

Leadership and governance for a sustainable public service. The case for selected South African public service organizations

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AFIS	Automated Fingerprint Identification System
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANC	African National Congress
CBO	Community based organization
CJSP	Criminal Justice Strengthening Programme
DLGH	Department of Local Government and Housing
DOTS	Directly observed treatment short-course
DPSA	Department of Public Service and Administration
EXCO	Executive Council of the Province
G&A	Governance and Administration
GDH	Gauteng Department of Housing
GDP	Gross domestic product
HIV	Human immune deficiency virus
HPCSA	Health Professional Council of South Africa
HRD	Human Resources Development
HRM	Human Resources Management
IC	Individualised consideration
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDP	Infrastructure Development Plan
IGR	Intergovernmental Relations
II	Idealised influence
IJS	Integrated Justice System
IM	Inspirational motivation

IPSP	Integrated Provincial Support Programme
IS	Intellectual Stimulation
IT	Information Technology
LMX	Leader-member exchange theory
MEC	Member of Executive Council
MIIF	Municipal Infrastructure Investment Framework
MRC	Medical Research Council
MTEF	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
NACF	National Anti-Corruption Forum
NAAIRS	The National Automated Archival Information Retrieval System
NHLS	National Laboratory Service
NCPS	National Crime Prevention Strategy
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa Development
NMIR	National minimum information requirements
NGO	Non-governmental organizations
NPM	New Public Management
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act, 2002
PMTCT	Prevention of Mother-to-Child Transmission
PHC	Primary Health Care
PPPs	Public Private Partnerships
PSC	Public Service Commission
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAP	South African Police Services
SANAC	South African National AIDS Council

SANDF	South African Defence Force
SARS	South African Revenue Services
SCOPA	Standing Committee on Public Accounts
SITA	State Information Technology Agency
SMS	Senior Management Services
TB	Tuberculosis
TRC	Truth and Reconciliation Commission
WHO	World Health Organization
WPTPS	White Paper on Transforming the Public Service

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

In an effort to promote a sustainable public service, the attention of the South African government has increasingly shifted to the most critical issue confronting the South African public service today, that of service delivery. The ultimate goal of the South African public service is to provide services to all South Africans. In keeping with the democratic ideals of the new South Africa, the public service also has to ensure that services are delivered in an equitable manner. The South African public service is thus required to redress service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities. To meet this challenge the South African public service should be sustainable. Within the context of this study, sustainable, means that the public service should be efficient, effective, economical and equitable. This has numerous consequences, specifically with regard to creating effective approaches for the public service.

This chapter presents a general overview of the study. Firstly, a historical overview of the South African context sets the scene for the study. A general overview is given of South Africa since the establishment of the Dutch colony in 1652 through to the post-apartheid era of 1994 to 2003. The relevant political, social, economic and cultural aspects are briefly discussed. Secondly, the chapter discusses the South African public service and service delivery during the apartheid era (1949 to 1994). The discussion revolves specifically around the leadership and governance framework adopted by the South African public service during this era, which was structured around the needs of an apartheid state. Service delivery to the majority of Black South Africans was either non-existent or only a minimum was provided. Thirdly, the post-apartheid era (1994 to 2003) is described, with particular reference to the South African public service. In 1994, the post-apartheid public service was confronted with addressing service delivery imbalances and inequities in South Africa. Transformation and reform of the South African public service was therefore necessary to promote a sustainable public service to ensure effective service delivery. The transformation and reform of the South African

public service is discussed against the background of leadership, governance and service delivery.

After having presented the historical overview above, the chapter defines central concepts used in the study, namely: public service, service delivery, leadership, governance, and transformational African leadership and governance framework. Thereafter, the motivation for this research study is presented, followed by the problem statement and the research question. The justification for the study and its objectives are outlined. Lastly, a chapter outline is captured.

HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

The historical overview of the South African context sets the scene for the study. In terms of section 40 of the Constitution of South Africa, 1996, the government of South Africa is divided into three spheres (The Constitution of South Africa 1996, Act 108 of 1996): national, provincial and local spheres of government. These are required to observe the principles of the Constitution. The national government is responsible for policy formulation and for developing national standards, rules and regulations. The exclusive functional areas of provincial governments include ambulance services, provincial roads and provincial planning. Municipalities, which are the constitutional units of the local sphere of government, are involved in local issues, such as municipal roads and the provision of local amenities to the community.

The public service in South Africa comprises of national and provincial government (The Machinery of Government, 2003: 30). South African society, however, does not see any distinction between the three spheres of government (Naidoo, 2003: Discussion). Unfortunately, according to Chandu (2004: Discussion), the public sees any challenge in one sphere of government as a weakness of the South African public service as a whole. When considering the effectiveness of service delivery by the South African public service, it is thus important to understand the general context of South Africa, as well as the historical context of the public service and its present context.

General overview of South Africa and its history

The Republic of South Africa is situated at the southern tip of the African continent. The arrival of Jan van Riebeeck at the Cape (at a place now called Cape Town, situated in the Western Cape Province) in 1652 heralded the development of a Dutch colony whose objective it was to cater for ships on the trade routes to the East (Kuye, *et al.* 2002: 29). As a result of various political and economic changes in Europe, countries such as Britain consequently became interested in Southern Africa. Thus, during a period of about hundred and fifty years, the Dutch and the British governed the government and administration of Cape Town, alternately.

The discovery of diamonds and then gold in South Africa from 1867 onwards spurred the arrival of a wealth of immigrants to the country and intensified the subjugation of its native inhabitants (World Factbook–South Africa, 2002: 1). These herding and hunting societies, known as the Khoikhoi and the San, or collectively as the Khoisan, had been present in the west and northwest since around 1000 BC (Butler, 2004: 5). In 1870, within the borders of the yet-to-be created South Africa, different types of society were engaged in competition for resources. One of these, were known as Bantu-speaking African people during the colonial era. (Bantu-speaking African people, is that phrase that the colonialists themselves used). They later became known as the Xhosa or Zulu. Their economies and social organisations were centred upon livestock. The effective political units of African pastoralists and farmers were hereditary chiefdoms, which included people of different descent groups and migrants from other regions (Butler 2004:7). The others that were engaged in competition for resources were the Dutch and British.

Britain took direct control of the Cape in 1795, resulting in the Cape colony becoming inhospitable to the Dutch settlers (also known as the Afrikaners or Boers) (Butler, 2004: 7). Consequently, in 1806, many of the Dutch settlers trekked north and eastwards to create their own republics in areas that were, however, already occupied by African polities. New opportunities for the Boers were created by a major transformation in African societies (Butler 2004:8). There was a great dislocation of African farmers as a result of a series of conflicts, driven by the Zulu kingdom. The resulting instability presented White settlers with an opportunity to colonize seemingly ‘empty’ and

unclaimed land. By 1870, as a result, the Boers had occupied great tracts of the Southern African interior.

The Cape Colony was consolidated as a British possession after 1806. During this period, the Boers (an Afrikaans word meaning farmers) resisted British encroachments, but were ultimately defeated in the Boer War (1899 to 1902). The resulting Union of South Africa in 1910 operated under a unitary system of government, but with strong federal properties (Kuye, *et al.* 2002: 29). Although the South African Parliament was the supreme legislative body, each of the provinces could elect its own provincial council and was assigned particular powers and functions. The policies adopted by various governments since 1910 had shaped the South African society and the public service. From 1949, onwards when the National Party (Afrikaner government) came into power, it adopted a system of apartheid (a term referring to the ‘separate development’ of the races). In the 1990s, apartheid came to an end politically, and a government of national unity was instituted in South Africa.

The size of South Africa is 1,219,912 sq km (World Factbook–South Africa, 2003: 1). It has common boundaries with the republics of Namibia, Botswana and Zimbabwe, Mozambique, the Kingdom of Swaziland and Lesotho (South Africa Yearbook, 2003/2004: 8). The total South African population is approximately, forty-two million (42,768,678). The South African population is racially diverse: Approximately 75,2 percent are classified as African, 13,6 percent as White, 8,6 percent as Coloured and 2,6 percent as Indian/Asian. Africans, Coloureds and Indians are collectively known as Blacks in South Africa. With regard to the gender distribution, approximately fifty-two percent women and forty-eight percent men that comprise the South African population.

To cater for South Africa’s diverse peoples, the Constitution of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996), provides for eleven official languages, namely: Afrikaans, English, Ndebele, Pedi, Sotho, Swazi, Tsonga, Tswana, Venda, Xhosa and Zulu. National and provincial departments may use any two or more official languages for the purposes of government, taking into account usage, practicality, expense, regional circumstances and the needs and preferences of the population. The literacy rate of persons fifteen years and over, i.e. people who can read and write is 86,4 percent.

In terms of Section 132 of the Constitution (1996), the country is divided into nine provinces, each with its own Legislature, Premier and Executive Councils. These provinces are the Eastern Cape, Free State, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, North-West, Northern Cape and Western Cape (World Factbook–South Africa, 2003: 1). The South African Parliament consists of the National Assembly and the National Council of Provinces (NCOP). The National Assembly comprises four hundred seats whose members are elected by popular vote under a system of proportional representation to serve five-year terms. The NCOP comprises ninety seats, consisting of ten members elected by each of the nine provincial legislatures for five-year terms.

South Africa is an emerging market, with an abundant supply of natural resources, well-developed financial, legal, communications, energy, and transport sectors. It has a stock exchange that ranks among the ten largest in the world. South Africa also has one of the world's most progressive Constitutions (GOVZA: Imbizo: 2002) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/issues/imbizo/2002>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). South Africa has had nine consecutive years of positive economic growth (World Factbook–South Africa, 2003: 1). The gross domestic product (GDP) has grown by an estimated 3,1 percent, during 2002. In the first three quarters of 2002, household consumption expenditure increased by 3,2 percent on average and disposable income by over 3,5 percent. The household debt as a percentage of disposal income is at its lowest level since 1993 (State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa, Mr. Thabo Mbeki, House of Parliament, Cape Town, 14 February 2003). Over the last decade, real government expenditure on social services has grown by four percent per annum. The manufacturing sector has also grown by 5,4 percent in 2002.

There is, however, a structural fault in the South African economy and society and this is that South Africa has a dual economy (World Factbook–South Africa, 2003: 1). One part of the economy is modern and relatively well developed, whereas the other is characterized by underdevelopment and an entrenched crisis of poverty. Moreover, there is a distinct relationship between underdevelopment, poverty and race in South Africa (GOVZA: Imbizo: 2002) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/issues/imbizo/2002>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). The historical reason for this is that the previous National

Party government (1949 to 1994) promoted mainly the interests of the White minority in all sectors of society in South Africa, to the detriment of the other race groups.

The South African population can be described as a fragmented portion of a whole (World Factbook–South Africa, 2003: 1). Each race group has received uniquely different and racially based treatment from the previous National Party Government. For example, the new democratic government in South Africa (1994) inherited a divided and unequal system of education. Under the apartheid system of government, South Africa had nineteen different education departments separated by race, geography and ideology. Before 1994, each race group grew up in different social-political, educational and cultural environments. This system of ‘separate development’ prepared people in different ways for the positions they were expected to occupy in social, economic and political life. The entire system reinforced inequality in all sectors of South African society. The advent of multi-party negotiations, in the early 1990s and subsequent democracy in April 1994 marked the end of three centuries of colonial conquest and White minority rule in South Africa.

Apartheid era: The South African public service and service delivery (1949 to 1994)

When considering service delivery by the South African public service, it is important to understand the historical context of the public service (A Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001: 11). For the purpose of this study, it is important to examine the nature and history of the public service and service delivery prior to 1994. Essentially, the South African public service prior to 1994 reflected a highly fragmented and repressive system of government. In this regard, at the time of democratization (1994), the public service consisted of eleven separate and distinct systems, based on race, gender and ethnicity. Each of these public service systems was organized around its own priorities, which took on distinctive and idiosyncratic characteristics. The doctrine of ‘separate development’ involved the idea that Africans and others should reside and enjoy citizenship rights in distinct ethnic homelands (Butler, 2004: 19). ‘Separate development’ was one of the key concepts of apartheid. It implied that every South African must be assigned to an ethnic group, nation or tribe, and that each of these must have its own site of self-government. This resulted in the establishment of ten

Bantustans and moreover in 1970 homeland citizenship was forced upon Africans in the country. Each of these homeland bureaucracies moreover had its own public service.

In line with the South African government's policy of discrimination, the public service employed a brutal and authoritarian form of leadership and governance (A Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001: 1). The system that emerged under the apartheid regime was profoundly undemocratic. Furthermore, the public service was explicitly organized around the imperatives of inequitable principles, in which racism and sexism provided an important justification for many of the discriminatory practices adopted by government. Moreover, the public service created opportunities for gross malpractices, such as corruption and mismanagement (A Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001: 11). This was evident at every institutional level in 1994 in the South African public service.

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

The total number of public servants in South Africa was about one per thirty inhabitants, which is extremely high in relation to other countries at a comparable stage

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

The South African public service prior to 1994 were structured around the need of the apartheid state (Media Briefing of the Minister of Provincial and Local Government, Mr. FS Mafumadi, Cape Town, 2 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). Services to the majority of the population (namely Blacks) were either non-existent or, if delivered, were partially, inefficiently and inequitably distributed. The public service had a policy, which explicitly promoted the exclusion of service provision to Black communities, or at least the provision of minimal services. The converse was true for White South Africans (A Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001: 8). The apartheid state of South Africa directed the majority of its resources into service delivery programmes for the upliftment of, at best, the 13,6 percent of the South African population that was White. The post-apartheid South African public service is consequently faced with the urgent need to improve service delivery imbalances and inequities, especially in previously disadvantaged communities.

Post-apartheid era: The South African public service and service delivery (Post-1994 to 2003)

The post-apartheid democratic government in South Africa (since 1994) has had to deal with the legacy of apartheid and colonialism (Media Briefing of the Minister of

Provincial and Local Government, Mr. FS Mafumadi, Cape Town, 2 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). In 1994, when the new South African government came into power, it was evident that there was an absence of basic services, such as water, proper sanitation and electricity in many rural communities (Second Economic and Social Rights Report 1998/1999, 2000: 1). In some communities, however, minimal services were provided. In 1995, it was estimated that approximately eight million people from previously disadvantaged communities did not have adequate sanitary facilities, and that only fifty percent of South Africans, had waterborne sewerage. In 1996, it was estimated that approximately fifteen to sixteen million people did not have piped water.

According to research conducted by the government on the South African public service in 1994, it was reported in the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (WPTPS) (1995: 7) that urban areas in South Africa are better provided with higher levels of services. Conversely, the biggest backlogs are in rural areas, where services were virtually non-existent in 1994. If one has to compare the urban areas with the rural areas with respect to public service delivery, a number of differences become evident.

In 1994, for instance, 10,1 percent of the households living in urban areas had a below basic service level for water (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995). Similarly, 39,2 percent of the households living in rural areas had a below basic service level for water. The difference is even more marked in the case of sanitation, where 25,8 percent of urban households and 75,8 percent of rural households lacked at least a ‘ventilated improved pit latrine’ (the basic level). These service backlogs are reflected in Table 1/1.

Table 1/1

Service delivery backlogs in urban and rural areas at 1994

Service	Urban Areas	Rural Areas
Water	10,1%	39,2%
Sanitation	25,8%	75,8%

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

In the light of these urban-rural differences in South Africa, it is questionable whether national averages have much value, such as the statement that 45,9 percent of the nation's households lack at least a basic sanitation service level (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995). The reasons for these differences can be attributed to the past urban bias of services, mainly towards White communities in South Africa (Second Economic and Social Rights Report 1998/1999, 2000). This system had been designed to promote the exclusion of Blacks from the mainstream of South African society after all the majority of the citizens who live in rural areas are Black.

The impact of the lack of service delivery by the previous South African public service is further evident in the rural areas of the provinces: for example, in 1995, 13,6 percent of Western Cape rural households had a below basic water service level, whilst the same figure in the Eastern Cape was as high as 76,4 percent (White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service, 1995). Two percent of the Western Cape's urban households have a below basic water service level, whilst the same figure in Eastern Cape is three percent. Approximately thirty-eight percent of Gauteng's rural population had a below basic sanitation service level, while the figure for KwaZulu-Natal was 88,2 percent. Fifteen percent of Gauteng's urban population had a below basic sanitation services level, whereas the same figure in KwaZulu-Natal is fifty-four percent (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995; Second Economic and Social Rights Report 1998/1999, 2000). These figures are summarised in Table 1/2.

Table 1/2

Service delivery backlogs in urban and rural areas of the provinces in 1995

Service	Province	Urban Areas	Rural Areas
Water	Western Cape	2 %	13,6%
	Eastern Cape	3 %	76,4%
Sanitation	Gauteng	15 %	38 %
	KwaZulu-Natal	44 %	88,2%

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

Clearly, there were vast differences with respect to the service levels, both between rural and urban areas and among different rural areas. The South African government of 1994 thus inherited households in urban areas that had inadequate municipal services, and which were able to contribute very little to the cost of public services (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995: 7). Most municipal authorities (local government level) experienced difficulties in financing, delivering and sustaining existing public services.

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

The improvement of service delivery means improving and the redressing the imbalances of the past, while maintaining the continuity of services to all levels of society. The main focus, however, should be on meeting the needs of the fifty percent of South Africans who are currently living below the poverty line (World-Factbook, 2003: 1). The objectives of service delivery should, therefore, include welfare, equity and efficiency. Unless the South African public service transforms its service delivery backlogs, it cannot claim to have achieved the democratic goals outlined in section 195(1) of the South African Constitution (1996). An efficient, effective, economical and equitable public service is the hallmark of a sustainable public service (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2001: 96).

The post-1994 public service inherited a system that was ineffective and inefficient in addressing the service delivery needs and demands of the South African society (Ncholo, 2000: 22). The instruments necessary to effectively deliver services to all South African communities did not exist (Ramaite, 2002: 1). An ethos and culture of service delivery first had to be created by the public service (Ncholo, 2000: 22). There was a need for change and reform in the South African public service (Bardill, 2000:

104). As part of the process of change, the government led by the African National Congress (ANC) identified the transformation and reform of the South African public service as one of its primary goals. To this end, the South African government embarked on initiatives to improve the ability of the public service to deliver services.

After the proclamation of the Constitution of South Africa, 1993 (Act 200 of 1993), the structure and composition of the South African public service changed significantly. In 1994, when the new democratic government came into power, most of the South African provinces had one or more former homelands in their jurisdiction, have had to confront difficult issues of integrating and accommodating these separate entities into one public service (A Report of the State of the Public Service, 2001: 11). One step that was taken in this direction was the introduction of the Public Service Act of 1994 (Proclamation 103 of 1994). This Act created the basis for integrating the fragmented system of eleven public services into a single unified public service, which would operate at both national and provincial spheres of government (Public Service Act of 1994, Proclamation 103 of 1994). A restructuring of the various public services thus followed.

During the first two-and-a-half years of its first five-year term, the new South African government focused primarily on developing its policies and on streamlining and improving frameworks, structures and systems (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.htm>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). This was necessary to give effect to the values and principles of the interim Constitution of South Africa, 1993 (National Conference on Public Service Delivery Conference Report, 1997). Accordingly, various new Acts and Regulations were formulated and introduced in the South African public service to improve service delivery (Ramaite, 2002: 1). The transformation of the South African public service initially focused on legislative reform, but is presently undergoing massive administrative reform (Service Delivery Review, 2004). The goal is also to replace the classical public administration model with an efficient, effective, economical and equitable model of public administration (Theron, *et al.* 2000: 30). The classical model of public administration focuses on extensive control, but is not necessarily efficient in achieving service delivery outcomes. The model is slow and cumbersome. Moreover, the public service is rigid, with standardized operating rules procedures. The focus of

this model is, predominantly on following rules and regulations, rather than achieving service delivery outcomes.

The agenda for the legislative reforms had its roots in the principles drawn from both the 1993 and 1996 Constitutions of South Africa (National Conference on Public Service Delivery, Conference Report, 1997). Both Constitutions and the policies of the current South African government prioritize service delivery to all South Africans. To redress imbalances and inequities in service delivery in South Africa, the three spheres of government (national, provincial and municipal) are expected by the government to broaden access to services at costs that are affordable to the public (National Conference on Public Service Delivery: Conference Report, 1997). They are also required to design appropriate levels of services to meet their customers' needs and demands (Batho Pele - People First' White Paper on Transforming Service Delivery, 1997). In this regard, they are required to adopt innovative and efficient approaches to redress imbalances and inequities in service delivery (Intergovernmental Fiscal Review, 2001: 11).

The early policy formulation phase, between 1994 and 1999, was characterized by the production and dissemination of policy papers, which formed the basis for legislations and regulations in the public service (Bardill, 2000: 104). These were prepared in nearly every sector of the South African public service. The aims and objectives of the South African government are manifested in these policies (Ramaite, 2002: 1). At this time, however, nine years after apartheid, it is important to determine whether these initiatives and policies have in fact been translated into meaningful action, especially in previously disadvantaged communities.

The Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) has noted improvements in a number of national and provincial departments (Service Delivery Review, 2004). The DPSA is responsible for the formulation of national policy in South Africa. The public service is currently implementing a number of public-sector driven programmes, aimed at improving basic needs and services, such as expanding the social security net, creating job opportunities and putting the necessary socio-economic infrastructure in place for sustained growth. The DPSA has acknowledged nonetheless that there is still vast scope for further progress (Department of Public Service and Administration,

2003). In this regard, the DPSA has indicated that some public service departments are confronted with challenges that impact on their performance. These challenges mainly relate to policy implementation. This is reiterated in the Synthesis Report on the Implementation of Government Programmes (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). This Report indicates that, efforts towards service delivery need to be consolidated with greater attention to policy implementation.

The Public Service Commission (PSC) in South Africa is of the view that the previous patterns of inequality remain largely unchanged in previously disadvantaged communities (Service Delivery Review, 2003). The PSC is a central government department that is constitutionally mandated to monitor public service delivery in South Africa. It maintains that previously disadvantaged areas, especially remote rural communities in South Africa, still continue to be under-served. It claims that, in many instances, the scale of the imbalances has proved enormous, and that the inherited inequalities from the previous government cannot be fully addressed in the next five to ten years, at the pace that is needed in South Africa. Furthermore, the PSC states that there are challenges in the South African public service that impact on service delivery. These challenges revolve around leadership and policy implementation.

Analysts argue that the pace of improving public service delivery is not fast enough (Molopo, 2003: Discussion). According to the Report on the State of the Public Service (2001: 20), the implementation of the government's policies is a major challenge in this regard. Despite advances in policy design by the South African public service, the transition to implementation remains a challenge (Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001: 20). Ramaite (2002: 1) contends that many public service departments are unfocused, and that this impacts negatively on service delivery. Leaders do not align subordinates to the vision of the institution. Moreover, this vision is not communicated to subordinates, and they are not motivated to realise them. Others argue that the leadership and governance framework adopted by the South African public service is not very effective in promoting improvements in the quantity and quality of services, especially in previously disadvantaged communities (Molopo, 2003: Discussion). Molopo (2003: Discussion) claims that large disparities are still evident in previously disadvantaged communities. Its ultimate success should be judged on whether it could overcome the large disparities that still exist between the levels of service in different

parts of South Africa. The provision of services to society should be an ongoing and dynamic process that ought to be sustained because, as standards are met, they must be progressively raised.

Improving public service delivery is essential for the future economic prosperity and social development of South Africa. The South African public service is pursuing different approaches to promote a sustainable public service to improve service delivery (Minister for the South African public service, Ms. Geraldine Fraser-Moleketi, Dialogue around Africanizing Public Administration: Issues for leadership and good governance, October 2003). The public service has considered models of excellence and good practice in other institutions, communities and/or public service systems in other countries. In this respect, the trend is the transformation of a public bureaucracy to a model of public administration that is service driven. The focus is placed on performance and efficiency.

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

DEFINITIONS AND OPERATIONALIZATION OF KEY CONCEPTS

The issue of defining and operationalizing key concepts is central to this study. The definitions provided should clarify the meaning of terms and concepts that are important in understanding the study. The definitions of these key concepts and perspectives on the South African public service, service delivery, leadership, governance and transformational African leadership and governance framework follow.

South African public service

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

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

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

For the purpose of this study, the public service is defined as the group of public institutions or departments (both national and provincial) providing essential services, such as basic services to the general public. The basic services, for example, include defending the community. This service benefits the general public. Without the necessary resources, though, it would be physically impossible for the national or provincial departments of South Africa, to effectively implement the government's policies (Du Toit, *et al.* 2002: 76). It is essential for the public service to be efficiently resourced with public servants to ensure service delivery. According to the Public Service Act 1994, the public service consists of persons who (Public Service Act 1994, Act 103 of 1994):

- (i) Hold permanent posts in these bodies: The Permanent Force of the National Defence Force, the South African Police Service, the Department

of Correctional Services, the Department of National Intelligence Services, and state educational institutions;

- (ii) The public service shall also consist of persons having ceased to hold posts on permanent appointments and not having retired or having been discharged, are employed additional to the fixed establishment or who are deemed to continue to hold posts under the circumstances contemplated in subsection (3)(c); and
- (iii) The public service shall also consist of persons who hold posts on the fixed establishment other than posts referred to in paragraph (a).”

The total number of workers employed with the South African public service in 2003 was about 1,1 million (The Machinery of Government, 2003: 62). It accounts for about a fifth of all formal employment and for about a tenth of the whole labour force of South Africa. This means that the South African public service is effectively the largest single employer in South Africa (The Machinery of Government, 2003: 62). With regard to the distribution of personnel in public service sectors, 61,4 percent is attached to the social services cluster (health, social development and education), followed by 16,5 percent in the criminal justice cluster, 14,7 percent in the governance and administration (GandA) cluster and 7,4 percent in the defence and intelligence cluster (GOVZA: System-The Public Service, 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/issues/imbizo/2002>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003).

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

systems and processes, cost effectiveness and a competent and committed leadership cadre. In sum, the phrase ‘a sustainable public service’ in this study refers to an efficient, effective, economical and equitable public service. The adoption of effective approaches is necessary to promote such a sustainable public service.

Service delivery

Kickert (2002: 90) states that; “service delivery is concerned with the provision of a product or service, by a government or government body to a community that it was promised to or which is expected by that community.” Service can be variously defined as the performance of work or duty by an official, an act of helping others, the power to control or make use of resources, or an institution or system providing the public with something useful or necessary (Oxford Universal Dictionary, 1961: 1394). The act of delivery can be defined as producing or performing, handing over, taking goods to the intended recipient, or producing results as promised or expected (Oxford Universal Dictionary, 1961: 413).

Du Toit, *et al.* (2002: 24) argues that the two concepts of functions and services are generally used synonymously, but that there is a distinct difference between them. The difference lies in the fact that before a service can be delivered various functions or processes have to be carried out. For example, before running water can be made available in a house or in an area, the department responsible, would have to budget and plan for the service, to draw up a programme of execution, and finally to supply a pipeline to the area. From this, it can be deduced that services refer to the results emanating from the execution of policy and that they entail a variety of functions or processes.

Within this context, service delivery includes citizens being protected by the public service (Du Toit and Van Der Walddt, 1999: 22). In exchange for being governed and protected, citizens expect the public service to maintain an orderly community by providing basic goods and services. This relationship between them confirms the public service’s responsibility to govern on behalf of the citizens of such communities and to protect their interests. This responsibility further implies that the public service is responsible for delivering its services to the community.

Fox and Meyer (1995: 118) define service delivery as “the provision of public activities, benefits or satisfactions.” Service delivery relates both to the provision of tangible public goods and of intangible services. According to Flynn (1997: 163), the responsibility for service delivery denotes the delivery of collective or common services. Services that are delivered that are collective and basic, for example, are defending the community. As communities grew and became more sophisticated, their need for more and improved services increased. The public service was thus created to deliver these services, because citizens are unable to satisfy all their own needs, and to perform the activities required for public administration. This implies that the outcomes of public administration are aimed at service delivery. The aim of public administration is therefore to improve the general welfare of the people. However, the needs of the people became increasingly difficult to meet, which required other stakeholders to become actively involved in assisting it.

It can be argued that the basic principle of government in a true democracy is optimum service delivery, at minimal cost, in order to realize the ultimate goal of creating a good quality of life for every citizen. The business of every government is, or rather should be, to improve the lives of all its’ people. It does so by providing services to the community. For example, it provides infrastructure (i.e. communications, road and rail network and transportation) to facilitate social and economic growth. It can offer services by implementing development programmes or strategic interventions, for specifically targeted social groups and areas that are disadvantaged. For example, the government can provide training and development. Government can provide or facilitate access to social services. For example, it can offer health services to the communities. It can bestow services by directly supporting needy communities, households or individuals. In a democratic environment, governments stay in power on the basis of how well they have delivered essential services to the electorate.

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

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

Leadership

The dictionary definitions of leadership are simple, and are not very helpful in understanding the concept for the purpose of this study. Most dictionaries define leadership as “the position or office of a leader”, which indicates that leadership involves occupying a position of management or administration. The dictionaries have also contributed to the notion that leadership is a bundle of traits, by defining leadership as “the ability to lead” and stating that; “leadership resides with the leader.”

Leaders can also be defined as “those who articulate particular values within institutions and who negotiate those values into the institutional illusion that shapes, sustains, and justifies behaviour” (Northouse, 2001: 1). The verb to ‘lead’ comes from an old English word ‘leden’ or ‘loedan’, which meant “to make go, to guide, or to show the way” and from the Latin word ‘ducere’ which meant “to draw, drag, pull, to lead, guide and conduct.”

Academic research has given us a large number of perspectives and definitions of leadership. However, according to Kotter (1996: 14) neither the scholars nor the practitioners have been able to define leadership with precision and conciseness. As a result, people cannot define leadership correctly, neither when they see it happening nor when they engage in it. Rost (1993: 1) therefore concluded that leadership studies as an academic discipline has a culture of definitional permissiveness and relativity.

Rost (1993: 1) argues that books on leadership are majestically useless and pretentious. This assessment may be, extreme to some extent, but there is considerable truth in it. Most of what is written about leadership from a Western perspective has to do with its peripheral elements and content, rather than with the essential nature of leadership as a relationship. Rost (1993: 1) contends that most of the works on leadership do not in fact

describe leadership, but management. The author demonstrates how the study of leadership is being dominated by different theories; namely: ‘great man’ leadership theories, group leadership which focuses on facilitative leadership processes, psychologists theories which focuses on trait leadership and political scientists’ theories which centres on behavioural leadership.

It is useful at this point to analyze different definitions and perspectives on leadership. Leadership through the centuries became the topic of several treatises such as Machiavelli’s ‘The Prince’ and Carlyle’s ‘O Heroes, hero-worship, and the heroic in history’ (Roos, 1991: 43). Their work, however, merely focused on the presumed competencies of a leader or on his or her personal attributes. This traditional Western approach to leadership still influences writers today, although psychologists and sociologists have emphasized the interrelationships of persons and conditions. Nonetheless, the four basic components of leadership that receive attention in these studies are (Northouse, 2001: 4):

- (i) the abilities, personality and authority of the leader;
- (ii) the abilities, personalities, and authority of the followers;
- (iii) the special attributes of the situation; and
- (iv) the objective or task with which the group may be concerned.

Roos (1991: 242) and Northouse (2001: 5) refer to leadership as that relationship which exists between an individual and a group sharing a common goal or interest. The group is likely to behave in a manner influenced or directed by the one who assumes the leadership role. When leadership is viewed as a relationship existing between an individual and a group, with both parties sharing a common objective, then the description given by Roos (1991: 42) seems apt, namely that leadership “is an administrative process that involves directing the affairs and actions of others.” According to Christopher and Smith (1987: 3) leadership is concerned with power, people and goals. This latter view means that leadership is about persuading people to do what the leader requires of them, while simultaneously encouraging them to acquire new skills and expertise to set out their objectives for accomplishment.

Kotter (1996: 14) concurs with Roos (1991: 242); they argue that the word leadership is used in two basic ways in everyday conversation “to refer to the process of moving a group or groups of people in some direction through mostly noncoercive means, and to refer to people who are in roles where leadership is expected”. According to Naidoo (1996: 10), traditional African leadership espouses that the most effective leader is the one who can lead others to lead themselves. Leaders should thus maximize the contributions of others by helping them to guide their own careers effectively, rather than using the ability to bend the will of others to the leaders will.

Micklethwaite and Wooldridge (1997: 17) levelled the charge that leadership theory is ‘faddish’. Consequently, they argued that there is a real need to return regularly to the basics of leadership. In this regard, they refer to leadership as a relationship, which was oriented toward achieving a common goal. Drucker (1979: 194) says, “the purpose of an institution is to make common people do uncommon things.” Much the same is true of the leader’s role in leading and this is possible only by developing sound leadership skills, which are appropriate to the situation and the followers whom the leader is leading.

Sashkin and Sashkin (2003: 11) state that, “the art of leadership is the divine will of the group, not to electrify the institution with (the leader’s) charisma.” They argue that, “the modern boss is not supposed to be bossy.” They point out that the Japanese tend to see leadership as “being similar to air: necessary for life but invisible and insubstantial.” Leadership can thus be defined as having a vision or agenda of one’s own, coupled with the ability to articulate one’s message, to gain support through transactional means, and to bring one’s own goals to fruition.

It is important to look at other viewpoints on leadership. According to O’ Toole (1996: 37), leadership is a set of processes that creates institutions or adapts them to significantly changing circumstances. Leadership defines what the future should look like, aligns people to that vision, and inspires them to make it happen despite the obstacles. This definition highlights the importance of vision, change and the fact that people need to be committed fully to all that must happen. Leadership is centred on the concept of achieving group or institutional goals. The most consistent element noted in

all of the above definitions is that leadership involves the process of influence, between the leader and his or her followers to attain specific goals.

This is reiterated by Kets de Vries (2001: 4) who argues that leadership is the influencing process between leaders and followers, to achieve specific objectives through change. This definition highlights the roles of leaders as well as followers and the creative processes of change, which make the achievement of objectives possible. Leadership in this definition is about non-coercive influence, directing and coordinating the activities of followers towards the accomplishment of institutional goals.

According to Mokgoro (2001: 5) leadership is about “developing responsibility; different people taking responsibility; forcing people to take responsibility; influencing the community or society to face its problems and mobilizing people, communities or society to tackle tough problems.” The author argues, “leaders are virtually all military generals or politicians decisive and credible”. Moreover, “leaders have strong personalities. Leaders empower others and have a clear vision. They demonstrate courage and have a simple message. They are effective communicators”. More importantly, they manifest charisma. They mobilize followers, and are winners. It could be argued that leadership here refers to leaders who make use of the motivations and actions of others to achieve specific goals. The definition by Mokgoro (2001: 5) of leadership can thus be viewed as an interpersonal relationship in which followers comply because they have to, not because they want to.

It can be argued that the goal achievement notion of leadership in these definitions reduces leadership to group facilitation and human relations skills, all of which indicate an emphasis on style, as a way of developing leadership. The goal achievement view of leadership makes effectiveness a part of the definition, instead of the quality of the leadership.

The influence relationship among followers and leaders is also highlighted in Rost’s (1993: 102) and Northouse’s (2001: 5) definitions on leadership. In this regard, Rost (1993: 102) indicates that leadership “is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes.” Every word in this definition conveys a specific meaning that contains certain assumptions and values,

which are necessary for a transformed, post-industrial model of leadership. Taking into account Rost's (1993: 102) definition on leadership, it may be stated that there are four essential elements that should be present if leadership exists:

- (i) The relationship is based on influence. According to Northouse (2001: 5), the influence relationship is multidirectional.
- (ii) Leadership and followers are in a relationship. The followers are active. There must be more than one follower, and there is typically more than one leader in the relationship. According to Molopo (2003: Discussion), this type of leadership is typical of traditional African leadership. According to Rost (1993: 102), in the Western leadership definition the relationship is inherently unequal because the influence patterns are unequal. This is a departure from traditional African leadership, which advocates that the relationship between leaders and followers is equal (Naidoo 2003: Discussion).
- (iii) Leaders and followers intend real changes. According to Rost (1993: 102), 'intend' means that the leaders and followers purposefully desire changes. These changes should be substantive and transforming. However, leaders and followers do not have to produce changes in order for leadership to be successful. They intend changes in the present but the changes take place in the future if they take place at all.
- (iv) Leaders and followers develop mutual purposes. The mutuality of these purposes is forged in non-coercive influence relationships. In this regard, leaders and followers develop purposes, not goals. The intended changes reflect, but do not realize, their purposes. Moreover, the mutual purposes become common purposes.

Rost (1993: 104) concurs that all four elements must be present if any relationship is to be called leadership. The authors argue that the relevance of the above three out of four elements is not sufficient, if leadership is to be successful within a particular context. In order to establish if leadership is indeed happening, it is essential to determine if these four essential elements are present. If they are present then according to Rost (1993: 104), the phenomenon is leadership. However, it is obvious that this definition of leadership by Rost (1993: 102) is an extension of the previous definitions outlined in

this study. The other definitions outlined and emphasized either one or the other of the elements mentioned by Rost (1993: 102) and Northouse (2001: 6), but not all four.

In examining Kuye's (2001: 1) definition of leadership, it is evident that there are several representative definitions. Kuye (2001: 1) argues that, firstly, "leadership is an interpersonal influence, which is directed through communication towards goal attainment". Secondly, "leadership involves an influential increment, or it is the art of influencing people by persuasion, which entails direction from the leader, which is over and above mechanical compliance". Thirdly, "leadership is an act that causes others to act and respond in a shared decision". Fourthly, "leadership is the principal dynamic force that motivates and coordinates the institution in the accomplishment of its objectives". Fifthly, "leadership is a willingness to take the blame". These are all important components in defining leadership.

It can be deduced that leadership is conceived variably as a group process, as a personality, as inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviours, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, as the initiation of a structure, and as many combinations of the definitions outlined. It can be argued that leadership is a role in which the individual expends energy on a continuous basis in order to achieve certain goals. The individual normally considers these goals to be very important, and he or she uses this power and influence to inspire others to follow and work with them to achieve these goals. Both the goals committed to, and the exercise of power and influence require energy and the ways in which this energy is expressed reflects the talents, abilities, beliefs and values of the person exercising leadership. It would be sensible for fruitful research on leadership in the South African public service not to single out any of the above foci but to study leadership as a phenomenon, which embraces all the facets as discussed above.

It is important to examine how these definitions of leadership apply to the South African public service context. For instance, Goshi (2001: 1) mentions that "the inclination of the South African public service is to always seek short term solutions to long term problems and to grab any leadership definition, technique or style that comes along, only to find after a short while that a better one is available." Naidoo (2003:

Discussion) argues that the South African public service should consider the positive attributes of both Western and traditional African leadership approaches.

For the purpose of this study the word African refers to diverse perspectives, approaches and sensitivities of culture, socio-economic and political perspectives in South Africa. Traditional African leadership seeks to focus on interpersonal and group relationships. It is defined as a value-based and ethical leadership (Naidoo, 1996: 3). In this regard, it entails values, such as diligence, respect, empathy, and an appreciation for diversity, transparency, accountability, humanness and honesty. These values are part of the moral basis which African societies are built upon. These values can positively contribute to the creation of a sustainable public service. However, the imposition of apartheid in South Africa prior to 1994 has had a negative impact on the development of traditional African leadership.

In this study, then, leadership is thus defined as the relationships that exist between an individual and a group of individuals in the South African public service. The leader should get others to willingly contribute to the attainment of aims or objectives. A leader ought to be a source of vision, an activator of processes and a builder of trust. He or she should be active in influencing others to understand meaning, to grow, to be creative and to develop a culture of change, innovativeness and performance in the public service. Local narratives and context are crucial when deciding on a leadership framework for public service organisations. The leader, the followers, the situation, values, ethics, cultural factors and the task are all important determinant factors within the leadership framework of the South African public service.

Governance

An international symposium in 1999 of about twenty academics and practitioners traced the roots of governance back to the 18th century. The symposium collected definitions from different sources, which illustrated the progressive widening of its meaning (Plumptre and Graham, 1999: 1). The group noted that the changed role of government and the changed environment, in which it has to discharge its role, have brought the term governance into common usage, as a process for which the word 'government' is no longer sufficient. At the symposium, it was argued that governance is not, in fact, a

new word, but that its appearance in discussions about the public service is a comparatively recent development.

A common, for instance, tendency is to use governance as a synonym for government. This confusion of terms can have unfortunate consequences (Plumptre and Graham, 1999: 1). For example, one of the aims of the symposium was to explore what should be done about a particular public policy issue. It was agreed that the heart of the issue was a problem of governance. However, governance and government were used interchangeably. The consequences were that the policy issue became defined implicitly as a problem of government. The notion that there might be other ways of addressing the problem, or that other sectors of society might take the initiative in dealing with it, was not considered. Thus, equating governance with government constrained the way in which the problem was conceived and reduced the range of strategies available for dealing with it. The confusion over terminology related to governance can evidently have important practical consequences. It may affect not only the definition of a problem but also the policy analysis about how to resolve it.

To avoid any confusion within the context of this study, it is important to clarify the government refers to a body of public institutions that makes and applies all enforceable decisions for a society. Government functions are typically divided into horizontal categories. In this regard, Johnson (1991: 396) states that the term government conventionally refers to the formal institutional structure and location of authoritative decision-making in the modern state. These include legislative, executive and judicial authorities. The vertical categories of government are usually divided into national, provincial and local spheres of government. There are a variety of relationships between such spheres of government. Together they aim at promoting the general welfare of the public at large (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2002: 68). The national level of government makes decisions and has legislative power concerning matters of national interest. These include aspects such as foreign affairs, education and defence. The provincial level of government makes decisions and has legislative power on matters that are dealt with in a provincial context. Examples of functions performed at the provincial sphere include nature conservation, roads and provincial health issues. The local sphere of government makes decisions and has legislative powers over those issues that are dealt with by local governments, also referred to as municipalities. The various spheres of government

need to co-operate with each other to maximise output and prevent duplication in an attempt to co-ordinate the activities that need to be rendered to the communities. The nature of a governmental system is characterized by the way in which governmental authority is spread. It can be argued that a government is only able to function effectively if it has the adequate authority, public support and stability to maintain law and order.

Government can be thus referred to as a structure, consisting of public institutions in which people work, with the aim of providing certain services and products to a society. In essence, a government, is firstly, responsible for making laws, secondly, for ensuring that there are public institutions to implement its laws, and thirdly, for providing goods and services which these laws prescribe (Ranney, 1971: 26). According to Kaela (1998: 134), it is this implementation of laws and the actual provision of goods and services that constitutes governance. Government, on the other hand, refers to a body of persons and institutions that make and apply all enforceable decisions for society. Governance is, however, possible only as long as governments manage to implement policy.

The definitions provided above clarify the meaning of terms and concepts that are important in understanding the purpose and function of government. Government, within the context of this study, therefore, implies the establishment of government structures within the context of a state, to ensure that services are rendered to communities that promote their general welfare and quality of life.

Governance, on the other hand, is a term, which, from about 1990, has progressed from obscurity to widespread usage (Draper, 2000: 4). There are different views as to what governance actually means. The range of issues that fall under the umbrella of governance is extremely broad (Draper, 2000: 4). Draper (2000: 4) claims that governance refers to policy implementation, institutionalised rules and norms, and structures. Kaela (1998: 134) more specifically indicates that governance within government encompasses the institutions, structures and activities of the legislature, executive and the judiciary at the central, regional and local spheres of government.

Plumptre and Graham (1999: 1) argue that governance is the result of the interaction of a multiplicity of influencing actors; namely: businesses, communities and individuals.

Nyambi (1998: 96) also points out that it is important to bear in mind that interest in public issues such as service delivery, is not confined to government. The list of actors includes civil society, which encompasses voluntary agencies, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and community-based organisations (CBOs), as well as including the media, the military, religious organisations, business institutions, communities and individuals, all of whom share an interest and play a role in addressing public issues, such as service provision (Plumptre and Graham, 1999: 5).

Doh (1998: 160) indicates that these institutions, communities and individuals actively participate in and influence public policy that affects people's lives. The term governance thus characterizes various interactions between diverse stakeholders. It refers to both formal and informal norms and conventions (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 240). According to Schacter (2000: 3), the concept may usefully be applied in different contexts, namely to global, regional, national and local, as well as societal and institutional arrangements. The concept of governance may therefore be applied to diverse forms of collective action.

In view of the proliferation of definitions of Vil Nkomo (1998: 137), suggests that the concept of governance tends to be illusive in many respects. This is particularly the case when societies are undergoing structural changes, such as is happening in South Africa. Vil Nkomo (1998: 137) in his paper on Governance for Sustainable Human Development argues that for clarification, it would be important to consider the definition of governance that is espoused by the United Nations Development Programme (1998: 137). It defines governance as "... the exercise of political, economic and administrative authority in the management of a country's affairs at all levels. Governance comprises the complex mechanisms, processes and institutions, through which citizens and groups articulate their interests, mediate their differences and exercise their legal rights and obligations."

According to Mohiddin (2002: 1), traditional African governance is the art and skill of collective management in the administration of public affairs. In this regard, it is the product of knowledge, information, culture, experience, motivations, competence and commitment to goals. The key element is the utilization of collective management by those placed in leadership positions in pursuit of common objectives or goals.

Collective management in a traditional community involves shared management and leadership, for example in the sharing of responsibilities for a particular outcome. Traditional African governance entails co-leadership, co-responsibility and co-accountability (Mohiddin 2002: 1). In the South African context, the ideas and practices of traditional African governance can be particularly useful in improving service delivery.

According to Kotze (1998: 15), leadership effectiveness in conjunction with the participation of various stakeholders in public service delivery will constitute effective governance. Governance refers to practices that enable governmental activity, where such activity is broadly defined as the production and delivery of publicly supported goods and services. It is apparent that this definition focuses on the implementation of public policies. Heinrich and Lynn (2000: 1), argue that governance is important for achieving policy or institutional objectives. In sum, governance generally refers to the means of directing, controlling, implementing and coordinating of public policy, by individuals or institutions, to achieve a common goal. Adopting an effective governance framework in the public service is thus an important precursor to improve service delivery.

Governance is about how governments and other social institutions interact, how they relate to citizens, and how decisions are reached in an increasingly complex world (Plumptre and Graham, 1999: 1). Governance occurs through interactions among structures, processes and traditions that together determine how power is exercised and how citizens or other stakeholders have their say (Rigumamu, 1998: 251). Governance is about relationships and accountability for results. In short, governance entails who has influence, who makes the decision, and how decision makers are held accountable.

Nyambi (1998: 9) states that the outputs of governance are not different from those of government. Rather it is a matter of a difference in processes. Governance goes beyond government to include the role of actors outside of government, for example, civil society and the private sector. Government, by comparison is, viewed less as a process and more as a public entity. Governance is concerned with public issues, but interest in such issues is not confined to the domain of government. Examples of this are public private partnerships (PPPs) or community participation in public service delivery.

Governance is about both direction and roles of different role-players implementing public policy, whereas government is a mechanism used to make new decisions and to solve collective problems. Government functions to serve the needs of the community. Governance is, thus not only about where to go, but also about how to get there, who should be involved, and in what capacity.

Coston (1998: 481) states that governance represents how things get done, in other words: “the way in which any social unit from an entire society to the smallest community organizes itself to make collective decisions, to promote shared interests, or to solve common problems.” Effective governance should, then, relate to effective problem solving and decision-making and to the efficient allocation and management of public resources. It can be argued that for governance to be effective in the South African public service, the state’s role ought to be matched to its current capability, which can then be enhanced by a reinvigorating leadership. The sustainability of the South African public service can be gauged by its ability to meet society’s demands, such as in the provision of particular goods and services to all communities.

Ayee (1998: 103) states that effective governance can be understood in terms of three major components. The first is the form of political leadership that exists in a country (parliamentarian or presidential, civilian or military and autocratic or democratic). The second is the means through which leadership is exercised in the management of economic and social resources. The third is the ability of governments to discharge their functions effectively, efficiently and equitably through the design, formulation and implementation of sound policies. In this study, the researcher will focus on all components of governance, although the emphasis would be on the implementation of public policy.

Van Wyk, *et al.* (2002: 94) focuses on outputs, because determining and judging the effects of public policies, resource use and institutional behaviour within the South African public service is crucial. Kuye (2003: Discussion) similarly argues that, “governance is the critical set of arrangements, authorities, expectations and linkages which determine policy and direction for the institutions. The citizens would periodically express their assessment of government performance through rejection or

reselection of their political representatives”. It is therefore imperative for governments to provide services to the citizens of the society who have elected them.

The importance of the relationship between the formulation of public policy and its implementation is re-iterated by Taylor (2000: 110). In an empirical analysis of public policies and their implementation, the term ‘governance’ may be defined as the regimes of law, administrative rules, judicial rulings, and practices that constrain, prescribe and enable government activity, where such activity in turn is broadly defined as the production and effective delivery of publicly supported goods and services (Heinrich and Lynn, 2000: 3).

From the above description, it can be deduced that governance implies the actions undertaken to improve the general welfare of a society by means of the services delivered. This further implies that priorities have been determined. For instance, the immediate priority of the South African public service is to improve service delivery imbalances and inequities in South Africa. The different public service departments reflect these priorities; for example, one department is responsible for the provision of housing to the poor, another provides welfare services, and a third department is responsible for the provision of education and training the country’s citizens.

The adjectives ‘good’, ‘sound’ or ‘effective’ governance, which are often appended to the term (Gildenhuis and Knipe, 2000: 91). For the purpose of this study, governance will be understood to be ‘good’, ‘sound’ or ‘effective’, when the South African government attains its ultimate goal of creating conditions for a satisfactory quality of life for each citizen. Within the context of this study, then the ultimate goal in the South African public service is to overcome service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. According to Cloete (2002: 438), an important strand of this is that effective governance is prescriptively conceptualized as the achievement by a democratic government of the most appropriate developmental policy objectives to sustainably develop its society. This is achieved by mobilizing, applying and co-ordinating all available resources in the public, private and voluntary sectors, as well as domestically and internationally, in the most effective, efficient and democratic way.

As we have seen, then, the term governance is multi-dimensional and should be unpacked very carefully within the South African context. From the above definitions, a number of useful focal points emerge. Governance covers the obligation of supervising and monitoring public service delivery performance. It entails ensuring accountability for service delivery to stakeholders and society. This includes promoting effective relationships between the different stakeholders, social stability, meeting the needs of society, fostering democracy and, more importantly, creating an effective leadership that can achieve these objectives.

Governance within the context of this study is not intended to be a comprehensive theory of bureaucracy, government performance, or public management in the South African public service. It ought to be a schematic framework that identifies how the values and interests of citizens, legislative enactments and oversight, executive and institutional structures and roles, and judicial review are linked through a dynamic, interactive and continuous public administration process. This process should induce the performance of public programmes. It ought to mediate the consequences of particular approaches in the implementation of policy through various arrangements by the public service.

Governance within the South African context should moreover be viewed as the connections and interactions between national, provincial and municipal spheres of government and the public they serve. The regular connections and interactions between authorities on all levels of government and the public are examples of governance. It also refers to various arrangements by the public service with actors outside the public service to improve and promote service delivery, especially in previously disadvantaged communities. These arrangements should promote responsiveness and encourage responsibility. These are indicative of proactive decisions and actions that should be taken by the public service. It can therefore be argued that governance within the context of this study relates to both formal and informal arrangements by the South African public service, with the ultimate aim of improving service delivery.

For the purpose of this study, governance can be defined as the responsibility and accountability of leadership in the South African public service for the achievement of service delivery objectives. Effective governance in the South African public service

should be a shared process of, on the one hand, political and bureaucratic leadership, and on the other hand stakeholders (the business sector, civic organisations, communities or individuals) in both policy making and policy implementation. Effective governance should ensure the successful implementation of public policy through various partnerships both within and outside the South Africa public service. The end goal ought to be the improvement of service delivery by the South African public service.

Transformational African leadership and governance framework

In this study, a pragmatic and transformational African model is tentatively referred to as a hybrid leadership and governance framework. Pragmatic refers to a practical leadership and governance framework that would be adaptable to different contexts in the South African scenario. Transformational African model refers to the unique circumstances faced by the post-apartheid public service, which require a conception of public service leadership and governance that draws on relevant approaches, in other words it is a hybrid model. In this study, a hybrid leadership and governance framework is defined as a framework that is multifaceted and multidimensional with its own unique characteristics, diverse perspectives, approaches and strategies. The framework caters for sensitivities of culture, gender, religion, ethnic origin and socio-economic and political differences. These divergent perspectives, approaches and sensitivities are incorporated and developed in such a way that the full potential of public servants and public service institutions may be realised optimally. A combination of leadership and governance approaches are essential, in order to improve service delivery. This model thus incorporates traditional African values, transformational leadership and team leadership. It also refers to effective governance approaches towards public service delivery, such as civic governance. For example, it refers to the active involvement of communities in service delivery. It also refers governance principles such as accountability, transparency, responsiveness, equality and public participation.

It is proposed that a uniquely South African leadership and governance framework will shape public administration positively within the context of the public service. The leadership and governance framework developed in this study is flexible, so that it can be applied to diverse settings and circumstances in the country. This study serves as a

vehicle to advance a pragmatic transformational African model for the improvement of service delivery in South Africa. The aim, therefore, is to utilise the divergent perspectives within the South African public service and to reach a synthesis in order to reach the highest possible levels of performance.

MOTIVATION FOR RESEARCH

The provision of services (i.e. houses, roads, water and electricity) to society, especially among previously disadvantaged communities is not being addressed at the pace that is required in South Africa. Although the public service has committed itself to addressing the disparities of service provision, many provinces and municipalities are confronted with extensive service backlogs. The Ministry for the Public Service and Administration (MPSA) and, in particular the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) expressed their concern about the issue of service delivery. There is no issue more important in South Africa at the moment than addressing imbalances and inequities in service delivery.

It has become increasingly apparent to both policy-makers and policy implementers that a significant expansion in the scope and quality of service provision by the South African public service is vital. In fact, there is a growing need for a hybrid leadership and governance framework. More specifically, a need is expressed for unique South African leadership and governance model with a view to improving the current framework, or exploring new alternatives to promote a sustainable public service for a renewed focus on the issue of service delivery. A distinctively South African leadership and governance framework, with its own unique characteristics and incorporating diversities perspectives, strategies and socio-economic and political differences is required, to be an effective instrument in improving service delivery in South Africa

PROBLEM STATEMENT

The South African public service is not addressing service delivery imbalances and inequities at the pace that is needed in South Africa. Despite efforts to improve service delivery by the South African public service, huge disparities are still evident, especially in previously disadvantaged communities. There are challenges impacting on

the sustainability of the public service, which impede the ability of the public service to effectively deliver services.

To improve service delivery performance, it is essential that the South African public service adopt an appropriate and effective leadership and governance framework. In this regard, the importance of local culture and narratives ought to be considered for the South African public service. In adopting a leadership and governance framework within the South African public service, it is important to explore the attributes of different approaches. In this study both Western and traditional African leadership and governance approaches are explored. To this end, a research question to address the tenets of this study is proposed. The first priority of this research is to understand to focus on it throughout this thesis.

RESEARCH QUESTION

To what extent can a leadership and governance framework improve service delivery by the South African public service?

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are:

- (i) to provide a broad overview of service delivery in the South African public service, as a context within which to understand issues of leadership and governance between 1994 and 2003;
- (ii) to discuss both Western and traditional African leadership and governance approaches that have been successfully adopted within an institutional or community context both locally and internationally;
- (iii) to critically analyse the current status of service delivery in the South African public service by focusing on the experiences of the national Departments of Health, Housing, Safety and Security, and Justice and Constitutional Development; and
- (iv) to recommend a leadership and governance framework for the South African public service that would improve service delivery in public

service organisations in a more sustainable manner. This leadership and governance framework would have its own unique characteristics and strategies that would accommodate the diverse perspectives and socio-economic and political differences in South Africa.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study

The chapter provides a historical overview of the South African public service in context. A general overview of South Africa's historical evolution is outlined before presenting a broad overview of the South African public service and its service delivery during the apartheid era, prior to 1994. Thereafter the chapter highlights the status of the South African public service from 1994 to 2003. This provides a benchmark against which to measure both its successes and challenges. The definitions and operationalization of key concepts are examined, analyzed and elaborated, and a justification for this study is clearly sketched; it is important to examine whether the South African public service should improve its leadership and governance framework to improve service delivery. The objectives of the study are delineated, and the research problem is succinctly outlined. Finally, the chapter concludes with a breakdown of each chapter.

Chapter 2: Research methodology

Chapter Two looks at the research methodology of the study. It elaborates on the reasons for conducting qualitative research, the research design and its phases. Against this background, it is explained why the case study method is used in this study. The target population or the sample for the study is indicated. In this respect, the selected public service departments that have been chosen for this study are also indicated. The data collection techniques used for this study are outlined in detail; the study specifically uses a host of both primary and secondary data. The data analysis, validation and reporting of the study are discussed. The scope and limitations of study and significance of study are also sketched.

Chapter 3: Conceptual framework of the study

Chapter Three considers both the past and current trends in public administration. The relationships between public administration, new public management (NPM), leadership and governance and service delivery are explored. Within the context of this study, it is evident that there is a relationship between these processes and service delivery. The most pertinent mechanisms to promote a sustainable public service in South Africa are discussed in detail. In this respect, the study discusses the Constitution of South Africa (1996), the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the White Paper on Transforming Public Service (WPTPS) (1995) and the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (Batho Pele) (1996). A model is developed by the researcher to illustrate the relationship between public administration, new public management (NPM), leadership, governance and service delivery in the South African public service. The basic conceptual model of public administration is redesigned and adapted for the purpose of this study.

Chapter 4: Literature review: An overview of leadership and governance approaches

Chapter Four provides an in-depth theoretical framework to the study. Leadership and governance approaches are extensively discussed. Both Eurocentric and Afrocentric approaches are examined. By focusing on the theoretical framework, the connection on the debate between a need for effective approaches for a sustainable public service and service delivery could be made in Chapter Five.

Chapter 5: Analysis and findings of selected case studies in the South African public service

Chapter Five investigates actual service delivery in selected South African public service departments. An overview is given of service delivery in the Departments of Health, Housing, Safety and Security, and Justice and Constitutional Development. The chapter conceptualizes the successes achieved thus far. It analyses the factors that are impacting on service delivery performance. The scope and quality of the services is analysed against the backdrop of the leadership and governance framework adopted by

the South African public service to determine its effectiveness in improving service delivery especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. Throughout the discussion, conclusions and recommendations are made. The findings of the study are succinctly summarised in this chapter.

Chapter 6: Summary, Recommendations and Conclusions

Chapter Six concentrates on addressing the factors impacting on the sustainability of the South African public service that slows service delivery. The adoption of an effective leadership and governance framework is considered particularly important for adoption by the South African public service, as this is a necessary pre-condition for improving service delivery, especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the research design and methodology for the study. The purpose of this study is to provide qualitative information on the level of the standard of service delivery by selected South African public service departments. The departments selected are the Departments of Health, Housing, Justice and Constitutional Development and Safety and Security. Against this background, a qualitative case study approach is used. This has the potential of supplementing and re-orienting our current understanding of service delivery by the South African public service.

The results of the case study are incorporated into the thesis. This chapter describes the research method used, the selection of the sample, data collection and data analysis, validation and reporting methods, ethical considerations for this study, and the scope, limitations and significance of the study. The qualitative case study approach requires the researcher to conduct an in-depth analysis of information obtained from different authors and different sources of data, using a method known triangulation. Four South African public service departments were selected for the study, namely: The Departments of Health, Housing, Justice and Constitutional Development and Safety and Security. These public service departments were selected to facilitate discussion that, were important for the study. The sources used to compare, contrast and crosscheck information were documents, audio-visuals and discussions. The audio-visuals were obtained from libraries. Such triangulation increased the scope, depth and consistency in the methodological proceedings of this study. Data analysis was conducted concurrently with data collection from various sources mentioned above. To ascertain the relationships between the different variables, matrices were used. The final conclusions to the study emerged when all the data had been collected.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The researcher has selected the qualitative research approach to conduct this study. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 2), the qualitative approach is multifaceted method involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. In other words, qualitative researchers study phenomena in their natural settings by attempting to make sense of, or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings that participants give them.

Further Creswell (1998: 15) indicates that qualitative research is a process of understanding that is based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting. This involves going out to the setting of study, gaining access, and gathering material. This takes the reader into the multiple dimensions of a problem or issue and displays it in all its complexity. These distinct methodological traditions of inquiry are the historian's biography, the psychologist's phenomenology, the sociologist's grounded theory, the anthropologist's ethnography, and the social, urban studies, and political scientist's case study.

According to Stake (2000: 5), qualitative research is a form of systematic empirical inquiry into meaning. Empirical inquiry is any form of inquiry that depends on the world of experience in some fundamental way. Qualitative research involves the collection of a variety of empirical materials; namely: case study, personal experience, introspective, life story, interview, observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts, that describe routine and problematic moments and meaning in individuals' lives. Qualitative research is not haphazard, nor idiosyncratic, nor even subjective. It is planned, ordered, and public (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 2). The researcher spends many hours in the field, collects extensive data, and labours over field issues of trying to gain access, rapport, and an insider perspective.

Cadwick, *et al.* (1984: 206) indicates that qualitative research involves several different methods of data collection, including triangulation and in-depth interviews. There are substantial differences among these research strategies, but they all emphasize the idea

of getting close to the data and are based on the concept that experience is the best way to understand social behaviour.

Qualitative research takes the reader into the multiple dimensions of specific problems or issues and displays them in all their complexity. Authors often define qualitative inquiry in comparison to quantitative inquiry. In general terms, quantitative researchers work with a few variables and in many cases, whereas qualitative researchers rely on a few cases and many variables (Creswell, 1998: 15). Creswell (1998: 17) reiterates that qualitative research can be defined in terms of its relation to quantitative research. Quantitative research measures and answers questions such as: ‘how many, how often, what proportion or what size.’ Qualitative research in contrast, leads to understanding and often answers questions like, “why”, “how”, “in what way”, “will” and “to what extent.”

There are three reasons why a qualitative approach as opposed to another approach was chosen. Firstly, the research question starts with “to what extent”, i.e. to what extent can a leadership and governance framework improve service delivery by the South African public service? The study examines service delivery performance by the South African public service. It looks at whether services are in fact being improved by the South African public service. It thus examines whether there are positive and negative factors impacting on service delivery outcomes. It analyses the role of the leadership and governance framework adopted by the South African public service. Secondly, a qualitative study was chosen because the topic needs to be explored. By this, it is implied that there are no theories available to explain service delivery performance in South Africa and the need for an effective framework to promote service delivery outcomes. Thirdly, a qualitative study was used because of the need to present a detailed view of the topic. The wide-angle lens or distant panoramic shot would not have sufficed to present answers to the problem investigated in this study.

An important aspect of this research was to decide how the data should be collected. According to Dooley (1999: 44), a research design is a detailed plan or method for obtaining data scientifically and it provides the necessary structure. Mouton (2001: 4), in this regard states that “a research design is a plan or blueprint of how you intend conducting the research.” The research design thus focuses on the end product of the

study, for example, what kind of study is being planned and what kind of result is expected.

Puth (1996: 87) is of the opinion that “selecting an appropriate research design is often complicated by the availability of a large variety of methods, techniques, procedures and ever-more-sophisticated computer programming and technology.” Smith (1998: 29), similarly, emphasizes the reality that the design of the research study is one of the most challenging steps in the research process. Smith (1998: 29) explains, “decisions have to be made about what degree of precision is needed and how much depth of understanding is required. This trade-off also needs to be balanced against the time and budget available.” The researcher herein thus took into account the practicality of different approaches whilst ensuring that the study is ethical and complies with the codes of conduct in the research industry.

Dooley (1990: 47) states that the components of a research design involve the maximum control over factors that could interfere with the validity of the findings. In this respect, a research design guides in planning and implementing a study. It focuses on the overall strategy and rationale for the study. It also focuses on the specific setting, the sample and the phenomenon to be studied. However, this must be linked to the other steps of the research process. Research design also focuses on the logic of the research study, by asking for example, what kind of evidence is required to address the research question adequately. As indicated, the current study explores the issue of service delivery performance by the South African public service. Consequently, the relationships with other constructs related to service delivery by the South African public service are also investigated, such as the factors that affect the sustainability of the public service in ensuring effective service delivery, for example, the leadership and governance framework adopted. The format for the design of this study follows the traditional research approach of presenting a problem, asking a question, collecting data to answer the question, analysing the data, and answering the question.

There are several examples of qualitative research, such as action research, biography, phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, and case study (Ely, *et al.* 1991: 4). The focus of a biography, for example, is on the life of an individual, while that of phenomenology is on understanding a concept or phenomenon. In grounded theory,

based on one develops a theory, whereas in ethnography a portrait is drawn of a cultural group or people. Lastly, in a case study, a specific case or a number of cases are examined.

As indicated previously, a case study approach is used herein, using Neuman's (1997: 11) case study structure as a model. In this regard, the study will be structured as follows:

- (i) The problem is identified, viz. slow service delivery, especially to previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.
- (ii) The context is discussed, viz. the South African public service in the post-apartheid era.
- (iii) The issues are highlighted, viz. there are factors impeding service delivery outcomes.
- (iv) The lessons learnt are investigated, viz. the need to promote a sustainable South African public service
- (v) Finally, specific solutions are proposed, viz. the importance of improving and strengthening, or even redesigning the existing leadership and governance frameworks.

It will be shown that there is a need for an effective leadership and governance framework to improve and redress service delivery imbalances and inequities, especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. Consequently, this study has used case studies of four departments in the South African public service. These are the Departments of Health, Housing, Justice and Constitutional Development and Safety and Security. A number of studies have already been undertaken both by the South African public service itself and by academics, which have provided valuable lessons for the study. The use of collective case studies is adding to the existing knowledge of experiences in the South African public service and is contributing to our understanding of service delivery.

Case study approach

Zucker (2001: 1) proposes that the case study method is a valuable tool in expanding knowledge. Within the context of this study, the case study approach thus uses in-depth information obtained from multiple sources and provides a unique and valuable method of eliciting phenomena of interest to the particular topic. According to Creswell (1998: 39), four steps define any particular case:

- (i) the case is identified;
- (ii) the case is bounded by time or place;
- (iii) the data comes from multiple sources; and
- (iv) the report includes a detailed description of the content and setting.

Orum (1991: 20) suggests that the scope of a case study can be defined as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. A case study is an intensive study of a specific individual or specific context. Specifically, what differentiates the case study from the other qualitative methods is the focus of the study. A case has clear boundaries and includes context that is vital to constructing a picture of the incident. Creswell (1998: 39) calls the case study an “exploration of a bounded system or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context.” The context of these cases includes understanding both the physical setting and the social and historical setting. Information can be obtained mainly from four basic sources (Zucker 2001: 4), i.e. interviews, observations, documents and audio-visual materials. The backbone of qualitative research is therefore extensive collection of data, typically from multiple sources of information. Each set of data or strategy, on its own, might not be strong enough to support the finding, but when different strands are taken together, there is stronger evidence for the finding.

According to Creswell (1998: 39), qualitative case studies focus on a particular situation, programme or phenomenon. The case itself is important for what it reveals about the phenomenon and for what it will represent. This specificity of focus makes it an especially good design for practical problems, for questions, situations, or puzzling

occurrences arising from everyday practice. The end product of a case study is a rich, ‘thick’ description of the phenomenon under study, which moreover illuminates the reader’s understanding. It can thus bring about the discovery of new meaning, extend the reader’s experience, or confirm what he or she already knows.

Yin (1994: 11) describes three types of case studies: (a) exploratory, (b) explanatory and (c) descriptive. Exploratory (exploring what is happening) and explanatory (explaining what is happening) case studies are used to discover causal relationships, whereas descriptive (describing what is happening) case studies provide complete descriptions of phenomena within their contexts. If little were known about the research topic, one would use exploratory research. Exploratory research can increase the researcher’s familiarity with the phenomenon in question, and it can help to clarify concepts. It can also be used to establish priorities for future research, identify new problems and gather information with practical applications.

According to Neuman (1997: 19), exploratory researchers are “creative, open minded, and flexible; adopt an investigative stance; and explore all sources of information. Researchers ask creative questions and take advantage of serendipity, those unexpected or chance factors that have large implications.” Both Powell (1997: 58) and Neuman (1997: 19) remark that exploratory researchers frequently conduct qualitative research. Powell (1997: 59) further emphasizes that, “it is important to remember that exploratory studies merely suggest insight or hypotheses; they cannot test them.” Smith (1998: 38), similarly, remarks that a typical outcome from exploratory research would be to generate of a number of hypotheses that could be taken forward for quantitative testing at a later stage of the project.

Descriptive research “presents a picture of the specific details of a situation, social setting or relationship” (Neuman, 1997: 20). Neuman (1997: 20) is of the opinion that descriptive and exploratory research is similar in some respects. Neuman (1997: 20) reiterates that descriptive and exploratory research “blur together in practice” and explains, “in descriptive research, the researcher begins with a well-defined subject and conducts research to describe it accurately.” Descriptive research focuses on “how”, “who”, “what”, “when”, and “where” questions and provides a solid platform for helping to understand current, and possibly predict future behaviour (Smith, 1998: 38).

When the research question demands that the researcher explain the relationship between variables and demonstrates that change in one variable causes change in another variable, the research is called explanatory research. Neuman (1997: 20) suggests that the desire to know why things are the way they are, i.e. to explain them, is the purpose of explanatory research. Neuman (1997: 21) explains that explanatory research “builds on exploratory and descriptive research and to identify the reason why something occurs. Explanatory research is often not feasible. This is the case when it is not possible to manipulate the suspected independent variable or to assess the time-order of variables.” However, research can never solely be explanatory, exploratory or descriptive (Dooley, 1990: 291). A research project may include elements of two or three of these basic goals.

Stake (2000: 437), defines case studies in terms of the study’s purpose, suggesting that, “different researchers have different purposes for studying cases.” Identifying the three types of case study as intrinsic, instrumental, and collective, the author, however, notes that these seldom fit neatly into such categories. Stake (2000: 437) amplifies the fact that intrinsic case studies serve the purpose of understanding a single case without concern for whether or how it may be representative of other cases, or whether it can be used for theory building, or for understanding constructs or phenomena. Instrumental case studies serve the purpose of clarifying an issue, or theory, with the case being important than it is in an intrinsic case study. In an instrumental study, then, the decision to study a case is made, based on its ability to increase understanding of an issue. Collective case studies use more than one case to understand an issue or phenomenon. The collective case study, Stake (2000: 437) proposes, are used “because it is believed that understanding them will lead to better understanding, perhaps better theorizing, about the problem.”

This present study is descriptive, since no hypotheses or cause and effect relationships were sought, and it used Stake’s (2000: 438) concept of the collective case study with multiple cases to explore an issue of interest, namely service delivery by the South African public service. Stake emphasises on understanding the particular, rather than the general, and the unique and diverse, rather than the general. Neuman (1997: 22) states that “damage occurs when the commitment to generalize, or create theory runs so strong that the researcher’s attention is drawn away from features important for understanding

the case itself.” To counteract this, the cases in this study take centre stage and any generalizing or theorizing that occurs is secondary.

Orum (1991: 8) advocates the use of the case study if analysis of the data may “permit the observer to render social action in a manner that comes closest to the action understood by the actors themselves.” This present study’s use of the case study method allows a deeper investigation into service delivery by the South African public service. Gillham (2000: 102) argues that case study research can lead to social change and that the power of the case study lies in its ability to challenge the existing “order of things.” In this study, the case study challenges the adoption of the existing leadership and governance framework adopted by the South African public service.

Sjoberg (1991: 102) notes that changing approaches, or policies, towards problems can result from “insight into phenomenon”. The current literature on service delivery by the South African public service suggests the need for innovative approaches to improve service delivery. This study thus uses the case study method to gain insight into service delivery by the South African public service, with the objective of improving service delivery, especially in previously disadvantaged communities.

Another perspective that underscores the importance of the case study method for the current study comes from Creswell (1998: 36), who indicates that the case study is more than just a detailed investigation, but also a way to represent, even exaggerate, theories about experiences in the wider society. Yin (1994: 11) considers context essential in gaining a deeper understanding of concepts. By exploring the experiences of South African public service departments with respect to service delivery, information is obtained to add to the literature, particularly with respect to the impact of certain factors on service delivery performance.

Stake (2000: 435) further describes the case study as being typically qualitative. There are many methods, according to Stake (2000: 435), available for studying a case, including repetition studies, hermeneutics, or cultural and social perspectives. However, the factor that unifies a case study is the focus on the case, rather than the methods used. The qualitative element of the case study lies in its subjective focus, that is, on learning how people or institutions “make sense of” or understand their experiences within a

particular setting. The researcher is a participant who acknowledges and looks for the roles of participants in what participants discover.

The evidence from case studies illuminates issues and turns up possible explanations. It is essentially a search for meaning. Sjoberg (1991: 2) describes the case study method as possibly including both qualitative and quantitative methods, but with neither being predominant. The definition states that a case study is “an in-depth, multifaceted investigation, using qualitative research methods of a single social phenomenon. Using holistic qualitative approach, the case study method can provide a deeper understanding of the experiences of people, phenomena or institutions in their natural settings.”

Yin’s (1994: 11) approach to case studies emphasizes a reliance on rigor and repetition to obtain high quality research. The author states that the appropriateness of the method is based on: (a) defining a topic in a broad, rather than narrow sense; (b) including context, rather than just the phenomenon; and (c) relying on more than one data source. The triangulation method can be used with different methods, different researchers, different sources of data, and even different theories (Stake, 2000: 135). It increases the scope, depth and consistency in the methodological proceedings of the present study, being used to verify our understanding of the situation (Flick 1998:230). The search for the convergence of information relates directly to situations in developing a case study. This method also reduces the risk of systematic distortions inherent in the use of only one source of data. The process is used to verify the understanding of the situation. According to Creswell (1998: 213), the searching for the convergence of information relates directly to developing a case study.

According to Flick (1998: 230) for incontestable description, the researcher is required to expend little effort toward triangulation, whereas dubious and contested description requires confirmation through triangulation. When assertions are made and key interpretations are offered, the researcher needs to exert extra effort to confirm their validity. The importance of describing findings in detail further aids understanding and is part of what is called thick description, which is a process that made the researcher pay attention to in-depth information about what is observed and reflected on. This present study accordingly adopted a triangulation approach, whereby documents and audio-visuals were reviewed and discussions were held with academics and public

servants, to search for convergence of information relating to service delivery by the South African public service.

Miles and Huberman (1994: 275) suggest a number of strategies for verification. For instance, the strategy for verification recommends that the researcher should check the meaning of outliers. Outliers are persons, information or phenomena that seem to be acting differently or reflecting something different than the rest of the population. The researcher thus has to ask why they are different, and what does that difference mean. Another strategy was implemented after the researcher had written the first draft of the present study. The advantage of using these methods herein was in the ability to seek convergence, or agreement, between different data sources.

Gillham (2000: 22) describes two shortcomings in case study research, namely, prejudice and preference. To avoid prejudice and preference, the researcher herein was aware of her or his own prejudices and preferences, and continuously checked the conclusions of this study. An awareness of personal bias was essential in monitoring the overall integrity of this study. It was important during data collection to reflect on and record the researcher's thinking, for which purpose the researcher used a data log as suggested by Gillham (2000: 23). For instance, the researcher constantly asked why a particular conclusion had been reached or why the study was written in a particular way. This kind of questioning led to further investigation.

TARGET POPULATION (SAMPLE)/SELECTION OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS

According to Collins (1998: 69), the way to learn about a large group or an entire population is by looking at only a small part of it, i.e. a sample. The 'population' referred to by Collins (1998: 69) is not necessarily the total population of a country or area, but the totality of the target group from which the sample needs to be drawn. As a first step in the sampling process, the target population in this study had to be identified. Thereafter, the researcher determined the sample characteristics and the sample size.

A case study relies on a system of sampling that is bounded in time and place (Creswell, 1998: 120). The boundaries of this study include the geographical location of South Africa and the time from 1994 to 2003. The particular setting of this study is South

African public service departments. Creswell (1998: 120) suggests that case studies should “represent diverse cases to fully display multiple perspectives about the cases and to show different perspectives on the problem, process, or event.”

The particular parameter of the sample in this study evolved once the fieldwork began; the sample was not prespecified from the outset. Originally, then the South African public service was examined from a broader perspective, and only gradually did the researcher work into the core of the setting. From there the focus tightened: Specific public service departments with specific characteristics and experiences were purposefully selected. The sample thus comprised four departments from the South African public service to avoid too much superfluous information and to enhance our understanding of the topic.

DATA AND INFORMATION COLLECTION

According to Bulmer (2000: 205), “the most critical phase in social research is that during which data are actually collected.” Puth (1996: 86) argues that, as every research project is a search for information on some topic, researchers can be more confident of the quality and the appropriateness of their information if they tap all the relevant resources: “Often there is a wealth of information and data on the research problem already collected by others, in which case it may not be cost-effective or necessary to conduct a whole new research project in order to answer the research question. In many cases, existing secondary data may be sufficiently relevant and comprehensive to answer at least a certain part of the overarching research question.” (Puth, 1996: 86).

An exploration of secondary data resources can they begin with a search of published data and the identification of unpublished data that is relevant to the topic or problem area. It is essential to explore all the possibilities of secondary data sources before proceeding with the remaining steps of the research process. Miles and Huberman (1994: 40) remark that some inexperienced researchers believe they can ignore past work and use entirely new ideas and methods. They refer to the misguided approach, Einstein syndrome, since researchers who suffer from it fail to connect their ideas with lessons from others. By discarding previous lessons as irrelevant, they fail to learn from the studies from others (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 40).

Creswell (1998: 130) suggests that multiple sources of information be used in case studies to provide a detailed picture for holistic analysis. For the purpose of this study, data were obtained from documents, audio-visuals and discussions about the South African public service. These were triangulated to ensure the validity of the information. Data for the document, audio-visual and record review were obtained from books, journals, newspapers, official government documents, papers, public service departments, CD Roms, and the worldwide web. An advantage of this method lies in the possibility of enhancing the reliability and validity of data as well as in crosschecking the data obtained (Mouton, 2001: 197).

Information obtained from the sources mentioned above was collected and integrated, in an attempt to add any other nuances that might reside in these sources. The documentary sources were compared with data already gathered from the discussions, and then added as new information to the present study. The data from all the available sources that were utilized during the research process were thus collated and integrated, to conclude the data collection stage (Mouton, 2001: 197). Documents and audio-visuals from different South African public service departments were copied, with permission, and other documents were downloaded from the departmental websites and analysed. This process was intended to keep the data available for further verification as needed.

Creswell (1998: 85) points out that case study research require a balance between subjectivity and objectivity. Objectivity assists in avoiding biases and expectations that could compromise the integrity of the data. Ely, *et al.* (1991: 16) also cautions against entering a field that is too familiar because the researcher may think that he or she already knows the answers. A balance between empathy and a distanced, non-judgmental position is advisable (Ely, *et al.* 1991: 113). Ely, *et al.* (1991: 127) further states that making the unfamiliar familiar “includes the ability to recognize stereotypes because even when entering an unfamiliar situation we are not devoid of myriad of images, expectations, and beliefs.” As an outsider, the researcher had the advantage of observing norms and values of which an insider may not be aware. The researcher was an outsider in the sense that she was not a public servant in the South African public service.

Completing the data collection process is described by Ely, *et al.* (1991: 91), as “knowing when to leave the field”: this is a “judgment based on the researcher’s sense that substantial amounts of data have been gathered on the initial questions that have emerged during the study”. Ely, *et al.* (1991: 92) indicates that there are certain criteria to guide the decision to end data collection or to leave the field:

- (i) when a feeling of immersion is reached;
- (ii) when few unanswered questions remain;
- (iii) when the most important questions are answered;
- (iv) when staying in the field is only for the sake of fun, or feeling needed; and
- (v) when a sense of redundancy and feeling completed is reached, not when a great deal of time is spent, or a large amount of data is collected.

DATA ANALYSIS, VALIDATION AND REPORTING

The following section will describe the methods used in this study for analyzing the data, checking the validity of the data and the analysis, and writing the report. The report is an important part of this study, as it integrates the context, the literature review, and interpretation of the data sources and the description of the study’s findings.

The term analysis comes from the Greek verb *analysein*, which means “to break apart or to resolve into its elements.” (Miles and Huberman, 1991: 50). Data analysis in this study involves reducing the accumulated data to a manageable size to allow summarizing, comparing and synthesizing in order to interpret the results in relation to the research problem.

The analysis of a large amount of qualitative material for this study was a daunting task, since the data were largely unstructured. The data were analyzed using the combined approaches of Rubin and Rubin (1995: 226) and Stake (2000: 71). According to Stake (2000: 71), data analyses may occur simultaneously with data collection, or begin at anytime. Analysis is a matter of giving meaning to first impressions as well as to final compilations (Stake, 2000: 77). Stake (1995: 77) suggests two strategies, both of which were utilized by this study to find meaning in the data: (a) direct interpretation of a single illustration or instance, and (b) aggregation of instances for the purpose of

drawing conclusions from them as a class. Mouton (2001: 109) explains that interpretation involves the synthesis of data into larger coherent wholes. Interpretation means relating one's results and findings to existing theoretical frameworks or models, and showing whether these are supported or falsified by the new interpretation. Interpretation also means taking into account rival explanations or interpretations of one's data and showing what levels of support the data provide for the preferred interpretation.

In attempting to understand phenomena and relationships, the use of so-called "categorical data" is more important than direct interpretation (Stake, 2000: 71). Here researchers describe in detail, develop themes through some classification system, and provide an interpretation in light of their own views or views of perspectives in the literature. Although Stake (2000: 71) advocates two strategies for data analysis, the author also states that case study, unlike other qualitative methods, requires unique adaptations by each researcher, which means that his or her experiences and reflections are used to guide data analysis.

Categorisation of data is used to aid understanding and to find meaning by identifying and comparing consistent patterns. Categories were formed immediately on reviewing the data, by coding and aggregating of data into patterns (Stake, 2000: 78). Coding involves breaking down data into its relevant parts or elements. The researcher followed the advice of Ely, *et al.* (1991: 87), who suggests that while categories are being formed, the researcher should continue to "keep hold of the large picture" to make sure that the categories fit within it. Some patterns were drawn from the research problem, while others were linked to the available data, its meanings, ideas or explanations.

Stake (2000: 82) suggests "going through documentation to search for primary issues and to develop a table representing the repetition of categorical data." Stake (2000: 84) emphasizes the importance of identifying data that is, "...the best and to set the rest aside, noting that, "equal attention to all data is not a civil right." To identify the best data, as Stake (1991: 84), suggests, the aim of this study was continuously referred to throughout data collection and analysis.

Correspondence between issues is reviewed in matrices to show the relationships that exist between categories (Creswell, 1998: 154). Patton (2002: 471) has provided a rich source of ideas and illustrations of how to use matrices in qualitative analysis. Patton (2002: 470), for instance, uses matrices to draw important distinctions among the kinds of evaluations used by asking if, "...techniques of effective evaluation utilization differ with regard to the entity studied." Patton's matrices, identifies a programme's or policy's dimension (what can be studied?) with a programme manager's or policymaker's distinction (who is to be aided?) to show different kinds of utilization in each case. The linkage between a particular approach adopted and outcomes constitutes such a fundamental issue in many programme evaluations, that it provides a particularly good focus for illustrating qualitative matrix analysis.

Consequently, to study service delivery by the South African public service matrices was developed. The impact of different variables on effective service delivery was examined in each case study. The aspects that have an impact on service delivery performance in the selected case studies were included in the table, such as fiscal constraints for instance. Furthermore, major programmes or implementations of policy, in other words, service delivery projects by South African public service departments, were also identified and discussed. The impact of different factors on the sustainability of the public service department impeding service delivery outcomes, are listed as well. The cross-classification of any programme or policy implementation with these factors produces a cell in the matrix. The information that goes in to any cell in the matrix describes linkages, patterns, themes, experiences, content, or actual initiatives that help to understand the relationship between service delivery and selected public service departments in South Africa.

In either case, the matrix became a way of organizing, thinking about, and presenting the qualitative connections between programme or policy implementation dimensions (service delivery) and the factors that impact on service delivery. Once the process/outcome's descriptive analysis of linkages had been completed, the researcher offered appropriate interpretations of service delivery performance. The aspects of the case (the "facts") were thus reviewed, aggregated into categories and collapsed into patterns. Information was contrasted by using literature on the topic. The data analysis began early with the interpretation of first impressions and with an assessment of the

case and setting, as Stake (1995: 71) advises. These first impressions are important in developing a rich description of a case that will include the context. Data analysis began before all the data had been collected and was used to contribute toward the process of finalizing the research question (Gillham, 2000: 17).

The researcher used the types of analysis identified by Stake (2000: 17) and Creswell (1998: 154), which are relevant for case study research, and the qualitative methods described by Miles and Huberman (1994: 11). Categorical interpretation was used to find related meanings from data. For example, the research question of this study was the following: ‘to what extent can a leadership and governance framework improve service delivery by the South African public service?’

Stake (2000: 78) emphasizes the importance of separating the data after an initial interpretation, to find what is worthy. The data was thus coded on initial screening and later reviewed again. Data collected from multiple sources pertaining to a particular influence were compared to data in different categories. As indicated previously, data analysis began while the document, record review, audio-visuals and discussions were still underway. This preliminary analysis informed the researcher’s decisions how to redesign the study to focus on central themes emerging from the documents, audio-visuals and discussions. After the data had been collected and reviewed, the researcher began a more detailed and an in-depth analysis of what had indicated by this review. Much of the analysis was concerned with coding the data into categories. In this way, the researcher discovered additional themes and concepts, noted patterns and built these towards an overall explanation.

To begin the final data analysis, all the material from documents, audio-visuals, record reviews and discussions that related to one theme or concept was put into one category. The material within each category was then compared to identify variations and nuances in meanings (Stake 2000: 78). Comparisons were made across the categories to discover connections between themes. The goal was to integrate the themes and concepts into a systematic explanation that would offer an accurate, detailed, yet subtle interpretation of the research arena. The analysis was complete when the researcher felt confident that the research findings could be shared with others.

In view of the vast amount of data collected, data reduction was used in this study. According to Miles and Huberman (1994: 11), data reduction “sharpens, sorts, focuses, discards, and organizes data in such a way that ‘final’ conclusions can be drawn and verified.” Data displays were done using methods similar to the process of correspondence where matrices are used to view data and draw conclusions. Data display is a method “designed to assemble organized information into an immediately possible accessible, compact form so that the analyst can see what is happening.” Conclusion drawing and verification were approached with caution and a willingness to remain open and sceptical. As Miles and Huberman (1994: 11) note, final conclusions would not emerge until all the data had been collected, even though tentative conclusions could be drawn much sooner. The other side of conclusion drawing, according to Miles and Huberman (1994: 11), is verification. Verification for this study follows the guidelines of Miles and Huberman (1994: 11), Stake (2000: 78) and Creswell (1998: 154), as compared in Table 2/1.

TABLE 2/1

A comparison of data analysis and verification methods

Stake (2000)	Miles and Huberman (1994)
Coding data	Noting patterns, themes
Triangulation	Seeing plausibility
Category aggregation	Clustering
Naturalistic generalizations	Making metaphors
Correspondence	Counting
Correspondence Description (Creswell, 1998)	Making contrasts/comparisons

(Adapted from Miles and Huberman [1994: 11], Stake [2000: 78], and Creswell [1998: 154])

Miles and Huberman (1994: 245) suggest a number of data analysis tactics for finding meaning and for drawing and verifying the quality of conclusions. These tactics are the following:

- (i) Noting patterns and themes. Miles and Huberman (1994: 246) suggest that the human mind is able to find patterns quickly and that no 'how-to advice' is needed. However, the researcher was sceptical in reviewing patterns in order to be open to disconfirming evidence when it appeared and to recognize additional evidence for the same patterns.
- (ii) Seeing plausibility. The idea that certain conclusions are plausible, make good sense (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 246). The researcher remained open to a lack of plausibility, which was a trustworthy tactic for judging conclusions.
- (iii) Clustering. Clustering is the process of grouping similar categories and as with the preceding tactics, Miles and Huberman (1994: 250), suggest being cautious so as to avoid premature closure of categories. Verification of clusters may include questioning where extreme cases belong, and whether data used in a cluster are fully representative of the events, actors or setting being studied. Clusters can overlap and complex data clustering involves a process of moving from the more mundane toward increasingly higher levels of abstractions.
- (iv) Making metaphors. Miles and Huberman (1994: 250) propose that metaphors add richness and complexity to qualitative data analysis in such a way as to clarify and elucidate meanings. The definition of metaphor as data-reducing devices, by taking several particulars and making a single generality of them, is useful in handling the volume of data generated in qualitative research. Metaphors are also pattern-making devices that can centre data within a larger context; this is a potentially useful device in a case study where context is integral to the research.
- (v) Counting. Using numbers in qualitative research should not be ignored according to Miles and Huberman (1994: 253). Numbers were thus used to see what the researcher had, to verify ideas, and to stay honest by avoiding overweighing some items, or ignoring others. In this respect, statistical data

was collected on service delivery by the South African public service, to determine the outcomes.

- (vi) Making contrasts and comparisons. Comparing, according to Miles and Huberman (1994: 254), is “a natural and quick method to evaluate experiences, as well as a time-honoured, classic way to test a conclusion.” Comparing different cases involves asking questions such as “How big must the difference be before it makes a difference?” and “How do I think I know that?” Both questions require assessing practical significance since statistical significance is not relevant.

Stake (2000: 109) emphasizes using high standards in the validation of case study research. Stake proposes that, despite the complexity of the phenomenon of study, the researcher is fully responsible for the consequences of the research and ethically obligated to “minimize misrepresentation and misunderstanding.” Accordingly, this study used triangulation, or searching for the convergence of information, as a primary method of verification, as suggested by Creswell (1998: 213). For descriptions that appeared self-evident, there was less need for triangulation, but when data conflict appeared less than obvious, triangulation, as suggested by Creswell (1998: 213), was indeed used. In this regard, Stake (2000: 109) gives examples of triangulation. One of these is methodological triangulation, which was used for this study. Methodological triangulation occurs when methods such as document review and audio-visuals are compared for confirmation of interpretations. In this way both the reliability and the validity of the research were strengthened. Furthermore, it was necessary to use triangulation to acquire an extended knowledge and understanding of service delivery by the South African public service.

Preparing the research report and communicating the research findings and recommendations to the client are the final steps in the research process. Van Wyk (1996: 398) argues, “The report is the culmination of the whole research project.” Van Wyk (1996: 398) further expresses this sentiment: “regardless of the sophistication displayed in the other portions of the research process, the project is a failure if the research report fails.”

The ultimate objective of the report is “to enable the client to make an informed and scientifically verified decision to solve the original problem that prompted the undertaking of the research in the first place” (Puth, 1996: 90). Various authors emphasize that research reports will be quite different in terms of their style and organization, depending on the aim and objectives of the research project and the target audience for the report.

According to Ely, *et al.* (1999: 168), the writing of a qualitative research report demands the creation of a narrative. Narrative is used to report this study’s findings. According to Orum (1991: 20), narratives are the basis of reporting and communicating the case studies and aid in developing understanding and finding truth. Orum (1991: 21) further suggests that the use of “vivid description” in the narrative may include some “generalizations about many events.” For instance in this study, generalizations were used to illustrate a point more vividly than would have been possible through specific reporting of each event, condition or episode.

Orum (1991: 21) notes that the ability of a case study to understand social action is enhanced by a narrative that grasps the lived experiences of people. The case study should not be overly simplified; rather it should create a realistic and, at times, complex picture of service delivery by South African public service departments. The narrative describes this picture so that the reader can see the South African public service within an institutional context of its leadership and governance framework.

Gillham (2000: 97) proposed several steps to drive the research question; these were used to write this study’s report as a narrative. These steps are:

- (i) Develop a chronology of the data.
- (ii) Develop a logical system to enhance the chronology of the data.
- (iii) Review the aim of the research and check the organization to make certain that the aim is kept in sight.
- (iv) Finalize the research question according to a clearer understanding of the case.
- (v) Explain issues so that a theory emerges that gives meaning to what the case is about.

Stake (2000: 240) calls the narrative a story that the researcher, “even though committed to empathy and multiple realities, must decide how to relate.” The aim is to find a story that best represents the case, and thus subjective choices of how to do so, as well as what to include in the report, and what to exclude must be made by the researcher. To achieve the steps needed to develop the narrative, this study used Gillham’s (2000) and Stake’s (2000: 240) recommendations, as well as a log or diary to organize notes. These were later used as evidence to build the context and the story for the reader. Context, as noted above, is what differentiates case study from other methods of qualitative research, and in this study it provided the background, or foundation, for ultimately understanding the meaning of the data.

The elements included in the report of this study were based on Stake’s (1995: 242) suggestion that validation of the study may be more accurately judged if the following are added:

- (i) information that readers can use to judge the accuracy, completeness, and bias of the report;
- (ii) some raw data so that readers can verify or create new interpretations;
- (iii) a description of the case study method in such a way that the reader can understand triangulation and confirmation;
- (iv) information about the data sources; and
- (v) an emphasis that validity is based on the veracity of the reported findings, not on agreement between observers.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The premise of this study is that the application of values, ethical and socio-political principles and conduct are meant to prevent harm and to promote respect and fairness towards the participants in this study. This research makes every attempt to be sensitive, keeping the interests of the South African public service in mind.

Given the constraints of time, money and infrastructure, the researcher was not able to cover the topic in a very comprehensive fashion. The author has therefore delimited the time frame of the study and the sample of the study. The researcher has also confined

the study to selected South African public service departments. The decision was arrived at in the interests of sustaining the manageability and quality of the research.

Furthermore, there came a point where unstructured information, beyond which further documents, audio visuals and discussions added very little in the way of insight or understanding, and the researcher, thus took a broad-based approach to the design of the project to avoid the danger of being swamped by too much data that could not be synthesized.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are:

- (i) to provide a broad overview of service delivery during the apartheid era as a context within which to understand issues of leadership and governance between 1994 and 2003;
- (ii) to discuss both Western and traditional African leadership and governance approaches that have been successfully adopted within an institutional or community context both locally and internationally;
- (iii) to critically analyse the current status of service delivery in the South African public service by focusing on the experiences of the national Departments of Health, Housing, Safety and Security, and Justice and Constitutional Development; and
- (iv) to recommend a leadership and governance framework for the South African public service that would improve service delivery in public service organisations in a more sustainable manner. This leadership and governance framework would have its own unique characteristics and strategies that would accommodate the diverse perspectives and socio-economic and political differences in South Africa.

The South African public service may favour a leadership and governance framework, such as the one designed by this study, as a mechanism to improve service delivery performance and current imbalances and inequities. The research should undoubtedly have far-reaching implications on the South African public service, and it was thus

important to undertake such a study. Moreover, the recommendations for an improved leadership and governance framework, tailored for the South African public service, will hopefully contribute to an improvement of service delivery outcomes. By improving and/or redesigning the current South African leadership and governance approach and/or framework, it is expected that the South African government will improve service delivery to society.

SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined a variety of issues within the framework of qualitative research as it pertains to the present study, namely the research methodology, the research design, the conceptualization of data collection, the use of coding, and the reporting. The conceptual framework and research question have led to the formulation of plans for sampling and for instrumentation. The unit of analysis selected comprised South African public service departments. Once the sampling plan had been clarified, access to cases was obtained and data collection began. The data sources that were used were documentary sources, audio-visual materials and discussions with academics and public servants, making use of triangulation to crosscheck and verify the data. The study focused on the different methods that were used herein to investigate service delivery by the South African public service. Case studies were identified as being the most appropriate for the purposes of this study.

Before proceeding with the literature review on leadership and governance approaches, it is imperative to discuss the trends in public administration and relationship between various important concepts in this study, namely, public administration, new public management (NPM), leadership, governance and service delivery. This is the content of Chapter Three.

CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY: RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, LEADERSHIP, GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY

INTRODUCTION

The term public administration has always meant the study of the public service (Dye, 1987: 324). The purpose of the public service is to provide services to society. However, before any services are provided, certain functions should be undertaken within the public service. The public service is required to execute the policies of the government. In this system, public administration enables and supports the activity of public management. The public management function is related to public administration and gives direction to the administrative conduct of public servants, to ensure the effective execution of policies by the public service.

Since the 1980s, a new direction emerged in public administration, in response to the political changes, and increasing needs and demands from society. In this regard, Nicholas Henry in Thornhill (2003: 297) brought it to the attention of scholars of public administration that the discipline is not static, but dynamic. A more efficient and effective approach to public administration was clearly necessary to meet the increasing needs and demands of society. This further necessitated some sort of market-based mechanism to replace the classical public administration model. In a search for excellence, the importance of the new public management (NPM) paradigm became evident for effective service delivery. The NPM paradigm is manifested through the adoption of different approaches. Within the NPM paradigm, leadership and governance are viewed as tools or mechanisms that will ensure the effective execution of public administration. This shift embodied a sense that public servants within the public service should lead rather than manage processes, for transforming the public service to better serve the policy direction provided by the political leaders. Governance is essential, through the engagement of different role-players in public service delivery. These role-players should include; namely: individuals, communities and businesses.

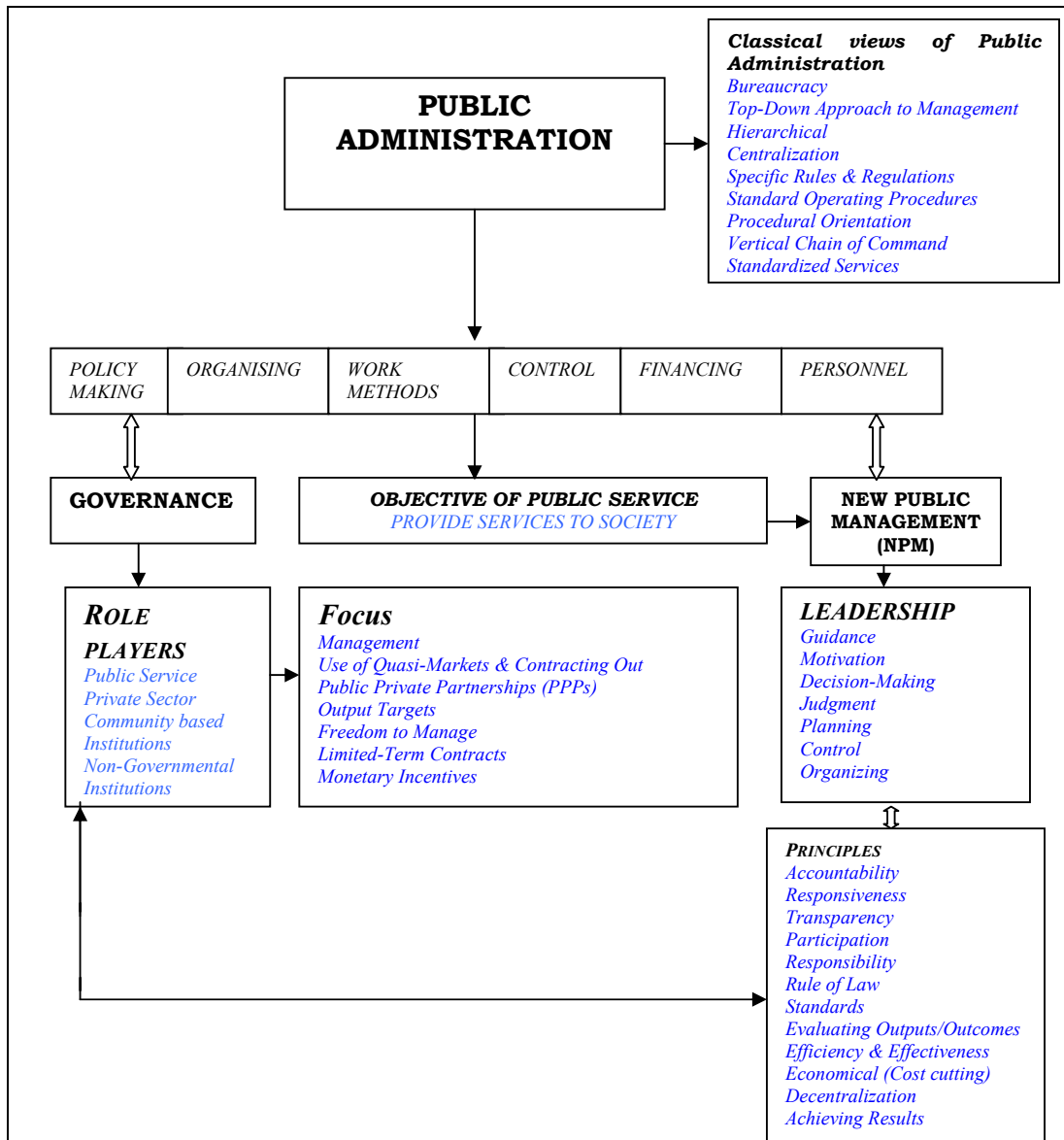
In this chapter an overview is given of the concepts of public administration, public management, NPM, leadership and governance in relation to service delivery. A relational model was designed by the author, which clearly reflects the trends in public

administration and the relationship between public administration, public management, leadership, governance, and service delivery. The shift from a classical public administration model to the NPM paradigm is reflected both in the relational model and the discussion that follows. The trends in public administration within the South African context are deemed important and are thus highlighted in this chapter. The mechanisms to promote a sustainable South African public service for effective service delivery are covered in-depth. In this regard, the South African Constitution (1996), the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the White Paper on the Transformation on Public Service (WPTPS) (1995) and the Batho Pele- 'People First' White Paper on transforming Public Service Delivery (1997) are discussed.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION, LEADERSHIP, GOVERNANCE AND SERVICE DELIVERY

The public service is responsible for the provision of services to society (Du Toit, 2002: 82). The process of enabling the public service to deliver services and products depends on the execution of a series of functions. The public administration functions are mainly grouped into six processes, which include; namely: policy-making, organising, financing, staffing, determining work procedures, and the exercise of control (Cloete, 1986: 2). The public management functions are planning, organising, leading, control and coordination (Van de Walldt and Du Toit, 1997: 16). The execution of public administration and public management functions is essential for this purpose. The adoption of an appropriate leadership and governance framework by the public service, are tools or mechanisms towards the effective execution of public administration and public management. The execution of these functions is a very comprehensive process. Figure 3/1 is a relational model that was designed by the author to depict the trends in public administration and the relationships between public administration, leadership, governance, and service delivery.

Figure 3/1: Relationships between public administration, leadership, governance and service delivery: A relational model



(Source Naidoo: 2004)

The most important theoretical principle of the classical model of public administration is Weber's theory of bureaucracy. This is reflected in Figure 3/1. The key tenets of this model are discussed within the context of the evolution of public administration. Public administration began as the study of government administration (Denhardt, 1991: 13). Denhardt (1991: 13) defines administration as the thought process and the action necessary for setting and achieving an objective. The study began in the mid-nineteenth century as part of efforts to reform governmental operations (Hughes, 1998: 23). Weber stated that bureaucracy was the most efficient form of organizing, and one, which applied to all large undertakings.

According to Gildenhuis (1988: 9), most of the scholars and practitioners date the beginning of the study of public administration to an essay by Woodrow Wilson in 1887. Wilson's recommendations involved first isolating the process of administration from potentially corrupting influences of politics. Wilson argued that administrative questions are not political questions. In other words, although politicians decided policies they were to be carried out by a politically neutral bureaucracy. Moreover, political control, as argued by Wilson, is problematic in ensuring genuine accountability. Hughes (1998: 39) argues that political control is inadequate and illogical. In this way, Wilson argued that the conduct of government would be isolated from the potentially corrupting influence of politics. Wilson's essay was thus designed to address the inefficiency and open corruption that had become part of the government of America during the late 1880s. Wilson favoured the idea of concentrating power in a single authority, referring to a highly integrated and centralized administrative structure within government. Wilson wanted the work of the public service to be accomplished more effectively, and thus argued that government operations should be reformed to promote efficiency. Public administration has however experienced various changes since Woodrow Wilson's article was published in 1887.

The classical model of public administration had been fully formed by the 1920s (Self, 1977: 19). From 1910 to 1940, Frederick Taylor's scientific management theory became a key influence in public administration (Van Der Waldt and Du Toit, 1997: 58). Taylor focused on two main issues in respect of standardizing work: Firstly, finding one best way of working and secondly, maintaining this standard. These ideas fitted well with the theory of bureaucracy. From the 1930s through to the 1960s, bureaucracies were

large and followed a top-down, centralized way of doing business with the public. The public service was hierarchical, and tasks were broken down into simple parts (Hughes, 1998: 39). The responsibilities of public servants were defined by specific rules and regulations. Furthermore, the public service was rigid with standardized operating procedures, vertical chains of command and standardized services. It could be argued that public servants have an important role to play, which is more important than merely following rules, regulations or instructions. The inadequacies of the classical model became apparent.

The classical public administration model is thus not necessarily the most efficient model for the modern public service. It can be argued that bureaucracies are ideal for extensive control but not necessarily for achieving service delivery outcomes. Furthermore, the theory of bureaucracy is no longer universally seen as applicable to the modern democratic public service. It allows for certainty, but is slow and cumbersome. If the work is standardized, it limits on the much-needed innovations. It seems inevitable that there would be a conflict between bureaucracy and democracy. The classical public administration model is inadequate to effectively meet the needs and demands of today's society.

Public administration

The term 'Public Administration' (with a capital P and a capital A) refers to the academic discipline studied in universities, technikons, technical colleges and polytechnics (now called universities of technology in South Africa). The term 'public administration' (with a lower case p and lower case a) refers to the activities, both strategic and operational, within the public sector (Van Wyk, *et al.* 2002: 60). Within this context, public administration came to be viewed as the activities of the executive agencies of government, which in South Africa, are the national, provincial and local spheres of government (Venter, 2001: 66).

According to Du Toit (2002: 5), public administration is "that system of structures and functions, operating within a particular society as environment, with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate government policy, and the efficient execution of the formulated policy." Roux, *et al.* (1997: 9) indicates that public

administration implies "...a combination of generic functions and functional activities". The generic functions of public administration can be subdivided, for analytical purposes, into policy-making, organizing, financing, personnel, determination of work procedures and control (Cloete, 1986: 2). These generic administrative functions are reflected in Figure 3/1. The generic administrative functions of public administration are also regarded as so-called higher-level (order) functions (Roux, *et al.* 1997: 9). These generic functions are increasingly used at the higher levels of the hierarchy of the public service, namely by management, and are concerned with producing goods or rendering services. Examples of functional activities are the building of roads, providing postal services and providing health services. The generic functions are thus enabling processes.

According to Cloete (1986: 2), the generic administrative functions will always precede or accompany the functional activities. The public service has, within the administrative and functional activities, the task of executing public management functions to promote effective public administration. The main function of the public service is to render services to its citizens through the execution of public administration functions, such as policy-making, which also entails implementation (Gildenhuis and Knipe, 2000: 56).

According to Cloete (1986: 2), policy-making is closely interlinked with the other generic functions (organizing, control, work methods and procedures and financing) of public administration. The classical view of public administration is that policy is determined by political leadership and implemented by administrative leadership within the public service (Gildenhuis, 1988: 9). Policy involves action as well as inaction, and is often referred to as a desired state of affairs, through specific proposals. For instance, the desired objective of the public service is the effective implementation of public policy (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2002: 6). Wessels and Pauw (1999: 27) argue that the real core of public administration is the provision of basic services to the public through the effective implementation of public policy. Such services are, for example police services and the protection of property.

The leaders in the public service should have the necessary interpersonal skills, as well as knowledge about the specialized functions in public administration to direct the generic administrative functions (tools or means) (Du Toit, 2002). This is essential, so

that the predetermined institutional goals of service delivery to society can be realized in a meaningful way.

It can be argued that public administration is an activity aimed at serving the public and translating policy into action. Public administration is essentially the execution of various functions, namely: policy-making, organising, staffing, determining work procedures and control. The public management function is regarded as an integral part of public administration. For example, public management gives direction in the form of leadership to the administrative conduct of public servants. Public servants are required to execute government policies. During the execution of public administration, environmental influences interact continuously and affect service delivery outcomes.

Public management as an integral component of public administration

Hughes (2003: 45) considers the public management functions to be merely a continuation of the practice of public administration. Rhodes (2003: 48) re-iterates that public management is a continuous activity, only made possible by public administration. Public management can be seen as the execution of different categories of functions categorized as delivery (managerial/operational) functions, auxiliary functions, instrumental functions and line functions. Du Toit (2002: 5) states that public management, as a component of public administration is very important. In this respect, public management is the skill of converting resources into services and products for use by society. This conversion takes place when the management, auxiliary, instrumental and line functions are executed. Public management, however, does not comprise the whole ambit of public administration but is used to denote a minute part of the very broad subject of public administration (Du Toit, 2002: 5).

In this regard, Roux, *et al.* (1997: 10) indicate that, “public management becomes a human capability to perform public administration effectively.” In fact, public management is a social process, which involves aspects such as judgment, decision-making, guidance, and motivation. The whole object of the exercise called ‘public management’ is to manage public resources in such a way that public goods and services are delivered to a given individual, group, community and society in an efficient, responsive, sustainable and optimal way (Knoree, 2004: Discussion).

Therefore, the external and internal environments of public management should be managed efficiently and responsively to ensure optimal benefit to society.

Daft (1988: 8) defines public management as “the attainment of institutional goals”, such as the achievement of service delivery objectives. They ought to be attained through the public management functions of planning, organizing, leading and controlling institutional resources. In this regard, Smit and Cronje (2003: 88) state that planning means defining goals for future departmental performance and deciding on the tasks and use of resources needed to attain such goals. A lack of planning or ineffective planning can impact negatively on a department’s performance. This in turn will hamper service provision to communities.

Cloete (1986: 112) states that organizing in public management typically follows planning, and reflects how the department tries to accomplish the plan, for example through the application of mechanisms or tools to achieve this end. In this regard, the application of an effective leadership and governance framework to improve service delivery to specific communities in society can be cited as an excellent example. Organizing therefore involves the assignment of tasks, the grouping of tasks into departments, and the allocation of resources to departments.

Controlling is an important function of public management (Daft, 1998: 9). Controlling implies monitoring employees’ activities. Controlling also entails determining whether the public service is on target towards its goals and making corrections as necessary (Cloete, 1986: 180). Leadership is an increasingly important management function in public administration (Smit and Cronje, 2003: 255). Leaders ought to communicate departmental goals to employees and then to ensure that their departments achieve their goals. Leaders should infuse employees with a desire to perform well. Du Toit (2002: 5) indicates that the leader should make policies, plan, organize, lead, motivate, control and evaluate. The leader ought to apply certain management skills in the execution of public management functions. The leader should also undertake appropriate applications, such as strategic management and policy analysis, to assist in the task of managing within the public service. Moreover, the leaders should make use of supportive technologies and techniques. For example, information and communication technology could be used to promote effective service delivery. In an era of change and

growing diversity, such as is the case in South Africa, the ability of the leader to shape the institutional culture, communicate departmental goals, and motivate employees, is critical to promoting service delivery by the public service.

From the discussions above, it is evident that public administration and public management are not synonymous. The outcomes of public administration, in the form of policy (acts), enable public management to take place. Public management includes public administration, but also involves the adoption of different functions, such as leadership to achieve its objectives with maximum efficiency, as well as accepting genuine responsibility for results. These elements were not present in the classical public administration model.

A new approach to public administration

Since the mid-1980s there has been a transformation in the management of the public service of advanced countries (Hughes, 1998: 3). There was a shift from an administrative to a managerialist mode of operating. This gave rise to a phenomenon now referred to as NPM under its various names: ‘entrepreneurial government’, ‘managerialism’ and ‘market-based public administration’. This suggested that a new paradigm was impacting on the classical public administration model (Turner, 2002: 1493), challenging classical administrative views of the structure and functions of public services. The Wilson dichotomy between politics and administration, the Weberian ideal type of bureaucracy and the Taylorian idea of ‘one best way’ were supplanted by the goals of financial efficiency and effective service delivery. Kroukamp (2002: 465) argues that this trend could be described as “the transformation from public bureaucracy to a model of public administration that is business like, but is not a business.” This new model is outlined and analysed below.

New public management

Rhodes (2003: 48) refers to a theory of the most recent paradigm change in the classical public administration model. It focuses on the way the modern public service must be managed and led. Its central doctrines are reflected in Figure 3/1. Turner (2002: 1495) identifies specific features of NPM. These include; mainly: the need for leadership,

setting explicit standards, performance appraisal and efficiency within the public, greater competition in the public service and the usage of private sector management techniques, use of quasi markets and contracting out of services, cost cutting and the involvement of different role-players, such as the private sector, civic-based organisations (CBOs) in the delivery of services.

Turner (2002: 1495) emphasizes the importance of leadership in the public service. Leadership deals with the interpersonal aspects of a manager's job, as well as with change and inspiring, motivating and influencing employees to achieve the goal of the public service. Leaders, through their actions and personal influence, need to produce change, often to a dramatic degree, such as spearheading transformation and reform in the South African public service towards improved service delivery.

NPM is outcomes-based and citizen-oriented, focusing on empowering leadership, while holding them accountable (Peete, 2001: 14). Another important feature is that it sets explicit standards and measures of performance. The focus is placed on performance appraisal and efficiency within the public service (Turner, 2002: 1495). There is greater emphasis on output control and disaggregation of units, which mainly entails decentralizing authority to local government. In this way, the public service is brought closer to the public whom they serve. Furthermore, decisions are made closer to the point of delivery, thus increasing efficacy of service and resource allocation. There is greater competition in the public service and a greater use of private sector management techniques. Other important phenomena are the use of quasi-markets and the contracting out of services, whose purpose it is to promote cost cutting, achieve output targets, have limited-term contracts, promote monetary incentives and allow the freedom to manage. Furthermore, there is greater discipline and parsimony in resource allocation. Other common features include entrepreneurial government, which includes such functions as empowering communities to be actively involved in public service delivery, rather than the public service simply delivering services. Within the NPM paradigm, governance is the capacity of leadership to get actions performed, by applying various principles, functions and involving different role-players, such as the private sector, civic-based organisations (CBOs) and citizens in public service delivery (Rhodes, 2003: 48).

NPM focuses on a set of values such as productivity, profitability, competitiveness and quality, which are considered to be crucial (Ferlie, 1996: 10). There is an emphasis on downsizing, a search of excellence and public service orientation. This logic underlines the core values of public administration (efficiency, effectiveness and economy), without however replacing the traditional values of legality, impartiality and equality. It aims to develop partnership practices, fight corruption, and promote citizen participation in public affairs. Hood (1995: 93) argues that its objective is to turn public administration into a tool for development and social change. The emphasis throughout is on performance and a greater concern for the general welfare of society by promoting moral values and civic trends.

NPM principles are extensive. Public service reforms began in the 1980's in the United Kingdom, United States, Australia and New Zealand (Kickert, 2002: 1472). The public service systems in countries such as the United Kingdom have adopted more 'managerialist' and 'business-like' approaches to public administration within the new public management (NPM) framework to promote efficiency and effectiveness in service delivery. Kickert (2002: 1472) indicates that the British public service systems have introduced techniques of business administration in the public service. For instance, it has adopted a greater service and client orientation, and introduction of market mechanisms and competition into its public service. While this trend originated in developed economies, notably the United Kingdom, it has been extended to both transitional and developing economies, including South Africa.

It can be concluded that a public service based on administrative concepts is very different from one based on management principles. The classical model of public administration has gradually been replaced by the NPM paradigm. The classical model is inadequate in promoting service delivery outcomes. Within the new, expanded and broader approach to public administration, leadership and governance are integral components. It focuses on achieving results and taking responsibility for doing so. This form of public administration involves a change in the role of government in society and in the relationship between government and its citizenry. The outcomes of the new approach are to deliver services for the improvement of the general welfare of society.

Relationships between public administration, leadership, governance and service delivery: A relational model

The evolution of the leadership discourse in public administration may be divided into three overlapping phases (Otobo, 1997: 5). In the first phase the tendency was to ascribe leadership to the politicians. As part of the second phase the tendency was to relegate the act of leadership towards managing complex functions of the public service. Finally, the third phase public services began the challenging task of reforming their governments along the principles of effective governance.

In the initial phase of the 'Administrative Sciences' discipline, the tendency was to ascribe and limit the notion of leadership to politicians (Gildenhuys, 1988: 9). The leadership construct was seldom used to describe administrative leadership (public servants). The basic assumption was that public servants were involved in the administration of state regulation and the provision of public services, in accordance with prescribed rules and procedures in public administration. The shift from a procedural orientation has been marked by the utilization of the leadership construct as an element in the overall public management function for managing complexities in the public service. This shift embodied an awareness that public servants within the public service had to lead processes that would transform the public service so that it was better able to follow the policy direction provided by the political leaders. The focus in this context was on exercising some form of autonomy in institutional functions. This shift is clearly evident in the South African public service.

With a departure from the initial 'Administrative Sciences' orientation, then the tendency in this area was to relegate the act of leadership towards having to manage complex internal institutional and operational functions of the public service (Service Delivery Review, 2002: 17). When this new construct appeared in the NPM literature, it encouraged leaders to take greater responsibility for their decisions and actions and to exercise autonomy in shaping the public service to serve specific and defined policy orientations. This emerging shift was reflected in the notion of 'governance' and increased emphasis was thus placed on the need for leadership within the public service. This is rooted in the understanding that effective leadership requires ongoing engagement with policy imperatives and essential governance engagements. This

implies a commitment to engage responsibly with substantive policy issues and provide active leadership on the strategic value, location and operations of the public service (Service Delivery Review, 2002).

According to Gildenhuis (1988: 9), political and administrative leaders are mandated by the people to manage affairs of the public service. This management takes the form of public policy. The public service is essentially a vehicle for the delivery of public policy to society. This furthermore means that public service reform should be about the improved implementation of public policy to promote and improve service delivery (Service Delivery Review, 2003). A clear focus on accountability to the public is required, if reforms in the public service are to be effective. Moreover, a consistent review and analysis of policy implementation is essential to promoting service delivery. The emphasis should be on effective governance practices, such as accountability, participation, openness and transparency, which are the key to regaining public trust in the provision of public services. According to Kaul (2000: 52), many public services in recent decades have been faced with a crisis of legitimacy. This needs to be addressed by winning the public trust. It can be argued that this can only be done through re-invigorating the public service. Kaul (2000: 52) indicates that there is no more apt a place for this re-invigoration to begin than at the level of policy-making and implementation and the involvement of the public therein.

In this regard, efforts are indeed being made by the South African public service to promote public participation and responsiveness (Service Delivery Review, 2003). Furthermore, innovative governance approaches focus on improving strategies to promote service delivery. In the latter half of the twentieth century, many countries have begun the challenging task of reforming their governments along the principles of effective governance. Leadership in public administration views policy making as a complex function of interaction between all kinds of actors; namely: individuals, private sector, government and social groups, such as civic institutions. This setup is clearly reflected in Figure 3/1.

According to Kauzya (2003: 53), it is empirically wrong to assume that only one actor has, by definition, the central position in policy-making and policy implementation. The policy implementation process entails the translation of policy into action. In this

regard, the traditional assumption that government is the central change agent of society and is able to control social functions has had to be relinquished. However, effective and legitimate policy making is to a large degree dependent on the capacity of government to stimulate processes of co-operation between the various stakeholders. Plumptre and Graham (1999: 53) argue that a number of examples of the inability of government to play this role have been documented.

Somoleka (2002: 53) states that recent studies suggest that the degree to which government succeeds in co-operating with relevant non-governmental actors is a strategic variable of successful policy-making. Most actors involved in policy making are dependent on other actors. Although government may have the authority to decide, it may lack the financial means or the expertise. In this regard, finances and expertise are usually not available from a single source in most countries. 'Resource dependence' is thus a crucial concept associated with the notion of governance in public administration (Flinders, 2002: 53). This is clearly evident in South Africa, and is examined further in Chapter Five of the study. Governance is therefore more than institutional design in public administration. It considers the interactions between both the public and private institutions. Governance, concentrates on issues such as transparency, control, and accountability.

Governance also underlines the increasing inter-dependence between different governmental spheres. According to Rhodes (2003: 48), this refers to the relationship between the three spheres of government (national, provincial and local). A range of factors, such as the transfer of policy competencies away from central government and increased institutional fragmentation within the state, has exacerbated tensions within the South African government (Service Delivery Review, 2004). Kauzya (2003: 53) indicates that the state-centric approach asserts that the nation state remains the key political actor in society and the predominant expression of collective interests.

Within the context of this study, it can be argued that governance denotes a conceptual or theoretical representation of the co-ordination of social systems and the role of the public service in that process. Drawing on the above distinctions and paraphrasing the above discussion, governance in public administration can be defined as the study of the structural and procedural manifestations of the public service adaptation to its external,

internal, social, cultural, political, economic and technological environment. There is particular reference to the evolving processes and mechanisms of control, co-ordination, accountability and the location of power within complex relationships between the public service and different role-players.

Governance highlights the development of new instruments of policy implementation with the capacity for transferability (Kuye, 2003: Discussion). For example, with Public Private Partnerships (PPPs) there can be transference of skills, from the service provider to public servants. Governance in public administration demands that flexibility and institutional learning be an ongoing process. Governance provides a suitable conceptual and theoretical framework for analysing the attempts to increase inter-institutional policy making and policy implementation in public administration.

One of the most conspicuous trends in governance is the need to internalise public service reform, in keeping with the NPM paradigm. Public administration across the world appears to be converging around this new paradigm (Peters and Pierre, 1998: 223). According to Minogue, *et al.* (1998: 59), NPM is based on management sciences and public choice theory. Dunleavy and Hood (1994: 9) consider NPM as a collection of more flexible strategies in terms of service delivery. The enhancement of the measurement and monitoring capacity of government over public service delivery actually lies at the core of NPM.

This new approach requires more than effectively and efficiently managing 'government's business' (Rhodes, 2003: 53), but falls within the broader context of public governance. According to Kickert (2002: 1472), public governance has a broader meaning than the restricted business-like, market-oriented interpretation of the term NPM. Kuye (2003: Discussion) argues that public governance is also related to legality, equality and legitimacy rather than only strict business values.

In public governance, the context of political democracy plays a crucial role, as does the external orientation in the socio-political context (Rhodes, 2003: 53). The complexity of social policy networks leads to the recognition that the public service is not in a position to 'steer' such functions unilaterally and hierarchically. However, governance cannot be

separated from its institutional context, which is the public service and functioning of public administration.

It is argued that governance is an approach to strengthen the public service, and to make it more responsive to the needs of society. In this respect, leadership and governance are two components of public administration. It is in effective governance that the efficiency concerns of public administration and NPM, combined with the accountability concerns of leadership for service delivery performance can be identified.

TRENDS IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION WITHIN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

The South African public service prior to 1994 had been structured according to the classical model of public administration (Peete, 2001: 14). Its most prominent characteristic was the emphasis on formal aspects of organizing. Its focus was on the design of the structure, authority and work methods (Service Delivery Review, 2002: 7). It was characterized by a centralized control of management. Decisions were made at national government level. The changes in public administration in South Africa prior to 1994 and after 1994 are summarized in Table 3/1, as interpreted by the findings of the study. The need to improve service delivery in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa called for a shift away from inward-looking, bureaucratic systems, processes and attitudes (Batho Pele-‘People First’ White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997: 10). The classical public administration model, based on the Wilsonian dichotomy, Taylorist scientific management and Weberian hierarchical control, was not very effective in the public service. This is clearly articulated and summarized in Table 3/1.

Table 3/1

Public administration in South Africa (pre-1994 and post-1994)

Principles Prior to 1994-Apartheid Era	Towards A New Approach After 1994-Post Apartheid Era
Authoritarian, dictatorial, totalitarian leadership	Democratic leadership
Tactical, opportunistic	Strategic, sagacious, innovative
Driven by force, militaristic	Driven by shared values and principles
Power-centred, investing in forces of coercion	People-centred, investing in social capital
Transactional leadership	Transformational leadership
Inequalities	Socially responsible and equitable
Parochial, closed	Selectively interdependent, open and networked
Rules and process-oriented	Service and result-oriented
Authority-based	Knowledge-based
Techno-phobic	Promoting technology
Lack of protection of human and majority rights	Respectful of rule of law and human rights
Institutionally weak, disconnected	Institutionally strong, rooted
Bloated, bureaucratic, resistant to change	Right-sized, agile
Corrupt, ineffective or non-existent national integrity system	Promoting an effective national integrity system

(Source: Naidoo 2004)

Table 3/1 indicates that prior to 1994 the South African public service was rigid and bureaucratic (Service Delivery Review 2002). It was based on processes rather than outcomes. The South African public service was based on setting procedures to follow instead of focusing on results. Against the backdrop of classical public administration in South Africa (prior to 1994), new trends have emerged in the post-1994 era.

Towards a new public administration model for effective service delivery by the South African public service

When the first democratic government came into power in South Africa in 1994, it precipitated the need to advance a new model of public administration in the South African public service (Peete, 2001: 14). This led to the creation of alternative schools of public administration. In the search for excellence, the South African public service took a keen interest in the NPM approach. As a result of the inefficiencies of the classical public administration model in South Africa under the previous dispensation,

elements of the new approach emerged, focusing on new principles, such as accountability for outcomes and enhancing and promoting service delivery.

Some of the principles of the new paradigm have since been adopted in the South African public service. With the NPM paradigm came a revised menu of reforms for the South African public service (Chandu, 2004: Discussion). These reforms focused on the transformation of the public service. There was a greater emphasis on service delivery outcomes and the involvement of different role-players in service delivery. The focus of the South African government was on thus transforming and reforming the public service that had been inherited from the previous South African public service. In the pursuit of efficiency, effectiveness and economy, a host of administrative reforms were introduced (Service Delivery Review, 2003: 20). One of the objectives of the South African public service is stated in terms of service delivery. Public administration in South Africa is forced to address the needs of society in order to promote the principles of democracy such as responsiveness.

The transformation of service delivery to meet the basic needs of South African society was crucial to the entire transformation process. The democratisation of the South African public service by inculcating principles such as equity in service delivery was amongst the most significant of these. The transformation of the South African public service has centred on a review of policy outcomes, management reforms, efficiency, budgeting and financial management, value for money, quality of services, and accountability (South Africa Yearbook 2000/2001, 2001: 2).

In moving towards actualising its vision for the new public service, the South African government has identified a number of priority areas for the transformation process (White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service, 1995). What is significant in this respect is that the South African government's public service reform programme includes a gamut of NPM measures, including a move towards rightsizing or downsizing. A reduction in the size of the public service was a long-stated objective of President Mandela's government from April 1994 to May 1999 (Vil Nkomo, 1998: 136). President Mbeki's government (1999) has reiterated its intention to reduce the numbers of public servants (Peete, 2001: 13). The public service was thus rationalized and restructured to ensure a unified, integrated and leaner public service. Other reform

initiatives are the outsourcing of work, the introduction of performance management systems and the assignment of greater autonomy to public service departments.

From 1994 until the end of 1998, many new policies were gazetted in South Africa (Ncholo, 2000: 90). Within the NPM paradigm the focus is on modernizing operations (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2003). The priorities identified are institution building and improvement in the management of public affairs. It aims to focus less on bureaucracy, procedures and regulations and more on decentralization and delegation of authority to leaders and managers. Emphasis is placed on increased delegation of management responsibility to operational managers, at provincial and local levels of government. It is argued that decentralization and increased delegation should redress service delivery imbalances and inequities in South Africa. In addition, flatter structures, greater recognition of effective performance and less tolerance of poor performance are recognized as essential ingredients for success (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion).

Following the elections of May 1999 in South Africa, the African National Congress (ANC) government was returned to power (Ncholo, 2000: 90). The priorities of the newly re-elected government did not at the outset lead to new policy directions, but rather to the intensification of transformation and reform that had begun during 1994. At the beginning of the second democratic term of government in South Africa in June 1999, a shift in emphasis took place, from restructuring and policy-making, to efforts to improve service delivery through effective policy implementation. The years 2000 to 2003 have thus seen the intensification and consolidation of the initiatives adopted in the first term of office and continued in the second term (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion).

These developments embraced some of the core tenets of effective governance (Service Delivery Review, 2004). There has been the evolution in management thought and practice, which resonates with NPM and governance principles. The concept of the 'learning institution' and continuous improvement are highlighted as priorities for the South African public service (Fryman, *et al.* 2000: 5). Leadership in the South African public service is expected to create a climate in which innovation and continuous improvement can take place.

There are other developments in public management thinking in South Africa, which also affect the public service (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2004). The public service, for example, focuses on quality in service delivery. This is clearly outlined in the South African government's 'Batho Pele' White Paper (Batho Pele-'People First' White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997: 10). The management principles relating to empowerment and increased participation in decision-making are also now central elements of the new paradigm, which are also emphasized in the South African government 'Batho Pele' policy.

With the essential policy framework in place, as the product of the past few years of government in South Africa, the focus of President Mbeki's administration (1999 to 2003) is to enhance fundamental social transformation to improve service delivery (Service Delivery Review, 2003). This significantly includes approaches to promote economic growth in South Africa, as the impetus for job creation (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The South African public service is also focusing on a tougher approach to dealing with issues such as law and order (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2004). This also includes partnerships between the public service, communities and business, in preventing and combating crime and corruption. The drive to promote service delivery is evident in greater accountability and efficiency in the South African public service's current efforts to eradicate endemic corruption within its ranks. At a national, anti-corruption summit held in Durban in October 1999, and at subsequent meetings held by the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA), a number of far-reaching resolutions were taken. This included a decision to establish a national structure to co-ordinate, monitor and manage a national anti-corruption programme. The elimination of corruption, which is embedded in certain sectors of the South African public service, impedes effective service delivery. This is explored further in Chapter Five of the study. The South African public service is indeed endeavouring to curb corruption in public service departments.

The South African public service delivers services directly to society (Hughes, 1998: 7). It also uses autonomous agencies, or contracts the services to the private sector. There are three distinctive categories of service delivery institutions developing, namely government institutions, private institutions and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) (Service Delivery Review, 2004). The ultimate aim of each institution is

different: The public service, NGOs and CBOs aim to improve the general welfare of its citizens. Conversely, the primary aim of private institutions is to make a profit on investments in their businesses.

Despite these contrasting objectives, the South African public service is purchasing the services it requires from a variety of providers, public and/or private (Dye, 1987: 324). Public-private partnership (PPP), are increasingly becoming a feature in the hospital and other public services in South Africa. The involvement of communities and the private sector in assisting the public service in delivering services to communities is also evident in South Africa. These institutions are more in tune with the challenges and constraints experienced by the communities. Furthermore, they often have the necessary know-how to correct, overcome particularly complex service delivery challenges.

These new forms of public service delivery in South Africa ought to establish what parts of the public service rules and regulations will continue to apply and to whom, when services are contracted out by the public service (Kickert, 2002: 1473). It should also be essential for the public service, to determine the extent to which government services are to be contracted out of the public service. The public service should also bear in mind that the development of market competition within the public service will challenge the framework of public accountability. In this environment, it is essential to rearticulate the vision of public accountability. If adequate mechanisms are not in place to ensure protection for the public, there is the danger that considerations of public policy and public interest will be marginalized by commercial and competitive considerations.

In this regard, Rhodes (2003: 51) argues that, in outsourcing public service delivery from those employed in the public interest to those motivated by commercial gain, there is a risk that public interest might become subverted by private interest. In this regard, NPM recognizes that the modern public service is about more than just achieving the goal of efficiency. Turner (2002: 1495) argues that NPM is also about the relationship of accountability between the public service and the people. In this respect, people are treated not merely as consumers, but as citizens. As citizens, people have the right to hold their governments to account for the actions they take, or fail to take.

In addition to wanting efficient public services, citizens also want their rights protected. In this regard, citizens want their voices to be heard, and to have their values and preferences respected (Kickert, 2002: 1473). The ultimate sanction of a dissatisfied citizen is to remove from public office those who are politically responsible for inadequate service provision to society. The public service delivers programmes, such as the provision of health service, that are in the public interest and are paid for out of the public purse (Cameron and Stone, 1995: 18). Governments obtain funding from citizens, redirecting this towards the provision of goods and services to society. If services are not delivered properly, it will negatively affect service delivery outcomes. Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2002: 6) argue that, since the citizens fund the programmes, the scrutiny to which the public service is subject, is therefore significantly greater than that which occurs in the private sector. Kickert (2002: 1473), similarly, argues that public servants are subject to discipline and bound by ethical standards. This in turn protects citizens from abuse and excess.

In examining the fundamental characteristics of NPM, Turner (2002: 1495) views its rise in the South African public service as a shift from bureaucracy to a system based on market principles. Effectively, the South African public service is shifting away from systems in which public servants are accountable for following rules and procedures to a system in which they are accountable for results achieved. In this regard, a series of changes are being introduced, such as the replacement of internal systems, processes and procedures, and new mechanisms are currently being established. Efficiency, effectiveness and economy provide an important impetus for these changes. The main aim of this approach in South Africa is to reduce government cost and improve efficiency and effectiveness within the public service for the promotion of service delivery.

It can be argued that there are several rationales for replacing the classical public administration model with the NPM model in South Africa. Firstly, it implies a response by the public service to the criticisms by the South African public on the ineffectiveness and inefficiency of the previous government (pre-1994). Secondly, it involves a response to the need to improve service delivery in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. Thirdly, it can be argued that the classical model of public administration would not have been effective within a changing democratic South

African environment. Lastly, it was not conducive to promoting a sustainable South African public service. This research study does, however, suggest that there are continuing and unresolved tensions between the two kinds of public administration models in South Africa (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). There are many South African public service departments in place in which public administration concepts are so imbued in traditional classical public administration approach that change is hard to implement (2003). These challenges are discussed in Chapter Five of the study.

The dominant discourse and operational mode of public administration prior to the democratisation process in South Africa (prior to 1994) was rooted in the traditional Weberian notion of public administration, which predominantly focused on ‘procedural’ issues. In the post-apartheid period in South Africa, however the public administration discourse has shifted towards building the legitimacy and relevance of the public service, the focus being on democratising the South African public service and improving service delivery.

Mechanisms to promote a sustainable public service for effective service delivery

There are a number of mechanisms in South Africa that aim to promote a sustainable public service. The promotion of equity in service delivery is specifically highlighted in section 195(1) of the Constitution of South Africa (1996). The values and principles of the interim Constitution of South Africa (1993) laid the foundation for equality, equity and social justice. The South African public service is focused on developing an appropriate climate and policy framework to improve and redress service delivery imbalances and inequities, especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa (National Conference on Public Service Delivery, 1997: 1).

The need to improve service delivery is highlighted in a number of important documents prepared by the South African government (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2002: 96). The key document is the RDP (1994) White Paper, as well as a number of subsequent policy documents from the DPSA, and a wide range of sectoral discussion documents and Green and White Papers from different government ministries, departments and provinces in South Africa (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2002: 96). The DPSA is the central national government department for the South African public service, and it prepares

governmental policies and advises the South African public service on implementation of these.

The White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service (WPTPS) (1995) expresses a vision of service orientation and commitment to the provision of high quality services to all South Africans. According to this document, service delivery in South Africa ought to be effected in an unbiased and impartial manner. Furthermore, service delivery is to be characterized by responsiveness to the needs of the public, as well as being human and caring in its dealings with the public. The policy also states the need for fair labour practices for all public servants, irrespective of race, gender or class. It further states that a sustainable (efficient, effective, economical and equitable) public service is essential for improving service delivery to the South African society. This is a tremendous departure from the policies and values adopted by the South African public service prior to 1994.

These initiatives, set in motion by the RDP White Paper in 1994 and reinforced by the WPTPS in 1995, culminated in the most important intervention that is the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, under the title of 'Batho Pele' or 'People First'. This Paper set out to establish a national policy framework on public service delivery in South Africa. Its aim was to guide the introduction and implementation of new policies and legislation in transforming service delivery by the South African public service. The 'Batho Pele' principles are sufficiently flexible to allow government departments to implement them according to specific conditions and circumstances. The 'Batho Pele' White Paper (1996) is directly applicable to those parts of the South African public service, both national and provincial, which are regulated by the Public Service Act, 1994.

It is important for all South African public servants to know, understand, support and implement the vision of the new government in accordance with each department's vision in the public service (Report of the Presidential Review Commission on Reform and Transformation of the Public Service in South Africa, 1998: 2). In pursuit of its vision, the South African government developed the following mission statement: "The creation of a people centred and people driven public service which is characterized by equity, quality, timeousness and a strong code of ethics." To give effect to this vision,

the South African government envisages a public service, which is goal-and performance-orientated, and encourages popular participation and transparency.

The 'Batho Pele' White Paper stresses that it is important for public servants in the South African public service to be honest and accountable (Batho Pele-'People First' White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997: 11). Moreover, the South African government argues that public servants in South Africa ought to be guided by an ethos of service delivery. It is indicated that public servants ought to be committed to the promotion of service delivery, in an unbiased and impartial manner. This is particularly important in light of the policy of exclusion under the previous government in South Africa (prior to 1994).

The relevant mechanisms to promote effective service delivery are briefly elaborated in the discussion below. These include the Constitution of South Africa 1996, (Act 108 of 1996), the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995) and the 'Batho Pele'-'People First' White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997).

The Constitution

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, enshrines the concept of public administration. Section 195(1) of the Constitution (1996) states that "public administration in South Africa must be governed by the democratic values and principles." These include a high standard of professional ethics, which should be promoted and maintained. In addition, services should be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias. Moreover, resources should be utilized efficiently, effectively and economically. The Constitution (1996) further states that people's needs should be met or responded to and that the public should be encouraged to participate in policy-making. Another crucial principle that is stipulated in the Constitution (1996) is that public administration should be accountable and development-oriented. In this regard, it can be argued that the South African public service is embarking on initiatives to promote these principles.

Section 7(1) of the Constitution (1996) sets out the basic values, rights and obligations, of all citizens, the state and all public servants. It attempts to protect human rights, entrench the democratic principles of governance, and ensure ethical conduct in the public service. In terms of constitutionalism, there are basically three important principles to promoting effective public administration in South Africa, namely, political supremacy, public accountability and the tenets of democracy. These principles imply that public servants should not abuse their authority and that there ought to be joint consultation and deliberation with society. Furthermore, public servants ought to be accountable and responsible for service delivery performance. Moreover, the principles of equity ought to be taken into account overcoming service delivery imbalances and inequities.

According to Sections 32(1) and (2) of the Constitution (1996), citizens have certain rights to take action against the state if they believe their constitutional rights have been infringed, and to have access to information held by the state, which they need in order to be able to do so. This ensures that the rights of individuals are protected and that institutions are established to ensure that government does not abuse its power. This, in turn, protects the rights of each individual.

Section 2 of the Constitution (1996) establishes enshrines the Constitution as the supreme law of the country and creates a solid foundation upon which the activities of public service are executed. To this end, it creates an empowering environment within which the various structures of the South African state can execute their functions (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2002: 1). Section 6(1) and Section 7(1) of the Constitution (1996) define the powers and structures of political executive decision-making bodies, such as the Cabinet and the Executive Councils of Provinces (EXCOs), as well as the principles under and the context in which public administration and management should operate.

Section 40(1) of Chapter 3 of the Constitution (1996) establishes the structures of the South African government and specifies the powers the government has in the process of executing its activities. Section 40(1) of the Constitution (1996) makes provision for an integrated, inter-sectoral and co-operative approach to government. These provisions commit all three spheres of government to be transparent in policy making and inclusive in their approaches. However, despite these provisions in the legislation, the

relationship between the three spheres of government is problematic in practice (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2002: 3). There is inadequate co-ordination and co-operation between the levels of government (Service Delivery Review, 2004). This has clearly impacted on effective service delivery in South Africa. This is elaborated on in Chapter Five of the study.

In this respect, Section 92(2) of the Constitution (1996) states that political leadership (members of the South African Cabinet) is accountable, collectively and individually, to the South African Parliament for the exercise of its powers and the performance of its functions. In its broadest sense, it can be stated that accountability is an obligation to expose, explain and justify actions. It can be further stated that public accountability demands that the actions of the public service be publicized to encourage public debate and criticism. Efforts are being made to promote accountability and transparency in South Africa. Consequently, politicians have been directly involved in community concerns and needs (Service Delivery Review, 2003). A number of campaigns have been launched towards this end. Nonetheless, it is not yet fully operational in all quarters of the South African public service. Again, this is discussed in Chapter Five of the study.

Section 133 of the Constitution (1996) similarly provides for the accountability of members of the Executive Council of a Province in South Africa (EXCO). Sections 215 and 216 explicitly require transparency and accountability in the budgetary processes of all three spheres of the South African government, and on both the revenue and expenditure sides. Section 216 requires the treasury to ensure expenditure control. Section 195(1) moreover requires the public service to provide the public with timely, accessible and accurate information about finances, to encourage transparency.

The Public Finance Management Act, 1999 (Act 1 of 1999) (PFMA) (as amended) and the Treasury Regulations (2001) further strengthen these provisions. They include a high standard of professional ethics and demands for increased accountability. This also entails the efficient, effective and economic use of resources. PFMA provides a firm legal framework in respect of the accountability by managers in the public service and in respect of transparency in national and provincial spheres of government in South Africa.

The provisions of the Constitution (1996) indicate that public administration ought to respond to the needs of the country's citizens, which promotes their participation in policy-making. The Constitution (1996) also focuses on human resources management and career-development practices. Human resources management and development is necessary to maximize human potential. Human resources practices ought to be based on ability, objectivity, fairness and the need to redress the imbalances and inequities of the past to achieve broad representation. In this regard, the need for representivity is the focal point in public administration (A Report of the State of the Public Service, 2001: 11). These principles are applicable to every sphere of the South African government. A range of dynamic mechanisms has been put in place to promote human resources development and representivity, in particular the Skills Development Act, 1998, (Act 97 of 1998) and the Employment Equity Act, 1998 (Act 55 of 1998). The former aims to develop human resources through various initiatives, such as training, mentoring and coaching. The South African public service too has intensified training and development to improve its ability to effectively deliver services to society. The latter aims to promote representivity in the South African public service to, address existing personnel imbalances and inequities.

It can be stated that the political leadership (politicians) and administrative leadership (public servants) in the South African public service ought to be held accountable for their actions to their constituencies and their superiors, respectively and, more broadly, to the public. Accountability should focus on compliance with rules and ethical principles, and on the achievement of results. Moreover, mechanisms for ensuring accountability ought to be established for use internally in the South African public service. Mechanisms promoting accountability can be designed to provide adequate controls, while allowing for appropriately flexible management. This clearly needs to be strengthened (Service Delivery Review, 2003).

Another important principle that the Constitution (1996) enshrines in order to promote service delivery is responsibility and responsiveness. Responsibility in its simplest form means the duty of a leader to carry out a specific piece of work allocated to him or her (Cloete, 1986: 17). Responsibility can also mean the manner in which a leader carries out tasks, the values he or she attaches to these tasks, and in what way he or she considers the values of followers within the institution. The purpose of responsible and

effective leadership and governance in the public service is to improve the general welfare of the public through service delivery. Therefore, the actions of political leadership (political office-bearers) and administrative leadership (public servants) in South Africa should be to the advantage of the individual as well as the community.

The Constitution (1996) is an important mechanism that can be used to promote service delivery in South Africa. It is important that effective tools be used to promote this end, such as the adoption of efficient approaches. The adoption of a leadership and governance framework can promote the active involvement of various stakeholders in public service delivery community projects. The South African public service is pursuing this avenue. For example, community policing is an important strategy to sustain law and order in South African communities (Service Delivery Review, 2003). These approaches are explored in Chapter Five below. Furthermore, the values of responsiveness, equity, transparency and accountability ought to be integrated within a leadership and governance framework to be adopted by the public service.

Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP)

Before the 1994 elections in South Africa, the African National Congress (ANC) produced a document outlining its programme for reconstruction and development to meet the basic needs of all citizens in South Africa (White Paper, Reconstruction and Development Programme, 1994). The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), was adopted after the first democratic elections in 1994. This White Paper expressed the South African government's view of the RDP "Base Document", which re-affirmed the South African constitutional principles of equity, responsiveness, transparency and accountability, while also committing the South African government to greater efficiency and effectiveness in its activities to promote service delivery. The Paper identifies meeting the basic needs of all people through more effective service delivery. The basic needs of people range from job creation, land and agrarian reform to housing, water and sanitation, energy supplies, transport, nutrition, education, health care, the environment, social welfare and security.

The RDP (1994) identified institutional transformation and reform as essential to redressing service delivery imbalances and inequities. A sustainable public service is

essential to improving the ability of the public service to deliver its services to society, and especially to previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa (White Paper on the Reconstruction and Development of 1994). With the adoption of the RDP, a policy framework was developed. This defined the role of the new South African public service, identifying the need to improve service delivery in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa as its main programme for implementing the RDP. This framework places considerable emphasis on a public service, which is responsive to the needs of all citizens.

The RDP (1994) explicitly identified the need for greater integration between strategic and operational planning and budgeting processes (White Paper, Reconstruction and Development Programme 1994). It also emphasizes the need for performance monitoring systems as part of the accountability mechanism. It emphasizes the need for sustainable macroeconomic balances, in an effort to transform both the South African public service and society. The document stresses the cultivation of effective human resources management (HRM) and career development practices, to maximize human potential. It also emphasizes that public administration ought to be broadly representative of the South African people. Moreover, the document focuses on employment and personnel practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness and the need to overcome the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation in the South African public service.

Given the personnel imbalances in terms of race and gender, which existed in the South African public service prior to 1994, one of the main priorities of the South African government has been to ensure that the South African public service becomes more representative of the demographic composition and diversity of the South African society (White Paper, Reconstruction and Development Programme, 1994). This is an important political and administrative imperative and is also entrenched in Article 9(2) of the Constitution (1996) as follows: “Equality includes the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms. To promote the achievement of equality, legislative and other measures designed to protect or advance persons or categories of persons disadvantaged by unfair discrimination may be taken.” The RDP (1994) does however indicate that these measures are interim measures designed to speed up the process of achieving

equality in South Africa. In other words, these measures will fall away once equality is reached.

It can be argued that public services are not a privilege in a civilized and democratic society, but in fact a legitimate expectation by society. This is clearly spelt out in the RDP, which furthermore reinforces the important principles outlined in the Constitution (1996). In this regard, accountability, transparency, equity and responsiveness are highlighted as crucial elements in improving service delivery in South Africa.

White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (WPTPS)(1995)

The White Paper on the Transformation on Public Service (WPTPS), was released in November 1995. It provides a conceptual framework for the transformation of the public service. Public service transformation is one of the top priorities on the agenda of the South African government (White Paper on the Transformation on Public Service 1995). The purpose of the White Paper is to provide a policy framework to guide the introduction of new policies and legislation aimed at public service transformation in South Africa (White Paper on the Transformation on Public Service 1995). It forms a coherent guide to inform, manage and drive the transformation process. The goals set out in the White Paper on the Transformation on Public Service (WPTPS) (1995) were entrenched in Section 195 (1) of the *Constitution of South Africa (1996)*, which sets out the basic values and principles governing public administration. The principles apply to public administration in every sphere of government.

In accordance with the government's vision to improve and redress service delivery, a number of important aspects are identified in the White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service (WPTPS) (1995). These include the respect for the rule of law and human rights. Other crucial issues that are highlighted include a strong emphasis on normative issues, for example morals and values, such as honesty. The need for a transparent and an accountable government and administration, are key factors that are outlined in the document.

To promote public service delivery in South Africa, a number of objectives have been set out by the White Paper on the Transformation on Public Service (WPTPS) (1995).

The most important objectives are to formulate policies, which are well founded on relevant data, coherent and well coordinated. Furthermore, policies should be fully and prudently costed, to ensure value for money and prioritised within available resources. Another crucial objective is to facilitate the efficient and effective implementation of such policies and to ensure that they are regularly monitored and reviewed.

The White Paper (1995) focuses on strengthening the leadership echelon in the South African public service. The White Paper (1995) indicates the need for a corresponding strengthening of leadership responsibility and accountability for results (Peete 2001:15). Furthermore, the White Paper focuses on intensifying the modernization of the public service. The development of specific implementation strategies is the responsibility of individual departments and provincial administrations in the South African public service. In devising such strategies, such departments and administrations have been able to draw upon a variety of policy and legislative interventions designed to give the transformation process additional momentum in the South African public service.

The White Paper on the Transformation on Public Service (WTPPS) (1995) has been the cornerstone of the South African government's efforts to improve and redress service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa, since its promulgation in 1995. The vision, mission and goals of the White Paper (1995) is premised on a fundamental redefinition of the role of the South African public service and its relationship with civil society, based on a partnership between them rather than the antagonistic relations that had prevailed in the past. The White Paper (1995) is the base for a major shift from the former mechanical classical model of public administration (White Paper on the Transformation on Public Service 1995). In the previous system of governance (pre-1994), there was an emphasis on centralization, hierarchy, the procedural observance of rules and regulations and insulation from the public towards a more organic, strategic, developmental and adaptive model of public administration under the new dispensation (post 1994).

In this regard, the devolution of decision-making power was considered to be important by the South African government to promote service delivery (White Paper on the Transformation on Public Service 1995). In accordance with the White Paper (1995), there is currently the democratisation of internal work procedures in the public service

(Service Delivery Review 2003:2). In addition, the public service focuses on the establishment of flatter institutional structures. An emphasis is placed on the introduction of improved forms of co-operation and co-ordination (both vertical and horizontal) within the South African public service. The development of teamwork and a programme-based approach to work is also considered to be important by the South African public service. This is similar to the team model approach to leadership discussed in chapter four of the study. In this regard, the development of new forms of task-related rather than rule-bound cultures is being examined by the South African public service (Service Delivery Review 2003).

To improve service delivery, the White Paper (1995) requires national and provincial departments in South Africa to identify a number of aspects (Ncholo 2000:90). These include a mission statement for service delivery, together with service agreements. The paper also requires service standards, defined outputs and targets and performance indicators, which are benchmarked against comparable international standards. Moreover, the paper demands that plans for staffing, human resource development (HRD) and institution capacity building, which are tailored, to service delivery needs be prepared by the public service.

The White Paper (1995), stresses that the effective mobilization, development and utilization of human resources (Ncholo 2000:90). Leadership is not only an important transformation goal, in building individual and institutional capacity for effective governance but is also critical for the success of service delivery. A coherent and holistic strategy for human resources management (HRM) and human resources development (HRD) is therefore essential.

The White Paper (1995), provides a framework to enable national and provincial departments in South Africa to develop departmental service delivery strategies (White Paper on the Transformation on Public Service 1995). These strategies will need to promote continuous improvements in the quantity, quality and equity of service provision. The introduction of a service delivery improvement programmes cannot be achieved in isolation from other fundamental management changes within the South African public service. It must be part of a shift of culture, where leaders see themselves first and foremost as servants of the public of South Africa, and where the South

African public service is managed with service to the public as its primary goal. To implement a service delivery programme successfully, public service leaders require new management tools. In this respect, effective leadership is imperative to promote the goals of the South African public service.

It could be stated that the White Paper (1995), was firmly located within the broad developmental and people-driven paradigm established by the South African government's Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). There is however a deviation to the developmental approach to the adoption of new public management (NPM) principles by the South African government. The South African government has privatised parastatals, contracted-out state services on a competitive basis to the private sector and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), especially on a partnership basis. Furthermore, the public service is embarking on a number of new public management (NPM) initiatives to reduce the costs.

A draft framework on service delivery innovation has been developed and consulted upon (Service Delivery Review 2003:6). The issues addressed in the framework include shared services, a call centre, corporatisation and commercialisation. Managerialist approaches are implemented in varying forms and configurations and with varying degrees of success, by different public service departments in South Africa (Ncholo 2000:90). Although some of these approaches are being presented as 'the only right way', recent research and evaluation reflects that not all these concepts have universal application. In this regard Ncholo (2000:90), argues that different types of approaches are suitable to different types of institutions, depending on context, type of service, capacity and resource availability. This should definitely be taken into account within the South African public service context. In this respect, the need for the integration of local culture is constantly highlighted throughout the study.

The Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) in South Africa is committed to pursuing initiatives that fit with local peculiarities, resource constraints and capacity (Peete 2001:16). It recently planned on adopting the approach of "global challenges, local solutions" to ensure it is not ignorant of global developments but remains equally focused on local solutions for the South African public service (Peete 2001:16).

A framework is sketched out in the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (WPTPS) (1995) and is developed in much greater detail in a number of subsequent policy documents, including the White Paper on Public Service Training and Education (1997), Human Resources Management (1997), Affirmative Action (1998) and the Batho Pele-‘People First’ White Paper on the Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997). The White Paper is only the first of a number of policy documents that guides and informs the on-going process of transformation and reform in the South African public service. This broad policy framework has been translated into specific strategies for change in the South African public service (Public Service Delivery 2003).

In light of the above-mentioned, it can be argued that these initiatives undertaken by the South African public service are important milestones for improving and redressing service delivery. These initiatives are important in improving the ability of the public service to deliver services to the South African society, especially previously disadvantaged communities.

Batho Pele -‘People First’ White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997)

Whilst there are numerous policy documents on improved, economical, efficient service delivery in South Africa, the most important of these is the Batho Pele -‘People First’ White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997). The ‘Batho Pele’ (People First) initiative aims to enhance the quality and accessibility of government services by improving efficiency and accountability to the recipients of public goods and services. Its purpose is to provide a policy framework and practical implementation strategy for the transformation of service delivery by the South African public service (Batho Pele - ‘People First’ White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997). It is primarily about how public services are provided, and specifically about improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the way in which services are delivered. It sets out what services are to be provided, their quantity, level and quality. In this regard, it can be argued that a transformed South African public service will be judged by one criterion

above all, namely, service delivery that meets the basic needs of all South African citizens (Peete, 2001: 14).

In line with the Constitutional principles, the 'Batho Pele' White Paper (1997) calls on national and provincial departments in South Africa to improve service delivery in previously disadvantaged communities. It calls for a shift away from bureaucratic systems, processes and attitudes of public administration, that were adopted under the previous South African government prior to 1994, towards new approaches of working. The emphasis is placed on better, faster and more responsive service delivery. It puts the needs of the public first, which is clearly evident in the South African government's new strategies of working directly with communities to promote efficiency and effectiveness.

To promote service delivery, the 'Batho Pele' White Paper (1997) requires national and provincial departments in the South African public service to include plans for the introduction of continuous quality improvement techniques, in line with a total quality management approach. The monitoring and evaluation mechanisms and structures designed to measure progress and introduce corrective action are highlighted as appropriate in this study. The redirection of human and other resources from administrative tasks to service provision, particularly for disadvantaged groups and areas, is crucial. Another significant aspect is financial planning that link budgets directly to service needs and personnel plans. More importantly, potential partnerships with the private sector, NGOs and CBOs provide more effective forms of service delivery. The development, particularly through training, of a culture of customer care and of approaches to service delivery that are sensitive to issues of race, gender and disability, are also considered to be also important.

The 'Batho Pele' White Paper (1997) implies making decisions about the services that should be provided. Another important aspect is treating citizens with consideration and respect. In this regard, the public service needs to make sure that the promised level and quality of services are always of the highest standard. The 'Batho Pele' White Paper (1997) requires the public service to respond swiftly and sympathetically when standards of public services fall below the promised levels.

To this end, eight principles were adopted to ensure customer orientation and optimal service delivery (Batho Pele -‘People First’ White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery 1997:12). These principles include:

- (i) *Consultation*: Citizens should be consulted about the level and quality of the public services they receive. They should, wherever possible, be given a choice about the services they offered.
- (ii) *Service standards*: Citizens should be told what level and quality of the public services they receive and should, wherever possible, be given a choice about the services they are offered.
- (iii) *Access*: All citizens should have equal access to the service to which they are entitled.
- (iv) *Courtesy*: Citizens should be treated with courtesy and consideration.
- (v) *Information*: Citizens should be given accurate information about the public services they are entitled to receive.
- (vi) *Openness and transparency*: Citizens should be told how national and provincial departments are run. They should also be told about how much they cost, and who is in charge.
- (vii) *Redress*: If the promised standard of service is not delivered by the public service, citizens should be offered an apology. A full explanation and a speedy and effective remedy are thus necessary.
- (viii) *Value for money*: Public services should be provided economically and efficiently in order to give citizens the best possible value for money. The ‘Batho Pele’ White Paper (1997) thus states that people should be put first, in ensuring effective service delivery. It aims at treating citizens as customers, which implies listening to their views, and taking them into consideration.

The ‘Batho Pele’ White Paper has been enthusiastically received and has become an effective brand name that signifies the intention to improve service delivery; however, its implementation is slow (Service Delivery Review, 2001). A recent study in the South African public service found that fifty seven percent of leaders did not know about the ‘Batho Pele’ principles. A further ninety four percent had not received any training in using the ‘Batho Pele’ principles, and sixty three percent said that they had never received any information about them. The actual implementation of all these principles

in the short-to-medium term clearly remains a challenge. This is re-iterated by Soobrayan (2004: Discussion), who argues that the South African government's 'Batho Pele' White Paper and more importantly the principles espoused in it, have not been effectively implemented.

In 2000, the Public Service Commission commissioned a study to explore compliance with the 'Batho Pele' Policy (Citizen Satisfaction Survey: Overview Report 2001/2002, 2003: 9). The survey found that, contrary to the policy, citizens are seldom consulted about their needs. Citizens are typically not aware of the standards of service they should be demanding. Accessibility to services also remains a challenge, especially in previously disadvantaged communities. Although courtesy standards had been set in departments, where such complaint handling centres existed, the PSC was unable to measure whether these standards are being met, as they had not canvassed the opinions of their clients. There were gaps in communication between the departments and the communities they served. Citizens were not kept abreast of the performance of either provincial or national departments. Limited efforts had been made to establish complaint handling. In departments where they existed, they rarely functioned effectively. With respect to performance and value for money, very few departments undertook meaningful analyses. Evidently, although the South African public service had undergone tremendous changes, by 1997 it was still operating within an over-centralized, hierarchical and rule-bound system, which had been inherited from the previous dispensation. This made it difficult to hold individuals accountable (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion).

A number of reasons can be cited for the ineffective implementation of the 'Batho Pele' White Paper (Service Delivery Review, 2001). It is clear that the process of setting measurable service standards and adhering to them is a challenge. This is mainly due to inexperience and insufficient knowledge by leadership in departments, about setting service standards and what adherence to service standards aims to achieve (Service Delivery Review, 2001). It can also be attributed to a number of inadequacies, such as a shortage of human resources in key service delivery departments in the South African public service, such as the Department of Health.

The South African government is, nonetheless, committed to “continually improving the lives of the people of South Africa by a transformed public service, which is representative, coherent, transparent, efficient, effective, accountable and responsive to the needs of all.” (Batho Pele - ‘People First’ White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery 1997:12). A strategy was thus being developed by the DPSA to revitalize the ‘Batho Pele’ White Paper during 2001. In addition, to encourage service delivery and service delivery innovation, a Centre for Public Service Innovation was established to incubate and pilot innovative projects developed by public servants and private companies (Service Delivery Review, 2003). The effectiveness of this Centre could not be determined by 2003. It is too short a time to give an accurate assessment. Leadership can also play a critical role by shaping the implementation, management and monitoring of policies as they impact on service delivery. This is essential for ensuring that public policies are appropriately targeted to meet the service delivery needs of the community.

Since 2001, the DPSA requires that national and provincial departments outline their short-, medium- and long-term goals for service provision (Chandu, 2003: Discussion). The public service is also required to provide regular reports on their service delivery achievements to their respective legislatures. The Public Service Commission (PSC) had been monitoring progress in the public service. However, according to Chandu (2003: Discussion) the study suggests a lot more needs to be done to strengthen the monitoring and evaluation mechanisms of the PSC.

The challenge that confronts the South African public service is that of exploring frameworks, which could be utilized to address local issues and challenges scientifically and systematically. Furthermore, there are a number of challenges that directly and indirectly impact on service delivery performance, which ought to be urgently dealt with, for example human resources challenges, communication and co-ordination of policy. It can be argued that the ‘Batho Pele’ White Paper (1997) is an important instrument for transforming public service delivery in South Africa. It is also an important instrument in transforming an inefficient bureaucracy with a focus on rules, to a culture of customer care. In this respect, the needs of all citizens of South Africa should be served irrespective of their race, gender or creed. The ‘Batho Pele’ principles are very broad. Their implementation will thus require concrete and specific strategies.

An effective leadership and governance framework should furthermore be aligned to the 'Batho Pele' principles to improve service delivery by the South African public service.

SUMMARY

In conclusion, we have seen that the post apartheid South African public service has adopted some elements of the NPM paradigm. However, the model may also vary within the three spheres of government, due to situational factors such as diverse political perspectives. There are several rationales for the replacement of the classical public administration model by the NPM paradigm in South Africa. These include the realization that, in order to improve service delivery performance, the public service ought to be more managerial, rather than administrative. Furthermore, the changes in government in South Africa, the effects of globalisation and the scale and scope of the public service necessitated this replacement. The South African public service has therefore instituted a series of changes and introduced an array of policies to improve service delivery.

The trends of NPM must be considered in the broader context of reform and transformation in the South African public service. However, even though reform and transformation have been advocated in the South African public service since 1994, in certain departments' service delivery remains a challenge. Elements from the classical public administration model are still entrenched hampering effective public service delivery. There are also criticisms and challenges facing the NPM paradigm in the South African public service. In order to increase the validity and reliability of the present research, these issues are explored further in Chapter Five. This study will continue with a literature review in Chapter Four. Such a literature review is necessary to gain greater insight into the different approaches of leadership and governance.

CHAPTER 4: AN OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

INTRODUCTION

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

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

A PLETHORA OF LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Leadership functions

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

TRADITIONAL AFRICAN LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

CLASSICAL WESTERN LEADERSHIP APPROACHES (1841 TO 1987)

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 4/1

Evolutionary stages of leadership approaches (1841 to 1987)

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

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

(1) Personality era

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 4/2

Studies of leadership traits (1948 to 1991)

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

(Adapted from Northouse, 2001: 18)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(2) Influence era

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

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

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

(3) Behaviour era

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 4/3

Personality characteristics and behaviours of leaders and its effects on followers

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

(Adapted from Lourens 2001:29)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(4) Situational era

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

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

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

(5) Contingency era

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

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

Contingency theory

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Figure 4/1: Contingency model of leadership

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

(Northouse 2001:77)

*(LPC refers to least preferred co-worker)

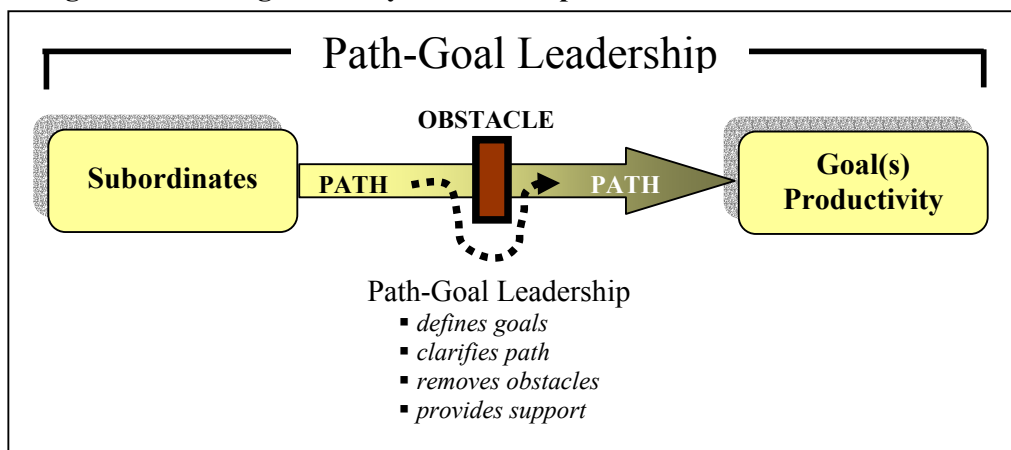
It is important to note that, in terms of the contingency theory, leaders will not be effective in all situations. The contingency approaches have generated strong empirical support as well as controversy, but they are still used in contemporary leadership studies. Nonetheless, there are drawbacks with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

Path-goal theory

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

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

Figure 4/2: Path-goal theory of leadership



(House 1971:320)

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

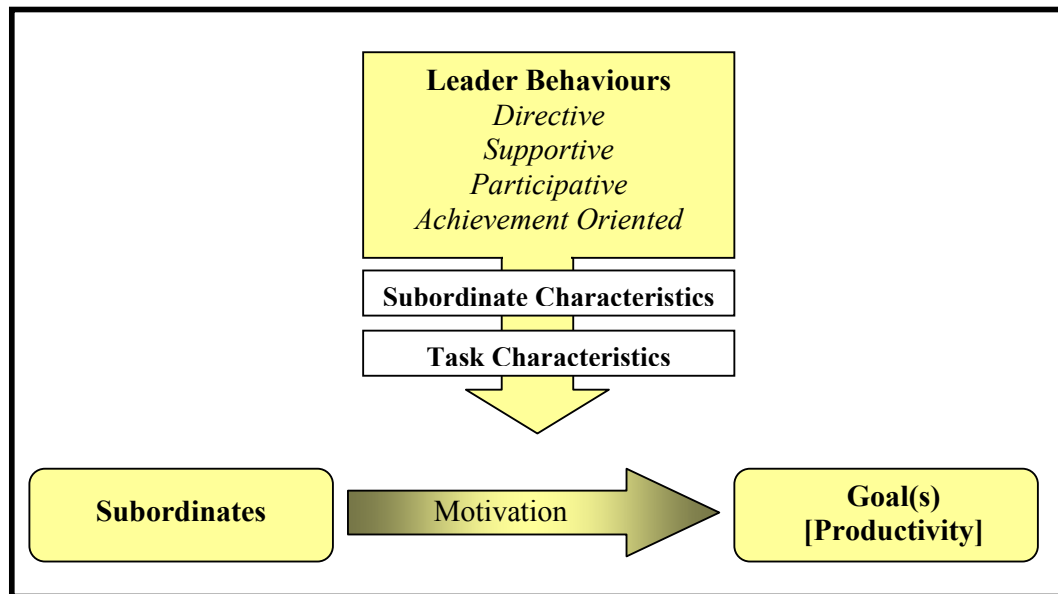
Path-goal theory is explicitly left open to the inclusion of other variables. Many different leadership behaviours could be selected to be part of it, such as directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours (see Figure 4/3). Firstly, according to House (1971: 321),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

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

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

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

Figure 4/3: Leadership behaviours in path-goal theory



(House 1971: 321)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

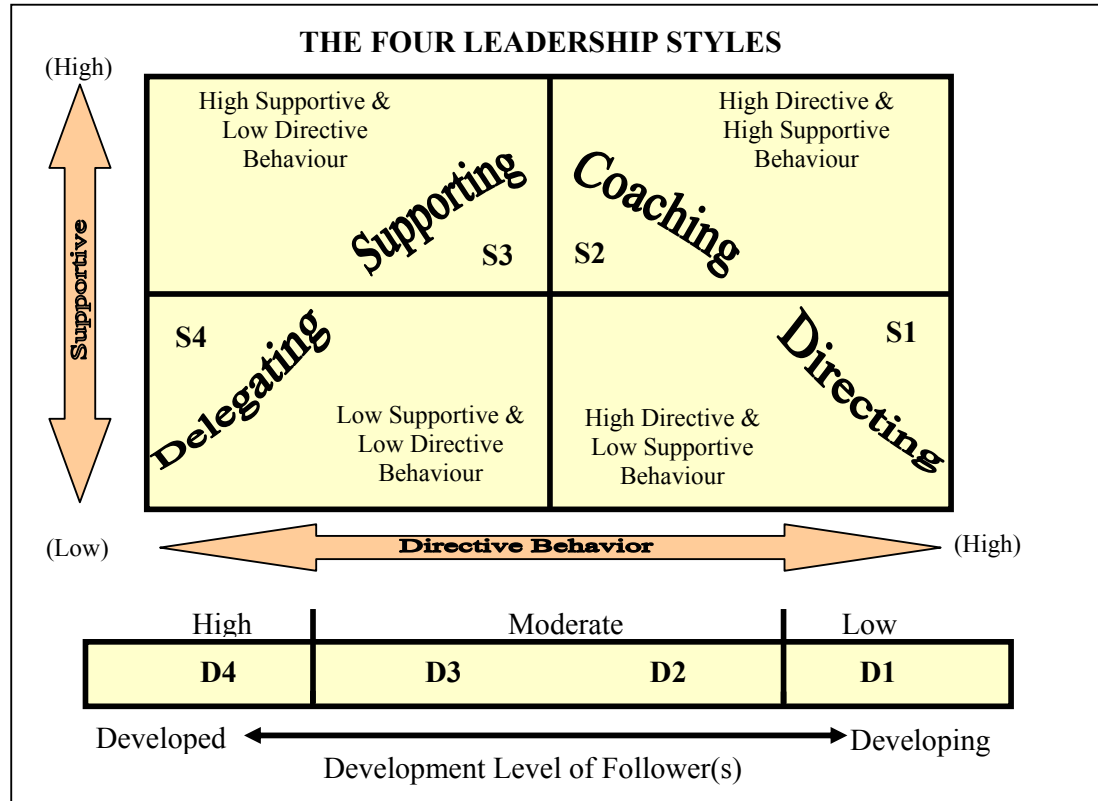
Situational theory

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

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

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

Figure 4/4: Leadership styles



(Northouse 2001:56)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

(6) Transactional era

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

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

Leader-member exchange theory

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

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

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

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

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

Social exchange theory and the role-making model

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

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

(7) Anti-leadership era

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

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

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

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

(8) Culture era

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

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

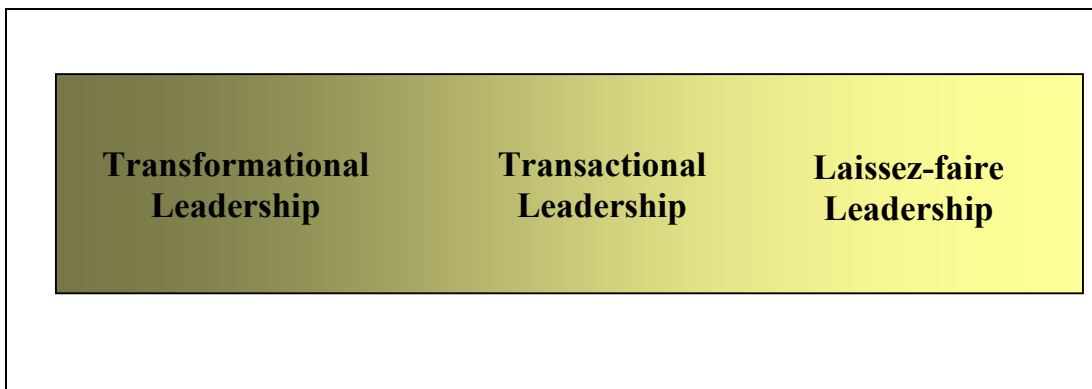
(9) Transformational era

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

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

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

Figure 4/5: Leadership continuum



(Northouse, 2001: 135)

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

Transformational leadership theory

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

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

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

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

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

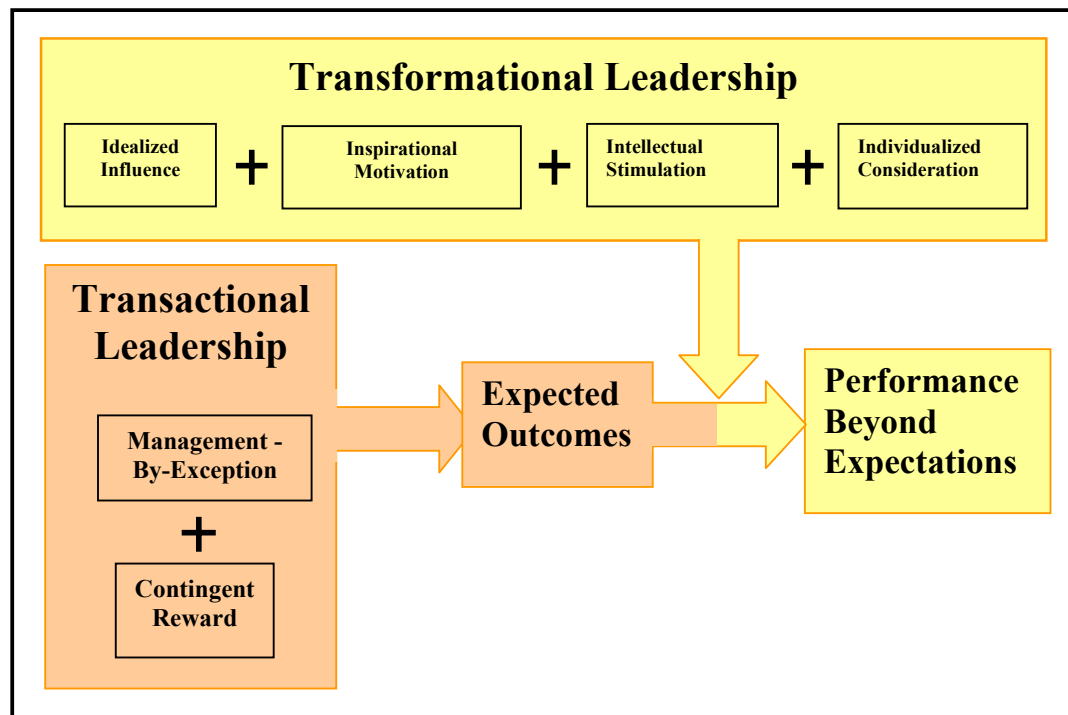
self-interest for the sake of the team or institution, and (iii) motivating followers to address higher-level needs. Rost (1993: 121), in describing transformational leadership, consistently developed the notion that leaders shape, alter and elevate the motives, values and goals of followers through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

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

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

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

Figure 4/ 6: Components of transformational leadership



(Adapted from Ozaralli, 2003: 335)

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

Figure 4/7: Leadership factors

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

(Bryman, 1992: 50)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Transactional leadership theory

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

POST-1985 WESTERN LEADERSHIP APPROACHES

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

Team leadership

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

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

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

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

Adair (2003: 74) reports that successful team leaders will be individualistic and will encourage challenges. Based on the evidence presented by Adair (2003: 74) and Northouse (2001: 162), it may appear on the surface that shared leadership is challenging, in that accountability is, shared by team members. In the practical sense, this may present numerous difficulties within the South African public service, such as evasion of responsibility for service delivery performance. In a group, the leader should thus remain ultimately accountable. It is also important to examine how teams operate and why some teams succeed and others fail.

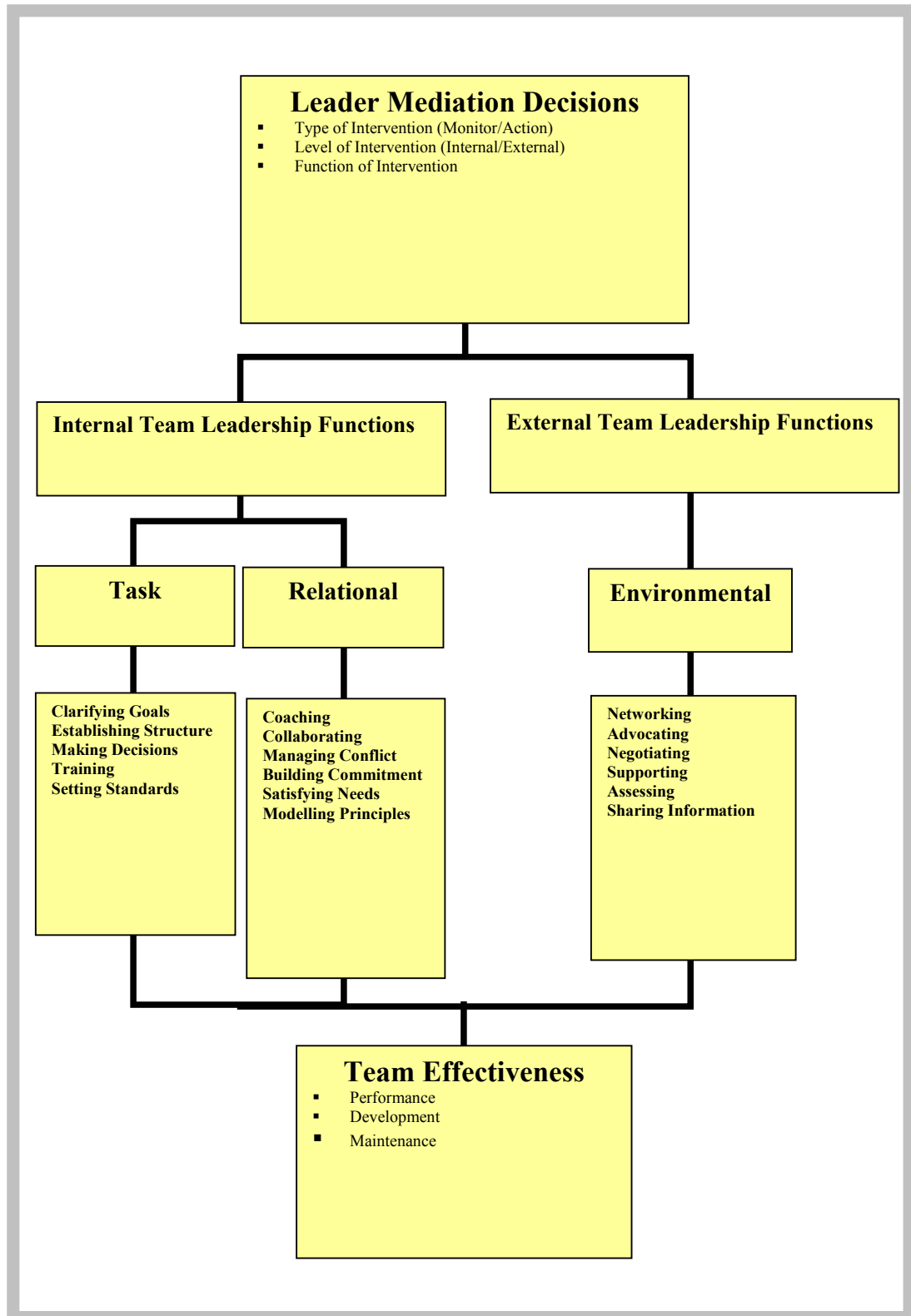
The effectiveness of a leader lies in the degree to which the team follows him or her and his or her instructions (Northouse, 2001: 163). The degree to which the team executes its tasks will determine the team's success. In this process, both the leader and the group will influence each other and thus every person may to some degree be regarded as a leader. However, the question remains as to the degree to which the leader exercises an influence. From the discussion earlier on leadership approaches (pre-1985) the evidence suggests that, the extent to which a leader can influence the group will depend on his or her style, type of leadership behaviour and contextual factors. It would be important to

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

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

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

Figure 4/8: Model of team leadership



(Ozaralli, 2003: 341)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

WESTERN GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

FUNDAMENTALS OF EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE

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

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

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

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

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

Accountability

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Transparency and access to information

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

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

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

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

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

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

Human resources management, development and training

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Information and communication technology (ICT)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Table 4/4

Stages of electronic-governance

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

INTEGRATION OF LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE APPROACHES

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

SUMMARY

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

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

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

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

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

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS OF SELECTED CASES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE

INTRODUCTION

The present debate in the South African public service on the issue of improving service delivery, takes place in the context of a changing public service. Analysts argue that service delivery is not being addressed at the pace that is needed in South Africa to redress service backlogs, especially in previously disadvantaged communities. This chapter examines service delivery by four selected South African public service departments, i.e. namely: Departments of Health, Justice and Constitutional Development, Housing, and Safety and Security. The service delivery initiatives and the outcomes thereof from 1994 to 2003 are examined to determine whether the public service has achieved the service delivery objectives set out by government.

A number of positive initiatives are currently being undertaken by all South African public service departments to redress service delivery imbalances and inequities, especially in previously disadvantaged communities. However, the study suggests that, although progress has been made, certain areas of service delivery do require improved performance by the public service.

The study suggests that effective approaches are needed. An effective leadership and governance framework is thus suggested for possible adoption by the South African public service. This proposed framework draws on the positive attributes of both Western and traditional African leadership and governance approaches. Every society has its distinct political, cultural and social traditions and principles, which are critical to that society's survival. It is these unique political, social and cultural benchmarks that form the bedrock for efficient, effective and economical public administration in society. This study highlights the importance of these unique benchmarks in the South African public service. In addition, this study points to the need to address factors impacting on the sustainability of the public service, which slows service delivery.

In this chapter, a selective overview of service delivery by the South African public service is thus discussed. The initiatives by the Departments of Health, Housing, Justice

and Constitutional Development and Safety and security are also discussed. An analysis and findings of the four cases are then examined and discussed extensively.

Selective overview of service delivery by the South African public service

Since 1994, a number of initiatives have been undertaken to improve public service delivery in South Africa. In 2003, the so-called cluster review, which was conducted by the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) on the basic minimum service provision, found that the South African public service programmes to address deprivation in health, education, housing, land, basic services, such as water and sanitation, electricity and access to credit are well conceived and potentially well targeted (Department of Public Service and Administration 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/issues/imbizo/2002>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). In another review conducted by the South African government, it was found that service delivery programmes have broadened access to services, thereby improving the lives of millions of people in South Africa (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). Analysts argue however that service delivery still requires much improved performance by the public service (Molopo, 2003: Discussion). A number of programmes currently being undertaken by the South African public service are therefore outlined and analysed to determine the actual state of service delivery in South Africa.

At the level of local government, the Municipal Infrastructure Investment Framework (MIIF) was prepared in 1995 (White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service, 1995: 1). The MIIF set out to estimate public service backlogs. In addition, it aimed at assess the capital costs involved in removing service backlogs. The MIIF also focused on calculating the recurrent costs of operating and maintaining the services. It proposed a framework for financing the capital and recurrent costs of municipal infrastructure programmes, and methods of enhancing the institutional ability of municipalities, to ensure that services are delivered. The MIIF suggested how investment in, and the management of, municipal services could be used to promote the development objectives specified in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP). This is an innovative approach to planning, policy-making, financing and implementation in the local sphere of government.

At the level of provincial government, an Integrated Provincial Support Programme (IPSP) was designed in 2003, to provide support to five provincial administrations in South Africa (Service Delivery Review, 2003). The aim is to improve the effective rendering of public services by public service departments at a provincial level. The programme focuses on capacity building and the sharing of experiences to promote effective public administration. For example, the IPSP has taken services provided by the South African Police Service (SAPS) by means of an effective mobile unit to remote rural areas in the former Venda area (South African Yearbook 2003/2004). Similar achievements are noted in other provinces, such as in the Eastern Cape, where a mobile mechanism for registering Child Support Grant beneficiaries in remote rural areas is managed through IPSP support. In this manner, services are brought closer to the communities, which also ensures that services are provided for a smaller group and a more homogenous community. This contributes to the overall efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery. It also provides for the depoliticisation of the provision of services at a community level, while promoting the participation and involvement of communities regarding service provision. This research study, however suggests that human resources constraints pose a major challenge in meeting service delivery outcomes objectives.

The South African public service is responding to service delivery challenges by exploring and implementing alternative methods of service delivery (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). There is a trend in both the provinces and the municipalities to use public-private partnerships (PPPs) as a way of meeting its service delivery objectives. This approach mainly uses the expertise, investment and management capacity of the private sector to develop infrastructure, as well as to improve and extend efficient services to communities (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2001: 256). PPPs are increasingly being used in South Africa to provide services on a cost-effective and efficient basis. However, this study has found that South Africa is still at an early stage of learning which types of PPPs are appropriate for which programmes. It is thus critical for the South African public service to apply principles of effective governance to the future development of PPPs in South Africa, and to ensure that these principles are genuinely appropriate to the context in which PPPs are operational.

It is clear that a new view is emerging on the role of the South African public service. Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2001: 256) argue that the role of the public service is not to provide all the services to society but to make sure that everything that falls within its scope is done. This represents an important shift away from the classical public administration model in the South African public service as it implies that it is not only the public service's obligation to provide services but to oversee that they are actually delivered. The traditional inefficiencies of public service provision, fiscal constraints and scarce resources are the motivation for the South African public service embarking on this route. Consequently, the South African public service is embarking on partnerships with both business and civil society, including community organisations, voluntary organisations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). At a practical level, however, trade unions in South Africa have resisted PPPs because they are apprehensive that PPPs will reduce jobs. Service users, too, have sometimes expressed concern about having service providers who are driven by profit motives.

The focus of the South African public service is now on collaborative partnerships and alliances to improve service delivery. The public service is also improving civic governance, which is the regular citizen interaction and participation of communities in service delivery (Van Wyk, *et al.* 2002: 3). It has become evident that these partnerships are empowering communities and encouraging economic development. The public service is focusing on practical implementation to ensure that communities become involved in matters that affect them. An example of this trend towards regular interaction with stakeholders outside government is the institutionalisation of both large- and medium- sized emerging contractor programmes in a number of municipalities in South Africa. In the project on the electrification of the Jouberton project in Klerksdorp, Gauteng for example, local township residents were trained to install power connections to twenty thousand households (Van Wyk, *et al.* 2003: 3). The municipality of Tekweni in KwaZulu-Natal, as another example, has transferred responsibility for refuse removal to a group of thirty-five small entrepreneurs, using local labour in newly incorporated Black suburbs. In 1999, the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Department of Transport launched the Zibambele Road Maintenance System. This programme employs citizens from severely disadvantaged households in rural KwaZulu-Natal to maintain the gravel roads that give villages' access to the city. By

means of innovative service delivery strategies, communities are empowered to take responsibility for the manner in which their quality of life is improved.

As another example, in the Northern Cape, the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWAFF), in partnership with provincial, local government and communities, subsidize the installation of toilets and the provision of health education for many rural villages (Van Wyk, *et al.* 2002: 4). Through such partnerships with the communities, service delivery is becoming more successful. In 2002, the South African public service has provided improved sanitation to approximately 2,3 million people. From June 1994 to July 2003 the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry has delivered water to a total of nine million people in rural areas in South Africa. (Service Delivery Review, 2003). Nationwide, the South African government has supplied water to approximately a total of sixteen million people through housing and urban programmes (South African Yearbook 2003/2004). These initiatives suggest that definite efforts are being made by the public service to ensure service delivery.

There has been tremendous growth in public projects that target the previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa, and public funds are being spent in order to promote infrastructural work (Van Wyk, *et al.* 2002: 3). In 2002, the President of South Africa, Mr. Thabo Mbeki, announced a new campaign in his State of Nation Address, called '*Vuk' uzenzele*', which means 'to arise and act' (South African Yearbook 2003/2004). This campaign is aimed at getting as many people as possible in South Africa involved in public service delivery programmes (State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, Houses of Parliament, Cape Town, February 2002) (Access<[http://www.sabcnews.state of the nation/address2](http://www.sabcnews.state%20of%20the%20nation/address2): *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). These efforts by the South African government are ultimately allowing communities to influence and take control of programmes and projects and in so doing encouraging them to become self-reliant.

In August 2003, the South African Cabinet approved the plan for the community development workers (CDWs) (State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, Houses of Parliament, Cape Town, February 2002) (Access<[://www.sabcnews.state of the nation/address2](http://www.sabcnews.state%20of%20the%20nation/address2): *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). This is called the '*Letsema*' campaign, which means to volunteer. The CDWs are an

additional type of public servants; they act as skilled facilitators, filling the gap between government services and the communities (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Briefing on Governance and Administration, Presented by Minister of Public Service and Administration, Ms Fraser-Moleketi, 4 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). The plan to deploy community development workers is intended to contribute to improved service delivery among previously disadvantaged communities (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). It is also intended to assist the poor to develop the capacity to organise themselves and participate in decision-making. With co-operative participation by public service and community, development in local communities can be ensured.

In accordance with this plan, members in the community are being trained as public servants to assist citizens with matters such as obtaining birth certificates, and identity documents, completing social-grant applications and starting up small businesses (South African Yearbook 2003/2004). The project involves that public servants go directly to the community (Interview of President Thabo Mbeki, SABC TV2, 16 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 23 October 2003*). For example, the South African public may not know about a child support grant that is being offered by the government. The project is thus designed to inform the public of services provided by the government. If a pensioner has not been receiving his or her pension, steps are taken to ensure that this happens. These public servants are working regularly in communities to redress public service imbalances and inequities. The reason for such an initiative is that there are often many people with low levels of education or who are illiterate in remote rural communities. This is a positive development towards responding to community needs by the South African public service. These new initiatives are indicative of innovative service delivery initiatives. However, the present study suggests has found a clear understanding of the social, political, economic and cultural profile of such a community is necessary to understand its specific characteristics and needs. It is also essential to analyse the resources already available within that community, and how these can, best be used to promote service delivery.

Between April and June 2002, another thirty thousand new child beneficiaries were registered for social grants (President's State of the Nation Address 2003)

(Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 23 October 2003). Communities in South Africa have heeded the call to participate in the 'Letsema' campaign (President's State of the Nation Address 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 23 October 2003). This means that the citizens have been selflessly volunteering their services to improve the lives of people in their communities. Research suggests that social grants are exceptionally well targeted (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). In other words, the programme is successful in achieving its goals and objectives. According to Soobrayan (2004: Discussion), this is as a result of the direct engagement between the South African public service and the citizens of the country. These engagements clearly demonstrate that in many rural villages and urban townships, citizens have for various reasons not been able to access the services and benefits offered by the public service. These projects, which are being undertaken by the South African public service, are valuable in assisting people who are unaware that they are entitled to certain benefits and services. They are also helpful in assisting citizens who experience difficulty with the complex procedures required by South Africa public service departments. These unique practices by the South African public service increase accessibility to public services and promote service delivery outcomes.

Moreover, through programmes, such as the 'Izimbizo' (outreach programme), the South African government, including the President, Cabinet Ministers, Premiers, Members of Executive Councils (MECs), mayors and councillors have been interacting with communities throughout South Africa to address service delivery needs in previously disadvantaged communities (President's State of the Nation Address, 2003). The South African public service is empowering people to take responsibility for the manner in which their quality of life is improved (Service Delivery Review, 2004). Community owned solutions are thus being encouraged (Chandu, 2003: Discussion), which is important in identifying the true needs of the community and addressing them. It also promotes trust between government and communities (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). The need for the public service to become more customer-focused and service oriented is emphasised.

There are numerous possibilities of improving service delivery, especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. The South African public service is

currently redefining its role in executing its activities in a responsive manner (Chandu, 2004: Discussion). The 'Izimbizo' and CDWs programmes have been introduced as a possible consideration in assisting the public service to cope with service delivery backlogs, especially in previously disadvantaged communities. The extent of success will however depend on the complex of political, economic and social realities that prevail in South Africa.

To present a balanced perspective of the South African public service, it is important to examine service delivery performance by selected South African public service departments. In examining the service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa, one cannot simplify the magnitude of tasks that face the South African public service. Furthermore, it is recognized that, there cannot be instant solutions in light of the injustices and massive inequalities propagated by the apartheid government.

An analysis of service delivery in housing, electricity, water, sanitation, from 1995 to 2001, from 1994 to 2003 and at 2003 reflects progress with respect to redressing service delivery imbalances and inequities in South Africa (Statistics South Africa's 1995 October Household Survey and 2001 Labour Force Survey; Reports from public service departments - December 2003). These results are summarised in Table 5/1, Table 5/2 and Table 5/3 respectively.

Table 5/1

Selected service delivery programmes from 1995 to 2001

Increasing Access To Public Service	1995	2001
Households Living In Formal Housing	65,8%	72,6%
Household Using Electricity As Main Source Of Lighting	63,5%	71,7%
Households With Tap Water As Main Source	78,5%	84,3%
Households With Flush Or Chemical Toilet	56,9%	58,3%

(Statistics South Africa's 1995 October Household Survey and 2001 Labour Force Survey)

Table 5/1 reflects that the provision of formal housing, electricity, water and sanitation, by the South African public service between from 1995 and 2001. The provision of housing improved from approximately sixty five percent to approximately seventy two percent. The provision of electricity improved from approximately sixty three percent to approximately seventy percent. The provision of water improved from approximately seventy eight percent to approximately eighty four percent. Sanitation improved from approximately fifty six percent to fifty eight percent. These are significant achievements by the public service towards improving service delivery.

Table 5/2

Selected service delivery programmes from 1994 to 2003

Output of social programmes	1994-1998	1999-2002	1994-2003
People Gaining Access To Clean Water (Community Supply Programme)	3,0 million	5,4 million	8,4 million
Number Of Connections To The Electricity Grid	2,3 million	1,5 million	3,8 million
Subsidized Houses Completed Under Construction	0,7 million	0,7 million	1,4 million

(South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004)

Table 5/2 reflects the actual number of people who benefited from improved and increased access to water, electricity and housing. With respect to the provision of water, from 1994 to 1998, three million people received clean water, between 1999 to 2002 approximately five million received water and from 1994 to 2003 the total number of people that received water was approximately eight million. With respect to the provision of electricity, between 1994 to 1998, two million people received electricity, between 1999 to 2002 approximately one million received electricity and from 1994 to 2003 the total number of people that received electricity was approximately 3,8 million. From 1994 to 1998, three million people received clean water, from 1999 to 2002 approximately five million and from 1994 to 2003 the total number of people was approximately eight million. From 1994 to 2002, the number of subsidized houses that were completed under construction where 0,7 million. At 2003, the number of

subsidized houses completed under construction increased to 1,4 million. Again, these statistics reflect significant achievements in redressing service delivery imbalances and inequities.

Table 5/3 reflects that approximately 1,9 million subsidies were approved by the Department of Housing for new houses. Forty nine percent of these subsidies were awarded to women, while six million citizens received housing. The South African government has a policy, which focuses on empowering women and youth, by giving preference to them, in for example housing subsidies.

Table 5/3

Selected service delivery housing programmes from 1994 to 2003

Housing programmes	Quantity
Subsidies Approved	1,985 Million Subsidies
Subsidies: Women	49% Subsidies
Housing Received	6 Million Citizens

(Towards a Ten Year Review 2003)

In light of the above, Table 5/1, Table 5/2 and Table 5/3 reflect that progress is being made with respect to redressing service delivery imbalances and inequities in the provision of housing, housing subsidies, electricity, water and sanitation in South Africa. The South African public service has broadened access to a number of basic services to society. Most evidence suggests that government has made progress in terms of service delivery (Towards a Ten Year Review 2003). There are, however, factors impacting on service delivery performance by departments. It is important to present an overview of service delivery performance by selected South African public service departments (1994 to 2003). The initiatives in the Departments of Health, Housing, Justice and Constitutional Development and Safety and Security are investigated thoroughly.

Case study one: Department of Health

The National Department of Health is responsible for a number of objectives (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). The key objectives are discussed below. It is important to outline the main Department's objectives to determine whether these objectives have been achieved. The White Paper for the Transformation of the Health System in South Africa (1997) and the Health-Sector Strategic Framework 1999 to 2003 have committed the Department of Health to provide quality health care to all South Africans and to implement policies that reflect its mission, goals and objectives (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*).

The Department of Health is required to develop a comprehensive and integrated national health system that provides accessible and affordable health services to all South Africans (White Paper for the Transformation of the Health System in South Africa 1997). It is crucial for the Department to ensure equity and access, especially among previously disadvantaged communities (Access<<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.htm>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). The Department is committed to providing basic health care as a fundamental right to all South Africans. Approximately forty eight percent of all South Africans live in poverty, and seventy five percent live in rural areas. The Department is required to improve human resources for policy, planning, management and service delivery. The Department is committed to reforming and revitalizing their services to the South African society, rebuilding them around the ideals of professionalism, accountability and the provision of acceptable quality services to citizens. Moreover, it is essential for the Department to improve the health and nutritional status, to prevent the spread of diseases. The plan also identified HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and tuberculosis as crucial areas of focus for health care in South Africa. The objectives of the Department are listed in Table 5/4 and compared to the initiatives actually undertaken by the Department, in order to determine service delivery performance.

Table 5/4

Service delivery performance - Department of Health

Objectives	Initiatives	Outcome
To Provide Quality Health Care	Preparing A Patients Charter Improving Quality Of Services In Hospitals (although many people would say that services have declined dramatically in all state hospitals, exacerbated by the 'brain drain' of trained professionals leaving the country)	In Progress- (Hospitals Are Poorly Managed; Doctors are Overworked)
	Embarking On Rehabilitation and Revitalization Programmes	In Progress- Physical Repairs of Hospital Equipment
	Preparing National Drug Policy To Promote Safety And Efficacy	In Progress
To Develop A Comprehensive And Integrated Health System	Amalgamation Of Fourteen Health Departments	Completed
	Creating Mobile Clinics Which Form The Backbone Of Primary And Preventive Health Care	Some Clinics Stand Unused (Inadequate Funds And Shortage Of Medical Personnel)
	Establishment Of Primary Health Care (PHC) And Building Of Clinics	Encountered Problems Some Clinics Stand Unused
To Provide Accessible Health Services	Establishing Hospital Boards	In Progress
	Improving Primary Health Care	Encountered Problems (Lack Of Easy Access)
To Improve Human Resources	Usage Of Technology Such As Tele-medicine	Encountered Problems With Technology Not Fully Utilized In Some Centres
	Training And Redeploying Doctors And Nurses.	In Progress- (Lack of Skills And Expertise; Various Hospitals Under-Resourced)
To Improve Health And Nutritional Status	Extending Access To Safe Drinking Water To Remote Rural villages And Townships	In Progress
	Launching Food Fortification Programme	In Progress (School Nutritional Programme Reaching Four Million Pupils)
To Reduce The Spread Of Diseases: Polio And Measles Malaria *HIV/AIDS *TB refers to Tuberculosis	National Immunisation Campaigns Reducing Polio And Measles Reducing Malaria	In Progress Reduced Polio and Measles Although Targets Not Reached Spread Of Malaria Was Reduced By Sixty-Four Percent
	Launching The Partnership Against Aids Campaign Experimenting With Alternative Methods of Treating HIV/AIDS, TB And Other Debilitating Diseases	HIV Infection Rate Levelling Out Among Pregnant Teenagers Although There is An Overall Increase In The Infection Rates (2002)
	Launching the *DOTS Programme To Combat TB)	Progress Has Been Slow (Treatment Rates Are Low)
To Provide Affordable Health Care	Provided Cost-Effective Services Primary Health Care (PHC) Is Provided Free Of Charge For Pregnant Women And Children	Successful Successful

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

(*HIV refers to Human immune deficiency virus; AIDS refers to Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome; *TB refers to Tuberculosis; *DOTS refers to Directly Observed Treatment Short-Course)

The main objective of the Department of Health has been to improve access to healthcare through the primary health care approach (PHC) (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). A number of ongoing programmes, namely HIV/Aids, DOTS and PHC are in place to improve and redress health delivery in the provinces in South Africa. It is noted in Table 5/4 that the improvements in health care are identified. The implementation of the district health system and primary care initiatives were given utmost priority. Essentially, clinics are meant to assume a more central role, while hospitals are supposed to attend only to serious cases referred to them by the clinics (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). This has necessitated the reorganization of support services in the public health sector. The Department of Health has provided cost-effective services, and primary health care (PHC) free of charge to specific sectors (pregnant women and children) of the South African community (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). It has been successful in liaising with other countries and international institutions such as the World Health Organization (WHO) to improve health care in South Africa.

According to the Minister of Health in South Africa, the National Planning Framework for provincial health plans has proved to be successful, enabling a longer-term focused rehabilitation and revitalization programme in the Department (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: Retrieved: 13 October 2003). The rehabilitation and revitalization programme is meant to provide the necessary equipment and upgrade facilities in hospitals and clinics to improve health care. An assessment of developments and progress on service delivery from 1994 to 2003, suggests that progress continues to be made, especially with regard to PHC (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: Retrieved: 13 October 2003). The principle of equal access to services has required the equalization of geographical access and quality of services throughout the country. In this regard, the Constitution (1996) guarantees the right of equal access to public primary health care services for every South African. Moreover these initiatives aim to improve health care in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. According to the South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004, among the main priorities of the South African government's health budget was a rural clinic-building programme, the strengthening of PHC and the elimination of charges for pregnant women and children at clinics.

Prior to 1994, health care in rural areas has been non-existent (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The Department thus prioritised the need to address the backlog in these areas (Pillay 2003: Discussion). This is important for promoting equity in a democracy. The evidence presented below suggests that the Department is indeed making an effort to improve service delivery throughout South Africa.

As an important step in developing an integrated health service, the fourteen existing health departments were amalgamated into a single health system. Disparities in health service delivery were reduced although not yet eliminated. Increased access was provided to integrate services based on primary health care (PHC) principles, and the care of children and women was prioritised (South African Yearbook 2000/2001). More importantly, the South African government increased the Department's health budget by twenty four percent in 1996/1997, six percent in 1997/1998, and one percent in 1998/1999 (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 60). The budget was increased to reduce existing backlogs. There is much debate around funding being insufficient and inadequate to redress existing service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities. Given the limited funding available from national government, it is crucial that the Department uses its funds circumspectly. It can for instance examine innovative governance approaches to fund health care, such as public private partnerships (PPPs). In fact, this has already been undertaken in some provinces and at local government sphere.

In 1993, still under the previous apartheid dispensation, seventeen clinics were built, of which thirteen were prefabricated (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). Between 1994 and 2002, health services were brought within easier reach of about six million people through the building of additional clinics (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). Prior to 1994, under the former dispensation, most of these services had not been available to rural communities in South Africa due to the shortages of clinics. Furthermore, between 1994 and 1997, the redeployment of doctors and nurses enabled new clinics build by the post-1994 government to be opened in rural areas and townships (Presidential Review Commission Report, 1998: 27). Moreover, these services are accessible to the most vulnerable sectors of the South African society.

According to the Department, since 1994 more than five million South Africans have benefited from the 'Clinic Upgrading and Building Programme' and an average of hundred and twenty five thousand more patients per week are now making use of these essential services (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). This led to the building of five hundred and four new clinics and the upgrading of a further two thousand, two hundred and ninety eight, in previously under-serviced areas (South African Yearbook 2003/2004). A network of mobile clinics run by the Department furthermore forms the backbone of primary and preventive health care in South Africa.

In 2003, the issue of equity stood out as the most significant area of attention. The Department has made progress towards promoting equitable access to health services, particularly through the distribution of health facilities and staff, as well as the removal of fees for primary health care (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2004:> *Retrieved: 30 September 2004*). The extent of the inequalities inherited from the previous government means that the Department has to increase the pace of addressing these disparities.

In an attempt to overcome these, primary health care (PHC) in South Africa is now provided free of charge at the point of use, although people who can afford to pay for prescribed medicines are required to do so (Access<<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.htm>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). Moreover, persons who are members of a medical aid scheme are excluded from the free services offered by these clinics. The services provided by primary health care (PHC) workers include immunization treatment of communicable and endemic disease, maternity care, treatment of chronic illnesses, accident and emergency services and oral health care services. To improve these services, the Department's undertaking various training programmes, which are aimed at the re-orientation of health professionals towards primary health care (PHC). These initiatives target the poorest communities in South Africa.

In response to the Departmental objectives, a charter of patients' rights, as well as complaint and suggestion procedures was, developed at the provincial sphere (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). According to Chandu (2004: Discussion) it has contributed to the improvement of the quality of

services in hospitals, where it is being successfully implemented, for example in Pretoria General Hospital in the Gauteng Province. This operates in accordance with effective governance principles, such as customer care and satisfaction, which were outlined in the South African government's Batho Pele Policy. A service package with norms and standards has also been developed for hospitals. However according to Molopo (2004: Discussion) one seldom hears anything good in the media about state hospitals. They are always described as ineffective, badly managed and unclean. According to Pillay (2004: Discussion) nurses and doctors are overworked and underpaid.

The Department has identified the importance of mobilizing and allocating of resources. The new National Tertiary Services Grant was introduced in 2002/2003, to fund twenty-seven provincial hospitals to improve their level of service delivery. In addition, a budget of R129 million for the hospital management programme was provided to deal with health quality improvement (Access<<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.htm>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). It targeted different quality systems (ISO 2000) and skills training needed by managers to drive the process of quality management in the Department of Health. This strategy began in 2002, at one hospital in every province (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). A further three hospitals per province have been included since 2003. These initiatives aim to promote effective governance by improving the quality of health services to the South African society.

The Department has also prepared a national drug policy, in order to ensure that essential drugs of effective quality and safety are made available to all South Africans (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 99). This is an important initiative in promoting total quality management (TQM) in the health sector in South Africa. In accordance with this policy the provincial health departments stock medicines at hospitals. The standard treatments for different levels were developed using World Health Organization (WHO) guidelines. Moreover, they are revised regularly to include new developments in the medical and pharmaceutical fields (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). This is an important initiative in promoting quality health care throughout South Africa. Moreover, it is noteworthy that the South African health sector is keeping abreast with

the latest developments in quality health care. Lastly, this initiative is aligned with the South African government's Batho Pele policy of promoting quality services to society.

Since 1994 the Department of Health has also focused on preventive health care (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). Attempts have been made to rationalize hospital services, and facilities, to reduce staffing and capital investment (Pillay, 2003: Discussion). The Department did this to reduce so-called expenditure. To promote effective public administration, attempts have also been made to promote efficiency, and cost-effectiveness, and to decentralize hospital management. Decentralization is important, so that decisions can be made at the levels where services are provided. Since 1994, hospital boards have been established in an attempt to increase leadership participation, accountability and transparency in the public health sector in South Africa (Presidential Review Commission Report, 1998: 27). This also complies with the principles outlined in the Constitution of South Africa (1996) and other policy documents, as well as with leadership and governance practices in both Western and traditional African societies.

In 2003, a number of practices to improve service delivery were implemented in the public health services in South Africa. The Department for example, has promoted oral health care through its water fluoridation (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). Since 1994, the supply of safe drinking water had been extended to remote rural villages and townships in South Africa, to an additional one million seven hundred thousand further persons (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). The statistics reflect that the supply of drinking water and the provision of primary health care (PHC) have saved more lives than any other health project in South Africa thus far. Prior to 1994, piped water had not been available in remote rural communities in South Africa. Although not all rural communities have access to piped water yet, there have been substantial and impressive improvements.

The Department has undertaken a number of initiatives to curb the spread of diseases such as polio and measles (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). In this regard, national immunization campaigns were conducted in 1995, 1996, 1997 and 2000 (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). In 2002, the Western Cape Province conducted a mass polio immunization campaign. In 2003, routine immunization was continuing throughout

South Africa (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2002>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). This expanded programme of immunization has succeeded in reducing deaths due to measles and reducing polio in South Africa (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). In this regard, by 2000, the most drastic improvement has been the reduction of measles (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). Since 1995 to 1997, the Department's polio immunization programme reached more than eight million children (South Africa Yearbook 2000/2001 Analysis, 2001: 1). These programmes are therefore making great strides in reducing these diseases, although the targets are not yet reached (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2002>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). A toll-free line is available to report any suspected polio cases. Furthermore, since 1995, immunization drives against diphtheria, pertussis (whooping cough), tetanus (lock jaw) and other diseases have been stepped up as well.

By February 2002, seventy three percent of children from primary schools had been fully immunized (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2002>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). By 2003, the Department had reached a target of ninety percent by concentrating on those districts that were not doing well, particularly in the Eastern Cape Province and Limpopo Province (Service Delivery Review, 2004). The Department currently spends almost R80 million per year on vaccines to ensure that all children in South Africa are immunized.

In 1994, a comprehensive study was carried out by the Department on pre-school children from selected areas, namely poor communities, on their level of nutrition (Access<<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.htm>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). The survey reflected that two out of three households do not have access to sufficient food (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/doc/pr/2003>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). One of the steps that the Department has taken in this regard is to launch a food fortification programme. In terms of these regulations, all millers in South Africa are required to add specific amounts of vitamins and minerals to all maize meal and wheat flour produced in South Africa. In addition, the Department's school nutrition programme reaches nearly four million pupils at fifteen thousand schools, and has been sustained for more than eight years (South Africa Yearbook 2000/2001 Analysis). In 1994 it was reaching eighty-nine percent of targeted learners in 1994, but in 2003 this figure had increased to ninety-four percent representing almost four million children (Towards a Ten Year

Review, 2003). Recent studies have shown an improvement in school attendance and performance, as children are healthier and stronger if they receive proper meals. (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). All of the above are positive initiatives that improve service delivery in South Africa.

The nutrition programme was initially undermined by the misappropriation of funds in some provinces (Service Delivery Review, 2004). Evidently, the Department has to ensure that systems are in place to ensure the proper usage of departmental funds. This would comply with the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA), (2002), and the Treasury Regulations (2001), which require accountability and responsibility for public funding in the South African public service (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). They also require the process of spending public funds to be transparent. This conforms to effective administrative governance practices.

Like polio and measles, malaria too is a health risk that still poses a challenge both in South Africa and in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region. There are mainly three malaria-affected provinces in South Africa, namely KwaZulu Natal, Limpopo and Mpumalanga, and the three most seriously affected neighbouring states outside South Africa, are Mozambique, Swaziland and Zimbabwe (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). The Department has been able to reduce malaria by approximately sixty four percent in KwaZulu-Natal. There is also a regional joint effort by the Department, with countries such as Swaziland and the southern region of Mozambique, to raise awareness about malaria. Moreover, efforts are steadily continuing to eradicate malaria in South Africa and other Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries by 2007. Forming partnerships with neighbouring countries is an important way of addressing malaria in the region (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004).

The Department has furthermore established a national reference centre for traditional medicine (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). This is particularly important for promoting and valuing diversity in South Africa. The South African government has, for example been experimenting with alternative methods of health care to fight HIV, AIDS, TB and other debilitating diseases. According to the Medical Research Council (MRC), an estimated 80% of the population in Southern Africa already use traditional

therapies and many people reportedly derive benefits from their use (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). These therapies could alleviate the service delivery backlogs in health care, especially among previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

The Department has embarked on tele-medicine project in 1994 (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/programmes/tele/tmstrdoc>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). Tele-medicine can be broadly defined as the use of information and telecommunication technologies, to provide medical information and services at a distance. The objective is to deliver health care and tele-medicine services to South Africans where the need is the greatest, i.e. mainly in remote rural communities. Tele-medicine has been identified as a strategic tool for facilitating the delivery of equitable healthcare and educational services irrespective of distance and availability of specialized expertise (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The usage of such medical technology will improve health services in South Africa, and the Department needs to also consider other innovative technological mechanisms to increase access to health care in rural areas.

The evaluation report of 2002 by the Medical Research Council (MRC) in South Africa on the tele-medicine system indicated that there have been considerable improvements with respect to access to specialist radiologists in hospitals. However, some of the health care centres are not fully utilizing the technology efficiently (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). The reasons cited for this is the lack of skills and expertise in the usage of latest medical technology (Soobrayan 2004: Discussion). The Department should therefore train staff in the use of the latest equipment. In other centres, where the expertise is in fact available, the new tele-medicine technologies are providing much needed technical support to primary health care (PHC) centres, and the technologies are proving to be clinically efficient and cost-effective, especially rural clinics.

Efficiency has improved in those health centres where the technology is used (Pillay, 2003: Discussion). In this regard, reporting to patients can now receive a response to medical queries within an hour as opposed to a five to seven days, as previously (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). Moreover, there has been an increase in the competence of primary health care (PHC) providers

with regard to interpreting radiographic studies. This can be attributed to the training offered to radiographers by the Department and the effective usage of the technology. More importantly, there has been an improvement in the ability of community service doctors to diagnose and manage various medical conditions, particularly relating to trauma and chest diseases. The usage of the latest technology has thus definitely improved health services where it is used. Furthermore, the speed and level of reporting to patients has improved too. It can be argued that the usage of tele-medicine in South Africa should contribute to the wider development priorities of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region and be a contribution to the African Renaissance.

Despite the abovementioned intentions and praiseworthy efforts by the Department of Health to improve basic health care, a number of significant challenges remain. The Portfolio of South African Delivery 1999/2000 (2000: 99) indicates that a percentage of the new clinics in rural communities are standing empty and are not being used. This can be attributed to the shortage of doctors and nurses in the Department. In 2003, there have been reports on the number of unfilled posts and other related staffing matters within the public health sector especially in previously disadvantaged rural communities in South Africa (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/doc/pr/2002/pr>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). The Department is however trying to improve its human resources shortage.

Health workers and professionals are undeniably the most critical resource in the delivery and improvement of health care in South Africa. Their movement between rural and urban areas, public and private health sectors and across borders, impacts on efficient public health delivery in South Africa (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/doc/pr/2002/pr>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). Furthermore, the majority of doctors in South Africa in fact practise in the private sector. There is also a growing tendency among South African doctors to emigrate, which is having a profoundly negative effect on the health sector (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/doc/pr/2002/pr>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). In 2002, the Eastern Cape Province in South Africa, for instance, was confronted with challenges relating to human resources, particularly low staffing levels in some public health institutions. A massive recruitment effort was thus mobilized in 2002 by national and provincial departments, to assist the Eastern Cape Province in this regard. This is indeed

proving to be successful in addressing human resources constraints in the Eastern Cape Province. Other provinces can adopt similar initiatives to address human resources constraints.

In addition to recruiting more health care professionals, the Department is also addressing the uneven distribution of professionals between the private and public sectors, and their emigration to other countries by offering them better pay, improving working conditions, providing incentives (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). This includes the improvement of working conditions in the public health sector. In this regard, in 2003, R500 million was been set aside by the South African government to retain health professionals, who are in particular short supply and to attract more medical professionals into the public health sector in South Africa. This allocation was increased to R750 million in 2004 and is expected to reach R1 billion in 2005/2006 (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/pr/2004>: *Retrieved: 30 September 2004*). The money will be used to introduce a system of allowances and to improve the salaries of medical professionals with scarce skills and those serving in rural areas in South Africa. The money will also be used to improve the salary structures of certain medical professions, mainly for doctors and nurses.

The use of foreign health care professionals has partly assisted in relieving some of the shortage of skilled medical practitioners in South Africa (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/pr/2004>: *Retrieved: 30 September 2004*). There are approximately seven thousand, two hundred and three foreign-qualified doctors working in South Africa (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). In addition, medical interns in South Africa are required by the South African government to do their compulsory internship or community service at public hospitals, before seeking registration with the Health Professional Council of South Africa (HPCSA). In fact, only after completion of this service are they allowed to register with the HPCSA, and only then are they allowed to practise privately by the South African government. This system of community service provides significant relief in rural areas in South Africa, where there is an acute shortage of personnel. In 2002, it has been estimated that twenty six percent of doctors', dentists' and pharmacists' posts were filled through the government's compulsory internship or community service.

In 2003, the Department expanded community service to include physiotherapists, radiographers, occupational therapists, speech and hearing therapists, clinical psychologists, dieticians and environmental health officers (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 30 September 2004*). These initiatives are excellent in addressing and alleviating human resource shortages in rural communities in South Africa.

The positive efforts made by the Department, such as, on the one hand, increase access to and improving health care in rural areas and, on the other hand, the complex nature of diseases such as HIV/AIDS, are some of the factors that have put a strain on financial and human resources in the Department (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). Despite efforts made the Department of Health in South Africa in alleviating the human resource constrains, various provinces are still reported to be under-resourced in both terms of staff and finances (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*).

Significant progress is being made in human resources development (HRD), which includes the development of a human resources plan for the health sector. In addition, community service was extended to medical, dental and pharmaceutical interns to improve health care. There is a shortage of money to manage new clinics in rural areas in South Africa (Service Delivery Review, 2004). Furthermore, due to inadequate funds, these clinics are not functioning at a favourable level, which impacts their performance (Pillay, 2003: Discussion). The lack of funding has impacted negatively on the supply of staff, equipment and medicine to these new clinics (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery, 1999/2000, 2000: 12). In 2003, the Department looked at strategies to alleviate this challenge (Service Delivery Review, 2004). These strategies included the increase of funding for new clinics that were not fully operational and compulsory community service by medical personnel, as outlined earlier.

A further challenge is the lack of easy access to clinics (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 99). This could be attributed to various reasons, for example, the lack of adequate public transport to these centres. In comparison, however, approximately four hundred clinics are currently functional in rural areas in South Africa (Service Delivery Review, 2004). This is a significant accomplishment for the

South African health sector. Nonetheless, in spite of these achievements, the quality of services in primary health clinics is not comparable to general hospitals (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: Retrieved: 13 October 2003). Furthermore a significant proportion of households from disadvantaged rural communities continue to use public hospitals rather than clinics (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 99; Service Delivery Review, 2004), which places a tremendous burden on public hospitals.

There Department is encountering many difficulties with regard to the implementation of policies (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: Retrieved: 30 September 2003). This most significant is drastic cost cutting. Objections were received from doctors and hospital leadership, who argued that their ability to deliver essential health services is severely affected by cost cutting (Service Delivery Review, 2004). Furthermore, they argued that they are not adequately consulted on important issues impacting on the public health sector (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 99). They maintained that, although the broad shift to primary health care (PHC) has been welcomed, detailed policies have not had the intended effect (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: Retrieved: 30 September 2003). They have attributed this to inefficient policy implementation due to financial constraints (Pillay, 2003: Discussion).

In 2003, although hospital budgets have been cut, health care has not yet fully shifted to clinics to the extent envisaged; as a result, hospitals are increasingly burdened with huge demands from the South African public (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2004>: Retrieved: 30 September 2004). As a result, they have not been able to provide the level or quality of service desired by the South African government and by patients (Moodley 2003: Discussion).

In 2003, it became evident that public hospitals were still providing the bulk of health care (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: Retrieved: 16 October 2003). The Department therefore has to improve the accessibility of clinics in South African rural communities to avoid an overload on public hospitals. In this regard, it has to market the services provided by the clinics more widely amongst rural communities. It has to devise strategies to encourage the use of clinics among communities in South Africa.

Financial constraints inevitably impact on public health services in South Africa (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). The Department's policy of shifting limited financial resources from the previous apartheid-centred approach to primary health care in under-served areas is having a negative impact on South African hospitals, leading to staff cuts, the closure of some outpatient sections and a general deterioration of services (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 99). Due to the reprioritization of funding, health resources have been diverted from better-served provinces to under-served provinces (Moodley, 2003: Discussion). In 2003, this funding system was replaced by unconditional block grants to provinces and the termination of central control over health resource allocation (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). It is also evident that the government has systematically provided funding to lessen staff cuts and prevent the further deterioration of service. In this regard, the provinces have to manage their financial resources more circumspectly to promote efficiency.

The state of health facilities and the availability of appropriate medical equipment are being urgently addressed by the Department (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). To this end, it has introduced several major hospital revitalization projects. In 2002, the South African government awarded a budget of R528 million for the hospital revitalization programme. This grant is channelled into carefully planned initiatives to boost patient care. By February 2002, the revitalization programme had funded nine hundred and thirty six projects aimed at physical repairs of hospital equipment, and four hundred and forty-four of these projects had been completed by June 2003 (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). In 2002/2003, a total expenditure of R1, 2 billion had been budgeted for these specific projects.

In 2003, the capital investment project in hospital buildings and equipment under the hospital revitalization programme amounted to R717 million and it is expected to rise to R911 million in 2004 and to R1 billion the year thereafter (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). Eighteen new projects have been initiated, bringing the total to twenty-seven projects currently being implemented under the revitalization programme. It is envisaged that this

programme will go a long way towards addressing the challenges around equipment and facilities that confront the Department.

The prevalence of HIV amongst women attending public health sector antenatal clinics of 2002 suggests that since 1998 the HIV infection rate has been levelling out (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). There has been a 1,7 percent increase in infections from 24,8 percent in 2001 to 26,5 percent in 2002. This figure has been sustained for four consecutive years (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). There has however been a slight drop in HIV prevalence among pregnant teenagers. The 2002 results indicate that the numbers are relatively stable, which contrasts with the steep increases each year prior to 1998. HIV among pregnant teenagers has decreased from twenty one percent in 1998, to sixteen percent in 2000.

In 1998, President Thabo Mbeki of South Africa launched the Partnership against Aids campaign, calling for a broad-based, multi-sectoral societal response to HIV and AIDS (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). This initiative brings together all the relevant stakeholders and role-players, and creates the links between AIDS and development, needed for holistic interventions that tackle means required to effect lasting behavioural change (Pillay, 2003: Discussion). Four years later, on 9 October 2002, the government launched the ‘Campaign of Hope’, calling on all sectors of society to join hands in intensifying the campaign to prevent the spread of the HIV infection (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). Non-governmental organizations (NGOs) at various levels are playing an increasingly important role in implementing the Department’s policies (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004).

In response to these challenges, a number of initiatives were undertaken by the Department to deal with the HIV/AIDS epidemic. For example, in 2001, a comprehensive education program on HIV/AIDS for schoolchildren, adolescents and teachers was launched in South Africa (Second Economic and Social Rights Report 1998/1999, 2000). In addition, there are no restrictions on the scale or distribution of condoms (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The Department can still intensify its partnership with NGOs to play an increasingly important role in implementing priority programmes. It also ought to strengthen its home-based treatment for the care of

HIV/AIDS patients. There are joint initiatives by the government, the National AIDS Committee of South Africa (NACOSA) and civil society organisations (CSO) to develop education and prevention programmes (Moodley, 2003: Discussion). In this context, the national AIDS plan was developed. Furthermore, partnerships with private institutions and international institutions ought to be strengthened, and they should be actively encouraged to assist the Department in dealing with this challenge. They should also be encouraged to fund projects towards this end.

Despite these encouraging initiatives by the Department, AIDS is expected to account for fifty two percent of all deaths in South Africa by 2010 (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery, 1999/2000, 2000:12). In considering the scale of the HIV/AIDS problem in South Africa, it is envisaged that the initiatives to address this disease will impact on the available resources, especially the Department's capacity to deliver and sustain health care in this area. This is re-iterated by Pillay (2003: Discussion).

Tuberculosis (TB) has been prevalent in South Africa for over 200 years. South Africa has the ninth most serious TB prevalence in the world (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/sp/2002/sp604.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). Moreover, the spread of the disease has been exacerbated by the unique patterns of mining, industrialization, urbanization and politics in South Africa. The epidemic continues to grow due to an increase in poverty (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). This is exacerbated by the fact that not enough patients are cured the first time they receive treatment (Moodley, 2003: Discussion). The drugs are becoming less effective if the treatment course is not completed. There are also resistance to strains and mutations of the existing TB strains. This is further complicated by HIV/AIDS, which is complicating the TB strain (Pillay, 2003: Discussion).

According to health experts, successful implementation of a treatment strategy is dependent on the establishment of a district health system in the various provinces and maximizing community involvement (Second Economic and Social Rights Report 1998/1999, 2000). The so-called directly observed treatment short-course (DOTS) is a comprehensive strategy for TB control, designed to curb the incidence of multi-resistant TB strains and stop the spread of the epidemic. In June 2002, the number of DOTS districts (where the treatment is offered) increased in South Africa

(Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). By 2003, DOTS has been implemented in seventy percent of all health districts (Towards a Ten Year Review 2003). The progress in the establishment of the system has been slow, although some hundred and fifty-three districts had been demarcated (Service Delivery Review, 2004). Treatment rates also remain below the target set by the Department (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). The low percent of patients cured reflects the compound effect of drug-resistant TB.

In 2002, the Department launched the Medium-term Development Plan for the National TB Control Programme (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). The plan aims to achieve specific targets by 2005, such as a cure rate of between eighty and eighty five percent among TB cases. On the 24th March 2004, the Minister of Health in South Africa launched the Department's social mobilization and advocacy TB campaign, aimed at effective TB management. All of these are positive efforts towards TB control and treatment in South Africa, but they need to be accelerated to ensure a better success rate.

A particular problem that reduces the efficacy of the public health service in South Africa is the theft of medicine (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000:12). The Chief Director of the Department of Health estimates that theft of medicines was amounting to R50-million to R1-billion per year in public hospitals in South Africa. This excludes the theft of expensive equipment and linen. The Department thus planned to develop more effective management systems and strategies, such as computerized systems to track the distribution of medicines from procurement to patient, as well as better depot management (Moodley, 2003: Discussion). By 2003, it could not be ascertained whether such strategies had been set in motion yet.

Challenges have also been identified with regard to leadership in the Department (Pillay, 2003: Discussion). In the Health Summit of 2001, the Minister of Health indicated that policy implementation issues with respect to slow service delivery are critically affected by leadership decision-making and leadership commitment (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). The South Africa Yearbook 2000/2001 indicates that the lack of effective leadership poses a

serious challenge in the Department and that it impacts negatively on public health delivery. This is re-iterated by Moodley (2003: Discussion).

From the above discussion it is clear that the Department of Health has experienced successes as well as failures in many of its programmes and initiatives. In short, among the successes are the numerous programmes to curb and reduce various diseases such as TB, HIV/AIDS, malaria, measles and polio. In addition, efforts are being made to improve total quality management through various initiatives such as, a patients' charter. Furthermore, there has been continued investment in improving the quality of health care by improving quality systems, providing skills training and encouraging the extensive usage of the latest medical technology. The most noteworthy achievement of the Department is the establishment of primary health care (PHC) and clinics in the rural areas of South Africa. Although there are challenges with regard to the accessibility of these clinics, this project has nonetheless proved to be beneficial for approximately six million South Africans in rural communities. In addition, the Department has undergone internal transformation such as the rationalization and decentralization of hospital services. Drastic cost cutting has however had a negative impact on the provision of services. Despite these negative impacts, the Department is confident that the decentralisation of hospital services is an important step. The decentralization of hospital services is an important step towards increasing leadership participation in hospital management. It is also aimed at promoting effective governance by improving accountability, transparency and participation in the Department. This is in accordance with the Constitutional principles and the various policy documents of the South African government.

From the above discussion it emerged that the challenges impacting on service delivery by the Department of Health are human resources constraints, financial constraints, normative challenges, policy implementation, inadequate technical competence, co-ordination and integration, and inadequate monitoring and evaluation systems to measure performance and evaluate outcomes. Human resources and financial constraints have impacted on the provision of services in a percentage of clinics and provincial hospitals. Various initiatives have been undertaken to address the human and financial resources challenges facing the Department. For example, funds have been provided to improve conditions for medical personnel and training has been provided.

Hospitals have entered into public private partnerships (PPPs) to alleviate the cost burden on government. Moreover, the South African government has instituted compulsory community service for medical staff. Foreign medical personnel have been appointed to alleviate the personnel shortage in rural areas in South Africa. On the downside, however, medical personnel in public hospitals in South Africa have complained about not being adequately consulted with respect to crucial issues impacting on them, such as the so-called 'roll-out plan' for HIV/AIDS drugs. Doctors have criticized the Department for not having a detailed policy for the implementation of the PHC strategy in South Africa. Tremendous demand is also being placed on provincial hospitals, and it is obvious that patients are not using the clinics to the extent envisaged by the Department. Various reasons can be cited for this, such as a lack of accessibility. It is also indicated that provincial hospitals provide a better service than clinics. The South African government is taking the necessary steps to address these weaknesses. The challenges impacting on service delivery performance by the Department of Health are summarized in Table 5/5.

Table 5/5

Challenges impacting on service delivery performance - Department of Health

1. Resources	Inadequate Hospital Supplies & Equipment Financial Constraints (Drastic Budget Cuts; Shifting of Funds From Better Resourced Hospitals To Poorly Resourced Hospitals) Staff Cuts
2. Leadership and Human Resource Issues	Shortage of Staff Lack Of Technical Ability/Skills Inadequate Decision-Making Skills Inadequate Leadership Support Lack Of Commitment Ineffective Industrial Relations With Medical Staff
3. Normative Challenges	Theft of Hospital Supplies (Medicines & Equipment Estimated At R50 Million to R1 Billion Per Year)
4. Governance Issues	Deteriorating Health Care (Closure of Outpatient Units In Some Hospitals) Lack of Maintenance Of Hospitals And Clinics Deterioration of Services And Equipment Lack Of Access To Clinics Poor Quality Of Services Uneven Standards
5. Gap Between Policy, Implementation and Sustainability of Existing Service	Policy Lacks Prioritisation Lack Of Proper Time Scales Lack Of Implementation Of Policy Interventions (Example Roll-Out Plan For HIV/AIDS Drugs) Failure To Sustain Policy Interventions Lack Of Co-ordination In Policy Implementation Lack Of Communication Between The Three Spheres of Government For Example With Regard Primary Health Care (PHC) Healthcare Not Fully Shifted To Clinics- Provincial Hospitals Are Burdened With Huge Demands

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

It can be argued that although weaknesses are evident, the real challenge lies in the Department’s leadership ability to mobilize and focus its efforts to achieve its goals. Although much is being done at present, critical action is necessary to redress service delivery imbalances and inequities in the provision of health services to the South African society. The Department’s policy on ‘health for all’ can only be achieved through the sustained and focused action of every public servant in the Department with an interest in health in South Africa. The Department’s performance remains the key to

improving public health care in South Africa. In this regard, training is crucial, for medical personnel, in the use of the latest medical technology.

The Department should identify and document best practices in respect of workplace ethos and culture; training and education; and monitoring and evaluation. Training and education should be comprehensive and holistic and linked to priority health programmes. Examples should be drawn from top performing public and private sectors in South Africa and abroad. Quality care indicators should be included in performance management agreements. Performance measurement and management ought to be strengthened in the departments, and it should be reinforced by an increased focus on outcomes and impact. The need for such an increased focus on outcomes and for a move away from traditional concerns with inputs is essential. It is necessary for the Department to explore and develop the most useful designs for measuring performance, as well as developing mechanisms for benchmarking.

With respect to the human resources challenges, it is essential to conduct skills audits and training needs assessments. Training must be combined with ongoing support. It is necessary to evaluate the outputs, outcomes and impact of training. With regard to monitoring and evaluation, the Department should develop a set of audit tools (norms and standards) with basic performance indicators. These norms and standards should address major needs and priorities. They should be put into effect and the Department should generate quality audits. The health authorities should ensure that integration starts with joint planning, and the focus should be on inter-sector collaboration. With regard to public-private partnerships and collaborations, the Department plays a major role in providing leadership and clarity on the nature of the relationship between the Department, NGOs and business.

Complementary and coordinated actions by many other stakeholders are critical (Access<<http://www.gov.za/yearbook/2002>: *Retrieved: 13 October 2003*). The Department has formulated health policies and legislation together with norms and standards for health care. With respect to co-ordination and monitoring of policies, this clearly remains a challenge. The Minister of Health in South Africa has also indicated that co-ordination and monitoring remains a weakness in the Department.

The cluster arrangement is aimed to reduce the fragmentation of government in South Africa and to ensure that each public service department is familiar with what the other departments are doing (The Machinery of Government, 2003: 35). After 1999, the policy objectives of the South African government were consolidated into the priorities of five Cabinet clusters (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). In this respect, clustered Ministers are intended to be well-placed in conjunction with their colleagues. The cluster arrangement aims to improve implementation, co-ordination and monitoring of challenges. It also ensures that concerted action is taken towards speedy and thorough policy implementation by the public service in South Africa. These clusters are, in turn, intended to support the Directors-General, who works closely with the Policy Coordination and Advisory Services in the South African Presidency (Chandu, 2004: Discussion). The deliberations of the South African Cabinet clusters have as their overall purpose, being well informed and taking coordinated administrative action. The deliberations of the clusters of the Directors-General seek to improve the ability of the public service to deliver services to society.

The clustering of cabinet portfolios into larger co-coordinated portfolios (committees) is designed to forge greater co-ordination, co-operation and communication between line-function ministries, in terms of policy implementation and service delivery in South Africa (The Machinery of Government, 2003:35). The cluster identifies gaps and inconsistencies in policy implementation of the various programmes (Chandu, 2004: Discussion). The cluster also measures service delivery annually by assessing the impact of policies (Soobrayan 2004: Discussion). The introduction of the cluster approach has contributed to better co-ordination and programme implementation (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003).

Although the South African government has made great strides with regard to HIV/AIDS projects, these could be extended to other areas of health provision. A more robust consultation mechanism between government, personnel and all other stakeholders is essential. In the area of communicable diseases the Department should create a map of every district across South Africa, depicting the available services and resources related in particular to HIV/AIDS and TB. This would lay the foundation for a more effective intervention consistent with the principle of securing a continuum of sustainable care. This would also enable the Department to identify service gaps

specific to these conditions, and to detect weaknesses in the system, such as deficient referral systems, weak laboratory support and inadequate drug supplies.

In conclusion, despite the challenges and constraints, highlighted above the Department of Health in South Africa has had a number of significant achievements from 1994 to 2003 in terms of public health delivery. It has undertaken a number of programmes to promote public health delivery in South Africa. However, the Department ought to focus on addressing its weaknesses and challenges so that it can rapidly improve public health delivery, especially among the previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

Case study two: Department of Housing

Increasing access to housing and secure accommodation is an important part of the South African government's commitment to reduce poverty and improve people's quality of life (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The White Paper on Housing (1994) aims to give all South Africans access to a permanent residential structure, with secure tenure and adequate water, sanitation, waste disposal and electricity services (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 122). In 1994, while the new government was committed to the speedy redress of past apartheid imbalances and inequities with respect to housing, it was still handicapped by unreliable data (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 122). The housing backlog in South Africa, in 1994, was reported to be in the region of approximately 2,6 million (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 122). The South African Department of Housing did not determine the exact figure for housing backlog in 1994, which hampered successful planning. However, the 1996 census made available the necessary statistics to allow for the Department of Housing to plan successfully. The Department now has a better picture of the housing needs in South Africa. The objectives of the Department are listed in Table 5/6 and compared with the initiatives undertaken by the Department to determine service delivery performance.

Table 5/6

Service delivery performance - Department of Housing

Objectives	Initiatives	Outcome
To Increase Access To Housing And To Provide Secure Accommodation	Implemented Secure Tenure For Households In Respect Of The Poor	Between 1994 and 1999 Progress Has Been Slow In 2001-Visible Progress
	Providing Funds For Construction Of Secure Tenure And Safe Homes	R8 Million Provided In 2003
	Constructing Houses For The Poor (Community and NGO Involvement)	1,45 Million Houses Were Constructed For The Poor By 2003
	Launching Urban Renewal Programmes	In Progress
	Launching Rental-Housing Options	In Progress
	Providing Subsidies	More Than R18 Million- Funding Inadequate To Address Housing Backlog
	Expansion Of Housing Credit For The Poor	In Progress

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

According to the 1996 census, South Africa had a total population of approximately forty million people, fifty four percent of who live in urban areas and forty six percent in rural areas (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995: 7). In 1996, it was estimated that in the urban areas, three million, six thousand and seven hundred and twenty households lived in formal settlements, whilst a very large proportion of the households lived in informal settlements and many households resided in backyards. According to the 1996 census, the last two categories are significantly smaller in urban areas than in rural areas (Second Economic and Social Rights Report 1998/1999, 2000). In the rural areas, forty two percent of households are settled in traditional dwellings.

Access to housing and secure accommodation has been difficult, notwithstanding the strenuous efforts put into the project to address the shortage of housing in South Africa. Firstly, the Department promised to deliver one million houses, in its first five-year term. In the pre-1994 election campaign, one of the African National Congress's (ANC) slogans was "Houses for all" (Second Economic and Social Rights Report 1998/1999, 2000). The African National Congress (ANC) is the present governing party in South Africa. However, two years into office, the Department was nowhere near meeting this target, and the national government finally realized that the promises it had made were extravagant and unrealistic.

In 2001, secure tenure for households was implemented for the poor (Speech delivered by Minister of Housing Sankie Mthembu Mahaye in Parliament, 17 February 2003) (Access<[http://www. Gov.za/search97cgi/s97](http://www.Gov.za/search97cgi/s97): *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). The United Nations Habitat Agency, in 2001, identified South Africa as a host to the launch of the 'Global Campaign for Secure Tenure', in recognition and support of the progress made by South Africa with regard to the provision of housing for the poor. In this regard, by 2003, eight million people in South Africa now have secure tenure and safe homes (Speech delivered by Minister of Housing Sankie Mthembu Mahaye in Parliament, 17 February 2003) (Access<[http://www. Gov.za/search97cgi/s97](http://www.Gov.za/search97cgi/s97): *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*).

To date, the Department of Housing has constructed 1,45 million homes, using affordable forms of tenure, to house the poor in South Africa (Service Delivery Review, 2004). Projects that the Department are engaged in through the urban renewal programme include housing delivery, which focuses on providing housing for private ownership, the low-income housing programme and the upgrading of existing low-income housing (Parliamentary media briefing by the Minister of Housing, Ms Sankie Mthembu-Mahanyele, 20 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*).

The Department is involved in the establishment of housing support mechanisms, which will include greater access to finance and technical advice (Parliamentary media briefing by the Minister of Housing, Ms Sankie Mthembu-Mahanyele, 20 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). This

programme involves the development of new housing through a variety of initiatives, such as public private partnerships (PPPs). It also seeks to create rental-housing options through a variety of delivery mechanisms. These include upgrading and redeveloping of appropriate informal housing. A proportion of informal housing that has been constructed in backyards and in freestanding locations, is thus retained, upgraded and redeveloped as rental accommodation. The Department is therefore exploring various options of addressing the housing shortage in South Africa.

The success of the Alexandra Renewal Project (Alexandra is a township in South Africa) provides insight into best practices regarding the South African government's urban renewal programme (Parliamentary media briefing by the Minister of Housing, Ms Sankie Mthembu-Mahanyele, 20 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). The objective was to create decent accommodation for three hundred and fifty thousand people within Alexandra Township by upgrading existing dwellings, upgrading and redeveloping of free-standing informal settlements, creating new housing, the redeveloping of hostels and removing households from unsafe areas.

There are other initiatives that have been undertaken by the Department. For example, the Riverpark housing project provides seven hundred and seventy seven affordable houses to people (Riverpark is one of the many suburbs in a larger city in South Africa). Approximately R30 million was invested for this project, which was completed in June 2002. The provision of houses is not restricted to the Department, though, and is open to a wide range of stakeholders. By involving various stakeholders, the Department can meet its policy objectives. Research suggests that where civil society organisations (CBOs) participate more fully, service delivery needs are better identified (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003).

A core element of the housing programme by the Department was the subsidy scheme for land, housing and infrastructure, to those earning less than R3 500 per month (Parliamentary media briefing by the Minister of Housing, Ms Sankie Mthembu-Mahanyele, 20 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). This was supplemented by the expansion of housing credit to the poor, with the South African government assuming some of the risk inherent in lending

to low-income groups. In 1994 and 1995, it was evident that the provincial Departments of Housing had failed to spend its housing allocations, despite the huge housing backlog. This can be attributed to the Department having received their funding allocations very late in the year, which made it difficult to start new projects during this period. The South African government has subsequently introduced a medium-term expenditure framework (MTEF) for budgeting, which is presently being adopted by public service departments. In this regard, funds that are not used for a specific year are rolled over into the next financial year. This is done for a period of three years. This system should ensure sustainable funding for projects in South African public service departments.

In 1996, almost a hundred thousand new houses were built and three hundred and fifty thousand subsidies were provided (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 40). At the end of 1997, the Department had built over four hundred thousand houses, while approximately seven hundred thousand housing subsidies had been allocated. By 1998, six hundred and eighty thousand new houses had been built, and nine hundred thousand subsidies were awarded (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12).

In 2002, the Department decided to increase beneficiary participation in housing delivery (Access <<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). In this respect, provisions were made for people to either contribute financially or participate in the physical construction of their houses. This approach is successful, in that South African communities are becoming more involved in housing process projects or self-building. There is an emergence of bigger and better structures. The self-building project is a positive step for housing programmes, as poor communities are being empowered with various skills.

The most benefits of self-building are gained by women and the youth, who together constitute more than ninety percent of people currently involved in this type of housing delivery (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). To further enhance the programme, the Department has sought additional assistance in the form of thirty-eight Cuban architects and engineers. They have been deployed in the provinces in South Africa to support increasing demand for this type of housing delivery. Cuba is one of the countries in the

world that uses a similar approach in housing construction, imparting skills to the community. According to Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2001: 256), the process of identifying the most effective and efficient service provider for each project also ensures value for money. It allows for competition between service providers, which ensures service delivery at the best possible price. It also contributes towards ensuring the flexibility of the Department in responding to continuously changing circumstances.

The Department has strengthened its working relations with interfacing ministries, such as Land Affairs and Provincial and Local government. The Departments of Housing and Land Affairs and Provincial and Local Government are assisting in ensuring the improvement of efficiency within local housing authorities (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). These partnerships, both with the communities and internally with other public service departments, are innovative governance approaches to improve service delivery. It is becoming abundantly clear that the South African government is governing in different ways than had previously been done.

The South African Department of Housing has invested more than R18 million in housing subsidies. Massive funding is being made available to address the housing imbalances and inequities in South Africa (GOVZA: Imbizo: 2002) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/issues/imbizo/2002>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). However, due to the extent of the challenge, the funding is inadequate to rapidly alleviate housing shortages in South Africa at the necessary pace. Fiscal pressure has then forced the South African Department of Housing to use innovative governance strategies such as public-private partnerships (PPPs), thereby incorporating the expertise, investment and management capacity of the private sector to improve and extend services to all communities.

In 2003, the South African President, Mr. Thabo Mbeki, announced a new urban renewal and integrated sustainable rural development programme (Parliamentary media briefing by the Minister of Housing, Ms Sankie Mthembi-Mahanyele, 20 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). The programme is met with challenges, such as with inadequate budgeting. As programmes

are implemented, more money is often needed and sometimes housing projects are halted midstream, before funding becomes available.

It is apparent that financial constraints are acute in the Department of Local Government and Housing (DLGH) in South Africa (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 122). An example is the Department of Local Government and Housing (DLGH) located in Kimberley, which is the central supportive agency for local authorities in the Northern Cape Province. Muthien, *et al.* (2000: 122) indicates that part of the problem is that the Department has had to build up its own financial resources. The municipalities including Kimberley are mainly responsible for raising their own revenues (Kuye 2004: Discussion). The provincial government, however, receives the bulk of its funding from national government. It can therefore be argued that local authorities in South Africa should opt more widely for innovative governance approaches, such as public private partnerships (PPPs). In this manner, services can be provided on a cost-effective and sustainable basis.

Resource constraints and changing demographics now necessitate a more rigorous leadership and governance approach by the Department to meet its objectives (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). There has also been a shift from rural to urban areas. Twenty percent of people in the main urban areas are migrants from rural areas. This trend has exacerbated the housing backlog. Furthermore, the Department also needs to focus on the quality of housing, and their sizes, as the size of the houses built by the Department are a source of discontentment and dissatisfaction amongst citizens (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). Moreover, unscrupulous contractors in South Africa have been defrauding many people by building houses with interlocking bricks and no cement at all, and these are very unstable.

The National Home Builders Registration Council (NHBRC) and the Consumer Protection Measures Act (1998) have been launched in South Africa, on order to protect housing consumers from corrupt developers (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). Since April 2002, all new government-subsidised houses have enjoyed protection against shoddy workmanship by building contractors. In this regard, action is clearly necessary against unscrupulous contractors to protect homeowners from inferior workmanship.

The Department of Housing must ensure that high standards are maintained in the provision of housing. More significantly the Department must ensure that housing contractors have the necessary skills to provide their services. The focus should therefore be on quality, rather than on a quantity-driven approach thus far adopted by the Department.

A further challenge confronting the Department of housing is its limited regional leadership capacity (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 122). According to Muthien, *et al.* (2000: 122), public servants lack the leadership skills and experience to manage a provincial department effectively. In 1995, the Department suffered setbacks due to financial resources being mismanaged, and, even more seriously, the reputation of the Department suffered incalculable damage. It is very important for the Department to train public servants to avoid further setbacks. The overall result thus far at provincial level has been inadequate performance on the part of the Department, on various grounds pertaining to housing delivery. The public servants at the provincial level were often ineffective in responding to the needs of local governments (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 122). It is thus necessary to ensure effective communication within the Department at all levels and between all levels. According to Chandu (2004: Discussion), it is important for local government in South Africa to be accorded greater authority. In this way, departments will be able to respond more effectively to the customer needs. According to Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2001:250), decentralization is more innovative than centralization. This is re-iterated by Friedman (2003: First South African Public Management Conversation), who argued that decentralization encourages service delivery, which ensures that the well being of the communities are promoted.

Muthien, *et al.* (2000: 122) indicate that, that there are not sufficient leadership skills in the Department of Local Government and Housing (DLGH), which causes enormous frustrations. The leadership often seems to be overwhelmed by the massive task they have to perform, in the context of numerous small local authorities with severe capacity constraints (Chandu, 2004: Discussion). In this regard, the DLGH is chronically underfunded and understaffed. In examining provincial and local Housing departments, Muthien, *et al.* (2000: 122) argue that the challenges faced by the Northern Cape Province's, Department of Local Government Housing, with respect to a lack of capacity and finances are shared by a number of other local government Housing

departments in the other provinces in South Africa. The lack of capacity entails an inefficient workforce, which impacts of policy implementation, monitoring, evaluation and reporting (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004).

It is clear that the Department must adopt a governance approach, which focuses on different forms of partnerships in the short- to medium- term. This would alleviate the fiscal and capacity challenges confronting the Department. However, there should also be capacity and skills transfer to public servants in the Department to ensure the future implementation and sustainability of projects. A win-win principle should be strived for, as opposed to a profit motive, so that the Department's interests are best served. Furthermore, the Department of Housing should ensure effective implementation of its strategy and guidelines for capacity building. This is crucial for improved service delivery. In addition, the Department should search for innovative ways to mobilise finance for housing from sources outside government. The Department can also use interventions to promote package finance for those delivering housing to low-income families.

Other challenges faced by the Department pertain to red tape and bureaucracy (Service Delivery Review 2000). Between 1997 and 1999, for instance, local governments in the Northern Cape Province of South Africa experienced intense frustration with the lack of response to their needs from the Department of Local Government and Housing (DLGH). The town of Springbok in South Africa, for example, had to wait four years for the Department to approve its structure plan. These long delays led to local authorities in South Africa interpreting the situation in party-political terms, which, in turn, worsened relations between local authorities and the provincial Department of Housing (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 122). The Bo-Karoo District Council also experienced the sluggish policy implementation of the infrastructure development plan (IDPs). The Department had promised R50000,00 to each district council (at local government level) for designing such IDPs in rural areas. However, this money never came through, and the predominant impression was that the Department had insufficient funds. It is clearly crucial for the Department to focus on improving its own efficiency and effectiveness. In this regard, the Department has to improve its public administration model to promote efficiency and effectiveness. The classical public administration model adopted

by the Department is ineffective in promoting a sustainable Department, and it should examine new trends in public administration and adapt it to its current needs.

It is imperative for the different spheres of government that is national, provincial and local (municipalities), to improve intergovernmental relations (IGR). This is important to avoid red tape and bureaucracy and to improve policy implementation. The ultimate objective of the Department should be to transform itself from a bureaucratic mechanism into an innovative, flexible and responsive institution that is solutions oriented and continually seeks to identify mechanisms to improve service delivery, especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. Furthermore, the Department ought to improve its management and leadership skills to improve efficiency so that long delays in terms of policy implementation can be avoided. There is a need to review the skills base of personnel in the Department to enable the development of a small, but highly motivated and focused workforce. In this respect, the Department should integrate motivation principles discussed under the path-goal leadership theory in Chapter Four into its leadership framework. The recognition of individual effort and the systematic efforts to strengthen the workforce are fundamental to the current leadership and governance framework in South Africa.

It can be argued that this difficulty by the Department to promote the effective implementation of projects or programmes can be attributed to a number of causes (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). Firstly, it has proved difficult for provincial housing departments to adequately monitor municipal performance with respect to service delivery. Secondly, administrative capacity constraints are compounded by financial constraints, with most provincial and local departments lacking sufficient funds to implement or sustain service delivery projects. Frequently, provincial departments have discovered that a municipal council (local level) has financial constraints, only when it is too late in the year to implement effective remedial action.

An effective communication and co-ordination strategy is essential in alleviating these shortcomings. Even when provincial departments have experienced staff and effective leadership, there are massive housing backlogs that provincial departments are required to address. However, some provincial departments have leadership and staff that do not

have the necessary competencies to provide assistance. There remains a fundamental lack of clarity about what developmental functions local authorities are required to perform that makes support from provincial to local level difficult. It is important for each level of government to clarify its functions to avoid further confusion. Finally, there are departmental tensions at provincial level that can also prevent co-ordinated support for local government. The leadership should ensure that departmental tensions are dealt timeously to ensure efficiency within each department and between departments.

The Department should improve its human resources skills. In this regard, the necessary training and development ought to be provided to personnel. Furthermore, funding ought to be made available by the government to ensure the sustainability of projects. Moreover, an effective monitoring and evaluation mechanism is crucial to monitor the performance of the Department. Administrative inefficiencies should be dealt with and eliminated by improving processes, practices and systems within the Department. Furthermore, steps ought to be taken to clarify the respective roles of national, provincial and local authorities in South Africa. Intergovernmental relations between the different levels of government have to be improved to avoid tension between the different spheres of government.

In evaluating the progress of the Department on the whole in improving service delivery, over the last nine years, it can be concluded that the Department has made steady progress. In the first five years, the Department had been accused of being slow in the delivery of houses. However, since 2000, the statistics reflected in the discussion above indicate that there has in fact been visible progress with regard to housing delivery in South Africa.

The Department has embarked on various innovative projects to address housing imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. Furthermore, it has embarked on innovative governance strategies, such as creating partnerships with the communities to assist in addressing their own housing needs. In this regard, for example, communities can become physically involved in constructing houses. In this way, skills are imparted to communities and jobs are created for the poorest sectors of the South African society. Moreover, the Department has provided

housing subsidies for the most disadvantaged sectors of society. This has enabled many citizens to purchase housing, which had not been possible under the previous dispensation.

Financial constraints can be cited as a major impediment to service delivery performance in South Africa. The provinces are largely dependent on funding from the national government. The most important source of revenue for the provinces is their equitable share, to which they are entitled under the Constitution of South Africa (1996). In this respect, provincial governments have the largest spending budgets. They are responsible for service delivery of major social services such as education, health, social grants and welfare services, housing and provincial roads. These services have limited or no cost-recovery potential. Provinces are therefore largely dependent on transfers from nationally raised revenue. The local government sphere, in contrast, is partially dependent on funding from the provinces, but it raises about ninety percent of its own revenue through municipal taxes, such as rates and licensing.

In accordance with the Constitution of South Africa (1996), many national and provincial departments are considering which of their functions would be best performed at the local sphere, and should thus be devolved to local government. The functions under such review include housing delivery, health care and district health system, water and municipal policing. The decentralization of management is also being considered for functions like education (to regions), health (to districts and hospitals) and justice (cost-centres to local court level) (The Machinery of Government, 2003: 15). This proposed development would undoubtedly have implications with respect to improving and redressing service delivery in previously disadvantaged communities. It will also have implications for funding. The shifting of the proposed functions will involve a shift in funds, fiscal powers, assets and liabilities and human resources.

It has been argued in this study that public private partnerships (PPPs) could be an innovative governance approach in the short- to medium- term to curb fiscal pressure on the South African government. There are other pressing service delivery needs that the South African government needs to focus on, such as education, health and providing infrastructure (Service Delivery Review 2004). There is therefore less money to direct

to housing needs. The Department of Housing has however been looking at innovative governance approaches for funding projects to alleviate the housing shortage. For example, in 2002, the Department introduced a project whereby people could contribute financially to the building of their own homes. The Department is looking at a period of about fifteen to twenty years to achieve its goal of redressing the housing imbalances and inequities in South Africa (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery, 1999/2000, 2000: 12). The challenges impacting on service delivery performance by the Department of Housing are summarized in Table 5/7.

Table 5/7

Challenges impacting on service delivery performance - Department of Housing

1. Resources	Lack Of Human Resources (Capacities And Understaffing) Financial Constraints (Some Projects Are Under-funded)
2. Leadership Challenges	Limited Regional Leadership Capacity And Skills
3. Governance Challenges	Lack Of Clarity On Functions Of Different Spheres Of Government Poor Intergovernmental Relations Lack Of Communication Inadequate Co-ordination Administrative Constraints Adoption of Classical Public Administration Model (Bureaucracy And Red-Tape – Lack of Responses To Housing Plans) Inadequate Monitoring And Evaluation Mechanisms Housing Fraud Departmental Tension Urbanisation Inferior Quality Of Low Cost Housing-Shoddy Workmanship) Sluggish Policy Implementation (Slow Performance) Mismanagement Of Funding Under-funding (Northern Cape)

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

In conclusion there are leadership, governance, and human and financial resource constraints impacting on service delivery performance by the Department of Housing. With respect to leadership, there is limited regional capacity and skills. With regard to governance, there is an obvious challenge with poor and tension-filled intergovernmental relations (IGR) between the different levels of the Department. Furthermore, there is obvious confusion over the roles and functions of each sphere of government, which clearly affects and hampers communication and the co-ordination of projects between different departments.

The Department cites administrative constraints as another challenge impacting on housing delivery. In this respect, the adoption of the classical public administration model has slowed down service delivery tremendously. The model involves red tape and bureaucracy, which is inefficient and ineffective for improving service delivery. A challenge in the Department, are inadequate monitoring and evaluation systems. In this regard, the provincial departments have not been able to monitor projects at local government effectively. Inadequate funding compounds these challenges cited above.

The improved relations between the Housing Ministry and the commercial banks, the decline in the culture of non-payment and the willingness by the poor to honour their debts, bodes well for the mammoth task of providing houses for the poorest communities in South Africa (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 30 September 2003*). Furthermore, by 2003, the Department has secured approximately eight million houses. Nonetheless, it is evident that the housing demands in South Africa far exceed the available resources. The Department has adopted innovative strategies to address the challenge of resource constraints. These include involving the communities in housing projects, and bringing communities and non-governmental institutions (NGOs) together to build low-income housing. In the same light, there are instances where the Department has entered into public private partnerships (PPP) to redress service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities. These are excellent governance approaches adopted by the Department. It is however essential for the Department to increase its partnerships, so that it will be in a stronger position to meet its long-term objectives.

Case study three: Department of Justice and Constitutional Development

In terms of Section 165 of the Constitution of South Africa (1996), the judicial authority of South Africa is vested in the South African courts. The courts include the Constitutional Court, established in terms of Section 98(1) of the Constitution (1996) and the Supreme Court of Appeal, established in terms of Section 101(1). In terms of Section 166, the other courts include the high courts, as well as any high court of appeal that may be established by an Act of Parliament to hear appeals from other courts; the magistrates' courts and any other court established or recognized by an Act of Parliament.

The Constitutional Court outlawed corporal punishment and the death penalty (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminjustice2002.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). These are important measures in promoting democratic governance in South Africa. The Constitutional Court is the highest court in South Africa for the interpretation, protection and enforcement of the Constitution (Service Delivery Review, 2002). The courts are independent and subject only to the Constitution (1996) and the law (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2001: 67). The establishment of a wide array of judicial authorities contribute towards ensuring that the rights of individuals are protected. Each branch of the judiciary has clearly defined areas of jurisdiction in relation to the manner in which it upholds the principles of democracy. The principles contained in the Constitution (1996) are upheld in the best interest of the citizens.

The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development in South Africa is responsible for the administration of the courts and constitutional development (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminjustice2002.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). It performs these functions in conjunction with the judges, magistrates, the National Director of Public Prosecutions (NDPP) and the Directors (DPP) of Public Prosecutions, who are independent (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The Department's responsibilities include the provision of adequate resources for the proper and efficient functioning of the criminal and civil justice system in South Africa. It provides legislation and gives administrative support for the establishment of institutions required by the Constitution (1996). It is independent of the legislative and executive branches of government, thereby ensuring that everyone, including the government itself, follows the laws of the country.

It is clear that the separation of power in terms of the legislative, executive and judicial authorities in South Africa contributes towards ensuring and upholding the tenets of democracy and ensuring effective governance in a manner prescribed by the Constitution (1996). According to Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2001: 68), the independence of the judiciary ensures that all disputes arising from the principle of the separation of powers can be dealt with by the courts of law, which are empowered to pass judgments on their interpretation of any dispute that arises.

The mission of the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development is to uphold and protect the Constitution (1996) and the rule of law (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/strategy.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*).

The Department's goals are to improve service delivery to the public in order to enhance customer satisfaction (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000:12). It also aims to ensure that its business is conducted efficiently and in a cost-effective manner, with the primary focus being on the courts. This includes improving efficiency in the courts and making justice more accessible and affordable (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The objectives of the Department are listed below in Table 5/8 and compared with the initiatives undertaken by the Department to determine the level of service delivery performance.

Table 5/8

Service delivery performance - Department of Justice and Constitutional Development

Objectives	Initiatives	Outcome
To Uphold And Protect The Constitution (1996) And The Rule Of Law	Enforcing Punitive Measure Of Law (Example Amendment Of Bail Applications And Mandatory Minimum Sentence Was Introduced For Serious Crimes)	Successful
Improve Service Delivery	<p>Prioritising Crimes Against Women And Children</p> <p>Implementing National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS)</p> <p>Integrating The Justice System To Improve Management Of Courts And Cases</p> <p>Usage Of Technology</p> <p>Strengthening Management And Leadership Through Training</p> <p>Informal Structures Set-up (Authorized Headperson Or Deputy Within His/Her Area Of Jurisdiction May Hear And Determine Civil Claims Arising From Indigenous Law And Custom)</p>	<p>In Progress</p> <p>Reduced The Rates of Serious Crimes</p> <p>Improved Courts And Case Cycle (Reduced From 145 Days to 75 Days)</p> <p>Conviction Rates Increased</p> <p>Huge Backlogs of Cases</p> <p>In Progress</p> <p>In Progress</p> <p>In Progress</p> <p>Progress Slow</p>

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

Before the 1980s, there was a clear differentiation in the South African legal system, which was based on race (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/strategy.html>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). South Africa had a dual legal system, in that, within the state legal system there was a body of law applicable to Black South Africans and another applicable to other racial groups (that is White, Indian and Coloured). The former was referred to as the African customary law and the latter as the Western law. From the 1980s onwards, there had been an opening up of the Western law to include Black South Africans as well. In 1983, the Hoexter Commission condemned the existence of courts for Black South Africans in the urban areas. As a result the Commissioner Courts and their appellate wing were abolished in 1987 (Special Courts for Blacks Abolition Act 1986, Act 34 of 1986). This was an important development in

attempting to integrate the majority of the population into the mainstream of the justice system in South Africa and to promote democratic governance.

There are many factors that impact on the service delivery performance by the Department (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). One of the greatest remaining challenges for the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development in South Africa is its successful transformation (Part 4 - State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, Houses of Parliament, Cape Town, February 2003) (Access<http://www.sabcnews.state_of_the_nation/address2: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). This is re-iterated in the Service Delivery Review of 2004 and the South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004. The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development has to deal with the difficult issues of the transformation of South Africa's prosecutorial services, the magistrates and judges fraternity, and the introduction of legislation to ensure that the country's legal system are in line with the Constitution (1996). The Department, which controls at least R1,6 billion (0,86 percent of the total state budget), had to transform itself into a legitimate, accessible, accountable and effective state department, while at the same time striving to reduce the levels of crime and enhance stability and security.

Efforts to promote representivity constituted an important element of the transformation process (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). According to the Service Delivery Review (2002), during the 1990s, the justice system had been the domain of White Afrikaner male South Africans, as far as staffing was concerned. Section 195 of the Constitution (1996) stipulated that public service departments should reflect the composition of the population in management positions and other occupational groups. In addition, the post- apartheid South African government (since 1994), had introduced a policy to promote employment equity in the South African public service (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminjustice2002.html>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003).

According to Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2001: 11), such representivity was necessary to represent the public, to be able to empathize with them, and to view challenges from their perspective. According to Naidoo (2004: Discussion), the state of affairs in the Department in 1994, when apartheid was officially abolished, would have undermined

the legitimacy of the Justice System in South Africa, if it had continued and not been changed. There was a need to ensure legitimacy of the Justice System in South Africa by promoting representivity. This was especially necessary in a new democracy to uphold the Constitution and the rule of law. It would also be important in promoting equity, impartiality and fairness in government, and thereby encourage effective governance principles as discussed in Chapter Four of the study.

Although the past four years (1999 to 2003) have seen the appointment of more Black judges than South Africa has ever had before, the Department remains largely unrepresentative (Service Delivery Review, 2004). In May 1994, there were only one Black male judge and two White female judges. In 1999, the President of South Africa, Mr. Thabo Mbeki, described the need for visible transformation as the greatest crisis facing the judiciary in South Africa (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). In 2003, the President echoed similar sentiments, arguing that an effective, representative and efficient Justice System was indispensable in a democratic society. These words clearly show the commitment of the South African government towards that goal.

By July 2003, out of two hundred and fourteen judges of the Superior Courts, sixty percent were White males, fourteen females, forty-two African males, eight African females, eight Coloured males, one Coloured female, eleven Asian males and two Asian females (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). However, despite this intention to promote equity, progress is slow in promoting representivity in the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development. There is, for example a shortage of skilled and experienced Black lawyers who could be considered for appointment to the Bench (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). Nonetheless, there are strategies in place to promote equity in the Department. There are appointment procedures conducted by the Department.

One of the challenges facing the South African government, and the justice sector in particular, has been to create a stable society, in which all communities are able to live in peace, safety and security (Service Delivery Review, 2004). Immediately after the first democratic elections of 1994 in South Africa, there had been concerns were expressed about the rise of crime (Service Delivery Review, 2002). The blame was

openly placed on the new post-apartheid South African government and the new Constitution (1996) (including the Bill of Rights). As a result of these concerns and criticisms by the South African public, there was a move by the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development towards more punitive measures of law enforcement. Examples of such punitive measures were the amendment of bail laws, to make it difficult for suspects to be successful in bail applications with respect to serious cases (Service Delivery Review, 2003). The introduction of strict bail laws in South Africa was to prevent those arrested for serious crimes from getting away easily. Furthermore, mandatory minimum sentences were introduced for serious crimes (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12), which required the presiding officers to impose specific sentences in respect of serious offences.

On an encouraging note, the Department had indeed made progress towards curbing crime. Crimes against previously disadvantaged sectors of the South African society, namely women and children, have been prioritised since 1994 (Service Delivery Review, 2004). More significantly, eleven Sexual Offences Courts were launched in 2003 in South Africa (Part 4 - State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, Houses of Parliament, Cape Town, February 2003) (Access <<http://www.sabcnews.stateofthenation/address2>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). Furthermore, the National Policy Guidelines for Victims of Sexual Offences were published in September 1997. These guidelines serve to educate police officers, health workers, welfare workers and public prosecutors on how to work with victims of sexual offences. The emphasis in working with victims of sexual violence within the criminal justice system in South Africa was directed at the elimination of secondary victimization.

A further step to protect women and children in the new South Africa, the Domestic Violence Bill was introduced in the South African Parliament in 1998, to broaden the scope of the existing Prevention of Family Violence Act of 1993 (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). In addition, strategic interventions pertaining to violence against women include the introduction of one-way mirrors; closed circuit televisions sets and separate waiting rooms (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). This protected the victims from having to confront their

offenders face to face when having to identify them (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). These are important measures to protect women against secondary harassment.

The improvement of the witness protection programmes and the creation of a separate juvenile justice system were further significant steps (Service Delivery Review, 2002). The Domestic Violence Act, among other things, imposed positive duties on police officers in South Africa to effect arrest under particular circumstances (Govender, 2004: Discussion). The Department had to restore the rule of law, address serious violent crimes and create accountability for human conduct and behaviour. The Department also expeditiously had to remove laws that had been used by the previous National Party government in South Africa to entrench apartheid prior to 1994 (Naidoo 2004: Discussion). The Department is still making an effort to ensure that effective governance practices are being promoted.

A number of initiatives are being undertaken by the Department to promote speedy service delivery. The South African Parliament has approved seven hundred pieces of legislation since 1994, to promote justice in the South African society (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). This legislation covers a wide range of areas. One of the first pieces of legislation, tabled by the Justice Ministry and approved by the South African Parliament, was the law that abolished the death penalty and that which established the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC). The TRC was established by the South African government in 2002 to focus on atrocities that had been committed during the apartheid era (pre-1994) (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). It was also established to compensate victims or families of victims that had been tortured or experienced wrongful acts from perpetrators during that time. According to Naidoo (2004: Discussion), the TRC was very effective in doing this.

Other efforts to improve service delivery include initiatives to combat crime. Due to the high level of crime in South Africa, the South African Cabinet approved the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). This is a long-term comprehensive and multi-sectoral strategy, which requires shared responsibility for crime prevention and a shift in emphasis from reactive crime control to pro-active crime prevention (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). The NCPS is managed by an inter-departmental committee, consisting of the Ministers of Safety and

Security, Justice, Correctional Service and Defense (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). The two elements of the NCPS that have been the most successful are the National Crime Combating Strategy (NCCS) and the Integrated Justice System (IJS) (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). Since 1999, the rates of serious crime in targeted areas in South Africa have either been reduced or stabilized (Service Delivery Review, 2004). For example, murder has been reduced by almost seventeen percent since 1999 to 2003.

The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development brought about far-reaching changes in the legal system (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). With respect to transformation and reform, the Department has revamped and streamlined its departmental structures (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). The Department has taken a holistic view and reviewed the existing structures and processes with a view to improving the efficiency of the courts (Service Delivery Review, 2002). The Department is still currently undergoing a restructuring process. To this effect the Department has established the '*Re aga boswa*' (Business process reengineering) project. This project looks at business process reengineering, with a view to revamping the current inefficient structures and processes in the South African courts. The development of a common architecture, focusing on re-engineering business processes in an integrated manner was one such initiative. Project '*Re aga boswa*' is part of the overall Criminal Justice Strengthening Programme (CJSP). The CJSP is a strategic partnership initiative, to support and strengthen the management and leadership capacities of the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development's core business (that is, Prosecution, Court Services and Adjudication), in order to transform the Criminal Justice System to a swift, effective, accessible, efficient and sustainable system (Service Delivery Review, 2003). '*Re aga boswa*' focuses on rebuilding new structures and processes at the courts, to improve the standard and quality of service delivery at the courts (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). The first provincial office to benefit from this project was the province of KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa. Other measures implemented to empower the legal system against crime and promote effective practices, were legislative measures to increase the criminal jurisdiction of the lower courts (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The Department is clearly making steady progress in achieving its priorities.

Another important initiative to improve service delivery was the establishment of the necessary infrastructure to promote the Integrated Justice System (IJS). This was established in 1997 to integrate the activities of departments in the Justice cluster in a coordinated manner (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminijustice2002.html>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). The objective of the IJS Court Centre project is to enable the courts to deliver swift and efficient justice and aims to improve court and case management, thereby reducing the case cycle time (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). Since the start of the project, the average cycle time for a case in court has been reduced from hundred and forty-five days to seventy-four days (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). By 2003, the average case preparation cycle time was reduced from seventy-four to seventy-one days (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). Conviction rates increased from about seventy-eight percent in 1999 to eighty-one percent in 2002. Productivity in the courts is increasing. The IJS resulted in the speedy finalisation of cases, an improvement in the quality of dockets and an increase in conviction rates (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). A combination of such factors has resulted in improved performance by the Department.

The Department has embarked on a project to re-engineer its own business processes through the use of necessary technology to ensure the effective integration of departmental activities. A number of major initiatives were undertaken to give effect to this goal. The establishment of a Virtual Private Network was one of the major initiatives undertaken by the Department, and it was assigned to the South African State Information Technology Agency (SITA) (e-Gov News, Oct/Nov 2001: 1). The advances in cyberspace, business pressures, and developments in information technology, globalisation and service delivery backlogs in South African communities required the Justice System of South Africa to be re-evaluated. This initiative intends to improve service delivery to the public. Electronic justice or e-justice in South Africa was thus instituted, with the objective to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of prosecutors. The e-justice system in South Africa seeks to transform the justice administration system from a manual to an automated system and it is a crucial component of promoting effective service delivery.

Current information reveals that the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development lacks the human resources and technological capacity, despite its e-justice

initiative (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminijustice2002.html>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). The courts in South Africa have huge backlogs of cases and prisons in general are overcrowded with a large number of awaiting-trial prisoners. E-justice is one of the ways that the Department could use to alleviate service delivery backlogs (e-Gov News, Oct/Nov 2001: 2). The Department's use of technology is an important tool to improve service delivery but this is not happening at the moment.

A serious challenge that the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development is grappling with is corruption and white-collar crime (Service Delivery Review 2004). Approximately R47-billion has been lost through theft and corruption in South Africa (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 12). The tabling and approval of the Heath Special Investigation Unit by the South African cabinet has been particularly positive in this regard. The unit had recovered at least R61-billion stolen state money by March 1999. Furthermore, the national anti-corruption forum (NACF) was established in June 2001 to support the development of a national anti-corruption programme (Fanaroff, 2002: First South African Public Management Conversation). Its establishment indicates the willingness of the South African government to deal decisively with corruption in government.

According to Fanaroff (2002: First South African Public Management Conversation), despite these initiatives to promote effective governance, corruption has inevitably had a debilitating impact on service delivery in South Africa. The South African government needs to collaborate with non-governmental institutions (NGOs) and the media to report and expose corrupt elements and individuals who wrongfully benefit through corrupt means. With respect to corruption within the public service, management has to make sure that employees who are found guilty of corrupt deeds are not only exposed, but also disciplined.

A range of integrated leadership and governance approaches is needed for success, including a sound ethics management system. According to Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2001: 122), the effectiveness of this ethics infrastructure depends on whether it is implemented, understood and consistently applied. More importantly, ethics should be seen as an integral part of all management systems in the South African public service. The synergy between the different components of the ethics infrastructure will depend

on cultural values and political traditions, and the overall approach to public administration in promoting ethical conduct.

Punitive measures against corrupt elements should send a clear message about the South African government's zero tolerance towards corruption. Those South African public service departments that have fallen prey to fraudulent acts, should not only dismiss the perpetrators, but should also retrieve assets that have been stolen. The current demands of the South African public service places an emphasis on ethical behaviour and requires professional leadership and followership. In addition, a culture of service ethos in the South African public service is essential. The leadership in the South African public service must clearly demonstrate their commitment to a value system that is based on the fundamentals of honesty and integrity, as highlighted in Chapter Four of this study.

The approach of the Criminal Justice System in South Africa has been to focus attention on violent crimes and, to a certain extent; there has thus far been less focus on commercial crimes (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminjustice2002.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). This has resulted in backlogs in commercial crime cases. To address these backlogs, a specialized commercial crimes court and prosecuting unit, was established as a pilot in Pretoria in 2000, and a second pilot site was established in Johannesburg in 2002 (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminjustice2002.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). In 2002, this unit registered nine hundred and seventy nine cases (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). Of these, two hundred and seventy cases were enrolled for trial, and these resulted in hundred and nineteen convictions and ten acquittals. The Department has subsequently launched a 'roll-out plan' of the Pretoria Commercial Crime Unit to other major centres.

In examining service delivery by the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, it is evident that court hours in District and Regional Courts improved (Media Statement by Dr Penuell Maduna, Minister for Justice and Constitutional Development: Parliamentary Media Briefing, 11 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). As a result, there has been a significant reduction of court rolls and case backlogs (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). In this regard, in 1999, the national average of cases was

hundred and fifty-seven in District Courts per year. This decreased to hundred and forty-two in 2002. In Regional Courts, the rolls decreased from hundred and forty seven to hundred and twenty five in the same period. In addition, there has been a dramatic increase in cases finalized with a guilty verdict. The conviction rate in the District Courts is over eighty percent and in the Regional Courts approximately seventy percent. These are impressive achievements by the Department in addressing service delivery backlogs and improving efficiency in the Justice System.

An increase in average court hours meant that the courts were able to finalize more cases (Media Statement by Dr Penuell Maduna, Minister for Justice and Constitutional Development: Parliamentary Media Briefing, 11 September 2003) (Access <<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). This has been supported by an increase in the conviction rate of cases that went to court (Naidoo 2004: Discussion). The District Courts improved slightly their conviction rate; the Regional Courts improved theirs dramatically, whereas the High Courts improved theirs significantly. At the end of March 2003, the High Courts in fact exceeded their target of eighty-five percent (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). As at 03 June 2002, there are hundred and thirty-nine Small Claims Courts, and they do not sit in all magistrates' courts (Service Delivery Review 2003). These courts are cheap and informal in procedure, they are inquisitorial, and they sit after working hours. These initiatives have improved the delivery of justice services by the Department.

A number of further efforts are being made to address service delivery backlogs by the Department. In 2003, the Department introduced an integrated case flow management system in the court environment (Media Statement by Dr Penuell Maduna, Minister for Justice and Constitutional Development: Parliamentary Media Briefing, 11 September 2003) (Access <<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). This initiative was launched in response to the need to deal proactively with the huge number of outstanding civil and criminal cases (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The programme is intended to contribute to the objective of streamlining court cases and to provide modern and efficient administration of justice in South Africa (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). Furthermore, case flow management will proactively manage cases by taking control of the pace of litigation. Nonetheless, despite improvements in service delivery by the Department, Naidoo (2004: Discussion) indicates that there is still a

need for a more effective court management system in South Africa to redress prevailing service delivery backlogs.

In addition to the above initiatives, there has been additional management and leadership training, especially for magistrates, prosecutors and other justice personnel who occupy key strategic positions in the Department, to promote efficiency (Service Delivery Review, 2004). The objective is to raise levels of skills to ensure better management of cases and courts and the expeditious finalization of trials (Media Statement by Dr Penuell Maduna, Minister for Justice and Constitutional Development: Parliamentary Media Briefing, 11 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). Training should increase efficiency in the Department, which would have a positive impact on service delivery.

At the heart of reform by the Department, lies the quest to improve the accessibility of the Justice System (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The most pertinent question is whether these reforms have indeed improved access? The study suggests that many cases that are reported to the police, do not reach prosecution stage (Media Statement by Dr Penuell Maduna, Minister for Justice and Constitutional Development: Parliamentary Media Briefing, 11 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). The reasons for this can be attributed to the Justice System being inaccessible to many South Africans for geographical reasons (people live far away from the courts, for example in rural areas), economic reasons (people whom are economically disadvantaged cannot afford litigation) and psychological reasons (the incongruence between Western law and African traditional practices, as well as perceptions about the ineffectiveness of the law) (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 13). However, in some areas of the country efforts to improve the accessibility of the legal system include the introduction of multi-lingual services. Court proceedings are thus available in the language preferences of people being served (Naidoo, 2003: Discussion). In this regard, the wide usage of indigenous African languages is evident. Court interpreters are specifically appointed for this purpose.

The above measures focus on improving the state justice system, but have in many ways left the majority of citizens outside the fold of the Justice System. The Department has an obligation to ensure that all value systems are contained in formal mechanisms within the Department. Given the past policies of human rights violations in South Africa, and the subsequent protection of individuals and communities, the integration of African value systems is vital in order to prevent the infringement of basic rights and freedoms. More importantly, it has been a difficult transition from the apartheid form of justice, to a more inclusive and human rights-based form of justice in South Africa. The Department should ensure the integration of African value systems, in accordance with national legislation and policy direction.

In this regard, the Department is tapping into the resources that communities, especially Black communities, use for social control (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 13). The South African Law Commission acknowledges the role played by informal structures, and the need for interaction between the state and non-state forms of justice (Media Statement by Dr Penuell Maduna, Minister for Justice and Constitutional Development: Parliamentary Media Briefing, 11 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). Relevant value systems are thus taken into account and integrated into already existing provisions. For example, an authorized African headman or his deputy may hear and determine civil claims arising from indigenous law and custom (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). An African against another African within his area of jurisdiction can bring the civil claim to the headman or deputy. The proceedings of this Chief's Court are informal (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). An appeal against a judgment is heard in a Magistrate's Court.

Despite such measures to redress service delivery imbalances, some South African communities have occasionally taken the law into their own hands or resorted to organized groups of crime control which are generally referred to as vigilante groups (Media Statement by Dr Penuell Maduna, Minister for Justice and Constitutional Development: Parliamentary Media Briefing, 11 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). The main challenge faced by the Department in this regard is the lack of communication and inaccessibility of services (Service Delivery Review 2004). The Justice System and its

functionaries, as well as many citizens' unfamiliarity with the procedural basics of the courts are another challenge. This further feeds and reinforces the perceptions that result in a lack of confidence in the system. The informal Chief's Courts can alleviate these challenges, especially in remote rural areas.

In light of the abovementioned, it is imperative for the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development to improve its accessibility among previously disadvantaged rural communities. In this regard, mobile law clinics can be used in rural communities and the Department should be proactive in its outreach programmes, which could be used to inform and educate communities on court procedural matters. This will improve the services offered to rural communities in South Africa, as well as improve the image of the Department, and it may instil confidence in the Justice System. With regard to inaccessibility that is based on financial reasons, the legal aid clinics can be extended to rural communities in conjunction with the mobile law initiative. Legal aid is free for persons earning under R2000 a month in South Africa (Naidoo 2003: Discussion). The South African government can further enhance the use of informal structures, such as the Chief's Court to alleviate the service delivery backlogs by the Department.

In examining the operational issues in the Department since 1994 to 2003, the study has found that the finances of the courts have never reconciled (Service Delivery Review, 2004). This has put the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development in a negative light, especially when it appears before the South African Parliamentary Standing Committee on Public Accounts (SCOPA) (Service Delivery Review, 2003). The challenge for the Department is to turn this situation around, and court managers stand at the forefront of this challenge. In this regard, training on financial management is essential for managers (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). Moreover, court managers have to be able to manage public funds circumspectly, and must be held accountable for any mismanagement of funds. In this regard, the Public Finance Management Act of 1999 (PFMA) is an important mechanism that can be used to hold managers accountable. The necessary financial management systems ought to be efficient in the Department to ensure that the PFMA is fully operational.

The study has found that there are governance, leadership, human resources and normative challenges impacting on effective service delivery by the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development. These challenges are summarized in Table 5/9.

Table 5/9

Challenges impacting on service delivery performance - Department of Justice and Constitutional Development

<p>1. Governance Challenges</p>	<p>Transformation With Regard To Promoting Representivity Is Slow</p> <p>Rural Communities Lack Access To The Court (Geographical Reasons, Economic Reasons, Psychological Reasons For Example An Incongruence Between African Traditions and Customs And Western Justice System)</p> <p>The Public Is Not Educated on Procedural Court Issues</p> <p>There is Ineffective Ineffective Communication</p> <p>Perceptions About The Ineffectiveness Of The Law (Lack Of Confidence)</p> <p>Huge Backlogs In Remote Rural Communities</p> <p>Weak And Inefficient Institutional Structures In Courts</p> <p>Poor Co-ordination</p>
<p>2. Leadership And Human resources Issues</p>	<p>Court Officials And Managers Have Inadequate Skills & Capacity</p> <p>Shortage Of Leadership Skills (Mainly At Senior Managerial Level)</p> <p>Managerial Skills (Particular With Regard To Financial Management Are Lacking)</p>
<p>3. Normative Challenges</p>	<p>Grappling With Corruption, Theft And White-Collar Crime</p> <p>Maladministration And Mismanagement Of Funds</p>

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

From the abovementioned discussion it has emerged that the Department has both strengths and weaknesses, which impact on the level of service delivery. In this regard, legislation has been passed to promote the principles of the Constitution (1996) and the rule of law. Particular emphasis has been placed on protecting the rights of women and children, as two groups are the most vulnerable sectors of the South African society. Furthermore, the Department is implementing a multi-sectoral approach to curbing

crime, which is effective to a limited extent, in reducing the rate of violent crimes in South Africa.

There are difficulties around transformation in the Department. In this respect, much more has to be done to promote representivity in the Department. The Departments' personnel are predominantly White and male, which is not suitable for a democracy. Furthermore, the Department still has to improve existing processes and revamp current structures to promote fairness, efficiency and the cost-effective administration of justice. There has been an improvement in productivity, as a result of a reduction in the time for prosecutions. This has led to a reduction in court rolls and case backlogs. Efforts are being made to make justice more accessible and affordable, especially among previously disadvantaged communities. Moreover, the Department has embarked on using electronic technology to further reduce service backlogs and improve efficiency. However, capacity is clearly inadequate in addressing the massive service delivery backlogs facing the Department. Training is thus being undertaken by the Department to improve human resources capacity, which is essential for improving service delivery performance by the Department.

Despite the establishment of Chief's Courts, the accessibility of the Justice System remains a challenge for previously disadvantaged communities in remote rural areas of South Africa (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). The South African Justice System has to go beyond improving the state justice by opening it up and making it more accessible to South African society, especially to previously disadvantaged communities. While acknowledging the progress made in improving the accessibility of the Justice System as its effectiveness thus far, much remains to be done to promote effective service delivery in South Africa set out in the South African government's Batho Pele policy.

Making the justice system more accessible to previously disadvantaged communities would be a major step in addressing the immediate and urgent needs of the majority of South Africans. The widespread responsibility of the Department is to ensure that the courts, tribunals and related institutions function effectively and efficiently. This is a basic requirement of democratic and administrative governance (Service Delivery Review, 2002). More significantly, this research study suggests that greater leadership capacity and skills is required mainly at the senior levels of the Department. This is

essential to fully affect the Department's mandate of facilitating the enactment of appropriate legislation, creating the necessary policy frameworks and ensuring that courts and the prosecutorial services function in a way that serves the new democratic dispensation. The Department has also been erratically restructured, resulting in weak and ineffective institutional structures in the courts (Service Delivery Review, 2003). This has negatively impacted on co-ordination of various programmes within the Department (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). On the whole, it can be argued that improvement has occurred but huge backlogs are still evident mainly in remote rural communities in South Africa. This is re-iterated in documents such as the Service Delivery Review of 2004.

Case study four: Department of Safety and Security

In accordance with the Constitution of South Africa (1996), the Department of Safety and Security is responsible for internal security and crime prevention. The Department is required to account to the South African Cabinet and Parliament on all matters relating to policing (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). From the outset, the main priority of the Department of Safety and Security since 1994 has been to change the mindset of South African society from a militaristic to a civilian approach (Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 8 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). Before 1994, the primary focus of national security of South Africa has been to secure and advance the interests of White minority rule and the apartheid regime (Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 8 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). The opposition to the previous political dispensation (pre-1994) was thus seen as a threat to national security in South Africa. These were, however, mainly organisations that were promoting the ideals of freedom and democracy in South Africa. The objectives of the Department are listed in Table 5/10 and compared with the initiatives undertaken by the Department to determine their level of service delivery performance.

Table 5/10

Service delivery performance - Department of Safety and Security

Objectives	Initiatives	Outcomes
To Ensure Internal Security	Restructured Police Management And Structures And Functions	Improvement In Efficiency And Effectiveness
	Activating Automated Fingerprint Identification System (AFIS) To Improve Capacity Of Police	Improved Efficiency And Effectiveness (SAPS Traced Three Million Previous Conviction Reports)
To Prevent Crime	Recruiting Reservists From The South African Defence Force (SANDF) To Improve Service Delivery	In 1999, Murder Decreased By Almost Seventeen Percent
	Partnerships With Communities And Businesses In Combating Crime	Between 1994 and 2003, There Was A Decrease Of 30,7 Percent In Murder. (This Amounts To 67 Murders A Day And Almost 3 Murders Per Hour)
	Using Technology (Surveillance Systems) In Combating	In 1999, Attempted Murder Decreased By 1,3 percent In 2003, Crimes Involving Explosives Dropped By Forty Five Percent
	Encouraging Volunteers To Participate In The Government's 'Letsema' (Volunteer) Campaign	Bank Robberies Decreased From Six Hundred And Forty Two To Four Hundred And Ninety Seven, Or By 22, 6 Percent Eighty Percent Decrease In Street Crimes In Targeted Areas
		Increase In Cash In Transit Heists, Hijackings, Robberies, Public Violence, Burglary, Stock-Theft, Shoplifting, Death Due To Violence (Statistics Are A Serious Cause For Concern)
		More Than Seventy Five Thousand Volunteers Participated In 'Letsema' (Volunteer) Campaign

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

The mandate of the Department of Safety and Security (prior to 1994) has often been vague and ambiguous (Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 8 September 2003) (Access<
<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). There was a duplication of functions and the execution of extra-judicial activities (Govender 2004: Discussion). Furthermore, prior to 1994, there had been gross human rights violations both within South Africa and beyond South Africa's borders. Since 1994 the Department has fundamentally transformed the approach to national security, with a view to attaining peace and stability both within South Africa and within the region. The Department has positioned itself within the ambit of a human rights security paradigm, which is aligned with democratic principles.

Since 1994, the Department of Safety and Security has undergone far-reaching reform and transformation, with the intention of enhancing the safety and security of all South Africans. It has focused on the restructuring of police management and structures and functions to improve its efficiency (Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 8 September 2003) (Access<
<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). In this respect, specialized units were restructured to fit into multidisciplinary units focusing, mainly on organized crime, serious crime and commercial crime.

The investigative and detective capacity of the police has been improved with the activation of the Automated Fingerprint Identification System (AFIS) (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). This has furthermore enhanced the relationship between crime intelligence and the detectives (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). The AFIS system has enabled the South African Police Services (SAPS) to process cases more effectively and more efficiently (Govender, 2004: Discussion). The introduction of the AFIS system has enabled the South African police to trace approximately three million previous conviction reports in 2003, compared to 2002, where the figure was only one million, six thousand three hundred and sixty nine. This technology is very effective in improving service delivery by the Department.

Although interventions are being undertaken by the Department of Safety and Security, there is still a need to improve the capacity of crime intelligence, as well as the numbers

of detectives and investigators to reduce the crime rate in South Africa (Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 8 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). The challenges that face the Department of Safety and Security are not only related to transformation, but also to redressing service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa (Govender 2004: Discussion).

In 1998, there was still an absence of a clear transformation strategy in the Department (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 168). Almost daily, newspaper headlines in South Africa reported on hijackings, murders, house breakings and rapes. Nonetheless, the South Africa Yearbook 1998/1999 reported that murders had declined by 4,6 percent from twenty five thousand seven hundred and eighty two in 1996 to twenty four thousand five hundred and eighty eight in 1997. This amounts to sixty-seven murders a day, which is almost three murders an hour. In 1999, murder decreased by almost seventeen percent. Although murders declined, these figures are serious cause for concern.

They have been brought about primarily because of concentrated actions by the Department on specific crime tendencies such as gang and taxi violence (Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 17 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: *Retrieved: 17 February 2003*). Furthermore, attempted murder had gone down by 1,3 percent from 1997 to 1999. This indicates that the Department is working hard to reduce crime situation in the country.

From 1997 to 1999, robbery with aggravating circumstances, which includes cash in-transit heists, hijacking and truck hijackings, increased by 3,6 percent from sixty seven thousand two hundred and forty nine to sixty nine thousand six hundred and ninety three (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 168). Other categories of robberies rose by 2,3 percent, while public violence grew by fifteen percent. Rape and attempted rape increased from fifty thousand four hundred and eighty one to fifty two thousand one hundred and sixty, representing an increase of 3,3 percent.

Burglary on business premises and in residences went up by 0, 9 and one percent, respectively, while stock theft and shoplifting rose by 2, 6 percent each (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 168). There was also an increase in deaths due to violence, of members of the South African Police Services, since 1994. Furthermore, abductions rose by thirty four percent. While there are positive strides by the Department in curbing murder, other crimes, such as robbery, rape, attempted rape, burglaries, shoplifting and deaths due to violence are on the increase. This was reiterated by the Minister of Safety and Security in South Africa (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: *Retrieved: 17 February 2003*). The same was evident with stock theft and shoplifting. Murder against police officer was also on the increase. Abductions were also amplified. The Department's efforts to combat crime in these areas were not effective. This meant that the Department was not meeting its objectives of promoting internal security and preventing crime.

On a positive note, in 2003, crimes involving explosives dropped by forty five percent (Service Delivery Review 2004). Bank robberies decreased from six hundred and forty two to four hundred and ninety seven, or by 22,6 percent. During 2003, the Department issued warrants of arrest for two hundred and eighty six thousand criminals (Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 8 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). It is, however, not clear how many criminals have been convicted and sentenced. The data of 2003 suggests that, with the exception of common assault and other types of theft, all serious crime trends of robbery have recently stabilised or are decreasing in comparison with the figures in 1994 (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). The data further reflects, that between 1994 and 2003, there was a very constant and significant decrease of 30,7 percent in murder. These trends have been achieved since the implementation of the NCPS in the Department in 2000.

There are human resources, budget management and leadership challenges impacting on effective service delivery (Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 8 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). Human resources skills and leadership capacity are in short supply and reform and transformation is slow, as there is no clear transformation strategy in the Department.

The challenges impacting on service delivery performance by the Department of Safety and Security are summarized in Table 5/11.

Table 5/11

Challenges impacting on service delivery performance - Department of Safety and Security

1. Human Resources & Leadership Constraints	Inadequate Capacity & Skills (Example With Crime Intelligence, Detectives And Investigators)
2. Governance Challenges	Slow Transformation Absence of Clear Transformation Strategy Increase In Service Delivery Needs And Demands No Clear Policy Implementation Strategies (For Example Social Crime Prevention Remains A Challenge) Fiscal Constraints Poor Co-Ordination And Co-operation

(Source Naidoo: 2004)

A review of the Department of Safety and Security’s key priorities indicate that the Department has undertaken a number of initiatives towards meeting its objectives. The Department of Safety and Security together with the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, has developed the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004). The NCPS is an umbrella framework with the purpose of addressing the causal factors of crime in a holistic way (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 168). The strategy actively involves other public service departments as well, such as Social Welfare, Home Affairs, Correctional Services, Education, Defense and all intelligence services (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). The emphasis on forming collaborations and partnerships in the Department is an important way of dealing with crime in South Africa (Govender, 2004: Discussion).

Different departments thus share resources and expertise (Service Delivery Review, 2004). This promotes cost effectiveness and service efficiency, and it encourages an effective working relationship between the various public service departments in South Africa. It also leads to skills transfer from one department to another, which improves

capacity. Furthermore, it promotes effective administrative governance practices in the Department.

A clear transformation strategy is urgently needed for the Department. Furthermore, leadership has to embrace an attitude of serving the public within the framework of the effective governance principles as espoused by the South African government (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 168). For example, the Department needs to embrace the South African government's Batho Pele principles, by making its services more responsive and accessible to previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

The Department has embarked upon various initiatives and plans to overcome service delivery imbalances and inequities (Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 8 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). The programme of restorative justice proved successful, as prisoners came out to demonstrate to communities that they had been reformed, by building schools in the country. The issue of improving the leadership core is addressed by recruiting new leadership with the required competencies and drive to realise the strategic plans of the Department. Additionally, there needs to be intensive training of other staff as well to capacitate them to deal with crime intelligence effectively.

The creation of effective governance structures is paramount for promoting efficiency within the Department. Moreover, the South African Police Services (SAPS) has to operate within a human rights culture, which however immediately debilitates many of the detectives, who entered the service during apartheid (pre-1994). Most of these detectives were required during the apartheid days to extract confessions by any means necessary including torture (Govender, 2004: Discussion). These methods have no place in the new human rights culture and in promoting democratic governance in South Africa.

To improve service delivery, a new detective academy was established in 1998 (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000:168). The crime intelligence and internal security components were merged to boost intelligence gathering capacity

(Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Charles Nqakula, 5 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). The merging of these two components made the Department more effective in carrying out its mandate. Training of detectives was increased from six-month courses to one-year courses. In addition, from 2003, a phasing out began of certain in-between ranks, to reduce vertical stratification of the service, which will continue until 2009. This is necessary to create a more decentralized system of management in the Department, which should improve communication. The old system is therefore being replaced by a new South African Police Services (SAPS) recruitment system.

To improve service delivery, further reservists were recruited from the South African Defense Force (SANDF) and more than seventy five thousand volunteers participated in the government's 'Letsema' (Volunteer) campaign (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Charles Nqakula, 5 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). The recruitment of reservists is linked to various initiatives, which form the national combating strategies. These are practical implementation strategies by the Department to ensure that communities become involved in matters that affect their daily lives. The Department is effectively facilitating community owned solutions to the challenges of crime. These initiatives have been fairly effective in alleviating service delivery backlogs.

Other initiatives by the Department include a drastic increase in South African Police Service (SAPS) personnel over the next three years, the restructuring of specialized investigation units, the implementation of sector policing in each area and the establishment of crime combating units for each police area (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Charles Nqakula, 5 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). These initiatives by the Department should be effective in combating crime, in the long term (Govender, 2004: Discussion).

Although the Department had identified priorities, it did not initially have corresponding and clear implementation strategies, nor did it have sufficient resources

(Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 8 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). It is important for the Department to formulate clear implementation strategies to ensure the success of these initiatives. More importantly, the Department must provide the necessary human and financial resources so that it can effectively implement and sustain these programmes. The Department should ensure that the personnel also have the necessary expertise that is required to fulfil these tasks.

The implementation of the NCPS was predicated on the assumption of sound co-operation and co-ordination between the SAPS and the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (Safety and Security Media Briefing by the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, 8 September 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s79>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). Unfortunately, though, co-operation among the three spheres of government (national, provincial and local spheres) in South Africa is uneven (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). Despite these constraints, the NCPS has resulted in important projects that have borne effective results. The police have, for example, established partnership with communities and businesses to curb crime (South Africa Yearbook 2003/2004).

There are numerous benefits for the Department, with the involvement of communities in combating crime in South Africa. Firstly, according to Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2001: 268), such projects often result in ownership by the communities involved. Secondly, the project is needs driven and demand oriented. Thirdly, there is continuous evaluation of results, resulting in greater service delivery performance. Furthermore, there is an acknowledgement of resource constraints and the identification of strategies to overcome these challenges in innovative ways. Moreover, the wishes of society are adhered to, which results in a greater satisfaction with levels of service being rendered. The research found that the community-policing framework has markedly improved the relationship between police and communities (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). The partnership with business has led to an eighty percent decline in street crimes in targeted city centres and has furthermore increased the police's response time. The partnerships with businesses have improved the implementation of crime prevention programmes, for instance in respect of promoting safety in schools and communities. The implementation of social crime prevention, however, remains a challenge (Govender,

2004: Discussion). According to Chandu (2004: Discussion), this is largely due to poor co-operation and co-ordination between departments and across the different clusters and spheres of government.

In addition to the above programmes, the Department has increasingly been using technology to alleviate crime (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 168). In this regard, the projects that are actually using the necessary technology are proving to be particularly fruitful; for example surveillance systems were installed in some urban areas in South Africa, leading to an eighty percent decrease in street crimes and reducing police response time to less than a minute. More importantly, the video footage of these surveillance systems constitutes admissible evidence in courts of law.

The crime level in South Africa shows that most crimes are related to poverty and other social problems (Portfolio of South Africa Delivery 1999/2000, 2000: 168). It is therefore important for the Department to strengthen inter-sectoral collaborations and partnerships with other departments, communities and the private sector in South Africa, to deal with this challenge more holistically. It is difficult for the South African government to address these challenges in the short- to medium- term (Binza, 2003: 2). Furthermore, budgetary limitations have also placed a moratorium on hiring new police officers and effectively implementing programmes to curb crime in South Africa (Govender, 2004: Discussion).

The police needs to continue improving the levels of resources in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. Such an exercise should be accompanied by a vigorous implementation of social crime prevention initiatives and strengthening of partnerships with civil society and community-based organizations (CBOs). These are important in fighting crime, particularly at the local sphere of government. The success of the Department depends on strengthening partnerships with communities and businesses that volunteer to assist security agencies in their work. From the above discussion, it is obvious that the Department has already embarked on a number of initiatives in this respect. However, greater effort is required to address the massive service needs and demands by the South African society, especially in previously disadvantaged communities.

An important statistic that has a direct bearing on the issue of effective service delivery, on the part of the Department of Safety and Security, is that eighty six percent of all permanent police stations are located in previously White areas of South Africa (Theron, *et al.* 2000: 30). To achieve a similar density in the predominantly African, Coloured and Indian areas in South Africa, together with the human material resources attached to each station, would, require each public service department to find innovative ways of eliminating the legacy of apartheid. The issues that have emerged are the need for institutional leadership capacity with the necessary competencies in the African, Coloured and Indian areas, which actually constitute eighty five percent of the population and the need for an efficient and effective leadership and governance framework. There is, however, no extra money available to fund the massive institution building that is required of the Department (Theron, *et al.* 2000: 30).

The implication of this lack of financial resources is that service delivery is impeded. The Department's leadership thus has to review its functions and should decide on issues as to 'when' and 'how' to steer these programmes, in order to improve service delivery. Furthermore, financial resources must be used circumspectly. With respect to the building of institutional capacities, the Department must step-up its mentoring programmes, which will prevent each department from embarking on separate training programmes for subordinates. This would be a massive saving on the departmental budget.

From the afore going discussion it has emerged that leadership, governance, human resources and financial constraints are hampering effective service delivery in the Department of Safety and Security. There is a dearth of leadership skills and human resources capacity to effectively address service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities. The Department clearly has to develop the necessary competencies to address imbalances and inequities in service delivery. The initiatives that have been taken by the Department from 1994 to 2003 have not been very effective in drastically reducing crime in South Africa. Although there are excellent projects in the form of the NCPS, greater efforts are required by the Department to reduce crime.

There are additional challenges revolving around co-operation and coordination among the three spheres of government (national, provincial and local spheres). Administrative governance must be improved by enhancing systems, structures and processes within the Department. Furthermore, trust has to be built through collaborative efforts by the different spheres of government in South Africa and the Department ought to clearly spell out the necessary duties for each sphere of government. This should be accompanied by comprehensive implementation strategies within the necessary timeframes. The Department needs to improve its monitoring and evaluation system with regard to its projects. It is essential to give constant feedback to each unit in the Department. Where there are shortfalls, corrective action should be instituted immediately. Finally, managers in the Department must be held accountable for outcomes in their units, and this should be linked to a comprehensive performance management system in the Department.

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS OF CASES

In this section the performance of four selected South African public service departments in terms of service delivery since 1994 to 2003 is analysed. The successes and challenges faced by the Departments of Health, Housing, Justice and Constitutional Development and Safety and Security were outlined in the four previous sections of this chapter. There is a range of perspectives from government to analysts on service delivery in the South African public service. The findings of this study are drawn from a range of service delivery programmes undertaken in the four cases examined herein. This analysis and presentation of the findings of the case studies are comprehensive. This analysis has been done throughout the discussion under the respective cases and throughout the study. Some statements may be controversial, but this analysis has been written to stimulate further debate on the issues at hand and to find joint solutions to the challenges confronting the South African public service.

There are different degrees of success in the cases examined in this chapter. Despite the enormous strides made between 1994 and 2003, there are service delivery constraints in many departments of the public service (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). The performance of the public service reflects great unevenness, with some departments doing well, while others are not achieving even the basic service delivery objectives.

With respect to the Department of Safety and Security, for instance the gains in crime preventing and combating crime have not very been impressive (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). In the case of the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, too, progress has been slow. Despite significant efforts in both of these, the issue of crime clearly requires further attention. This is re-iterated by Naidoo (2003: Discussion). However, crime prevention strategies are beginning to take effect (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). In a study by the Institute for Democracy in South Africa (IDASA), of public service delivery between 1996 and 2003, respondents indicated that the overwhelming majority felt that health and crime were major challenges facing South Africa. The respondents were not satisfied with the level of progress by the public service. However, all evidence from the present research study suggests that the public service has met some of its most immediate objectives (which were listed in the previous section in the Tables under each respective case).

In 2003, the Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Nqakula stated that the South African public service had met its most immediate objectives set out in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Charles Nqakula, 5 August 2003) (Access <<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). This is evident with the Department of Health, Housing and Justice and Constitutional Development, but in the case of the Department of Safety and Security, it is still facing challenges to meeting its most immediate objectives. With the Department of Health the Department, for instance, PHC was established, drinking water was extended to remote rural villages and townships, malaria and polio was reduced, campaigns to combat TB was established, and free health care to pregnant women and children were provided. To meet its most immediate objectives, the Department of Housing provided houses for the poor (approximately eight million by 2003), rental options were launched, houses subsidies provided to communities and housing credit were expanded to the poor. The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development enforced punitive measures, such as bail applications to uphold the law. In addition, it prioritised decreasing crimes against women and children. A NCPS was launched to reduce the rates of serious crime and an integrated Justice System was established to improve court and case management. The Department of Safety and Security improved efficiency, by reducing murders, crimes involving explosives and bank robberies. To improve service delivery

reservists were recruited from the SANDF and the government launched a *Letsema* Campaign, developed partnerships with businesses and communities and increased the use of surveillance systems. However, the research reflects crimes such as robbery and burglary, are on the increase.

There are three different phases with respect to service delivery that can be broadly identified in the cases examined. The first phase of service delivery (1994 to 1996) included a definition of the overall policy direction, capacity challenges, lack of clarity on the role of the three spheres of government, transformation and reform and learning to deliver on a larger scale to previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. During this period, the implementation of large-scale programmes in all cases examined, were often experimental and innovation was encouraged. The second phase of service delivery (1996 to 1998), involved learning the lessons of the first phase through evaluations, policy amendments and refinements, adoption of service delivery strategies through different approaches such as clustering, greater devolution of authority (some to provincial and some to local government), and the adoption of various innovative governance models such as public private partnerships (PPPs), civic participation and outsourcing. The devolution of authority is aimed at promoting decisions making at the level where services are delivered. This is mainly evident in the Departments of Health and of Housing. During the third phase (1998 to 2003), there was a greater emphasis by the South African government on accelerating public service delivery. Analysts however argue that service delivery is too slow to redress effectively the service delivery imbalances and inequities that exist in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

In 2003, the Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Charles Nqakula, indicated that there had been progress by the South African public service in promoting effective governance practices by building a democratic state in South Africa (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Charles Nqakula, 5 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: Retrieved: 20 October 2003). This is evident from the establishment of different institutions to promote democratic governance, such as the Public Protector's office (Naidoo 2003: Discussion). These issues are detailed in Chapter Four of the study. However, Mr. Nqakula (2003) also indicated that many leadership and governance challenges remain

in South Africa which impact on the sustainability of the public service to deliver services effectively. Mr. Nqakula (2003) argued that, these challenges reflect the legacy of apartheid and the consequences of the development the new state has introduced.

At the heart of these perspectives is the complex nature of the challenges faced by the South African public service. Any attempt to improve service delivery must confront challenges that revolve around leadership and governance weaknesses. There are other constraints, i.e. inadequate financial and human resources, inadequate human resources management, ineffective policy implementation, lack of effective co-ordination, poor intergovernmental relations (IGR), ineffective communication and deficient monitoring and evaluation systems.

Various models of governance have been adopted by the South African public service to overcome these challenges. The new approaches to service delivery in the South African public service share a concern with different role-players, customers and outcomes. The transformation of service delivery models by the South African public service aims to involve 'less government' but 'more governance'. An increasing network of role-players is becoming involved in the delivery of public services. In this case, bureaucratic accountability can no longer be specific to a department but must fit the substantive policy as well as the several institutions or role-players contributing to it. This is particularly relevant when examining the Departments of Health; Housing; Justice and Constitutional Development; and Safety and Security in this study.

Although the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) and subsequent documents have set out the public service priorities, these pronouncements still need to be integrated into a comprehensive, coherent and co-ordinated public administration model (Towards a Ten Year Review, 2003). In this study, it is evident that some public service department are still operating within the classical public administration model as reflected in Chapter Three of the study. Other departments, however, have already integrated some elements of the new public management (NPM) paradigm. This is discussed extensively in Chapter Three of the study. The classical public administration model has been inherited from the previous system (pre-1994). However, since 1994, the new South African government has embarked on a process of reform. In respect of the cases examined above, public service departments are in the process of adopting

certain elements of the NPM model, such as public private partnership (PPP). This changing trend in the classical public administration model is causing uncertainty in departments. However, in some cases, public service departments have adapted to changing circumstances and their progress is reflected accordingly. For example, the Department of Safety and Security has formed partnerships with communities and businesses to curb crime. These are examples of effective governance practices, which have been highlighted in Chapter Four of the study.

NPM principles are evident in the cases examined, especially with regard to the initiatives taken by the departments to develop a closer relationship with their customers. An example of this is the Department of Housing, which has been empowering its citizens by involving them in the delivery of services to their communities. The decision of the public service to define the citizens as customers or clients represents an important shift in paradigm. The Department of Health is improving the quality of services through citizen's charters and improved responsiveness towards their consumer (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/doc/pr/2002/pr>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*).

With regard to the Department of Safety and Security, the public servants that were inherited from the old dispensation (pre-1994) had been trained under a militaristic mindset (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Charles Nqakula, 5 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). Under the new democracy (since 1994), however, public servants are required to operate within a human rights culture (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). This clearly presents a challenge for the Department of Safety and Security. Changing the mindset of public servants from the old dispensation, but it is essential in a democracy to promote legitimacy. In the Department of Housing, similarly the Chief Director, who had been inherited from the previous dispensation, did not have the capacity to transform and manage his department effectively (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 122). This resulted in serious maladministration in the Department of Housing, which hampered efficient service delivery.

The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development and the Department of Housing (pre-1994) have inherited approaches from the previous dispensation. The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, for instance, is unrepresentative in terms of the demographics of South Africa (Part 4 - State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, Houses of Parliament, Cape Town, February 2003 (Access<[http://www.sabcnews.state of the nation/address2](http://www.sabcnews.state%20of%20the%20nation/address2): *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). In that it remains the domain of White males. The Department is currently taking corrective measures to promote equity (2003) by the implementation of its affirmative action strategy. In this regard, targets have been set to attain representivity.

In respect of the Department of Housing, too, the characteristics of the classical model of public administration are still operational, which is evident from the amount of red tape and bureaucracy (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 122). These cause delays in administrative issues in the Department, for example, the long delays with the approval of housing plans by the provincial housing Department. In all four Departments (Safety and Security, Housing, Justice and Constitutional Development, and Health) human resources are scarce. In the Department of Health there is a severe shortage of medical personnel (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/doc/pr/2002/pr>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*).

Despite the weaknesses and challenges confronting the South African public service, in giving effect to initiatives to improve public services in South Africa, departments are succeeding in delivering services to society (Access<<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.htm>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). The cases examined in this study suggest that, where there is strong, willing and capable leadership, definite progress has been made with respect to service delivery outcomes, irrespective of capacity issues. For example, in the Department of Health, despite critical shortages of personnel, a number of positive initiatives are undertaken, for example malaria and polio prevention programmes (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/doc/pr/2002/pr>: *Retrieved: 16 October 2003*). This is also evident in the Department of Health in respect of its initiatives on HIV/AIDS.

In terms of the Department of Health's human resources plan, efforts are being made to improve the working conditions of medical personnel to encourage them to continue working in the hospitals and clinics rather than leaving the profession or even emigrating (Access<<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.htm>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). This is further evident with other programmes in the cases examined. In the Department of Justice, case backlogs have indeed been reduced and efficiency has been improved (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminjustice2002.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). In the Department of Housing, too housing backlogs have been reduced (Parliamentary media briefing by the Minister of Housing, Ms. Sankie Mthembi-Mahanyele, 20 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*).

The challenges relating to human resources capacity and skills have faced the South African public service for some time, in the sense that they are the result of South Africa's history of apartheid (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). The shortage of leadership and human capacity and skills is evident in all the departments examined herein. Given the kinds of qualities and competencies that have, in the past, characterized the leadership in the South African public service, it must be examined whether these are in fact still relevant in meeting the needs of a post-apartheid society. It therefore depends upon the South African public service to develop a new competency profiling methodology that will breed public servants with the kinds of competencies that can match the challenges demanded by the new service delivery environment. The capacity of all departments must be systematically enhanced in order to improve and accelerate service delivery. This requirement is urgent, particularly with regard to the need to sustain the interventions that have already been implemented to alleviate service delivery backlogs.

Some leaders in the South African public service departments confront challenging situations daily. In all four departments studied herein the work- load far exceeds the available time and resources (Molopo, 2003: Discussion). The resources certainly include money, but also information, and skills (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). The cases examined suggest that most public servants in these departments have too much work and not enough time to complete it effectively, nor the necessary attention to detail (Chandu, 2004: Discussion). This is particular evident in the Department of

Health, where there are severe human resources constraints. As a result, medical staff work long hours to alleviate service delivery backlogs (Pillay, 2004: Discussion). Furthermore, some clinics in rural communities in South Africa do not have the necessary funding to improve primary health care (PHC) services, nor to employ additional medical personnel. Fiscal constraints have also had a ripple effect on obtaining other resources, such as medical equipment.

The picture that emerges from examined cases is that there is a shortage of skilled staff (Second Economic and Social Rights Report 1998/1998, 2000). The Departments of Health, in the Northern Province and Eastern Cape Province, for example, have a serious lack of human resources. In certain hospitals, medical personnel had not been trained on the use of the latest medical technology (Access<<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.htm>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). Medical personnel in particular have been overwhelmed by the weight of service delivery challenges facing the provinces (Access<<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.htm>: Retrieved: 17 October 2003). In this regard, in the Department of Health, the doctors on the apparent lack of consultation voiced dissatisfactions by hospital authorities on important human resources issues (Pillay, 2003: Discussion). Furthermore, doctors complained about the lack of policy implementation strategies for primary health care (PHC) (Chandu, 2003: Discussion).

It was found that the provincial Health departments in the Western Cape Province and Gauteng Province in South Africa have functioned better than those in other provinces (Second Economic and Social Rights Report 1998/1999, 2000). There are, however, concerns about representivity and transformation in the Western Cape Province Health Department (Pillay, 2003: Discussion). The Departments of Health and Justice and Constitutional Development are confronted with a shortage of professionals from previously disadvantaged groups in all provinces (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). The deficiency of human resources skills is a constant challenge in all four cases studies examined. The reasons for this, is a shortage of qualified people in the professional and legal sectors. Training and development is therefore crucial to alleviate these shortages.

Mokgoro (2000: 12) argues that a stronger degree of institutional certainty will help improve service delivery. In this regard, Mokgoro (2000: 12) states that any further

public service reforms in the South African public service should be carefully considered. Above all, the leadership ought to have the intellectual capacity to convert government policy into efficacious strategies, that can be implemented and to utilize resources allocated to them more effectively.

To promote effective human resources management in the examined cases, a number of initiatives have been undertaken by the departments. The Department of Health, for example, instituted training of medical personnel to improve their competence on the usage of the latest medical technologies. In other departments in the South African public service, training initiatives are also being undertaken to improve competences (Part 2 - State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, Houses of Parliament, Cape Town, February 2003) (Access<<http://www.sabcnews.stateofthenation/address2>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*).

By 2003, the national and provincial governments of the South African public service completed the process of auditing their personnel to determine the personnel needs for each department, in relation to service delivery needs and demands (Part 2 - State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa, Thabo Mbeki, Houses of Parliament, Cape Town, February 2003) (Access<<http://www.sabcnews.stateofthenation/address2>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). This exercise was undertaken to ensure that the public service has the people with the right skills that correspond to the job requirements. The introduction of greater mobility to enable the public service to deploy individuals across departments at national and provincial sphere is essential. Another important intervention is to review management structures, with a key focus being the appropriate grading and competency assessment of senior leadership executives.

By 2003, almost all of the departments in the South African public service had completed their internal matching and placing process, and inter-departmental matching and placing are proceeding (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Briefing on Governance and Administration, Presented by Minister of Public Service and Administration, Ms Fraser-Moleketi, 4 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). This project will ensure that an individual is placed in a position that is commensurate with his or her skills and competencies. This will also help to improve service delivery performance by the South African public service.

In 2003, there was a surplus of approximately twenty four thousand employees and fifteen thousand vacancies in the South African public service (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Briefing on Governance and Administration, Presented by Minister of Public Service and Administration, Ms Fraser-Moleketi, 4 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). In this regard, eighty percent of the vacancies were at managerial and professional levels, especially in the health sector (Service Delivery Review 2004). Seventy percent of all the employees at the lower echelons are in surplus. For example, these include secretaries, receptionists and clerks. A new framework for ongoing restructuring of the South African public service has been developed in response to these imbalances. In this respect, employees are being redeployed to various posts within the South African public service. In cases where employees had not been successfully redeployed, they were placed in special programmes and retained within the public service, until June 2004. This is an important initiative in streamlining the South African public service to ensure optimal efficiency.

The ideal would be for the South African public service to evaluate the jobs of all senior managers, in order to establish at what level the jobs ought to be graded and what key competencies are required of the incumbents. Once the correct grading of these positions and the job requirements, have been ascertained public servants ought to be assessed. These assessments should look at the core existing managerial and functional competencies, of employees in order to assess the suitability of the managers and professionals in their current positions and their future training needs.

It has become something of a truism in many quarters to say that the South African public service frequently develops policies that are ambitious and developmentally sound, but cannot be fully implemented for various reasons, including a lack of capacity and skills and budgetary challenges. In some instances this criticism is fair. In others, however, it misses the mark. The gap between policy and implementation and its impact on service delivery was highlighted by the President, the Minister of Health and the Minister of the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) of South Africa (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Briefing on Governance and Administration, Presented

by Minister of Public Service and Administration, Ms Fraser-Moleketi, 4 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*).

President Thabo Mbeki indicated on national television in South Africa that the critical challenge that the South African public service faces is the capacity to implement policies (Interview of President Thabo Mbeki, SABC TV2, 16 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 23 October 2003*). This is reiterated in the Service Delivery Review (2004), which states that ineffective policy implementation by the South African public service impacts on service delivery performance. President Thabo Mbeki indicated that the critical factor is to improve the quality of leadership in the South African public service (Interview of President Thabo Mbeki, SABC TV2, 16 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 23 October 2003*). President Mbeki stated that there is a need to radically increase the capacity of leadership on all levels of the South African public service. The President maintains that the lack of effective leadership is a central issue impacting on public service delivery outcomes in South Africa. The second issue is to ensure that monies are actually spent properly by relevant departments (Interview of President Thabo Mbeki, SABC TV2, 16 February 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 23 October 2003*).

Bardill (2000: 104) echoes Mbeki's words, arguing that an effective leadership framework is needed. Bichard (1998: 331) in a similar vein argues that in the South African public service, the focus of the leadership approach is on management rather than leadership. Bichard (1998: 331) suggests "what is needed is not just effective management in the South African public service, but leadership." In the cases examined herein, elements of transformational, transactional and team leadership began to be adopted in public service departments from 1994 onwards. Van Wyk, *et al.* (2002: 3) concedes that since 1994, the South African public service has also been using project teams. Moreover, these departments have adopted certain elements of democratic, administrative and civic governance (Naidoo, 2003: Discussion). These developments have led to the scale of change that can be seen in the South African public service over the last nine years (1994 to 2003). It is evident that all public service departments in South Africa have been involved in extensive restructuring, reform and transformation initiatives.

In 2002, the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) of South Africa proposed that leaders in South Africa, including leaders in the public service ought to develop more of their transformational leadership abilities and focus less on transactional leadership or management. Their findings were based on research data of seven thousand five hundred and sixty two leaders in South Africa. Transformational leadership involves change and transformation (Ozaralli, 2003: 335). It also involves vision setting and defining goals and strategies. The South African public service departments are constantly transforming and improving, but this ought to be integrated into a holistic leadership and governance framework that is appropriate and effective in the South African context. Furthermore, local narratives, such as culture, socio-economic factors and diverse political perspectives must be considered within this framework.

Maritz (2000: 18) states: "...To excel, public service leaders in South Africa will need to spend more time leading and developing their people, as well as doing less checking and controlling." Transactional leadership deals largely with red tape and bureaucracy, which overlaps with the characteristics of the classical public administration model. This was evident in the cases examined, for example in the Department of Housing, where there was an emphasis on transactional leadership. There is an urgent need to develop public servants in South Africa to lead rather than control. Transactional leadership is dominant in the cases examined, whereby public service departments still operate within a rule-bound culture.

Bryman (1992: 23) argues that sound transactional leadership is, however, the only base, from which transformational leadership can be attempted. Transactional leadership should thus not be completely discarded. Its positive attributes are essential to promoting a sustainable public service as they ensure attention to detail, maintain operational systems and improve productivity and cost efficiency. According to Heracleous and Langham (1996: 24), transactional leadership deals with day-to-day issues in a department. Many of these tasks may take place at the operational levels of public service departments (Bryman 1992: 23). In other words, many tasks will take place where the actual services are delivered.

In examining the findings of project teams of government programmes, policies, legislation and structures, it is evident that the South African public service often makes

mistakes by giving project teams excessively challenging assignments while giving very little institutional support to enable teams to accomplish these assignments (Chandu 2004: Discussion). Clearly, even the most well intentioned goals, the best team members and their commitment will not mean much if the public service does not finance or resource the project to accomplish the goals. Moreover, a report on the state of the South African public service (2003) indicates that the public service does not adequately reward teams in terms of raises or bonuses when they do succeed. The South African public service has since established a performance management system to address the issue pertaining to rewards.

In view of the above, the South African public service can draw on the positive aspects of team leadership to promote effective service delivery. The most salient aspect is the setting of clear goals. These will allow managers to evaluate whether performance objectives have been realized. In this regard Adair (2002: 5) suggests that teams often fail when they are given a vague task and asked to work out the details themselves. Hackman and Walton (1986: 87), point out that teams often fail because they allow personal agendas to interfere with and replace team goals. In addition, the goal should be motivating, so that members feel that it is worthwhile to achieve.

Another important aspect that the South African public service ought to take cognizance of, as espoused by the various authors on team leadership, relate to the need for results-driven departmental structures. In this regard, teams in the South African public service have to find the best structure to accomplish their goals. As pointed out earlier, teams have different work content with which they deal. In the South African public service, all teams need to have clear roles for group members, a good communication system and methods of evaluating individual performance.

A crucial component of teams, are competent team members. As a group, the members should possess the requisite technical competence to accomplish the team's goals. Members should be personally competent in interpersonal skills or teamwork as well. Goleman (2003: 233) suggests that people who have the technical skills do not necessarily have the interpersonal skills to work together effectively in a group. Team members ought to know how to engage in collaborative work and to communicate effectively with one another.

Another fundamental facet that the South African public service ought to consider is the need for effectiveness in teams. According to Taylor (2003: 106), effective group norms are important for team functioning. Hackman and Walton (1986: 106) concede that team members' performance needs to be regulated, so that actions can be coordinated and tasks completed. It is vital that the South African public service set up mandatory targets and timeframes so that members feel pressured to perform towards attaining them (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). The guidelines should be clear and specific, and all team members should be required to perform to standard. In this respect the South African government's 'Batho Pele' policy should go a long way in promoting service delivery excellence by the South African public service. This in turn will lead to the better use of human resources and an increase in innovation and creativity in the South African public service. Furthermore, decision-making of the public service should be shifted downward, from the traditional hierarchy to more self-managed teams. This should empower teams in new ways. This is likely to lead to better decision-making and problem solving in the South African public service.

A unified commitment from team members is also important. Teams need to have a sense of unity or identification with a common purpose to promote the objectives of the group. Team spirit must develop a climate of collaboration by involving members in all aspects of the process. Larson and Lafasto (1989: 170) argue that trust based on honesty, openness, consistency, and respect are essential for building such a collaborative climate in which members can remain focused on the problem. They state that team members can then be open with one another, listen to each other, and feel free to take risks and willing to compensate for each other. In this respect, the principles of traditional African leadership such as '*ubuntu*' should be considered by the South African public service.

Leadership in the South African public service should thus incorporate the principles of '*ubuntu*', which focus on consensus building, inclusiveness, participation and caring. This may promote the idea that striving to reach departmental goals should enable public servants to reach their personal goals. There should thus be a bottom-up approach to leadership that starts with the public servant's needs. Leadership in the South African public service can focus on the fulfilment of subordinates' goals and needs and for the realization of the larger purpose or mission of the public service. Naidoo (2003:

Discussion) points out that effective leadership is not just needed at the top of the South African public service, but at many different levels within the public service.

Leaders should be able to react well to all situations, and should be able to manage their departments efficiently, effectively and economically. It is important for the leadership in the South African public service to create a sense of purpose and direction. The South African scenario demands that leaders have the ability to analyse complex situations, to anticipate problems and to inspire their followers. The leadership should enable their departments to meet their service delivery commitments and even to excel beyond the required objectives. Public service leaders should also have the ability to provide leadership to the wider communities of South Africa. Public service leadership should have the insight to inspire and empower citizens throughout South Africa to become actively involved in the drive to redress, improve and sustain services to its communities.

The leadership in the South African public service ought to demonstrate a strong personal commitment to service delivery. More importantly, leaders should believe that they are the managers of the programmes and be motivated to deliver them. Schacter (2000:8) claims that when the local perception is that service delivery programmes have been designed and imposed by external agencies, there will be no ownership by followers. Conversely, when leaders within public service departments take the lead in both recognizing the need for transformation of service delivery and in designing the necessary mechanisms and interventions towards this end, the sense of ownership amongst public servants will be high. It is important for the South African public service to take heed of this argument.

An ineffective and inappropriate leadership framework is a significant constraint on efforts to improve and sustain service delivery by the South African public service. A lack of leadership capacity (needed to design, manage and implement public programmes) is recognized as a key constraint to effective service delivery. In some instances, this has led to public service departments in South Africa struggling with responsibilities they cannot fulfil and at the same time being unable to develop themselves in technical and managerial terms (A Report on the State of the Public Service, 2001: 9).

An emerging trend is that the dearth of leadership capacity is not only a cause but also a consequence of the sluggish progress in some public service departments to improve and redress service delivery backlogs in South Africa. However, an important feature of the South African public service is that qualities such as responsiveness to citizens and attention to public service delivery are being systematically valued and encouraged by leaders. Responsiveness is concerned with the degree to which citizens' preferences are met. It refers to the extent that the service satisfies the needs, preferences or values of particular groups (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2001: 96). There is a strong motivation by the South African public service to invest in building leadership capacity to improve and redress public service imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

In 2003, the Minister of Safety and Security in South Africa, Mr. Charles Nqakula, had similar concerns, and indicated the need to improve leadership capacity of public servants, particularly to ensure continued policy implementation. This was re-iterated by Kuye (2003: 1), who states "leadership constraints have had an impact on policy implementation." An example given is the need for competent leadership with a vision to promote an Integrated Justice System (IJS) (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Charles Nqakula, 5 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). The purpose of an IJS would be to overcome service delivery backlogs by the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development. The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development is undertaking this programme in collaboration with the Department of Safety and Security. Mr. Nqakula further stated that public service departments would require additional human and financial resources to meet the most important service delivery priorities, especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

In 2003, the Minister of Health in South Africa, Dr. Manto Tshabalala-Msimang, further stated that the 'Cabinet *Lekgotla*' (the word *Lekgotla* refers to deliberation), had identified gaps and inconsistencies in the implementation of various policies and programmes by the South African Department of Health (Social Cluster Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Dr. Manto Tshabalala-Msimang, The Minister of Health, 31 July 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). Theron, *et al.* (2000: 24), similarly had argued that ineffective policy

implementation is one of the major obstacles to effective progress in service delivery. Ineffective implementation is caused by a number of factors, the most important of which is the lack of financial resources (Pillay, 2004: Discussion). Other obstacles include a lack of sufficient human resources (people, expertise, and experience), and a lack of technological resources (Moodley, 2004: Discussion).

A 'Report on the State of the Public Service' (2001: 19) indicates that, although policies are well designed and well structured, specific challenges have arisen in the policy implementation phase. Furthermore, the measures and processes that are set in motion at the central legislative level in South Africa are not adequately implemented as planned by its bureaucratic leadership at provincial and local spheres of government (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2000: 15). There are apparent inconsistencies between policy and implementation. Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2000: 15) indicate that interventions to address these challenges are often neither integrated nor supported within departments. The challenge that confronts the South African public service is to ensure that the necessary technical, institutional and human resource capacity exists amongst public servants, in order to improve policy implementation (Xio, 1998: 273).

If policy implementation is the major challenge in the South African public service, then leadership ought to focus on the objectives of the departments, to address how individual public servants can best be utilized to fulfil these objectives. These assessments need to be done properly and on a regular basis. This includes the basic activity of setting manageable, achievable targets, and using effective monitoring and evaluation systems to continually assess progress. A strong degree of institutional certainty will help this process. The renewed focus on core principles would thus add value to the public service.

In 2003, the Minister of Health indicated that administrative and institutional barriers in South African public service departments are curtailing the impact of policy implementation (Social Cluster Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Dr Manto Tshabalala-Msimang, The Minister of Health, 31 July 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). This has been re-iterated by the Minister of Public Service and Administration in South Africa. In this regard, she has indicated that, the South African public service faces major

administrative challenges in terms of policy implementation (Service Delivery Review 2003). Furthermore, the Department of Public Service and Administration's (DPSA's) Provincial Review Report of 2003, highlights a number of critical administrative and institutional weaknesses in most provincial administrations in South Africa.

The challenges of policy implementation are evident in the four departments analysed in this chapter, i.e. the Departments of Health, Housing, Justice and Constitutional Development and Safety and Security. This is re-iterated in the Second Economic and Social Rights Report of 2000. It could be argued that some policies in these departments were formulated without fully consulting with key actors, who would have to implement them, such as the hospital superintendents, in the case of the Department of Health, and the heads of departments in the other departments (Access<<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: Retrieved: 16 October 2003). Moreover, policy implementation in public service departments, such as hospitals in South Africa, has lacked proper prioritisation and time scales (Pillay 2004: Discussion). Similar gaps are evident in the Departments of Housing, Justice, and Safety and Security. Furthermore, there is inadequate communication and co-ordination of policy implementation. This is especially evident within the three spheres of government (national, provincial and local) in South Africa.

There is also a lack of clarity of the roles and functions of each sphere of government, although these are clearly spelt out in the Constitution (1996). Friedman (2003: 2) argues that these have not effectively communicated to the provincial and local government spheres by national government. This problem was detailed in Chapter Three of this study. In addition, there is inadequate co-ordination of policies between the three spheres of government (Kuye, 2004: Discussion). Again, this could be attributed to leadership and human resources constraints. There are also factors pertaining to ineffective governance practices (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). For example, structures and resources have not been put into place to ensure effective policy implementation. This is evident with some clinics in rural communities in South Africa (Pillay, 2004: Discussion).

Other policy deficiencies are the lack of clear strategies for policy implementation (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminjustice2002.html>: Retrieved: 17 October

2003). This is evident, for example, with the Departments of Justice and Constitutional Development and Safety and Security (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). This has certainly impacted on the pace of transformation in the Department of Safety and Security (Govender, 2004: Discussion). This has hampered effective service delivery in both departments. Policy implementation also lacked co-operation among different departments, at national, provincial and local spheres governments (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Briefing on Governance and Administration, Presented by Minister of Public Service and Administration, Ms Fraser-Moleketi, 4 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*).

The lack of trust between the three spheres of government in particular was highlighted as hampering service delivery (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminjustice2002.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). The lack of co-operation is a constraint that was constantly mentioned in the discussion earlier. This is evident in all cases examined. Furthermore, this was clearly reflected by key role players in South Africa. For example, the Minister of Health and the Minister of the Department of Public Service and Administration (DPSA) repeatedly indicated that the lack of co-operation between the three spheres of government was a massive challenge impacting on effective policy implementation by the South African public service.

Schacter (2000: 8) re-iterates that there is distrust, a lack of accountability, and intransigence in the relations between the different spheres of government (national, provincial and local). Within the Department of Housing, for example, relations were strained between the provincial sphere of government and the local sphere of government (Muthien, *et al.* 2000: 122). This can be attributed to the lack of a clear description of the roles of the different spheres of government. However, efforts are being made to improve intergovernmental relations (IGR) between the spheres of government. In this regard, an IGR policy, are prepared by government. The aim is to overcome the challenges currently experienced.

Another challenge that the South African public service departments experience a rapid staff turnover (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). In respect of the Department of Health, doctors are constantly moving from the public sector to the private sector

(Access <<http://www.doh.gov.za/docs/pr/2003>: Retrieved: 16 October 2003). Many doctors and nurses from the South African public health service are also emigrating to other countries (Pillay, 2004: Discussion). This can be attributed to higher salaries and better working conditions and benefits. This creates a huge vacuum in terms of human resource capacity in the public health sector in South Africa (Soobrayan, 2004: Discussion). The Department of Health has however been taking active measures to address this, by appointing foreign doctors (Moodley, 2004: Discussion). Furthermore, efforts are being made to improve salaries, working conditions and benefits. To a limited extent this has assisted in alleviating the staff shortages in clinics and hospitals. This is elaborated earlier in the discussion earlier.

Mokgoro (2002: 12) reports that, “policy implementation, monitoring and evaluation is the major challenge in the South African public service.” Mokgoro (2002: 12) states that: “the major focus needs to shift to addressing how individual workers are utilized in the South African public service.” This ought to include the basic activity of setting manageable, achievable targets, and using monitoring and evaluation systems to assess progress in terms of public service delivery. Nonetheless, policy implementation in the Department of Safety and Security is clearly problematic.

Despite these shortcomings and challenges facing the South African public service, procedures and manuals have been developed for those responsible for policy implementation (Van Niekerk, *et al.* 2000: 16). The standards are clear and ought to be effective. However, it is not used to the extent envisaged by public servants. This is attributed to it not being effectively communicated by managers. It is important for public servants to use these procedures and manuals to ensure effective policy implementation. Furthermore, policy implementation in the South African public service is linked to a performance management system. According to Van Niekerk, *et al.* (2000: 16), public servants are responsible for meeting policy objectives and accountable for the outcomes. The South African public service has also considered rewarding public servants. This comes at a time of growing concern at the ability of public service leadership to convert policy into practice and to utilize the resources allocated to them effectively.

Some of the lessons learnt and the recommendations thereof for the policy process in the South African public service are, firstly, that the context of policy implementation and service delivery should be borne in mind when the leadership and those who implement policies in public service departments formulate them. Secondly, policies should be seen as starting points by public service departments in South Africa rather than final goals, in order to promote a willingness to modify policies that do not work in reality. Thirdly, leaders and managers who are involved in the implementation of policies should also have a say in developing such policies. A lack of continuity between policy development and implementation undermines both policy-making and its implementation. Moreover, the leaders or managers who develop policy are likely to be familiar with the policy and its implications, and thus are able to implement it successfully.

Fourthly, it is crucial that affected interest groups in South Africa, such as civic organizations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) be actively involved in monitoring and evaluating the policy implementation processes. Monitoring and evaluating mechanisms in the cases examined are weak. The strengthening of these mechanisms in the South African public service is likely to promote effective service delivery. The monitoring and evaluation mechanisms will identify weaknesses in the process, which be promptly addressed.

The Minister of Health argues that there is a need for increased co-ordination and integration in the delivery of Health services, as this is clearly lacking in the department (Social Cluster Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Dr. Manto Tshabalala-Msimang, The Minister of Health, 31 July 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). A study on the South African public service that was initiated by the South African Public Service Commission (PSC) (2000) clearly indicates a weakness in the current structures and mechanisms for coordination, both within departments and provinces and between the different spheres of government. The inefficiencies in terms of policy coordination at the national level have ‘knock-on’ effects on the provincial departments; with the Department of Housing, for example this was clearly evident.

Dr. Manto Tshabalala-Msimang indicates that inter-sectoral coordination within the provinces is limited and that the development of integrated programmes is not taking place at the level required to address service delivery imbalances and inequities among South African communities (Social Cluster Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Dr. Manto Tshabalala-Msimang, The Minister of Health, 31 July 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). She argues that this is also due, in part, to the confusion that prevails in particular provinces over the coordinating role of the provincial leaders, mainly the Director-General. Furthermore, it is also due to a failure to coordinate policy formulation, and to ensure that policies are implemented collaboratively. In 2003, the Minister of Safety and Security also indicated that there is a need to effect significant improvements in cooperation and coordination between different departments and different spheres of government (national, provincial and local) in the South African public service in general, and in the Department of Safety and Security in particular (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Charles Nqakula, 5 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*).

Viewpoints expressed by Ncholo (2000: 25) indicate similarities with respect to inadequate coordination in the South African public service. This often occurs between leadership in decision-making positions and leadership in administrative positions. Moreover, Ncholo (2000: 25) indicates that few structures have been set up to promote coordination between municipal (local) government departments and the other two spheres of government (provincial and national). This clearly becomes evident with the Departments of Health, Housing and Justice and Constitutional Development. Ncholo (2000: 25) argues that, despite the provisions of the Constitution (1996), municipal authorities have yet to be integrated as a distinct sphere into the broader system of governance in South Africa. The formal public service has been created by the South African government to promote inter-governmental relations (IGR) between municipal (local sphere), and national and provincial governments. This is presently still evolving and not yet fully operational (Friedman, 2003: First South African Public Management Conversation).

As a consequence, where concurrent responsibilities extend to the municipal (local) sphere in South Africa, these are generally not integrated with national and provincial programmes (Friedman, 2003: 3). Although part of this has to do with the fact that the focus of IGR thus far has been on relations between the national and provincial governments, rather than including relations with local government as well. It also has to do with the variable financial and human resources capacities of municipal (local) governments (Service Delivery Review, 2001).

Effective coordination within and between the three spheres of government is clearly vital, especially if the South African public service is to contribute meaningfully to the kind of integrated approach to reconstruction and development that has been advocated in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the White Paper on Transforming the Public Service (WPTPS) and other policy papers, as well as to the system of co-operative governance spelled out in the Constitution (1996). Furthermore, the necessary financial, human and technical resources have to be provided by the South African government to improve service delivery.

Long - term sustainable development objectives, of the South African public service is important. However, the sustainability of services depends on their ongoing affordability. This requires that appropriate technology and levels of service be designed to ensure low-cost maintenance, such as electricity where overhead cables are easier and more cost-effective to maintain, even if technology and aesthetics dictate that underground systems are preferable. Conversely, in other cases, the development of high-cost, high-quality infrastructure, such as in the building of schools or clinics, can ultimately ensure lower costs in maintenance. The ongoing impact of service delivery projects in the South Africa public service ought to be appropriately focused on the longer terms. Training, for instance, should focus on the leadership and human resources capacity around each project. This avoids the project being short-lived because of leadership and human resources incapacity. It is therefore in the interest of the project leader to promote leadership and human resources training in order to ensure the sustainability of the project.

This is re-iterated in the Report on the State of the Public Service (2001: 2), which reports that monitoring and evaluation remains a challenge in South African public

service departments. The Report (2001: 16) further states that, the institutional arrangements in some departments lack effective monitoring and evaluation systems to measure performance and evaluate policy outcomes (Report on the State of the Public Service 2001: 16). In this regard, one of the issues of concern with the Public Service Commission (PSC) in South Africa is the fact that many development programmes aimed at addressing service delivery backlogs are not properly monitored and evaluated (Chandu 2004: Discussion). This is a consistent concern with the Minister of Health. In this regard, the Minister claimed that there is a general weakness in terms of monitoring and evaluation in the South African public service (Social Cluster Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Dr. Manto Tshabalala-Msimang, The Minister of Health, 31 July 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*).

There is corruption, maladministration and white-collar crime that are impacting on service delivery (Service Delivery Review, 2004). Corruption is evident in the Department of Health, and the Department of Safety and Security is also confronted by a rise in corruption, maladministration and white-collar crimes (Fanaroff, 2002: 3). Theft within the Department of Health is also a major concern (Pillay, 2004: Discussion). The Department has taken steps to improve control measures to curb these practices where they are prevalent (Service Delivery Review, 2003). By 2003, it could not be determined how effective these control mechanisms were. Similar sentiments can be echoed for the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, where corruption, theft, white-collar crimes and maladministration are evident as well (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminjustice2002.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). The South African government has embarked on a number of initiatives to curb corruption, which were outlined extensively earlier in the chapter (Naidoo, 2004: Discussion). The importance of an ethical framework for the South African public service is stressed. In this regard, accountability, transparency, honesty and integrity are considered important to promote an efficient public administration. This was discussed extensively in Chapter Four of the study.

Public servants should exercise their authority properly, responsibly and democratically. Better accountability is seen as imposing restraints on power and authority and creating incentives for appropriate behaviours and actions. Thus, the sense that the public service

needs to improve, that its power should be circumscribed, and that its actions should be exercised according to the will of the citizens, puts accountability at the centre of current leadership and governance issues (Van Wyk, *et al.* 2002: 293).

There is a development of a structure of administrative law aimed at enhancing the scrutiny of bureaucratic decision-making (Service Delivery Review, 2004). Critics suggest that the mechanisms designed to improve accountability in the South African public service, have, however, failed to keep pace with the speed of public service change (Lungu and Esau, 1999: 44). Bardill (2000: 105) indicates that, traditional notions of accountability in the South African public service (prior to 1994) emphasize process and prescription, whereas the present South African public service (post 1994) emphasizes results or outcomes in terms of service delivery.

According to Ncholo (2000: 30), the balance between maintaining the accountability required of the South African public service and developing a performance culture is not easily attained. Unlike the private sector, where the bottom-line rationale is profit, the public service often finds itself having to balance different objectives, the relative importance of which may shift over time (Lungu and Esau, 1999: 44). Ways should, therefore, be found to strengthen the commitment of leadership, especially leaders in their capacity as senior politicians, decision-makers and managers, to build sustainable capacity. Projects aimed at building professional capacity should not overlook the importance of training senior officers to lead and utilize scarce staff resources better (Cohen and Wheeler, 1997: 310).

Politicians and public servants should be accountable for their actions to their constituencies and superiors. They should also be accountable to the public. Accountability in the South African public service should focus on compliance with rules and ethical principles and the achievement of outcomes. Accountability mechanisms thus need to be strengthened within the South African public service. Furthermore, this should be extended to South African society in general. Mechanisms promoting accountability should therefore be strengthened to provide adequate monitoring, reporting and feedback within the South African public service. In this way, control will be strengthened and sustainability will be improved.

There is inadequate infrastructure in previously disadvantaged communities, especially in rural areas in South Africa which impacts on effective public service delivery. For example, in the case of the Department of Justice, the courts are only found in city centres (Access<<http://www.doj.gov.za/about/adminjustice2002.html>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). This has had a ripple effect in that services have been inaccessible to previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. The Department of Justice has however embarked on the use of mobile law clinics, which has partially alleviated this challenge.

Inaccessibility is also the case with the Department of Health in South Africa (Access<<http://www.gov.za/structure/pubserv.htm>: *Retrieved: 17 October 2003*). Some of the health clinics are situated in remote rural areas, which are inaccessible to the community (Pillay, 2004: Discussion). Communities have, therefore, continued to use hospital services to a greater extent (Moodley, 2004: Discussion). With respect to the Department of Safety and Security there are insufficient police stations in previously disadvantaged communities (Post-Cabinet Lekgotla Media Briefing, Presented by Minister of Safety and Security, Mr. Charles Nqakula, 5 August 2003) (Access<<http://www.gov.za/search97cgi/s97>: *Retrieved: 20 October 2003*). The statistics reflected in the discussion above clearly indicate this. The majority of police stations in South Africa are found in previously White areas (Govender, 2004: Discussion).

Despite these challenges, constrains and lessons, policy implementation has continued to be satisfactory in three of the four cases examined. However, it is clearly evident that the public service departments have not achieved optimal results, especially in respect of previously disadvantaged communities' massive service delivery imbalances and inequities. The public service has also not adequately addressed service delivery imbalances and inequities at the pace that is required in South Africa. As a result huge backlogs are evident in previously disadvantaged communities, especially in rural areas in South Africa.

According to the Minister of the South African Public Service, Ms. Geraldine Fraser-Moleketi (2003: School of Public Management and Administration, University Of Pretoria), effective leadership and governance approaches for improving service

delivery, are crucial for success. Against this background, leadership must provide direction, so that people can invest their energy synergistically to attain service delivery goals. In order to meet these objectives, leaders in the South African public service will, however, be challenged to work within multiple dimensions to promote effective service delivery.

A question can be put forward as to whether particular leadership attributes are required for the South African public service. The South African public service, after all, comprises a diverse group of people from different races, ethnicities, traditions and political groupings (Naidoo, 1996:13). Each grouping has its own idiosyncrasies (Kuye, Discussion: 2003). The public service ought to focus on the diversity of leadership approaches for the possible adoption by the public service. Although the South African public service is heterogeneous by nature, the focus thus far has been on Eurocentric approaches (Naidoo, 1996: 1). To develop a more effective and holistic leadership framework, the focus should be on the positive attributes of leadership approaches from different traditions and systems. In South Africa, the positive attributes of both Western and traditional African leadership models should be integrated to bring about meaningful change in the South African public service (Moleketi, 2003: School of Public Management and Administration, University of Pretoria).

All cases studied failed to consider the need for a uniquely South African leadership and governance framework. As indicated, the current framework has to be strengthened, by integrating unique attributes of the South African scenario. The political, economic, social and cultural context ought to be considered by South African public service when designing an appropriate framework. An encompassing framework should provide the basis for improvement in service delivery performance in the South African public service. Furthermore, the public service ought to address the numerous challenges and weaknesses that are hampering its effectiveness.

Moreover, the public service ought to concretise its public administration model, to avoid ambiguity. The public service has made significant progress in adopting a new public administration model. These efforts need to be consolidated with greater attention being focused on improving service delivery, especially in previously

disadvantaged communities. When the basic approaches are consolidated, this should promote a sustainable public service for improved service delivery performance.

The study thus suggests that an integrated model of transformational, transactional, team and traditional African leadership framework would be appropriate for the South African public service to improve and redress service delivery performance. The leader also ought to adapt his or her leadership style to the particular context. These approaches focus on processes that change and transform individuals for the betterment of society (Naidoo, 1996: 7). Transformational and traditional African leadership are concerned with ethics, values, long-term goals and standards (Northouse, 2001: 130). Transformational and traditional African leadership involves assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings. According to Northouse (2001: 131), transformational leadership describes a wide range of leadership, from very specific attempts to influence whole institutions and even entire cultures. Although transformational leadership plays a pivotal role in precipitating change, followers and leaders are inextricably bound together in the transformation process.

Rost (1993: 121) and Naidoo (1996: 8) reiterate that both transformational and traditional African leadership is concerned with end-values such as equity. Leaders and followers are engaged in a common enterprise, and are dependent on each other. The pay-off is both predict a higher level of performance across a diversity of cultures and scenarios. The South African society is diverse in terms of race, gender, ethnicity and political perspectives (Kuye, 2004: Discussion). It would therefore be appropriate to examine the positive attributes of different leadership approaches that would be appropriate and effective for the South African public service.

Although a number of initiatives are presently being undertaken by the South African public service to improve public service delivery, the approaches that are applied have not been very effective in accelerating service delivery at the pace that is needed in South Africa. The public administration model comprises varied elements of the classical and new public management (NPM) paradigm, transactional, transformational leadership and team leadership, in a transforming South African public service. This has not been effective in accelerating service delivery to the South African society at the

pace that is needed to eradicate the massive backlogs in previously disadvantaged communities.

Future trends

The starting point in improving and accelerating service delivery by the South African public service should be that leadership and governance must serve the common purpose of ensuring effective, cost-efficient and equitable service delivery. Effective leadership and governance in the South African public service depends on a thriving policy environment, which is built upon the bedrock of reliability and predictability in public administration. Moreover, it requires that sufficient time be allocated for South African public service departments to execute their commitments. It also assumes that there ought to be some level of continuity in decision-making and a sustained commitment to service delivery over an extended time-span. This can be achieved through a professional, highly skilled public service, as well as sustained investment in public infrastructure.

Policy analysis and prioritisation should be done in an integrated manner. It is assumed that what guides the work of each public service department is the electoral mandate, which, in turn, translates constitutional obligations into programmes. These imperatives inform the South African public service's priorities and should ensure congruence across sectors and spheres of government. In addition, integrated planning systems should be put into place to guide the operational work of all public service departments. Integrated policy priorities should then inform human and financial resources allocation. However, the integration can only work in instances where there is effective monitoring and evaluation of performance in public service departments. An overall philosophy should guide the South African public service towards improved and accelerated service delivery, especially in previously disadvantaged communities.

An integrated approach to policy planning and implementation in the South African public service requires that outcomes be directed at changing the totality of people's lives. Moreover, successful policy implementation in South Africa ought to be measured by political accountability bureaucratic accountability, and transparency. In

this regard, a number of provisions have been made by the Constitution (1996) and other policy documents, which ought to be adhered to.

It is important to recognize that effective public service delivery will not just happen in South Africa. It is something that has to be nurtured and developed over time. According to Muzvidziwa (2001: 15), “leadership ought to be entrusted in the hands of men and women who are proud of their African identity and yet humble enough to serve those of their society who need their service and expertise.” There ought to be an environment created to nurture and foster the development of positive leadership qualities and skills in public servants in the South African public service. The South African public service needs leaders who can commit themselves to a life of personal integrity, accountability, responsibility, loyalty, selflessness, honesty, and willingness to sacrifice themselves for the future betterment of South Africa. Failure to develop sound leadership attributes amongst South African public servants will mean on-going service delivery weaknesses and persisting challenges.

There is diversity among South African public service leaders with respect to personalities, styles, abilities and interests. Effective leaders, however, have one thing in common: Their followers produce high quality results. Since public servants produce the results in the South African public service, it is necessary to redirect our inquiry and ask what public servants require, to make service delivery successful. The study suggests that leaders in the South African public service need six conditions in order to make them effective: Firstly, they should know what to do. Secondly, they ought to have the know-how to complete the task at hand. Thirdly, they should understand why they are doing it. Fourthly, they should be motivated to do the work. Fifthly, they ought to have the resources for doing their work. Sixthly, they should believe they have the competence to do the work.

It is the responsibility of leadership in the South African public service to ensure that these six conditions are met. When each person in the South African public service understands the what, how and why of his or her job, and when each has a personal commitment and the resources to get the job done, it is anticipated that the expected result would be improvements in service delivery performance. An alignment of these components should result in effective service delivery by the public service. In the same

light, a strengthening of leadership and governance in the South African public service is essential for improving and accelerating service delivery performance.

Leaders in the South African public service, especially those in senior management and high-level professional positions, must concretise its vision of a better life for all, through effective implementation strategies and efficient utilization of resources. In view of the service delivery backlogs, there is no place for mediocrity or lack of commitment on the path of leadership. The leader's talents are utilized to the best advantage of the South African public service. Training and development should be essential for public servants, and the training should be designed to address the skills needed by departments. It is also essential that employees be specifically trained to meet service delivery objectives.

Collective decision-making, which is participation in decision-making at a primary level, and which is an aspect of traditional African leadership, will be enabling and empowering among the South African community. In this regard, leaders in the South African public service ought to make information available through collective decision-making. This will develop the ability of people to make decisions that are in the best interest of both individuals and the public service. Collective decision-making will also contribute to the development of the skills and abilities of public servants in South Africa. The degree to which leaders empower others will affect their legitimacy and the influence they have. Leaders should thus create an inclusive culture, which fosters the feeling of being part of a community.

In the South African public service, there is a diversity of public servants, from varied local cultures and traditions (Naidoo, 1996: 6). In view of the diversity of cultures and traditions and the need for greater efficiency in the South African public service, an inclusive approach to leadership and governance will be highly beneficial to promote service delivery performance. The new South African public service recognizes the potential of each and every culture (Naidoo, 1996: 2). The South African public service ought to draw on aspects that contribute to the principles espoused in the various policies in South Africa, such as the promotion of democracy.

In this respect, equality and unity in diversity ought to be considered as crucial in South Africa. The leadership and governance framework can draw on the positive attributes from every culture, including from African traditions that would be beneficial in the South African public service. It could sharpen those attributes that make for an effective leadership and governance framework, by incorporating positive components from the diverse traditions and systems. A diversity of positive leadership attributes, such as *'ubuntu'* ought to be infused into the leadership and governance framework of the South African public service. This has been discussed extensively in Chapter Four of the study.

It could be argued that there is a need for a pragmatic transformational African leadership and governance model that is tentatively referred to as a hybrid model. This model is derived, to respond to the unique circumstances faced by the post-apartheid public service, which would require a conception of public service leadership and governance that draws on relevant approaches. This hybrid model blends traditional African leadership and governance, transformational leadership and team leadership. It is also essential for leadership to adapt his or her leadership style to a particular context or situation. The model should encompass effective governance approaches. It should also comprise accountability, transparency and public participation. It is considered necessary to locate this integrated approach to leadership and governance within the new public administration model. Furthermore, the South African public service should incorporate political, cultural, spiritual, social and personal dimensions within its unique leadership and governance framework. The leadership and governance framework should be flexible enough to accommodate the unique diversities in the South African context. This should promote a sustainable public service, which ought to improve and redress service delivery, especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

At the same time, caution and not an uncritical total acceptance of one culture or values as givens, are essential. Undoubtedly, issues of appropriate management, leadership and governance practices require extensive exploration by South African public service before they can be adopted. The argument in this study is not about changing public administration approaches, or whether values do change or not, in the South African public service but the main goal is the improvement of service delivery by the South

African public service by the adoption and implementation of an effective leadership and governance framework.

SUMMARY

Efforts are being made by the four South African public service departments examined in this study to redress service delivery imbalances and inequities. There are notable achievements with the Departments of Health, Housing, Justice and Constitutional Development and Safety and Security. However, despite the South African public service focus on improving service delivery, they are faced with many challenges. There are areas of service delivery that requires improvement. The current public administration model is a mixture between the classical and post-modern one, which contains elements of transformational, team and transactional leadership approaches to redress service delivery imbalances and inequities.

In other words, although the traditional bureaucratic model of public administration is still evident in the departments herein examined, some elements of the new paradigm have already been adopted. A number of efforts are being taken by the South African public service to replace the traditional model of public administration. There is a shift towards the new models of public administration, which, it is hoped, will have a positive impact on service delivery everywhere in the country. The current public administration model, with mixed elements of leadership and governance has not been able to alleviate the massive imbalances in service delivery at the pace that is required. It is clear that there are also challenges with the current leadership and governance approaches adopted within the public administration model. The current pace of reforms in the departments is not fast enough to eliminate the backlog in services, particularly among previously disadvantaged communities. The current leadership and governance framework needs to be strengthened, so that the pace of service delivery can be increased.

It is proposed that the South African public service should carefully consider the importance of valuing the diversity in departments. It is also important to create a work environment that is conducive to promoting service delivery. In this regard, it is important for the South African public service to promote accountability, transparency

and public participation. Although several provisions have been made to promote these principles in the South African public service, they are not very effective in practice. Leaders will need to connect new ideas into an effective framework to accelerate their performance and to meet the government's commitments of redressing service delivery imbalances and inequities in South Africa. Much more needs to be done by the South African public service to address the massive imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities. These issues are further elaborated in Chapter Six of the study, which will make some viable recommendations for the South African public service.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The research analysed the following question: “To what extent can a leadership and governance framework improve service delivery in the South African public service?” Against this backdrop, the study examined the present state of service delivery by the South Africa public service by studying four departments, viz. Departments of Health, Housing, Justice and Constitutional Development and Safety and Security. Service delivery by the South African public service has been and is still being influenced by various factors, such as human resource and financial constraints. Service delivery by the South African public service requires local narratives and issues to be considered too. Although there has been progress in terms of meeting the immediate service delivery objectives, the study found that the leadership and governance framework is not very effective in rapidly redressing service delivery inequalities and imbalances in South Africa.

Some elements of transactional, transformational, and team leadership and governance models are evident within a still transforming South African public service. There are for example characteristics and principles intended to promote effective governance in the South African public service, such as public private partnerships (PPPs), accountability, transparency and participation. The study suggests that it is necessary to improve the current leadership and governance framework, to accelerate service delivery at the pace that is needed in South Africa, to address service delivery backlogs, especially in previously disadvantaged communities.

Traditional African leadership and governance approaches are respected in South Africa, but have not been integrated within the current leadership and governance framework. The study points to the need for a hybrid leadership and governance framework in the South Africa public service, with its own unique model comprising different strategies and diverse socio-economic and political perspectives. This model should have a unique semblance of a South African model that positively contributes to accelerate service delivery performance in the public service. The adoption of this distinct model should lead to a more sustainable public service. It is also needed to address weaknesses and challenges that impact on its ability to deliver services. For

example, the improvement of policy implementation is crucial for effective service delivery.

SUMMARY

Chapter One has introduced and given a background to the study. The chapter provided a historical overview of South Africa. A broad overview of the South African public service and service delivery during the apartheid era prior to 1994 was provided, and the current status of the South African public service from 1994 to 2003 in terms of service delivery was discussed. The definitions and operationalisation of the public service, service delivery, leadership, governance and transformative African leadership and governance were examined, analyzed and elaborated within the context of this study. The justification, objectives and research problem for the study were delineated, and lastly a breakdown of each chapter was outlined.

Chapter Two focuses presented the research methodology of the study. The qualitative case study method was used for the purpose of this study. The case study method was chosen, as it is a valuable tool in expanding knowledge on service delivery by the South African public service. Four cases were used, which led to a better understanding of the service delivery. The evidence from the cases illuminated issues and turned up possible explanations. The target population or the sample for the study consisted of four selected South African public service departments viz. Departments of Health, Housing, Justice and Constitutional Development and Safety and Security. The sample in this study evolved once the fieldwork began; thereafter the focus tightened with specific departments purposefully selected, which was deemed relevant to the conceptual framework and the research question. The triangulation approach was used in this study to increase the scope, depth and consistency in the study. The process of triangulation reduces the risk of systemic distortions inherent in the use of one method only. A multitude of different sources of data were used to validate and crosscheck the data. The searching of convergence of information, as a primary method of verification was used. The data analysis, validation and reporting of the study were discussed. The scope, limitations and significance of the study were also mentioned.

Chapter Three focused on the conceptual framework of the study. An overview was given of the evolution of public administration, leadership and governance and more specifically trends in the South African public service. The relationship between public administration, leadership, governance and service delivery was elaborated on. Since the new political dispensation in 1994, the South African public service has played a major role in translating South Africa's transition to democracy into decisive action in order to redress service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities. It also faces the challenge of creating a conducive environment to promote this goal. The public service has been transforming itself into a sustainable (efficient, effective and equitable) instrument of service delivery. In this regard, some South African public service departments have adopted a basic conceptual framework of the new public management (NPM) paradigm, for example public private partnership (PPPs) and citizen engagements. Elements of the classical model of public administration are also still evident in the South African public service, for example structural and functional aspects in public service departments are highlighted. The basic characteristics of a leadership and governance framework within a transforming public administration model are thus evident in the South African public service.

The most pertinent mechanisms for promoting a sustainable South African public service for effective service delivery were discussed in detail. In this respect, the study focused on the Constitution of South Africa (1996), the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the White Paper on Transforming Public Service (WPTPS) (1995) and the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (Batho Pele) (1996). The Constitution (1996) and these relevant policy papers have directed the efforts of the South African public service to the systematic dismantling of the classical model of public administration. A relational model was then developed by the researcher, which illustrates the relationship between public administration, (which includes both the classical and new public management (NPM) models) leadership, governance and service delivery. The model reflects changing trends in the South African public service. The basic conceptual relational model of public administration was redesigned and adapted for the purpose of this study.

The focal point of Chapter Four is the literature review, which discussed leadership and governance approaches. Both Western and African leadership and governance

approaches are extensively discussed and analyzed. The pertinent characteristics of both were integrated to create a uniquely South African framework. By focusing on the theoretical framework, the connection on the debate between a need for effective approaches for effective service delivery could be made in Chapter Five.

Chapter Five presents an analysis of the findings in respect of selected case studies in the South African public service. An overview was provided of service delivery performance in four selected South African public service departments, namely Health, Housing, Safety and Security, and Justice and Constitutional Development. A review was undertaken of the current (1994 to 2003) state of service delivery performance in the South African public service. In particular, the study reviewed the overall service delivery performance of the South African public service in meeting its objectives. A triangulation research method was used to validate and crosscheck data. The triangulation methodology provided a unique and valuable method of eliciting information.

Matrices were used to describe linkages and patterns that reflect the relationship between departmental objectives and service delivery initiatives and outcomes by selected South African public service departments. The matrices were used to present qualitative connections between interrelated variables, impacting on service delivery performance in selected cases. The objectives and initiatives towards service provision were outlined and analyzed to determine departmental outcomes. The short-term goals of almost all the departments examined in the study have been met. However, despite serious efforts to address service delivery backlogs, disparities are still evident in previously disadvantaged communities.

The study found that a number of interrelated variables, including a leadership and governance framework adopted by the South African public service, are having a negative impact on service delivery performance. The lack of optimal service delivery is also due to the prevalence of elements of the classical model of public administration, the detrimental legacy of apartheid, lack of sufficient resources (fiscal, human resource and technical), institutional culture, socio-economic malpractices (such as theft), and too short a time since 1994 to implement all aspects of the new policies of the South African government successfully. More significantly, ineffective policy implementation,

and a lack co-ordination, communication, accountability and transparency are impacting on service delivery outcomes. It is also evident that the needs and demands of South African society outweigh the capacity of the public service to deliver services at the requisite pace.

The study suggests that the South African public service delivery is not very effective in rapidly overcoming service delivery imbalances and inequities within the current leadership and governance framework. The findings of the study are captured against the leadership and governance framework adopted within a transforming South African public service. Throughout the Chapter Five conclusions and recommendations were made.

The study highlights need for a pragmatic transformational African leadership and governance framework. The South African public service should also address a number of interrelated variables impacting on efficient service delivery. In conclusion a hybrid leadership and governance framework is deemed critical for the South African public service. The study points to the need for a uniquely South African framework, with different strategies for diverse socio-economic and political perspectives. This study serves as a vehicle to advance a uniquely South African leadership and governance framework, which can be integrated meaningfully within the South African public service for the rapid improvement of service delivery in South Africa.

Chapter Six summarizes the findings and conclusions and makes various recommendations. It investigates different ways to improve and accelerate service delivery performance by the South African public service. The current leadership and governance framework adopted by the South African public service is not effective in rapidly improving and redressing service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. This chapter therefore concentrates on addressing weaknesses and challenges impacting on the sustainability of the South African public service. This is essential for improving and accelerating service delivery performance.

Given the serious nature of the accumulated service backlogs in South Africa, especially in previously disadvantaged communities, the study suggests that a hybrid leadership

and governance framework is essential with its own unique comprise of different situational, social, cultural and political perspectives for the South African context. In light of the foregoing, it is argued that the South African public service ought to fully embrace a distinctly pragmatic transformational African model.

CONCLUSION

The current leadership and governance framework of the South African public service is ineffective in rapidly improving and redressing service delivery in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. This study has identified the serious need for a hybrid leadership and governance framework that will speedily redress of service delivery imbalances and inequities, especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. The improvement of service delivery in the South African public service cannot however be achieved in isolation from other fundamental processes, procedures, systems and approaches. Furthermore a number of interrelated variables that impact on effective service delivery ought to be addressed.

The new public administration model should replace the current classical model in the South African public service. This means a shift from an administrative to an outcomes-based mode of public administration. The South African public service needs faster responses to the needs and demands of society, better utilization of resources, improved monitoring and performance and a more conducive work culture, to maximize efforts by departments. Due to the complexity of service delivery, the South African public service cannot simply rely on a particular approach to meet its objectives, but rather must adopt several parallel approaches, which should be adaptable to each situational context in South Africa.

The adoption of a uniquely South African leadership and governance framework within a new public administration model thus ought to be considered. The new public administration model should be manifested through a set of techniques and methods related to performance evaluation and measurement and by a set of values such as equity, productivity, and quality. The study indicates that a hybrid leadership and governance framework will focus on common goals and have a stronger group identity, more group accountability, more communication, and a more egalitarian reward system.

The study suggests that the leadership and governance framework in the South African public service should promote co-leadership to accelerate service delivery performance in the South African public service.

The study points out that the leadership style should be focused on the accomplishment of service delivery outcomes. A hybrid leadership and governance framework does not seek to undermine the current leadership and governance framework in the South African public service, rather it aims to shape the current framework positively towards improving service delivery. The need for an integrated framework is not only required to improve service delivery technically, but also to develop techniques based on, for example, communication, co-operation, developing partnerships, team work, improving transparency, promoting a code of ethics, and using a communitarian approach to provide services to South African communities. Within this framework, the study suggests that leadership should be based on nurturing and supporting co-workers. The objective is to turn the public service into an effective vehicle for service delivery, imbued with a concern for performance and greater consideration for the interests of society, particularly poorer communities in South Africa.

The improvement of service delivery cannot be achieved in isolation from other fundamental changes within the South African public service. It forms part of an essential shift in culture. In this regard, there is a need for an acceptance of local narratives within the South African context. The shift is to ensure that improved service delivery is a dynamic social activity out of which social, cultural and political imperatives are integrated within a leadership and governance framework in the South African public service. It is important for the South African public service to take cognizance of socio-economic, cultural and political perspectives of employees of the public service, as well as recipients of these services. This is important to create a conducive environment for the improvement of public service delivery. The impact of the African renaissance, and more especially the new democracy, in South Africa demands a respect for and integration of traditional African leadership and governance within the public service.

Within the context of regional and global integration, the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) has raised critical issues on every facet of South African

society. The South African public service is no longer isolated, but acknowledges that it is part of and contributes to the larger sphere of global governance. It is an aspect of transformation that necessitates the South African public service to taken cognizance of this, if the public service is to be relevant within the African context and be in accordance with the common vision of socio-economic development in the African continent. What is required is a leadership and governance framework that can genuinely accelerate service delivery performance by the South African public service, as well as partnerships locally, nationally, regionally and globally, based on shared responsibility and mutual trust.

A comparative analysis between Western and African approaches is essential to clearly denote the advantages and disadvantages of both scenarios for the South African public service. It is concluded that valuable lessons can be learnt from these different approaches. The attributes of a multidimensional and multifaceted leadership and governance framework that are appropriate for the unique diversities in the South African public service are promoted in this study. Undoubtedly, transformational leadership, team leadership, and African leadership and governance, which are adaptable to each unique situational context, should lead to a sustainable public service for effective service delivery. This should accelerate the redress of service delivery imbalances and inequities in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The study suggests a hybrid model of its own unique strategies to accommodate diverse socio-economic, cultural and political perspectives to improve service delivery by the South African public service. In order to successfully implement a leadership and governance framework, it is also important for the South African public service to address the challenges and weaknesses that impact on its ability to effectively deliver goods and services. A number of recommendations follow to address these problems.

Integrating leadership and governance approaches

The study suggests that the improvement of public service delivery requires multifaceted and multidimensional interventions, strategies, and approaches within an

effective leadership and governance framework. This framework should be flexible and adaptable to cater for the diverse perspectives in the South African public service. The question is often left unanswered is: to what extent can a leadership and governance framework accelerate service delivery to rapidly redress inequalities and inequities, especially in previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa? To this end the South African public service currently emphasizes the fundamental aspects of Western approaches over African approaches. An appreciation and integration of uniquely South African leadership and governance is essential within the current framework in the South African public service. In this regard, appropriate attributes of Western and traditional African leadership and governance approaches ought to be integrated within a viable public administration model to promote an ethos of service delivery in the South African public service. The study suggests that a uniquely South African leadership and governance was not explored in the South African public service for possible adoption. In this regard, traditional African leadership and governance are valued but not integrated within the current leadership and governance framework of the South African public service. Undoubtedly, issues of a distinctly South African leadership and governance require extensive exploration for the South African public service within the public administration discipline. It is important for the South African public service to create a work culture that is productive. It can be argued that this in turn will lead to effectiveness, efficiency economy and equity, in terms of service delivery.

The South African public service calls for a hybrid leadership and governance framework, which is uniquely South African, to meet the needs and demands of the current South African public service. The current leadership and governance framework ought to be improved which should take cognizance of the unique diversities, strategies and socio-economic, political perspectives. This is considered a necessary pre-condition for improving service delivery, especially in previously disadvantaged communities.

A hybrid leadership and governance framework would mean that the vision of leadership is collectivized through agreed-upon rules and customs. The framework entails leadership, co-ownership, responsibility, accountability, transparency and public participation. A hybrid leadership and governance framework should place greater

emphasis on working for the common good of all South Africans. In this regard, it promotes effective communication, teamwork, joint efforts and nurturing leadership. The study suggests that a hybrid framework will undoubtedly promote an effective institutional culture and work-ethos in the South African public service. The argument advanced in this study is to promote a uniquely South African leadership and governance framework within the South African public service. This framework should provide valuable lessons adaptable to diverse situations in the South African public service.

It is important to strengthen the current leadership and governance framework and to revive and extend traditional African leadership and governance approaches. The argument is not about changing the current leadership and governance framework in the South African public service, but the importance of improving the current leadership and governance framework to improve and accelerate service delivery performance. It is important for public administration in South Africa to recognize the importance of traditional African leadership and governance approaches in the midst of Western leadership and governance approaches. The priority of this research is the understanding of and the continuous focus on the problem statement.

Based on the research findings, the study suggests strengthening, improving and refining the current leadership and governance framework, to improve and redress service delivery imbalances in the South African public service. The leadership and governance framework is to be strengthened, and should focus on both applicable Western and traditional African leadership and governance approaches that have been successfully adopted either in different institutions or traditional African communities.

The framework ought to focus on traditional African leadership and governance, which is values-based and ethical leadership and governance within the dynamics of the current Western leadership and governance framework. Traditional Africa leadership, transformational leadership, team leadership and governance are clearly the basis for a sustainable South African public service. An analysis of the situational context of each department in the South African public service is also required for effective implementation of this leadership and governance framework. Within the context of this framework, leadership can contribute to a distinctly situational leadership style adopting

different approaches that will accelerate the performance of the South African public service, with respect to service delivery.

Within the dynamics of this hybrid leadership and governance framework, leaders in the South African public service ought to have equal concern for people and service delivery outcomes. The valuing of diversity and inclusion is necessary in the South African public service. Leaders should adopt a leadership approach that builds on local (South African) culture together with, traditional African, transformational and team leadership. To promote its legitimacy, the study suggests that the South African public service should develop leadership skills such as collective decision-making, which is more empowering for communities and departments; it should also promote listening skills and the ability to enter into dialogue, and strengthen accountability and transparency. The South African public service should try to maximize participation and understanding throughout its departments. The study suggests that the degree to which leaders in the South African public service empower others, will affect service delivery outcomes.

A leadership and governance framework should promote an inclusive culture, which ought to foster in everyone the feeling of being part of a community. This will create solidarity and a sense of belonging within the South African public service. It should develop a culture of respect and dignity by encouraging an inclusive and representative culture in the South African public service. Leadership ought to be able to identify, utilize, and manage the potential of people to create an effective public service. Leadership should motivate others to do more than they had originally expected and even more than they thought possible. These principles are evident in transformational leadership, team leadership and traditional African traditional leadership.

The South African public service ought to create a climate, where innovation and initiative are encouraged, where risk is accepted and well managed. The public service ought to create a climate where people feel empowered to make a difference, and motivated to use their potential for the good of the public service and the community that it serves. This is espoused in the path-goal theory of leadership. Although people have become more individualistic, the study suggests that effective teams deliver more

than effective individuals. The South African public service ought to improve its team leadership approach to ensure that when teams are used, they succeed.

The study suggests that the teams that succeed are those where the leader has a clear sense of direction. Leaders in the South African public service ought to focus the team firmly on the public or customer. Leaders ought to do this with the knowledge that it is not just the route to successful service delivery but also the way to energize the team. Furthermore, leaders ought to maintain and increase successful partnerships inside the public service and increasingly beyond it. The leader should link his or her activities to the effective delivery of services.

The South African public service departments ought to blend both Western and traditional African leadership and governance approaches, which are flexible and adaptable for the unique political, social and cultural diversities in South Africa.

Improving the public administration model

While the South African public service may have in theory embraced a shift from the classical public administration model to a new public administration framework, the study suggests that South African public service in practice is presented with numerous challenges. The new public administration model has displayed the advantages of increased political participation and higher percentages of the overall population reached by public services, but several persistent weaknesses hamper the efficiency and effectiveness of service provision. Consequently, the new public administration model has not yet itself proven to be effective for promoting optimal service delivery. A number of interrelated variables outlined in the study, such as human resources management prevent the model from being effective.

The study has found that there are both elements of the classical model of public administration and elements of the new public management (NPM) paradigm operating side by side within a changing South African public service. The classical model of public administration characterized the public service up to 1994 and was inherited from the apartheid regime. The study suggests that the classical public administration model creates ambiguities within public service departments. The example that can be given in

this regard is the debate over the centralization-decentralization of the public service. In this regard, centralization falls under the classical public administration model, while decentralization falls under the new public management (NPM) paradigm. In a decentralized environment, decisions are made closer to the point of delivery, thus increasing the efficacy of service and resource allocation. This is the exact opposite of the classical public administration model, which emphasizes the necessity of centralized control of resources and authority.

The typical classical public administration model in the provincial department of Housing in Kimberly suggests that control and resources are highly concentrated among the chief directors, which contributed to corruption, inefficiency and a lack of transparency and oversight. Consequently, significant time was wasted due to wasteful bureaucratic procedures, which resulted in ineffective performance by the department. The department has been more focused on maintaining and adhering to red-tape and bureaucracy than on service delivery outcomes.

The classical public administration model in the South African public service was articulated during the apartheid era to promote discriminatory practices, red-tape and bureaucracy. The new public administration model in South Africa is justified or rationalized on the basis of equity, responsiveness, legitimacy, efficiency, effectiveness, economy, transparency, participation and accountability. However, if the South African public service is to ensure that public administration remains focused on the needs and demands of society, then its departments should adopt new attitudes towards the new public administration model proposed by government.

In view of this, it is contended that: *The public administration model ought to be improved and strengthened for optimal service delivery.* The need for an effective, efficient and economical public administration model for improved service delivery is critical in the South African public service. To ensure that the new public administration model prevails and that bureaucratic tendencies are stopped in the South African public service, more emphasis will have to be placed on the fundamental requirements applicable to public administration.

The new public administration model should be applied diligently, and attention should be paid to strengthening the different facets of the model to promote effectiveness, efficiency and economy. The desirable state of affairs needed to ensure successful public administration, will only come to fruition when all role-players within and outside the public service play a constructive role in promoting the general welfare of the South African society. In the long term, both formal and informal approaches to service delivery should prove to be more feasible in the South African context. The formal approaches will include service delivery by public service departments, while the informal approaches will include various stakeholders, such as communities, businesses and NGOs in delivering services.

The exploration and experimentation with various techniques is a basic part of the new public administration model in South Africa. The increasing demand for service performance and outcomes by the South African public service implies a relatively high tolerance for variation. This includes variations in administrative performance and variation in procedures and applications based on different contextual factors, such as differences in clients or communities being served.

Developing leadership and strengthening human resource management

A culture of service ethos in the South African public service requires competent public servants. This is one of the enabling objectives for an efficient public administration model, set out in the Constitution (1996). The human resources (HR) processes, such as recruitment and selection, ought to be geared towards selecting candidates with the appropriate competencies and expertise required to deliver the mandate of each department. The HR management framework ought to be strengthened. The training and development initiatives by the South African public service ought to be accelerated. These programmes should train public servants in a variety of skills for coordinating work and improving performance.

The study indicates that at the highest levels of the public service (Director General, Deputy Director General, and Chief Director) the professional skills required are qualitatively different from those required at lower levels. At the lower levels, skills and experience relate to the specific responsibilities of each line department. At the higher

levels, technical skills and competencies, related in particular to the formulation of policy, the development and management of strategic vision and plans, the management of human and other resources, the coordination of policies across government, handling public relations and the media, are required. A strong skills base for top management should be evident across the South African public service. The incumbents of these posts have the responsibility to transfer these skills to the management cadre and public servants below them.

There is a need to strengthen, develop and train leadership and fellowship in the South African public service. It is necessary to strengthen the departmental human resources frameworks, and interventions must ensure the acquisition of the necessary skills and competencies for public servants, particularly for senior leadership in the South African public service. An increased investment in human resources is necessary to improve service delivery. At the political, institutional and ‘grassroots’ levels, effective leadership is important. The study suggests that the poor service delivery performance of the public service is directly related to the lack of leadership skills and competence. The successes of cases analyzed, is due to individuals’ competence as managers and their ability as leaders. The study suggests that effective managers will lead their departments to greater heights in achieving service delivery objectives. Leaders will ultimately lead their departments towards achieving outcomes beyond the basic goals and objectives. The study points to the importance of leadership to increase the service delivery performance of the South African public service.

The slow pace of the implementation of policy by some departments, amongst other interrelated variables, in the South African public service can be attributed to the deficiency in effective leadership. The South African public service needs demonstrated leadership competence, in all spheres and at all levels. The challenge for the South African public service therefore is to develop appropriate profiles of leadership competencies and design the necessary interventions, to ensure appropriate leadership development. It is obviously desirable that all managers also ought to be effective leaders. *The South African public service ought to seek, train and develop public servants to become effective leaders.* Managers ought to be trained in leadership skills, so that they can become more effective managers. Broadly speaking managers should

reflect leadership qualities in the South African public service. Leadership is vital for accelerating and improving service delivery by the South African public service.

In examining the specific traits required of a leader, it is important for the South African public service to deepen its understanding of the cultural, spiritual, social and personal dimensions of leadership, and to explore the qualitative differences between Western and traditional African leadership and governance approaches. In addition, it is important to compare the similarities in the conceptual understanding of leadership and governance frameworks, with other countries globally and within South Africa. Such study and training should be centered on both Western and traditional African leadership and governance, as they are most appropriate to the unique South African scenario.

The South African public service should strengthen its efforts towards professionalising the capabilities of the public servants. The competence of public servants in the South African public service will be of public benefit only if public servants are used by leaders who embody the professional values of responsibility and accountability, and who work within an ethical code of conduct that avoids conflicts of interest. Part of this professionalism should be a strong focus on the unbiased monitoring and evaluation of individual performance, and on the creation of conditions, values and incentives that support effective performance. The study advocates that South African public service should focus on leadership for efficiency; leadership with responsibility; and leadership that are transparent and accountable.

Leadership training should focus on building competencies in leaders so that they have the ability to inspire, communicate and operationalize their visions. The South African public service ought to have a sufficient grasp of information technology and to understand the importance of training and development opportunities for their staff for modernizing communications and increasing the involvement of staff and clients in the work of their institutions. The current demands on the South African public service indicate that managers should build their capacity and enhance their leadership skills to enable them to execute their tasks and responsibilities with care and authority. They ought to understand their tasks and prepare themselves well, to manage their departments effectively.

The study implies that it is essential for leaders to develop their skills for policy implementation to promote effective service delivery. They should be able to set directions, by guiding and facilitating different strategies and approaches. In accordance with the new public administration model, leaders ought to move towards entrepreneurial government by emphasizing performance and moving towards collaboration and commitment towards service delivery. The study reflects that these challenges in the South African public service demand that managers demonstrate the highest standards of personal integrity, truthfulness, honesty and fortitude. They also ought to also serve the public with respect, concern, courtesy and responsiveness, recognizing that service to the public goes beyond service to oneself. In addition, they ought to strive for personal professional excellence and encourage the professional development of those associated with and those seeking to enter into the public service, and to affirm the dignity and worth of the services rendered by government. The ideals of an effective leadership and governance framework that should be inculcated among the South African public service were discussed extensively in Chapter Four and Five of the study.

The leadership in the South African public service ought to be multi-skilled in order to maintain their departments and to improve their performance, adapting themselves to the complexities in the environment and the inherently more difficult task of governing and managing their respective departments. It is also important for leaders to understand their roles, tasks, functions and responsibilities to enable them to position themselves strategically for the challenges that they face. Management and leadership training is necessary to assist leaders to cope with these challenges.

The study proposes that leaders in the South African public service ought to cultivate their capacity for strategic thinking. They ought to develop strategic perspectives for their departments about its direction and to share that foundational perspective with all employees within their department. In addition, leaders ought to focus on a few vital issues at a time and devise strategic initiatives to resolve them. Moreover, leaders ought to create an internal capacity to carry out initiatives, structure opportunities for broad participation in developing them, and seek external support for their implementation. They also ought to set up ways to exert strategic control over how the department

performs on new initiatives to measure what goes on inside the department, to evaluate the impact on customers and stakeholders as strategic initiatives are implemented, and to let those signals guide them in learning how to deliver on effective services. The South African public service should strengthen and improve its training programmes to cater for the diversity of skills required. The South African public service is the likely source for many future innovations and of the development of leadership and management processes. Professional development should therefore remain an institutional priority.

The hiring process should be strengthened to improve the recruitment and selection of candidates. It is also necessary to strengthen the employment framework with terms and conditions of service designed to attract and retain high-caliber individuals, with equal recognition being given to senior managers and high-level professionals. The payment of a competitive salary, offering acknowledgements for long-time service and rewards for initiative and service should be improved. This should create an environment in which their employees experience a sense of pride and strong commitment to the work they do in the South African public service. The South African public service should hire and promote public servants based upon their professional qualifications and level of expertise. The South African public service can be improved and sustained through effective leadership and improved human resource management and training and development.

Performance management ought to be strengthened, linked to the overall transformation of the South African public service, and the specific transformation and service delivery goals of individual departments. The responsibility for this process ought to lie either with heads of departments (HODs). Systematic use of benchmarking ought to be introduced in departments in line with the competency-based approach to human resource development, envisaged in the National Qualifications Framework (NQF).

Performance management ought to be reinforced by an increased focus on outcomes and impact. The need for increased focus on outcomes, and movement away from traditional concerns with inputs, is essential. *It is necessary to strengthen systems for measuring individual performance. Performance management ought to be improved so that that the results or outcomes of the South African public service can be continually*

assessed. The study advocates that performance-related contracts HODs ought to be strengthened in the South African public service. This is essential so that line managers are encouraged to increase responsibility and ensure accountability for outcomes.

Improving co-ordination

To facilitate and improve service delivery, there should be a coordinated effort from all spheres of government in South Africa. The broad objectives of effective governance are to ensure that services are delivered in a way that is consistent with the principles of service delivery. The process of rapidly improving and redressing service delivery by the South African public service ought to include defining the roles of all three spheres of government. The role of other role-players, including private institutions and entrepreneurs and communities ought to be clearly defined.

Effective co-ordination of all systems in the South African public service is essential. At a departmental level, there should be a clear link from strategic planning, through to budgeting, through to financial and human resource management, policy implementation and ultimately through to evaluation and performance measurement. The study implies that effective forms of integration in policy-making, goal setting, and the implementation and monitoring of programmes and projects should be improved. It is essential that co-ordination initiatives be emphasized in the South African public service. It is critical that training of public servants is accelerated to facilitate effective policy co-ordination. Departmental re-engineering is necessary in the South African public service to foster and develop innovative horizontal coordinating mechanisms. It is also essential to simplify current government bureaucratic procedures.

Improving communication

Communication is a central aspect of all public management functions. In order to develop policy, organize, control and lead, leaders will have to communicate with their subordinates. Management would be impossible without some form of communication. To be an effective leader, communication is essential. In the South African public service there is a diversity of people with different values, attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, languages and customs. Miscommunication and misinterpretation can lead to

misunderstandings in the workplace, which may impact on efficiency. It is important to build an open culture of integrity, ownership and accountability.

Communication should be improved by the South African public service. The public service's vision and strategies should be continually communicated to employees to reinforce the need to improve service delivery. Communication should be improved between the different spheres of government and to external stakeholders. Appropriate internal and external communication is integral to promoting effective public service delivery. Leaders in the South African public service will have to meet public servants at all levels in their departments, and external role-players involved in service delivery, to reinforce the message, solicit buy-in and gain feedback on their views and concerns. Effective communication needs to be established with communities at grass-roots level to ensure that the public service clearly finds its agreed direction for the community it serves. The communication strategy ought to be therefore strengthened, to ensure that every structure in the South African public service has built-in mechanisms for effective communication, vertically and horizontally as well as internally and externally.

Embracing the Batho Pele 'people first' principle

Public servants are meant to serve society in a positive way. The basic principle of government is to provide optimum service delivery in order to create a good quality of life for every citizen. Attempts should thus be made to improve the public service's performance and to minimize the negative consequences of actions. This implies that the public service's activities should be directed to satisfy the public's needs and to resolve the public's legitimate concerns.

The focus on 'people' issues ought to be improved and strengthened to ensure that people are indeed the focal point of development. The study points to the need for improved customer orientation and service delivery levels, which are required to satisfy communities in South Africa. At the national sphere, this is manifested in concerns about poverty eradication, and other social issues. At the provincial and municipal spheres, it is evident in concerns for citizen engagement and citizen satisfaction. Within all public service departments it can be manifested in increased concerns with quality of work and leadership development. In rural communities, this is manifested in getting as

many people as possible involved in selflessly volunteering to improve the lives of people in their communities. Through outreach programmes, the public service can improve and strengthen its interactions with communities. This should empower people to take responsibility for the manner in which their quality of life is improved. It is important for the public service to improve its client focus, so that services are delivered for the convenience of the citizens it serves.

Customer orientation and service delivery levels should receive greater attention, which is required to satisfy communities in South Africa. There is a definite need to strengthen structures to promote transparency in an attempt to solicit public opinion. Increasingly, the South African public is demanding the rapid improvement of service delivery. Two-way communication is the cornerstone of ensuring that customers within the public service are kept happy. Innovative and creative mechanisms should be improved to ensure that the customer expectations are met. The basic principle is that the South African public service is to deliver services to the public as efficiently and as effectively as possible.

Promoting responsibility and improving accountability

Accountability is an invaluable tool in exercising control over the action of public servants, as it compels them to be responsible for service delivery objectives. An important element of the reform agenda for all sectors in the South African public service is thus responsibility and accountability. To strengthen governance in the South African public service, the study suggests the need for increased responsibility and accountability of individual managers for delivering specific results. This should be matched by increased authority for taking management decisions, the delegation of managerial responsibility and authority to the lowest possible level, and transparency about the results achieved and resources consumed.

The South African public service ought to focus on the improvement of accountability, as well as on the enforceability of codes that enshrine the principle of responsibility. The study points to the need in the public service for improved fiscal accountability, process efficiency and programme efficiency. To promote more effective managerial responsibility and accountability, the current move towards performance-related

contracts for heads of department ought to be expedited to promote greater managerial responsibility and accountability for results in the South African public service. This should involve the improvement of performance measures and monitoring. The managers in the South African public service should be afforded the necessary flexibility over recruitment and procurement procedures, and provided guidance and support to enable managers to exercise their decentralized powers efficiently and effectively. These recommendations were elaborated on in Chapter Four and Five of the study.

Encouraging innovation and continuous improvement

The increasing complexities surrounding public service delivery in South Africa demand a commitment to innovation and continuous improvement, in the public service. The promotion of innovation and continuous improvement in the South African public service should mean that public service departments are a source of constant adaptation. The South African public service ought to view the environment within which public servants function, as a dynamic and complex system that continually evolves, rather than being static and unchanging. The departments, leadership and public servants should all be focused on sensing change, and adapting to it. Managers should have a responsibility to initiate and direct change in addition to achieving service delivery objectives. Every public servant has a shared responsibility of changing the public service to make it better equipped to meet the needs of its customers, and to find innovative ways of delivering its services.

The South African public service should create strategies to encourage the creativity of public servants, as this is a key source to improving service delivery performance. However, the improvement of efficiency is not enough. Public servants ought to be encouraged to develop innovative and creative thinking skills. The public service should try to foster a culture in which people are listened to, as every idea can lead to new ways of improving and redressing service delivery. To promote innovation and continuous improvement in the public service, there should be constant contact between public servants and the public.

An integrated leadership and governance framework that focuses on continuous efforts to improve the standards of service delivery performance is essential. It can be highly beneficial for improving service delivery by the South African public service. The South African public service ought to devise creative solutions that take into account best practices and experiences elsewhere, but adapts these to the reality of the needs and demands of South Africa. The South African public service ought to build an active culture of learning. The public service ought to avoid reinventing the wheel and rather use previous experiences as a basis for more rapid progress and high-level achievement.

Enhancing ethics and values

Corruption can be endemic and has serious consequences for the public service. There are opportunities for unscrupulous practices. In the current circumstances, governments will probably hope that greater transparency and freer availability of information will be sufficient incentive devices for the maintenance of high ethical behaviour by public managers.

In moving towards a professional ethos in the South African public service, it is necessary to eliminate elements of corruption and fraud, which unfortunately are prevalent in the public service, such as, for example, in the Department of Health. Unethical behavior makes it difficult to sustain the public service because free-flowing information, trust and voluntary business transactions are impaired by it. Sound public service ethics is, however, essential in South Africa. At the same time, the African renaissance requires South Africa to re-evaluate its ethics regime. This should strengthen governance through enforcing the law, applying relevant codes of ethics, strengthening public accountability and enhancing greater commitments to raising the level of ethical behavior in the South African public service. It also presents leaders with the opportunity to identify the directions that they ought to take to the advantage of overcome emerging challenges.

The importance of ethics and values in the South African public service ought to be highlighted. Public servants in the South African public service should act in accordance with high moral values and an ethic of service. A greater effort ought to be made to develop leaders, who are properly equipped to act responsibly in the public

service. Whether this objective can be effectively reached and whether ethics and morals can be effectively taught or strengthened however remains unresolved. The new public administration model in the South African public service offers greater transparency and accountability so that unethical or corrupt behaviour can be detected more easily. There is, however, a crucial need to strengthen control and disciplinary systems to improve incentives for exemplary behavior and to improve training courses in public service ethics for the South African public service.

Strengthening innovative service delivery strategies

The South African public service has various options of improving service delivery. The traditional way of providing public services to society was for government to create a line-function department. There are many examples of effective service delivery by public service departments, but the public service is moving towards innovative ways of providing services. In deciding whether to provide services directly or to use other role-players, the study suggests that the South African public service needs to choose from several types of delivery systems.

Policy outcomes should not only be the product of actions by the national government. The study indicates that such centralization will limit governance to being a central actor. National government may pass laws but it should subsequently interact with provincial and local government, the voluntary sector, the private sector and the citizens of the country, and in turn they interact with one another. The involvement and inclusion at all spheres of the South African public service should be improved and strengthened, to facilitate ownership of processes, which will heighten the chance of success. The study points to the essentiality of stakeholder participation and involvement in improving public service delivery in South Africa. Within the departmental context, the junior public servants, in the South African public service, are often far removed from the policy-making process, which is characteristic of by a top down approach. The leadership and governance framework is designed in this study to facilitate active involvement and participation at all levels. This suggests the importance of a mindset, which values diversity, and the need for departmental frameworks, that facilitate the full involvement and participation of a diversity of stakeholders.

The study reflects that no single actor has all the knowledge and information required to solve the complexities of service delivery imbalances and inequities in South Africa. The South African public service should encourage as many interactions and varied arrangements for the rapid redress of service delivery imbalances and inequities. In this way, governance in the South African public service can become a more encompassing phenomenon because it embraces not only the public service but also informal and non-governmental mechanisms. This should improve governance in the South African public service as a result of co-operation between multiplicities of actors towards service delivery goals. *There should be improvements in intra-governmental and extra-governmental relations.* Co-operation should be improved between the different spheres of government in South Africa.

The improvement of public service delivery in South Africa will require innovative strategies and approaches. It is also important that innovation is contextually relevant, by addressing real service delivery issues and challenges. These issues and challenges ought to include finding more cost-effective ways of delivering services to all citizens, at acceptable levels of quality. The public service should ensure that accessing services is both easy and convenient, especially in previously disadvantaged communities. Innovation ought to foster relationships with all relevant role-players in the service delivery value chain, such as non-government organisations (NGOs), civic organisations and donors. The users of these services should not be passive recipients of goods and services but rather ought to become key active engineers, authors and implementers of service delivery improvement efforts. This in turn ought to foster a spirit and sense of responsibility and accountability among service recipients and users.

The South African public service ought to improve and strengthen innovative service delivery strategies. The South African public service already uses networks to deliver services to the South African society, including previously disadvantaged communities. A key challenge for the South African public service is to strengthen these networks and partnerships to improve service delivery. The South African public service must recognize the constraints on action mainly by national government by shifting to self-organizing networks and provincial and local government, and search for new innovative tools to manage such relationships. These new arrangements present a new

public administration model, which transcends the traditional classical (hierarchical) public administration model to provide a flexible model for service delivery.

The study suggests that partnerships and network arrangements in the South African public service should be intensified. This should be one of the most powerful and important developments in addressing service delivery imbalances and inequities in South Africa, especially in previously disadvantaged communities. Effective partnering can impact positively on policy debate, policy formulation and accelerated public service delivery. The South African public service is therefore challenged to fully embrace and strengthen partnering and to develop the competencies that would accelerate service delivery.

The South African public service ought to embrace 'public-private partnerships more actively. There are several advantages of these, for example it is a strategy to alleviate the fiscal and human resource restraints confronting the South African public service. It is an effective means to accelerate service delivery at the pace that is required in South Africa. The new realities dictate that South African public servants ought to be judged by whether they can become more productive, and innovative in delivering public services. It is also necessary to ensure a focus on the customer's needs and to continue exploring of the most appropriate strategies and approaches to deliver quality service.

It is commonly acknowledged that technology is the key to future success in the delivery of certain public services. It improves the quality and availability of information. It enables the public service to group services more effectively. Such innovations also empower clients by enabling them to process their own transactions. However, this depends largely upon an effective e-governance approach. An e-governance approach should assist the South African government in improving certain services. This includes the provision of public services through ICT platforms, which is a vivid example, of using technology to provide services in an innovative manner.

The study suggests that e-governance has emerged as the key to development purposes in South Africa. Where countries have experienced technological revolutions, either through innovation or adaptation, rapid socio-economic development has followed. The adaptation of e-governance should be accelerated to improve public services. The

success of e-governance in the South African public service will, however, depend on a number of factors, especially in remote rural communities. The study indicates that in remote rural communities, there is an absence of basic infrastructure such as electricity and telephones. Furthermore, many people in these communities are illiterate. The South African public service should therefore take cognizance of these constraints, when embarking on an e-governance strategy. This was discussed extensively in Chapter Four of the study.

Improving policy implementation

The public service and public servants have to take the initiative in the implementation of policies approved by the legislature. The legislature should decide what is to be done, how and where it is to be done, and who should do it. There are many decisions, which are taken to start policy implementation. The policy implementation stage consists of financing, staffing, organizing, determination of work procedures and control. Furthermore a number of practical steps ought to be undertaken to give effect to policies.

It is important to note that policy implementation is generally not very efficient in the South African public service, which has slowed down service delivery. The findings of the study suggest that there is a growing concern about the ability of leadership to implement policy in the South African public service. The ability to understand policy and to translate it into a strategy for implementation requires a certain level of intelligence, competence and commitment on the part of public servants within the South African public service. The implementation of policy also requires enabling, coherent and integrated systems, processes and procedures within the public service, between different spheres of government and between various stakeholders involved in the delivery of public services. It also requires the necessary resources (human resources, fiscal and technical). The operational efficiency and effectiveness of public service departments is the key consideration in effective policy implementation.

The study suggests that there is a shortage of human resources in certain occupational classes in the South African public service. The South African public service has embarked on intensive training and development to improve its skills base. With respect

to the different systems, processes and procedures, the study suggests that there are weaknesses in public service departments. Furthermore, ineffective co-ordination, co-operation and communication between different role-players are challenges impacting on effective service delivery.

A number of steps should be taken to improve policy implementation. This includes identifying the customer, and establishing the customers' needs and priorities. It also requires establishing if services are currently provided, especially to previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. If services are provided, then the level of service currently provided should be determined. It is necessary to identify the improvement gap between what the customer expects and the actual level of service that is being provided.

Service standards should be improved. The South African public service should prepare and plan for service delivery. This is essential to ensure that departments are able to deliver on their promise and to inform customer's about their standards. Departments should improve the monitoring of service delivery against the results. The results should be published thereafter. The study indicates that the evaluation of programmes in South African public service departments ought to be improved because that will enable the public service to determine whether service delivery objectives are achieved or not. Each department in the South African public service ought to be required to produce a detailed annual report that includes, *inter alia*, an account and assessment of service delivery over the year, plotted against planned outcomes.

Successful policy implementation by the South African public service requires such policies accurately identify the principal factors and linkages leading to and influencing policy outcomes. This should also include specification of target groups and incentives. Policy implementation should be structured to maximize compliance, from implementing departments. Policy implementation should be an on-going process that should be effectively managed by the public service. The public service should develop action strategies, in collaboration with those who either have a direct stake in the policy outcomes or who play pivotal roles in the policy implementation process.

Effective policy has to be deliverable, and it needs to be implemented by those public servants, whose task it is to deliver it. All stakeholders in the South African public service should have a say in the way in which departments develop policies, being delivered. To increase the confidence in the policy itself, it also important for the South African public service to create a sense of ownership for that policy among those who are to lead the delivery process.

Integrating governance systems

Effective governance typically includes leadership, transparency and accountability, public participation, impartiality in service delivery, efficient and effective use of state resources, sound human resource management, performance management and customer orientated service delivery. Policy makers and decision-makers in the South African public service ought to explore innovative ideas that would give more impetus to service delivery. It is important for policy makers to formulate policies that would be relevant to the South African public service. Policies should appeal to the diverse needs of the South African society. Policy formulation and planning ought to encompass coordinated viewpoints, about service delivery from all spheres of government, particularly local government, which are closer to the needs and aspirations of communities. The bulk of service delivery activities occur at local government.

There is an urgent need to strengthen and integrate the system of governance in the South African public service. In this regard, efforts ought to be made to introduce proper infrastructure and effective management systems and processes to bolster its ability to deliver services. The lack of effective processes and management systems is a recipe for disaster. More importantly, the local sphere of government could provide valuable input, about the real needs and demands of the citizens. This is important in deciding about the nature of service to be provided. Such input is also valuable in terms of planning. This should be based on the principle of a unified and not uniform South African public service. The integrating of public service functions at a departmental level should be a viable solution to most of the service delivery bottlenecks.

The different plans, systems, processes and procedures of the South African public service ought to be firmly aligned to each department's overall service delivery strategy.

At a departmental level, the vision, service delivery objectives, indicators and targets should be linked to units or teams and individual performance through to organizational arrangement to achieve service delivery outcomes. In order to operationalise service delivery and achieve its objectives, departments should link the strategic and operational aspects of policy as a basis for its performance management.

There is a need for functional audits in the South African public service to align mandates of departments. There is a need to correct design flaws and to correct unintended consequences through simpler processes and regulations in the public service. There is a need to develop increasingly models for integrated service delivery, particularly with the support of innovative technology. In the process of providing services, communities in South Africa should be simultaneously empowered to develop their own solutions to their specific local challenges. Communities should participate in defining the content and quality of public services.

There is also a need to avoid duplication issues among the three spheres of government. The question of the division of powers across the three spheres of the South African government ought to be clarified to avoid conflict. Each structure should be vested with the appropriate powers, in order to effectively meet the challenges of service delivery. The notion of effective intergovernmental relations and an extra-governmental framework will foster intergovernmental co-operation between the three spheres of government and with outside stakeholders, such as private institutions. Decentralisation is essential, so that communities are brought closer to government. This implies that services would be determined by the unique situational variables of each community, which in turn will ensure effective and efficient service delivery. This will also allow for local communities to get involved in decisions related to service delivery. It encourages the improvement and the redress of service delivery imbalances and inequities, especially in previously disadvantaged communities.

Designing monitoring and evaluation mechanisms

Policy implementation can only be successful if effective monitoring and evaluation mechanisms are provided for in institutions. Mechanisms are essential to review and evaluate policy to ensure achievement of service delivery outcomes. To promote

effective monitoring and evaluation, standards should be set for objectives to be achieved, targets and timeframes should be established and managers ought to be enabled to take corrective action when shortcomings in the performance are detected. The study suggests that there are weaknesses in the current monitoring and evaluation system in the South African public service.

Monitoring and evaluation of policy implementation by the South African public service ought to be strengthened. Service delivery by the South African public service ought to be monitored and evaluated for each programme so that service delivery outcomes can be measured. The evaluation of each programme ought to be a reflective exercise that allows South African public service departments the opportunity to consider whether they are achieving their intended results. It is also essential for departments to determine whether the overall strategy is appropriate in relation to the challenges they wish to address.

One of the most important conceptual tools that can be used in the South African public service for monitoring and evaluation is performance indicators. For example, if a department is addressing a particular social problem such as crime, there are various ways of considering how to assess its performance. To illustrate, input indicators indicate how many resources are being allotted to addressing the challenge. Throughput indicators will inform departments how many items should pass through the management systems. Performance indicators will indicate how many of the intended result units are delivered. These performance indicators can be used by the South African public service to reflect whether service delivery objectives are being achieved. In conclusion, these recommendations serve as a vehicle to improve service delivery by the South African public service. Numerous weaknesses and challenges exist that need to be addressed in the public service to ensure optimum service delivery. A hybrid leadership and governance framework is critical to rapidly improve and redress service delivery in South Africa. This framework should take cognizance of the unique political, social, economic and cultural diversities in the South African context. The ultimate objective is to transform the South African public service into an innovative, flexible and responsive organization that is solutions oriented and continually seeks to enhance service delivery.

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