005) study reveals that no specific theory is precisely dedicated to public service motivation. Borrowing theoretical perspectives could be one possibility in many that seek to find a conceptual solution to the phenomenon. To further the introduction of public service motivation, Hondeghem and Lens (2005:3) propose the “socio-psychological approach…focused on individual action and motivation”. With this approach researchers could make sense of why individual ‘self’ is the sum of different identities.

Nonetheless, the authors concluded that the “lack of a theoretically founded explanation” of the motivation phenomenon indicates that there is “no comprehensive theory on PSM [but] empirical concept in the current literature”. Therefore, a pragmatic notion of building theory about the phenomena holds in this instance.

Perry’s (2000) study took the public service motivation concepts further towards formulating a theory. After a long review of literature on the subject Perry (2000) arrived at the conclusion that:

The primary motivators for public-sector employees are the interests that attract them to public service…likely different from those of people who self-select into the private sector…It follows that those who seek to manage the affairs of government have a primary interest in helping to realize the common good. Such persons are likely to be motivated by fulfilling obligations, maintaining trust, and obeying rules.

In his arguments, Perry (2000) insisted that individual values and identities emancipate in exposure to institutions and mechanisms of social development. Combined, self-concept built on value and identities of the individual, and the latter are at the core of the motivation theory. The study did not produce a theory but, nevertheless, provided
insights in the theoretical direction. The theory would contribute to understanding the role of “specific institutional setting” in shaping the “individual behavior” that is conceptualized as “motivation” (Hondeghem and Lens, 2005:3).

3.6.3 Organization Theory

The Organization Theory is a multi-approach theory requiring careful selection of paradigms associated with its application. It inter-sects with the Critical Theory, Postmodernism and Social Construction approaches or paradigms determining the “different dimensions and different means of analyzing organizations” (Budhwar et al., 2002: 95). Since the social scientists and researchers in organizational behavior are using theories to explain a phenomenon and approaches to “examine the knowledge of an organization”, any practitioner can generically apply these theories as long the “intended methodology is to search for examples of previous research [in] organizational analysis”.

Taylor and Anderson (2000:13-16) contemplated that the quest to understand organizations’ behavior in given situations necessitated the development of models to explain the way real organizations work. In a case study in Public Administration, the two authors alluded that bureaucracy is the dominant organization model for both public sector and private sector. Based on the Weberian bureaucratic organization model with a hierarchical structure, real organization work characteristic scans its environment for changes. Successful scanning must determine and precisely understand the nature of the organization’s environment, kind of strategy employed, kind of technology used, kind of people employed and dominant culture/ethos within the organization, how the organization is structured and dominant managerial philosophies adopted. Accordingly, the organization responds and adjusts to a new equilibrium point.

Wiley (2003:45) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) conceptualize organization’s as environmentally interactive systems, “open systems” that are influenced by and interrelated with the external environment. Thus, the contingency approach of organization design is that different environments are characterized by different economic and technical attributes, each requiring a different competitive strategy to
maximize organizational effectiveness. The issue of organization-environment fit, therefore, comes in, hinged on the ways organizations are structured and managed (2003:45).

Behavioral change, advanced in Wiley (2003:18), presents recruitment and selection of ‘right types’ of people with new and innovative ideas as characterizing structural changes in response to changing operational environments. As a proponent of motivation sub-set of behavior theory, Wiley (2003) cited Holland (1985) arguing that people are attracted to organizations because of the believe that their own particular interests and personalities will fit into a particular occupational environment. Alternatively, adding organization culture as a characteristic for behavioral change as per Wiley (2003,18), behavioral change is a prelude to structural change. Hence, organizations must adapt to changing environments in order to survive in a dynamic and highly competitive marketplace (2003:18).

3.6.4 Contingency Theory

In Donaldson (2001:7) a definition of contingency “is any variable that moderates the effect of an organizational characteristic on organizational performance”. The theory is about organizations: a subset of the contingency approach says that the effect of one variable on another depends upon some third variable (Donaldson, 2001:5). The conception includes size contingency: affects decentralized bureaucratic structure that fits large organizations as opposed to simple-structure that is centralized and fits small organizations; strategy contingency: affects divisional structure that fits a diversified strategy with diverse activities serving various product-markets where effectiveness is enhanced by coordinating each product or service in its own division [e.g. O/M/A], as opposed to functional structure that fits an undiversified strategy focused on single product or service resulting in efficiency enhanced by specialization by function such as departments of production or marketing (2001:2-3); and structural contingency that deals with organizational change (2001:9).
Donaldson (2001:9-13) argues that organizations devise strategies in response to changes in the environment – technology to improve performance. In order to remain compatible with change, “organizational size, structures need transformation to fit high performance” and thus effectiveness. Thus, organizations whose structures “remain static would experience a misfit, causal to performance loss” (Donaldson, 2001:9-13). Basically, organizations are established with “functional structures” so that when diversified through strategic changes, “divisionalizing”, adoption of “divisional structures” should be a must if they are to survive. The measures taken to bring structures to the level of contingencies for performance fit, therefore, is known as adaptive change.

Donaldson (2001) contributions included citations from leading contingency theorists on the subject among them: Burns and Stalker 1961; Lawrence and Lorsch 1967; Pennings 1992; and, Woodward 1965. Thus, for conceptualization in this chapter, the terms borrowed and adopted guide the empirical analysis of the reform process. Therefore, testing Donaldson against other contributions for logical position of the arguments would be an unjustified exercise.

Organization Theory and Contingency Theory have been associated with profit-making organizations. Lawrence and Lorsch are said to have conducted studies of such organizations in 1963, and the outcome was widely market or technological environments based (Wiley, 2003:45). Application of these theories to public sector organizations and their behavior has thus assisted the transformation of civil services from “traditional administrations implementing policy directives of political elite” (Wiley, 2003:45), into public management systems adapted to private sector practices. Policy initiatives and relevant interventions for public service reform in Namibia have followed similar patterns with vivid success.

3.6.5 Grounded Theory
Rogelberg (2002) presented grounded theory as a sociological approach in the study of life at work through direct contact with the social world. Rogelberg (2002) and Blumer
(1976) saw logic in linking the theoretical perspective of symbolic interactionism to a process view of social reality that views human interaction with the world process of meaning-making and interpretation: understanding situated meanings and experiences. As a means to explain action in context, the grounded theory is better applied to the analysis of data with the purpose of assessing the impact of interventions on managerial behavior. In analyzing the merit system, the analysis should produce an explanatory framework for the findings in Chapter five. In essence, using sociological methods as a basis for analyzing recruitment and selection, albeit in bureaucratic context confined to professional group-interaction, is not as implicating as the obvious alignment of the cadreship principles to pragmatism in terms of filling public service posts.

Locke (2001) identified the Grounded Theory with the American pragmatism that originated from the symbolic interactionist school of thought in the 1960s. The theory is applied in both quantitative and qualitative research approaches such as Action Research, Case Study and Ethnography. Its philosophical base is in modernism realist ontology, which Locke (2001:7) presented as:

[R]ealist ontology…[that] supposes that an objective world exists as a knowable observable reality and that the facts of and laws governing that world are given and independent of those who might observe them. [The underlying] emphasis is on explanations how the world works that ultimately could be harnessed towards its prediction and control. [Meaning that] inquiry is directed towards the discovery of empirical facts and universal laws of cause and effect that are to be embedded in an explanatory or theoretical framework.

The grounded theory research application in social process takes a pragmatic view of knowledge as an experiential process, that is, knowledge grounded in particular experiences (Locke, 2001:20-21). Accordingly, the pragmatist supposition is that:

[K]nowledge or understanding of events is possible by focusing attention on them and rendering them problematic. [Thus,] knowledge derives from intimate acquaintance with the events studied and form close experiential connections with them.

Contrasting between these theories eliminates inconsistence with the qualitative research paradigm that might render the investigation non-scientific. Organization theory is useful
to build a theory around the phenomena – issue being investigated within the organization environment. The contingency theory is applicable in the analysis of the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables to determine the factual reality about the phenomena. The grounded theory applies to the whole research process from data collection to data analysis. It is useful to articulate investigations to solve social science problems which cannot be measured as occurs in management and organizations. For this reason, the grounded theory is chosen for this research having considered its consistence and possibility of introducing other relevant theory within its domain.

3.7 THEORETICAL APPROACHES

The advent of new public management or managerialism has stimulated more thinking on how best to transform the public service to be efficient and effective. Cunningham and Weschler (2002:105) wrote about Public Administration Theory, that:

*Theories in use*…are ontologies, epistemologies, or paradigms that are inherent in the way we frame the phenomena we study or we explain to others; or, *Reconstructed theories* about how organizations function, alternative leadership styles, or decision-making process …[are] consciously constructed beliefs and understanding about the reality we observe.

The usefulness of these theories is in public administration practice as they can be created and tested for value.

3.7.1 Pluralist Approach

Reynolds (1996:4) observes that the final characteristic of pluralism is consensus or wide agreement on democratic principles and values among top American politicians and individuals who make policy. The branch of pluralist theory that seeks to limit public participation to a “multitude of groups” as influencing political issues and policy
decisions contradicts the notion of direct democracy and favors a representative democracy.

According to Corcoran (2003:1) pluralism has more recently become a focus in liberal theory critique. A debate that produced this outlook is based on European and North American experience and may not necessarily apply to developing countries in the South. However, being aware of the degree of adaptation to post-cold war political theories mainly based on Western concepts of governance, public administration practitioners believe that:

On a practical level, the pluralist agenda is to adjust or hybridize a Euro-centric body of liberal political and ethical ideas in the face of cosmopolitan pressures.

It is an acknowledgement of the challenges of globalization, migration, ethnic dispersion and resettlement, multiculturalism, and the considerable power of non-democratic states and non-Western cultures (Corcoran, 2003:1)

A contribution made towards this case study is that “Euro-centrism” underlies democratic principles adopted worldwide after the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe and allied proponents of socialism elsewhere. But the manifestations of globalization challenges in cultural difference, migration trends, and internal displacement of populations rendered western democracy ineffective to resolve societal problems in developing countries. One should, therefore, take cognition that whilst bi-polar rivalry has come to an abrupt end, its legacy will take generations to disappear from the world political arena. At societal level, pluralism continues as in the past to safeguard unequal interest groups dominating public representation.

3.7.2 Public Choice Approach

The Public Choice Theory, in part developed by James M. Buchanan (1995:4) as “Theory of public bureaucracy – how bureaucrats behave under certain constraints and incentive structures,” can offer alternative frameworks for the analysis of Public Service employment motives. However, its application would ignore the vestiges of apartheid still imbedded in the post-colonial race relations, and as a rational construct, impedes
realistic approaches to policy making and implementation. The theory, generally defined as “the study of politics based on economic principles” implies application of economics to politics that quantifies the results. As applied to the measurement of merit adoption in America in the nineteenth century, the politicians and the bureaucracy they appointed were according to Felkins (1997:1) “self-interested” in initiating public programs appealing to their constituencies:

Public Choice…recognize that politicians are motivated by self-interest. The … Founding Fathers of the U.S.A understood that and tried to organize government in such a way as to minimize the impact of self-interest…[hence] so much trouble with our government today results from our losing sight of the reality that politicians are self-interested.

Felkins (1997:2) further identified “rent seeking”, that is maximizing the budget to meet policy objectives:

… ‘rent-seeking’ by [c]oalitions of voters, bureaucrats, politicians, and recipients of public funds [, that is]…managers of the ‘bureaucratic firms’ seek special advantages from the state [and] join together to get favorable legislation enacted.

[Noted to be] ‘free-riding’…these groups are likely to be those whose big stake in a benefit arouses them to more effective action than is taken by the taxpayers at large over whom the costs are spread…public sector bureaucrats…supposed to work in the public interest, putting into practice the policies of government as efficiently and effectively as possible, [but tend to be] self-interested utility maximizers, motivated by such factors as: large salaries… ‘requisite of office, public reputation, power, patronage…and the easy of managing the bureau’…[Hence] [b]udget maximization [that] results in high government spending…

In order to escape from the theory trap, this researcher also admits that there is no specific theory that deals with public service motives outside “rational choices” that must be supplemented by the self-determination concept advanced in both the Perry, and Hondeghem and Lens studies. Particularly, Perry (2000:10) emphasizes that socio-historical context, that is to “identify the source and nature of the influences that motivate the individual”, should be taken as a basis for the “critical step in developing a theory of public service motivation”.

109
The character elimination referred to does not intend to testify theory $A$ against theory $B$ but to categorically state how a set of contradicting approaches may not work for research on public service reform in the Namibian setting and its socio-political context. Basically, lengthy quotations on two or three citations serve to build a body of theories that in whole forms the theoretical-grounding of the research.

3.8 ORGANIZATION DEVELOPMENT

The existing knowledge found in literature provides theoretical basis for understanding public service motivation, cadre-ship principles in merit selections and competence management initiatives as they underlie the Public Service Reform process.

Adopting new public management or managerialism transforms the organizational culture, philosophy of operations, organizational values, individual values and above all environmental (internal and external) monitoring (Wiley, 2003:7-8). The presumption here is that outmoded traditional practices in management are transformed whilst retaining similar meritocratic conceptions in redefined terms. In a meritocratic public service, which is usually compounded with cadreship principles of appointments, considerations for competency-based (knowledge, skills and attitudes) selections of suitable personnel sometimes are high for promotion to posts of responsibility, but do not necessarily serve to empower the bureaucracy to fill the skills-gap. Besides competency-based selections being traditionally an element of the merit system, adapting to competency-management is desired to ensure that professional, motivated, and ethic driven management cadres are retained and sustained for the central government.

From the American experience under the Republican Party Administration, and British experience under the Conservative Party government in the 1980s through the early 1990s, we learn that the New Right ideology of managerialism in the public sector has transformed power structures. The new ‘professional management’ concepts, therefore,
sought to “highlight the different motivations of those who design the policies [policy formulation] from those who are charged with executing them [policy implementation]” (Massey, 1993:28). Accordingly, new breeds of professional managers have thus emerged from the bureaucratic elite as reformed public services and public corporations adapted to privatization processes.

The particular types of reform discussed below, emphasize Toonen and Raadschelders’ (1997) paradigm shift defined as:

- Business-oriented approach to government;
- Quality and performance oriented approach to public management;
- Emphasis on improved public service delivery and functional responsiveness;
- Institutional separation of public demand, public provision and public service production functions;
- Linkage of demand and supply units by internal contract management, ‘agencyfication’, or contracting out; and, whenever possible
- Retreat of government institutions in favor of the commercial market enterprises (deregulation, privatization and mercerization);

For our purposes this global paradigm shift provides the basis against which the assessment of reform impact will be made. However, the categories remain fundamental to our analysis of the Public Service reform in Namibian.

The study in 1997 by Toonen and Raadschelders – Western Europe, Halligan – Australia, Mascarenhas – New Zealand, and Mishra – India, is not to set off a debate requiring substantial citations but to lead the outline of reform categories crucial to the assessment of reform impacts in Namibia against possible best practices in the Commonwealth grouping. The assessment is concentrating on the holistic approaches identified: neo-managerial reform, new public management reform, comprehensive reform, and welfare state reform as applicable to the civil service systems of the countries under this study.
3.8.1 Western Europe and Britain

Toonen and Raadschelders (1997) have presented a number of reform categories: neo-managerial reform; new public management reform; comprehensive reform; welfare state reform (holistic); regional reform; regime reform; gradualist reform (piecemeal); non-reform; and, transformation without reform (stagnant). According to the same study, the United Kingdom (UK) of Great Britain has been the leading example in public sector reforms focusing on managerial reform as a brand of the modernization campaign in Western Europe (Toonen and Raadschelders, 1997). Equated to the United States of America (USA), the UK had for the first time applied a business management science approach to government when the public administration reform was launched under Margaret Thatcher in the 1980s (Toonen and Raadschelders, 1997). The French approach has reportedly embraced regionalization by adopting decentralization policy: the technique of public sector marketing and entrepreneurship in the 1980s, in other words, regional reform approaches that considerably increased flexibility of a rather massive sub-national level administrative system quite well (Toonen and Raadschelders, 1997).

Further indication produced from Toonen and Raadschelders’ (1997) study is that other continental European countries that had successfully adapted to regionalization of the unitary state are Belgium, Italy and Spain. Regime Reform, another reform category of administrative modernization using notions such as service responsiveness and citizen orientation has been standard for the above states but taking a different dimension associated with the South-side of Europe, namely Greece, Portugal and Spain (Toonen and Raadschelders, 1997). The latter presents special cases of public sector reform: regime transformation from dictatorial or semi-dictatorial systems to civil democracies; administrative culture change for more quality and output oriented approaches and, administrative structures modernization by building up and expanding public sector activities, mostly within a highly politicized (regionalized) context (Toonen and Raadschelders, 1997).
The **gradualist reform** category is usually characterized by consensual and step-by-step experimental proceedings rather than by comprehensive state reform policies, or sweeping reforms focusing on managerialism and new public management (Toonen and Raadschelders, 1997). In Toonen and Raadschelders’ (1997) analysis such apparent features are inhibiting the incorporation of the former East Germany into the overall state and administrative system of the Germany federation. **Non-reform**, associated with Germany, Austria, Switzerland and Luxemburg reform approaches, lacks managerial issues and structural reform initiatives otherwise taken for granted in the administrative or public sector reform (Toonen and Raadschelders, 1997). The last of the categories in the (1997) study is the **transformation without reform**, comparatively not very common with modernization in the European setting, but was regarded by the study as evolutionary transition of traditional institutions” (Toonen and Raadschelders 1997). Whilst transformation could mean modernizing, the lack of reform characteristic would not stimulate realistic assumptions of how government changes ought to take place (Toonen and Raadschelders, 1997).

### 3.8.2 Irish Civil Service

Ireland, as presented in the Millar and McKevitt study, is a parliamentary democracy, with a greater role in the OECD particularly because the Irish economy was the best performing in the group during the 1990s. The analysis of the civil service brought the two authors to the conclusion that the “contemporary conditions of the civil servants are rooted in the reforming measures introduced under British Rule in the late 1800’s” (Millar and McKevitt, 1997). The study reported that recruitment was largely dominated by political patronage until the 1830’s, but the open competition entrance examination was then introduced as the accepted mode of entry to the civil service by 1871. Present day formal structure of the public administration organization was fundamentally established in accordance with the *Ministers and Secretaries Act, 1924*. Currently, it is the *Civil Service Regulation Act of 1956* provisions that guide the effective running of the Irish civil service. As for appointments of civil servants, usually by Commissioners at operational level, the *Civil Service Commission Act of 1956* applies in full. However, the changes in 1984 “transferred the responsibility for high posts promotions to the Top
Level Appointment Committee, and merit-based considerations for majority promotions” to the Minister (Millar and McKEvitt, 1997).

The British colonial past in the Republic of Ireland has made the contemporary relations between the two nations comparatively unique, unlike in the Commonwealth brotherhood where fraternity prevails. Their European setting, that is membership in the European Union, is another factor that differentiates British and Irish approaches to NPM reform from the Anglo – Saxon camp of the South Pacific Rim and Canada in North America. The geo-political location of Ireland provides somewhat different economic conditions and political environment prevalent in the northern hemisphere or Europe, and thus external influence from neighboring Great Britain is supposedly much higher than the United States of America or Continental European countries. Nevertheless, the Constitution of 1937, and the Republic of Ireland Act 1948 that severed the last administrative links with Britain, has been conditioning administrative changes internally (Millar and McKEvitt, 1997). The importance of the Irish Civil Service is to provide a contrast in the approaches so far looked at in this chapter for possible similarity in reform impacts to civil service recruitment. The severance of administrative links between the Republic of Ireland and former colonial master, the United Kingdom of Great Britain, could fit in with the approach adopted in Namibia at independence for a holistic transformation from then apartheid-South African lines of administration.

3.8.3 Australian Civil Service System

Historical ties with Great Britain have caused Australia to adopt a liberal democracy, and its membership in the Organization of Economic Development Co-operation (OECD) facilitated the transformation of the public administration system to the new public management (NPM) system. NPM in practice renounced the Weberian notion of bureaucracy to introduce private sector management techniques in the management of the public sector. Importantly, the global level paradigm shift in traditional administration for “managerialism” has caused many countries including Australia to change from an administrative culture to a management one, moving increasingly towards a market and contractual-based system (Halligan, 1997).
Halligan (1997), focusing on the national civil service system of Australia, identified the “comprehensive reform and welfare states as periods of greater transformation of the public sector”. Accordingly, the welfare state was linked to the government active role in economic development entailing a broader implementation of welfare programs to the citizens particularly during the post-World War-Two period, and the comprehensive reform was distinguished in the application across the public service and entire public sector with measures that ensured all areas of public management have been transformed. Halligan (1997) asserted that change must take place in terms of organizational philosophy, culture, structure, personnel and operational style.

Halligan (1997) further disclosed that the Victorian legislation for personnel administration in 1883 instituted central control through a Public Service Board or Commissioner to prevent the affects of political patronage from influencing public service appointments. The legislation provided for independent control of the public service, open competition for entrants, promotion by merit, grading and classification of all personnel and salaries based on work value. For the first time public service recruitment took a face of open competition rather than patronage, promotion by merit albeit recognized seniority as a central element, and free from pressures of patronage, at least lasted for the modernization period between 1883 and the mid 1910s (Halligan, 1997).

Incremental administrative changes have marked the period from Post-World War I 1920s to the 1960s. Experimentation with reforms – political direction and extensive managerial change to government sanctioned processes and administrative standards for the public service were quite short lived in the 1970s (Halligan, 1997). However, as Halligan (1997) stressed, continuity of reforms under successive Labor governments, which produced a new model for governance in the early 1980s, were thus more comprehensive, rapid and systematic than the former in terms of paradigm change in the
sense of an interpretive framework of ideas and standards. In the process, Australia’s public sector reform being highly influenced by the American and British approaches did away with a traditional way of administration and dynamically replaced the old practices with reforms based on management.

The relationship between politicians and the bureaucracy, until the Labor government came to power in 1983, was based on the traditional Weberian model. Appointments to the high civil service were apolitical, though. With the exception of the most senior appointments, career officials from the ranks would fill high civil service posts without political considerations. Political executives have only the responsibility of confirming senior level recommendations to fill top posts but following an advisory process. The 1970’s witnessed change in the civil service autonomy, as political influence encroached on the bureaucracy for more responsive public service (Halligan, 1997).

The changes introduced under the Labor government were structural to enable political directives at the cabinet and ministerial levels without seeking to institute political appointments to top positions. Previously, top civil servants had enjoyed autonomy in the policy process but duly reversed to enhance more political influence (Halligan, 1997). For policy coordination purposes, the “ministerial capacity was strengthened to place the control of policy direction firmly in the hands of political appointees within the public” (Halligan, 1997:XX) on the same principle such as practiced in the United States of America at federal level. Halligan (1997) defined the move as a political tier in the upper-echelon of the public service comprising all heads of departments or first divisions. In addition, a post of Ministerial Consultant on policy issues has been added to the structure, thus reducing the senior civil servant to more managerial responsibilities, reflecting the preference of the political executive (Halligan, 1997).

Breaking with the tradition, measures were taken such as creating a ministerial staff assisting the minister in advisory matters. The traditional practice of senior public service career autonomy – a career system where top civil servants acquired the status of
permanency position in the public service – would be weakened and systematically transformed. New considerations essentially involved the following: abolition of permanency by designing the head of department as department secretary and making fixed term appointments; establishing the Senior Executive Service for greater flexibility in the use of senior staff; providing for greater competition by increasing the opportunity for external entry – where the fixed term engagement was established for the senior executive service in order to facilitate the entry of outsiders; and, inducing greater provision for displacement, redeployment and retrenchment of the senior executive service, as accomplished in the 1980s (Halligan, 1997).

An amendment to the Public Service Act 1922 in 1994 was intended to provide for fixed-statutory appointments of secretaries based on a five-year contract with a salary increase in lieu of the job tenure. Consequently, the relationship between the political executives and senior public service officials or bureaucrats has been based on a new control mechanism: demanding responsiveness from the public service; committed to retention of a career public service including the Senior Executive Service (SES); and, greater recognition of the case for mobility among the most senior jobs at federal or Commonwealth and state levels (Halligan, 1997). At agency levels, structures were reformed through the Office Structure Implementation exercise of the 1980s to provide “greater efficiency and flexibility including agency broad banding – a range of position levels with a classification structure – so that staff progress upwards through the structure according to competency” (Halligan, 1997).

The Australian reform process has been described as the most radical and holistic of the western liberal democracies. Although maintaining some of its Westminster model of legislation and executive structures, both federal and state levels of government have transformed their civil services to become more responsive to public demands and market competitive in a rather efficient way reminiscent of the private sector techniques. The bureaucracy would still acclaim to “career service” – professionalism, but with limited autonomy in the policy making and implementation process. Appointments to SES currently get political consideration as department secretaries are by Act required to be
accountable to the political executives in a relationship that is amenable to redistributed power between ministers and public servants (Halligan, 1997).

### 3.8.4 New Zealand Civil Service

New Zealand has been a liberal democracy system since the 1980s reform along the American experience. Mascarenhas’ (1997) study on historical development disclosed that the period between 1850 and 1912 was dominated by political patronage, which is political representative in the recruitment, promotion and remuneration of public servants (Mascarenhas, 1997). For much of this period until 1946, the only systematic personnel management known was the competitive examination for entry into the civil service system in accordance with the *Civil Service Act of 1886* (Mascarenhas, 1997). The new *Public Service Act of 1912* introduced some liberal changes, thereby ending the political patronage of the Spoils System and adopting the Merit System in the civil service that saw ministerial authority waning and the new measures of systematic personnel management effectively becoming the responsibility of the independent Public Service Commission (Mascarenhas, 1997).

New dimensions in the management of the public service marked the period from 1962 to 1988, particularly when the central personnel agency or the Public Service Commission was reconstituted into the States Services Commission (SSC) with a single commissioner and four other members responsible for the management of the public service (Mascarenhas, 1997). As Mascarenhas (1997) indicated, the SSC significantly took initiatives espousing performance measurement systems in government departments for improvement to the public service management, and setting up of the Prime Minister’s department, to assist the Prime Minister in the administration of the government business and state affairs. Thus, prompted by the structural deficiency, and the absence of a proper system of performance management, the SSC embarked on sweeping managerial reforms of the civil service in 1988 (Mascarenhas, 1997).

Mascarenhas, 1997 reports that the radical restructuring of the public sector, which took place between 1988 and 1996, responded to the Labor government policy of economic
liberalization – program of privatization of the economy, low economic growth, and high levels of inflation and unemployment. As the global trend of “reducing the role of the state in the economy” (Mascarenhas, 1997) gained momentum, the sweeping reform imperatives became apparent to enhance efficiency and performance in the public sector of New Zealand. Achievements recorded include a drastic reduction in the civil service size, restructuring the core public service, commercializing some activities of the government into independent state-owned enterprises, and establishing Crown Agencies (Mascarenhas, 1997). By comparison, the conservative governments in Britain and the United States excelled in adopting modern management practices on private sector lines (Toonen and Raadschelders 1997). When the SSC succeeded to improve the civil service operations with greater successes by adapting to new public management (Mascarenhas, 1997), gradual reform and moderate transformation of programs (Toonen and Raadschelders 1997) had thus become a thing of the past in New Zealand.

### 3.8.5 Indian National Civil Service System

Historically India had experienced transformations from ancient *personal servants* of rulers, through medieval age *state employment*, and the colonial British-India by the first *Indian Civil Service Act of 1861*, where the “civil servants acquired the complexion of *public servants* with privileges such as recruitment, promotion, termination, pension, and payment of salaries” (Mishra, 1997).

According to Mishra, modern India initially adopted the British model, which is based on the Weberian tradition, but becoming realistic with its own internal and external environment, “the Indian civil service had by 1997 already started to professionalize itself” (Mishra, 1997). The standard qualifications for civil service appointments, promotions and retention were by then professional and performance-based. The analysis continued to look at categories of reform peculiar to the Indian socio-political conditions and good sense of bureaucracy. Mishra’s view, partly adopted from the Farrel Heady configuration, is that the “Indian civil service system has a majority-party responsiveness and is mixed corporatist” (Mishra, 1997). Conscious of the civil service reforms world
wide (external environment) the “Indian policy-makers have adapted to sweeping reforms that are people-oriented, productive, and yield the value for money” (Mishra, 1997).

The historical perspectives provided show that the civil service in independent-India has traversed quite a number of reform approaches beginning with welfare-orientation in the 1940s, development-orientation during the 1960s through the 1980s to culminate into the facilitator’s role in the 1990s. The national challenges, mainly the “obligation to meet the needs of teeming millions of citizens and the collective choice mechanism reflected in the [election] manifestos of various political parties in the 1996 general elections” (Mishra, 1997), caused internal environmental changes creating conditions for continuity in the reform process. The socio-political conditions shaping the Indian civil service size and government structures, as presented by Mishra (1997), are: the large population of over 880 million people; multi-cultural cum multi-religious society guaranteed under the country’s Constitution; a union of states each with its own three-tier administrative system – central, provincial, and local administrations; a Constitutional democracy based on a pluralistic political system; and, the mixed economy where the public and private sectors are in competition.

3.8.6 South African Public Service

The reform process in South Africa originates in the country’s history in that for too long the nation experienced division along racial lines and institutionalized separate development for different race groups. The democratically elected government that come to power in South Africa in 1994 almost instantly removed all racist structures and transformed institutions by changing the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Accordingly, the Public Service Act of 1994, particularly Schedules 1 and 2, and other statutes were “promulgated as fundamental legislation for post apartheid governance” (Public Service Review Report 1999/2000). The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Section 196 of the new Constitution stipulates the powers and functions of the Public Service Commission (PSC) as those advancing values and principles guiding the proper management of the Public Service, and promoting sound personnel procedures for recruitment, transfers and promotions in the public service.
The Public Service Review Report, 1999/2000 describes the Public Service of South Africa as the organization made up of public employees in the central government and all nine provincial administrations, but excludes the local governments, parastatals (state-owned corporations) and quasi-government institutions that are autonomous public sector. The key functional “status” of the South African public service is the planning of “human capital” and ensuring that the “political mandate of government will be executed” (Public Service Review Report, 1999/2000). The introduction of managerial reform since 1994, was particularly enhancing the key strategic initiatives and connections between resources (human, financial/capital, technological) and the tasks at hand, and, continually reviewing initiatives against changing realities in the South African context (Public Service Review Report, 1999/2000). The public managers are to “advise the policy makers (political leadership) on emerging issues and plausible scenarios” (Public Service Review Report, 1999/2000).

Importantly, democratic South Africa had to transform policymaking and replace apartheid legacy at all levels of the state and embark on a holistic reform of the central government and provincial structures. Change in the political environment took cognition of the public service role as crucial to national development. The report singled out the importance of having a professional Public Service, which is “representative and developmental in orientation to enable addressing the needs of the society as a whole” (Public Service Review Report, 1999/2000).

The Public Service Review Report (1999/2000) notes that the challenges confronted in the transformation process involve the need to improve the capacity to coordinate between policy formulation and policy implementation. The Presidential Review Commission Report (PRC) in February 1998, made recommendations on how to improve organization and management of public service. Thus, the Public Service Reform was “given an important place in public debates meant to improve the quality of policy discourse and decision-making” (Public Service Review Report, 1999/2000).
The experiences of commonwealth countries does not suggest a uniform Public Service Reform approach as each country has opportunities that are unique to its political environment and economic conditions or just pertinent to the geopolitical region of its location. However, an assessment of the civil service reforms impact in the Commonwealth states is set to provide an overview of administrative reforms in their respective public sector systems. Based on the economic conditions of geo-political regions, each country would be expected to follow either of the “agencyfication - models or global paradigm shift” (Raadschelders and Toonen, 1997) as fit their reform motives.

3.9 SUMMARY

The literature review has guided the researcher with the conceptual study background and literal sources. Literature sources in this study have been categorized to give a sustained choice of citation throughout the research. The objective is to consult the existing material on administrative reform concepts around public service appointments, the merit system and competency management approaches as manifested in public service reforms represented in the case study.

Administrative systems forms the basis for contextual data analysis. However, democracy has emerged to be the best system for providing an internal environment conducive to reform. Depending on the type of democracy (liberal or direct) adopted for the society, the political imperatives for reform will differ from country to country. The social organization laden with cultural values is rather hard to compare between nations. But government structures and institutions for internal development tend to adopt models that are generic across the field of public administration. Economic dynamics are conditioned by the political economy of regional integration and globalization trends.
The existing knowledge was highlighted in terms of its relevancy to this research, thus enabling the incorporation of a valid citation of British and American experiences with civil service reform under the Conservative and Republican administrations, respectively.

Contrasting pragmatism with other approaches essentially unveiled how heavily Western liberalism bears on post-Colonial state politics, and to a lesser extent, explained what values pertain to the Public Service Reform. Consequently, Pluralism (contemporary perception of liberalism) and Public Choice (application of economic perspectives to politics) are regarded as “theories in use”, but fundamentally permeated with cultural norms. Their practical application in the public service of a developmental state such as Namibia could be mere rhetoric of the post-cold war era. Admittedly, defining and critiquing of theory A against theory B validates arguments around the issues. But it should be noted that every theory is in essence supportive of a set of discourses in terms of debate although not necessarily practicable in all given socio-political environments.

This review of literature has avoided a literal debate and concentrated on theoretical relevance to the assumption of the research statement that cadre-appointments in the public service of Namibia are merit-based. Those theories that simultaneously enlighten the question of this research were also given attention. Individual citations are purposely limited to a few authors to allow blending and adoption of such theoretical discourse in this research study.

3.10 CONCLUSION

The review of literature in this chapter includes both conceptual material and previous studies relevant to the topic. Philosophical conceptions that are fundamental to the study have been used to provide comprehensive theoretical grounding for the methodology of research. The objective was half completed by arriving at a documentary consensus that there is no specific theory in place as yet to explain the public service appointment
phenomenon. But as summarized in the preceding paragraphs, the Grounded Theory features prominently as a conceptual tool in analyzing the facts.

Public service reform process in the OECD member countries prompted adaptation to NPM. The Commonwealth countries’ experiences cited have guided the research focus on generic application of best practices in the reform process.
CHAPTER FOUR

THE CENTRAL PUBLIC SERVICE REFORM IN NAMIBIA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The Namibian Public Service, as a cardinal public employment agency inherited from and structured in the aftermath of demised apartheid institutions, has adopted the generic approaches to public administration reform but experienced a bulging civil service. The Cabinet has on several occasions ordered the streamlining of Government functions to cut on personnel expenditure largely bloated by personnel appointments from outside the public service, subsequently resulting in the Wages Commission (WASCOM) being created in 1995 to make appropriate recommendations on rationalization.

Post-independent Namibia required a functional structure to successfully install a national government and transform caretaker administration activities into statehood. The Constituent Assembly was created and the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia came into being as its product. It was the Constitution that set guidelines for reform for existing structures to be compatible with the requirements for administering state affairs. Consistently, government institutions were structured and restructured in response to the changing operational environment. The adopted strategies ensured that the performance fit was checked from the outset, and essentially enhanced the major reform programmes as manifested in the formulation and implementation of the Affirmative Action and National Reconciliation policies that accommodate previously disadvantaged segments of the citizens. The reform process within the present political and institutional settings has been able to address the imbalances of the past objectively.
In this chapter, the author presents the legal and policy frameworks fundamental in the rationalization of the Public Service of Namibia. The objective is to enhance the dialogue on the impact of reform on the filling of senior management level posts in the Central Public Service. Thus, the researcher discusses in this chapter specific policy interventions in order to provide important insights for data analysis in Chapter five.

4.2 LEGAL FRAMEWORK AND RATIONALIZATION

The *Constitution of Namibia*, being the fundamental law of the country, is given special place in this subsection focusing on systematic control of the bureaucracy in a new, political and institutional setting adopted in the post-independent Namibia. In accordance with the *Constitution of Namibia* Chapter 13, Article 113 (a) the Public Service Commission shall be responsible for the appointment of suitable persons to specified categories of employment with special regard to the [re]structuring in the public service. Therefore, there is a need for the exercise of adequate disciplinary control over such persons in order to assure the fair administration of personnel policy and to perform all functions assigned to it by the *Public Service Act*, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) of Parliament.

In terms of Article 43 of the Constitution of Namibia, there shall be a Secretary to the Cabinet appointed by the President on the recommendations of the Public Service Commission to perform functions as stipulated in the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) or any other law. The Secretary to the Cabinet, in accordance with the *Public Service Act*, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) Section 10 (a) and (f), is head of the Public Service responsible to the Prime Minister for efficiency and effectiveness of the Public Service. The post provides supportive services to the Cabinet committees and co-ordinates permanent secretaries [of line ministries] in the performance of their functions. The *Public Service Act*, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) Section 11 (a) and (b) provides for the appointment of Permanent Secretaries to be accountable for the following: the efficient management and administration of ministry or agency; the proper function of all training and utilisation of staff members in his or her office, ministry or agency; the maintenance
of discipline in office, ministry or agency; and, the proper use and care of all property under the control of his or her office, ministry or agency.

Section 12 (1) and (2) deals with the delegation of power and assignment of duties under this Act to any staff member or members as the Permanent Secretary may deem necessary. Section 18 (1) (2) (3) and (6) deals with conditions in regard to filling of posts, subject to powers of the Prime Minister under Section 5 (1), (20) and (22), by contract of employment. For a person to qualify for permanent appointment as may be approved by the Prime Minister on the advice of the Commission, Namibian Citizenship needs to be proved first. Then the qualifications, experience, level of training, relative merit, efficiency and suitability of the person or staff members being considered for appointment should be considered.

4.3 CENTRAL FUNCTIONAL STRUCTURE

Namibia is a unitary state politically embracing a multi-party democracy system founded on the principles of democracy, the rule of law and justice for all. Democracy is, therefore, imbedded in the Government institutions and structures (legislative and executive) in accordance with the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia. The Government consists of hierarchical structures exercising political and executive powers that administer the daily business of the country. The nature of appointments, rather than the office, is the mechanism separating functions of the bureaucracy from the political office bearers. However, the institutional setting allows the political office bearers to exert control over the top executives in the bureaucracy effectively.

4.3.1 The Office of the Prime Minister (OPM)

- The Prime Minister’s Private Office
- The Department of the Cabinet Secretariat and Policy Analysis
- The Department of the President’s Economic Advisory Council Secretariat
The OPM is the principal institution responsible for public service management. The Prime Minister advises the President on executing Government function and on his/her capacity as the leader of government business in the Parliament, and coordinates the work of the Cabinet that executes national policies (OPM, 2003: 35). The hierarchical structure of Government Institutions gives the Prime Minister executive powers only subject to that of the President, in coordinating Government Offices, agencies and ministries whilst carrying out their line functions for the administration of the country (Public Service of Namibia, 2003: 32). The powers of ministers and director-generals are commensurate with their appointments as political executives, members of the cabinet and parliament, who by virtue of designation supervise the administrative executives in their respective ministries, offices and agencies.

The departments in the OPM have different functions and roles defined according to respective purposes regarded crucial to the effective implementation of Cabinet decisions. With the exception of two specialised units, each of the six defined departments in the OPM is headed by the under-secretary operating under the supervision of the Secretary to the Cabinet. The structure presents the top bureaucracy that is charged with the management of day-to-day functioning of the Government. The under-secretaries coordinate the activities of specialised directorates largely consisting of technocrats in the lower levels, and deputy and director at professional/management cadre levels.
The bureaucracy in Namibia is composed of political office bearers: ministers and directors general appointed by the president to control offices, ministries and agencies, through the top executive levels comprised of permanent secretaries / accounting officers and deputy-permanent secretaries. The executives or top-management cadres level referred to in Balk (1996:22) as policy elite, have the responsibility to lead and organise the activities of the management cadre levels (under secretaries, directors and deputy directors) or, as they are called in Balk (1996:22) intermediary professional[s] or machine bureaucracy. Management cadres have acquired such referral status for their intermediate services of coordinating and planning between the top executive administrators and the supervisory level (chief control officers / clerks) and technocrats (planners and technicians) structures below the hierarchy that deliver the services. This professional relationship is regarded as democratic because in reality objective management is the manifestation of good governance process within the democratically structured institutions. Because the management cadres are appointed in accordance with the Public Service Act, Act 13 of 1995, to occupy positions in the Public service, they are civil servant by virtue of occupational status.

In terms of Articles 40 (a) and 41 of the Constitution, the power of controlling the bureaucracy is vested in the ministers acting collectively in the Cabinet that is chaired by the President. However, the actual supervision of the ministries lies with the Cabinet Office, headed by the Secretary appointed by the President in Terms of Article 43 (1), in the OPM. Subsection (2) thereof, on political appointee functions, reinforces the power exercised by the Secretary to the Cabinet. The OPM Annual Report (2002/03:1) presented the operational procedures followed in reality. Accordingly, procedures require that policy documents from offices, ministries and agencies are reviewed and analysed by the Cabinet Secretariat that is entrusted with the multitude of functions coordinating inter-ministerial activities such as policy coordination, monitoring and evaluation.

The ministers are democratically elected in accordance with Article 46 (a) on a party list to Parliament and the President appoints people from the list to ministerial positions from
the pool of Party Members of Parliament (MPs). The President is also constitutionally privileged by Article 46 (b) category to appoint on a preference basis up to six additional people on or outside of the Parliament candidates list to the high position of political office bearers. The Public Service Commission, in consultation with the OPM, in line with the provisions of Article 113 (a) ((aa)), recommends individual appointments (but not transfers of the incumbent) of Permanent Secretaries, who are usually accounting officers, for their respective O/M/A’s.

On rare occasions the post of permanent secretary (PS) is advertised when it becomes vacant, giving the impression that selection is merit-based and sanctioned by preferences at the high-political level. Similarly, a transfer in the PS position is never associated with the reshuffle of ministers, no matter how long the incumbents have been teaming up together at the helm of the institution. What transpires at various stages is that ministers, being in the top political echelons, are appointed and reshuffled at the discretion of the President not for expertise-based quality, but for their loyal service in various capacities and institutional portfolios. In contrast, PS redeployment intends to build up knowledge of the top-level management cadres and retain their profession, loyalty and respect for the political leadership for the central government.

While the Namibian Civil Service is in principle free of political manipulation, there is a degree of political control vivid in Cabinet Office executive powers over Government institutions (OPM Annual Report 2002/03). Evidently, the separation of political and executive powers is marginal in the unitary state setting adopted in Namibia. Political oversights in the appointment and redeployment of incumbent PS renders the Public Service passive and ineffective relative to appointments of top-management cadres to carry out government business free of political pressure. The adoption of the SWAPO Party Election Manifesto of 2004 as Government’s program of action for the next five years is another distinctive aspect of political control. The exercise conforms to the shared view based on Palmer’s observation that major policies are in fact determined within the “non-bureaucratic institutions”, such as the ruling party, and not by the
agencies of Government (Riggs in La Palombara, 1963: 121). There could be a valid reason to maintain an open policy that allows party guidelines to influence the administration of state affairs. Nevertheless, should there be excesses in their implementation, these must be justified so as to ensure that transparency prevails and party politics does not overlap with the administration of government business.

4.3.2 The Public Service Commission
The Public Service Commission (PSC), an independent body of autonomous standing, advises the Prime Minister on procedures and suitability of recommended candidates for management-cadre and general positions other than political appointments on government establishments. The PSC is comprised of the Chairperson and four Commissioners appointed on a full-time basis for a five-year term in office to ensure that the provisions of the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) and the Recruitment Policy, together with Public Service Regulations and Staff Rules, are fully complied with, and the appointments are based on sound (merit or competence) criteria of selection. The Commission, whilst retaining the responsibility of policy formulation, co-ordination, monitoring and evaluation, is technically assisted by a Secretariat of the PSC to execute the day-to-day functions of personnel administration (OPM/PSC, 2002). The Commission further deals with grievances of an unfair treatment nature that any concerned civil servant may bring to the attention of the Commission, in the process curbing all attempts to abuse power and authority and corrupt practices such as nepotism and favoritism in the public service. Therefore, autonomous standing enables the Commission to act independently in advising the Central Government on perspectives of managing the Public Service.

As the emphasis of this research is on the public service appointments phenomenon, this section considers the previously unexplained origin of categorized appointments as a necessary point of departure. The Constitution of Namibia Chapter 13, Article 113 under functions, provides for:

The Public Service Commission powers…shall be defined by Act of Parliament…
(a) to advice the President and the Government on: (aa) the appointment of
suitable persons to specific categories of employment in the public service, with special regard to the balanced structuring thereof.

For the PSC to carry out its duties and defined functions (Public Service Act, 1995) within the exercise of powers conferred upon it (in terms of Article 112 and 113 of the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia) and the provisions of the PSC (Public Service Commission Act, 1990 (Act 2 of 1990), a mission statement committing this independent and impartial body to providing leadership and advice in order to improve efficiency and effectiveness in the Public Service, and through empowered and competent personnel corps for good governance, was formulated (PSC Annual Report, 2004/5:2). The mission statement was based on the vision that: The Public Service Commission envisions a dynamic Public Service, anchored on outcome-based management principles and practice for good governance (2004/5:3). In practice, besides the statutes, the mission statements are constructs about fast-track reform processes in the public sector. The imperatives here being that cooperation with stakeholders and role players must be guided by new public management principles of customer service.

The present strategic goals are aligned with the principles of personnel auditing and staffing crucial to Human Resources (HR) Management and development in the Public Service. The emphasis is, among other things, to ensure the design and implementation of fair and effective procedures and processes for selection and recruitment of staff members, and play an influential role in the skills training and academic qualifications for the civil servants to build capacity (2004/5:4).

4.3.2.1 Line-functions of the PSC

The Secretariat is a technical arm of the PSC consisting of the Personnel Auditing Division and the Staffing Division. An Under-Secretary heads the Secretariat with the support of staff mostly specialized in personnel auditing and administration matters. Staff services are not only for the Commission and its Secretariat, but also for other O/M/A’s. Based on worldwide civil service reform processes, particularly Commonwealth models,
both divisions are entrusted with delegated functions that link the PSC to O/M/A’s in varied, specialized ways. The divisions are constituted to perform diligently their structural functions and delegated responsibilities without overlapping.

First, the Personnel Auditing Division, formerly Inspection, Advise and Training Division, was transformed to more adequately reflect its new role in a new public management setting (OPM/PSC, 2002). The division monitors the application of and compliance with personnel directives in the O/M/A’s to efficiently meet the current needs and demands; ensure that the potential of human resources (HR) are fully utilized, and research and provide adequate HR information and corrective measures for overall effectiveness of HR programmes in meeting organisational strategic objectives. A comprehensive auditing is conducted in all O/M/A’s focusing on compliance audit and adequate audit (OPM/PSC, 2002).

Secondly, the Staffing Division plays an appointing role by providing critical and technical and knowledgeable advice and support to the PSC (OPM/PSC, 2002) to enable the latter to make just and informed decisions to ensure fairness and objectivity, instill confidence in the merit system and thus enhance the image of the O/M/A’s and the entire public service as the preferred employer that attracts and retains people with talent, commitment and imagination. Therefore, the main (structural and functional) purpose of the division is to obtain PSC recommendation or advice on:

- Appointments or relax on appointment(s);
- Promotions or Discharge;
- Comment and submit draft legislation to PSC;
- Review and submit draft policy on condition of service to PSC;
- Constantly review and advise PSC on its delegations (OPM/PSC, 2002).
In streamlining these services, the division has such powers to refer incomplete requests or submissions back to the Permanent Secretary of the respective O/M/A for appropriate corrections. These functions and actions are necessary tools of enhancing efficiency and effectiveness within O/M/A’s (OPM/PSC, 2002).

4.4 WAGES AND SALARY COMMISSION ON RATIONALIZATION

In January 1995 the central government set up the Wages and Salary Commission (WASCOM) to work out strategies to improve efficiency by downsizing the Public Service and removing inequities of the past to allow for upward mobility, promote the quality of management, and provide equal opportunities to all Namibians in the Public Service (Geingob, 1997). According to the Terms of Reference, the Commission was required to undertake the review of public service pay, entailing a lengthy study and analysis of relevant Government policies and laws (WASCOM Report, 1995). Field visits were conducted in all Regions of Namibia to determine regional perception of the Public Service and how it was performing. A comparative study of foreign civil services was conducted in Botswana, Zimbabwe and United Kingdom to get new and tangible views about public services. To accomplish the task, the Commission had to review the Tjitendero Commission recommendations on downsizing. As the latter was not effective in an early attempt to realise a comprehensive rationalization of the public service, a relook was necessary as per cabinet directive hatched at Swakopmund in December 1992 and subsequent decision in 1994 to constitute the WASCOM.

Having compiled the information needed, the Commission conducted a System Analysis and recognised that the large size of the Public Service, that already stood at 62 511 by October 1995, was actually the cause of the problem, and over expenditure was the effect thereof. Accordingly, the Commission had identified crosscutting issues contributing to the problem such as: lack of efficiency standards, lack of Performance Management System (PMS) given the observed non-performing public service, lack of codes of
conduct separate for Members of Parliament (MPs) and Public Servants, lack of commitment to State Finance Regulations, lack of reliable economic indicators given a wide range of weak economic effects, and rising public expenditure on personnel salaries and accrued perks, subsistence and transport (S&T) allowances, home loan subsidies, vehicle schemes, seating allowances for MPs and other benefits).

With the mandate to recommend to the Cabinet through the OPM such measures to resolve the problem, the WASCOM in their view ruled out the application of some of the Labour Act provisions to the operations of the Public Service as they impose excessive costs on Government, and called for exemption. Constitutionally guaranteed retention of existing public servants at independence, and the Affirmative Action (AA) Policy on incorporation of people from previously disadvantaged ethnic groups and returnees from exile, thus over-sizing the service, were key issues targeted for stock taking measures. The growing size and escalating expenditures trend had to be reversed to realize the fiscal objectives (WASCOM Report, 1995:1). Therefore, the Commission recommended that: Budget provision for personnel costs in 1996/1997 should be not more than the 1995/1996 provision, which was 55.4% of the total central government expenditure, and a five-year program of reductions in budget provision for personnel costs of 2% per annum should be introduced (WASCO Report, 1995:3). Appropriate measures were recommended for each problematic cross-cutting issue. Much emphasis was, however, given to the effects – rising expenditure concerns and the mandatory reduction. A new pay structure was proposed to put job categories in six-vertical bands, divided in two or three distinct grades (see Appendix 11).

Whilst the Cabinet ordered the freezing of vacant posts in the central government for the time being until WASCOM recommendations were approved and ready for implementation, the Commission recommended that deadwood in the public service should be cut out and those incompetent should be dismissed by the end of the 1995 fiscal year as substantial reduction in staffing (WASCO Report, 1995:5). Staff auditing should then be introduced to the system, and the annual personal performance appraisal
system, under development at the time, should be firmly linked to the personal pay scale (WASCOM Report, 1995:7). Implementing the recommendations based on comparative scenarios, rather than the reality of the Namibian situation, rendered some of the WASCOM proposals undesirable as they would contradict policies in the process. “Cutting out deadwood” and abrupt dismissals of “incompetent” staff members could not work in tandem with the AA Policy and the provisions of the Labour Act.

### 4.4.1 Strength of Commission Recommendations

The recommendations were the outcome of the study based on clear terms of reference from the Cabinet focusing on cutting public expenditures on personnel costs. Cross cutting managerial issues were highlighted and critically analysed to ensure that political, economic, and social dynamics were not excluded from identified factors. The accuracy of information was validated beyond local sources by conducting a comparative study of foreign civil services in the SADC region and Europe.

### 4.4.2 Weakness of Commission Recommendations

The comparative study has leaned more on the example of the United Kingdom (UK), which is a developed society that may not fully represent the reality of a developmental state such as Namibia. Again, the UK experience could only be classified as an exemplary lesson and when benchmarking on good practices and possible success. Ignoring this fact is tantamount to demonstrating lack of vision, portraying Namibia as a developmental state in the global competition.

The inclusion in the recommendations of summary dismissals as practiced in Botswana, to the contrary disregards the provisions of the Labor Act. Removing the Labor Act from the spectrum, as causing costs for the Government, was not a legitimate justification, but merely rescinds Namibia’s co-signatory to the International Labor Conventions. Dismissals have tremendous economic effects on individual incomes rather than Government budget performance. By recommending such measures the Commission had
displayed a lack of sensitivity towards the economic disparities that may ensue as a result of dismissals.

Failure of management to develop competency in the Public Service was noted as a concern. Training was referred to, but a substantial reduction in staffing was considered as a viable solution. Clarity on future competency-management was, therefore, lacking in their recommendations.

Recommending speedy decentralization of functions to the regions was a positive gesture in the right direction. Similarly, concurrence on commercialization of non-core public sector services was a scoring point. But, it was privatization that got more favorable consideration in their recommendations. In all three instances, the Commission should have seen prudent in training the redundant workforce with the option to redeploy and retain of some of the competent personnel in the public sector, rather than proposing a substantial reduction in staffing for the sake of convenience. The lack of clear guidance on how future vacancies in the public service should be filled has invited questions about the type of competencies required.

Nevertheless, the Commission had successfully completed the task that set the Public Service reform process in motion. The recommendations were submitted to the Cabinet through the OPM for approval, and subsequently, implementation by line ministries as a policy intervention.

Commissions such as the Wages and Salary Commission (WASCOM) of 1995 are appointed depending on the dimension of the problem identified in the policy implementation process and the need to reformulate a particular issue of democratic governance. Taylor and Anderson (2000) regard democratic governance as composed of the bureaucracy that implements decisions of democratic institutions made up of elected officials. Hogwood and Gunn (1987:6) advanced the view that rather than for genuinely
analytical purposes, a particular technique may be used for political purposes to advance a case or protect an organization from outside interference. The shelving of the WASCOM Report of 1995 and its recommendations was a political decision arguably subject to debate as a method of analysis.

Problems of high unemployment rates among the previously disadvantaged Blacks and the imminent job loss for lower public employees compelled the Cabinet to suspend, except for the new salary structure, the implementation of WASCOM Recommendations. WASCOM was then replaced with the more defined Efficiency and Charter Unit (ECU) established in the OPM in May 1997 to initiate, co-ordinate and monitor all efficiency initiatives [that are compatible with Vision 2030] and report directly to the Cabinet (Geingob, 1997). The WASCOM, as dealt with in this section above, pioneered the restructuring of the Public Service of Namibia to enhance efficiency in the delivery of Public Services. Specifically, downsizing was the strategy the government could take to cut expenditure on personnel. But due to financial constraints and skewed income distribution, WASCOM Recommendations were only partly implemented. The political leadership saw it fit to introduce reform measures notwithstanding favorable economic conditions widely heralded at the time. The reform was to ensure a major shift from user-pay based to client-oriented public services delivery whereby specific policies were formulated. A gradual reform was not the way to follow, as this would mean slowing down the process. The government rather opted for a comprehensive reform as socio-economic disparities widened. Concomitantly, intended policy initiatives were people-oriented, particularly in the implementation of Affirmative Action (AA) and Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) that aimed at minimizing disparities.

4.4.3 Early Attempts at Organizational Improvement

Retrospectively, the Public Service Policy adopted at independence was based on National Reconciliation that was fundamental in the applications of EEO and AA that respectively promoted the spirit of peaceful coexistence for old and new staff considerations. The Public Service Act of 1990 that replaced the Government Service Act

The Cabinet had on several occasions ordered the streamlining of Government functions to cut personnel expenditure, largely bloated by personnel appointments from outside the public service, except where credible competencies – highly skilled and professional groups – were involved (WASCOM Report, 1995:29). But due to ensuing socio-economic disparities, such recommendations, the WASCOM prescriptions eventually included, were suspended and a new dispensation based on the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) was ushered in. The WASCOM Report recommendations disregarded the plight of the previously disadvantaged groups attracted to the Government as their “preferred-employer” offering security of job tenure. Socio-economic disparities prevailed and those who could only hope for a job by marketing their talents would become destitute. With guarantees restored through new measures based on the Public Service Act, 1995 provision that “any Namibian in a healthy state of mind can qualify to be appointed to the position of responsibility in the public service”, public service motivations were indeed rekindled.

4.4.4 Restructuring of the Public Service

Former Prime Minister Honourable Hage Geingob (1997:1) wrote that “Restructuring the Public Service in Namibia was intended to remove the inequities of the past” apartheid – separate development along ethnic lines – Era “and to make it an instrument of change”. The change was necessary to remove racial discrimination from all sectors of the society thereby “creating an environment … conducive to the new reality of freedom and democracy” (Geingob, 1997:1). The civil service was the starting point to ensure that
good governance addressed the main problem – ethnic segregation – to the benefit of all citizens.

Restructuring entailed the logical transformation of government structures into national institutions as stipulated in the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia. The apartheid regime created eleven quasi-independent homelands with separate self-governments for Black ethnic groups and the White community, under the authority of the Pretoria appointed Administrator General. At independence the new government had inherited from the old dispensation central departments, largely run by South African technocrats, and by the provision of Chapter 20 Article 141 of the Constitution of Namibia retained the indigenous bureaucracy and incorporated them into the new public service. Taking into consideration the sizeable number of low ranking officials that the newly created national government had to absorb, while compromising the required quality and making room for the obligated quantity, the task was cognisably immense.

In Namibia, the development strategies as contained in the medium-term NDP1 and the long-term NDP2 were launched by the Founding father of the Namibian Nation, former President Dr. Sam Nujoma. This was the period during which structuring of Government institutions at central, regional and local levels took place. Otherwise referred to as the Nujoma Era, his term of office 1990-2005 was marked by major transformations that included the Public Service Reform. Significantly, the OPM-initiated improvement measures compatible with reform at central level were realised thanks to initial successes in the decentralisation process. At the end of the office tenure, the former President vigorously asserted that the Republic of Namibia had come of age and the nation could now embark on the NDP3 and implement Vision 2030.

The year 2005 ushered in the Pohamba Era that at the onset started restructuring the ministries and thus making structural changes at top level of the central government civil service. These changes are evidence of preparations for the implementation of the NDP3 already in its final draft stage. The new Head of State, President Hifikepunye Pohamba,
has outlined the policy of continuity and vowed to implement all existing development programmes.

4.5 POLICY FRAMEWORKS AND RATIONALIZATION

The core statute that is fundamental to the promulgation of the Public Service Act is the Constitution. Nevertheless, the *Wages and Salary Commission Report of 1995* and the *Recruitment Policy* are prime and basic documents profoundly guiding the rationalization process. Public Service Commission Reports to the Parliament since the Constituent Assembly in 1989 provide indicators of effective application of the *Namibian Public Service Charter* and *Customer Service Charters* for individual public institutions. More programmes found in the Decentralisation Policy and other frameworks are also relevant, but subjectively lack resonance for further exploration in this study. The PMS, NIMPA and *Revision of the Training Programme for the Public Service of Namibia,* among the ten OPM initiatives identified hereinafter, have been critical for this research as they address the competency-based transformation of government institutions. Further discussions on public policy dimensions in this chapter include these initiatives.

4.5.1 The Recruitment Policy

The implementation of *Recruitment Policy* has dimensional values crucial to meeting government goals. The quest for reform necessitated the formulation of the *Recruitment Policy* for the Public Service of Namibia in implementation since 19th September 2002. The Directorate Human Resources Management is responsible for the general adjustments, revision and updating of the Recruitment Policy and the *Public Service Recruitment Charter,* which is its Annexure C, and in terms of the *Public Service Act 1995 (Act 13 of 1995)* exercises delegated powers of the Prime Minister and Public Service Commission (Recruitment Policy, 2002:3). The Recruitment Charter is dedicated to the values, and committed to service delivery standards that are supportive to the recruitment process in the Public Service, and its strategic goals are to:
• Set and indicate standards of service which the customers and stakeholders will expect from the Public Service Recruitment process;

• Attempt to establish and sustain a Service Delivery improvement programme by specifying [the] main services to be provided to the customers;

• Specify the mechanism to be utilized to remove barriers so that access to service is increased;

• Outline feedback/complaint mechanisms or ways through which customers/users/stake-holders can express their dissatisfaction when things go wrong; and,

• Identify role-players or partners in the Public Service Recruitment process (Recruitment Policy, 2002:1).

The OPM coordinates the implementation of this charter in the O/M/A’s to ensure the standards of recruitment are always upheld. Thus, reaching goals should be seen in the light of role-playing and partnership in the recruitment and selection for appointments in the Public Service of Namibia. Recruitment as a process attracting suitable and qualified personnel begins with the advertisement of vacancies in the internal memorandum for the internal staff and national registered newspapers for outsiders. Expected applications should reflect the job requirement and relevant qualifications as described in the advertisement. The applicants are afforded an opportunity to choose between options: to improve performance to qualify for internal promotion, and/or to match their skills with required competencies to be attractive for the post being filled. The short-listing of candidates follows standardized steps to ensure equal opportunities for all vying for the post but not to the detriment of those most closely meeting relevant requirements (Appendix 12).

In terms of the Public Service Recruitment Charter, Annexure C of the Public Service Recruitment Policy (2002:2), standards include:
• Ensure that vacant posts in any O/M/A are advertised to reach the entire pool of potential applicants – this should be as efficiently and effectively as possible to include persons who are historically disadvantaged;

• Ensure that an advertisement for a post shall specify inherent requirements of the job – the job title and core functions, involving skill and relevant experience;

• Make sure that advertisement is either internally in the Public Service Management (PSM)-Circular for Vacancy or externally – through the News Media which are accessible to all, especially those in remote areas;

• Ensure that closing dates for advertisements shall take into account the remote areas [with regard to] access to application forms, advertised media – newspapers and circulars.

The Department Public Service Management in the OPM ensures that recruitment considerations in principle conform to *Equal Employment Opportunity* (EEO) and *Affirmative Action* (AA) policy requirements to afford internal staff members of O/M/A’s and external applicants equal opportunities to compete for vacancies. It has become a central tendency to advertise all entry-level and senior posts below Management-Cadre level in the PSM-Circular to help streamline competencies in the Public Service structures. But, the conditions have also been cumbersome, as highly qualified personnel outside the Public Service became attractive, and their potential could in no way be ignored without violating the letter and spirit of EEO/AA policies.

For internal movement, elevating qualified staff members is only one level into the next senior position on the structure or the equivalent in the Public Service. Evidence provided shows that internal promotions have not often been possible, as all available posts have to be filled through open competition. Accordingly, filling management-cadre posts must be advertised in the print media – the leading national newspapers in order to maintain the *Recruitment Charter* principles. However, where the advertised post does not attract sufficient response from outside, or a PSM-Circular is used. Those who apply from
within the Public Service are considered for promotion based on the scores and qualifications specified for the job.

Analyzing the recruitment policy initiatives within the political setting has profoundly unearthed cadreship implications in the filling of public service posts. The institutional setting and bureaucratic context of these initiatives have reflected a pragmatic approach, the basis for professional elitism that might encourage conceited managerial behaviour in the top echelons. Policy initiatives based on realistic inclusion and principles of transparency would essentially create obvious conditions for a fair recruitment and selection of the right type of people, in as much as a meritocratic civil service is desired. The Recruitment Policy and the Recruitment Charter as tools for transforming the public service structures in line with the Public Service Charter of Namibia and Charter for Public Service in Africa should be seen jointly as a balancing mechanism between pragmatic conception and the culture of meritocracy.

The Merit System principles as adopted in Namibia could be measured in relation to the recruitment policy and its charter to evolve into a standardised recruitment practice. A key merit principle is to recruit qualified individuals from all segments of society and select and advance employees on the basis of merit after fair and open competition, which ensures that all receive equal opportunity. The notion that the Merit System should be efficient, effective, fair and open to all, and free from political interference, actually sets value parameters for distinguishing between the system and the individual quality of a candidate. The generic qualities required of individuals include such basic attributes as honesty, competency, and dedication (USA Merit Protection Board, 1997). Depending on social interaction and interpretation, meanings of values and qualities may carry different connotations for a given civil service system. Second in importance is the merit principle to educate and train employees when it will result in better organisational or individual performance. This prospect should form part of the selection considerations to seek out those who are qualified and have commensurate potential for staff development.
The amended *Recruitment Policy for the Public Service of Namibia*, in defense of the 2002 changes to new methodologies, calls for fresh views opposing the polarization of the Public Service. For instance, there are those “professionalised and seeking a more career based environment, and those feeling that the present measures are excluding them from advancement” (Recruitment Policy, 2002). In terms of Paragraph 3.2 thereof, the new method limits the competition to the “post-probation period, so that staff members may only compete for a promotion post one grade higher than their own”. For example a Deputy Director whose probation period has been confirmed may only compete for an advertised position of Director (Recruitment Policy, 2002). This widens policy options to deal with promotion backlogs compounded from the old recruitment methods.

The old model of recruiting personnel in the Public Service of Namibia did not validate candidates’ qualities in a biased manner. Cadreship was a mystique applied only to the vanguard party. Documental similarities between the principles of the Merit System and the Recruitment Policy can match but may not necessarily provide grounds for interpreting the cadreship appointments phenomenon. Following independence in 1990, early models were designed to balance the Public Service by attracting the maximum number of candidates. Cadreship considerations became systematic causing some barriers in the recruitment process (OPM/Public Service Staff Rules B.II/II 1.2.2). Political appointment exponents easily overlooked the qualifying attributes and traits that are fundamental requirements for selecting individual cadres. However, in order to counterbalance potential deviation from transparency and fairness, new measures based on Affirmative Action (AA) were incorporated into O/M/A’s recruiting plans. The new models involve O/M/A’s conducting their own recruitment, and through a senior selection committee recommending three best suitable candidates to the Public Service Commission, the arbiter of transparency and fairness, for approval for the appointment. Where deviation is detected, the matter is referred back for rectification.

The Namibian political and institutional settings provide grounds for democratic governance. Role-play within these settings gives the OPM and substructures responsibility for policy review and, as appropriate for change on an annual basis, such
powers to adopt merit system principles generic to public services (OPM, 2002). National development Plans (NDP’s), reputed forums where government institutions converge on development goals, facilitate national consensus on strategic change and democratic governance. The NDP-1 and NDP-2 fundamentally transformed the public service to ensure improvement and continuity. In the process, indigenous changes form part of strategic planning for continuity.

Introducing the recruitment policy and charter during the 2002 NDP-2 period, for instance, changed the old personnel recruitment models. Notwithstanding these changes, the empirical evidence collected suggests that political considerations for PS and Deputy PS – top public service positions still apply to the supposedly new operational conditions under the pretext of a pragmatic approach or cadreship attribute for professional management levels. Therefore, it would be appropriate that NDP-3 programme evaluation should begin with the analysis of policy initiatives and interventions. Significantly, pragmatism would be practically relegated within the realm of policy implementation with little or no cadreship principles incorporated in managerial decisions.

4.5.2 Selection and Appointment Procedures in the Central Public Service

The filling of senior public service posts purports merit basis with the ultimate objective of ensuring that competent personalities are retained and a loyal career oriented bureaucracy is maintained and sustained for the central Public Service. The extent to which the Merit System was applied in appointments primarily determines the type of top management cadres in the Public Service of Namibia. Secondly, reform should entail institutional capacity building to enhance professional management that would guarantee quality service delivery.

The Public Service Commission (PSC), in principle an independent and autonomous office that recommends appointments to public service posts in consultation with the OPM, is, in terms of Articles 112 and 113 of the Constitution of Namibia, the custodian of non-political appointments. Nevertheless, appointing the Secretary to Cabinet and the
Secretary to the National Assembly are exceptionally done within the powers of the Prime Minister, and the PSC is only consulted in this regard. In terms of Section 5 (1) of the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995):

[T]he appointment [and] promotion to the Public Service shall be made by the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission in accordance with the [relevant] provisions of the said Act.


The Public Service Staff Rules of Namibia that replaced the Public Service Staff Code, the latter in force until the post-independent repeal of most of the apartheid-era laws and regulations, clearly outline the procedures followed in recruiting public office personnel and senior officials. For internal promotions, staff rules provide the basis for consideration for movements between bands recommended in the Wages and Salary Commission (WASCOM) 1995 Report. However, political appointments are exempted, as the process is more prescriptive and preferential. In principle, “staff rules” are fundamental to filling posts in the most transparent manner, given the procedures that must be followed to ensure suitable candidates are selected for the post. Suitability is supposedly based on the appropriate education or academic qualifications and experience relevant for the occupation.

In terms of the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995), the “appointment [and] promotion of any person to the Public Service shall be made by the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission”. Table 4.1 below presents figures on most recent appointments and promotions in the Central Government.

Table 4.1 Public Service: Appointments and Promotions 2004 - 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MANAGEMENT CADRE</th>
<th>NON-MANAGEMENT CADRE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CATEGORY</td>
<td>Appointments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Nevertheless, the Regional Councils advertise to fill vacant posts based on new structures where no technically structured management systems have existed before. The competition has been high and open to both internal and external applicants since 2003, attracting persons with a rich background in public management, mostly from the Public Service. Appointments in the Regional Councils are recommended from the Councils in accordance with the Regional Councils Act, 1992 (Act 22 of 1992) through the Ministry of Regional, Local Government, Housing and Rural Development (MRLGHRD) to the PSC for approval. The number of staff members under the Regional Councils as per appointments between 1 April 2004 and 31 March 2005 has been recorded in the Annual Report of the Public Service Commission of Namibia as reflected in Table 4.1 below.

The figures represent a period in which the Decentralization Policy was finally implemented, and structured management systems for each of the thirteen regions were created. A small number of staff existed under the Office of Regional Officers practically forming a general technical support secretariat for Regional Councils. The staffing was done through the Ministry of Regional, Local Government and Housing before restructuring to include Rural Development. The incumbent Regional Officers were offered Director Level positions with optional choices to take the retrenchment package or compete for the high post of Chief Regional Officer in the new structure. These appointments and promotion offers have also affected the junior staff that was mostly considered for similar positions as they occur in the transformed structures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>84</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2 523</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>2 877</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantaged</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disadvantaged</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>4 318</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>4 868</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GRAND TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>152</strong></td>
<td><strong>85</strong></td>
<td><strong>8 702</strong></td>
<td><strong>989</strong></td>
<td><strong>9 938</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.2 Regional Councils: Appointments and Promotions 2004 – 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>MANAGEMENT CADRE</th>
<th>BELOW-MANAGEMENT CADRE</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Appointments</td>
<td>Promotions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantaged</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disadvantaged</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>438</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GRAND TOTAL | 56 | 50 | 505 | 164 | 777 |


4.5.3 Selection Procedures

Selection committees consisting of suitable members from the O/M/A and from outside the Public Service are appointed in terms of the Public Service Recruitment Charter (2002:3). The appointments ensure that the selection committee’s composition reflects adequate representation of designated groups in order to base their selection process on realistic criteria or instruments for selection, which are not biased or discriminatory (2002:3). The Permanent Secretary is responsible for nominating a selection committee to ensure that the shortlisting of candidates as carried out in his/her O/M/A is fair and the interviews of candidates are transparent and in accordance with the job specifications. Fairness is measured using the common selection criteria and qualities presented as:

- **Work-related**: essential duties of the work to be performed; *specific* criteria to distinguish candidates or provide a clear measure for assessment of candidates;

- **Appropriate**: level of expertise needed;

- **Measurable**: effective and objective way of measuring candidates against all the selection criteria; and,

- **Weighted**: depending on the importance of the duties (Staff Rules, B II/IV: 3 in the Public Service Recruitment Charter, 2002:3).
Subjective to the PSC role of arbiter, *transparency* and *fairness* determines the eligibility for appointment. Thus, any recommendation from O/M/A that excludes the above measures will be procedurally challenged by the PSC and effectively referred back to the Permanent Secretary of the respective O/M/A’s for appropriate corrections. These functions and actions are necessary tools of enhancing *efficiency* and *effectiveness* within O/M/As (OPM/PSC, 2002).

### 4.5.4 Selection Criteria

Democratic principles provide for a broad array of qualifications required for Public Service posts. Prescriptive qualifications basically should be reflected in the general job description, specific key performance area and appropriate expertise required of the candidate meeting most of the job requirements. The objective is to make advertisements attractive to candidates from all sections of the Namibian society at least at the recruitment stage (Recruitment Charter, 2002:3). Criteria for qualification for selection in accordance with the Staff Rules (B II/IV: 6), are: Supervision and Leadership; decision making; verbal communication; problem solving; interpersonal relations; written communications; and, career goals. All these become required qualities and ingredients of sound consideration for the specific job.

Careful consideration is also given to qualifications based on the education levels and the years of job experience. A specimen in *Annexure G-1* provides a clear picture of how educational requirements have declined since the *Wage and Salary Commission* (WASCOM) Report (1995:55) recommendations for a new salary structure for the Public Servants, in an apparent attempt to retain practice-based expertise levels inherited from the colonial era. Qualification requirements for the supervisory level, normally the entry post Band 3 Grade A and B respectively, are post-Grade 12 certificate, diploma or degree as may be appropriately possessed or at the minimum Grade 12 plus experience or completed apprenticeship. By standard, the minimum requirement is very low given the functional level of skilled, technical and professional junior management specification.
The implementation of the WASCOM 1995 Report recommendations have commenced within the NDP 1, 1995-2000, and seen modification with NDP 2, 2000-2005 during which period the PMS was developed and advanced as a new approach to the Public Service Reform. The PSC Annual Report for 2004/2005 presents a dimensional change in merit-based appointments as reflected in Appendix 7-10 on management and below-management appointments and promotions.

A close examination of Tables in Appendix 7-10 reveals that promotions and appointments in large numbers only occurred in the ministries that have been affected by restructuring over the period. Although the report did not provide levels of qualifications, the tabulation indicates that there has been a greater decrease in appointments than in promotions in management posts, Grade 4A Level 1–6B. Table 3 shows 9 new appointments in the Ministry of Justice during the period preceding the merger of the two institutions into the Ministry of Justice and Attorney General. The increased chances for promotion in the Ministry of Justice, albeit contrary to the declined promotions due to lack of PMS, might be attributed to staff development to meet efficiency requirements and individual self-uplifting in the highly competitive legal profession. The Ministry of Regional and Local Government and Housing likewise has experienced somewhat skewed upward movement over the period. Fifteen appointments were effected where only two promotions were approved amid implementation of the Decentralization Policy that necessitated appointments to fill management-cadre posts on the Regional Governments’ new structures. Precisely, the appointments should be commensurate with appropriate qualifications in accordance with strategic human resources planning and development towards the realization of Vision 2030.

4.6 RATIONALIZATION IMPACT ON PUBLIC SERVICE COMPETENCIES

The aim of independence was to set free the population from the bondages of colonialism and slavery irrespective of the colour of skin, ethnic origin, or race, and with a liberated
mind, to start anew in all spheres of life. The operational environment, organisational culture, and narrowly conceived functional structures had to change for a better and more equitable dispensation. In realising this aim, the Affirmative Action (AA) Policy and Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) were formulated to protect the previously disadvantaged and advantaged likewise within the limelight of their implementation. Consequently, a burgeoned civil service was created out of less contested posts below the management cadre levels threatening unpopular downsizing. Attempts to streamline the competencies through downsizing led to the establishment of the WASCOM in 1995 to recommend a new salary structure based on graded levels for all job categories. Movement between grades was constrained to allow competency development within the professions. Proper hierarchical structures had been created for O/M/A’s prompting the professional elite to emerge out of the streamlined competencies at the top.

4.6.1 Formation of Professional Elite

The emergence of the elite in Namibia has not been a process but a synthetic reproduction of the merit system adopted for the Post-independence Era. Adopting merit system was crucial to address unequal opportunity for employment inherited from apartheid rule. White elites existed in economic terms with little social interaction to form a hierarchy inclusive of oppressed Blacks, but a social milieu was not conceivable before independence. Elitism, as an encompassing social construct, could not co-exist with apartheid – separate development ideology. Constitutionally, emancipation diversity taking shape in conflict with racist policies was never heard of before, and thus for Blacks, social position would rather come through hereditary status in their respective ethnic communities than with some specialized professions. Nevertheless, the political elite had conscientiously emerged at independence and set conditions for the civil service bureaucracy that eventually acclaimed to professionalism.

The professional elite are usually formed in the high management cadre levels where professional qualifications are a standard pre-requisite to ascending to senior positions. Permanent Secretaries, formerly political appointees until the end of NDP1 in 2000/2001, remained least contested occupations, albeit holding the key to structural reform. The
reform crusade that began with the implementation of NDP2 from 2001 to 2005, however, has transcended the early strategies for changing structures in response to the operational environment as conditioned by globalisation. Permanent Secretary candidature by now should demonstrate generic top management competency crucial to the performance of the incumbent and satisfy specific requirements to be measured through the Performance Management System (PMS) initiatives.

The inception of the NDP3 would be the most coherent of the high level strategic initiatives to enhance PMS. Performance Management as a system overarching the organisational performance perspectives and performance appraisal of individual staff members should advance the O/M/A human resources strategic planning in a modest way. If PMS is to inspire the civil servants to perform, it should be transparent and effective enough to stop the backlog that has trapped many potentially talented cadres within job categories below the Deputy Director levels. Overlooking this possibility would proverbially amount to selling new wine in old stained bottles. The current managerial reform initiatives appear to be superficially taking a pragmatic approach with no serious provisions for structural change. That would then endorse the status quo, almost condoning it with stagnant consequences for the two previous successive National Development Plans, NDP 1 & 2.

4.6.2 Emerging Professional Autonomy

As the Public Service of Namibia comes of age, managerial reform also becomes an obvious precondition for professional autonomy. Congruence must be reached for structural changes to the levels compatible with the new public management. PS appointments should be contested and meritocratic promotions commensurate with competency-management. This conception is the subject of discussion in the next item below.

Professional autonomy by Namibian standards is an advocacy of those proponents of “adaptive change” implicitly advancing the principles of the Charter for the Public
Service in Africa and related initiatives on Public Service improvements. The emphasis here is on options Namibia has to transform these principles into reality – practically considering the availability of professionals and the initiatives being taken to address the issues at the central government level. As adopted from the Charter for this analysis, professionalism resides in how skilful and how well a Public Service employee performs his/her duties. These qualities must be developed conscientiously to instill professional discipline in the civil servants (OPM/InWent, 2002:36). The implication is that well versed-in “professional cadres” have already formed a niche, positioning themselves for the blessing of the political elite for top executive posts. Ironically, professional training is widely misconstrued in favour of politically inspired preferences, nominations, and approval of appointments. Conclusively, and which further elaboration in point 4.6.3, the reform initiatives should include change in the culture of pragmatic practices that put professionalism at stake.

There are so many shortcomings in the implementation of AA especially where prerogatives to select appointees are left to hand-picked committees acting on behalf of the appointing O/M/A.’s. Selection in this regard is open to premeditation, limited to the pool of preferred cadres, and readily susceptible to political influence. One key objective of AA in appointments is to afford opportunities to the previously disadvantaged (Blacks, women, and disabled Namibians) to successfully contest and occupy positions of influence in the Public Service. The other objective generally important to this analysis is the principle that qualifications should not be compromised for the sake of AA. Nonetheless, the implication of applying these principles is that no mechanism was put in place at least to moderate against potential AA abuses in the public service spheres. Advertisements include a notice that women and people with disability are encouraged to apply, as a normal AA indication. But male applicants, whilst not usually rejected, may be disadvantaged at the loss of opportunity to advance the competencies they possess. It would be logical to make a rational decision that offers optional considerations for the qualifications that may be put at stake in AA exercises.
4.6.3 Transformation and Competency-Management

The top-down characteristic of the Weberian bureaucracy has an ascending structure that is skewed in terms of the size and competency distribution within the hierarchy. The bottom is burgeoning and the top is comparatively lean, giving out a pyramid shaped structure largely believed to be effective in profiling competencies. It is important that O/M/A’s maintain competency profiles setting standards and ceilings for specific job categories in accordance with the Generic Competency Framework for all job levels: entry, supervisory, management and top-management, as they exist in the Public Service system. The competency profile currently operational in Namibia provides for **core competencies** derived from: *general* categorization of the job, grade and level within the public service; *specific* categorization of the actual job within the O/M/A’s; *differentiating competencies* applicable only where the mandate and strategic direction of the unit and O/M/A’s are exclusively operational; and, *generic competencies* for supervisory, management, and top management levels based on the generic competency framework for Public Service structures (OPM/PMS Principles Frameworks, 2001: 33).

Table 4.3 Areas of Competency Emphasis for the Public Service of Namibia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. TOP MANAGEMENT CADRE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Secretary to Cabinet             | • Vision and Norm Setting  
|                                  | • Public Sector Coordination |
| Permanent Secretary [PS]         | • Political Administrative Interface Management  
| Accounting Officers              | • Management of Sector Inter-dependencies  
|                                  | • Cutting-edge Leadership |
| Deputy Permanent Secretary       | • Organisationally Dependent  
|                                  | • Management Support to the PS and USs |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B. MANAGEMENT CADRE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Under Secretary [US]             | • Systems/Process Coordination  
|                                  | • Intra-dependency Management  
|                                  | • Mandate Management |
### Director
- Technical Policy Development
- Functional Liaison

### Deputy Director
- Team Capacity Building
- Operations Coordinator

## C. SUPERVISORY LEVELS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3\textsuperscript{rd} Supervisory</th>
<th>2\textsuperscript{nd} Supervisory</th>
<th>1\textsuperscript{st} Supervisory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>e.g. Chief Control Officer</td>
<td>e.g. Control Officer</td>
<td>e.g. Chief Clerk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Senior level</td>
<td>• Sub-section Level</td>
<td>• Individual Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Control</td>
<td>- Control</td>
<td>- Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Content</td>
<td>- Content</td>
<td>- Content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Discipline and Conduct</td>
<td>- Discipline and Conduct</td>
<td>- Discipline and Conduct</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: OPM/PMS Principles Frameworks, 2001: 39*

Competency-management entails harnessing KSA and behaviours to enhance the organisation’s strengths and future chances of survival in the competing markets. If a misfit develops out of AA practices, then it is costly to rectify the dilemma imposed on competency building for a professional autonomy envisaged for the Namibian Public Service. Other contributing factors are associated with the structural deficiency. Whilst O/M/A’s have structures in place to carry out their strategic plans, staffing and retaining the right type of people with necessary competencies has been problematic without proper performance management initiatives. Professionals, those with developed KSA and behaviours, tend to move on to greener pastures usually in parastatals or the private sector, thus widening the skills gap already existing in the central government and the rest of public sector bureaucracy.
Competency-management seeks to retain as much competency by guaranteeing professional autonomy at all levels of job categories. The Namibian perspective for competency-management transformation implies that the civil service bureaucracy becomes professional and meritocratic (OPM Mission Statement, 2005:5). The reform should bring about change in the organisational culture that in turn would cause change in the structure to enhance enabling conditions for these values.

Generally regarded as characteristic of cadre management level applications in the Public Service of Namibia, the generic top-management competencies focus on: purpose and direction – create future vision, communicate and achieve buy-in, harnessing ideas and opportunities; impact – delivering sectoral results, achieving efficiency gains, ensuring optimal operations, investing in people/human capital, that is getting the best out of people, and effecting a value-based work culture built on the Charter for Public Services in Africa and Namibian Public Service Charter inspirations; and, Policy advice and development – managing and optimizing the political-administrative interface, building new critical capacities that are compatible with good governance (OPM/PMS Principles Frameworks, 2001: 38).

The new public management is outcome-oriented, and this principle should guide the desired reform to significant results. Running an administration should not be a tiresome exercise for the best outcomes to show. The top structure of the Public Service bureaucracy ought to change with the culture of appointing the accounting officers of O/M/A’s. In this view, a sound approach should cause selection committees to be systematically appointed, not preferentially nominated, to remove chances of back scratching among would-be peer groups. A peer group refers to members of the conceited professional elite identical with the Public Service management cadres.

The anti-peer mechanism is currently limited to the selections for replacement of members of statutory boards such as the Electoral Commission. Once a vacancy occurs, a selection committee is constituted through a systematic recruitment of members to
interview and recommend the best suitable candidate for the job. The process culminates in the best qualified being considered on a generic management competency basis. With the advent of New Public Management, however, prospects are wide to fill the Permanent Secretary (PS) positions by contract, renewable every five years. The mechanism should also serve to build the expertise the country needs for international capacity. Namibia has not been able to fill periodic quotas on the Southern African Development Community (SADC) regional integration schemes, African Unity (AU) affairs, and United Nations (UN) multilateral programmes due to the lack of competent candidates.

Contractual appointments have worked very well for public corporate entities including the Regional Councils and Municipalities or Councils of Local Authorities that are second level and third level governments, respectively. As the Board of Directors or senior level selection committees could only be constituted with the approval of the Line Ministry, impartial and diverse representation on the selection committee would be guaranteed. These shining examples are certainly the best practice, but a close analysis could still unearth inconsistencies plaguing this approach. Notwithstanding merits and generic management competencies demonstrated throughout the period of service, the CEO might have to pass the political leaning or loyalty test before further consideration. Ideally, the Public Service Act (Act 13 of 1992) needs amendment and success or failure should accordingly determine the incumbent’s eligibility as the next head of the institution or abdication.

Contracts must be renewed with the approval of the Boards of Directors, Regional Councils and Municipalities or Town Councils in accordance with the Acts of Parliament. The incumbent Chief Executive Officer (CEO) should be eligible for reappointment at the end of a five-year term. But, in proposing similar applications for the post of PS, one presupposes amending the Public Service Act (Act 13 of 1992), to insert a provision on contractual obligations. Implicitly, pragmatic nominations for PS positions are presently conducted by identifying senior management cadres, particularly at Deputy Permanent Secretary levels, for selection and recommendation by a senior
level committee nominated by the appointing O/M/A. The Public Service Commission (PSC) as the arbiter of fairness and transparency then approves or refers back the recommendation with appropriate advice on further considerations.

Appraisals should follow similar patterns as in boards and councils with minimal differentiations where the incumbent PS must be appraised against generic management competency frameworks for the public service and performance management strategies designed for a particular O/M/A. For reappointment at the end of a five-year term, the incumbent Accounting Officer should be offered an opportunity to reapply or abdicate. The proposed approach will improve management quality and allow competency development for the professional autonomy.

4.7 REFORM PROCESS IN THE CENTRAL PUBLIC SERVICE

The reform process aims at fostering indigenous changes by strategic planning and for continuity to face challenges in a most organized manner. The NDP1, 2 & 3 are stages of development that are five years apart and interlinked to provide a well-coordinated national development process. Within the NDP cycle, resources are allocated and wisely managed for a multitude of developmental programs, and the programs evaluated to assess their achievements. NDP’s are strategic vehicles and Vision 2030, otherwise referred to as High Profile Policy Initiative, is the ultimate goal where Namibia sees itself developed and quality of life promoted at the same level as the industrialized North.

The reform process is not only confined to the OPM, which is, however, coordinating the restructuring to achieve the corresponding criteria for reform in the rest of government structures. The Ministry of Regional and Local Government, Housing and Rural Development (MRLHRD) is heading the implementation of the Decentralisation Policy for Namibia that, in accordance with the Constitution of Namibia Chapter 12, Article
102, enhances and guarantees democratic participation of people at the grass-roots level to make their own decisions and determine their own destinies (MRLGH-3, 1998:1-6). Their relationship with the OPM is in the devolution of staff appointments to the Regional Councils. The Ministry of Education is highly decentralized with more activities delegated to the thirteen administrative regions, thus necessitating the merger of the former Basic Education Ministry and Higher Education Ministry created during the Nujoma Era, into a single Ministry of Education in the Pohamba Era.

The Decentralization Policy Implementation Committee of Permanent Secretaries (MRLGH-2, 1998:26) and a taskforce consisting of focal point officers appointed in line ministries and regions to coordinate decentralisation implementation in their respective line ministries and regions respectively (MRLGH-3, 1998:2-3), provide a link with other institutions. Therefore, the Principal Legal Basis for the Decentralisation Policy within the reform process in Namibia is: The Constitution; The Regional Councils Act, 1992; The Local Authorities Act, 1992; The Traditional Authorities Act, 1995; and, The Decentralisation Enabling Legislation (MRLGH-3, 1998: 4).

4.7.1 Budgetary Role in Reform

The critical area of reform in the Pohamba Era is the NDP3 programme of development which, after the experimentation with NDP1 and trial tests with NDP2, projects the national long-term strategic plan towards Vision 2030. The national budgets had been the major decisive factor during the previous two five-year development cycles and remain so for the foreseeable future. The budget process plays a key role in the “applied strategic planning (ASP), a process by which the top management of the organisation envisions its future and develops the procedures and operations necessary to achieve that future” (Wiley, 2003: 6). Former President Nujoma, in the Foreword of NDP2, indicated that:

Budgetary resources take the leading role in the implementation of the plan. In order for the plan to realize the objectives and targets set for the next five years, the national budget should comply with the resource needs of NDP2. Mobilisation of budgetary resources must be supported by adequate and effective implementation capacities in line ministries, regions and other public institutions (NDP2, xv-xvi).
Such budgetary provisions are objectively linked to NDP goals so that a clear “budget policy” must be in place and efficiently implemented to avoid a “budget deficit” (Buchanan, 1995:3).

Governance principles are preferably embodied in the operational values of transparency, openness, and fairness that take shape through budgetary provision for financial resources allocation. The Minister of Finance in the 2005/2006 Budget Statement to parliament, has set new dimensions for reform of the budget, the process in which allocations to individual O/M/A’s were changed from input-based to result-based achievements (Budget Statement, 2005:26). Appropriate policy tools in this instance involve the Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) – a three year rolling budget for operational and development expenditure (Policy Guidelines for the Mid-Term Review of the NDP2, 2001/2003:6), itself underwriting the Performance and Effectiveness Management Program (PEMP) frameworks. The PEMP Program is intended to reorient resources allocation to outcome-based activities (desired results) (Policy Guidelines for the Mid-Term Review of the NDP2, 2001/2003: 6-7). Thus, PEMP ensures OBO indicators of achievements. Vision 2030 requires that enabling environments for development be created where responsible decision-making is improved. The Efficiency and Charter Unit (ECU) Terms of Reference provides for ongoing “reform to advance efficiency and effectiveness” in the Public Service aimed at good governance practices (OPM, 2003:7). The Performance and Effectiveness Management Programme (PEMP), that provides the methodology for inter-ministerial office’s, and agencie’s (e.g. OPM, Finance, and the National Planning Commission) close cooperation, is the ECU’s “powerful tool for policy analysis [especially] towards the budgetary process” (2003:10). The ECU/PEMP linkage, therefore, involves ministries identifying budgetary requirements for creating and for filling posts with suitably qualified Namibians.

The issue of a skills gap is addressed in the same format, linking the Ministry of Education to the national supervision of high, vocational and tertiary institutions, and
specialized programmes such as the Centre for Public Service Training (CPST) at the University of Namibia (UNAM). The Higher Education Act virtually provides for the National Advisory Council for Higher Education (NACHE), among other things to advise the Ministry of Education on budgetary procedures, and evaluation of staff development and management of policies for higher education institutions (Vision 2030, 2004:92).

4.7.2 Reform Instruments

Presently, the OPM has embarked on a number of reform initiatives bound to implement the general principles of the Namibian Public Service Charter fundamentally based on the Charter for the Public Service in Africa adopted by the Ministers of Civil Service in Africa at the [3rd] Bi-annual/Pan-African Conference (PAC) held in Windhoek on 05 February 2001. For effectiveness, the Efficiency and Charter Unit (ECU) in the OPM co-ordinates the implementation of the principles of the two charters.

4.7.2.1 The Public Service Charter

There are nine principles that civil servants should get acquainted with in their day-to-day carrying out of government business. The principles provide rules whereby civil servants should individually improve quality, efficiency and effectiveness of services delivered to the public users. These principles were given in the pocket guide titled “Being a Public Servant in Namibia” as:

- Setting, monitoring and publishing clear standards of service;
- Providing information about public services; providing courteous and helpful service;
- Ensuring that there is regular consultation and communication and a choice of services;
- Providing details of performance;
- Disclosing how public services are managed;
- Ensuring that services are available and applied equally to all;
- Publishing straightforward complains and procedures to ensure quality of service; and,
• Providing efficient and economic public services – value for money (Public Service of Namibia, 2003:77-78).

Internalizing these principles, where communication levels and training for civil servants are particularly weak, to enable them to implement the rules poses a challenge. What the Government of Namibia could do is to endorse the implementation of the Charter, and the Efficiency and Charter Unit (ECU) in the OPM is already mandated to compile a detailed implementation plan and provide for appropriate implementing structures (OPM /InWEnt, 2002: 49).

Documentation of principles alone would not satisfy our purposes until the holistic approach is applied in a comprehensive situational analysis constituting this chapter. Limitations of the Public Service Charter of Namibian, however, should be identified and acknowledged for several assumed reasons: principles are entirely an abstract of the Charter for Public Service in Africa; and, although further definition is much desired, in-depth elaboration was left to Customer Service Charters developed by and for various ministries based on their specific specialities. Thus, analysing the Charter without referring to the universally declared principles in the Charter for Public Service in Africa minimises their meaning due to these limitations.

The Charter for Public Service in Africa principles that are important to this research have been identified and integrated into the review of literature for their profound importance to the research statement and the research question.

4.7.2.2 Reform Programs

Specific areas have been selected under Government’s firm measures to enhance Public Service performance as required of the institutions in the information age. The Secretary to Cabinet released the initiatives in progress as of August 2004 to improve service delivery by:
• Strategic General Training Programme (SGP) comprising the Induction Module and the Customer Care Module for operational, supervisory, and middle level management;
• Human Resources Information Management System (HRIMS) meant to collect, record, store, analyse and retrieve data concerning an Office, Ministry and Agency’s human resources;
• Performance Management System Project (PMS) for the Public Service of Namibia;
• Award Scheme, incentive for good services delivery;
• E-Government, to allow citizens to access government information;
• Namibia Institute of Management and Public Administration (NIMPA) to improve professionalism within the Public Service, to develop civil servants to be effective;
• Revision of the Training Policy for the Public Service of Namibia, for qualifying training within the competency-based framework;
• Job Evaluation and Grading to be fully functional by the year 2005;
• HIV/AIDS Programmes in the workplace;
• Performance and Effectiveness Management Programme (PEMP) focusing on the achievement of outcomes (Kapofi, 2004:3).

These programs are principally a reflection of reform conception in Namibia that the OPM intends to undertake to improve delivery of services to the citizens as well as to enhance professionalism for the civil servants. The initiatives are also an indication that the OPM has passed the stage of planning in these specific areas and is currently implementing the programmes. How effective and efficient the programmes are depends entirely on the strategies adopted in the process of implementing them. Nonetheless, the formulation of strategies is subjective to political and economic conditions that may see programmes being suspended, as was the case with the initial attempts to reform the Public Service under the Wages and Salaries Commission (WASCOM) of 1995 (Geingob, 1997:5).
4.7.3 Adoption of the Merit System for Public Service

In principle, the merit system protects the professions attracted to and retained for the Public Services. But, the Merit System suffers implications because there is no uniform pattern of principles expected in the application and practice. By the Namibian standards, however, meritocracy in both conception and application appear to be more rhetoric and precipitating sporadic resorts to pragmatic principles of experiential determinants. Pragmatism – that utility politicians may take to be relevant for their purposes and fit shared ideas (Wicks and Freeman, 1998:8) deemed practical to their constituency as against workable policy objectives – deviates from realistic decision making particularly when appointing the “right type of people” to the public service (OPM/PSC Staff Audit). Nevertheless, taking the value-laden pragmatic approach (Wicks and Freeman, 1998:15) in the implementation of programmes pertinently ensures that the merit system is sustained, and the status quo is maintained. Thus, causal changes in technological innovations for high performance and increased market competitiveness, as service users are becoming customers, would enhance new ideas of reform.

Politically aspiring citizens could be elected to the legislature mostly on a ticket of the political party of their choice. Relying on Political Activity freedoms, as guaranteed by Article 17 of the Constitution of Namibia, rather than open victory based on their technical-competency, politicians usually find their way up to lead O/M/A’s through political appointments by the President. The appointments of top executives in the posts of Permanent Secretaries and Deputy Permanent Secretaries by recommendations of the Prime Minister to the President are based on political discretion that equals political patronage. The Public Service Commission at this juncture has little or no advice to offer other than giving favorable recommendations of candidates on predetermined criteria for ascending to the top positions. This bypass could be problematic when measuring competencies essential for quality service delivery at top management-cadre levels.

The filling of the public service posts in Namibia could not be regarded as typically a Merit-System approach as it is dictated by the pursuit of having cadres in key positions to
foster cadreship culture in the organisational structures. Merit principles were hardly met in whole as only a few of the competing candidates could meet most of the qualifying values. The required attributes for standard selection criterion were either simplified to include previously disadvantaged Namibians demonstrating self-interested motives that fit in with the new culture, and/or previously advantaged displaying a commitment to the spirit of reconciliation.

As organizational culture changed, so did the behaviour of staff members. Disadvantaged staff members in certain categories had capitalized on the initial skills gap and moved into prestigious occupations motivated only by better salaries and accrued perks, least competencies – knowledge, skills, attitudes (KSAs) and behaviors needed to perform in top management levels (OPM/PMS Principles Frameworks, 2001: 33). In perspective, motivation was there but with crippling implication to the O/M/A performance strategies.

The Government of Namibia had recognized the competency limitations and the need to adapt to new public management for effectiveness through Public Service Reform. Thus, operational values of transparency, openness and fairness should guide civil servants’ performance – efficiency, effectiveness, and accountability – as embodied in the good governance frameworks outlined in the OPM Mission Statement 2005. Accordingly, performance (efficiency, effectiveness, accountability) is determined by a pattern of operational values in the following order: Personal quality – honesty, commitment, teamwork; Values – transparency, openness, fairness; and, public resource management – prudence, value for money, respect for public resources. Every civil servant is expected to display and be guided by these operational values in the daily execution of government business. Therefore, the ultimate wisdom is that public servants’ performance should be judged in terms of their adherence to these values (OPM Mission Statement, 2005:11).

It is the conclusion of this researcher that analysis plays a pivotal role in articulating relationships between the theory and practice of public policy and management. Reform
definition in the Namibian context is vague given the “pragmatic” characteristic of structures subordinating the public service to the direct control of the political elite. The alternative is not supposedly anarchy but a new public management system that ensures performance and efficiency in the running of government business. Changes to the structures should not only serve to implement policy in a constituency perspective, as reform implies both sectoral and structural interdependence. Nonetheless, reform should enhance a generic response of structures to changing conditions that ought to transform the public sector bureaucracy to improve performance.

4.8 POST REFORM CENTRAL PUBLIC SERVICE OF NAMIBIA

Democratic change for good governance is reform-driven as well as policy oriented. Reforms which aim at changing the system to better standards of performance, usually take radical approaches. Comprehensive reforms, on the other hand, would seek a policy change amenable to the reality of political spheres and economic conditions. Policy undertakings in the Public Service of Namibia are in accordance with the provisions of the Public Service Act, 1995, but policy implementation is essentially guided by meritocratic principles. These principles are adopted subjective to the changing organizational culture and changing operational environment. Firstly, organizational culture is influenced by global political and economic trends as external factors and the internal demand for efficiency in service delivery. The political sphere, economic dynamics and social values are, therefore, the conditions determining the environment in which the organization operates.

In the second place, changing organisational structures designed to separate policy from administration and creating executive units with delegated responsibility for service delivery, whether internally to other parts of the organisation or externally to the public, brings about desired change generically central to transforming the system into NPM (Farnham and Horton, 1996: 259-260). The OPM in Namibia was structured responding to the requirement for decentralised control and policy interventions in the coordination
of public sector and related sectoral interdependency (OPM Mission Statement, 2005:6-7). The restructuring process in O/M/A’s is fundamentally designed to meet the new public management demands.

Thirdly, changing the structures, which are designed to shorten hierarchies, devolving managerial responsibility for achieving set targets of performance and holding individual managers responsible for achieving them would enhance professional autonomy (Farnham and Horton, 1996: 259-260). The changes in public sector environment cause structure change. In Namibia, professionalism is currently limited to top management cadre and management cadre levels but lacks the rigor for achieving targets due to the narrow design of functional structures. The culture of performance has yet to take root to instill accountability.

The fourth principle in Farnham and Horton (1996: 259-260) emphasizes the following: measuring organizational achievement in terms of the criteria of economy, efficiency and effectiveness (as may be adopted for public sector) and, developing performance indicators enabling comparisons and measures of achievement to be made, and providing information upon which future decisions can be determined. These are areas where Namibia had to develop a Performance & Effective Management Programme (PEMP), which is a “powerful tool for policy analysis contributing increasingly to the budgetary process for the O/M/A’s” (OPM Annual Report, 2002/2003:10). The PEMP framework “provides the methodology for a jointly agreed series of Outcome-Based-Objectives (OBO) associated measures (strategic measures, and indicators of achievements), typically the performance data required from each O/M/A as a mandatory part of their Budget Submissions” (OPM Annual Report, 2002/2003: 10-11).

Fifth is the development of active policies for changing the cultures of public organisation from ones dominated by traditional public service values to ones attuned to the market, business and entrepreneurial values of the ‘new’ public service model (Farnham and Horton, 1996: 259-260). In Namibia, the initial step for the new public
service model was the provision of a blueprint for customer driven public service to transform the administration under the theme Service Delivery Improvement Initiative (Kapofi, 2004). The Public Service Charter of Namibia next laid fundamental guidelines for change in the organisation culture and related policy approach. The principles of the Charter for Public Service in Africa provide for a quality approach to management within the Public Service, customer orientation as well as establishing hard commitments and standards all crucial to achieving new public management objectives (OPM/InWent, 2002:2).

The last and sixth of the considered principles is “implementing human resources management (HRM) techniques aimed at weakening collectivist approaches and introducing individualist ones” (Farnham and Horton, 1996: 259-260) to ensure adaptive change. For the Public Service of Namibia, a number of Human Resources (HR) strategic initiatives, which took place during the NDP2 period, were geared to espouse the continuing structural and organisational change. Provisions for PMS have been finalized and will be integrated into Strategic Plans of each O/M/A during NDP3 (OPM Brief, 2005). Nonetheless, realizing the importance of the NPM principles does not mean that Namibia has adopted ‘managerialism state’ practices.

4.8.1 Cadre Principles as Basis for Appointments

Cadreship requires strong Party Vanguard reproducing committed cadres for the civil service. In a multi-party democracy, it is possible that bureaucratic principles could be flawed and the professionals may politically sympathize with parties of their choice, thus indulging in political patronage peculiar to the spoils system. The states in democratic transition usually experience difficulties of reforming their civil services from weak centralized structures to professional bureaucracies. The mechanism generally used to safeguard the interests of the ruling party is to effectively transform its political program into a government Plan of Action that entails cadreship principles being applied in the appointments of civil servants.
Similar lines of action have been advocated in Namibia with the South West Africa People’s Organization (SWAPO) Party Elections Manifesto 1988 and SWAPO Party Election Manifesto 2004 being adopted as a government program of action. The SWAPO Liberation Movement Political Programme was transformed into the *Preamble and Sections of the Constitution of Namibia* thereby accomplishing the objective of culminating its action plans into national fundamental laws. Therefore, legislation in Namibia, whilst in principle democratic, is synonymous with SWAPO Party Policy, and politically appointed cadres oversee the sanctioned implementation of policies.

### 4.8.2 Political Appointments of Top Civil Servants

Bureaucratic loyalty breeds better in a democratic political setting. In a democracy, the bureaucracy is accountable to the political elite by implementing cabinet decisions and policy directives. In fact, whilst the political setting provides for *democratic governance*, whereby public servants are required to demonstrate specific operational values, it is political imperatives of the ruling party that are guiding the Public Service in this regard (OPM Mission Statement, 2005:11). Real life political control of public servants empowers them to own the processes and initiate programmes such as the PMS in Namibia to improve their environment.

Political appointment procedures place less emphasis in the technical-competence of the candidates than in the value of their loyalty to the party and its leadership. A cadre is expected to have demonstrated in the past, mostly during the liberation struggle, an unwavering commitment to the party ideology, and at present, a dedication to the post-independence party lines in order to deserve political consideration for a top job. The nominations first identify the candidates in various categories of senior posts and assess records in the party ranks. Secondly, candidates are appraised for leadership qualities, conspicuously establishing the merit basis for Public Service posts commensurate with values required of top management cadres. A special committee on appointments of Permanent Secretaries and Deputy Permanent Secretaries for O/M/A’s is constituted to advise the Prime Minister before recommendation to the President for appointments. The
Cabinet Office does most of the groundwork of coordination and consultation with the PSC on issues of transparency and fairness. This was the process for political appointments of top civil servants in the Public Service of Namibia. The system of appointing senior civil servants as political appointees has been nonetheless done away with, at least documentally, at the termination of the Five-Year NDP1 in 1999/2000.

The new procedure empowers the PSC to approve directly recommendations made by the selection committees of senior political executives at Deputy Minister and Director General levels on behalf of the appointing O/M/A’s. The involvement of members of the political elite in the selection of PS and Deputy PS does not imply political appointment, as only officials in senior positions should procedurally conduct the interview and selection for the top Public Service posts. The appointing O/M/A is also responsible for communicating the appointment results to the candidates through its personnel office.

4.8.3 Technical-Competency Level of Appointments

Qualification requirements are the first stop to ascertain that competency and professionalism (developed consciousness about organisational values) are not compromised for basic qualities such as personal traits that might have been acquired through social, political, and or economic status of a candidate. And because higher education, albeit aligned with national manpower needs, could not be expected to deliver courses with specific relevance to senior civil servants (The Namibian, 29 September 2005:6), it has become necessary to establish a training institute especially for civil servants (29 September 2005:6).

The technical-competence model has yet to take deep roots as existing evidence suggests that introduction of the Performance Management System (PMS), anticipated only from November 2005, would set the pace for appropriate initiatives commensurate with required performance standards. One such initiative is the planned Civil Service College said to be based on the Commonwealth lines to cater for the Namibian Public Service.
training needs. The name suggested for the college would reflect the improved Public Service.

4.8.4 Training Interventions

The programme *Revision of Training Policy for the Public Service of Namibia* presented in the chapter above intends to enhance competency-based knowledge, skills and attitude training interventions crucial to improved performance in respective positions. According to the OPM Special Review of the Public Service Charter (2003:10), such initiatives have benchmarked PMS, a strategic principle in the multitude of integrated reforms being implemented in order to meet the objectives of NDP-2 towards Vision 2030. Training policy will henceforth focus on the qualifying training for ‘civil and public servants’ upgrading, professionalization and leadership development’ (The Namibian, 29 September 2005:6).

The broad range of reform initiatives identified as Government’s firm measures to improve Public Service performance and delivery are to improve professionalism within the Public Service and to develop civil servants to be effective. This ultimately involves establishing the Namibia Institute of Management and Public Administration (NIMPA). The Namibian reported on September 29, 2005 a Cabinet decision taken a week earlier that “mandated a committee of [P]ermanent [S]ecretaries” to implement the programme with the “chief aim to address shortcomings in the public service” in line with the Charter for the Public Service in Africa Guidelines.

Kamoche’s (1989) study of the African civil service systems indicates that it became logically sensible to take stock of accumulated experience and skills as a body of knowledge crucial to competency-management for the public services. The same experience shows that at most PMS are viable instruments for building up such stocks of knowledge precisely as realized in the new evidence from the OPM initiatives. From the WASCOM recommendations to the effective implementation of PMS, a pilot project
underway since 2001, the Public Service of Namibia has not seen such an unprecedented reform initiative, surpassing the early transformation from the “caretaker administration” to a government of national responsibility. The PMS Brief (2005) calls it the development interventions that seek to improve efficiency and effectiveness within the framework for strategic planning and management of O/M/A’s. The PMS project leader described PMS as a “management tool from the onset to ensure that the organisational structures are reviewed to align with government high-level policy initiatives such as Vision 2030 and strategic plans for promoting effective communication between levels of the organisations” (PMS Brief, 2005).

4.8.5 Organizational Improvement for Professionalism

Staffing of the Public Service of Namibia primarily focuses on enhancing the good image of O/M/As that objectively attracts and retrains people with talent, commitment and imaginations compatible with efficient, effective, and quality delivery of public services (OPM/PSC Staff Audit, 2002). However, standard criteria for appointments predetermine the procedures to be followed. Whilst the recruitment and selection is the function of the line Ministry, the PSC subjectively arbitrates in accordance with the provisions of the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) on the transparency and fairness before recommending for the actual appointment.

A generalization of description of staffing practices would not be possible unless measures are examined subjectively. The secondary data collected provides evidence of sustained evaluations of programmes with intent to improve organisational performance whilst enhancing efficiency and effectiveness in O/M/A’s, and accountability of the civil servants. The 1995 WASCOM Report Recommendations had pioneered early government efforts to reform the bloated Public Service. As briefly discussed in this chapter, the report suffered a political decision to safeguard new priorities under the Efficiency and Charter Unit (ECU) strategy.
A Performance Management System (PMS) framework has been developed to set off a reform process that would see the Public Service of Namibia adapting to new public management. In preparation for this, “PMS provides for staff development through investing in knowledge, education and training to enhance performance of the staff members thus enabling the civil service to become increasingly efficient and effective in transforming the system” (Gurirab, 2005). Conceptually, the PMS view presents a generic description that would link change in the global environment to individual cases of reform. As change could not take a spontaneous course where management systems would be seen as passive response to external influence, it should be logically construed as proactive initiatives addressing internal needs.

Based on documented evidence and objectives of PMS programme, the Namibian initiative is clearly bound to enhance efficiency, effectiveness and accountability in other words “performance as element of good governance aligned with the objectives of Vision 2030” (OPM Mission Statement, 2005:11). In terms of inter-ministerial co-ordination, each ministry would establish a Ministerial Implementation Team (MIT) to facilitate the application of the PMS Principles Framework and their integration with respective ministerial Strategic Plans (PMS Brief, 2005). Indigenous needs would thus remain at the core of the desired change.

Professional autonomy is expected to broaden the future role of the professional-elite. For the bureaucracy to become professional and meritocratic (OPM Vision Statement, 2005:5), a transformation of competency-management is necessary to meet these requirements. The OPM, in coordinating the work of O/M/A’s and making the Public Service a professional body, strives to transform the civil service into a professional autonomy, meaning: self-supervision, responsibility and accountability, implicitly denoting a new professional and meritocratic public service autonomous from political pressure (OPM Mission Statement, 2005:5-7). The emerging professional-elite and Management-Cadre principles utterly replace the traditional Weberian notion of bureaucracy neutral from political influence and manipulation by successive political
executives. Professional management could befit public institutions ideally adapted to the *new public management* system as it “complements the private sector in augmenting the national capacity for economic development” (OPM Mission Statement, 2005:8).

Furthermore, the acknowledged reform experience in the Public Service of Namibia points out that after the 1995 WASCOM Report Recommendations excess numbers of workers on government payroll were transferred to the newly commercialized units turned parastatals. Government ownership and the OPM monitoring of State-owned public enterprises entailed molding professional cadre that would thus “boost the State’s capacity to participate in the economy” (OPM, 2005: 8). With the advent of PMS, *professional-manager* and *management-cadre* (literally the professional-elite) have been interchangeably used in public service literature and correspondence regarding human capital development.

Public Service reform themes broadly emphasize the transformation of HR management to motivate the employees of O/M/A’s for “efficiency–delivery on time, effectiveness–impact of delivered goods and services [as] empowers people and accountability–[where] public servants are answerable for their actions” (OPM Mission Statement, 2005:5). In a more detailed version, it implies that PMS should be an instrument for HR Strategic Planning and Human Capital Development with a Performance Appraisal requisite for individual personnel competence assessment. In the absence of PMS however, HR functions remain dormant, and as one participant has observed, could inhibit the appraisal-based measurement of technical-competence levels in structures of the Central Government institutions. General personal quality – honesty, commitment and teamwork required of civil servants – is too pragmatic to sustain absolute technical-competence levels (OPM Mission Statement, 2005:11). Educational qualifications, by virtue of their generic acceptance as measures of competence, would thus remain the most highly regarded criterion for selection.
In perspective, “adopting a rational approach to managing [the public service], which emphasise the role of strategic management in setting objectives and clarifying issues” (Farnham and Horton, 1996: 259-260), is the first core step in the reform process. Namibia has only embarked on this process with the launch of Vision 2030 and has still to implement key initiatives such as the NDP3.

4.8.6 Policy Initiatives and Interventions

Policy intervention in this research has more to do with the reform pertaining to the public appointments to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in government business. The basics of policy formulation start with the problem identified and perceived as requiring policy intervention. For any public policy to be constitutional and effective in application, it must be subjective or objective-based, authentic and synonymous with the area of action clearly defined through legislation.

The Efficiency and Charter Unit (ECU) in the OPM has the responsibility of monitoring and evaluating policy interventions to ensure that they are effective and where necessary to propose alternatives (NDP-2, 2001/2002 – 2005/2006: 774-776; OPM, 2002/2003: 7-8). The policy initiatives based on the Public Service Charter include programmes created to enhance efficiency and accountability in public service delivery. The most recent activities include the Performance and Effectiveness Management Programme (PEMP) started back in April 1999 and integrated in February 2002, and PEMP background is that (OPM Annual Report, 2002/2003:10):

Internal and external political environments are complex requiring well articulated, coordinated and developed approaches to public service management characterised of contractual agreements linked to service provision and performance requirements, high levels of output focus and ‘best’ models; and, that focusing on outcomes, accountability, performance measurement [and] non-contract.

The Public Service of Namibia acclaims to a multitude of policy interventions, among which are the following: Performance Management System (PMS); Revision of the
Training Policy for qualifying training on the establishment of the Namibian Institute of Public Management and Administration (NIMPA), for professionalisation and leadership training of senior civil servants. The PMS is not merely a policy initiative but a strategic management process ensuring that generic competency-management is developed and retained for the public service. Training Policy Revision becomes an intervention responding to the quest for a meritocratic and professional civil service in the limelight of management reform (OPM Mission, 2005:4). The envisaged NIMPA would provide an institutional base for qualifications and professionalisation of the civil service tailored to the public needs (Staff Reporter/The Namibian, 29 September, 2005).

4.9 SUMMARY

Summarising the dialogue and discussions around the issues pertaining to Public Service reform in Namibia, draws the assumption that recruitment is instrumentally decisive and selection is objective when guided by the Recruitment Policy. Analysis of policy initiatives for performance improvement and relevant policy interventions to ensure continuity in the public service of Namibia serves to explain how management reform examined in this chapter is related to the empirical evidence gathered on real life experience.

Fundamentally, the recruitment and selection process of filling the Public Service posts in accordance with the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) characteristically ‘instills confidence in the Merit System and attracts people with talent, commitment and innovative ideas to build a professional civil service’. The principle is inductive but implicit for a logical application. Professionalism, a public administration profession, is on a collision course with reform initiatives liberalizing the traditional bureaucracy into competency-based New Public Management. Thus, professionalism is in limbo. Technical-competency has been widely recognized as the standard criterion for selection to high posts, albeit policy intervention to enhance Competency-Management is long overdue.
Policy change to do away with political appointments to Public Service posts supports assumptions that the employee selection criteria followed in Namibia was pragmatic, and it has outlived the era of being a flagship paradigm for any significant reform process. In this view, pragmatism would mean that which works under the circumstances, disregarding the competencies and professional skills as manifested in politically engendered appointments of accounting officers of the O/M/A’s.

The impetus of reform in the Public Service of Namibia was recharged through the adoption of the Charter for the Public Service in Africa to Namibia’s needs. The *modus operandi* of implementing the Charter and Related Initiatives for Public Service Improvement as might have been adopted has transformed the appointment process for the retention of competencies. The description that befits the new practices is nonetheless “Competency-Management” deemed contrary to old perceptions of the Merit System as the catalyst for effective and professional management of civil services.

The Competency-Management Approach, where widely adopted, has proved to be the most effective approach to contemporary transformation of civil services. Article 15 of the Charter for Public Services in Africa to which Namibia has been co-signatory since 2001, propounds on recruitments, selections, appointments and promotions of Public Service employees on the basis of their competencies and professional skills. Now that Namibia is implementing these principles, as in the words of the Deputy Prime Minister, “The Charter serves as a gauge against which the public service could measure its performance” (New Era, 7th October 2005:5).

Public Service Policy Reform finalized under NDP-2 entails institutional capacity building to enhance professional management that would guarantee quality service delivery. The Public Service of Namibia is just emerging from structuring processes and adapting to Performance Management Systems. Reform based policy interventions in line
with the principles of the Charter for Public Service in Africa involve the application of the Performance Management System (PMS) principles to ensure that technical-competencies are measured and retained for the Central Government Public Service.

Institutional capacity building initiatives have taken a narrow dimension whereby skills development is handled within budgetary considerations for O/M/A’s. This conception implies that individual employee improvement should be based on Performance Appraisal identified training needs. Nevertheless, a dynamic approach through the strategic planning teams currently experimenting with pilot projects on the Performance Management System (PMS) in the ministries was set to enhance skills training and academic qualifications in the Public Service in November 2005, when the PMS was officially implemented. The implementation of PMS and the Charter for Public Service in Africa principles are major strides which have been made in the reform of the Public Service of Namibia (Amathila, New Era, 7th October, 2005:5).

The PSM that has been on the drawing boards for two consecutive five-year terms of development planning, NDP-1 & NDP-2, would take concerted efforts to implement. It was not until the relaxation of political appointments of top civil servants at the end of NDP-1 that the PMS idea started gaining momentum. The evidence available indicates that advanced steps towards improving organisational performance have already been made and are undisputable.

The assumptions that can be drawn here essentially link the reform in the Public Service of Namibia to global trends such as the globalisation of the economy, e-government and the African regional requirements for policy harmonisation as denoted in the Charter for Public Service in Africa. Imperatively, the quest for standardisation of solutions in governance coincidently necessitated such concerted efforts to even avert the infamous Structural Adjustment, an economic instrument more often than not pursued by the International Monitory Fund (IMF) to enforce reform.
The first assumption is that the Public Service Charter for the Republic of Namibia existed only on paper but was then given serious thought and implemented on the basis of recommendations in the Charter for the Public Service in Africa. The second assumption is that the pegging of individual country charters to the new principles, worked out on the proposals of the Second Conference with the technical backing of the African Training and Research Centre in Administration for Development (CAFRAD) and the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), constitute the external condition setting a conducive environment for reform. The reform process emerging from the charter under review conceptually counts on external and internal environments to mould the political and bureaucratic leadership capable to provide unequivocal guidance for change within the African setting.

In the situational analysis, the recruitment and staffing processes vary from profession to profession. We have already noted that in spoils, patronage based on loyalty to party ideology rather than super-performance could lead to appointments of top public service bureaucracy to enable smooth implementation of policies of the party in power. The American experience referred to in Chapter three indicates that spoils politics were necessary to circumvent congressional veto on bills presented for promulgation into acts. The Namibian setting is pragmatic on the appointment issue, in that no provision of the Public Service Act is meant to stem the use of cadre principles. Cadre principles are reminiscent of one-party states such as fascist–tyranny, religious fanatic–autocracy, socialist and communist–popular democracy, which likewise were firmly entrenched in revolutionary vanguard-party systems.

The matching of the examples above does not mean that the systems referred to necessarily share the same ideology nor equally exercise the rule of law in their respective states. But, now that reforms have taken place world-over and market economies have replaced the “commanding heights” of socialist economies, and the emerging public service managerialism has been adopted by governments in many
countries to survive the globalization trend, it is quite logical to view the management of government business in terms of competencies and rational business style approaches.

4.10 CONCLUSION

The Namibian approach to reform is based on structuring and capacity building of public institutions rather than incremental Public Service improvement. Much of the reform initiatives are pragmatic-based, driven by indigenous needs rather than a specific ideological pursuit. Namibia required a functional structure to successfully install a national government and transform caretaker administration activities into statehood. The Constituent Assembly was created and the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia came into being as its product. It was the Constitution that set guidelines for reform to existing structures to be compatible with the requirements of state administration. Consistently, government institutions were structured and restructured in response to the changing operational environment – culture and technology. Adopted strategies ensured performance fit has been checked from the outset, and essentially enhanced the major reform programmes as manifested in the formulation and implementation of the NDP 1 and NDP 2 Strategic Plans towards the Vision 2030.

Notwithstanding anti-colonial and anti-racial democratic values that fundamentally conditioned the political, economic and social relations, institutional structures remain weak in their present size and level of accountability.
CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The diligence of this scientific inquiry is in examining the information generated from the raw data collected and presenting it meaningfully. The primary and secondary data collected on the phenomena being investigated is hereby analyzed and processed into information for significant use.

The purpose of this study is to examine the effects of reform on appointments to top positions of high responsibility in the Central Public Service. Data collection has targeted the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM) as the unit of analysis. Despite many variable issues open to investigation, the research focused on real life experience of top public service employees in relation to four key aspects of reform: restructuring, institutional reform, recruitment, selection criteria, employment opportunity and values.

The empirical evidence collected helps to better understand the reform process, particularly the implementation of the Recruitment Policy and initiatives transforming the Public Service into a meritocratic Central Public Service. With Background information about the reality on the ground, and a determination as to the extent of reform effects on appointments of senior level management cadres, recommendations can now be made to address the skills-gap problem.

The data collected by means of a questionnaire will be treated as confidential and no personal particulars or details will be revealed or published. That fulfills the confidentiality and security guarantees component of research ethics. Care was taken to design a questionnaire (see Appendix 5) that focuses on the service history of the participant: first, giving his/her name, then title, position and level based on WASCOM
recommended pay structure. Every participant was required to list specific departments within the Office/Ministry/Agency (O/M/A) in which he or she has previously served or is still employed in order to reflect their experience adequately. Acquired experience measured on the basis of number of years in the present and or previous position was required to gauge the individual’s knowledge of the Public Service. For those who have served in the pre-independence administration, a section was inserted to give the name of the employer (government institution) and the number of years served so as to reflect their previous experience. Occupational ranks were also required for comparison with the present set-up.

5.2 DATA PRESENTATION

Data collection took three dimensions critical to successful analysis of the appointment phenomenon. Surveying documents generated an array of unrefined information referred to herein below as documentary evidence. It needs sorting and systematic validation before analysis. Responses through the questionnaire were straightforward indicating, yes or no.

The answers are summarized and presented as the collected data in Table 5.1 below. But for clarity, it is necessary that the key questions are identified by category of the information which is sought. The idea is to critically provide insights and the lead for analogue that is supporting the research question. The following three questions were selected during the follow up meetings with high ranking officials in the OPM and generated the quoted answers.

5.2.1 Merit System category

- **Question:** We have learnt from the staffing division of the PSC that, one characteristic of filling posts in the Public Service is “to instil confidence in the merit system”. What is the Public Service motivation in this perspective?

- **Public Service Management Official Answered that:** “It is strange that someone is talking about Merit System that has never been a part of the Recruitment Policy. If this is something documented, I would like to verify that before making a comment”.


Nevertheless, upon verifying the statement on the OPM web-site, the respondent conducted the PSC Secretariat to rectify the error. He argued that the Public Service is guided by the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) and the appearance of the statement could have been a mistake attributable to human error.

Further verification with the PSC Secretariat showed that the statements on the web-site were not updated on time due to lack of capacity and competency of the responsible staff members to detect the implicating policy issues. However, the same respondents have completed the questionnaire supporting elements such as the ‘security of job tenure’ which is relevant to the Namibian setting.

5.2.2 Competency Management Category

Recruitment and selection in central government is guided by Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) and the Recruitment Policy regulated by the Public Service Commission (PSC). Generally, this is believed to be a pragmatic approach based on a Merit System. Merit system emphasise professional values – developed consciousness about organisation’s performances and cultures – as requisite for top-job entry. This emphasis signals a high competition among professional elites than in lower categories.

- **Question:** As high-ranking officials are by structural standards fewer in any organisation, would you describe competition as an attempt to attract (external) and retain (internal) people with technical competencies? (Yes/No). If no, what is the best practice of filling top management cadre posts?

- **Answer** by a high ranking official in the PSC Secretariat responding to this question stressed that “the purpose of filling the Public Service posts is to attract the most qualified candidates inside and outside the Public Service. For that reason, all management level posts are advertised in the daily newspapers for all to apply”.

This question sought to address the competency issue. The open ended questionnaire suggesting the selection criterion such as recommending known cadres, elevating the lower ranking employees, searching for innovative talents, building-up competency stock, and retaining competency, was completed with more preference for the searching of innovative talents.
5.2.3 Political/Cadreship Category

The Constitution of Namibia Chapter 11, Article 95 Section (a) stipulates on equal employment opportunities (EEO). Affirmative Action (Employment) Act, 1998 (Act 29 of 1998) universally abbreviated as AA has been in force since its promulgation into an act of parliament.

- **Question:** Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) and Affirmative Action (AA) are fundamental concepts in the employment policy adopted to address the imbalance of the past. How does your organisation define the victims of discriminatory practices? The target group consists of previously disadvantaged members of the society specifically Blacks, women, and people living with disabilities. Does it mean that being Black qualifies a person to occupy a high position without required competency?

- **Answer** from top officials in the Policy Analysis department was that “AA and EEO policies are the catalyst for political considerations which provides for a certain degree of exemption from standard requirements. The final choice normally favors the category underrepresented in the appointing establishment”.

It means that AA and EEO are strategic driven policies aiming at addressing the imbalance of the past and at the same time giving the Blacks the majority role in public affairs. The observation disclosed that Permanent Secretaries did not contest for their appointments but benefited from AA/EEO. However, all respondents had strongly rejected any move to recommend known cadres for appointment because such a move compromises the principle of fairness and transparency.

The purpose of this research study is to present the data which can produce the desired results. The key answers are assisting to focus on those issues pertaining to the targeted outcome. Much of the data collected will be used as cross-issues but not serving to describe the phenomenon. In order to avoid a potential confusion, the useful data is grouped in categories, as per Table 5.3 below, for proper management.
Table 5.1 presents the data collected by questionnaire in the following order:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTION BY CATEGORY (YES/NO OR AFFIRMATION)</th>
<th>OPM AND RCs OFFICIALS RESPONSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cabinet Office</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Is your work experience in the present position less than 10 years?</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The O/M/As you have so far served, were they inherited from the apartheid occupation era?</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. EEO/AA emphasize non-discrimination. Has your O/M/A of late been implementing this policy?</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Decentralization created kills-gap. Did your O/M/A effect internal promotions to close the gap?</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. PSC Staffing Division is applying the Merit System to instill confidence in the Public Service. Do you agree?</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author Generated Model

Further to the presentation, it is necessary to test the reliability of the data before producing the results to be generated from this data. As the qualitative data cannot be categorized in independent and dependant variables, the testing is being substituted by performing a triangulation as follows:

- Documentary Evidence based on available records collected
- Real Experience Evidence gathered through interviews
- Observed Evidence from preliminary surveys and subsequent face-to-face verification of collected data.

The reliability of data had to be determined to ensure that the analysis thereof is accurate. Firstly, fifty-five contacts were initially identified across the Public Service to maximize the results. Those who acknowledged the invitation letter to participate in the interviews were mostly junior ranking civil servants. Only two top management cadres, all from Regional Councils, had confirmed their readiness during follow-up calls to establish rapport thereby casting doubt whether the result will be reliable. But, in order to maintain the focus of research the investigation was narrowed to the OPM as the specific unity of analysis. Five top levels (PS, Under-Secretaries and CRO) and the corresponding number of senior level (Directors and Deputy Directors) had finally agreed to participate. Thus, the number was reduced from fifty-five down to ten respondents. Therefore, the
Secondly, there were twenty-five open-ended questions to answer on the questionnaire (Appendix 5) reflecting five categories, namely: personal experience; institutional transformation; Public Service restructuring; policy intervention; and reform strategy. The answers were expected to support or refute the Research Question “To what extent the cadre appointments transformed into a meritocratic Public Service”. Much of the information collected by this method appeared to have been filtered, which necessitated face-to-face contacts so as to verify the data. Thus, the interviews with directors and deputy directors were treated as supplementary to avoid duplication of what the top management cadres had said. Therefore, the figures in the summary represent five respondents only. The results are summarized in Table 5.2 below:

Table 5.2 Key results from the semi-structured interviews by the questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KEY RESULT BY CATEGORY</th>
<th>MOST FAVOURED</th>
<th>AVERAGE</th>
<th>LESS FAVORED</th>
<th>INDICATORS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Merit System</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Four in favor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competency</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>All five in favor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cadreship</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>None in favor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author Generated Model

Table 5.2 indicators the higher number of respondents in favor of appointments based on competency. The Merit System was reflected in a set of values spread over the twenty-five questions of the questionnaire. Nevertheless, the indicative result of respondents in favor of the Merit System is four. These results have set three categories under which the data is finally presented and analyzed. Each category in turn is linked to the institutional, strategic, and/or political perspectives in which the data will be analyzed and interpreted to determine the substantive findings.
5.3 DATA ANALYSIS

The interpretation of the data presented in Table 5.1 shows that respondents gave answers to open-ended questions on the Questionnaire (Appendix 5) reflecting three categories, namely:

- Merit System
- Competency-Management System
- Cadreship Principle System

The categorization is helping to analyze the data in perspectives. In other words, the reduction of data into categories is minimizing the chances of non-scientific analysis. An analysis outside the categories would mean that each issue is interpreted separately, thus, resulting in clumsy elaborations and the undesired confusion.

Table 5.3 Data Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>GROUPING</th>
<th>INTERPRETATION/MEANING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Merit System, Bureaucracy, Political Patronage, and Democracy</td>
<td>Data related to these group of concepts is classified as fundamental, hence, category A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Competency, Educational Qualifications and Equal Employment Opportunity</td>
<td>This group is reflecting values/principles vital for selection for appointment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Political Cadreship principle, Gender, Affirmative Action and Equal Employment Opportunity</td>
<td>Manipulable considerations that can fit in with political or system orientation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Author Generated Model*

The interpretation of data categories indicates that Category A is fundamental and thus encompassing B and C. But, A fits more in describing Public Administration systems, while B is for describing the New Public Management, and C is for the New Public Administration. The relationship between these categories is basically dependent on interplay of components. For example, EEO fits in both B and C, while cadreship fits in C and A. The inter-group relationship can be defined in perspective or values that are closely related or interchangeable. The reason for applying this model in this research study is to provide scientific results as well as to proffer a tangible explanation of findings.
5.3.1 Institutional Profiles
Analysis of the data collected revealed that the structures of a few of the present public institutions were inherited from the apartheid system of governance. Government structures consisted of departments and offices responsive to legislations passed in South Africa with minimal modifications for application in the then South West Africa/Namibia. At independence, restructuring was necessary to transform the system to cater for democratic governance and level the playing ground for national reconciliation. Significantly, some of those institutions inherited from the apartheid occupation era were transformed into a new brand compatible with the New Public Management Approach, which is adapting to business-like management principles and customer service. To address the issue of changing structures and organizational culture, management level posts requiring specific competences were created. Old institutions were generally involved in policy change as inherited policies were too outdated to address the past imbalances. In the old system academic qualification requirements were not strictly adhered to. Instead only merit records and administrative experience were favored for promotion into middle level management.

5.3.2 New Institutions
The participants in this research study offered different views with regard to the current state of affairs in the post-independence administrative settings and filling of Public Service posts. Standardized requirements begin with tested managerial skills commensurate with academic qualifications at tertiary and postgraduate levels. Responses received from the Public Service Management department officials indicate that the current state of technical competency in the Public Service has improved compared to the situation at independence. Significant improvement was achieved as a result of job upgrading with higher qualification prerequisites to enhance efficiency in the Public Service. Investment in education, particularly through the University of Namibia and the Polytechnic of Namibia, has partially satisfied this requirement.
5.3.3 Selection criteria

Documentary evidence indicates that assessing of merit records was not the central tendency in the recruitment of government officials. The derived supposition is that anyone could have been eligible to ascend into a position of public responsibility. Given stringent policies reserving job rights for Whites in the colonial civil service, it was not practical to introduce the merit system without contradicting the apartheid doctrine of Whites-only Public Administration. Thus, a general perception shared across the spectrum of interviewees is that the Merit System as concept was first introduced in the post-independence Public Administration to embrace the policy of National Reconciliation.

Other values that have been under valued are academic qualifications. Standard VI (Six), which was the highest grade in primary education, was until independence the standard requirement for entry positions below management level. For management positions the requirement was Form V (Five) or matriculation, which was the highest grade at secondary level of education. Policy formulation and implementation was rarely articulated by local bodies as this was subjective to the supreme laws dispensed from Pretoria. Thus, the appointment of policy responsible officials was at the discretion of the South African Administrator General in the territory of South West Africa (Namibia).

None-the-less, on close examination of the infamous Odendaal Report Recommendations for Bantustans in the then South West Africa, it was brought “die-hard racists” came to the government service because the field has been narrowed by racist laws. Job-rights were reserved as if they were the only ones who could deliver the services efficiently. Notably, these were self-interested individual motivated by economic prospects such as high salaries and social status, rather than equal treatment and equity. Merit System, as pioneered in the United States of America, might have been correctly described as non-partisan and flexible in attracting professional persons to the civil service. However, in the Namibian context, the situation on the ground indicates that a different type of self-interested competition exist, but lacks the rigor to enforce competency requirements.
5.4. EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

The interview with Efficiency Charter Unit revealed that the Affirmative Action (AA) implementation has reached the final stage as a balanced filling of public posts had been accomplished by the end of NDP1 in 1995. New standards of recruitment are in place to ensure vacant posts are advertised internally as opportunity for promotions, and externally as a chance to attract competent personnel. The selection of suitable candidates now looks at qualifications, experiences and most importantly the skills that the individual brings to the service. It is critical that the overall quality of personnel correspond with the O/M/A’s mission and goals.

The two categories of Affirmative Action (AA): previously disadvantaged (Blacks, women, and people living with disability - victims of discriminatory practices); and previously advantaged (male Whites), have been implicitly refuted due to the fact that they are a form of indirect discrimination in the selections of candidates. Rather, the Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) definition was preferred as it fits in with the reality of selection criterion based on academic qualifications, job experience, and skills. Comparatively, EEO values meet both internal promotion and external recruitment more effectively than AA, which is limited to a few categories. A justification is obviously hatched in that even the recommendation to the Public Service Commission would have to emphasize the non-discriminatory practices.

Cabinet Secretariat and Policy Analysis Officials indicated that whilst AA is achieving its objectives, the Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) Policy has been higher on the agenda, targeting male and female candidates. It is so in that the Public Service is exempted from some of the provisions of the Labour Act and the AA requires an operational friendly policy in the form of EEO. Most people coming to the Public Service have been considered on the basis of their academic qualifications and skills that does not necessary distinguish between genders. Gender issues come in second place if not third place when selection in accordance with the Recruitment Policy is fairly
conducted. Fairness is arbitrated through the Public Service Commission Secretariat using staff auditing methods. However, shortcomings due to human error or policy ineffectiveness are not ruled out. For that reason a mechanism was put in place to train public servants in effective implementation of policies to insure efficiency in the management of government business. One hopeful tool is the Public Service Charter that must be implemented in all departments by all public servants. The Charter was taken to sub-offices and regions, and based on regular assessments, performance results are now better than before the implementation.

Nevertheless, respondents implementing the Decentralization Policy have a different view, that the AA and EEO policies might require appropriate administrative systems to be put in place to ensure their proper application in Regional Councils. In the present administrative settings AA could easily conceal the abuse of power without implicating the perpetrators in the process. Evidence provided from the OPM shows that a phased application of the AA has been completed, and a new stage of reform has just begun. Officials in the Public Service Management Department stated that institutional building for the Public Service is over due. Early strategies tied to the AA apparently delayed the introduction of the Performance Management System (PMS) deemed critical to a comprehensive reform process. Even the ongoing annual staff auditing could not solve the competency concerns ten years after implementing the WASCOM Recommendations.

The Public Service Commission (PSC) is currently working on the establishment of the National Institute of Public Management (NIPM) specifically focusing on upgrading skills for public servants. The idea is to provide training directly benefiting performance in the Public Services. Based on that proposition, the aim is to improve the capacity of those already in the service to be able to compete for the next level of promotion usually contested through external recruitment.
5.5 MERIT SYSTEM APPOINTMENTS

Senior Officials in the Cabinet Secretariat and the Efficiency and Charter Unit expressed mixed feelings on the clause about Personnel Audit Functions emphasizing Merit System instilling confidence in the Public Service appointment. In their view, whatever records there might be should have something to do with personal traits. Their predicament was reinforced by referring to meritocratic values that should be demonstrated by Civil Servants as a team once in employment, and never to individual attributes. Perhaps the documented statements insisted on merit-based selection and appointments generic to any type of public administration. If the Merit System was ever operational in the Namibian Public Service, then it could have been established to preempt spillovers from the colonial-apartheid administration that prejudiced job rights on a racial basis. Nonetheless, they have further stressed that a pragmatic approach on issues addressing competency have been applied on a daily basis to realize the organizational goals.

One example provided by officials in the Public Service Management Department was the envisaged creation of the NIPM. The decision was inspired by the needs and future reality of the Public Service performance. This vision is based on past and present experience calling for adopting practical solutions to the competency problems. Similarly, the issue of rationalizing the Public Service was apparently pragmatically addressed through comprehensive reform strategies. Nonetheless, rationalization suffered setbacks due to lack of policy support. Given the crosscutting issues emanating from the WASCOM Report Recommendations of 1995, which were in contradiction with AA and EEO policies on national reconciliation, recommendations were revoked and a new approach in the form of Efficiency and Charter Unit in the OPM was adopted.

Regarding present appointments in the Public Service posts, the following stances are said to be more than often regarded as workable to instill confidence in the employees:
5.5.1 Transparency

Transparency in recruitment attracts potentially qualified persons to Public Service as the preferred employer. According to top officials in the two Regional Councils, the trend of transferring personnel from the Central Public Service attracted competent people to their newly expanded structures at a high rate. Their success is basically guaranteed if they can display innovative talents, rather than a system of favoritism, where a known cadre could be favorably recommended.

5.5.2 Competitive Salaries

The salaries commensurate with performance have been a factor in attracting personnel to the Public Service. Increasingly, meritocratic culture has become dominant in Public Service operations, which are efficiency and commitment driven, but generally lack incentives to retain qualified personnel. Bureaucrats harboring self-interested motives, as noted, have made use of the opportunity to seek greener pastures in the parastatals and private sectors. The Public Service Secretariat could not provide statistics on the migration across the Public Service. However, the officials were sure that most desertions of experienced staff members were status-related. This limited exodus did not create shortages, because many candidates inside and outside the Public Service are waiting for such opportunities to fill the gap.

5.5.3 Security of Job Tenure

The job security has been an incentive for employees from previously disadvantaged backgrounds. The government did not have a regulation to retain employees possessing high skills other than the advantage of competing for promotion within the structure. With new opportunities for employment in the Public Service that are not autocratic, large numbers of employees continue to join lower ranks in the hope that someday they will rise to the top.

5.5.4 Build-up Competencies

Competency levels, according to the Public Service Management department, entails measures addressing shortage through various methods of staff development to retain
critical skills for the Public Service. Presently, ongoing training ventures include the joint Masters Program in Public Management for middle-level and top management, concluded between the Government of Namibia, the University of Namibia and the Institute of Social Studies in The Netherlands. While these ventures represent the highest profiles in response to government training needs, the skills gap problem in the Public Service admittedly remains unresolved until the NIPM is launched and operational. As there is no system of Performance Management in place to build up high profile skills over the time, it is not possible to rely on internal promotion. Therefore they usually look outside for qualified persons to fill vacancies as they occur. Retaining the right personnel was obviously hard for the officials to define, but to some degree they expressed confidence in the ongoing personnel audit that would ensure that standard qualifications are maintained at all levels.

5.5.5 Individual Qualities
The qualities as requirement for consideration do not count much in recruitment. Personal traits, sometimes stated in Curriculum Vitae (CV), are, according to the Personnel Auditors, not a factor in the shortlisting of candidates but simply a reference. It is nevertheless expected that short-listed candidates demonstrate at the interview extensive management experience. For the interview panel to determine the suitability for appointment, questions are set to unveil such values required of the successful candidates and not mere rhetoric that may be expressed to impress the panel. The Recruitment Policy emphasizes reaching out to a broader number of aspirants and affords all potential applicants an opportunity to contest the post in a transparent manner. Apparent selection of candidates is procedural and should reflect fairness in order to pass arbitration of the Public Service Commission. Distinctions are drawn based on: demonstrated planning experience; proven leading capacity; tested organizing skills; credited co-coordinating ability; and level of communication skills.

5.6 COMPETENCY MANAGEMENT
On implementing the Decentralisation Policy as a reform strategy, the respondents disagreed that the process was indirectly downsizing the Public Service. Losing qualified
middle-level managers actually was, but the argument defended such transfers and suggested recruiting outsiders to fill the resulting skills-gap. Again, respondents expressed confidence in existing policy frameworks on inter-governmental relations and could see no point of Central Government enforcing critical issues of governance at sub-national levels of government. To say the least, respective ministries are duty bound to recommend policy change to enhance national co-ordination of efficiency and effectiveness in the Public Service.

Improving performance of top executives was difficult for some respondents to confirm. However, those who answered the question whether the staff development in the O/M/A’s included induction for the frontline supervisors and the management cadres have positively confirmed the public perception on the subject. Workshop methods of training organized both internally and externally apparently were favored most, while in-job training, short tailor-made courses, and long-term studies got scanty attention as ineffective or costly in terms of productivity time wasted. Generally, jobs seekers are expected to align their choices corresponding to their qualifications.

The present level of competency was gauged using requisite for top jobs. Respondents marked that search for innovative talents is the most favored method of filling the top management cadre vacancies as they occur. Varying perceptions were given on building up competencies to retain the best, reasoning that the government has no policy on stemming the exodus to greener pastures. Other strategies denied were recommending known cadres and automatic elevation of the lower ranks, because they are contradictory to transparency in filling the Public Service posts. Candidates must still submit proof of academic qualifications with a high level of professional experience before being considered for the top posts. Personal traits and motivations are hardly added to criteria for selection, as these values are manipulable to mislead the selection.

Respondents have shunned Labor Unions’ opposition to commercialisation of government services, as in their opinion, going corporate was a reform strategy to enhance competition and promote profit making ventures in the public sector. There was no job-loss as the union might have feared. Nevertheless, NPC officials could not deny or
confirm that inefficiencies were rife despite attracting the qualified personnel from
government ranks to join the parastatals.

Policy unit reply to the questionnaire indicated the strong possibility of new policies
guided by specific Acts of Parliament to control parastatals. The Central Agency was
created to serve as policy-link between parastatals and the government through the OPM.
Policy co-ordination involves the Cabinet Office ensuring compliance with legislations
and Permanent Secretaries Forum for policy implementation co-ordination.

In face-to-face discussions on recruitment and selection of candidates, Public Service
Management official, indicated that personnel rules and regulations of parastatals are
based on the Public Service Recruitment Policy with minor adjustments to cater for
issues related to varying professions.

5.7 RESEARCH RESULTS

The sources of data collected must be reliable to generate accurate information basis for
explaining the research findings. It assists to reconcile primary and secondary data
collected for analysis. Similarly, accuracy can be achieved through categorization when
analyzing the same data.

The outcome of this formative (determining) research, whilst destined to determine the
effect of reform on appointments of Management Cadres, should finally use the findings
to corroborate or refute the question of research. Since the qualitative data collected for
analysis in this chapter cannot be measured, a categorization is necessary to articulate the
research findings from the insiders’ perspectives (viewpoint). Real life experience
reflected in the data could not be subjected to prescribed norms to generate accurate
information. For this reason, the author has adopted the Grounded Theory that can be
applied holistically to the research process. Qualitative data analysis becomes flexible
(pragmatic view of knowledge as an experiential process) to explain because it is
independent of any prescriptive (normative) model. Thus, this formative research takes a
realistic view so as to proffer tangible solutions to the skills-gap problem.
Preliminary surveys produced evidence of previously disadvantaged citizens seeking jobs in the public service. Findings indicate that the motive for such a tendency is hinged on security of job tenure enabling an individual employee to serve longer in the public service position. Informal participatory observation involving attending interviews for various posts at supervisory and management cadre levels unveiled some mediocrity in matching qualifications with job requirements. For instance, there would be no explanation why a nurse by profession should be appointed Director of Planning in a field other than health without relevant qualifications. It leaves observers to wonder whether there were no competent contenders for the same post. These types of actual choices, which were tantamount to handpicking of preferred candidates, usually led to cunning selection for appointments, thus compromising competencies required for the job. The author also discovered that the political patronage style is very common in appointing cadres to top positions. Permanent Secretaries appointed since independence in 1990 have not had to contest for their posts. The Public Service Commission Secretariat declined to comment on this stance, citing these as political appointment beyond their control. It reflects cadreship principles seemingly applied within an acclaimed Merit System to breed new bureaucratic elite outside Public Service Recruitment Policy prescribed procedures.

5.8 RESEARCH FINDINGS SYNTHEITIZE

Documental evidence generally indicates that fundamentally, educational qualifications with practical experience are the criteria for appointments. Empirical data collected has confirmed these standards as required of most preferred candidates. But the implementation of AA might pose a challenge inasmuch as appointments are subject to open contestation and not sanctioned by political intervention. From the responses to the questionnaire, and the feed-in meetings or the verification interviews with participants, it is clear that whilst AA ensures that the previously disadvantaged are not discriminated against, it does not prevent discrepancies. Incidents of marginalizing anyone with a previously disadvantaged background, for instance when males and females are equally
qualified for recommendation for the post, are hardly reflected as issues of concern to be reported to the Public Service Commission.

The Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO), however, has laid grounds for addressing gender imbalances. One out of five respondents admitted that the procedures followed transfer responsibility from O/M/As to the Public Service Commission to approve and recommend best practices within powers and discretions conferred upon them by the Constitution of Namibia and in accordance with the provisions of the *Public Service Act, 1995* (*Act 13 of 1995*). Further elaborations indicate that the final choice normally favors the category underrepresented in the appointing establishment.

The pattern used to align the empirical evaluation to competency-management matched institutional transformation from the apartheid era and institutional structuring to statehood at independence. A selection of five respondents in key positions of policy formulation and implementation has provided evidence adequate to evaluate technical competence capacities. Those institutions which inherited and retained the capacity at which they operated in pre-independence era have experienced a drastic transformation of structure and culture to be compatible with the new political setting. The participants in this study indicated that the institutional setting in the post-independence environment experienced substantial expansion of structure at political executive level and management cadre level, none of which existed before, as seconded officials from the Civil Service of Apartheid South Africa then exercised such responsibilities. The requirements were moderate for merit record, management experience, and political maturity while substantially higher for academic qualifications. Since there were fewer job seekers with high academic qualifications at the outset, this requirement was waived in favor of the merit-based appointments.

As for new government institutions – offices, ministries and agencies created at independence and through subsequent restructuring initiatives for the proper administration of government business – structuring was necessary to acquire the
capacity to formulate and implement public policies. Hierarchical structures have been set up consisting of departments, directorates, and divisions, which specialized in different aspects of governance. Management cadre posts created in these structures represent the required specialties that entail the recruitment and selection for appointment of suitably qualified personnel. Thus, requirements in these circumstances were those more related to Affirmative Action (AA) and Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO).

The research has nevertheless sought to provide empirical evidence to solve this Public Service motives phenomenon. Motivations that led most job seekers to apply to the government could be classified as applicants’ self-interested search for competitive salaries and high social status. But most respondents have denied this idea to be a valid reason as experience has shown that the majority scramble for entry level posts that provide a basic living wage with remote chances of gliding through promotion to the top post. It has thus become evident that previously disadvantaged applicants have much confidence in public sector employment for their own sake and job security guarantees.

The conclusions in Chapter six will determine whether or not the outcome of empirical examination is valid for recommendations. The semi-structured interviews using the questionnaire helped to produce data critical to the understanding of changes and basis for merit-based appointments, political appointments, and cadreship principles followed in the process of implementing the Recruitment Policy. Critical assumptions nevertheless have been advanced about professionalism to describe the inevitable disparity created under such circumstances. Other contents vital to the outcome are documental evidence which is integrated with the findings on the recruitment process. Thus, the summary of this chapter is dedicated to synthesize the finding of the research.
5.9 SUMMARY

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.

The empirical evidence collected refuted the existence of the Merit System in the Public Service of Namibia, although documental evidence indicates to the contrary. The present practice is nonetheless said to be democratic (political setting) and pragmatic rather than bureaucratic (institutional setting). Bureaucracy should be understood in terms of the Weberian Model of neutrality from political influence, and unbiased professional career in public administration. Pragmatism simply denotes what works, not necessarily in realistic terms but values.

As empirical evidence unraveled, it transpired that professionalism as a basis for reform and public service transformations was on the decline. Changes in the organizational culture were principally influenced by universal reform. These may inhibit the Competency-Management approach being the best practice. Thus, the research study determines the effect of the Merit System, which was adopted as the preferred approach to public service appointments based on cadre-principles, meticulously using the Grounded Theory as the basic theory for understanding this phenomenon, and proposes the NPM as a new paradigm for reform to improve performance in the newly established Public Service.

Democratic governance encompasses varying models such as bureaucracy. The Central Government of Namibia is structured to be pragmatic in delivering standardized services to the citizens. This notion was proved and validated because facts indicate the pragmatic
approach is overt in public affairs, but covert in Public Service appointments. Competency-based (rather than Merit-based), for its transparency, could be the preferred approach to staffing the public bureaucracy.

The Competency Management concept is, nevertheless, being widely adopted as the most effective approach to contemporary transformation of civil services. It is the best method to retain the qualified and competent for the Public Service. The Merit System, however, it has outlived the era of being a flagship paradigm for any significant reform process. This differentiation could be problematic when measuring competencies essential for quality service delivery. The Central Government of Namibia could introduce the Competency-Management and Development approach as an alternative measure for appointing the civil servants and a mechanism for retaining a professional public service.

Data collection in this research study has combined the general case study methods that looked at historical, political and socio-economic development perspectives of the unit of analysis through the life history technique. At the same time, the data analysis provides an answer to the research question as to what extent the Merit System is applied, and why cadreship appointments are not the best practices for staffing in the Public Service.

5.10 CONCLUSION

The current reform process is partially meeting the objectives of democratic governance towards Vision 2030. The purpose of investigating the impact of reform on the filling of public service posts was accomplished, with the indication that new models slightly more in line with the New Public Management system have replaced the old recruitment model. The change of organisational culture and structure has caused management reform. However, the transformation process, due to apartheid policies of racial, ethnic and institutional segregation that prevailed, was not articulated with a democratic view. Thus, adaptive change is essentially a measure for the organisation’s survival in the competitive markets.
Policy analysis in this chapter is about improving performance through appointments of the right type of people, retaining competent staff and developing a professional and meritocratic public service. The subject has been extensively discussed throughout the thesis but within different contexts. In any case, Public Service Reform is the theme of the research where different perspectives should be examined using a multitude of models, techniques, and methods. It is for instance not uncommon to subject managerial behaviour to an empirical research before further assessment to get different outcomes.

The study was highly influenced by the experience of selected Commonwealth countries in the West as well as the developing nations of Africa and Asia. Recruiting and selecting categories of civil servants on a competency-basis does not preclude political patronage inasmuch as political approval is sought to fill the posts. The viable solution to the old practice is to have appropriate legislation in place and to develop policies to ensure transparency and fairness in the application of models.

The analysis above should produce an explanatory framework for the research findings in Chapter six. Thus, analysing the impact of organisational culture on managerial behaviour supports the research question and statement assumptions. The following, Chapter six, focuses on reporting the findings to confirm whether the objectives of the research study have been met, and it also concludes the research study.
CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Nations that gained recognition as Trustees under the United Nation (UN) system from 1945, Namibia among them, have since gained independence and statehood. It is common experience in post-colonial states that whenever each one of them tried in its own right to shake off the yoke of dependency for development, inherited government structures frustrates efforts to consolidate the independence gains. Most of formerly colonized and emerging developing nations in Africa, for instance, could not significantly transform their civil services to serve the purpose of a developmental state. The period between 1945 and 1995 was, therefore, marked by internal instability: political turmoil, economic stagnation, and social degradation of societies.

Public Service bureaucracies have played a prominent role in the fermenting crisis of societies in transition. Perpetual lack of appropriate policies on good governance in Africa has literally buttressed ineffective structures. Moreover, wily government officials have principally been identified as culprits and much of the public service inefficiencies, compounded to mismanagement of public resources, were attributed to them. Exemplary transformation of public institutions and government structures in the Organization of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) member countries, then pioneering public sector reforms, become attractive to resolve the societal crises in post-colonial developmental states. The study, taking cognition of OECD endorsed reform policies transforming Traditional Public Administration and New Public Administration as member countries adapted to New Public Management (NPM), concluded that post-colonial government in Africa could have adopted a similar paradigm shift to survive global trends.

In this perspective, Namibia has also embraced NPM in pursuit of a comprehensive post-apartheid development agenda. As per the findings of this study, general indicators since
independence in 1990 are that non-core public services were commercialised and professional management has been earnestly promoted for government institutions. Specific indicators are that competency emphasis for the Public Service of Namibia is an interface of professional management and administrative polity. Evidently, both indications underpin the reform strategy on the appointment of the right type of people for the public service, which is the subject of this study.

This study is determining the effects of reform on cadre appointments in the Central Public Service and makes recommendations on realistic solutions to the skills-gap that, seventeen years down the road of economic independence, still renders the system largely ineffective. The purpose was to critically examine the role of the Office of the Prime Minister in public service appointments, focusing on the recruitment of management cadres. Standard procedures in recruitment are susceptible to manipulation unless arbitration of transparency and fairness is consistently upheld. When appointing O/M/A’s are selecting suitable candidates for the post to be filled, they are in principle obliged by Act of Parliament to operate in concert with the arbitrators of transparency and fairness, the National Planning Commission (NPC). Experiential observation has, nevertheless, unearthed serious inconsistencies, through which self-interested applicants could have unfairly circumvented the requirements. This study was focused on the recruitment and selection process, sorting-out political, gender and competency considerations as articulated in appointments to top positions. Findings partly show that top appointments in the Public Service sphere are insulated in covert political patronage. Thus, the branding of public service staffing process as Merit System is merely rhetoric for window dressing.

This concluding chapter, Chapter six, consolidates the research findings such as the reform impact on extent of cadre principle application in the appointment of senior public servants, and makes recommendations for tangible solutions to the problem of the skills-gap in the bureaucracy. A summation of conclusions in all five preceding chapters, each dealing with a specific normative issue, essentially extends the qualitative description of Public Service Reform into the conclusion of the research study. Thus, the objective of
this chapter is to explain how the empirical research was conducted and summarise findings into conclusions, which are the basis for describing the reform impact with specific reference to the filling of senior posts in the public service.

6.2 DOCUMENTATION RESEARCH CHALLENGES

Issue identification for this study led to the collection of secondary data from a variety of sources such as libraries, national archives, and Offices/Ministries/Agencies. Much of the work was done by visiting sources and with the assistance of personnel sorting out the relevant qualitative data. An itinerary prepared to study the literature and documented past events at the National Archives as well as resource centers presented a lot of challenges. Staff members at times would stress that their centers are neither accessible for research, nor were their libraries open to the public. National Archives procedures are so stringent and time-consuming so that obtaining material is a cumbersome exercise. However, persistence in locating the documentary evidence paid dividends such as finding the long shelved Government Service Act, 1980 (Act 2 of 1980) at the Legal Assistance Center. Documents on job-description, advertised criteria for consideration and qualification requirements have served as input that in the process stimulated an interest in examining the filling of management cadre posts in the central government.

6.3 PROBLEMS ENCOUNTERED WHILE COLLECTING THE DATA

In order to conduct empirical research, a focus group for the collection of data within the institutional setting was needed. Given bureaucracy, which is the natural setting of the Public Service structure that ensures “formal lines of communication” (Taylor and Anderson, 2000) are not bypassed, expectations of passive co-operation are slim. However, the possible success or failure to obtain valid information, partly due to political sensitivity or confidentiality of issues, compelled this researcher to define what exactly was the purpose of the research and why in particular the Office of the Prime Minister was targeted. Similar concerns have transpired when introducing the research
study to identified participants at Deputy Director and top management-cadre levels. Although hesitation was common in both senior and junior rankings, in one particular case a Deputy Director expressed concern that the outcome would be published and possibly exposes him negatively. This early predicament on the interviewee’s side was indicative of unreliable results. Perhaps this was in line with Hogwood and Gunn’s (1986:227) conclusion that:

[Whilst] co-operation (rather than simply compliance) of public officials and clients is often required in the evaluation…One paradox of evaluation is that it may only be possible to carry out monitoring or evaluation by promising not to use its results.

It took one full hour to go through a five-page questionnaire with most of those who responded. The main concern was either the question is irrelevant to line function, or the indicated options from which to choose were too related, thus resulting in failure to understand the meaning of the question. Therefore, much of the research time was dedicated to building the confidence of interviewees selected for the collection of empirical data. This confidence building involved sharing some information, or providing clues on sources of specific data used in setting a certain question. The most convincing approach in these instances was reassurance that once the research is complete and the thesis marked, a published version will be made available through the National Library’s special collections. The participants were advised to keep their introduction letters handy for future reference should the need arise to consult on important research issues.

6.4 POSITIVE ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE RESEARCH

The questionnaire technique was helpful to understand the issues from the insider perspective within their natural/institutional settings. Data reliability was at stake and no one knew for sure whether this could be accurate or misleading. For these purposes, contact persons were first identified and face-to-face verification meetings were held with respondents, whereupon critical evidence was gathered and analyzed to support assumptions of the research statement and research question. Thus, investigations conducted for qualitative data collection also served to establish rapport with the
participating contacts to ensure that the outcome would be reliable. The scientific basis of the findings was fundamentally demonstrated through the systematic and consistent manner in which this analysis was conducted. The investigation was finally concluded with a logical insight for reform interventions.

Since Policy Analysis as a methodology is outcome-oriented, it was applied to evaluate the technical competency levels of the Namibian public bureaucracy that ultimately matters to the research question of this study. This research study has identified, in Chapter four, the Recruitment Policy among published data for analysis. The first step was to examine the policy objectives and activities taking place in meeting policy goals. This study method entailed using implementation process to determine what would constitute success (Hogwood and Gunn, 1986: 222). Other possibilities were the exploration of supportive programs and their implementation. This study has for instance identified the Performance Management System (PMS), although generally regarded as overdue, as one policy issue determinant of promotions in the Public Service of Namibia.

Some linkage had to be established between Policy Analysis and Action Research models. Assuming that the reform process in the Public Service of Namibia is sustained by what Brewerton and Millward (2002:13) defined as ongoing incremental review and improvement of practices, the research had to explore the development trends within the narrow view of merit and cadreship approaches to filling Public Service Posts. The participants would thus be empowered to reflect on changes and progress hitherto made for the improvement of their situation over a long implementation process of reform programmes. This particular research study had administered the questionnaire interview technique, as the equally effective Focus Group Method was not convenient for senior public servants to form part of control group. Consequently, a Focus Group was regarded ineffective in the relationship where the organisation or unit of analysis was not client and the evaluator was an external independent researcher.
6.5 CONCLUSIONS

As per Chapter one, transformation of structures and cultures of inherited institutions was in short-term objectives a priority so as to address the imbalances of the past. Reform was necessary to take on nationhood responsibilities in an efficient and effective way to enhance New Public Management principles compatible with statehood in the post-colonial era. It entailed institutional capacity building for performance improvement in the delivery of services. The study concluded that the public service reform was necessary and appropriate for Namibia to take on nationhood responsibilities in an efficient and effective way.

The discussion in Chapter three and four stresses that Policy-Making and Implementation provide frameworks for both policy interventions and managerial functions the public service needs. In Namibia, the reform process became inevitable in the wake of commercialization of public services that otherwise would be redundant due to globalization and market competitiveness. The external conditions are mainly economic ties within global markets, change in international political environment, and the quest for SADC regional integration. The internal conditions are principally identified with democratic governance and the new public management system entailing adaptive change of structures, strategies and organizational culture. Policy interventions have thus steered the reform process around obstacles to achieve the desired goals. The degree of effectiveness varied greatly from stage to stage, however.

A review in Chapter four evaluated that the WASCOM on rationalization had pioneered the restructuring of the Public Service of Namibia to enhance efficiency in the delivery of public services. Specifically, down sizing was the strategy the government could take to cut expenditure on personnel. But due to financial constraints and skewed income distribution, WASCOM Recommendations were only partly implemented. The political leadership saw fit to introduce reform measures notwithstanding favorable economic conditions widely heralded at the time. The reform was to ensure a major shift from user-
pay based to client-oriented public services delivery whereby specific policies were formulated. A gradual reform was not the way to follow, as this would mean slowing down the process. The government rather opted for a comprehensive reform as socio-economic disparities widened. Concomitantly, intended policy initiatives were people-oriented, particularly in the implementation of Affirmative Action (AA) and Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) that aimed at minimizing disparities. The study concluded that Commission had displayed a lack of sensitivity towards the economic disparities that may ensue as a result of the downsizing exercise.

Reform implications are shortcomings evident from assessed reform impact particularly on the filling of various categories of high posts in the Central Public Service. Beginning with early transformation, policy initiatives suffered setbacks in the implementation process. Efforts to remedy the process caused the reform, which acknowledged the setbacks and adopted new models for continuity. First, the extent of the National Reconciliation policy fell short of addressing the ownership of the means of production until the land redistribution issue unearthed the dilemma. The rift between the have – usually previously advantaged Namibians of White race – and the have-nots – previously disadvantaged Blacks – has raised questions as to what could have been done to diffuse the volatile developments. Secondly, Affirmative Action (AA) has been declining in all spheres of Public Service. Compliance enforcement is limited to systematic Labour Management Relations Administration and Employment Equity inspections of the Ministry of Labour where many basic rights are compromised due to vaguely defined provisions of the Labour Act. Nonetheless, the implication of applying AA in the Public Service spheres is very severe, as no mechanism was put in place at least to moderate against potential AA abuses. Thirdly, Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) has significantly transformed group representations on the public sector employment scale. However, distribution of opportunities to previously disadvantaged Namibians was premeditated to create a new breed of Black professional elite in the top structure of the hierarchical public service. The study concluded in Chapter four that these three policy initiatives had in practice outlived their original purpose and should be essentially revised under a comprehensive reform.
The new opportunities for the Public Service of Namibia should be viewed in the terms of the Charter for Public Service in Africa – a geopolitical region partnership for specific applications of guiding principles and related initiatives as best practices for the countries signatory to the Charter, and Charter for Public Service in Namibia that has set the agenda for public management reform. Provisions of both Charters ensure that public service improvement initiatives are based on an entrenched system of firm measures designed to enhance public service performance, hence, structural changes in response to changes in operational conditions as determined by policy on reform.

Currently, the policy analysis supports initiatives pertaining to some issues that are central to Public Service Reform. The terms used have been notably confusing: where the Merit System (principles frameworks) is being mistaken for merit-based criteria that count on personal qualities for recruitment, selection and retention of professional staff, and strategic Competency-Management process of cultivating the stock of knowledge (pool of skills and expertise organisations ought to build up over time) requisite for organisational generic competency, is often mistaken for competence (knowledge, skills and attitudes) qualification required of individual candidates for selection. There is always a difference in meaning related to the social interaction, which could be at organisational or individual levels. Other terms commonly used in most parts of this study are the cadreship principles and the pragmatic approach. *In relevancy to the discussion in Chapter three, the study concluded that the application of these concepts was old fashioned and irrelevant to the recruitment and selection of candidates for appointments in the Public Service posts in Namibia.*

The post-independence political setting guaranteed a pragmatic approach implying what works even though it obviously compromises on professionalism. Career service in the Public Service of Namibia comes with recognition in political circles. Professionalism, a developed consciousness for public administration career, is on collision with the reform initiatives liberalizing the traditional bureaucracy into competency-based New Public Management. As empirical evidence unraveled, it transpired that *professionalism* as an
instrument of reform and public service transformations is on the decline. Ironically, professionalism in Namibia is in limbo despite attempts to popularize the concept of professional civil service. *As per Chapter four and Chapter five, the study concluded that the Competency-Management has not been widely recognized as the standard criterion for selection to high posts albeit policy intervention to enhance it is long overdue.*

Data analysis in Chapter five has focused on the effect of reform especially on the filling of top public service posts. The preceding chapters have already focussed on vital areas of investigation setting points of departure in the process. The competency profile currently operational in Namibia provides for *core competencies* derived from: general categorization of the job, grade and level within the public service; *specific categorization* of the actual job within the O/M/A; *differentiating competencies* applicable only where the mandate and strategic direction of the unit and O/M/A’s are exclusively operational; and, *generic competencies* for supervisory, management, and top management levels based on the generic competency framework for public service structures (OPM/PMS Principles Frameworks, 2001: 39).

Ascertaining that competency and professionalism (developed consciousness about organisational values) are not compromised for basic qualities such as personal traits that might have been acquired through social, political, and or economic status of a candidate, qualification requirements are the first stop. Indications are that a training institute for civil servants is in the pipeline to deliver courses with specific relevance to senior civil servants (Staff Reporter for The Namibian, 29 September, 2005). *The study concludes that PMS in the Namibian Public Service is long overdue, thus allowing unscrupulous rent-seeking motives to infiltrate the Public Service.*

As proved from real life experience, the *Merit System* and *cadre-principle* basis of appointments in the Public Service of Namibia naturally constituted the trend that saw a breed of cadres occupying top posts at independence and five-years after. Evidently, this scenario was politically engendered to ensure policy initiatives were geared towards institutional structuring and consolidation of independence gains. There is also a crisis of
meaning in the strategic Merit System, notable where individual merits or attributes of a staff member come in question. The collusion is even obvious when the old model of cadreship principles is a key decisive factor in the related policy intervention. In both instances, the Merit System has proved less significant in promoting efficiency and effectiveness of the public services. Based on empirical results in Chapter five the study concluded that the Merit System was politically engendered to ensure policy initiatives were geared towards institutional structuring and consolidation of independence gains.

Whilst Namibia had paradoxically boasted of having a Merit System in place at the outset, evidence from the empirical study indicated that New Public Management principles have become attractive for productivity of the public sector as a whole. Problems identified do not render the Merit System entirely impracticable, though. Conclusively, as per analysis in Chapter five, some principles are substantially useful but others basically carry implications on appointments and selections. The analysis concurred that the filling of Public Service posts in accordance with the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) characteristically instills confidence in the Merit System for the advantages it offers such as protection of employees from unjust persecution (USA Merit System Protection Board, October 24, 1997). However, the view that the Merit System “attracts people with talent, commitment and innovative ideas to build a professional civil service” in the light of self-interested public service motivations is not justified (OPM/PSC Staffing Division, 2002). The study concluded that appointments combined with cadre-principle are equal to spoils where political patronage is a practice.

Nevertheless, rejecting the Merit System, as the conceptual basis for best practices requires an adept perception of values involved so that fundamental management competency is not compromised. The policy-making and implementation processes should first provide for alternatives based on useful principles of the Merit System whilst plugging up those ones that nurture conditions for negation. The Constitution as fundamental law of the country and the Public Service Act as legislative statute on public service management, respectively provide foundations for policy initiative, intervention,
implementation and ultimately, evaluation. The experience of Commonwealth countries has been very useful to the assessment of operational conditions relevant to the Namibian social, political and economic environment in the post-colonial periods. *The Central Government of Namibia could introduce competency-management and development as a measure of appointing civil servants and a mechanism for retaining a professional public service.*

The systematic, semi-structured interview with respondents, produced evidence of highly structured institution, with complex mechanisms of planning and executing programs within managerial frameworks. It is evident that the traditional culture of administration is being phased out and New Public Management is taking root. *Conclusively, the Merit System has given way to new practices without loss of values that are generic to the selection of the right type of people for the professional management.*

The New Public Management formula has not been perfectly mastered in the Namibian Public Service. With all changes initiated at the top of the structure, it is hard to notice that managerial reform has taken shape without conducting a study. This case study has drawn a multifaceted conclusion based on new but previously uncovered evidence. Firstly, the fact that reform was delayed for the entire NDP1 and half of NDP2 indicates how costly statehood is in terms of budgetary resources to implement programmes. Secondly, the political prerogative to appoint Permanent Secretaries (accounting officers for O/M/As) created a skewed structure in terms of the technical-competency levels required of the bureaucracy. Managerial reform would, nonetheless, entail institutional capacity building for performance improvement in the delivery of services. The study concluded that NPM is the paradigm that can drive the process further towards the achievement of Vision 2030. Therefore, Competency-Management fits in with managerialism whereas the Merit System falls short of required values.
6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

An interesting outcome of this study is the discovery that the New Public Management, as the new paradigm for reform, can drive the Namibian Public Service to improve performance while addressing the skills-gaps in the bureaucracy. Therefore, the recommendations are:

6.6.1 The appointment of Permanent Secretary (PS) in the Public Service of Namibia should be Public Service rather than political. Political consideration in appointments is a challenging issue requiring the sound recommendations that can help to reduce incompetency.

The political appointments of Senior Public Servants no longer serve the purposes of Vision 2030. Thus, the Permanent Secretary, as the key position articulating the policy making and implementation, should not be politicized. The study found that filling Senior Public Service posts in Namibia evidently neglect the Competency-Management, which is its strength in retaining a meritocratic civil service. Staffing and retaining the right type of people with necessary competencies has been problematic without proper performance management initiatives to ensure that Competency-Management is in place. The stock of knowledge and expertise the Public Service could build up for future filling of senior posts is being lost due to resignations as people opt for greener pastures in the parastatals and private sector. Implicitly, pragmatic nominations for PS positions are presently conducted by identifying senior management cadres, particularly at Deputy Permanent Secretary levels, for selection and recommendation by a senior level committee nominated by the appointing O/M/A. The names of three preferred candidates are submitted to the President for substantive appointment. In the proposed new set up, the Public Service Commission (PSC) as the arbiter of fairness and transparency should have the power to approve and/or refer back the recommendation for PS positions with appropriate advice on further considerations.
6.6.2 Amendment should be made to the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) to add a provision stating contractual appointments of Permanent Secretaries (PS) to serve for five-year terms.

The incumbent Permanent Secretary should be eligible for reappointment at the end of a five-year term. Civil servant appraisals should follow similar patterns as in boards and councils with minimal differentiations where the PS must be appraised against generic management competency frameworks for the Public Service and according to performance management strategies designed for a particular O/M/A. For reappointment at the end of a five-year term, the incumbent PS or Accounting Officer should be offered an opportunity to reapply or abdicate. The recommended approach should improve management quality and allow competency development for the professional civil service.
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX: 1

Typology on Qualitative Evaluation Approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description / definition</th>
<th>Qualitative (or “naturalistic”) evaluation approaches involve the use of predominantly qualitative research methods to describe and evaluate the performance of programmes in their natural settings, focusing on the process of implementation rather than on (quantifiable) outcomes. Empowerment evaluation is the use of evaluation concepts, techniques and findings to foster improvement and self-determination (Fetterman)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Design classification</td>
<td>Empirical Hybrid data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numeric and textual data</td>
<td>Medium control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key research questions</td>
<td>Descriptive questions: evaluative questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More specialized design types</td>
<td>Fourth generation evaluation (Guba and Lincoln), naturalistic evaluation (Patton), empowerment evaluation (Fetterman)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical application</td>
<td>Naturalistic and empowerment evaluations are most frequently used in empirical evaluations (rather than outcome evaluations), especially where there is a specific focus on formative evaluation. These are also preferred designs when working with developing communities where participation by the participants in the evaluation is desirable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meta-theory</td>
<td>Interpretive meta-theories are linked to naturalistic (Patton) and fourth-generation (Guba and Lincoln) approaches to programme empowerment evaluation approaches (Fetterman).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptualization / mode of reasoning</td>
<td>Normally inductive and a-theoretical, which links with assumptions about consultation and participation (naturalistic inquiry).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selection of cases / sampling</td>
<td>Case selection mostly consist of “theoretical sampling” in naturalistic evaluation designs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode of observation / source of data</td>
<td>Preference for qualitative and participatory methods, such participant observation and semi-structured interviewing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>Qualitative and participatory methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strengths</td>
<td>Establish rapport and trust with research subject; high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
construct validity; insider perspective. The collaborative and participatory nature of this design minimizes suspicion and distrust of research with a concomitant increase in trust and credibility.

### Limitations
The emphasis on naturalistic forms of inquiry makes it difficult to evaluate programme outcomes systematically and rigorously. The result is that strong causal inferences regarding programme benefits and impact are difficult, if not impossible, to make.

### Main sources of error
Errors typically associated with naturalistic studies, e.g. observer and interviewer bias, as well as lack of rigorous control (no control groups or randomization of subjects).

### Additional reading and websites

For texts on empowerment evaluation, see Fetterman et al. (1996), Patton (1997) and Scriven (1997).

**Websites:**

**Empowerment evaluation:**

**Fourth-generation evaluation:**
[http://www.srds.ndirect.co.uk/4th.htm](http://www.srds.ndirect.co.uk/4th.htm)

*Source: Mouton (2002:161) Evaluation research: qualitative (naturalistic) and empowerment evaluation*

## APPENDIX: 2

### Ethnographic Research Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description/definition</th>
<th>Studies that are usually qualitative in nature and that aim to provide an in-depth description of a small number (less than 50)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Design classification</td>
<td>Empirical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Text and numeric</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key research questions</td>
<td>Exploratory and descriptive question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Typical application</td>
<td>Case studies of companies or organisations (business studies); case study in social work research (focus on the family; household; small communities); case studies in political science where countries/nations or regions are studied as cases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meta-theory</td>
<td>Various sociological theories (symbolic interactionism; <em>Verstehen</em>) and other more humanistic-interpretive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conceptualisation/mode of reasoning</strong></td>
<td>Inductive; a-theoretical. No hypothesis is formulated. In some cases certain “general ideas” or “expectations” act to guide the empirical research.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Selection of cases / sampling</strong></td>
<td>Theoretical or judgement sampling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mode of observation / sources of data</strong></td>
<td>Participant observation; semi-structured interviewing (individual and focus group); use of documentary sources and other existing data.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Analysis</strong></td>
<td>Analysis induction (Znianieck); grounded theory approach (Classer and Strauss).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strengths</strong></td>
<td>High construct validity; in-depth insights; establishing rapport with research subjects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Limitations</strong></td>
<td>Lack of generalisability of results: non-standardisation of measurement: data collection and analysis can be very time consuming.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main sources of error</strong></td>
<td>Potential bias of researcher; lack of rigour in analysis; The best introductory texts are by Stake (1995) and Yin (1994). Other well-known text are Kohler Riessman (1994), Hamel et al. (1993), Smith et al. (1982), Yin (1993), Rose (1991), Stoeker (1991) and Ives (1986).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Additional reading and websites</strong></td>
<td>Studies that look at specific disciplinary application are in education (Binneberg, 1985), psychology (Bromley, 1986), clinical research (Behling et al., 1984), marketing (Bonoma, 1985), and management studies (Lee, 1983). For a more philosophical account of the epistemological foundations of case study research, see Ragin et al. (1992). You will find a comprehensive reading list of case studies in Dufour et al. (1992). Website: <a href="http://www.misq.org/misqd961/isworld/">www.misq.org/misqd961/isworld/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## APPENDIX: 3

### Qualitative Approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research approaches</th>
<th>Informing theoretical perspective</th>
<th>Research focus</th>
<th>Data collection procedures</th>
<th>Research outcome</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Action research</td>
<td>Lewinian field theory</td>
<td>Planning, executing and learning from an intervention to develop a system</td>
<td>Semi-structured interview</td>
<td>Intervention supporting transformation and knowledge on transformation</td>
<td>Argyris and Schon, 1978; Argyris, Putman, and Smith, 1985; Elden and Chisolm, 1993; Reason, 1988; Reason and Rowen, 1981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case study</td>
<td>No specific perspective</td>
<td>Varies depending on the unit or process investigated</td>
<td>Semi-structured interviews; survey instruments</td>
<td>A case write-up of the unit or process investigation. This may be subject to further analysis to produce a theoretical account</td>
<td>Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnography</td>
<td>Cultural theory</td>
<td>The routine habits of thinking and behaviour that characterize a particular setting</td>
<td>Extended participant observation; unstructured interviews; archival materials</td>
<td>Detailed, contextually specified cultural portrait of the phenomenon study</td>
<td>Agar, 1980; Hammersley and Akinson, 1986; Spradley and McCurdy, 1972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grounded theory</td>
<td>Symbolic interactionism</td>
<td>The meanings and experience of the researched</td>
<td>Participant observation; semi-structured interviews; archival</td>
<td>Conceptual framework explaining the phenomenon studied</td>
<td>Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1978; Strauss,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
and the patterns of action that flow from them

Source: Rogelberg (2002:108) Comparison of major qualitative research approaches

APPENDIX: 4

Documental Evidence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DOCUMENT DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>ISSUES &amp; THEMES</th>
<th>INVESTIGATION STAGE</th>
<th>EVALUATION VALIDITY</th>
<th>SOURCES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Central Governance Agency Executive Director Presentation</td>
<td>Policy framework: State owned enterprises (SOE)</td>
<td>Empirical evaluation &amp; findings report</td>
<td>Policy analysis: framework for reform</td>
<td>Central Governance Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation Team Interviews: Post - Project Team Leader OPM, Jun.2005</td>
<td>Questionnaire: Performance Management System (PSM)</td>
<td>Action Research/Structured interview</td>
<td>Observation; Participation;</td>
<td>OPM Interviews</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Public Service and Administration Public Service Review Report South Africa, 1999/2000</td>
<td>Public Service: Changing form &amp; Composition; Challenges for improving the management and performance;</td>
<td>Measuring technical competency level &amp; assess reform impact</td>
<td>Documental evidence</td>
<td>Yahoo search engines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source</td>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Author</td>
</tr>
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<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate's Work /Organisational change and student’ attribute</td>
<td>UCE Birmingham, (1997)</td>
<td>Recruitment; Employee development;</td>
<td>Policy Analysis: Selection values; Public service appointments;</td>
<td>Conceptual Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>National Civil Service System in India: Critical view</td>
<td>Civil Service: development;</td>
<td>Civil Service reform process assessment</td>
<td>Structural transformation</td>
<td>Internet: Yahoo search engines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand Civil Service</td>
<td>Civil Service historical development: political patronage1850-1912; civil service system; central personnel agency role 1962-1988; state sector reform 1988-1996;</td>
<td>Civil Service: assess reform impacts;</td>
<td>Transforming public service structures</td>
<td>Internet: Yahoo search engines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office of the Prime Minister (OPM)</td>
<td>Good governance: Vision &amp; Objectives</td>
<td>Qualitative evaluation</td>
<td>Framework for Reform: Analysis; Description;</td>
<td><a href="http://www.opm.gov.na/cabsec/cab_office.htm">http://www.opm.gov.na/cabsec/cab_office.htm</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

237
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy Hub-Tools</th>
<th>How Policy: Measure impact; public involvement (improve policy making); “what works”; outward looking; skills improved (co-ordination &amp; delivery); more help (finding &amp; using evidence)</th>
<th>Policy: Assessment/dev elopment &amp; evaluation</th>
<th>Policy Tools</th>
<th>File://A: index.asp. htm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public Sector Reform in Western Europe Authors: Toonen and Raadschelders, (1997)</td>
<td>Observed variety: neo-managerial reform; new public management reform; comprehensive reform; welfare state reform; regional reform; regime reform; gradualist reform; non-reform; transformation without reform;</td>
<td>Impact assessment: documental evidence</td>
<td>Reform process</td>
<td>Internet: Yahoo search engines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Service Commission</td>
<td>Functions: personnel auditing; staffing;</td>
<td>Findings report</td>
<td>Reform impact assessment: staffing of Public Service</td>
<td>Public Service Commission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Service Commission (PSC) of Namibia: Annual Report, 2004/2005</td>
<td>Personnel Audit, 2004/5: Appointments; Promotions; Resignations;</td>
<td>Filing posts in the Public Service</td>
<td>Empirical evidence</td>
<td>OPM/Public Service Secretariat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Service Staff Code, Public Service</td>
<td>Filling of Posts: Recruit; Selection; and</td>
<td>Policy Analysis: Reform process</td>
<td>Policy Evaluation</td>
<td>Legal Assistance Center</td>
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<td>Source</td>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Sources</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Australian Civil Service System</strong> Author: Halligan, (000)</td>
<td>Civil Service development; political/administration relations; internal labour market; representativness; public opinion; reform and diffusion; configuration</td>
<td>Reform impact: empirical evaluation</td>
<td>Democratic governance Internet: Yahoo search engines</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Civil Service System of the People’s Republic of China</strong></td>
<td>Civil Service: development; internal labour market; representativness; politisation; public opinion; reform and diffusion; civil service configuration;</td>
<td>Empirical evaluation</td>
<td>Burns, E-mail: hrmnbip@hku cc.hku.hk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Sources: Archival and documental data collection*
APPENDIX: 5

PhD IN PUBLIC AFFAIRS THESIS

Author: Andrew Nghidinwa

Semi-structured Interview: A Questionnaire

The information and data collected by means of this questionnaire will be treated as confidential and no personal particulars or details will be revealed or published.

The empirical evidence being collected will help the author to better understand the Public Service reform process particularly the implementation of the Recruitment Policy and “managerialism” initiatives entailing the filling of top and senior level posts in the Central Government of Namibia.

PART I: PARTICIPANT PARTICULARS

1. Service History:

Name: ....................................................(Title: Mr./ Miss./ Mrs./Dr.)  M/F

Position/Level (Senior/Management Cadre) ..................................................

Experience/Number of years in the present position..................................

University of Pretoria – Nghidinwa, A N (2006)

Period/Years of service in the same Office/Ministry/Agency.........................

Name of Office/Ministry (Department)/Agency ............................................

Previous Experience/Number of Years......................................................

Name of Employer/Government Institution.................................................

Occupation/Rank.....................................................................................
PART II: EMPLOYER OFFICE/MINISTRY/AGENCY (O/M/A)

2. Profiles

Some public institutions were inherited from the apartheid system of governance. Retrospectively, Government structures constituted of departments and offices responsive to legislations passed in South Africa with minimal modifications for application in the then South West Africa/Namibia. At independence, restructuring was necessary to transform the system to cater for democratic governance and level playing ground for national reconciliation.

* Tick as appropriate

2.1 About the O/M/A you have so far served, was/were it/they inherited from the apartheid occupation era? Yes/No.

If yes, were the organisational structure(s) and culture(s) transformed to be compatible with new public management approaches? That is adapting to business like management principles and customer care services by creating management cadre level posts requiring specific competences such as:

- Merit record
- Academic qualification
- Management experience
- Political maturity

2.2 Was the O/M/A involved in policy change to address the past imbalances?

If old institution, indicate Yes/No.

- Inherited policies
- Moderate/incremental policy change
- Completely Changed

New institution

2.3 Current state of technical-competency required as a standard level for quality and efficient service delivery are:

- Demonstrated planning experience
- Proven leading capacity
- Tested organizing skills
- Credited co-coordinating ability
- Excellent communication skills
PART III. EMPLOYMENT POLICY

3. Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) and Affirmative Action (AA)


*In your answer tick as appropriate.

3.1 Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) and Affirmative Action (AA) are fundamental concepts in the employment policy adopted to address the imbalance of the past. How do your organisation define victims of discriminatory practices?

Previously disadvantaged____
Women____
Disabled____

3.2 What values determine the selection criterion?

Qualification (graduate)____
Experience____
Skills____

3.3 What approach meets EEO or AA requirements?

Internal promotion____
External recruitment____
Both____

3.4 EEO/AA emphasise non-discrimination of whatever kind. Has this been a practice in your Office/Ministry/ Agency? Y/N

If yes, how would you evaluate the top-three in your recommendation to the Public Service Commission?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
PART IV: MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC SERVICE

4. Strategic Issues:

It is common knowledge that the Central Government of Namibia is finally implementing the decentralisation policy thereby delegating some of non-key functions to the sub-national levels of government. Thus, retaining critical ones.

* In your answer, please describe

4.1 To what extend has your Office/Ministry/Agency experienced down sizing in the wake of the decentralisation process?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

4.2 The posts that became vacant due to decentralisation create knowledge and skills gap between different categories of occupation. What measure is taken to close this gap?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

4.3 The central government would continue with policy intervention even in the governance of sub-national authorities. This central and sub-national/inter-governmental relation may necessarily initiate changes to policy frameworks in order to address critical issues of governance. Would your office/ministry/organisation recommend policy changes that in the interest of national coordination could enhance efficiency and effectiveness in the public service? If affirming, please specify.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

4.4 The objective of decentralisation policy is to delegate authority to the regions for decisions at grassroots. However, decentralisation of the public service is partly affected by transfers of personnel to those new structures. Would you regard this process as having empowered the grassroots?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
PART V: POLICY ISSUES

5. Recruitment Policy

Recruitment and selection in central government is guided by Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) and a recruitment policy regulated by the Public Service Commission (PSC). Generally, this is believed to be a pragmatic approach based on merit system.

5.1 We have learn from the staffing division of the PSC that, one characteristic of filling posts in the Public Service is to instil confidence in the merit system. What is the Public Service motivation in this perspective?

- Public Service as the preferred employer
- Self-interest of applicants
- Competitive Salaries
- Social status
- Security of job tenure

5.2 Capacity building essentially entails staff development to enhance employee and, thus, organisation’s performance. What is the most applied method(s) of improving performance in your establishment?

- In-job training
- Workshops/Seminars (external)
- Short tailor-made courses
- Long-term studies

5.3 Do you conduct induction training for staff members of your organisation? Yes/No. If yes, indicate which job categories gets more training.

- Frontline supervisors
- Middle level managers
- Senior managers
- Top executives

5.4 Merit system emphasise professional values – developed consciousness about organisation’s performances and cultures – as requisite for top-job entry. This emphasis signals high competition among professional elites than in lower categories. As high-ranking officials are by structural standards fewer in any organisation, would you describe competition as an attempt to attract (external) and retain (internal) people with technical competencies? Yes/No

If no, what is the best practice of filling top management cadre posts?

- Recommend known cadres
- Elevate the lower ranks
- Search for innovative talents
- Build-up competencies to retain
5.5 When recruiting, what criteria do you look at as most suitable for your establishment(s)?

- Qualifications
- Personal traits
- Professionalism
- Motivation
- Willingness to learn
- Innovativeness

5.6 Restructuring oversaw commercialisation of services previously functions of line ministries into parastatals. How is government policy co-ordinated in this particular setting?

- Through central body
- Cabinet Office
- Senior Civil Servants/Permanent Secretaries Forum
- Strategic links (state how)
- New policies guided by specific Acts of Parliament

*Kindly give date of response……………………………………………………………………

Thank you for your assistance in this research.

Author and researcher: Mr. Andrew Ndeutalanawa Nghidinwa
Student No. 22373609
PhD Public Affairs 2002 Class
University of Pretoria, RSA.

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Tel.+264 (063) 221232/11-w; Fax. +264 (063) 223818-w; Cell. +264 081 2857945
APPENDIX: 6

18 July 2005

Mr/s ………………………………………
Tel………………………………………..
Fax………………………………………..

Dear Sir/Madam

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW:
“PUBLIC SERVICE REFORM IN NAMIBIA: CASE STUDY ON CADRE
APPOINTMENTS TO ENHANCE COMPETENCY MANAGEMENT AND
DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES FOR THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT”

My name is ANDREW NGHIDINWA, a student in the part-time post-graduate
programme at the School of Public Management and Administration (SPMA) of the
University of Pretoria, South Africa. Let me introduce the above-mentioned
evaluation research I am presently conducting in partial fulfillment of the PhD in
Public Affairs.

The research takes a qualitative evaluation approach to describe the public service
appointments phenomenon from the insider perspective. The self-administering
questionnaire has been developed and attached to expedite this contact. The data
gathered would essentially compose empirical evidence for analysis. I, the author,
would seek a brief but necessary follow-up session to validate the information so
collected at the later date. Therefore, it is imperative that I would request for an
appointment to be confirmed by telephone for the week of 25th August 2005.

There are some 55-selected participants who would receive the same questionnaire to
complete and return back to me at their earliest convenience. In this case, your
invitation is number 51st requiring that mailing back would be the most appropriate
mode of replying at this stage.

Kindly, accept my assurances that any piece of information collected will be treated
confidentially, and ultimately, utilized wisely for this research. I will keep you posted
on the latest developments.

Yours Faithfully

ANDREW NGHIDINWA
AUTHOR/EVALUATOR

My Address: P.O. Box 80462, Olympia-WINDHOEK
Tel. 063-221232/11 (w); Fax. 063-223818 (w); Cell.0812857945/0812309418
APPENDIX: 7

SUMMARY OF STAFFING IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE OF THE REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

46,767 total staff members in the Public Service of Namibia (31st March 2004 to 30th April 2005)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSTS CURRENTLY FILLED</th>
<th>74,756</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

To arrive at the total of staff members, the following were subtracted from the above figure:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Subtracted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Political Office Bearers and other Office Bearers</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia Defense Force (NDF) (Military)</td>
<td>14,799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibian Police (NamPol) (Uniform)</td>
<td>11,443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prisons and Correctional Services (Uniform)</td>
<td>1,464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electoral Commission of Namibia</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUB TOTAL** 27,989

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENDER BREAKDOWN</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender, Greater Public Service, 13 Regional Offices</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23,454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>22,308</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GRAND TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>45,762</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Annual Report of the Public Service Commission of Namibia 2004/2005*

APPENDIX: 8

APPOINTMENTS IN MANAGEMENT POSTS (GRADE 4A L1 – 6B) DURING THE PERIOD 1ST APRIL 2004 TO 31ST MARCH 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ministry</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of high Education, Training and Employment Creation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office of the Attorney General</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Justice</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Regional and Local Government and Housing</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Annual Report of the Public Service Commission of Namibia 2004/2005*
APPENDIX: 9

APPOINTMENTS IN POSTS BELOW MANAGEMENT THE PERIOD BETWEEN 1ST APRIL 2004 TO MARCH 2005

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Office of the President</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Office of the Prime Minister</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office of the Attorney General</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Assembly</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of High Education Training and Employment Creation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electoral Commission of Namibia</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Justice</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Labour</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Mines and Energy</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Regional and Local Governments and Housing</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Works, Transport and Communication</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Annual Report of the Public Service Commission of Namibia 2004/2005

APPENDIX: 10

PROMOTIONS IN MANAGEMENT POSTS (GRADES 4A L1 – 6B)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Office of the President</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Office of the Prime Minister</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of High Education, Training and Employment Creation</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Agriculture, Water and Rural Development</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Environment and Tourism</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Finance</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Health and Social Services</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Justice</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Labour</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Regional and Local Governments and Housing</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Trade and Industry</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Works, Transport and Communication</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Annual Report of the Public Service Commission of Namibia 2004/2005
## APPENDIX: 11

### WAGES COMMISSION (WASCOM) 1995 RECOMMENDED STRUCTURE FOR JUNIOR MANAGEMENT BANDS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Band</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Minimum Qualification</th>
<th>Functional Level</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Unskilled</td>
<td>Defined decisions with no element of choice</td>
<td>Routine tasks of simple nature requiring very elementary skills.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>None plus experience or below grade 10</td>
<td>Unskilled Semi-skilled</td>
<td>Automatic Decision with no very simple choices. Low-level day-to-day supervision of conventional nature.</td>
<td>Routine tasks of a specific nature that require limited expertise or basic training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>Grade 10 Semi-Skilled Skilled</td>
<td>Automatic decisions of a routine nature within specific rules. Low level day-to-day supervision of conventional nature</td>
<td>Routine tasks of general administrative/clerical/technical nature that require specific formal or on-the-job training.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td>Level of Education</td>
<td>Technical/ Administrative/ Clerical/ Technical</td>
<td>Regulated decisions</td>
<td>Job description</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>A</strong></td>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>Semi-skilled, Skilled Technical</td>
<td>Regulated decisions and specialized functions of a general nature with very limited discretion. Direct Day-to-day supervision of a conventional nature.</td>
<td>Job requires expertise of a general administrative/clerical/technical nature with a need for some interpretation. Jobs that require high physical demands and/or some technical skills</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B</strong></td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>Skilled Technical</td>
<td>Regulated decisions on administrative/clerical/ Technical functions of a more complex nature with some direction. Direct day-to-day supervision of a conventional nature.</td>
<td>Job requires specific expertise, skill and concentration on issues that are relatively clear with specific aspects to take into consideration.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C</strong></td>
<td>Grade 12 plus experience</td>
<td></td>
<td>Regulated decisions. Specialized administrative/technical functions at high level. Direct day-to-day supervision of a conventional nature.</td>
<td>Job is of a complex/sensitive nature with various possible solution or approaches.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Post grade 12 or grade 12 plus experience or completed apprenticeship</td>
<td>Skilled Technical Professional Junior Management</td>
<td>Processing decisions. Operational decisional in specialized administrative/clerical/technical fields.</td>
<td>Specific experience and training is required. Analysis of operational situations to produce best approaches or methods to achieve planned targets and objectives.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Processing decisions. Operational decisional in specific fields of expertise. Coordination and supervision of a small group of staff.</td>
<td>Matters of an especially complex and sensitive nature requiring a high degree of competency. Analysis and advice on policies, procedures and techniques.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

APPENDIX: 12

WAGES COMMISSION (WASCOM) 1995 RECOMMENDED SALARY STRUCTURE FOR MIDDLE AND SENIOR MANAGEMENT BANDS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Band</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Minimum Qualification</th>
<th>Functional Level</th>
<th>Definitions</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Professionally qualified or grade 12 plus extensive experience or expertise</td>
<td>Specialist Middle Management</td>
<td>Interpretive decisions involving a choice from a few options. Specialist/experts in specific scientific/administrative/Technical fields. Advise to senior management on specialist subjects and policy issues.</td>
<td>Decisions are concerned with planning and organising resources to achieve targets and objectives for specific topic of business within a function.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Interpretive decisions involving a choice from a variety of options. Specialist/experts in specific scientific/administrative/technical fields. Advise to senior management on specialist subjects and policy issues.</td>
<td>Decisions are concerned with planning, organising and achieving targets for a discrete organisation involving two or more topics within a function.</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Professionally qualified or grade 12 plus extensive experience or expertise</td>
<td>Specialist Senior Management Programming decisions determining the method of implementing agreed policy. Specialist/experts in specific scientific/administrative/technical fields of high complexity. Advice on complex specialist, administrative and policy issues with high policy risk.</td>
<td>Decision will establish important precedents and require new/revised processes and procedures covering or more functions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Professionally qualified or grade 12 plus extensive experience or expertise</td>
<td>Specialist Senior Management Programming decisions determining the method of implementing agreed policy. Specialist/experts in specific scientific/administrative/technical fields of high complexity. Advice on complex specialist, administrative and policy issues with high policy risk.</td>
<td>Decision will establish important precedents and require new/revised processes and procedures covering or more functions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Professionally qualified or grade 12 plus extensive experience or expertise</td>
<td>Specialist Senior Management Programming decisions determining the method of implementing agreed policy. Specialist/experts in specific scientific/administrative/technical fields of high complexity. Advice on complex specialist, administrative and policy issues with high policy risk.</td>
<td>Decision will establish important precedents and require new/revised processes and procedures covering or more functions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

253
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>Professionally qualified or grade 12 plus extensive experience or expertise</th>
<th>Policy making</th>
<th>Policy decision of a largely undefined nature in which precedent does not apply, and post and present practice are of little relevance. Overall responsible and accountable for all aspects of major functional areas.</th>
<th>Decisions affect the aims, objectives and policy of an entire major area of Government business.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Policy decisions of a largely undefined nature in which precedent does not apply, and post and present practice are of little relevance. Overall responsibility and accountability for all aspects of a major functional area. Wider responsibility for specific aspects of the performance of other major functional areas.</td>
<td>Decisions effect the aims, objectives and policy of an entire major area of Government business; and also have a significant impact on other major areas.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: WASCOM Report (1995), Government of Namibia*
APPENDIX: 13

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SCHEDULING OF CANDIDATES FOR ADVERTISED POSTS IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE OF NAMIBIA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Office/Ministry/Agency</th>
<th>Advertised Requirements</th>
<th>Advertised On</th>
<th>Outside</th>
<th>Within Closing Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name/Job/Description</th>
<th>Namibian Citizenship</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age (yrs)</th>
<th>Scale of Salary (Min/Max)</th>
<th>Date of confirmation of probation in current post</th>
<th>Qualification and date attained</th>
<th>English Language Proficiency</th>
<th>Experience (yrs/mths)</th>
<th>Promotion assessment</th>
<th>Motivated exposition of suitability (or/otherwise) for post</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<th>A</th>
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</table>

**Note:** List all applicants, first those within the Public Service and those from outside the Public Service

* A = Advantage, D = Disadvantage

** These columns are not to be completed in respect of applicants from outside the service

*** Since attainment of the minimum educational qualification

*Source: Department of Public Service Management, OPM*