



CHAPTER THREE LITERATURE REVIEW

“Our Constitution prescribes that our executive organs must both develop and implement policy. The capacity to implement policy is fundamentally dependent on the organisation and capacity of the public service in general” (Mbeki, 25 May 2005).

3.1 Introduction

The need for public administration to account for the changes in the role and practices of government during the last few decades has been widely recognised and in South Africa it is as evident in Chapter One. Within the context of the above statement by the President of the Republic of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, this chapter complements and supplements the orientation of this study in Chapter One by providing a review of the literature. The literature focuses on the need for capacity building support and a framework for capacity building support. The chapter sets the scene by discussing the context of capacity building of the senior public servants within the discipline of public administration, reviewing the functions and objectives of government and examining the management and leadership competencies and performance system in the public service to support senior public servants to perform effectively. This review is necessary to appreciate the concept of capacity building within the public service of the North West Province and the relationship between the Senior Management Service (SMS) competency framework and capacity building.



The chapter further examines how organisations prepare their employees. It examines the capacity building models and approaches, as well as the diagnostic mechanisms used to assess how an organisation functions. The review generally argues that, whilst individual capacity building is very commendable, the public service must also build its own capacity in order to leverage the new knowledge and thinking that are brought to the workplace. In particular, it argues that the approaches to management development result in better human security and development, if they respond effectively to the actual context and skills requirements of the public service, with effective organisational development, human resources development, resource allocation and leadership. The context of capacity building of the senior public servants within public administration is examined in the next section.

3.2 The context of capacity building of the senior public servants within public administration

Public administration has a very long history, one paralleling the very notions of government and the rise of civilisation (Hughes, 1998: 23). As both theory and practice, it has good points and everlasting boundaries. As practice, public administration is concerned with the activities that come directly under the government of any society (Adamolekun, 1986:1). Significantly, it focuses pre-eminently on the institutions, organisational structures and decision/implementation processes of government (Greenwood and Wilson, 1993:2; Peters, 1995: 2). Indeed, it is largely a formal field, concerned with



arrangements and procedures for making decisions. As for Ray (1999: 356) public administration is not an end in itself, it is a means to achieve the ultimate goal of governments to maximise the well-being of its citizens. Similarly, Rosenbloom (1986) argues that public administration is the use of managerial, political, and legal theories and processes to fulfil legislative, executive and judicial governmental mandates for the provision of regulatory and service functions for the society as a whole or for some segments of it. For the purpose of this study, therefore, public administration represents a systematic governmental vehicle which is administratively imperative for the achievement of results, improvement of skills and improvement of accountability in the public service. Indeed, it is vital to assess the internal organizational and management functions of the public service of the North West Provincial government in terms of supporting the capacity building of the senior public servants in order to ensure effective public administration.

Within the above perspective, it can be generally acknowledged that governmental actions have become more complex, difficult, and increased in number (Adamolekun, 1986:1; Lawton and Rose; 1994:1; Flynn, 1997:2; De Toit, et al, 1998: 5; Donahue and Nye, 2003:6; Osborne and Hutchinson, 2004:19; State of the Public Service Reports, 2005 and 2006). South Africa is no exception. Chiefly, scarcity of resources, changing social, cultural values, increasing organisational and



interorganisational complexity made the accomplishment of assigned tasks in the public service more difficult in the 1990s (Peters, 1995: 344). As a consequence of the above developments, the traditional role of government has changed. Similarly, expectations about how government's role is to be fulfilled have changed. This has forced public administration to redefine and reposition itself both in applied practice and as a field of scholarship.

In the South African context, this redefinition and repositioning has found expression in this country's public administration through the introduction of a democratic Constitution (1996), as well as other statutory and regulatory frameworks. Some examples of these are: The Public Service Act 103 of 1994; The Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995; The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997; The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (*Batho Pele White Paper*) 18340 of 1997; The White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service of 1997; The White Paper on Public Service Training and Education, Notice 422 of 1997; and The Skills Development Act 97 of 1998, to name but a few. These instruments have jointly introduced a paradigm shift in the public service. Thus, the 1994 public institutions and public officials in South Africa are required to be more democratic, accountable, effective, efficient, capable and ethical in discharging their services to the South African population.



To live up to these expectations, senior public servants that function in today's public administration have been required to be prepared and developed with a view to embracing change and strategically meeting the challenges of managing current Public Service. At the same time, there have been growing expectations for senior public servants to have a clearer and stronger sense of vision, mission and focus in their departments. Similarly, the ability of the Public Service to rise to the current socio-economic challenges depends critically on human resource capacity and its management (State of the Public Service Report, 2006: 15). Thus, effective support for capacity building is vital for a degree of order and consistency in the effective and coherent implementation of public policy.

According to the World Bank (1991), senior public servants make a major contribution towards the well-being and development of their nations in a particular economy. For this contribution to be realised in South Africa, the public service should be well structured and utilise policies, strategies, systems, processes and culture to support the preparation and development of its senior public servants effectively. These issues have not been adequately addressed, especially within the national and provincial contexts. Therefore, the assessment of the support for capacity building of the senior public servants is an effort to generate the capacity and knowledge (both institutional and human) essential for systematically and effectively driving government policy in



the North West Province. The functions and objectives of government are examined in the next section.

3.3 The functions and objectives of government

Senior public servants must have a clear and strong sense of vision, mission and focus in the departments of the public service (Mafunisa, 2003: 64). This obligation can be met if they appreciate the functions and objectives of government of the day. According to the World Bank (1997:42), there are five fundamental tasks that lie at the core of every government's mission. These are: establishing a foundation of law; maintaining a non-distortionary policy environment, including macroeconomic stability; investing in basic social services and infrastructure; protecting the vulnerable; and protecting the environment. Another relatively pragmatic set of government roles is set out by Anderson (1989:19-22), who identifies seven basic functions of government, namely, providing economic infrastructure; provision of various collective goods and services; the resolution and adjustment of group conflicts; the maintenance of competition; protection of natural resources; provision for minimum access by individuals to the goods and services of the economy; and stabilisation of the economy.

Moreover, the North West Province provides public goods and services which must be measured through achievements of the following objectives (Berne and Schramm (1989: 4-7). First, the provincial



government must try to raise and spend resources effectively – in the lowest cost, highest benefit fashion. This requires that the provincial government should strive to minimise the levels of resources used, or the costs of these resources, in carrying out its constitutional obligations. This objective prompts the provincial government to evaluate continually how it is raising its money (grants, taxes, levies, and fees) and how it is spending its money (personnel, materials, equipment) to reduce its use of resources and their costs. It also requires that the provincial government review the goods and services it provides to be sure it is maximising the total benefits provided to those it is serving.

This criterion diagnoses the public sector as bloated, wasteful, over-bureaucratic and under-performing; hence the introduction of Public Financial Management Act (1999) and the Senior Management Service Handbook (2003), which respectively aim to strengthen the financial function, control and reporting; and to professionalise the Public Service through a consistent approach to human performance throughout the national and provincial levels by helping to drive and support all human performance initiatives, especially at senior management level. Second, the provincial government should try to raise and spend resources equitably – distributing the costs and benefits of government activities fairly among the individuals and groups it serves. The equity criterion does not ask whether costs are minimized, or benefits maximized, by



the provincial government's action, but rather whether these costs or benefits are distributed fairly.

Third, the provincial government should try to maintain a healthy financial condition – being able to meet its financial obligations as these become due, in both the short run and the long run, while raising resources and providing public goods and services. In this respect, the North West Province has not been established to make profits or to amass fortunes, but it must take those steps needed to ensure that it has the financial strengths to carry out its public responsibilities. This criterion also requires that the provincial government should be more ethical and promote good governance in carrying out its public functions for the heterogeneous South African population.

Finally, the provincial government must have public accountability as an objective – responding to the government's clientele and the requirements of its environment in an open, informative, and participative fashion and being held responsible for its actions. Within the precept of the Public Service Act, 1994, heads of department are responsible for the efficient management and administration of their departments. Heads of department, in turn, are responsible for cascading the process to senior public servants in the department. Senior public servants are then accountable for the key activities or outputs reflected in their performance agreements. Although accountability may



be regarded as the main value in public administration, the problems that governments generally experience are the result of the failure of mechanisms of scrutiny to develop or to be developed in an appropriate fashion – accountability gap (Pyper, 1996:223; Sangweni, 2004:2). In this regard, Analoui (1995:52) identified the presence of a natural tendency in the literature of management to overcompensate when faced with the rigidity and inflexibility created by the advocates of traditional management. Therefore, the accountability objective requires that a provincial government should develop the information needed to evaluate its operations, put this information in an understandable and accessible form, and provide mechanisms for the appropriate public review of its activities.

Generally, these objectives require that the North West Province should ensure that its philosophy, systems, processes, practices and resources provide holistic and effective support for the development, and maintenance of managerial and leadership competencies. Similarly, they serve as benchmarks for the performance of the senior public servants, so that the latter are able to provide strategic direction, co-operate more effectively and improve public service delivery. Increasingly, these objectives are at the heart of the Constitution (1996) and therefore serve as principles of good governance.



Within this perspective, leadership is identified as the flesh on the bones of the Constitution and must be effectively exercised by, among others, senior public servants. Indeed, it is the only way in which the government's multifaceted objectives for the public sector can be achieved (Storey, 2004:174). Equally important, addressing the capacity challenge in the Public Service requires dedicated leadership from the executive and senior management levels (State of the Public Service Report, 2006: 10).

However, the theoretical literature of leadership is voluminous, obscure and contradictory (Yuki, 1989: 149; Robbins, 2005: 157). But, given the context of the public service in Chapter One, the transformational leadership approach may be aptly relevant because it is more effective than efficient management or transactional leadership alone (Bass, 1998). Besides, the transformational leadership approach focuses on humanistic rather than authoritative, patriarchal and conformist styles and is founded on the belief that inner development is the first step toward leadership action (King, 1994:2).

According to transformational leadership theory, followers identify heroic or extraordinary leadership abilities when they observe certain behaviours (Robbins, 2005:166). There have been a number of studies that have attempted to identify personal characteristics of the transformational leader (Conger; 1991; Bass and Avolio, 1993;



Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996; Conger and Kanungo, 1998; Robbins, 2003). These are noted below.

1. **Vision and articulation.** The leader has a vision – expressed as an idealized goal – that proposes a future better than the status quo; and is able to clarify the importance of the vision in terms that are understandable to others.
2. **Personal risk.** The leader is willing to take high personal risk, incur high costs and engage in self-sacrifice to achieve the vision.
3. **Environmental sensitivity.** The leader is able to make realistic assessments of the environmental constraints and resources needed to bring about change.
4. **Sensitivity to follower needs.** The leader is aware of others' abilities and responsive to their needs and feelings.
5. **Unconventional behaviour.** Leaders engage in behaviours that are perceived as novel and counter to norms.

Similarly, transformational leaders share the following characteristics: they identify themselves as change agents; they are courageous; they believe in people; they are value-driven; they are lifelong learners; they have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty, and they are visionaries (Luthans, 1998: 396-397). A transformational leader instils feelings of confidence, administration and commitment in the followers. In brief, transformational leaders transform followers by



creating changes in their values, needs, beliefs and aspirations (Kreitner and Kinicki, 1998: 509). Research reveals that transformational leadership, as compared to transactional, is more strongly correlated with lower turnover rates, higher productivity and higher employee satisfaction (Robbins, 2005: 168). In this regard, Bass (1990: 383) concluded that leaders manage and managers lead. Therefore, for the public service environment to be effective senior public servants should be strategically capable of leading and managing with sufficient freedom, and be supported and challenged by others within and beyond the North West Province. Put differently, the support for capacity building of senior public servants is a fundamental ingredient necessary for releasing public service capital and achieving sustainable competitive leadership advantage in the Public Service. To this end, the next section addresses the managerial and leadership competencies which call for effective support for systematic development and maintenance of the public service.

3.4 Managerial and leadership competencies

Improving public service and product delivery to the public can only be achieved with the competencies of the senior public servants and the resources that public institutions have (Du Toit, et al, 1998: 196). According to Hoevemeyer (2004), a competency is a behaviour, knowledge, skill or capability that describes the expected performance in a particular work context. They are characteristics that individuals



have and use in appropriate, consistent ways in order to achieve the desired performance (Grobler and Warnich, 2006: 482). In fact, the competencies of persons enable them to perform the appropriate actions (Boyatzis, 1982:12). In other words, competencies represent a comprehensive and expert way in which management and managers are knowledgeable and therefore open to new forms of intervention, analysis and modification. In context, when competencies are appropriately developed, they are the standards of success that support the strategic plan, vision mission and goals of the organisation.

Against this backdrop, the following list of broad abilities provides a basis for defining some of the competencies that are necessary for an effective senior public servant (Meyer, 1993: 66):

- (1) The ability to locate and interpret relevant information from written, electronic and people resources and apply it to solve complex, multidimensional problems using processes of analysis, synthesis and systemic thinking.
- (2) The ability to communicate effectively with diverse groups of people and individuals on complex issues.
- (3) The ability to apply scientific and mathematical concepts and use relevant technology effectively.
- (4) The ability to operate effectively in multifunctional teams.
- (5) The ability to use time effectively to manage a variety of tasks and



- (6) The ability to manage one's own, often multiple career and balance occupational, family, community and other demands effectively.

The foregoing discussion suggests that competencies can be identified with a view to distinguishing high performing senior public servants from average performers in all areas of the senior public service management in the North West province. From a human resource management point of view, however, they can be used as the foundation for recruitment, selection, training and development, rewards and other aspects of senior management service. In the same vein, Kreintner and Kinicki (1998:8) have identified the comparable competencies exhibited by an effective senior public servant as follows:

- (1) Clarifies goals and objectives for everyone involved.
- (2) Encourages participation, upward communication and suggestions.
- (3) Plans and organises for an orderly work flow.
- (4) Has technical and administrative expertise to answer organisation-related questions.
- (5) Facilitates work through team building, training, coaching and support.
- (6) Provides feedback honestly and constructively.
- (7) Keeps things moving by relying on schedules, deadline and helpful reminders.



- (8) Controls details without being overbearing.
- (9) Applies reasonable pressure for goal accomplishment.
- (10) Empowers and delegates key duties to others while maintaining goal clarity and commitment and
- (11) Recognises good performance with rewards and positive reinforcement.

In the same vein, Virtanen (2000: 333-336) suggests five competence areas in which senior public servants should perform to be effective as follows: task competence, professional competence in subject area, professional competence in administration, political competence and ethical competence. From this discussion, the characterisation by Bennis (1998: 152) that managers are people who do things right and leaders are individuals who do the “right thing” is appropriate, especially in this era because the field of management generally requires that the senior public servants should focus on achieving results and taking full responsibility for doing so, instead of merely following instructions (Hughes, 1998:6). In context, senior public servants play key leadership roles in creating a vision and strategic plan for their individual departments and as managers, in turn, are charged with implementing the vision and strategic plan. Bass (1990: 383) accurately concluded that leaders manage and managers lead, but the two activities are not synonymous. Therefore, a holistic and effective managerial capacity building support framework is necessary for successful leadership in the



North West Province. At this point, the question that remains is: what are the critical competencies that relate to senior managerial positions and which must be cultivated and supported throughout the public service?

According to Salaman (2004: 60), management competencies are distinguished by their advocates from previous attempt to define the nature and requirements of management through a focus on what managers have to do and be in order to do their jobs well, rather than on the qualities or qualifications necessary to enter a managerial role: that is, on behaviour rather than qualities. Managerial and leadership competences are used to establish job descriptions, performance standards and route maps for career planning, to establish the requirements and standards of jobs by providing generic standards by which jobs could be defined and compared, performance could be assessed, personal development organised, training designed and promotion decided (Salaman, 2004: 61). In context, the foundation of an organisation's capabilities is the competences of its individual members, whose routine skills must be constantly built and modified to produce improved organisational performance (Winterton and Winterton, 1999: 20). The next section presents the instruments within the South African public service which apply to the managerial and leadership competencies of the senior public servants.



3.5 The performance management and development system (PMDS)

One of the major challenges facing government is the acceleration of service delivery improvement to ensure a better life for all South Africans. For this, management capacity has to be strengthened by creating a distinct and professional Senior Management Service (SMS) in the provincial and national spheres. To facilitate this, a performance management approach in government was adopted in the public service. Performance management is the interrelated processes which ensure that all the activities and people in government contribute as effectively as possible to its objectives; and that all activities and objectives are systematically reviewed in a way which enables government to learn and thereby to improve its services to its population (Rogers, 1990:12). Moreover, the effective performance of a manager has to be appraised to ensure the ongoing management of both outcomes and behaviour. Thus, performance appraisals have an evaluative and a developmental objective (Grobler, et al, 2006: 265). In short, appraisal is about being able to demonstrate accountability. It is also about being able to evaluate and make judgments about performance so that developmental objectives can be set and achieved (Cardno, 2005: 298). It follows, accordingly, that an effective appraisal system is one that has gained the commitment of senior public servants, allows them to engage in dialogue that leads to learning and change and is the pivot for embarking on management development



programme that can meet their needs and the expectations of the public service.

In South Africa, a Performance Management and Development System (PMDS) for all SMS members was accepted and established in 2000. The system introduced mandatory assessment of demonstrated managerial competence by means of Core Management Competencies (CMC); a standardised rating scale to which performance-related rewards must be directly related; a two-tier reward system consisting of pay progression and performance bonuses and personal development plans as new elements to the Senior Management Service (SMS) performance appraisals (Senior Management Service Handbook, Chapter Four, 2003:1-36).

It is expected of all members of the SMS to enter into Performance Agreements (PAs), which apply for a particular financial year and are reviewed annually. The PAs of individual senior public servants should be based on a department's strategic/operational plans and the milestone agreed upon by the relevant executing authority. The CMCs are included in the PAs to promote service delivery. A Personal Development Plan that is linked to the CMCs and Key Result Areas (KRAs) of the Performance Plan, where applicable, are also included as part of each PA. The eleven CMCs used in the PDMS relate to how senior public servants do their jobs – they do not describe the results



that should be achieved are presented according to the Senior Management Service (SMS) Competency Framework (SMS Handbook, 2003, Chapter Five: 1). These are listed as follows:

- (1) **Strategic capability and leadership** refers to the ability to provide a vision, set the direction for the organisation and inspire others in order to deliver on the organisational mandates.
- (2) **Programme and project management** refers to the ability to plan, manage, monitor and evaluate specific activities in order to deliver the desired outputs.
- (3) **Financial management** refers to the ability to compile and manage budgets, control cash flow, institute risk management and administer tender procurement processes in accordance with generally recognised financial practices in order to ensure the achievement of strategic organisational objectives.
- (4) **Change management** refers to the ability to initiate and support organizational transformation and change in order to implement new initiatives and deliver on service delivery commitments successfully.
- (5) **Knowledge management** refers to the ability to promote the generation and sharing of knowledge and learning in order to enhance the collective knowledge of the organisation.
- (6) **Service delivery innovation (SDI)** refers to the ability to explore and implement new ways of delivering services that contribute to the



improvement of organisational processes in order to achieve organisational goals.

- (7) **Problem solving and analysis** refers to the systematic ability to identify, analyze and resolve existing and anticipated problems in order to reach optimum solutions in a timely manner.
- (8) **People management and empowerment** refers to the ability to manage and encourage people, optimise their outputs and effectively manage relationships in order to achieve organisational goals.
- (9) **Client orientation and customer focus** refers to the ability to deliver services effectively and efficiently in order to put the spirit of customer service (Batho Pele) into practice.
- (10) **Communication** refers to the ability to exchange information and ideas in a clear and concise manner appropriate for the audience in order to explain, persuade, convince and influence others to achieve the desired outcomes.
- (11) **Honesty and integrity** refers to the ability to display and build the highest standards of ethical and moral conduct in order to promote confidence and trust in the public service.

To ensure effective organisational performance, among others, the competency framework for SMS provides a description of the knowledge, skills, behaviours and attitudes in a competency model, in order to allow both the individual and the organisation to know what



knowledge and skills are needed to be effective in a given role (SMS Handbook, 2003, Chapter Five: 3). From this discussion, it can be argued that the SMS competency framework is the instrument designed to link the performance of senior public servants to the strategy and service objectives of their departments. Within the context of performance management, it crucially supports the government in setting departmental, service, team and individual objectives, recognising achievement, identifying training and development needs and then using the knowledge gained to modify objectives and methods where necessary. In lieu of this, it must be tied in with other service management and human resources policies, systems, plans in order to be effective and all-embracing. However, there are concerns about the development, introduction and implementation of the competency framework. The following table provides a summary of the problems with competency frameworks (Miller, et al., 2001):



Table 3.1: Problems reported in developing, introducing and implementing competency framework

Problem	% reporting
Language/terminology used	65%
Employees' understanding of the concepts	65%
Line managers' understanding of the concepts	62%
Assessment of individual's competencies	60%
Resources required, time, cost, other resources	54%
Developing the definition of competencies	48%
Getting employees' and managers' commitment to the use of competencies	47%
Keeping the competencies relevant	45%
Relating the competencies to the corporate culture	44%
Complexity of the competency framework (paper work)	42%
Incorporating emotional intelligence concepts	25%
The attitude of trade unions to competencies	10%
Other	5%

Miller, et al., (2001)

An indication from this report is that the development, introduction and implementation of the competency framework require effective institutional support with a view to validating its relevance, significance and impact. Principally, this is critical because the core managerial skills and competencies are not readily transferable from the private sector to the public sector; the nature of the tasks undertaken is fundamentally different (Pollitt, 1990; Hood, 1991). An important corollary is, thus, that patterns of work and key managerial skills may indeed significantly depend on organisational context even within the private sector (Hales, 1986). Based on the discussion to this point, the pertinent question that arises is how does the public service prepare its senior public servants so that they live up to the constitutional and managerial expectations of the Republic of South Africa? The next two sections attempt to provide



answers to this question by discussing importance of induction and the fundamentals of the induction programme.

3.6 The importance of induction

The most popular process for preparing the employees to learn more about their jobs and the organisation is induction, also known as orientation or socialisation (Robbins, 2003: 532-35; Robbins; 2005: 234-235; Grobler, et al, 2006: 206). According to Robbins (2005: 234), induction is the process that adapts employees to the organisation's culture. Grobler, et al (2006: 206) describe induction as the process of integrating the new employee into the organisation and acquainting him or her with the details and requirements of the job. It can thus be regarded as a process by which the senior public servants are transformed from complete outsiders into participating and effective members of the department of the North West Province. However, to be successful, an induction process needs careful, systematic, and ongoing attention by management as well as by the HR department (Klein and Weaver, 2000: 49). It is imperative that attention be paid to the objectives of induction. These are: acquainting new employees with job procedures; establishing relationships with co-workers; creating a sense of belonging among employees by showing them how their job fits into the overall organisation; acquainting new employees with the goals of the organisation; indicating to the employees the preferred means by which these goals should be attained; identifying the basic



responsibilities of the job and indicating the required behaviour patterns for effective job performance (Mondy, et al, 1999:285).

From this discussion, it can be appreciated that the main objective of induction is the integration of the new senior public servant into the department within the public service without delay, so that she or he can become an effective worker as soon as possible. Without doubt, an effective induction programme reduces the adjustment problems of new public servants by creating a sense of security, confidence and belonging in them.

Thus, an effective induction programme brings benefits such as higher job satisfaction; lower labour turnover; greater commitment to values and goals; higher performance as a result of faster learning times; fewer costly and time-consuming mistakes; a reduction in absenteeism; better customer service through heightened productivity; improved manager–subordinate relationships and better understanding of the organisational policies, goals and procedures (Jackson and Schuler, 2000: 352). On the contrary, the reasons for the lack of effective induction must be noted (Fogarty and Dirsmith, 2001: 249).

(1) The supervisor responsible for the task either lacks the time or ability to fulfil this obligation.



- (2) The organisations do not regard anxiety and stress, owing to insecurity and unfulfilled expectations as a primary cause of labour turnover among new employees. They therefore dismiss induction to reduce anxiety and stress as unnecessary.
- (3) The organisation regards effective recruitment, selection, training and development as substitute for induction.
- (4) Where induction programmes are introduced, the key components are lacking.
- (5) Induction is aimed at inducing new employees to adhere to organisational practices and procedures while little attention is paid to instilling loyalty and commitment to the organisation.
- (6) Employees who are transferred or promoted within the organisation do not participate in induction programmes.
- (7) Induction programmes are not followed up.
- (8) Induction programmes often concentrate on promoting the image of the organisation.

Generally, the reasons for the lack of effective induction affirm the need and importance of strategic and effective human resource management in the public service, especially considering the fact that the public service is a different environment (political, legal, managerial and technological and etc), which presently is characterised by multiplicity and complexity as indicated earlier in this chapter. Therefore, proper induction of the senior public servants is absolutely important with a



view to ensuring that they do not only function effectively in the public service but are also able to adopt and adapt to new practices and attitudes for future demands and challenges. In this sense, a rigorous comprehensive programme of activities and training tailored to suit the role and functions of the senior public servants within a system of changing government priorities and objectives is enviable. Most fundamentally, this gives rise to these questions: What should the induction programme contain? How it should be implemented and by whom? On what timescale does the programme occur? The answers to these questions will be given in the next section. This discussion should be appreciated here because induction training effectively constructs a sense of ownership and/or purpose, sound working relationship, cultural alignment, organizational effectiveness and the need to stay tuned to current and future public affairs.

3.7 The fundamentals of the induction programme

In this section, the responsibility for induction, who should be given induction training, how long the induction should be, planning an induction programme, designing the induction programme and an evaluation of the induction programme will be examined.

According to Dessler (2000: 249), in larger organisations such as the North West Province, the people who may be involved in the induction programme include the supervisor, the head of department, the HR



department, a mentor, the shop steward/staff representative and the new employees. It is important that all these people participate in organised training sessions to develop induction proficiency. Indeed, the training of these employees should also be strictly monitored, if the programme is to be successful (Grobler, et al, 2006: 210). Moreover, there are many categories of employees who will benefit from induction training. Mathis and Jackson (1988: 250) have identified three categories of employees. These are listed below.

- (1) **New employees.** A manager should not assume that new employees would immediately know what it has taken others months or years to learn. It is thus important that all new employees should receive proper induction training.
- (2) **Transferred/promoted employees.** It is also important that current employees who have been transferred or promoted within the organisation should receive induction training, especially if the transfer or promotion involves a significant change of environment.
- (3) **All current employees.** A re-induction programme involving all current employees should take place periodically. This type of programme is especially important if significant changes in organisational policies or structures have taken place.

To achieve the induction training objectives effectively, sessions not exceeding two hours at a time are recommended (St John, 1980: 375).



This is vital because employees are limited in respect of the volume of information that they can absorb, digest and retain during the initial induction process (Grobler, et al, 2006: 212). The period of induction should be linked to the length of time it takes to become effective on the job and to learn and understand the new activities (Grobler, et al, 2006: 212). Planning an induction programme is an indispensable requirement for an effective induction programme. Some of the key planning considerations are: induction policy; budget; and other considerations such as time needed to plan and implement the programme, programme goals, topics to be included, methods of organising and presenting them, duration of the induction sessions, material, facilities and personnel to be involved and the general organisation topics versus department and job topics to be covered (St John, 1980: 374).

Furthermore, the induction programme should be designed to include all the information that the newcomers will need to do their jobs effectively and efficiently. The information should not be given in one session, but should be divided into need-to-know and nice-to-know information (Tinarelli, 2000: 70). The need-to-know information is essentially information that the newcomer requires as soon as possible to fit in and be effective; nice-to-know information can be given over a period of time as the newcomer settles in (Tinarelli, 2000: 70).



The steps that are involved in implementing the induction programme are important because a high turnover among newcomers is often attributed to unrealistic and inflated expectations of job applicants. In this respect, Robbins (2005: 235) proposed three steps: pre-arrival, encounter and metamorphosis. The first stage encompasses all the learning that occurs before a new member joins the organisation. In the second stage, the new employee sees what the organisation is really like and confronts the likelihood that expectations and reality may diverge. In the third stage, the relatively long-standing changes take place. The new employee masters the skills required for his or her job, successfully performs his or her new roles and makes the adjustments to his or her work group's values and norms. This three-stage process has an impact on the new employee's work productively, commitment to the organisation's objectives and his or her decision to stay with the organisation (Robbins, 2005: 235). As part of the last stage, an interview should be arranged by the end of week six with the HR department where the newcomer can give feedback. This will enable the HR department to monitor the induction process to ensure that everything has been covered (Grobler et al., 2006: 215).

Thus, the induction programme must be evaluated with a view to ensuring that the organisation is spending its money wisely and achieving positive results and that that the methods used to assist new employees to integrate and become effective worker in the organisation



are the most suitable (Grobler et al., 2006: 215). By making use of questionnaires, surveys, exit interviews and course evaluation forms, qualitative information can be gathered (Skeats, 1991: 28-56). From the foregoing, it can be deduced that the induction of senior public servants must be well planned, designed and implemented to ensure proper integration. Evaluation of the induction programme is critical to reveal whether the new senior public servants perform well within a reasonable time. This is one way of improving the performance of the department. In the next section, capacity building support from a managerial development and support perspective is examined.

3.8 Capacity and capacity building

Many organisations nowadays claim to pursue capacity building with a view to developing skills and competencies and achieving their objectives and goals. Yet, there is no complete agreement on what capacity or capacity building is. For instance, Tyler (2004: 154) defines capacity as the wherewithal to use and improve capabilities to achieve an individual or organisational goal. An earlier definition can be found in Jurie (2000:71), who sees the concept of capacity as the inherent endowment possessed by individuals or organisations to achieve their fullest potential. Capacity also involves empowerment: “we cannot realize our values or goals without power. Power is the capacity to act publicly and effectively, to bring about positive change, to build hope” (Lappe and DuBois, 1994: 47). From the foregoing definitions, it is clear



that the concept of capacity is used at times interchangeably with capability (Jurie, 2000: 271). Capability broadly includes issues of attitudes, beliefs, ethics and behaviours (Friedman, 2004:101). So, capacity and capability are inseparable from skills, competencies and knowledge (Friedman, 2004:101; Horton, 2000:309), and they are fundamental to achieving superior public service performance (Du Toit et al, 1998: 196; Hill and Jones, 1998: 4; Tyler, 2004: 155).

From this discussion, capacity is essential to any organisation aiming to achieve its objectives and goals. The absence of capacity necessitates that the organisation build it. By definition, *capacity building is the institutionalised process coherently pursued to generate knowledge, skills and competencies necessary for the development of structures, processes, technical and management systems, values and norms with a view to achieving superior organisational performance.* It differs on the level at which it exists, from one institution to the other. However, to explain how it occurs, three models and approaches to capacity building have been advanced. First, there is the cognitive capacities model. Secondly, there is the capabilities model. Lastly, there is the behavioural model. These are described below.



3.8.1 Cognitive capacities model

Bloom (1965) has developed a taxonomy of cognitive capacities for education with a view to describing a range of capacities. The key dimensions of this model include the features listed below.:

- (1) **Knowledge** is demonstrated by the recall of previously learned material; able to define, identify and list.
- (2) **Comprehension** is demonstrated by being able to grasp the meaning of new material; able to explain, discuss, review and interpret.
- (3) **Application** is demonstrated by the use of learned material in new and concrete situations; able to relate, show and demonstrate.
- (4) **Analysis** is demonstrated by being able to break material down into component parts; able to analyse, compare, contrast and investigate.
- (5) **Synthesis** is demonstrated by being able to put parts together to form a whole, able to design, formulate, develop and organise.
- (6) **Evaluation** is demonstrated by being able to judge the value of material for a given purpose; able to assess, evaluate, argue, validate and criticise.

A benefit of the cognitive capabilities is the simple modelling of a hierarchy, a hierarchy that can be applied to a range of performance domains and learning contexts. Knowledge is the most basic foundation, with evaluation being the most complex. Some kinds of performance rely only on knowledge; some rely on a capacity to evaluate. The



performance of senior public servants has to be based on evaluation as they go along. However, as a content model of cognitive capacities, there are problems with the Bloom model. This whole model of cognitive capacities assumes that for people information is passively received by the senses, and that the more complex cognitive capacities are restricted to certain kinds of activity, tasks and situations. The overall function of cognition is assumed to be to help people discover an objective reality; that is, a reality that exists externally, and independent of the person sensing it. These assumptions about cognitive capacities inherent in the Bloom model are contestable.

3.8.2 Capabilities model

The fact is that ‘knowing how’ does not always translate into ‘being able to’ (cognitive capacity, from knowledge through to critical evaluation capacities does not ensure effective performance); the individual must have constituent capabilities as well (Gibbs, 2002: 69). Capabilities are to be defined as the discrete abilities involved in effective performance. Three levels that constitute the tripartite model are underpinning capabilities, intermediate capabilities and overarching capabilities. Underpinning capabilities are those which are expected as a consequence of primary and secondary education. Intermediate capabilities are those most associated with capacity building at work, capacity building in occupation – specific roles, in generic capabilities relevant to most jobs and in personal development. The overarching



capabilities are associated with productive people and productive organisations. Their essence is that they all relate to people taking responsibility rather than being instructed. They are capabilities that need to be developed in concrete workplace situations; they cannot be learned and developed in other circumstances. They are relevant to all employees and are confined to management (Parsons, 1997). The tripartite model confirms the levels of capabilities that are essential for employability, that can be taught and that are required for improving organisational performance. However, the problems of measurement, accuracy and verifiability are possible (Harvey, 1999).

3.8.3 Behavioural model

According to Le Doux (1996), effective performance is a consequence not only of what people know and think and what they can do, but also of how they actually behave because of how they feel. The affective influences on people, and therefore performance, can often make the critical difference between effective performance and poor performance. If the affective side is so critical for performance, it is then essential that it has to be assessed in the design of capacity building experiences and the setting of objectives. In this context, three constructs of this model are:

- (1) **changing attitudes** defined as patterns of personal likes and dislikes which can be measured and changed;



- (2) **developing values** defined as the basic beliefs about right and wrong which will influence what people will pursue and what they will or will not do; and
- (3) **emotional intelligence** defined as the effective handling of emotions to enable effective interpersonal relations.

From these models, it is clear that there are different schools of thought concerning the explanation of capacity building. Importantly, these models indicate that capacity-building initiatives must be planned and designed for effective support and desired organisational performance. This requires the establishment of appropriate aims, goals, objectives and learning systems. These need to relate in a balanced way to the aptitudes, capabilities, behaviours, and competencies required for desired performance.

These models give explanation and justification for different approaches to building capacity. Amongst the approaches that have been advanced, the following are notable: formal education and training, on the job training, action training and non-formal training. These approaches are generally viewed within the context of management development (Cardno, 2005; Lancaster, 2005; Noe, 2005), as special forms of professional development. According to Woodall and Winstanley (1998), management development is related to the specialised knowledge and skills that emerge from the discipline of generic



management and the associated field of educational administration, management and leadership. The purpose of management development is to assist the personal and professional growth of managers so that they develop competencies and cognitive capabilities to perform their role effectively (Cardno, 2005: 301). It is important for the maintenance of the human resource base of the organisation and must be viewed as an integral part of the core organisational strategy, rather than an ad hoc operation issue (Rowley, 1995: 5). It incorporates management training, management education and management support.

Management training is described as a process by which managers develop hands-on or skill development through practice guided by formal structured means (Cardno, 2005: 301). It includes short courses and practical training sessions which individuals attend usually delivered off site. Training activity usually has an individual focus, although consultants can deliver tailor-made management training courses. Management education differs from management training in that it describes the type of learning that takes place in a structured, formal, institutional framework and leads to a qualification. Clearly, management education is inherently an individual-orientated form of management development but it is often supported by the institution (public service) that realises the potential of educated managers' coaching and mentoring others and contributing to the better overall better management of the institution (Kerrigan and Luke, 1989; Noe,



2005; Swart et al, 2005). Management support refers to opportunities both on-the-job and off-the-job that lead to professional growth. But the most effective management support is often delivered by means of the one-to-one processes of coaching and mentoring and relies on experienced managers being able and willing to assist new managers to reflect on their practice and learn (Rudman, 1999; Price, 2004: 582).

Consideration is now given to on-the-job support opportunities. These are those that are provided in various forms, but the coaching that occurs in a formal relationship between the manager and the person they report to in an appraisal process is deemed to be most relevant and effective learning opportunities. Through on-the-job training, the organisation is able to realise the value of career planning for staff with potential to understudy roles to which they aspire. Developing a pool of staff who can step into vacated senior roles is a form of management support that benefits both the individual and the organisation (Gibb, 2002: 133; Cardno, 2005: 302). These opportunities include job rotation, enlarged and enriched job responsibilities and job instruction training (Grobler and Warnich, 2006: 314).

On the other hand, off-the-job support opportunities are those that increase learning opportunities for a manager. Mentoring, which is a form of collegial guidance less formal than coaching, can be provided by colleagues inside or outside the public service. Management mentors



are senior, experienced staff who are willing to build learning relationship with a junior colleague without the formal need to judge their performance. In addition to mentoring, a raft of other activities promotes management development. These are: membership of local and national and international educational associations, attendance at professional and research conferences that include presentation of papers on the public service issues, membership of professional associations that reflect the specific interests of one's specific management level, subscribing to educational management periodicals and reading in the area to keep abreast of research and best practice (Kerrigan and Luke, 1989: 912; Cardno, 2005: 303; Grobler and Warnich, 2006: 314). Grobler and Warnich (2006: 314) also proposed behaviour modelling and sensitivity training. Behaviour modelling utilises role-playing and focuses on individual skill modules that address a common problem most senior managers face. Through sensitivity training, on the other hand, individuals become more aware of their feelings and learn how one person's behaviour affects the feelings, attitudes and behaviours of others. The goals of sensitivity training include (Grobler and Warnich, 2006: 319): becoming more competent in one's personal relationships; learning more about oneself as a person; learning how others react to one's behaviour; and learning about the dynamics of group formation, group goals and group goals. A review of these approaches is given in the next section.



3.9 Review of the approaches to capacity building and support

The approaches to capacity building in the preceding section require that senior public servants adopt the attitude of an acceptance of the need for continuous professional development throughout their working lives (Harrison, 2002; Marchington and Wilkinson, 2002; Lancaster, 2005:10). Through continuous training and education, senior public servants can achieve increased organisational capability. However, there are common themes and these are observation and learning, and a supportive climate, but one that supports challenges to existing order; responsiveness (Tyler, 2004: 155). Howe et al, (1998:79) believe that approaches to capacity building must engage senior public servants, challenge the way they think or act, be responsive to needs and issues as they arise, use the right language, build credibility skills and networks and secure incentives, rewards and recognition for actions. Crucially, the public service must utilise individuals' new capacity (Rist, 1995: 17), but this may be inhibited by the public service policies and practices (Crisp et al, 2000:39).

Essentially, Postma (1998:79) believes that assessment of capacity is itself capacity building. In this sense, capacity building is the salient feature of the learning organisation, described by Marsick et al, (2000:58) with characteristics such as continuous learning at the systems level, knowledge generation and sharing, systemic thinking capacity, employees' participation and accountability and the culture and



structure for rapid communication and learning. Senge et al, (1999) conceptualise three reinforcing processes which produce organisational learning capability. They envisage an increase in learning capacity occurring through the individual, diffusing via informal networks and being established in new organisational practices which then sustain growth in capability. Specifically, Symon (2002) argues that, for leadership and management development programmes to be most effective, the public service needs to leverage new knowledge as it enters the workplace, or must learn to do so if the purpose of a programme is new knowledge rather than socialisation and enculturation. Thus, Roth and Marubecheck (1994) argue that transfer of knowledge into and within the public service needs to be complemented by organisational learning capabilities. Simply, public service needs to understand the role of core knowledge in achieving their goals - the philosophy, systems, approaches to problem solving and decision-making - as well as how to deploy skills to acquire, organise, codify and deploy knowledge. Roth and Marubecheck (1994) identified a number of key principles that organisations need to embrace to do this: a learning philosophy, stretched goals, opportunities for (low) risk-taking, systems for encouraging knowledge and learning, stimulating core knowledge processes and systems for crossing functional boundaries. Watkins and Marsick (1996) identified core practices which had an impact on performance: creating continuous learning opportunities; promoting inquiry and dialogue; encouraging



collaboration and team learning; creating systems to capture and share knowledge; connecting the public service to its environment; and providing strategic leadership for learning.

The approaches to capacity building affirm that the public service must utilise a new stock of knowledge, as it is required to challenge the status quo. However, the capacity of the public service to utilise new knowledge is but one part of the equation. According to Garvin (1993), the building blocks towards a learning organisation are precisely those which pertain to the individual. These are: systematic problem-solving; experimentation with new approaches; learning from one's own experience and past history; learning from others' experience and best practice (e.g. benchmarking); and transferring knowledge quickly and efficiently. In those circumstances where learning is predominately driven by course assessment (Gibbs, 1995; Knight, 2000) education programmes must be scrutinised in relation to these learner attributes. Facilitators need to help adult learners to learn how to learn to acquire the disciplines and habits of critical analysis and reflection, making sense of issues and the search for meaning (Entwistle, 1998). This constitutes a deep approach to learning (Biggs, 1987, 1999). However, this approach is context sensitive, influenced by the demands of assessment, time, workload, interest, age, anxiety and relevance of content (Biggs, 1987; Richardson, 2000; Sadler-Smith, 1996). It is also related to educators' approaches to teaching. Thus, the educational provision must be



effective in building the capacity of the learner, the learner must be sufficiently receptive and motivated and the context needs to conducive to the right kind of learning.

However, attempting to move beyond the learning context is challenging. According to Lave and Wenger (1991), learning is embedded in the context of learning. Indeed, the extent to which new knowledge can be applied in the workplace will be influenced by organisational context and the affording of processes and systems through which skills and knowledge are exercised and embedded. Is the climate supportive and responsive enough to allow challenges to the existing order? Are systems capable of transforming individual knowledge into organisational results? (Lusthaus et al, 1999). Day (1996) believes that building capacity within externally focused organisations such as the North West Province involves improving organisational capabilities for meeting client needs and that this depends on internal responsiveness and flexibility. Drawing from the capabilities model, the capabilities of the senior public servants alone are inadequate to locate this capacity in organisations. In fact, organisations need to position resources and ensure there is sufficient capability to use the resources effectively. Koys (2001) has established the direction of influence between human resources (HR) outcomes and organisational outcomes and concludes that it is likely to be the case that organisation policy and strategy, undertaken through the HR practices, will influence employee



attitudes and result in a positive organisational impact. Similarly, Grobler and Warnich (2006:5) maintain that the organisational goals and human needs are mutual and compatible and offer certain principles for a human resource approach. These are listed below.

- (1) Senior public servants are investments that will, if effectively managed and developed, provide long-term rewards to the public service in the form of greater productivity.
- (2) Policies, programmes and practices must be created that satisfy both the economic and emotional needs of senior public servants.
- (3) A working public service environment must be created in which senior public servants are encouraged to develop and utilise their skills to the maximum extent.
- (4) HR programmes and practices must be implemented with the goal of balancing the needs and meeting the goals of both the public service and the senior public servants.

For the senior public servants, it can be accepted that the quality of strategic leadership by necessity requires strategic learning which must be provided in the public service environment that values and sustains Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM). In this direction, therefore, learning itself can be seen as a dynamic capability because it is purposeful adaptation and reconfiguration of attributes (including knowledge and skills) and a capacity to renew previous competencies to



maintain congruence with changing requirements in the public service. Thus, the public service of the North West needs to consider and appreciate ways in which leadership capability of the senior public servants can be learned and relearned from time to time. Above all, this is vital because leadership is a very fluid concept, as is the role of being a leader in the public service. Therefore, this calls for a paradigmatic shift, one that extends beyond a mode of thought restricted in a mentality of 'either/or' to one that embraces the possibilities embedded in the multiplicities of connections permitted even by seemingly oppositional forces (a both /and mentality).

By and large, the foregoing discussion on capacity building suggests that there are consequences that the public service may face if it fails to build capacity. According to Lancaster (2005: 11), individuals who are unwilling or unable to accept the need for continuing professional development are quickly likely to find that their skills and knowledge are outmoded and irrelevant to the real world of organisations. In addition, individuals who resist change in this respect are unlikely to progress through the management hierarchy to the highest levels of executive activities.

Furthermore, capacity building cannot occur in a public service culture that is unaware of what it is, and unprepared to resource it so that it can flourish. Indeed, training and learning that is anticipated, but is not



supported by, the structure and culture of the organisation makes it difficult (if not impossible) to transfer newly learnt skills and attitudes to the workplace (Swart et al, 2005: 251). If management development and training event reflects poor financial investment, this may convey important messages regarding the extent to which senior managers are committed to learning and development (Swart et al, 2005: 250). Therefore, a clearly defined human resource development budget can assist the organisation in prioritising learning and development events.

Moreover, there is an inextricable link between the leadership style of the top group of managers and the culture of the organisation (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2004:185) For example, several findings by Alimo-Metcalfe (2000) into why, despite the substantial expenditure on management/ leadership development initiatives by public sector organisations, most failed after a few years, relate to the attitudes of the most senior managers, in particular in relation to three aspects. The first was their reluctance to participate themselves, believing that they had little need for it, even though they thought that managers at lower levels did need such development. The second barrier was created as a result of middle level managers' greater understanding of the nature of leadership as a result of their development experiences and a heightened awareness of the lack of appropriate role models amongst the top managers. The third impediment was the lack of general support by the top managers for their initiatives, and in particular a lack of



support for the proposals made by those managers who had participated in such programmes or initiatives. As a result, cynicism amongst those at lower levels increased, and any enthusiasm for applying the development acquired waned.

Human Resource Development should create learning opportunities which are linked to the strategic objectives of the organisation. However, organisations which hamper or stunt the free development of their members or constituents may not only limit their own effectiveness, but may also ultimately impede realisation of overarching constructs such as social justice or the public interest (Fromm, 1965; Freire 1993). In this context, the public service should view capacity building as an aspect of professional development that demands time and money to demonstrate that there is real commitment to growing management capacity. But this requires a clear policy on capacity building with systems, resources and commitment for effective institutional and individual support.

Therefore, capacity building is a necessary ingredient for successful human resource planning and development. In this regard, it is argued that, if the SMS Competency Framework has been created on the basis of the public service core activities, then it should be applied to a wide range of activities, task, and services, and through the enduring processes of learning organisation, superior public service performance



should be realised. The value of the human resources in the public service can be realised if the senior public servants are prepared and developed effectively. In brief, the management development activities in the public service should be carried out within the established framework of skills and competencies that strategically address its challenges and needs and increase its capability. In this regard, the performance appraisal interview is widely viewed as one of the main instruments for identifying training and development needs at the individual level. Implementation of a training and development plan is vital for the facilitation of management development and training.

Contextually, management development and training approaches and strategies should effectively appeal to the strategic needs identified in line with the SMS Competency Framework and for its strategic human resource meaning and purpose. This approach ensures that the training and development activities are predicated on the strategic direction and are shaped by specific individual and organisational needs. It also ensures that management development and training interventions results in better human security and development by responding positively to the actual skills requirements of the public service. Within this context, it may be deduced that capacity building policy is indispensable with a view to enhancing both personal and organisational development systematically and strategically and ensuring superior performance by senior members of the public service.



3.10 Diagnostic mechanisms to support capacity building

An important element in developing a high performance public service in the North West Province is the identification of areas for improvement or problems generally, and capacity building problems in particular. Organisational diagnosis provides information which allows a faster reacting organisation to emerge, one which can deal proactively with changing forces. Importantly, organisational diagnosis is a systematic approach to understanding and describing the current state of the organisation. It is aimed at providing a rigorous analysis of data on the structure, administration, interaction, procedures, interfaces and other essential elements of the organisation (Harvey and Brown, 1996:123-4). By specifying the nature of the exact problem requiring solution, identifying the underlying causal forces and selecting change mechanisms, diagnosis provides a basis for structural, behavioural or technical interventions to improve public service performance. A prominent method in the diagnostic process is to determine the performance gap – the difference between what the organisation could do by virtue of its opportunity in its environment, and what it actually does in taking advantage of the opportunity. This leads to the gap analysis approach (Harvey and Brown, 1996:125). The performance gap may occur when the organisation fails to adapt to changes in its external environment (Robbins 1998: 571-73; Grobler et al, 2006: 265).



Organisation development practitioners use diagnostic models to assess an organisation (Nadler, 1980: 119-31). Indeed, the models described below may be used to analyse the structures, processes, systems, culture and behaviour of the public service, specifically supporting the capacity building of the senior public servants.

3.10.1 The Analytical Model

The analytical model also known as the differentiation-integration model stresses the importance of a sound analytical diagnosis as the basis of planned change in organisations (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1969: 11-14). The model was developed to study and understand interdepartmental issues by conducting a careful diagnosis of an organisation's problem areas. An organisation is composed of differentiated function or units that must be integrated into a unified effort, if the organisation is to be effective. The various tasks that the units work on can be examined in the light of four characteristics of the organisation's environment: the degree of departmental structure; the period of induction of members; the interpersonal induction of members toward others and organisation members' orientation toward goals.

3.10.2 The Emergent-Group Behaviour Model

The emergent-group behaviour model is based primarily on the work of George Homans and provides a conceptual scheme for analysing



behaviour in work groups, particularly the interdependence of groups (Homans, 1950). According to this diagnostic model, a complex pattern of behaviour, consisting of activities, interactions, sentiments and norms, develops from the set of behaviours and relationships required to perform the work of the group. Moreover, there are complex sets of behaviours that emerge in addition to those required, such as social activity. The emergent-group behaviour model helps in understanding how teams operate. This model is used to gather observations and information on these four characteristics and uses these data to diagnose problems among or within teams.

3.10.3 The Management Consulting Model

The Management Consulting diagnostic model was developed for use in management consulting with six basic factors identified (Armstrong and Wheatley, 1989).

- (1) Basic planning – do they have a mission, vision and goals?
- (2) General Business Practices – do they have appropriate management systems?
- (3) Finance – are they operating with timely and accurate financial data and plans?
- (4) Advertising and promotion – are they aware of the link between advertising and sales?



- (5) Market Research – are they aware of competitor’s strategies and policies and the needs of customers?
- (6) Personnel – do they have appropriate systems for recruiting, training, and retraining human resources?

Armstrong and Wheatley (1989) further suggested that it is possible to ask a few basic questions in each area to gain an indication of where the client’s problems may be located.

3.10.4 The Sociotechnical Systems Model

The sociotechnical systems model was developed to analyse the organisation as a sociotechnical system interacting with its external environment (Emergy, 1959). According to this model, there exists in the organisation a social system consisting of the task, activities and tools used to accomplish the basic purpose of the organisation. The two systems – the social system and the technological system – are interrelated and interdependent. The diagnostic model then determines how these systems interrelate, and particularly the type of feedback or lack of feedback between the various subsystems.

3.10.5 The Force-Field Analysis Model

The force-field analysis model is a general-purpose technique developed to understand the dynamic balance of forces working in opposite directions (Lewin, 1974: 5-42). In any organisational situation, there are



forces that push for change, as well forces that hinder change. Those forces acting on the organisation to keep it stable are called restraining forces and put pressure on the organisation not to change. Opposite forces, called driving forces, put pressure on the organisation to change. If the forces for change and the forces against change are equal, the result is organisational equilibrium and the organisation remains stable. This technique assumes that at any given moment, an organisation is in a state of equilibrium. Change takes place when there is an imbalance between the forces, and continues until the opposing forces are brought back into equilibrium. The imbalance can be planned and specifically brought about by increasing the strength of any one of the forces, adding a new force, by decreasing the strength of any one of the forces, or by a combination of these methods.

With reference to this thesis, all the above models are equally important for a number of reasons. First, they can be used to enhance the capacity of the public service to assess and change its approaches to supporting the managerial capacity building of its senior public servants. Second, they can provide an opportunity for the North West Province (legislative and administrative) to acquire new insights into the dysfunctional aspects of their culture and patterns of behaviour as a basis for developing a more effective public service. Finally, they are equally important to ensuring that all departments in the North West Province remain engaged in a process of continuous improvement.



Therefore, they are very critical for strengthening the support for managerial capacity building of senior public servants.

3.11 Summary

The worldwide realisation that public service functions are more complex and require managerial than administrative interventions does not exclude the North West Province and its senior public servants. Moreover, the public service faces the challenge of restoring integrity to its own procedures, building public confidence in its capacities and reinvigorating its commitment to democratic ideals. It emerged from the literature that, for the public service to be effective, accountable, efficient and economical, it should develop policies, construct systems and processes, and position resources with a view to ensuring that there is sufficient capability to use the resources effectively and that new knowledge and thinking that are brought to the bureau are well leveraged at individual and organisational levels.

As recognised, induction is a vital process for the successful placement and subsequent processes of training and development training of senior public servants. An effective induction programme ensures the integration of newly appointed senior public servants into the public service, thereby creating a sense of security, confidence and belonging for them. Successful induction programmes lead to better motivated senior public servants and improved productivity within the public



service. However, it is important that the HR department give feedback to the newcomers and monitor and evaluate the induction process with a view to ensuring that the expectations of the public service and the newcomers are reached effectively and in a balanced and cost-effective fashion.

Evidence that senior public servants have accepted the need for continuous professional development and training is vital for the success of the public service and for the general capacity to provide goods and services in modern times. Indeed, the approaches to management development and training require effective, coherent and sustainable support in terms of policies, strategies, systems, and resources. These elements are important in building a culture of learning and ensuring that public service performance is a sum of the capacities of the individual senior public servants. The importance of diagnostic mechanisms in providing a rigorous analysis of information relating to the structure, administration, interaction, procedures, interfaces and other essential elements of the public service cannot be overemphasised. The review of the literature has answered the basic question at the heart of all governance-related research by Lynn, et al., (2000:1): “How can public-sector regimes, agencies, programs and activities be organised and managed to achieve public purposes?” The case study on the support for the institutional capacity building of the senior public servants is presented in the next chapter.