Administratio Publica

Contents

POST GRADUATE FORUM

Editorial

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Technical Editor

In **'Sextortion in South African Public Sector Institutions: An Ethical and Moral Dilemma'**, Paulus Hlongwane provides a critical exposition of this unethical practice within South African public sector institutions.

According to Hlongwane, "The perpetrators of sextortion take advantage of those who are dependent on their position of authority in order to achieve personal interests". The author explains that sextortion differs from other forms of sexual offences, as "two people agree to offer one another sexual favours in exchange for a benefit (e.g. employment or promotion)".

In the article, the author argues that sextortion does not only constitute unethical behaviour, but is also a form of corruption. According to Hlongwane, "there is a need to classify sextortion as a sexual offence in the legislation in South Africa and criminalise it".

To gain insight into this phenomenon, the author discusses the various features of sextortion. The article reflects on the factors that contribute to sextortion and discusses different strategies to address this malpractice within South African public sector institutions. To this end, a theoretical framework is proposed to create a clear understanding of sextortion within the workplace.

The article argues that institutional values play a key role in creating an ethical environment, where sextortion or sexual corruption is not tolerated. In line with this, Hlongwane states that, "…various determinants and factors that create a conducive environment for sextortion to flourish in South African public sector institutions need to be identified and addressed decisively".

According to the author, "In order to address sexual corruption in the workplace, particularly public sector institutions, it is essential to create an environment within which individual employees take personal responsibility to behave, act and reason in an ethical manner". However, to deter those who do not comply with an ethical code, Hlongwane proposes enforcing various legal prescriptions, rules and policies.

In **'Network Theory: The Bricks and Mortar of Integrated Public Service Systems (IPSSs)'**, Frederick Uys and Fakier Jessa explore the feasibility of employing network theory, complexity science and integration elements in building a case for the topology, operability and sustainability of an integrated public service system (IPSS).

The article presents network elements as bases – the bricks and mortar – for creating an IPSS. According to the authors, "Network theory advances a means, i.e. an empirical foundation, for the conceptualisation of an IPSS".

The article explores the nature and character of networks in terms of its value, integration elements and principles of actor network theory (ANT) and complex adaptive systems (CASs), as knowledge bases for the formation of an IPSS. Furthermore, it presents aspects of network topology, network governance elements, as well as efficiency and effectiveness criteria. To provide context, matters relating to IPSS implementation in a network context within an integrative management framework are addressed.

The authors highlight that the present governing system employed by state institutions are linear, fragmented and authoritarian in nature. They argue that, "network theory offers an alternative for improved engagement, participation by stakeholders, community and citizenry".

The public service requires educated, trained and professional public servants to provide quality services to South African citizens. However, there is a scarcity of properly trained and skilled public servants, which leaves a gap for the provision of services.

In **'Employability of Public Administration Graduates: An Empirical Exploration'**, Thina Mbhele, Thokozani Nzimakwe and Vannie Naidoo investigate the link between Public Administration programmes at a traditional university in South Africa (university X) and public sector organisations. The authors seek to establish whether graduates are adequately capacitated to meet the employer's requirements, so that they can participate meaningfully in the graduate labour market.

This article reflects on an empirical study that was conducted by the authors. Data was collected through interviews and questionnaires that were administered to academic staff, final-year students, graduates, career development officers and employers within the public service. The data was analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Findings reveal that there is room for improvement in all variables that were posed during the study. To this end, the authors discuss the possibility of linking the curricula in the field of Public Administration and the employability model. Furthermore, the authors argue that the overt input of public sector employers will enrich Public Administration curricula.

In conclusion, the authors recommend that sufficient resources are needed to help students/graduates in the Public Administration programme with skills development. According to the authors, "Graduates produced at universities need to be capacitated to enter the job market and to contribute in growing the economy".

Equality is the foundation of South Africa's democracy, which is enshrined in the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, 1996. In line with this, the South African government has set an equity goal for people with disabilities (PWDs). In **'Equality for People with Disabilities in the South African Public Service'**, Sinval

Kahn examines the extent to which strategies introduced have advanced PWDs' equality in the South African public service.

Qualitative interviews were conducted to determine the current status quo of PWDs within the public service. The research shows that government has not achieved its target of 2% of PWDs to date. Furthermore, it was found that PWDs do not enjoy equal representation at management level. While PWDs receive equal training and development opportunities, results reveal they do not enjoy equal employment opportunities. According to the author, "PWDs are deprived from senior and top management positions and from achieving self-actualisation".

The findings reveal that the strategies do not have the desired results due to a lack of political and administrative will. According to Kahn, "in practice, PWDs enjoy neither legislative protection, nor social and cultural equality". As such, the author urges that government should take the necessary legislative measures to ensure the equality of PWDs. The author suggests that government adopts and institutes a percentage that truly reflects the composition of PWDs in South Africa.

The author suggests that annual targets be set to increase the percentage of PWDs in the public service. Kahn calls for a transformational leadership approach within the public service. "Transformation of equality of PWDs can take place only in an enabling institutional culture, which can be brought about by transformational leaders".

In **'Contextualising Gender Mainstreaming in Integrated Development Plans'**, Shikha Vyas-Doorgapersad explores the status of gender mainstreaming in policymaking processes at municipal level in South Africa in general, and Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) in particular.

However, the article's review of available literature and official gender-related documents reveals that gender is not adequately mainstreamed in the IDPs. The author states that, "in many cases, crucial issues such as women empowerment, gender-based violence, employment, security, etc are ignored".

Likewise, the study findings reveal that policies are considered gender-neutral and suggest that women are still side-lined in policymaking processes. According to the author, "An overall analysis of findings concludes that the matter of gender and women's empowerment are ongoing, debatable issues that call for society to adopt a changed mindset and policymakers should engage in transformational thinking".

To this end, the article proposes a 'Gender Mainstreaming in IDP processes (GM-IDP) Checklist' to advocate and lobby for gender-based participation and representation in the IDP processes. Furthermore, it states that IDP Representation Forums must invoke gender issues for incorporation in their development plans. "All municipalities, regardless of their size, should incorporate gender

mainstreaming as one of the Key Performance Indicators (KPIs), and gender audits must also be performed on a regular basis", suggests the author.

The Rwandan health policy, which was adopted in 2005 and revised in 2014, set the overal goal of ensuring universal accessibility of equitable, affordable quality health services to the country's citizens. To enable affordable health care services, government adopted a law as policy instrument to govern the Community Based Health Insurance (CBHI).

In **'Social Development Policy Implementation in Rwanda: Challenges of the Implementation of the Community-Based Health Insurance Policy in Local Government'**, Oscar Nzirera states that local government's role in managing the CBHI scheme is to mobilise the community to pay premiums (Prime Minister's Office 2015:22). In this article, the author investigates whether the country's local governments (districts) are strategically equipped to develop strategies to implement CBHI in an effective, efficient manner.

As theoretical background, the article provides conceptual clarifications of the context of the CBHI policy, its regulatory framework in Rwanda and the stakeholders involved. Furthermore, the challenges local governments face in terms of implementing strategies to promote the CBHI are discussed.

The researcher selected an analytical methodology using available secondary data on the CBHI scheme in Rwanda, while literature on international social development and CBHI schemes was reviewed. A qualitative approach was applied through a semi-structured interview technique to collect complementary data on key points from key informants.

This article concludes that the level of CBHI enrolment has increased over time due to diverse mobilisation strategies. Despite the increased enrolment, certain challenges remain. The author suggests that a more bottom-up policy implementation approach could help improve the CBHI policy outcome.

In **'Towards a Model for Assessing Performance of Public Sector Organisations (PSOs) in Uganda: A Rapid Assessment'**, Benon Basheka, Albert Byamugisha and Jude Luba state that concerns have been raised regarding performance of Uganda's Public Sector Organisations (PSOs) and their exact contribution to government's results agenda.

This article is based on a rapid assessment of 13 out of the 119 existing PSOs in Uganda. The assessment was conducted to generate a set of guidelines and best practices for conducting rapid assessments of PSOs, as well as to assess the performance of the 13 PSOs in question. In addition, the article presents a model or framework for conducting assessments of PSOs in a democratic state.

The findings reveal that several initiatives for improving performance have been undertaken within public sector agencies. "The performance of these sectors has, however, not been effective and efficient", state the authors. This

rapid assessment found that recommendations intended to improve efficiency and effectiveness of PSOs have often not been implemented.

Moreover, the authors found that existing performance appraisal methods in PSOs do not adequately link individual staff or departmental performance to performance of the PSOs in their entirety.

Furthermore, the assessment reveals a continued trend of reliance on consolidated funds to finance the PSOs. "Strategies to enhance internal revenues which could have reduced pressure on the Consolidated Funds account have not been undertaken", state the authors.

The authors point out that the appointment of PSO board members has remained a problematic governance area that needs to be resolved. In addition, the assessment reveals that certain PSOs still operate under old legal frameworks and respective ministries have not taken action to address this critical gap. "The implication of this is that most of the PSOs fail to align their objectives with the new development agenda of the country" (Vision, 2040).

In **'Promoting a Culture of Organisational Learning: A Case Study of the Department of Science and Technology'**, Patricia Tomotomo and Werner Webb report on the culture of organisational learning within the Department of Science and Technology (DST).

The empirical research problem, as identified by the authors, is that the department spends a significant amount of public funds on training and development of staff. Despite significant investments, the authors argue that the department's delivery has not improved.

The authors' tentative hypothesis is that the root cause of the poor return on investment regarding training and development is the absence of a culture of organisational learning. To provide context, the main attributes of a learning organisation are highlighted.

In the first section of this article, the authors report on the findings of the literature review on organisational learning. Subsequently, a number of constructs are highlighted that could help promote a culture of organisational learning at the DST. These include strategic planning; opportunities for learning and return on investment; inter-intra programme communication; knowledge management and learning from experiences; and leadership style.

A measurement instrument with 22 survey items and five proposed constructs based on the literature review was developed. Thereafter, a survey was applied to measure the extent to which the DST exhibits the attributes of such a culture.

Exploratory factor analysis confirmed the reliability of three of the five constructs, namely strategic planning, inter- and intra-communication, as well as an inclusive and participatory leadership style are significant when promoting a culture of organisational learning. In conclusion, the authors suggest that

promoting a culture of organisational learning will help improve the DST's service delivery track record.

The KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education's (KZN DOE) Health Risk Management Strategy forms part of the department's control systems to monitor sick leave trends and curb absenteeism. In **'The Management of Health Risks in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education'**, G B Sithole and Gerrit van der Waldt reflect on a qualitative study conducted in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education on the challenges associated with managing core health risks among its educators.

This article reports on findings of a literature review and empirical study conducted in the KZN DOE to investigate whether the implementation of the department's health risk management strategies and programmes have rendered the desired results. The study was conducted among managers and educators within the KZN DOE and a participant from an independent service provider.

The results highlight that the implementation and management of the KZN DOE's health risk management strategies and programmes have not yet yielded the anticipated policy outcomes. As such, the abuse of sick leave is still prevalent.

To provide insight, the authors pinpoint challenges associated with the implementation of these programmes and strategies, after which specific recommendations are made. In conclusion, the authors state that, "Effective implementation of health risk management strategies and programmes could rid the department of educators with ill-intentions of manipulating the sick leave system".

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Sextortion in South African Public Sector Institutions

An Ethical and Moral Dilemma

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ABSTRACT

The primary aim of this article is to provide a critical exposition of sextortion that confronts the South African public sector institutions. Sextortion can be defined as sexual corruption which involves abuse of position of authority to solicit sexual favours from junior employees and clients of the public sector institutions by taking advantage of their vulnerable circumstances. Moreover, the article discusses the various features of sextortion in order to create an unambiguous understanding of this phenomenon. Besides, a theoretical framework is proposed for a clear understanding of sextortion as it emerges in the workplace. At the same time, this article reflects on the factors that are responsible for sextortion as well as the different strategies through which sextortion can be addressed in South African public sector institutions. It is argued in this article that sextortion does not only constitute unethical behaviour but is also a form of corruption. Further, it is noted that Machiavellian employees create an environment which is conducive for unethical behaviour such as sextortion. In response to the problems related to sextortion, there is a need to classify sextortion as a sexual offence in the legislation in South Africa and criminalise it. Additionally, this article argues that the institutional values, are essential in order to create an ethical environment which does not tolerate sextortion or sexual corruption. In fact, the various determinants and factors that create a conducive environment for sextortion to flourish in South African public sector institutions needs to be identified and addressed decisively.

INTRODUCTION

Sida (2015:1) defines corruption as misuse of public trust and authority inherent in official positions in pursuit of personal gratification. At the same time, Segon and Booth (2010:574) accede that the definition of corruption is determined by the issue under consideration; hence sextortion as a corrupt activity has its own unique meaning. Corruption is perceived as a national and international mantra which dominates managerial issues (Seleim and Bontis 2009:165). In fact, the scourge of sextortion or sexual corruption is prevalent in the South African public sector institutions. For instance, the South African Council of Educators (SACE) reveals that high levels of sexually related offences were recorded in public schools during the past financial years since 2010, the statistics of which are as follows: during 2010/2011, 126 cases were registered; in 2012/2013 556 cases were reported; and 91 cases were registered during 2014/2015 (Matlala 2016:online). Therefore, this article provides a critical exposition of sextortion that confronts the South African public sector institutions. In this regard, it is essential for South African public sector institutions to identify and decisively address those factors that contribute to this unethical behaviour. In essence, this should be undertaken to protect human dignity and sustain the integrity of the public sector institutions.

DEFINITION AND FEATURES OF SEXTORTION

Sextortion is a "form of behaviour which is generally not new in the world, but is often treated as a less important issue for a society; such behaviours have not been given a specific name in legal systems, and most legislations do not even provide any sanctioning mechanisms" (Zahiragic, Mahic, Pasic, Cosic, Sacirovic, Kadribasic and Susmel 2011:7). According to the International Association of Women Judges (IAWJ) sextortion is an abuse of authority to solicit sexual favours (Anderson 2013:online). Zahiragic *et al.* (2011:7) state that sextortion refers to using a position of authority in the workplace to extort sexual favours from a junior employee or any other person exercising their right in various situations, thereby "taking advantage of the dependent position of the subordinated". In fact, it involves soliciting sexual favours or agreeing to take sexual services in order to assist a specific individual to resolve a problem or gain access to government service or obtain a benefit, which requires the attention and authorisation of a person in a position of authority. These practices by public officials make it difficult for women to access basic services because they are subjected to sexual abuse (Sida 2015:2). According to Hendry (2013:online), sextortion is not limited to sexual relationship but encompasses other elements such as exposing

private parts, posing for sexual photos or inappropriate touching. Sextortion is an insult to human dignity (Anderson 2013:online), which demonstrates erosion of some ethical standards in public sector institutions, particularly if it occurs without reproach to the perpetrators. In the context of this article, sextortion can be defined as sexual corruption which involves abuse of position of authority to solicit sexual favours from junior employees and clients of the public sector institutions by taking advantage of their vulnerable circumstances.

Hendry (2013) provides three distinguishing features of sextortion, as follows: abuse of authority – misuse of official authority to attain and further personal interests; requesting sexual favours in exchange for benefit – soliciting sexual services in exchange for benefit which the person in position of authority is entrusted with powers to make a decision; relies on psychological pressure or coercion – the perpetrator employs non-physical force to gain control of the victim in order to obtain sexual gratification. In addition to the three main features of sextortion, Hendry (2013:online) highlights the reasons why the victims of sextortion opt to remain silent about their experience of the incident. Silence over corrupt issues contributes to the normalisation of such corrupt activities, which simply means that the behaviour which is morally and ethically unacceptable is perceived as being palatable and permissible within an institution (Segon and Booth 2010:579). According to Hendry (2013) and Anderson (2013:online), the silence of the victims of sextortion could be attributed to the following reasons: the victims are unaware of their right to report sextortion; fear that any form of report will tarnish their image in society; victims tend to view reporting sextortion as an embarrassing thing; there is also a lack of appropriate support mechanisms for those who are willing to report; and fear of reprisal for reporting the incident. In view of the various circumstances that prevent victims of sextortion from reporting the incidents, Anderson (2013:online) and Hendra (2013:online) accentuate the fact that the perpetrators are likely to continue with their pursuit of sexual corruption if their unethical behaviour is not exposed and shamed.

Moreover, Hendry (2013:online) says that sextortion is a form of sexual corruption which does not utilise physical force to compel the victims to offer sexual services to the perpetrators. Due to the elusiveness of evidence pertaining to the incidents of sextortion and minimal chances for prosecution in a court of law, the victims are less willing to report the incidents (Anderson 2013:online). Regarding the issue of prosecution for sextortion, Hendry (2013:online) argues that a view that sextortion will not be prosecuted dominates the discussion on this subject because it is consensual in nature. Anderson (2013:online) points out that there are fewer cases where sextortion has been prosecuted by courts due to absence of witnesses. Therefore, it must be emphasised that any form of evidence in relation to sextortion other than a video or audio recording can be difficult to obtain, particularly in private interactions (Anderson 2013:online), because the

perpetrators take advantage of the informal meetings with their victims to pursue their selfish personal interests.

Again, sextortion as sexual corruption does not differ from other forms of corruption. In other words, it has certain elements that are common in other forms of corruption. In this sense, sextortion as a corrupt activity involves two people who engage in illicit exchange for personal gain, which is contrary to public interest and also in violation of the moral and legal norms (Zahiragic *et al.* 2011:23). This suggests that for this kind of corruption to take place there must be a corruptor and corruptee. In support of this view, Zahiragic *et al.* (2011:23) assert that if a person offers or accepts sexual services requested by another person in a position of authority in order to receive undue benefit, such a person is also guilty of corruption. In fact, sextortion is an antithesis of deontological theory. This theory accentuates the precepts of doing things that are morally correct, which should be manifested by public officials through a high degree of honesty, fairness, reasonableness and impartiality in their actions (Sindane and Uys 2014:398). Furthermore, sextortion is a manifestation of egoism which is concerned with achieving narrow self-interests at the expense of institutional interests (Maesschalck 2004:473).

From the above definition of sextortion, it is clear that those who are in positions of authority within public sector institutions happen to be the ones who perpetuate sextortion while their subordinates and clients of these institutions are powerless victims. For example, February (2017:online) reports that on 31 December 2016 in Cape Town a 32-year old female detainee offered sexual services to a police official after the officer had promised to release her. This example indicates one of the many circumstances under which sextortion can take place. Among the various reasons that sextortion remains pervasive in the workplace are poverty and unemployment (Opare 2016:online). Concerning the issue of poverty, Hendra (2013:online) states that the high rate of poverty among women exposes them to a precarious situation where they can be easily subjected to sexual exploitation in exchange for jobs and promotion. Hendry (2013:online) adds that desperation for promotion at work renders the victims susceptible to sextortion. Unfortunately, about 84% of the victims of sextortion were found to be women, especially as job applicants or promotion seekers (Anderson 2013:online). For instance, Makhubu (2014:online) reveals that cleaners, porters, mortuary attendants and laundry workers were targeted for sexual corruption (sextortion) at Dr George Mukhari Hospital where recruitment irregularities were found to be rife between 2007 and 2014. Victims and those who benefitted from such corrupt practices confessed how they secured employment in exchange for sexual services with senior public officials at the hospital (Makhubu 2014:online). In relation to the aforementioned statistic, Hendra (2013:online) asserts that the perpetrators of sextortion are generally men in positions of authority who misuse

such authority to request or accept sexual favours in exchange for exercising authority inherent in their official positions. In support of this assertion, Jones and Kavanagh (1996:514) mention that women tend to be more cautious and sensitive to compliance with ethical standards and codes than men. To be more specific, females are less prone to commit unethical acts in comparison to their male counterparts (Appelbaum, Deguire and Lay 2005:45). Concerning this, Sida (2015:1) argues that women tend to be victims of sexual corruption far more that men due to unequal gender relations, particularly when they do not have money to bribe corrupt public officials. For instance, Felix (2015:online) reports that in May 2014, an official of the South African Democratic Teacher's Union (SADTU) requested sexual favours from a female teacher in exchange for a school principal position at one of the public schools in Gauteng Province. In fact, sextortion could be attributed to patriarchal social ideology which is pervasive in public sector institutions. Due to inequality, men use their power to subdue and manipulate their female counterparts in order to obtain sexual gratification (Richman, Rospenda, Nawyn, Flaherty, Fendrich, Drum and Johnson 1999:385). Moreover, Transparency International (2014:3) indicates that most men in government institutions tend to sexually exploit women who may have recently joined the public sector institutions because they happen to be less familiar with the rules and regulations governing the conduct of civil servants.

However, contrary to the argument that women are less prone to commit corrupt activities in relation to their male counterparts Sida (2015:3), Esarey and Chirillo (2013:365) reveal that research conducted in the United States and Burkina Faso respectively, indicates that women are prone to commit corrupt activities when they are not monitored. Furthermore, Esarey and Chirillo (2013:366) postulate that the fact that women are found to be less corrupt in comparison to men could be premised on the argument that women are more frequently found in positions that do not present them with an opportunity to commit corruption. According to Transparency International (2014:2), there is no evidence that women will not engage in corrupt activities once they start occupying some leadership positions within public sector institutions. Again, the extent to which corruption is institutionalised in some public sector institutions can pose a major challenge to women when they assume leadership positions, partly due to prevailing corrupt networks (Transparency International 2008:2). Therefore, it could be argued that the reason women are found to be less involved in sexual corruption (sextortion) is because they find themselves in fewer positions of authority in the public sector institutions. Insofar as corruption is concerned, Esarey and Chirillo (2013:362) maintain that the issue of whether women are less prone to corruption than men is context-dependent.

The conceptualisation of sextortion would be incomplete without explaining the meaning of competing concepts such as sexual harassment. In contrast to sextortion, sexual harassment is a form of unwanted explicit or implicit sexual

behaviour towards another person irrespective of gender (Ramsaroop and Parumasur 2007:25). According to Willness, Steel and Lee (2007:131) sexual harassment is "unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when (a) submission to such conduct is made explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment, (b) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment's decision affecting such an individual or (c) such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance, or creating an intimidating hostile, or offensive work environment". As a further extension of this view, Smit and Du Plessis (2011:188) emphasise that sexual harassment is defined as "unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, verbal or physical conduct of sexual nature, including instances where such favours or conduct are implicitly or explicitly made a condition of employment, continued employment or promotion". Concerning sexual harassment, Ramsaroop and Parumasur (2007:25) highlight the fact that for any conduct to be considered as sexual harassment it must be "unwelcome" to the victim because consensual sexual relations cannot be viewed as sexual harassment. Nana (2008:247) states that sexual behaviour can be regarded as sexual harassment under circumstances where such conduct is perennial or where a victim has expressly or tacitly resisted the behaviour as unacceptable or if the perpetrator was cognisant that his actions were offensive. These are important distinguishing features between sexual harassment and sextortion. In fact, these indicate that if an effort to extort sexual services by a person in a position of authority is rejected, a charge of sexual harassment can be sustained. However, the requirement that the sexual conduct ought to be unwelcome by the victim before such an incident can be considered as sexual harassment; creates an opportunity for sextortion to flourish without any or with little challenge.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework provides a deeper understanding of a phenomenon. For the purpose of this article, cognitive-behavioural theory is applied to provide insight about the attitude of the people who engage in sexually deviant behaviour such as sextortion. The main propositions and shortcomings or limitations of the aforementioned theory are discussed below.

Cognitive-behavioral theory

The cognitive-behavioural theory is based on the assumption that human "thoughts about self, relationships, the world, and the future shape emotions and

behaviours" (Nurius and Macy 2008:102). This could be attributed to the fact that human beings are less interested in reflecting on their thinking processes, creating a situation where irrational or problematic thinking remains unimpeded (Nurius and Macy 2008:103). According to Brown (2011:120–121), irrational thinking is a consequence of those attitudes and core beliefs that support an individual's conduct. In this sense, Mancini (2013:1) argues that individuals tend to employ cognitive distortions or errors to deny, minimise and rationalise their inappropriate behaviour. Cognitive theory explains how individuals who engage in sexual misconduct would rationalise and justify their conduct (Faupel 2015). In fact, these offending individuals are more often in denial of the fact that they can cause harm to their victims. Additionally, these individuals fail to accept that their sexually deviant behaviour is inconsistent with societal values and norms (Brown 2011:117–121). According to Faupel (2015), such individuals do not make any effort to question their behaviour which is a result of their "cognitive distortions" or "thinking errors". Cognitive distortions are "the attitudes and beliefs that support the offenders' behaviour" (Brown 2011:121). Further, individuals prone to committing sexual offences tend to fail to comprehend, interpret and respect the emotional state of other people (Faupel 2015). This occurs despite humans being endowed with the ability to monitor, examine and alter their thoughts and beliefs, particularly in such a manner that problematic and irrational thoughts could be minimised (Nurius and Macy 2008:103).

Furthermore, cognitive-behavioural theory is based on the proposition that individual behaviour (whether positive or negative) is determined by "reinforcement and punishment" (Faupel 2015:online). In this regard, Faupel (2015:online) argues that if a sexual offender does not perceive punishment in relation to committing sexual acts, the chances of continued violations will increase. In other words, lack of punishment for sexual offenders could contribute to recurring sexual offences. Therefore, this suggests that severe punishment should be meted out to sexual offenders for their sexually deviant conduct.

Although the cognitive-behavioural theory has proven its worth in terms of explaining sexual offences, it has numerous limitations. In summarising the limitations of cognitive theory, Faupel (2015:online) says the following: first, extant research on cognitive-behavioural theory does not provide compelling evidence about the aetiology of cognitive distortions. Second, this theory does not provide a clear justification as to why individuals with "cognitive distortions" would opt to commit sexual offences in particular. Third, the cognitive-behavioural theory fails to consider an individual's lack of moral values and empathy, which play a significant role towards the development of inappropriate sexual conduct. Despite these challenges, Brown (2011:122) and Mancini (2013:1) believe that through cognitive-behavioural treatment, the cognitive distortions and behaviours of sex offenders can be corrected since the therapy involves identifying cognitive

deficiencies and assisting individuals to comprehend the degree to which their thoughts and actions are illogical.

CONSEQUENCES OF SEXTORTION

Sextortion can have devastating effects on the victims. Surprisingly, the consequences of sextortion are similar to those of the victims of sexual harassment. In respect of sexual harassment, Ramsaroop and Parumasur (2007:27) and Richman *et al.* (1999:358) point out that the victims of sexual harassment "experience a wide range of emotional reactions, namely: humiliation, self-doubt, self-blame, loss of confidence, anger and severe depression". Furthermore, sexual harassment can have deleterious effects on the employee's performance, particularly as a result of excessive stress and reduced morale. In addition, a public sector institution is likely to suffer from negative publicity caused by incidents of sexual harassment (Ramsaroop and Parumasur 2007:27).

In comparison to the effects of sexual harassment, the victims of sextortion are likely to suffer psychological injury and develop psychiatric depression for an extended period of time (Anderson 2013:online). In this regard, Zahiragic *et al.* (2011:32) add that the psychological effects experienced by the victims of sextortion include "tension, unrest, weaknesses, fear (for oneself, own life, lives of close persons), feeling of shame and guilt, loss of confidence, neurotic reactions (depression, anxiety, panic attacks), sleep disorders (insomnia, nightmares), abuse of alcohol and narcotics, concentration problems, aggressive behaviour towards oneself and others, suicide attempts and sexual difficulties". Considering the detrimental effects or consequences of sextortion, it is clear that sextortion is not only a different form of corruption but another form of sexual violence which belittles and degrades its victims.

FACTORS RESPONSIBLE FOR UNETHICAL BEHAVIOUR (SEXTORTION)

The common factors responsible for unethical conduct within public sector institutions are as follows:

Referent peers

Peer influence within public sector institutions plays a significant role in shaping the behaviour of the employees by setting the standards that serve as reference for conduct, especially if the institutional culture is weak (Jones and Kavanagh

1996:512). Appelbaum *et al.* (2005:49) argue that devious individuals within a group situation are able to negatively influence others who are part of the group. According to Jones and Kavanagh (1996:512) unethical behaviour is assimilated through interactions with peer groups, which is in consonance with the differential association theory. Moreover, the assimilation of unethical behaviour also includes the tactics and strategies of committing the unethical actions and finding ways to rationalise and justify the unethical conduct. However, although the unethical conduct tends to be overtly supported by the peers, the actual illegitimate action is done or committed surreptitiously (Jones and Kavanagh 1996:512).

Managerial influence

When senior managers within a public sector institution violate ethical standards and codes it becomes easy for subordinates to do the same (Jones and Kavanagh 1996:513). In fact, non-compliance with institutional policies by senior managers in public sector institutions sends the message that policies, regulations and procedures are not worth adhering to and therefore futile. According to Appelbaum *et al.* (2005:44), managers should set a good example and epitomise high ethical standards as leaders in public sector institutions. In support of this argument, Bowman (1990:350) asserts that institutional leadership should adopt an affirmative approach in order to teach subordinates what is morally correct and deter inappropriate conduct. Similarly, it must be evident that public officials, in particular senior public officials, should be determined and demonstrate willingness to act in an appropriate manner, thus in the interest of public sector institutions (Sindane and Uys 2014:404).

Machiavellianism

Machiavellianism can be defined as "a strategy of social conduct that involves manipulating others for personal gain" (Hartog and Belschak 2012:36). In fact, Machiavellianism is the concept which emanates from the basic principles of Nicollo Machiavelli, which relate to "mistrust in human nature, lack of conventional morality, opportunism and lack of affect in interpersonal relationships" (Drory and Glusskinos 1980:81). According to Elias (2015:23), the reason for high Machiavellians to distrust others is premised on the fact that they themselves are mischievous and less credible. Having said this, Machiavellians misuse personal and interpersonal relationships because they are opportunistic and subject to override the rules of the institutions (Mesko, Lang, Czibor, Szijjarto and Bereczkei 2014:16). As a further extension of this argument, Jones and Kavanagh (1996:54) mention that Machiavellianism is associated with opportunism due to an insatiable desire to manipulate other people through immoral actions. According

to Hartog and Belschak (2012:36) manipulative individuals display unethical actions or intents immediately after they have identified an opportunity to maximise personal benefits. Moreover, Jones and Kavanagh (1996:514) maintain that Machiavellianism can be linked to a high rate of unethical conduct. In this sense, the Machiavellian principle explains how the perpetrators of sextortion gain control of their victims through manipulations. In fact, individuals high on Machiavellianism utilise any given opportunity to manipulate their victims through immoral means to obtain what they want. Machiavellian employees are responsible for institutional instability due to their disruptive tendencies and poor ethical values (Elias 2015:23). In addition, Elias (2015:23) argues that Machiavellian employees are not concerned about reporting unethical behaviour or practices taking place within an institution. This suggests that sextortion and other forms of corruption can easily flourish if an institution is dominated by employees who are high Machiavellians. In support of this view, Mesko *et al.* (2014:16) highlight that Machiavellians disregard the long-term consequences of their actions in pursuit of immediate or instant gratifications or benefits.

CURBING SEXTORTION (SEXUAL CORRUPTION) AS UNETHICAL BEHAVIOUR

The different strategies through which sextortion can be curbed within public sector institutions are analysed and explained below.

Creating an ethical climate

The creation of an ethical climate requires identification and understanding of ethics that are valued by the public sector institutions. To this end, an understanding of what constitutes ethics is imperative. Ethics is a "system or code of conduct based on moral duties and obligations which indicate how one should behave; it deals with the ability to distinguish good from evil, right from wrong and propriety from impropriety" (Goss 1996:575). Similarly, the unified and coherent institutional culture is essential to effectively and positively influence the behaviour of employees within a public sector institution (Appelbaum *et al.* 2005:52). Jones and Kavanagh (1996:521) postulate that an environment within which ethical norms for conduct can flourish must be created by the public sector institutions. In support of this argument, Radhika (2012:25) mentions that ethical conduct can be promoted successfully if the institutional climate emphasises personal standards and individual education. Moreover, the managers need to emphasise the issue of truthfulness and openly engage with employees to resolve ethical problems. When public officials become increasingly aware of an ethical

code they may also begin to assimilate ethical principles. After a successful assimilation of ethical principles, public officials should be able to apply or make teleological considerations in the process of discharging their responsibilities and duties. In other words, public officials will be able to perform their duties and make decisions that are in the interest of the public sector institutions and ensure that their actions do not encroach upon the rights of others (Maesschalck 2004:473). Therefore, this implies that a quest to address sextortion in the public sector institutions can be a difficult process without inculcation of ethical principles. Again, to address sextortion as unethical practice requires effective and open communication and discussion on sextortion.

Recognising sextortion as a sexual offence and criminalising it

The South African government has introduced various pieces of legislation, policy and regulations such as the Employment Equity Act (No. 55 of 1998), Protection from Harassment Act (No. 17 of 2011), Policy and Procedures on the Management of Sexual Harassment in the Public Service and Notice of Code of Good Practice on the Handling of Sexual Harassment Cases, in order to deter and address sexual misconduct in the workplace (Department of Public Service and Administration 2013:5). The above-mentioned pieces of legislation do not provide a clear distinction between sexual harassment and sextortion. Furthermore, sexual harassment is not strictly condemned as a criminal offence; hence most of the cases that are reported are subsequently recorded as rape cases or indecent assault by police officials. For instance, in approximately 22 cases of sextortion where male teachers promised to pass female learners to the next grades in exchange for sexual gratification in KwaZulu-Natal schools, most cases were recorded as rape or sexual assault (Matlala 2016:online). By definition, rape is an intentional and unlawful conduct of sexually penetrating a person without consent (Republic of South Africa 2007:20). Therefore, once there is a consensual sexual agreement with a person other than a minor a charge of rape can be difficult to sustain in court. In fact, cases may fail in a court of law based on legal principle, particularly in instances where there was a consensual agreement with a learner who is older than 16 years. In this regard, Smit and Du Plessis (2011:181) clearly point out that "consensual penetration or sexual violation of a child (male or female) between 12 and 16 years" constitutes a criminal offence (statutory rape) in terms of section 1 of the Criminal Law (sexual Offences and Related Matter) Amendment Act (No. 32 of 2007). In instances where a rape case cannot be sustained in court, it will be difficult for a public sector institution to deal with the matter. For example, in the case of offending male teachers at public schools in South Africa, the Department of Basic Education would have to rely on some of its policies in an attempt to discipline the educators. In addition, lack of

concrete and irrefutable evidence against a perpetrator may hamper the success of disciplinary cases or court cases.

On the basis of the foregoing argument, scope of the various legislations dealing with issues of sexual harassment needs to be broadened to accommodate sextortion. Sextortion ought to be strictly criminalised and classified as sexual corruption. In this sense, if sextortion is classified as another form of corruption, incorporating it in the anti-corruption legislation also deserves consideration. Concerning the requirements for the legislation to control human behaviour in the workplace, Radhika (2012:27) contends that public sector institutions need to operate within the confines or parameters of the law to ensure that public officials undertake their duties without abuse of authority, prejudice and injustice. In fact, to address the incidents of sextortion, it is essential to set strict rules, regulations and policies. In this regard, South Africa can draw lessons from other countries. For instance, in Tanzania, sextortion is recognised as an illegitimate practice and outlawed under the Penal Code and the Anti-Corruption Act (Hendra 2013). Again, in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the abuse of official authority to obtain sexual favours or services is a punishable offence which carries a penalty of three months to five years imprisonment, according to Article 205 of the Criminal Code of the Federation of Bosnia and Herzegonvina (BiH) (Zahiragic *et al.* 2011:14).

Introduce integrity training programmes

Integrity elevates an individual's moral behaviour, moral reasoning and moral awareness, which allows individuals to act appropriately, and become cautious of moral issues (Webb 2015:101). Again, integrity management "aims to stimulate moral character and improve ethical decision-making skills through interactive training sessions, workshops, ambitious codes of values and individual coaching" (Maesschalck 2004:22). Seleim and Bontis (2009:167) assert that contributions towards human development and extensive investment in education are essential steps in the fight against corrupt activities. In assessing the significance of integrity in the public service, Dobel (1990:355) posits that an individual must strive to find a balance between personal values and institutional values. In addition, Webb (2015:101) adds that integrity training programmes are effectual in institutions where staff members are less qualified and where staff members have regular or constant interaction with citizens. Although the effectiveness of the integrity training programmes is linked to institutions where employees are less qualified, evidence suggests that an environment where there is qualified people could also be found to be lacking insofar as ethical compliance is concerned. For instance, in South Africa, a senior official at the National Department of Transport requested sexual favours from a subordinate and also appointed a girlfriend as a secretary without following proper procedures (Malatji 2016:online). Also,

Matlala (2016:online) reports that school principals and deputy school principals were implicated in some of the sextortion scandals which were reported to the SACE between 2010 and 2015.

Furthermore, the importance of integrity training programmes lies in the fact that the presence of ethical codes does not guarantee an increased level of ethical compliance (Bowman 1990:350). A programme on ethical values such as integrity is essential to help public servants or officials to achieve the following: first, increase cognisance of the ethical issues and challenges; second, learn to take personal responsibility and nurture an attitude of moral obligation (Menzel 1997:229–230; Hejka-Ekins 1988:887). In fact, the moral cognitive abilities of public officials in relation to ethics in public sector institutions could improve tremendously. In this sense, lack of personal integrity may lead to self-deception and failure to appreciate one's role and obligations in relation to the public office. Webb (2015:107) recommends that a compliance-based approach should be combined with a value-based approach in order to protect and advance the integrity of public sector institutions. In other words, the emphasis should be on both, compliance with legal provisions, policies, rules and regulations; and also cultivating an ethical climate where individuals will take responsibility to act in an ethical manner and categorically embrace ethical values.

According to Gilman and Lewis (1996:520) a compliance-based approach is similar to a structural approach because it focuses on the formal regulatory and legal provisions through which the behaviour of the public officials can be channelled. Maesschalck (2004:22) posits that the compliance-based approach to ethics is important to ensure external control of the public officials. At the same time, Gilman and Lewis (1996:520) also express a need for the normative approach which can be equated to a value-based approach in order to inculcate ethical values and operationalise them. The value-based approach helps with internal control whereby the public officials learn and understand critical values and norms and also acquire skills to apply them (Maesschalck 2004:22).

Promote ethical leadership

Ethical leadership implies that persons in a position of leadership take responsibility for their actions; they act with a degree of integrity and truthfulness to ensure that decisions are consistent, rational, fair and just when subjected to scrutiny (Webb 2015:103). In Hartog and Belschak's (2012:35) view, ethical leadership is "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making". In addition, Webb (2015:103) argues that ethical leadership is evidenced by commitment to compliance with institutional codes of ethics, which also

demonstrate the leadership's high moral ground. According to Bowman (1990:349), the institutional leadership is not only expected to comply with an ethics code but to introduce new moral codes for subordinates. Therefore, ethical leaders should be characterised by a high degree of consistency, integrity, fairness, accountability; advancing and compensating ethical behaviour (Hartog and Belschak 2012:36). Again, Bowman (1990:349) accentuates that ethical conduct should start with institutional leadership as role models who should resist unethical behaviour such as sextortion. Leaders can be seen as role models for their followers if their conduct manifests high ethical compliance which positively affects the beliefs and self-concepts of the followers or subordinates (Hartog and Belschak 2012:35). In essence, ethical leadership subjugates personal interests to institutional interests, which is a clear manifestation of unquestionable moral reasoning and moral actions (Webb 2015:109).

Instil strong institutional values

Values are an "enduring belief" that a certain type of action is morally acceptable; in contrast to unethical behaviour (Kernaghan 2000:95). According to Goss (1996:576), values are the core beliefs that provide guidance in relation to the individual's action and behaviour. Also, values are essential in order to understand ethics in the field of public administration (Webb 2015:105). Values also differ from one institution to another and may include issues pertaining to integrity, lawfulness, loyalty and equality. In fact, values assist to identify "what is right and what is wrong" in a specific society and therefore for an act to be ethical it ought to satisfy the criteria of what is right or morally correct and acceptable within a particular society (Sindane and Uys 2014:399). In other words, without values it would be difficult to identify incidents such as sextortion as an unethical behaviour. Sindane and Uys (2014:403) emphasise that public officials should uphold public values in order to denounce injustice or corruption in the performance of their duties.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This article demonstrates that sextortion is an insensitive and unethical behaviour which involves abuse of official authority to obtain sexual gratification. The perpetrators of sextortion take advantage of those who are dependent on their position of authority in order to achieve personal interests. As a matter of fact, the misery and the state of helplessness of the other people becomes a grand opportunity for the perpetrators of sextortion. In some instances, the victims of sextortion choose to remain silent about their experiences of sextortion on the

basis of the belief that nothing will be done to address their dilemma. At the same time, silence is also a consequence of fear of reprisal and embarrassment.

Furthermore, sextortion differs from other forms of sexual offences because it is usually 'consensual'. In other words, two people agree to offer one another sexual favours in exchange for a benefit (e.g. employment or promotion). The 'consensual' element of sextortion characterises it differently from sexual harassment which emphasises that the sexual advances should be 'unwelcome' to the targeted individual or victim. Due to the intricacies involved in obtaining evidence against the perpetrators of this type of corruption, it is also difficult to secure prosecution in courts. Although sextortion is not similar to sexual harassment, there are some comparable similarities regarding the consequences. The various consequences of sextortion are: depression, anger, feeling of insecurity, loss of dignity, self-blame and abuse of substances that have intoxicating effects.

On the basis of major propositions or assumptions of the cognitive-behavioural theory, it is clear that the perpetrators of sextortion constantly attempt to find a way to justify their nefarious actions. In other words, efforts are made by individuals to embrace behaviour which contradicts societal norms and values. Additionally, this demonstrates a failure by individual perpetrators of sextortion to appeal to conscience, self-awareness, imagination and independent will. However, cognitive-behavioural treatment can be introduced as an intervention in the South African public sector institutions to reduce sexual recidivism.

Moreover, unethical behaviour can emerge in a public sector institution due to peer influence, particularly in the absence of strong institutional culture which is responsible for shaping the conduct of employees within public sector institutions. Besides peer influence, the manner in which senior managers conduct themselves has an influence on how their subordinates will behave. This indicates that the violation of institutional ethical codes by senior managers may result in similar violations or transgressions by junior staff members. In essence, managers and senior managers within public sector institutions must conduct themselves as role models to their subordinates. Furthermore, individuals who subscribe to the Machiavellian principle are the likely perpetrators of unethical behaviour because they are manipulators who utilise formal and informal spaces of interaction with other people to attain personal gratification. In fact, the victims of sextortion are manipulated by those who are in positions of authority in the public sector institutions.

In order to address sexual corruption in the workplace, particularly public sector institutions, it is essential to create an environment within which individual employees take personal responsibility to behave, act and reason in an ethical manner. However, to deter those who do not comply with an ethical code, the various legal prescriptions, rules and policies should be enforced. This means that relevant legislation of sexual offences should incorporate and recognise sextortion

as a sexual offence punishable by law. Over and above this, integrity training programmes must be presented to improve the ethical conduct of employees in public sector institutions. The emphasis should be on the importance of adhering to ethical values within public sector institutions. Also, the leadership should represent the highest moral ground and resist any temptation to commit sexual corruption. Simultaneously, leadership must be at the forefront in the fight against unethical behaviour within public sector institutions. This should assist junior public officials to know and understand 'what is right' and 'what is wrong', especially in relation to their conduct towards colleagues and institutional clients or citizenry. Given the magnitude and prevalence of sextortion as an ethical dilemma in the workplace, it is imperative to launch a moral regeneration campaign within public sector institutions.

A major limitation in the context of this article is that it lacks external perspectives, particularly human participants, because it is based on review of literature only. Although a topic such as sextortion could be viewed as highly sensitive, it is essential for future research in this area to engage human participants in order to obtain rich data about the subject matter. Nevertheless, extensive literature related to the issue of sextortion was consulted to produce broad descriptions and explanations about sextortion. Finally, if the incidents of sextortion are not decisively addressed, work relations will collapse or deteriorate within public sector institutions, and public confidence and trust in public sector institutions will also diminish.

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Network Theory

The Bricks and Mortar of Integrated Public Service Systems (IPSSs)

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ABSTRACT

This article explores the feasibility of employing network theory, complexity science and integration elements in building a case for the topology, operability and sustainability of an integrated public service system (IPSS). The emphasis of the article will be on presenting network elements as bases, i.e. bricks and mortar, for the formation of an IPSS. As all systems produce outputs and outcomes, the argument for the existence of an IPSS will be that the IPSS will produce outputs, outcomes, adaptation and sustainability values, referred to as public values (PV), i.e. benefits and values for social well-being, social progress and raised quality of life for all citizens.

The article sets out to present insights into the nature and characteristics of networks with the view of recognising the knowledge bases for the formation of an IPSS. To this end, the value of networks, network integration and expansion, the incorporation of actor network theory (ANT) and complex adaptive systems (CASs) will be utilised as theoretical constructs for IPSS formation. Matters related to network typology, in an IPSS context, will be addressed.

In argument for an IPSS, which is systemically juxtaposed to the employ of bureaucratic methods of management and governance, the article puts forward suggestions for the management and governance of an IPSS, in the context of maintaining the valuable and essential network environment. The place and importance of efficiency and effectiveness in networked governance will receive considerable attention.

INTRODUCTION

In searching for a public service delivery system befitting the post neo-liberal digital era, one may borrow from the theoretical and practical advancements made in human connectivity, governance theory, nonlinearity, complexity, public value theory and finally network theory. Herein one finds elements, that when combined in a certain way, will facilitate the rise of an alternative public service delivery system, referred to therefore as an integrated public service system (IPSS). The IPSS is designed to utilise elements embedded in network theory, such as transformative change, flexibility, transparency, accountability, complexity, value creation, nonlinearity, discursive dialogue, feedback methods, collaboration, participatory methodologies, consensus and openness between stakeholders (i.e. network actors). These elements are absorbed to greater or lesser extent, in building sound stakeholder relationships, as stakeholders are the actors, nodes and hubs in integrated networks. An IPSS is described as highly participative in nature. Network theory advances a means, i.e. an empirical foundation, for the conceptualisation of an IPSS. While public value (PV) will not be analytically addressed in this article, it is the raison d'etre of the IPSS. PV is generally referred to as social value, public goods or public choice.

Several issues raised in the article relate directly to the employ of network dynamics, in support of addressing the feasibility and proper functioning of an IPSS; these issues are: (i) network attributes contribute to formulations of IPSS operability, performance, networked governance and integrative management; (ii) that lines of network connectivity generate sustainable patterns of behaviour and small transformative changes in society, referred to as adaptations or sustainability measures; (iii) the growing need for participation, responsiveness, openness, recognition and inclusivity in the delivery of public services demand systemic transformation, vested in networked operability, networked governance and collaboration; (iv) to provide a clear understanding of integration as a process of engaging communities, government organisations and stakeholders as network actors, nodes and hubs, in an unpredictable and uncertain environment; (v) releasing opportunity and innovation in IPSS networks. Networked governance is defined as possessing the substance for transformative change, volatility and partnerships shaped by society (Benington and Moore 2011:34).

The aim of the article is to advance an IPSS which displays the nature, characteristics and dynamics of networks. To this end, the aims of the article are set out as follows: (i) to explore the nature and character of networks in terms of its value, integration elements and principles of actor network theory (ANT) and complex adaptive systems (CASs), as knowledge bases of an IPSS; (ii) to present aspects of network topology; (iii) to present network governance elements and

efficiency and effectiveness criteria; and (iv) to frame IPSS implementation in a network context within an integrative management framework.

THE NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF NETWORKS

The Online Etymological Dictionary (2015) defines a network as an interlocking system. It will be argued that network properties and elements are compatible with IPSSs. The genesis of networks is to be found in organic systems theory, which encompasses issues of adaptation and growth, complexity, nonlinearity, transformability, self-organisation, co-evolution and open systems (Whitehead, Kohler and Lotka (1925) in Bertalanffy 1968:11–12; Klijn 2008:299). Provan and Milward (1995:3) hold that public networks offer "benefits of reduced fragmentation and greater coordination of services".

Mitleton-Kelly (2003:5) states that complexity science is conceptual: a way of thinking and a way of observing the world. One may deduce that IPSSs, networks and complex systems share common systemic elements, hence the unique element of interconnectivity between the micro, meso and macro levels of networked relationships are induced. Mitleton-Kelly (2003:5–25) lists 10 principles of complexity science which cannot be discounted concerning IPSS operability:

- co-evolution;
- dissipative (open) structures existing in far-from-equilibrium states;
- exploration of the space of possibilities;
- self-organisation;
- organisational emergence as complex evolving systems;
- the creation of new order;
- connectivity;
- interdependence;
- positive and negative feedback; and
- network path dependence and increasing returns.

The theoretical point of departure for an IPSS is vested in complexity science, particularly in relation to the elements of uncertainty, unpredictability and the 10 elements listed above; network theory and open systems theory bears similar reliance on the principles of complexity science, without which the concept of nonlinearity could not feature in IPSS dynamics.

Value of network elements

Watts (2003:28–29, 32, 48) holds that networks are organic and continuously evolving and self-constituting systems having synchronous and asynchronous

transformational properties that are able to yield products of value through a process utilising the full potential of the network. Watts (2003:231) adds that networks utilise the principle of multidimensionality and are able to absorb conflict and act on past experience and perceptions with inherent variability. Meek and Newell (in Weber 2005:265) point out that complexity in public administrative organisations may be valuable as integrative and interdisciplinary stimuli, while Grobman (in Weber 2005:265) suggests that complexity increases organisational resourcefulness and purpose, thus stimulating opportunities, new perspectives and innovation. One may therefore claim that an IPSS is comprised of network topologies and configurations and should have the ability to accommodate and absorb complexity (i.e. the laws of unpredictability and uncertainty), which are phenomena which escape mathematical predictability, resulting only in possibilities for order and equilibrium over time. Writers such as Sveiby (1997); Edvinsson and Malone (1997); Wallman and Blair (2000); Lev (2001); Eccles *et al.* (2001) (in Allee 2008:2) are of the view that networks are the most suitable means for the conversion of intangible values (intellectual capital, trust and experience) into tangible assets (financial, human and physical resources).

Network strength and network resilience, are generally dependent upon the quality of the structure (i.e. strength of ties, diameter, density, resilience and modularity) and the functioning of inter-organisational emerging relationships within an integrated system, driven by commonality of purpose. The network elements of nonlinearity, resilience, convergence, balance, self-organisation and autocatalytic feedback (i.e. elements of complexity science) are essential sustainability features of network operability (Meyer, Gaba and Colwell 2005:456).

Capra (1997:10) holds that networks offer stakeholders the advantage of influencing others, thus driving a paradigm shift from hierarchies to networks (and IPSSs). Discontinuous change, a behavioural characteristic of network dynamics, may appear as systemic 'jolts' which compel transformation, innovation and change in a strategic direction, heralding new network forms, states of normality, equilibrium and balanced positions (Meyer, Gaba and Colwell 2005:456–458). These network attributes may add or subtract from network strength; however, it may be deduced that network strength, i.e. resilience, is a factor of IPSS strength.

Grewal (2008:3–10) argues that networks are united by standards, i.e. shared norms that facilitate cooperation among the actors in a network. He states that network strength demands shared forms of social coordination such as social productivity. Frickle and Moore (2006:302) note that the values of participatory learning, emancipatory knowledge and emancipatory potential, strengthen ties and relations in driving the participation of hubs, nodes and actors. The authors indicate that network strength is dependent on: (i) a stable authority; (ii) institutional rule making; (iii) collaborative organisational dynamics; and (iv) the utilisation of research (Frickle and Moore 2006:8–14). These factors it may be

argued compound network typologies and hence IPSS strength, bonding and propensity for connectivity.

Elements particular to network integration

Network integration demands the utilisation of systemic elements such as network agents, commonality of objectives, actor participation, consensus and sound relationship ties to effectively utilise information, capacity and resources. Networks are dynamic, therefore they are able to shrink, dissipate, grow and develop. Network integration is tied to the theory of CASs, borrowing once more from the rudiments of complexity science. In open, nonlinear systems the connecting elements for integration would be directed strategically at integrating supportive institutions, organisations and individual actors from across the micro, meso and macro spectrum of public interactivity, cooperation and partnership building. According to Kim, Oh and Swaminathan (2006:704), network alliances require inter-organisational flexibility and readiness for change, vital for network integration. Kim *et al.* (2006:711) hold that organisational history, age, size and duration in the alliances are factors that may lead to network inertia, thus affecting integration negatively. Alliance formations need to create synergies across various functional areas to retain robustness (Kim *et al.* 2006:711). Battistella and Chester (1973:495, 498, 512) ascertain that network integration can be constrained by

Table 1: Summary of constraining and promoting integration factors

Integration-constraining factors	Integration-promoting factors
• Communication problems. • Axiological differences. • Poor interpersonal relationships among staff. • Fear of reprimand or sanction by staff in voicing opinions. • Outcomes were not what were expected. • Top and middle management must integrate actors at the lower levels of the organisation. • The principles of network integration have not been properly implemented.	• Shared vision and values. • Agreement on common goals. • Inspirational and energetic leadership. • Sound governance. • Recognition and valuing of diverse professional contributions. • Improving and building relationships between parties. • Improve communication and cooperation. • Facilitate and encourage liaison between parties, multidisciplinary teams, co-location of services and coordination at local level. • Deal with issues of conflict and power. • Capacity to address issues of power, through frequent and effective communication. • Time and resources particularly allocated. • Understand participants' practice, philosophy, culture, ideas and beliefs.

Source: (Adapted from Schmied, Mills, Kruske, Kemp, Fowler and Homer 2010:3521)

negative attitudes about effective integrated delivery of services. An IPSS therefore relies on network integration for its survival, utilising each of the constructs, elements and attributes listed above and reducing the risk of constraining forces. Table 1 summarises the constraining and promoting factors to network integration. It may be argued that the nature and characteristics of networks are transferable and adaptable to IPSSs; similarly, network operability and open systems operability have much in common. The relevance of the argument presented here is to show feasibility for the emergence of an IPSS, capable of fulfilling its purpose, i.e. generating PV (Uys and Jessa 2016:198–199).

Utilising actor network theory (ANT) and complex adaptive systems (CAS) as theoretical bases for an IPSS

ANT and CASs provide perspectives and complementary knowledge bases for understanding network behaviour and are instrumental in offering explanations for network expansion, growth and intractability; the way society relates to the material aspects of life in growing uncertainty, assigns new social dimensions to network theory. The nature of networks and hence IPSSs, rely on the premises of ANT and CASs for its commonalities and contributions, vis-à-vis their constructs of integration, adaptation and organisational dynamism; these constitute valuable epistemological contributions for network theory, application and network systems' operability.

Actor network theory (ANT)
Latour (1996:1–3) holds that the links between nature, society and artefacts, the material and non-material worlds, permeate our daily activities and relationships; he asserts that these linkages are inseparable. Accordingly, a complex network may assume a form and symbolism that embraces the sum total of human and non-human capacities (i.e. elements of ANT) in an attempt to represent the daily interconnection between the material and the non-material. Latour (in Thompson 2012:253) argues that human and non-human actors create new sources of power and legitimacy as they renegotiate socio-political meaning, action and outcomes. An IPSS has the task of linking the tangibles with the intangibles, in whatever product it generates.

Complex adaptive systems (CASs)
CASs are constantly developing and co-evolving networks, expanding at an indefinable rate, bearing systemic characteristics of integration, resilience, irreversibility and highly dependent and volatile interconnections between actors. Tomasino (2011:1355–1358) and Zambonelli (2011:Slides 29 and 30) hold that CASs are difficult to analyse, since their dynamism cannot be generalised

to particular aspects of complexity theory or systemic states. The increasing expansion and evolving complexity of CASs are autopoietic and interconnected. Deneubourg (in Zambonelli 2011:Slide 35) explains that the process of self-organisation and self-perpetuation emerges solely from numerous interactions among smaller, lower level networks, giving rise to nonlinear, dynamic, multidimensional nested systems which acquire the attributes of the larger system. Rihani and Geyer (2001:239–240) contend that CASs adapt to changing internal and external environmental conditions through small but effective modifications. Best, Greenhalgh, Lewis, Saul, Carroll and Bitz (2012:423) contend that the advantages of CASs are contained in the qualities of flexibility, adaptation and transformation, i.e. ever increasing robustness. Initially insignificant actions may evolve and later assume tremendously significant impact on network adaptability, explained as the *butterfly effect*. It could be argued that IPSSs, bearing the qualities of CASs, would behave in a similar manner.

NETWORK TOPOLOGY

The emergence of network structures, expansion and its sustainability are dependent upon multiple variables. An IPSS it is argued, is comprised of network topologies and configurations, bearing the expressed qualities on nonlinearity, systemic operability for absorbing complexity difficulties and the assumed capability of generating PV, the raison d'être of an IPSS. A theoretical coalescence of network, IPSS principles and constructs is necessary for the substantiation of IPSS viability, its renewal and functioning as a means for its survival.

Levels of complexity

Oltvai and Barabási (2002:763–764) contend that organisms undergo gradual transition from rudimentary network structures and purpose to advanced and staggeringly complex network structures, as depicted in Figure 1. The 'complexity pyramid' illustrates transition patterns (i.e. growth and development) of organisms (i.e. organisational structures) for network actors, shown to progress from stage 5, a lower level, to stage 1, experiencing operability at a high level of sophistication and order. The analogy compares network structural growth and development with levels of organic specificity, progressing from the primitive to the advanced and from low universality levels, to higher levels of universality, i.e. from single, simple entities to sophisticated organised bodies possessing purposive modularity (Oltvai and Barabási 2002:763–764). Organic networks are influenced by the material (physical), the non-material (political, policy, strategic direction) and the non-static environment in which they develop. In primitive organisms the levels of complexity

Figure 1: The "Complexity Pyramid" showing progression from simple to complex networks

1. Large Scale Networks (Advanced systems of "staggering complexity"). Scale-free connectivity" with "embedded" purposive "modularity" Oltvai & Barabási (2002:764).

ORGANISM SPECIFICITY

UNIVERSALITY

1.

2. Functional & discrete modules.

3. "Functional modules" formation of 'scale-free' and nested (network) pathways.

4. Network building blocks: formation of self-regulating bodies. Intra-organ machinery adapted to environment.

5. Information Storage, Processing & Execution. Rudimentary elements of organic systems: independently functioning organs (organisms).

Simple Complexity Pyramid
"Gradual Transition & Seamless Integration from the Particular (5) to the Universal (1)".
Adapted from "Life's Complexity Pyramid". Oltvai Z N and Barabási A L 2002)

are recognised as simple, with few governing laws, while in higher order systems, such as integrated public systems constituting large complex network typologies, the governing laws are more directed towards order, stratagems, convergence and equilibrium (Capra 1997:28–29). Hence one may deduce parallels for advanced and perpetually advancing network typologies, as may be expected for IPSSs.

According to Oltvai and Barabási (2002:763–764), the properties of complex network topologies are: (i) inter-connectedness; (ii) modularity, i.e. the ability of networks to separate and reconstitute; (iii) scale-free, i.e. the tendency of

networks to naturally drift towards hubs; (iv) self-regulation and adaptation to varying environments; and (v) embeddedness of social groupings' expectations from governing authorities.

Barabási and Frangos (2002:5) hold that networks are intrinsic to complex systems. As networks evolve along paths of connectivity, their density and diameter are likely to alter; the volume of hubs in a network can increase (or decrease) in number and strength, adding to network (IPSS) resilience and robustness.

Relationship between actors, nodes and hubs

In arguing that networks evolve into IPSSs (illustration Figures 2 and 3c), network direction, structures and function, i.e. network dynamism, influences the strategic paths of its component actors, nodes and hubs (Scott 2000:10–14). Referring to Figure 2, the following points may be highlighted: (i) nodes B and C are in reciprocal relationship with hub A, but have no pronounced reciprocal relationship that is being developed between them; (ii) nodes F, E and D, are in a one-directional (non-reciprocal) relationship with hub A as well, and have no reciprocal relationship between them; and (iii) in order to evolve as an IPSS, B, C, D, E and F must forge reciprocal relationships with hub A and importantly, between them, reaching what is referred to as a distributed network by Baran (in Barabási and Frangos 2002:114–143).

Figure 2: Sociometric star analogy for developing relationships between actors, nodes and hubs
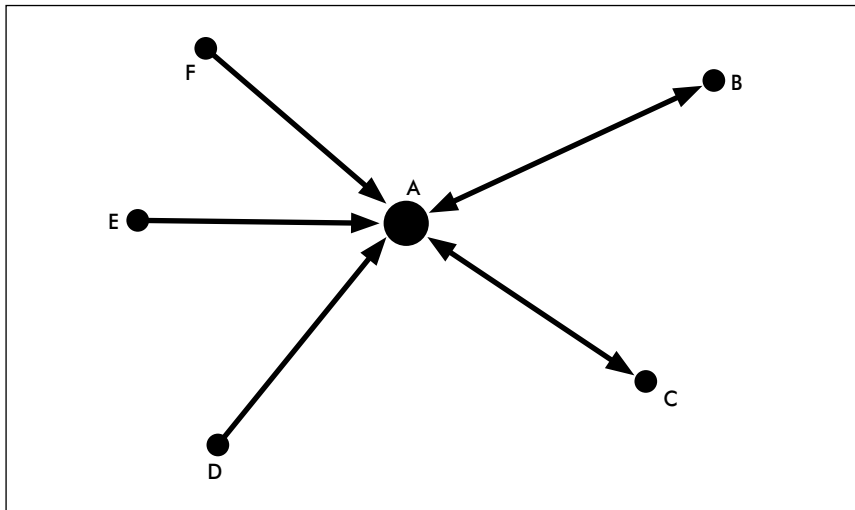
**Figure 3: Baran's network diagrams: (a) centralised, (b) decentralised,
(c) distributed networks**
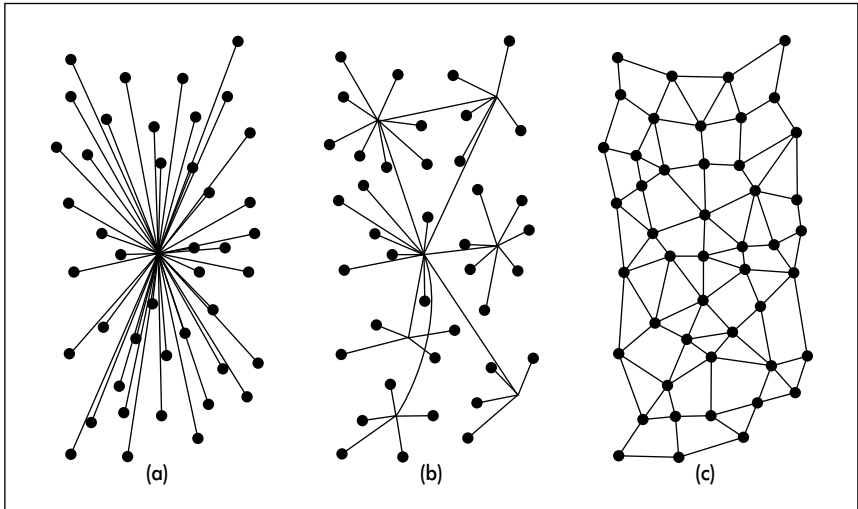
Baran (in Barabási and Frangos 2002:114–143), founder of the INTRANET, explains the progression of network development in Figure 3: (a) indicates a centralised network (hub) unsupported and at risk of annihilation; (b) indicates a decentralised scale-free network with many hubs and nodes; and (c) indicates a large complex distributed network securing the system with many hubs, displaying high degrees of resilience, i.e. topological robustness, akin to the advancement made in INTRANET communications. The underlying principles one may employ in ascertaining viability for an IPSS are: (i) that empirical evidence obtained from the study of networks is highly applicable to IPSSs; and (ii) the efficiency and effectiveness of the INTRANET developed over time, i.e. similarly, an IPSS develops over time.

Ghosh and Githens (2009:26) explain the existence of structural holes between actors and nodes, as these gaps represent a lack of connectivity for the facilitation of information exchange. Burt (1992:12–30) and Haythornthwaite (in Ghosh and Githens 2009:25–26) contend that structural hole analysis assists in identifying the 'holes' in networks, that when 'closed', strengthen information sharing, expand content, direction and strength of the ties. Karapetrovic and Willborn (in Wilkinson and Dale 1999:97) note that systems are regarded as integrated when network interdependence increases. Figures 1, 2 and 3 describe network progression and expansion. It may be deduced that an IPSS will display similar tendencies, since it shares typological and dynamic characteristics with

networks, i.e. nonlinear systems that cannot be clinically structured, as they are flexible systems which evolve over time.

Strength and weaknesses of relationship ties

Network ties, (i.e. relationships between actors) may be likened to the bricks and mortar potentially capable of connecting actors, nodes and hubs (i.e. the public and or stakeholders); complex patterns of connectivity, representing the value and intensity of stakeholder relationships, reciprocity and readiness for negotiation and collaboration are established (Scott 2000:65). The strength of these relationships is a major factor in resources (as well as capacity and information) utilisation, as it determines the purpose and quantification thereof in an IPSS. Granovetter (1983:201–229) explains that low-density networks provide opportunities for relationship strengthening, social harmony and collaboration to form densely knit networks.

The effective, efficient and economic use of resources, information, capacity and sound governance practice, is vastly hampered by weak relationships between stakeholders. Weak relationships between stakeholders result in duplication and triplication of tasks at a huge cost to the fiscus; the use of modern technology such as middleware as an aid for effective communication between stakeholders is important to IPSS success. The bricks and mortar of IPSSs are none-other than strong relationship ties, common objectives and goal-directedness.

Structural factors influencing IPSS formation

Koka, Madhaven and Prescott (2006:722–724) suggest that network expansion, reconfiguration of relationships, network strengthening and network shrinkage, shape the formation of an IPSS. The authors hold that these factors may be used in developing an understanding about the interrelatedness between network dynamic factors and IPSS formation, in line with the self-constituting and self-regulating principles of nonlinear systems. Hagedoorn (2006:674–677) emphasises the importance of negotiating levels of environmental, inter-organisational and dyadic embeddedness in IPSS formation. He adds that history, knowledge of network properties, experience and the age of the integrated system, and the cross-level embeddedness of partnership formation, are factors influencing IPSS structure. Rangan, Samii and Wassenhove (2006:739) add that positive externalities (when citizenry enjoy benefits from IPSS formations) arise when government, business and public groups form IPSSs. Negative externalities arise when IPSSs are formed at a cost to society. Rangan *et al.* (2006:744) suggest that IPSS arrangements can enable creative strategies when (i) the government or the private sector lacks either resources or governance leverage; (ii) there is high

uncertainty in the market; and (iii) private actors do not possess the expertise to govern.

NETWORK GOVERNANCE ELEMENTS

Prior to an examination of IPSSs and governance elements, it is necessary to demarcate lines of comparison between networks and IPSSs. There are undoubtedly more similarities than differences between networks and IPSSs; similarities which are vital for the operability of an IPSS. An IPSS is therefore comprised of network topologies and configurations, bearing the expressed qualities on nonlinearity, an operability which absorbs complexity attributes and hence capability of generating PV, the raison d'être of an IPSS. The continuum from networks to IPSSs is highly dependent upon building relationships, trust and accountability between stakeholders. A short comparison of network and IPSS 'states' is provided in Table 2 from which IPSS governance or networked

Table 2: Comparing characteristics of networks and IPSSs governance elements

	Networks	Integrated Public Service System (IPSS)
1	Essentially a structure.	Essentially a public system / systemic process.
2	Presents no indication of value.	Produces public value (PV), material and non-material.
3	Ethical behaviour determines network strength.	Need or ethical operation.
4	Conduit for sharing common information, knowledge and objectives.	Conduit for sharing common information, knowledge and objectives, community needs, desires, and expectations.
5	Legitimacy determined by law.	Legitimacy determined by public law in particular.
6	Open and non-defined in general.	Defined networks i.e. IPSS clusters, e.g. housing and social development IPSS clusters.
7	Employs advanced technology and expert capacity.	Need for advanced technology and expert capacity.
8	Links actors (stakeholders) in private capacity.	Links actors (stakeholders) in public-private capacity.
9.	A wide variety of networks are employed socially	A need for IPSSs exists in order to generate PV (i.e. well-being, social progress, increased quality of life).

Source: (Uys and Jessa 2017 own data)

governance indicators might be drawn. Table 2 thus identifies the characteristics of the continuum from networks and IPSSs.

Four key governance elements create PV within an IPSS: (i) negotiability; (ii) manageability; (iii) conversion; and (iv) social value and perceived value (Allee 2008:3). Hickey and Siegel (2008:168–177) and Allison, Gilliland, Mayhew and Wilson (2007:72–73) found parallel phenomena pertaining to integrated quality initiatives regarding network governance imperatives; they are: (i) knowledge; (ii) alignment of outcomes to the quality expectations of citizens; (iii) financial controls; (iv) performance; and (v) relationship building.

IPSS operability and governance

Networked governance principles are likely to emerge from the values and motivations which were responsible for driving an IPSS formation. These networked governance principles would be common to the actors involved in the process of the IPSS formation as the actors are bound by organisational networks, some of which are nodes, hubs or individual actors. The commonalities and expectations between networks lend direction to the IPSS's purpose.

Krippner, Granovetter, Block, Biggart, Beamish, Hart, Arrighi, Mendall, Hall, Burawoy, Vogel and O'Riain (2004:110) support Granovetter's (1983) view that social action is embedded in networks of social relations. Krippner *et al.* (2004:116) believe that IPSSs are domains where cooperation, trust, domination and compliance are generated, as in most socio-economic systems, since social systems cannot be sustained without them, and because IPSSs are stakeholder (i.e. public) driven. Governance norms therefore emanate from 'below' and are eventually adopted and sustained by stakeholders operating in an IPSS.

Deseve (in Goldsmith and Kettl 2009:121,127) and Allison *et al. (*2007:69–71) argue that in netcentric environments (i.e. where complex formal and informal integration and collaboration of public functions occur dynamically and where human and technical connectivity and interoperability interface) network management is regarded as highly necessary to achieve efficiencies in service delivery. Deseve (in Goldsmith and Kettl 2009:135–141) and Overbeek, Janssen and Van Bommel (2012:185–6) hold that all networks integrate operating features, innovative governance and value-centred leadership, as a means to achieve PV 'systemic' operability and sustainability.

Morgan and Trist (in Clinton 2000:8), Overbeek *et al.* (2012:185) and Wilkinson and Dale (1999:95–102) promote the following elements for IPSS operability and governance:
- integrated organisational learning;
- establishment of common values and norms;
- integrated (holistic) address of matters and issues;

- maintaining flexibility;
- utilisation of technology (open information interfaces);
- macro quality management; and
- continual feedback.

Stoker (2006:43–44) brings the focus of networked governance into prominence, not only as an important consideration for an appropriate governance framework for an IPSS, but also for the interpretation of the nature of the IPSS by stakeholders. Networked governance ensures that effective value is generated by network stakeholders and that such value is geared to the needs and demands of government, citizens and private actors on an equal basis. He holds that networked governance relies on bottom-up approaches, deliberation, deliberative reflection, reflexive intervention, maintenance of the systems' capacity, shared values and the exclusion of monopoly factors. Volatile networks can increase their resilience by adopting strong governance practices, while smaller networks will disappear or merge with stronger hubs or nodes.

IPSS effectiveness and efficiency

Network theory, complexity science, understanding integration and PV theory are the four primary pillars of IPSS formation. Since the IPSS cannot be defined by bureaucratic limitations, the IPSS utilises these four pillars in an interconnected and inseparable manner and hence becomes systemically geared to generate efficiency, effectiveness, equity, equality and efficacy, i.e. values and measures appropriate to open, flexible, participatory, transparent, nonlinear IPSSs (Uys and Jessa 2016:183).

IPSSs effectiveness and efficiency are determined by the interrelatedness of endogenous and exogenous factors, examples being actual achievement of objectives, community satisfaction and transformation indicators (McGuire and Agranoff 2011:274). Moore (in Andrews and Entwistle 2013:261) adds the legal and moral authority of the state, i.e. procedural efficiency, for effecting democratic balance in public service provision. Scharpf (in McGuire and Agranoff 2011:265) argues that structural challenges and environmental tensions faced by actors, are contributing factors to network (IPSS) efficiency and effectiveness.

Table 3 presents both a framework for performance evaluation of networks, as well as a means for understanding levels of performance in relation to open and flexible systems. Table 3 offers nine critical performance dimensions within a corporate governance regime (CGR); one may argue that the CGR matrix encapsulates the essence of IPSS performance as it bears the elements of holistic integration and collaborative purpose (Emersen and Nabatchi 2015:723). The concept of 'adaptation' is timely introduced; hence the performance tool regards

outputs, outcomes and adaptation as measurable in a nonlinear environment. By 'adaptation' is meant small, significant, progressively positive change or adjustment in a collaborative, nonlinear, network environment. The CGR framework is applicable to regeneration programmes and projects where the community takes a central role in its own development and empowerment, establishing well-being and social stability, utilising effectiveness and efficiency as key success factors.

Table 3: Corporate Governance Regime (CGR) performance levels for actions outcomes and adaptation. A performance measuring instrument for an IPSS

Performance Level	Unit of Analysis		
	Participant Organisation	Collaborative Governance Regime	Target Goals
Level One: Actions & Outputs	Efficiency	Efficacy	Equity
Level Two: Outcomes	Effectiveness	Legitimate relations with stakeholders	Effectiveness
Level Three: Adaptation	Equilibrium	Viability	Sustainability

Source: (Emerson and Nabatchi 2015)

Inter-organisational collaboration, organisational strength and the production of quality products and services requires evaluation. Provan and Milward, and Bardach (in McGuire and Agranoff 2011:271–272), Provan and Milward (1995:23–27) and Provan and Milward (in Turrini, Cristofoli, Frosini and Nasi 2010:530–538) hold that high levels of efficiency are required in order to achieve citizen satisfaction and preserve relationships between network structures. Their suggested evaluation criteria are: (i) IPSS modularity; (ii) monitoring, control and coordination; (iii) IPSS stability and sustainability; (iv) measures of certainty; (v) measures for the degree of embeddedness in relation to a resource-abundant environment; (vi) levels of scarcity of resources; (vii) audit of benefits accruing to citizens and management; (viii) innovation; (ix) accountability; and (x) goal achievement.

Whelan (2011:275) contends that five levels of evaluative analysis are possible in the domains of network structure, culture, policy, technology and relationships. For each of these domains the following should be noted: (i) endogenous and exogenous variables; (ii) integration design; and (iii) efficiency of information and communication systems. Tension arises over values and interests between the parts and the whole, and between the network and the community.

Framework for measuring IPSS effectiveness

The construction of a framework for IPSS effectiveness will utilise network operational principles, such as positive and negative feedback loops, nonlinear coordination and the elements stated in the CGR framework presented in Table 3. The relevance for measuring network effectiveness lies in the need for the effective and efficient utilisation of information, resources and capacity, taking cognisance of holistic and synchronous development. Figure 4 illustrates the employ of effectiveness indicators, employed by network-IPSS actors in a nonlinear manner. An integrated framework for network effectiveness is illustrated by Turrini (2010:546) in Figure 4. The author draws on the work of Provan and Milward (1995) and McGuire and Agranoff (2011:274) on network structure, function and contextual characteristics, providing a basis for measuring integrated network effectiveness. Having adopted a continuous feedback process, messaging takes on a nonlinear form, the purpose being continuous improvement and enhancement of programmes and projects current or not. The indicators may be obtained from the diagram, i.e. Figure 4. Gaster (1996:80–89) holds that quality

Figure 4: An integrated framework for network-IPSS effectiveness
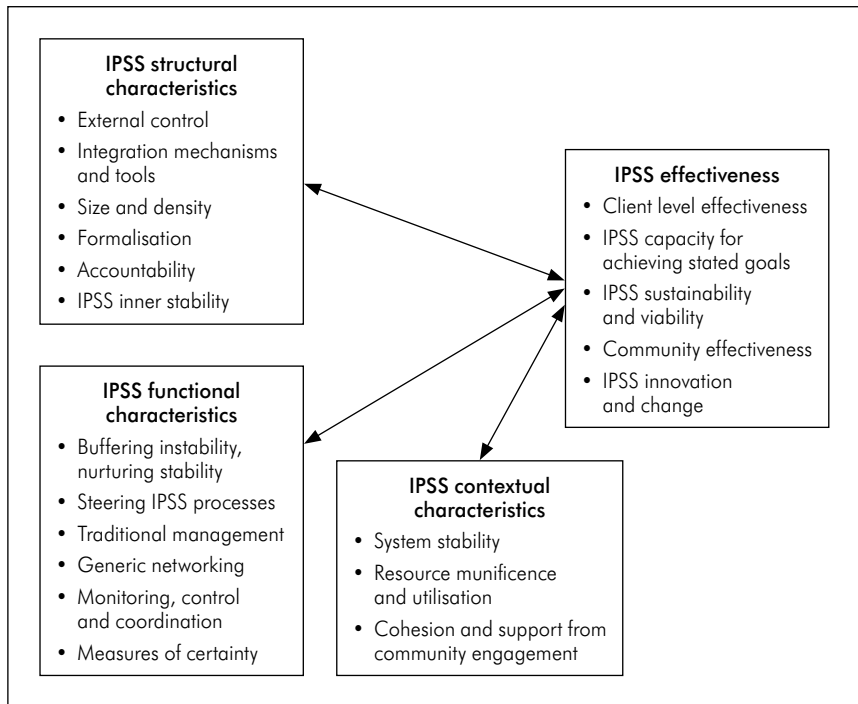
Source: (Adapted from Turrini A, Cristofoli D, Frosini F and Nasi G 2010:546)

consciousness among citizens becomes entrenched when the infrastructure for quality exists alongside public participation, a quality service chain and supported by key stakeholder teams, i.e. integrative leaders, working within a holistic framework for the effective implementation of IPSS products and services.

IPSS IMPLEMENTATION IN A NETWORK CONTEXT

The theory of the IPSS has yet to be tested in reality. Government organisations, which are considered hubs in a dedicated network environment, would have to edge much closer to its stakeholders, citizens and communities, a leap not

Table 4: Three sets of imperatives for the operability and implementation of the IPSS

Principles of open, organic systems	Integrative managerial imperatives	IPSS operational and implementation guidelines
Nonlinearity. **Holistic** thinking and Gestalt ideology. **Reciprocation** and deliberative reciprocity. **Entropy reduction**: towards increasing order. **Intractability**: i.e. natural irreversible growth. **Autopoiesis**, natural self-organisation and self-regulation. **Network resilience.** **Co-evolution** of IPSS elements. **Convergence** of IPSS elements.	**Developmental** in all aspects of producing public value (PV). **Deliberative,** open, engagement. **Sharing** resources, capacity and information. **Collaboration**: channelling ideas, innovation and creativity. **Coordination:** effective scheduling, planning and evaluation of outputs, outcomes and impact. **Cooperation:** readiness, responsiveness and assuming responsibility for activities. **Communication**: the employment of digital technology, such as 'middleware'. **Trust and legitimacy.** **Citizen satisfaction.**	**Networked,** integrative governance. **Feedback.** **Functionality.** **Focus on utility.** **Financial** control to avoid financial distress. **Sustainability** and stability. **Accountable** and transparent. **Inclusivity**, open to engagement. **Learning;** organisations and actors learn. **Consensus** and commonality of objectives. A focus on **innovation.** **Recognition of PV** tangible and non-tangible elements. **Economic value** to society. **Holistic evaluation** of functions, activities, stakeholder and actor performance.

Source: (Uys and Jessa 2017 own data)

generally accepted in the global environment. Table 4 provides a point of departure as it sets out principles for open, flexible systems in defined public networks, integrative managerial imperatives for collaborative and networked governance and what would generally comprise IPSS objectives gained from participatory methods with stakeholders residing within a defined network.

An evaluative model, based on the frameworks presented in this article, will be a necessary requirement in consideration of the methodology that will be used to measure IPSS outputs, outcomes, adaptability and sustainability of programmes and projects. In presenting a framework for IPSS implementation, Table 4 outlines three sets of imperatives for IPSS operability and implementation by IPSS network actors.

Integrative management for an IPSS

The implementation of an IPSS requires a paradigm change and bottom-up approach by managers to operate effectively and efficiently in a system which demands a new governance perspective for engagement between institutions of state, stakeholders and individual actors. Emerson, Nabatchi, and Balogh (2011:1–23) define integrative management as being broad in scope, utilising co-management, the interaction of multi-partners, nonlinear principles and a reliance on network dynamism. The CGR framework, presented in Table 3, is an instrument for integrative learning. The authors hold that the drivers of integrative management are interdependent leadership and a coalescence of resources, information and capacity. The implementation of the CGR instrument employs critical managerial tasks such as principled engagement, shared motivation, deliberation and the will to address outputs, outcomes, adaptation and sustainability jointly; in this manner, the integrative manager sets forth to practicalise IPSS operability, dealing with complexity, matters of trust between stakeholders, integration and the delivery of effective and efficient services to citizens.

The nonlinear qualities of an IPSS, which define the difference between hierarchical and open systems, must logically inform the approach, style and practice of management relevant to maximising IPSS operability. Integrative managers borrow from the best management practices and frameworks available to them. The tables, figures and criteria presented in this article are guides for integrative management frameworks. To the integrative manager, cost efficiency entails the elimination of waste, sustaining organisational financial health, effective and efficient programme, project management and participatory budgeting; as it relates to both tangible and non-tangible outputs and outcomes. Integrative management, public value management and networked governance have been put forward as management methodologies for an open IPSS. Table 4 lists some of the criteria available to integrative managers for implementation.

The evaluation and measurement of network interconnectivity (strength of ties, modularity, degrees of betweenness, density, etc.) employs Gephi, Egonet, Graph tool and Java Universal Network Graph (JUNG) software. Stakeholder satisfaction rating scales, PV Scorecards, Balanced Scorecards and Integrated Frameworks for Network Effectiveness may be tailored to the needs of integrative managers (Turrini *et al.* 2010:546).

Network dynamism is synonymous with stimulating growth and development, its opposite being organisational stagnation. The dynamic nature of the IPSS is determined by the demands, needs, expectations and desires of stakeholders in the pursuance of their common objectives, driven by integrative managers in an empirical and participatory, yet not clinical manner.

CONCLUSION

The basic elements of network theory were presented in order to substantiate purpose and viability for the establishment of an IPSS. While the present governing system employed by institutions of state are linear, fragmented and authoritarian in nature, network theory offers an alternative for improved engagement, participation by stakeholders, community and citizenry. As all networks known to society generate measurable outputs and outcomes, an IPSS by contrast, possesses the potential to deliver PV, measurable in terms of its outputs, outcomes (i.e. social well-being, quality of life and social progress), sustainability and adaptability. An IPSS consolidates and utilises the elements from network theory, complexity science, public value theory and integration participatory methodologies to produce a public system for the delivery of services which espouse the characteristics of openness, flexibility, nonlinearity, effectiveness, accountability, transparency and inclusivity. These elements comprise the bricks and mortar of an IPSS; a system which measures the value (i.e. PV) it generates to its stakeholders and broader society. An IPSS employs the practice of utilising common stakeholders' objectives, common targets, common purpose, collaboration, engagement and empowerment of stakeholders, interest groups and individuals.

The typology of the IPSS is therefore based on network typology, in terms of its dynamism, its outputs and its modus operandi, guided by networked governance, integrative management, fairness, cooperation and collaboration. Since IPSS constructs were borrowed from network theory, six normative underpinnings for IPSS functionality may be established: (i) the importance of factoring in the attributes of complexity science as it sets down the laws of unpredictability and uncertainty; (ii) government and community organisations are stakeholders of equal status, promoting efficacy in respect of IPSS operability; (iii) continuous feedback is essential to IPSS operability; (iv) an IPSS employs democratic ideals;

(v) an IPSS seeks to deliver its outputs effectively, efficiently and economically; and (vi) networked governance and integrative management principles were listed as knowledge bases to be utilised in the implementation of IPSSs.

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Employability of Public Administration Graduates

An Empirical Exploration

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this article was to establish the extent to which graduates produced at a traditional university in South Africa in the discipline of Public Administration, are capacitated enough and meet the requirements of the employer. The literature review reveals that graduates need to possess qualities that will assist them to take adaptive, proactive approaches in their careers, which involves managing their employability. Developing graduates' attributes through effective communication between graduates of Public Administration and the employer, requires commitment and support from management for the process to become successful. This article reflects on an empirical study that was conducted. For the purpose of this article, data was collected through interviews and questionnaires administered to academic staff, final year students, graduates, career development officers and employers in the public service. The data was analysed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. This article investigated the link between Public Administration programmes at a traditional university in South Africa (university X) and the public sector organisations, and sought to establish whether graduates produced are adequately capacitated to meet the requirements of the employer, which would enable them to participate meaningfully in the graduate labour market.

INTRODUCTION

When the new democratic South African government was elected in 1994, it had a mandate to supply and provide particular products and services that South African citizens might need. In order to be able to provide these services to the South African people, the public service requires educated, trained and professional public servants. The building of human capacity in the South African public service was one of the issues raised at the 52nd African National Congress (ANC) conference of 16–20 December 2007 in Polokwane (**www.anc.org.za**, ANC 2007). Therefore, Public Administration programmes at a university or university of technology can play an important role in building human capacity, skills and knowledge in the South African system of government. Adedeji and Backer (in Van Jaarsveldt 2009:257) state that Public Administration as a field of study has been recognised as far back as the 18th century, and since then education of public servants has developed through many phases, to the point where Public Administration is a distinct academic subject. Today, the education of public servants has become more important, particularly in South Africa, where there is a scarcity of properly trained and skilled public servants and a gap for the provision of these services.

LITERATURE REVIEW:
THE CONCEPT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

According to Dye in Naidoo (2005:64), the term 'public administration' has always meant the study of public service. Van der Waldt and Du Toit (1997:13) state that public administration is concerned with handling public matters and the management of public institutions in such a way that resources are used efficiently to promote the general welfare of the public. Schwella, Burger, Fox and Muller (2002:24) cited in Dayaram (2011:19), contend that public administration is that system of structures and processes operating within a particular society as the environment, with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate, legal and legitimate governmental policies, and the effective, efficient and productive execution of the formulated policies. Therefore one can deduce that in order for public administration to be efficient and effective, persons rendering public services to the citizens must be capacitated to perform such duties. Therefore, the purpose of the public service is to provide services to society.

The above calls for graduates who have been prepared to enter the job market. This will require graduates who can participate in on-the-job training, which is where employee training takes place at work while they are doing the actual job. Usually a professional trainer (or sometimes an experienced employee) serves as the course instructor using hands-on training often supported by formal classroom training.

To be able to provide services, the South African public service is in need of educated, trained and professional public servants. To ensure quality services and that there is transformation in public service delivery, as enacted in the White Paper on the Transformation of Public Service Delivery of 1995, there is a need for the maintenance of the public service that is efficient, and effective and career-orientated (*Constitution of the Republic of South Africa* 1996). Section 195 of the Constitution, 1996, under Chapter 10, provides the values and principles of public administration in the public service. These values provide a guide for the administration of the public sector institutions, and are relevant to this study. The values are summarised as follows: professional ethics; efficient economic and effective use of resources; development oriented; accountable; good human resource management, and the cultivation of career development practices to maximise human potential. In essence, it is important that government bridge the gap in capacitating employees for them to be productive by recruiting graduates who have the skills and ability to work in the public service. Such recruitment should be in line with the Skills Development Act which seeks to promote development of the South African workforce, with the intention of improving the productivity of the workplace and the delivery of social services (RSA 1998).

EMPLOYABILITY AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

The article highlights the employability of Public Administration graduates and its importance, particularly in South Africa, where there is a definite need for skilled, educated and trained public servants. Jenvey (2012:121) emphasises the evident gap between higher education systems and the workforce, which hinders skills development and employment of youth. In contrast, Ponge (2013:6) contends that graduates are experiencing difficulties entering the labour market; hence any university seeking relevance today must produce graduates who would have the requisite skills to create employment rather than search for employment. Therefore, there is mounting pressure on universities to become more receptive to society and its economic needs.

Employability entails that a person must have a set of skills, knowledge, understanding and personal attributes that make them more likely to choose and secure occupations in which they can be satisfied and successful (Pool and Sewell 2007:280). Since Public Administration graduates are the main focus of this article, one can deduce that Public Administration as a programme sets the foundation for equipping students/graduates with the skills and competencies that assist them so that they become employable.

The linking of higher education with the labour market is closely related to the employability of graduates. Therefore the focal point here is on the type of

Figure 1: Essential components of Employability Model
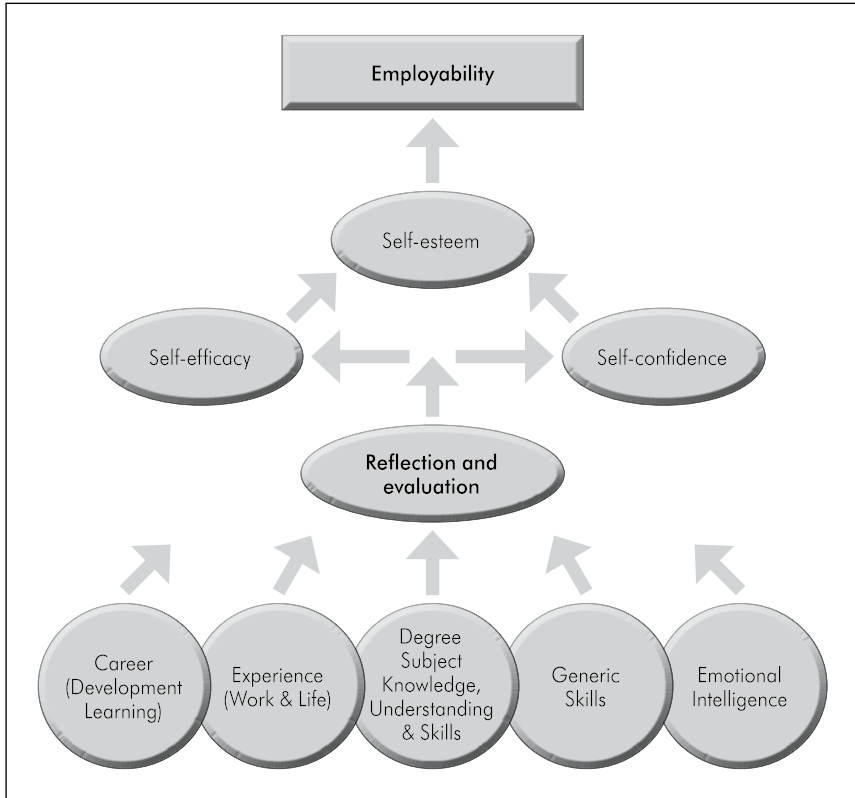
attributes that graduates need to possess in order to survive in the turbulent labour environment. In essence, it is important that Public Administration graduates from universities acquire the necessary attributes to ensure that they are employable. It is important to certify that Public Administration programmes give direction to the administrative conduct of public servants, to ensure the effective execution of policies by the public service. Therefore graduates need to be capacitated and professional enough to ensure that public services are delivered economically, efficiently and effectively to South African citizens. Figure 1 is an illustration of the essential components of an Employability Model. Over and above the skills acquired at a university, the model indicates other attributes of a graduate, namely self-esteem, self-efficacy and self-confidence.

The design of the Employability Model indicated in Figure 1 reflects an assertion that each component is absolutely important and one missing element

will considerably reduce a graduate's employability. A degree of overlap between some of the components is acknowledged and this is reflected in the visual presentation of the model.

There is link between the Public Administration programme offered at university X and the employability components and requirements of employers in the public service, insofar as theory is concerned. While there is a link, the responsibility rests with the graduates to ensure that they acquire the necessary skills and experience to be employed in the public service. The curriculum at university X consists broadly of the following modules/subjects:

Table 1: Curriculum for a Public Administration programme

Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
• Introduction to Public Administration; • Introduction to Public Management; • End User Computing; • Principles of Microeconomics; • Principles of Macroeconomics; • Management; • Introduction to Individual Behaviour and HRM • Principles of Social Behaviour and Group Dynamics; • Management Science.	• Local Government; • Public Sector Financial Management; • Public Sector HRM; • Public Policy Management; • Career Management; • Managing Workplace Diversity; • Economics II; • Management II; • Information Systems and Technology II.	• Development Policy and Project Management; • Organisational Change and Leadership; • Public Service Delivery; • Global and Regional Trends in Public Administration; • Economics III / Management III/Human Resource Management III/Supply Chain Management III.

Source: (Compiled by the authors using primary data collected)

The contents of the above-mentioned subjects can be infused into the essential components of the model. The theory learned in the subjects can be enhanced with the components of the employability model to produce graduates who can function or perform when entering the public service.

VALUE OF THE EMPLOYABILITY MODEL

In terms of the value of the employability model illustrated in Figure 1, efforts have been made to develop a measurement tool with which students can evaluate their employability and identify any areas in which they need to access further opportunities for development

While the components of the employability model and the justification for their inclusion are important, it is also critical to demonstrate how it will be a useful and practical addition to the literature already available on the subject of employability. First, any model of employability should inform the planning of programmes and structured interventions intending to focus on the area. This model provides transparent information about what needs to be considered and included. Second, a model concerning graduate employability should be something that can be explained with ease to students and possibly their parents, as well as academics. This model allows lecturers, personal tutors, career advisors or anybody else involved with the promotion of employability within higher education, to channel students/graduates in the right direction. Third, the model will be a valuable tool for knowledge transfer activities. It can be used to demonstrate to employers how the roles of higher education institutions and business can contribute to graduate employability with the resultant benefits for both parties. Finally, it would be useful to have a model of employability that could be adapted for use with groups other than students and new graduates (Pool and Sewell 2007:281). This model can assist with the development of the necessary skills and attributes.

Yorke and Knight (2006:28) suggest that a number of issues need to be borne in mind when the desire is to embed (or embed more firmly), employability into the curriculum. It is therefore of particular relevance to colleagues who are designing new curricula or are considering how existing curricula might be "altered" for highlighting the potential of their programmes to develop students' employability.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this article were to investigate the link between Public Administration programmes and the public sector organisations; establish whether graduates produced are capacitated enough and meet the requirements of the employer; ascertain whether there are any innovative provisions of work experience opportunities within, or external to, the programme of study; and examine whether students graduating have attained the required employability skills to participate meaningfully in the graduate labour market. The aim of the article was to address some of these objectives.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of highlighting the employability of graduates in Public Administration at university X, and in focusing on action, in particular promoting change within an institution, directed the approach of the article to being exploratory. Based on the

nature and purpose of the study, quantitative and qualitative research approaches were primarily used to obtain deeper information on the perceptions and information on the research topic. Quantitative methods were used to test the aim of the theories by examining the relationship among other variables (Creswell 2009:3). Furthermore, guided by Creswell (2009:3), qualitative methods were used as the study involved individuals or groups who ascribed to a social or human problem. For the purpose of this article, structured closed questionnaires were used as a data collection technique. The data was complemented and triangulated with qualitative methods using self-administered open-ended questionnaires and key informant interviews.

At an early stage of survey design, researchers need to define exactly which group of people or units they are interested in, and that the full group of interest is the target population (Nichols 1991:50). A sample size of 105 was chosen for this study. This was made up of 80 respondents who were final year students in the discipline of Public Administration, eight academic staff in the field of study of Public Administration, two student counsellors, 10 new recruits and five employer representatives from the public service. 80 questionnaires were distributed to third-year students for their responses. 67 completed questionnaires were returned and from the eight targeted academic staff and the five employers who were sampled, a total of seven interview self-administered questionnaires were received. Demonstrated in this methodology is the connection between the investigation's purpose, its organisation and the manner in which the conclusions were drawn. Throughout the data collection and data analysis processes, the researcher was responsible for arranging the interviews, conducting interviews, transcribing the interviews and for the data analysis.

FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The discussion in the following sections and below report on the findings and results of the interviews conducted with academic staff, student counsellors, newly employed graduates in the public service and employer representatives. The discussion also reflects the results from questionnaires administered to final year students at university X.

Figure 2 illustrates that 56.7% of respondents were African and 37.3% were Indian.

A total of 84% of the respondents were of the view that employability is about knowledge, understanding and skills. Knight and Yorke (2004:10) state that students should be entitled to experiences in higher education institutions that develop understandings, skills, self-theories and reflection, and that this virtuous learning and education improves employability. 7% of the respondents stated generic skills are crucial to employability. As mentioned in the literature,

Figure 2: Race of the participants

Indian
37.3%

African
56.7%
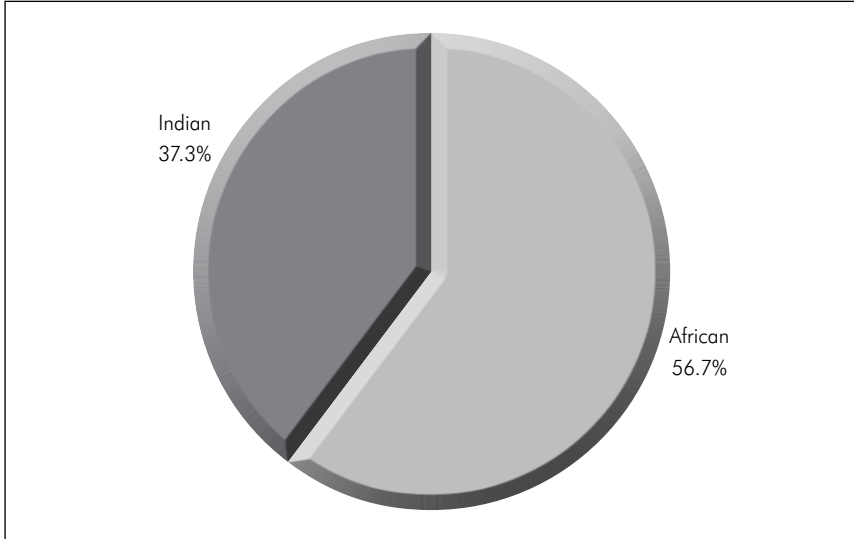
Figure 3: Student understanding of employability

84%

7%   7%

1%

Percentage of respondents (%)

Degree subject   Generic skills   Experience   Self-confidence/
self-esteem

Student understanding of employability
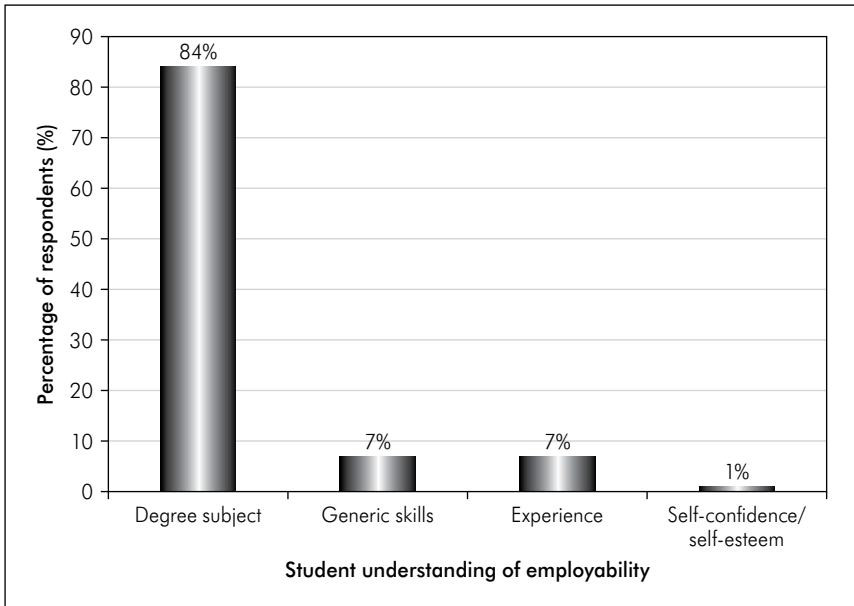
Figure 4: The importance of employer input for Public Administration curricula
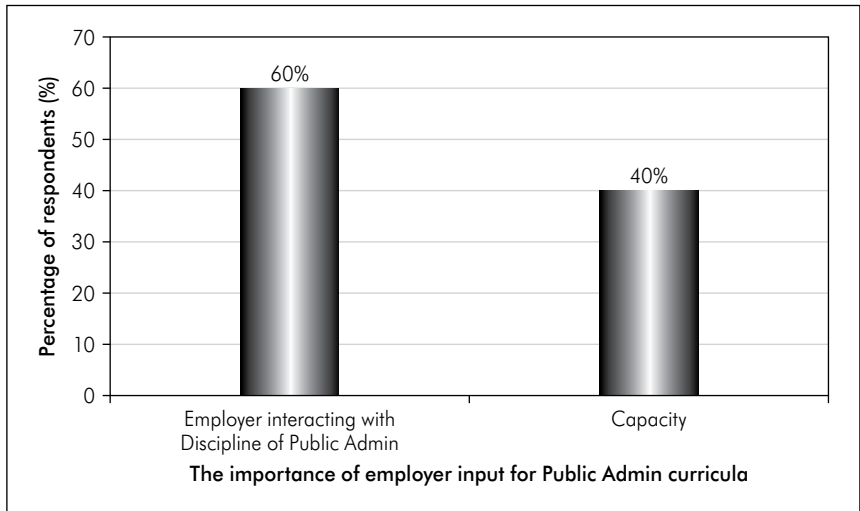
employers want graduates with relevant subject-specific skills, knowledge and understanding, but in addition to this are looking for well-developed generic skills in a number of areas (Harvey, Moon, Geall and Bower 1997). Another 7% of the respondents stated that experience, in response to employers' expectations, is also an essential component of employability. Experience enhances development of skills as it gives students/graduates exposure to the working environment; as a result graduates become employable. 1% of the participants were of the view that self-confidence and self-efficiency contribute to employability.

Figure 4 illustrates that 60% of the participants were of the view that the input of the employer on curricula is important, and also that the relationship between the employer and the discipline of Public Administration at university X is important to ensure that the Public Administration programme curricula is sustained and made relevant to the needs of the work environment. According to Van der Walt (2013:77), universities gain particular relevance because of the aspects of their curriculum:

- Academic programmes with appropriate content for the development of the person as a whole, as well as preparation for the world of work;
- The value and relevance of research undertaken and of published reports, conference papers and articles;
- International exposure, through co-operation and exchange agreements;
- The expertise of staff: *inter alia* rated researchers, media profile;

- Graduate research, focusing on themes relevant to the society;
- The establishment of centres of excellence in specialist areas;
- Capacity building and short learning programmes, and
- Community service projects.

Van der Walt (2013:77) further states that for the Public Administration and Management programme to remain relevant as far as the above-mentioned activities are concerned there is a need for continuous adjustment, change and transformation. However, 40% of the respondents stated that capacity is an essential component of Public Administration and Management curricula. Respondents argued that the relationship between these parties, employers and the discipline of Public Administration at a university is imperative, and recognised the skills needed in the working environment, especially in the development of the curricula, for instance, in the introduction of problem-based learning.

Of the participants, 54% stated that they lacked a generic skill, specifically communication skills. Knight and Yorke (2002:2) discuss some of the research into the value placed by employers on generic skills in graduates and interpret the message from employers as: "Give us a bright and engaged graduate, and we will build specific expertise for this organisation on top of that". 31% of the participants

Figure 5: Skills and competencies Public Administration students/graduates lack
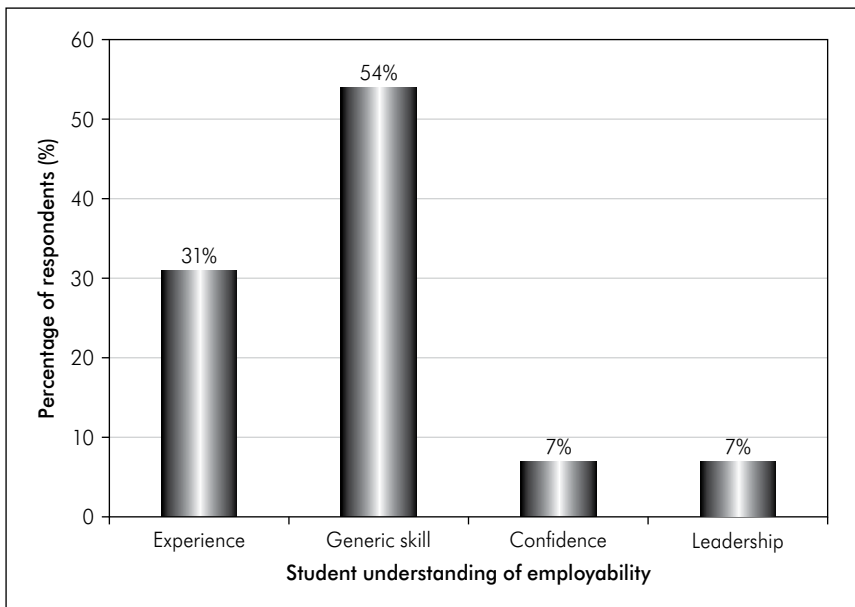
Source: (Compiled by the authors using primary data collected)

believed that graduates lack the necessary skills and experience required by employers. One can assume that the reason for this is that more graduates focus on completion of their qualification and therefore do not undertake vocational work experience or part-time work. 7% of the participants contended that confidence, participants' lack of interpersonal skills, attitude, skills to interact with people and communication; which are imperative for persons to become employable and survive in a working environment, are lacking. In contrast, 7% of the participants were of the view that they lacked leadership skills. Leadership is another important aspect of employability (Van der Heijden and Bakker 2011:234).

Table 2: A degree in Public Administration can substantially improve job prospects

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	3.0	3.0	3.0
	Neither Agree nor Disagree (neutral)	17	25.4	25.4	28.4
	Agree	30	44.8	44.8	73.1
	Strongly Agree	18	26.9	26.9	100.0
	Total	67	100.0	100.0	

Source: (Compiled by the authors using primary data collected)

Table 2 shows that 44.8% of the respondents agreed, while 26.9% strongly agreed that a qualification in Public Administration can substantially improve job prospects. About 25.4% neither agreed nor disagreed, followed by 3% who disagreed. Graduates from the Public Administration programmes are employed in the public sector, private sector, and non-profit organisations. The findings of this article reveal that respondents also need to learn how best to research the job markets to see what opportunities are available to them, how to present themselves effectively to prospective employers, and how to make considered decisions about their careers.

Table 3 indicates that 25.4% of the respondents agreed, while 70.1% strongly agreed; that a Public Administration degree should include skills useful for employment. About 1.5% neither agreed nor disagreed and 1.5% strongly disagreed. As outlined in the literature review of the article, Public Administration graduates are the main focus of this study, and one can deduce that Public Administration as an academic programme sets the foundation for equipping students/graduates with the skills and competencies that assist graduates to become employable. This can be done by allowing employers to tap into the prior knowledge possessed by graduates, as the knowledge gained from the university is universal.

Table 3: Public Administration degree should include skills useful for employment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	1.5	1.5	
	Neither Agree nor Disagree (neutral)	1	1.5	1.5	
	Agree	17	25.4	25.8	
	Strongly Agree	47	70.1	71.2	
	Total	66	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.5		
Total		67	100.0		

PRESENTATION OF QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

The following section provides the qualitative analysis, which is the result of analysing the views of academic staff at university X in the discipline of Public Administration, public service/employer representatives, student counselling service, and self-administered interview questionnaires from final year students. The purpose of this qualitative response was to complement the quantitative analysis and identify any gaps that the university foresees from the programmes being offered. The following section discusses the responses.

The self-administered questionnaire sought to discover how the respondents found the Public Administration programme, with special emphasis on employability, the relationship between the field of study of Public Administration at a university and the public service, graduates' capacity to meet the requirements of the employer, intellectual abilities and conceptual depth to perform in a working environment, and the skills to enable graduates to cope in the labour market.

RESULTS OBTAINED FROM ACADEMIC STAFF

The following section discusses the results from interviews held with academic staff.

Graduates meet requirement of employability

In the question whether graduates meet the requirements of employability, the results of the interviews were as follows.

Interviewee one (31 January 2014): the academic leader of the discipline of Public Administration stated that public administration is about people or graduates going out there to serve the people. Graduates in this field are employed to support the government mandate and to contribute to service delivery. Therefore graduates in this programme are trained to become holistic persons, must be ethical and non-discriminatory, and knowledgeable; they should have innovative skills in solving problems without violating the code of conduct; and must be ready to serve citizens with compassion and integrity. Harvey, Moon and Geall (1997:41) contend that employers want graduates with relevant subject-specific skills knowledge and understanding, but in addition to this, employers are looking for well-developed generic skills in a number of areas. Interviewee two (11 February 2014) stated that a well-rounded, knowledge-based individual who knows the subject matter and has the basic skills to execute basic tasks given in the workplace, is required. Interviewee three (12 February 2014) said that commitment, dedication, work ethos, and understanding the nature of the business, should qualify graduates; who should also possess the necessary skills, competencies and knowledge relevant to the field. Interviewee four (18 February 2014) highlighted a graduate who had acquired critical and analytical skills, the ability to work in a team, identify and solve problems, conduct research, oral and written communication skills. Interviewee five (20 February 2014) described a graduate who is able to put theory into practice, and one who has the right personal attributes. Findings indicate that employers are looking for graduates who can combine theory and practice and have positive attributes.

Understanding public administration and its role in the public sector

In the question about understanding public administration and its role in the public sector, the results of the interviews were as follows:

Interviewee one (31 January 2014) highlighted that public administration is all about how the government works, its policies, legislation and reality in the conditions of the country. Students need to understand that this field is about making the life of citizens better; as a graduate you are the change agent, where you can make an impact. Interviewee two (11 February 2014), noted the importance of understanding how government works, the responsibility and duties of the public sector, and the nature of public institutions and individuals appointed to carry out tasks. Interviewee three (12 February 2014) added that the public sector in general is ever-changing; hence the demands of society will require people who understand the nature and extent of their demands. Therefore, the role of public administration is to attend to these problems. Interviewee four (18 February 2014) emphasised that public administration is a

"calling", a commitment to the public good; it is value-orientated and concerned with socio-economic change. Interviewee five (20 February 2014) felt that students/graduates needed to understand that Public Administration is an applied science; they needed to have a clear perspective of what public administration is, as it is a complex field. Students/graduates needed to take the initiative to find out about the course/programme to better equip them for their career in public administration and their future prospects.

Van der Waldt and Du Toit (1997:13) state that public administration is concerned with handling public matters and the management of public institutions in such a way that resources are used efficiently to promote the general welfare of the public. One can conclude that there is a significant link between the Public Administration programme and the public sector. This result corresponds with the quantitative findings from the research questionnaire, which revealed that the majority of the sample deemed their understanding of public administration and its role in public management to be mainly about the work of government or government activities.

Graduate employability development

In the question about graduate employability development, the results of the interviews were as follows:

Interviewee one (31 January 2014) stated that the practical aspect of public administration is important. Graduates need to be aware of the issues that confront society and come up with solutions, hence they need a problem-solving approach, and to read, understand, communicate and engage with other people, as all this is important. Course coordinators also invite guest lecturers to engage with students to give them a more practical perspective of the programme. Interviewee two (11 February 2014), asserted that there was a need for committed and passionate students for the programme, who would develop personally and professionally so that the programme would impact positively on service delivery and in communities. Interviewee three (12 February 2014) contended that we needed to rethink the pedagogic approach, promote active learning and create our own perspective of realty. Interviewee four (18 February 2014) felt that constructivist teaching and learning strategies, the ability to conceptualise abstract theories and apply them in a practical aspect and come up with new theories, and not merely adopt others' theories, was crucial. In terms of interviewee five (20 February 2014), the field of study of Public Administration must liaise and form relationships with government organisations, to expose students/graduates to the practical aspects of the field and how things really worked in the workplace. The findings under this question indicate that graduates need to be developed in other aspects besides the theory acquired at a university.

Type of resources needed to develop skills

In the question about the type of resources needed to develop skills, the results of the interviews were as follows:

Interviewee one (31 January 2014) admitted that 21st century technology in the running of government is important, and training in information technology must hence be incorporated in the programme. Communication and writing skills need to be developed which are key issues within the programme, as an English module is not incorporated in the Public Administration curricula. Issues of ethics and skills are also essential. Interviewee two (11 February 2014) added that adequate human and financial resources were needed, with a reasonable staff complement so that the enterprise is kept running; qualified lecturers were a challenge, as there are limited resources to fund academic staff. Interviewee three (12 February 2014) felt that field trips, for instance to project sites, Integrated Development Plan meetings, council meetings (where policies are debated) and guest lectures on site, would be valuable. Interviewee four (18 February 2014) mentioned e-learning, opportunities to simulate workplace experiences, sufficient staff and future employment of post-graduates, as necessary. Interviewee five (20 February 2014) emphasised that resources be available, such as tutorials, lecturers, academic development officers, the library and computer labs. It would then be up to the students to use the resources available to them. Findings indicate that over and above the theory learned at a university, graduates need to be able to use the resources employers avail to them.

RESULTS FROM THE PUBLIC SERVICE/ EMPLOYER REPRESENTATIVES

The following section discusses the results from the employers/employer representatives.

Graduate skills and competencies

In the question of graduate skills and competencies, the results of the interviews were as follows:

Interviewee one (10 December 2013) noted that the head of career development office outlined a survey conducted by the career development officer with 62 employers in South Africa, where it was found that employers affirmed that graduates needed to develop skills and competencies, take on part-time work, and participate in community engagement to gain the necessary skills and competencies. Interviewee two (13 December 2013) observed that the head

of the human resource unit indicated that the main theories incorporated in the Public Administration curricula cannot be the fault of universities, and may not be enough to skill graduates. Some programmes offered at higher education institutions have become so saturated that graduates need to explore how relevant their courses are, in terms of what the government needs. Interviewee three (20 December 2013) admitted that graduates in general did not possess adequate skills and competencies when entering the labour market. From an employer's perspective graduates' personal capabilities, teamwork and educational backgrounds are essential aspects that enable a graduate to enter the labour market. Hence, the former Higher Education and Training Deputy Minister, Prof Hlengiwe Mkhize, reported that South African universities are producing graduates who could "hit the workplace running," yet it seems the exact opposite is happening. At a time when graduates are increasingly being relied upon to add value and foster innovative practice in organisations, concerns for the impact of an endemic graduate skills gap are growing (*Business Day Live* 2011). This result corresponds with the quantitative findings from the research questionnaires which revealed that there are students who have not acquired the requisite skills and competencies.

Expectations of employers

In the question of expectations of employers, the results of the interviews were as follows:

Interviewee two (13 December 2013) stated that many students enrolling for Public Administration as a field of study assumed that it was an easy programme. Graduates need to understand that government is a complex environment and therefore knowledge and expertise are important to guide the process of governing and to ensure that services are delivered to the public/ citizens. Interviewee three (20 December 2013) stated that performance is a key component graduates need to understand in order for them to become employable. For instance, there are cases where employers are sometimes unfair as they expect wonders from these graduates, especially where a particular department within an organisation is experiencing backlogs. Internships are therefore important to equip graduates with the skills to ensure that they are capacitated to perform their duties. Interviewee one (10 December 2013) could not comment as the question/statement was discipline-specific; however, at a university, graduates must be adequately prepared for interviews and also prepare a comprehensive curriculum vitae. Graduates must also demonstrate teamwork, planning, and be analytical thinkers, especially in their career path. Findings indicate that employers have certain expectations from graduates when they enter the public service.

Work Integrated Learning

In the question of integrated learning, the results of the interviews were as follows:

Interviewee two (13 December 2013) and interviewee three (20 December 2013) both described the importance of making sure that graduates were equipped with the necessary skills in terms of experience so they were able to perform their duties. Interviewee one (10 December 2013) indicated that work integrated learning would capacitate and equip students/graduates adequately and give them exposure to work ethics, organisational culture, organisational vision and mission statement, teamwork and the ability to work with a multi-professional and diverse team. Findings here indicate that there is a need to integrate what has been learned at a university with practice to produce graduates who are well equipped.

Skills, knowledge and understanding gained in Public Administration degree enhance employability

In the question of skills, knowledge and understanding gained in a Public Administration degree, the results of the interviews were as follows:

Interviewee two (13 December 2013) and interviewee three (20 December 2013) both agreed that skills, knowledge and understanding gained in the public administration degree would enhance graduate employability, as these are the main attributes that the employer would look for especially when graduates are being considered for filling an internship post or any other post. Interviewee one (10 December 2013) added that students should go for job hunting/skills training workshops. The theoretical component prepares them to work in public/governmental institutions. Soft skills and competencies need to be developed.

Graduates being self-sufficient to execute a job search plan

In the question of graduates being self-sufficient to execute a job search plan, the results of the interviews were as follows:

Interviewee one (10 December 2013) stated that graduates could not execute a job search plan currently. To navigate their career path they needed supportive interventions to develop skills such as confidence, self-esteem and attitude. Interviewee two (13 December 2013) observed that graduates needed to be able to plan and organise themselves in such a way that they may become entrepreneurs by using the skills acquired and by identifying gaps in government, where they would be able to specialise and render services to government. This would close that gap, and as a result create employment for other persons. Interviewee three (20 December 2013) outlined clearly that the rate of employment diminishes only when a graduate is employed and graduates become knowledgeable only when

they are able to organise and execute a job search plan. Findings here indicate that besides being employed, graduates need to prepare themselves with business and other skills to become entrepreneurs at some stage.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusions and recommendations emanating from the literature review and from the empirical study, address the findings of the research with a view to finding solutions. The following recommendations are outlined:

- Introduction of more presentations, programmes which seek to build self-confidence and self-esteem, should ensure the enhancement of a well-rounded graduate who is therefore more employable.
- The correct number of qualified and academic staff must be employed to attend to students/graduates.
- Student career service should be promoted and students should be encouraged to utilise the services offered by the university.
- Creating an adequate and conducive learning environment for workshops will equip students and graduates with skills to improve their performance.
- Learnerships/internship programmes should be initiated that will also allow students to engage with public sector institutions. This can be through the employment of unemployed graduates to gain practical experience in the workplace.
- The field of study of Public Administration at university X should have solid relations with public sector employers to ensure that the expectations of the employer are met, and that they are flexible and adaptive to the ever-changing labour market environment. Hence this relationship is of great importance.
- Organising of field trips and inviting public sector employers to conduct seminars and present the practical aspect and the strategies used in government department operations, should be encouraged within the programme. This will expose students to the working environment and give graduates an understanding of the complexity of public administration in dealing with public issues.
- There is still a need for further research in this area, with the aim of suggesting tangible solutions that can assist in the continuous production of quality graduates.

One can deduce that monitoring and support is essential to ensure that institutions produce graduates who meet the needs of employers in the labour market. It is also important that these graduates are provided with the necessary skills by both the institution and the employer, to become professionals in the public service who provide quality services to the citizens of South Africa.

The article has discussed the possibility of linking the curricula of the field of Public Administration and the employability model which has attributes of graduates who are employable because of their knowledge and skills. However, they are challenges that compromise the skills development of students/graduates of this discipline. Findings also reveal that there is room for improvement in all variables that were posed during the study. The article has recommended that the overt input of public sector employers will enrich Public Administration curricula. The article further recommended that sufficient resources are necessary to achieve skills development of students/graduates in the Public Administration programme. What matters is the employability within the Public Administration programme in developing graduates' skills and competencies to ensure graduates become employable. Graduates produced at universities need to be capacitated to enter the job market and to contribute in growing the economy.

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Equality for People with Disabilities in the SouthAfrican Public Service

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ABSTRACT

Equality is the foundational principle of South Africa's democracy, which is enshrined in the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, 1996. The South African government has set an equity goal for people with disabilities (PWDs). This article examines the extent to which strategies introduced have advanced PWDs' equality in the South African public service. The findings reveal that the strategies do not lead to the desired result in enhancing equality because of a lack of political and administrative will in bringing about equality. They reveal that PWDs are deprived of both formal and substantive equality and that the 2% of PWDs working in public service is not a true reflection of the demographics of South Africa. They show that PWDs enjoy equal training and development opportunities but are not promoted to senior management positions, thus remaining adversely disadvantaged. The results show that PWDs comprise 7.5% of the demographics; and that it will take years before they will enjoy equality with abled persons. It is suggested that the government adopts and institutes a percentage that truly reflects the composition of PWDs in South Africa.

INTRODUCTION

Equality for PWDs is a glass ceiling that deprives them of corporate advancement and self-actualisation. Equality is a founding principle of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa,* 1996 (hereafter referred to as the Constitution), which asserts that equality "is the full and equal enjoyment of rights and freedoms" (Republic of South Africa (RSA) 1996:7). This is underscored by Section 1(ix)

of the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act 4 of 2000, which states that equality is the full and equal enjoyment of rights and freedoms which includes *de jure* and *de facto* equality as well as equality in terms of outcomes (RSA 2000). *De jure* is the legal establishment of rights (laws) and *de facto* are actual rights that citizens are currently enjoying (*Webster's New World College Dictionary* 1999:378, 381). According to the Green paper on a Conceptual Framework for Affirmative Action and the Management of Diversity in the public service (hereafter referred to as the Green Paper), equality is a broad term that invokes the concepts of impartiality, equitability, equity, fairness and justice. It also draws on the notion of commensurability which suggests comparisons with what is defined as the norm – the norm being the principle of equality (RSA 1997d:11). Equality is not the "absence of inequality in wealth or condition, but equal opportunities to become unequal" (Dupper and Garbers 2009:5).

There is a difference between impairment and disability. Impairment relates to an embodied difference in terms of the functioning of the body and brain (Goodley 2014:7). Zola (1994:53, cited in Shakespeare 2006:19) agrees, stating that impairment refers to a medical judgement. Impairment is lacking all or part of a limb or having a defective limb, organism or mechanism of the body (Oliver 1996:22, cited in Shakespeare 2014:16). Impairment is a private matter, while disablism is a public issue (Mills 1959, cited in Goodley 2014:8). According to Goodley (2014:3), disability is a sociological, economic and cultural dimension, rather than a psychological embodied or medical problem. Zola (1994:53, cited in Shakespeare 2006:19) describes it best, stating that disability refers to an administrative matter that relates to an interaction between the impairment of a number of non-medical factors. These include, among others, age, sex, academic qualification, economic and social environment. Shakespeare (2012:55) contends that disability is an interaction between individual and structural factors. The experiences of PWDs result from relationships between intrinsic (individual) and extrinsic (environmental) factors. Therefore, disability is the disadvantage or restriction of activity caused by a contemporary social institution which takes little or no notice of people who have physical impairments, thus excluding them from participating in mainstream social activities (Oliver 1996:22 cited in Shakespeare 2006:13). Disability is a situation caused by social conditions, which must be eradicated … PWDs should be able, with the assistance of others, to take control of their lives (Union of the Physically Impaired Against Segregation 1976:3, cited in Shakespeare 2006:12).

A WHO report states that PWDs are marginalised and that their lives are characterised by prejudice, social isolation, poverty and discrimination. They are restricted from fully participating in the lives of their families, communities and society because of the limitations and stigmas placed upon them by others. Governments are urged to provide equitable access to social and economic

opportunities in which PWDs can participate (World Health Organization 2011a:xi, 12). The Disability Rights Charter (1992) affirms 18 rights that PWDs are entitled to, which, among others, include: non-discrimination, education, employment, health and rehabilitation, participation in sport and recreation and access to housing and social security (De Vos Belgraver 2014:58). Wasserman (2001:240, cited in Shakespeare 2014:19) claims that the rights of PWDs not only necessitate changes in the environment, but also compel abled persons in the public service to undertake such changes. To refuse making such changes would deny PWDs the right to live in the world. This would amount to the same as excluding black people and women access to public facilities and resources.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This article examines the extent to which the drive towards equality in South Africa has advanced PWDs' equality in the public service. The discussion focuses on strategies and policies that were instituted to address equality at management level in the South African public service. The article will draw attention to the following: Do PWDs enjoy equal representation at management level in the workplace? Do PWDs benefit from equal employment opportunities in the workplace? Is government's 2% a fair reflection of the demographics of PWDs in South Africa?

A qualitative research method was used. Descriptive analysis was used for observing existing patterns and their implications in the qualitative research (Durrheim 2006:81). In-depth semi-structured one-on-one interviews were conducted with PWDs from the National School of Government in Pretoria; Signal Squadron, 21 Battalion; the South African Revenue Services; Eskom in Bellville; Helderberg College in Somerset West; and Hair-on-Top Salon in George. Through inductive reasoning, an attempt was made to identify emergent ideas and themes that are linked to the theory (Braun and Clarke 2006:77–101). This process allows for the substantiation of certain facts, or to explain the unknown.

A sample of nine PWDs (Africans [three men and one woman], Asians [one woman], Coloureds/people of mixed race [two men and two women]) from the selected institutions, was interviewed based on their gender and racial profile (Babbie and Mouton 2010:164). The sampling was treated as a technical accounting device to rationalise the collection of information, to choose in an appropriate way the restricted set of objects, persons, events and so forth from which the actual information would be drawn (Bless and Achola 1995:85). A random sampling method was chosen, so that each unit in the population (as defined by Laws 2003:457) had a known chance of being selected (Bryman 2001:85). Since Blacks comprise not only the majority of the population of South

Africa (RSA 2015b:6), but also the workforce (RSA 2015b:14–15), Whites with disabilities were not interviewed. The data that was collated during the interviews was captured in atlas.ti and analysed through cross-referencing to the analysis of the literature, and statutory and related policy documents. This article addresses the contextualisation of equality, focusing on the theoretical factors of equality. The research problem and data collection were approached methodologically. The focus was on PWDs in the workplace. Finally, the findings and conclusions of the study will be discussed.

CONTEXTUALISATION OF DISABILITY AND EQUALITY

Philosophically, medicine was considered a normative means of treating the illnesses and impairments of PWDs (Goodley 2014:4–5). Couser (2011:23, cited in Goodley 2014:4) claims that medicine "tends to demystify and naturalise somatic anomaly, stripping away any supernatural or moral significance and characterising physical variation solely as a matter that science may investigate and attempt to remedy". Mills (2012:3–4, 328–330)) agrees, stating that pharmaceutical and medical industries make millions treating the mental illness of PWDs. Studies of disablism and disabilities challenge the authoritative discourse of medicalisation (Goodley 2014:5). Pothier and Devlin (2006:2) agree, claiming that "disability is not fundamentally a question of health or sensitivity, nor compassion; but rather a question of politics and power". For these authors disability is a social concept (Pothier and Devlin 2006:13). The *White Paper on Integrated National Disability Strategy* of 1997 contends that "disability is not a medical or welfare condition, but rather a social concern, which is rooted in human rights and developmental matters" (RSA 1997b:4–5).

"Disability is the loss or elimination of opportunities to take part in the life of the community equitably due to physical, sensory, psychological, developmental, learning, neurological or other impairments, which may be permanent, temporary or episodic, thereby causing limitations and participation restrictions within mainstream society" (RSA 2002:1; RSA 2014:13). Granovsky (2000:703, 721) contends that PWDs "experience functional limitations that abled persons do not experience, but more importantly, that these limitations are due to mainstream society's unwillingness to adapt, transform and abandon its "normal" ways of doing things". Pothier and Devlin (2006:13–14) claims that PWDs have been subjected to paternalistic attitudes of pity and charity and that their acceptance into the social mainstream is designed by the norms of abled persons. Thus, disablism is systematically enforced to exclude PWDs. Disability is further compounded by intersectionality, "the concern that disability may become too generic because it does not significantly highlight specific aspects of PWDs' identities, for example,

their ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation and class". These factors determine the extent of social exclusion of PWDs (Pothier and Devlin 2006:14–15). Shildrick (2012:4) contends that the "indistinctness and permeability of the boundaries of disability are a concern to abled persons", because PWDs cannot be placed in neatly labelled boxes. Karpin (1999), Lepofsky (2004), Herr, Gostin and Koh (2003) agree, claiming that the "complexity and diversity of disabilities make it difficult to categorise the different types of PWDs into neat boxes".

"Ableism is a set of beliefs, processes and practices that produce – based on the abilities one exhibits or values – a particular understanding of oneself, one's body and one's relationship with others and the environment, and how others judge you" (Wolbring 2007:1). Goodley (2014:22) sums it up best by stating that ableism is a system from which forms of "disablism, hetero/sexism and racism emanates, and that it projects a species-typical person". Campbell (2009:7) contends that "whether it is the species-typical body (in science), the normative citizen (in political theory) or the reasonable man (in law), all these reveal a fabrication that reaches into the soul that sweep us into life". Disablism describes the "negative attitudes, behaviours, practices and environmental factors which discriminate (intentionally or unintentionally) against disabled people and create barriers to their equal participation in mainstream society" (RSA 2016:18). These definitions show that ableism is a human design that separates the "healthy, strong and mighty from the sickly, weak and feeble". It means that for PWDs to "emulate the norm, they need to embrace an identity other than their own". It also suggests that PWDs "desire a life that is unattainable because the gap between the despised and the desired is too wide" (Campbell 2009:21). In other words, the desires (goals) of PWDs will just remain a bad dream.

South Africa has adopted and ratified a number of international and regional instruments that promote the equality of PWDs. Article 27 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2006 acknowledges the right of PWDs to work on an equal basis with abled persons. It also provides for the removal of all barriers that prohibit the full participation of PWDs in the social and economic activities of South Africa (World Health Organisation (WHO) 2011a:xi, 235; United Nations (UN) 2014a:ii). These rights are endorsed by the Bill of Rights, chapter two of the South African Constitution.

Section 9(1) of the Constitution clearly states that "everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law". This means that all South Africans are equal when it comes to legal privileges, irrespective of one's social standing in society. The Constitution further asserts that equality is "the full and equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms" (s 9(2)). This implies that South Africans are equally entitled to enjoy the provisions made possible by the law. Therefore, the importance of ensuring equality in the public service is undeniable. Section 9(3) of the Constitution undoubtedly states that "the state

may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth". Section 9(4)(5) of the Constitution unequivocally claims that "no person may be unfairly discriminated against directly or indirectly". This means that neither the state nor any person may unfairly discriminate against any person on the ground of disability. It also means that equality is vested in a person irrespective of the origin, colour, race, ethnicity or gender of that person. Equality in the public service will only become a reality when the desired outcomes are pragmatic and visible in institutions (Van Dijk 2008:386).

Section 1 of the *Employment Equity Act* 55 of 1998 endeavours to redress the past imbalances that previously disadvantaged Blacks, women and PWDs endured and to ensure equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce. Section 8 of the Act makes reference to designated groups, which includes PWDs. The Act makes provision that employers have to consult PWDs "on the preparation and content of employment equity plans. This ensures that their needs and interests will be taken into account in designing appropriate positive measures to advance them in the workplace, to provide training and development, and to reasonably accommodate their needs. Employers will have to consider making structural changes or introducing technical aids to facilitate the employment of people with disabilities" (RSA 1998a:13).

Section 1(ix) of the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act , 2000 (RSA 2000:4) defines equality as "the full and equal enjoyment of rights and freedoms, which include *de jure* and *de facto* equality and also equality in terms of outcomes". These provisions include the promotion of equality through legislative and other measures designed to protect or advance PWDs that have previously been disadvantaged by past and present unfair discrimination (RSA 2000:2). The outcomes of equality should be apparent in the workplace particularly at management level in the public service (RSA 1995:10.6). This is clearly not the case with PWDs. After more than two decades of democracy this component of the public labour force is extremely marginalised and discriminated against.

Section 9 of the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (RSA 2000) clearly states that no person may unfairly discriminate against any person on the grounds of disability, which includes providing environmental accessibility and reasonable accommodation of PWDs in the workplace. In this regard the Act states that neither the employer nor the state may deprive PWDs of the necessary equipment to do their work: "denying or removing from any person who has a disability, any supporting or enabling facility necessary for their functioning in society; contravening the code of practice or regulations of the South African Bureau of Standards that govern environmental accessibility; and

failing to eliminate obstacles that unfairly limit or restrict PWDs from enjoying equal opportunities or failing to take steps to reasonably accommodate their needs".

Section 1 of the Green Paper (RSA 1997d:11) distinguishes between two categories of equality, namely formal and substantive equality. Formal equality means "the removal of laws that result in discrimination and segregation". The South African government has adequately complied with the Green Paper by introducing several pieces of legislation that deal with formal equality, among others the *Employment Equity Act 55 of* 1998 and *Skills Development Act* 97 of 1998. However, the government is struggling to achieve substantive equality in public institutions. Substantive equality "necessitates the acknowledgement and eradication of the actual social and economic conditions that generate inequality in individuals' and groups' lives" (RSA 1997d:12). Substantive equality is only possible in an environment where equity prevails (Wessels 2008:25); in which fundamental change in human resource management (HRM) policies and practices are taking place and enforced (RSA 1997a:10–11). Political will and senior management services' commitment to bring about real change are needed.

Section 9 of the Constitution requires employers to achieve substantive equality by not only acknowledging the differences between employees, but also treating them equally but differently on the basis of their differences. People are different and should be treated as such without discriminating against others. This implies, meeting people at their point of greatest need (where they are) and elevating (empowering) them to achieve self-actualisation (McShane, and Von Glinow 2007:92–93). Therefore, equality means fair treatment in the workplace, which subjects everyone to the same rules without distinction (RSA 2005:5.2.3). This implies removing barriers that prevent fairness and equity (Constitution s9) and creating an organisational culture in which HR policies and practices reflect the spirit of fairness and equity (RSA 1997a:10–11). Equity therefore means changing the rules so that their application is "fair". Therefore, equality signifies that no individual should have fewer rights or opportunities than another person (Nelen and Hondeghem 2000:13).

Substantive equality rejects the libertarian view that the state should only ensure formal equality of its citizens (Dupper and Garbers 2009:9). Substantive equality is underscored by section 3(2)(a) of the Constitution, which states that "all citizens are equally entitled to the rights, privileges and benefits of citizenship". Citizenship is the "status or condition of a citizen, the duties, rights and privileges of this status, or a person's conduct as a citizen" (*Webster's New World College Dictionary* 1999:268). Citizenship allows for substantive participation in all social and cultural institutions of society (Kabeer 2002, cited in Pothier and Devlin 2006:2). However, PWDs face recurring coercion, marginalisation, extreme poverty and social exclusions. PWDs live in societal systems where there are

deep structural economic, social, political, legal and cultural inequalities. In such societies PWDs experience unequal citizenship, which means that they are deprived of both formal and substantive equality (Pothier and Devlin 2006:1, 17).

Equality not only allows for equal representation, development and utilisation of PWDs, but also for their gender and racially proportionate representation at all management levels. A broadly representative South African public service must ensure equality in employment and hierarchical advancement opportunities (s 195(1)(i) of Constitution; RSA 1997d:13); both men and women must equally participate in the state's decision-making processes (Nelen & Hondeghem 2000:13). This allows the South African public service to use the abilities and competencies of both PWDs and abled persons, in achieving institutional effectiveness, which in turn, would afford PWDs opportunities to advance hierarchically and achieve self-actualisation (Pesonen, Tienari and Vanhala 2009:4).

PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES IN THE WORKPLACE

The Preamble to the Constitution provides the foundation for the advancement and self-actualisation of PWDs in the public service. It clearly states that the South African Government has a constitutional obligation to "improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person" (RSA 1996:1). Section 4 of the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 provides the first steps in addressing equality in the workplace by compelling all employers to provide equal employment opportunities as a means to eliminate unfair discrimination in *practice.* The *Skills Development Act,* 1998 and the *Skills Development Amendment Act* 37 of 2008 provide a framework for improving the skills of all South Africans. They also provide for the development of PWDs, which includes a range of learnerships, which lead to recognised occupational qualifications. These learnerships are designed to assist PWDs in finding employment in the formal sector, as well as self-employment. The *Skills Development Levies Act* 9 of 1999 prescribes ways in which employers should contribute to the National Skills Fund. The fund is to be used to provide job creation, small business development and special assistance for youth, women and PWDs. The Act stipulates that all employers must pay 1% of their workers' earnings to the Skills Development Levy every month (this amount is not to be deducted from workers earnings). The Act strives to promote workplace training as employers providing training for their employees are entitled to a partial refund of their yearly levy. The National Development Plan (NDP) which outlines South Africa's development agenda for the period 2010–2030, postulates the need to create an inclusive social protection system that focuses on vulnerability and responds to the needs of those at risk: PWDs, the elderly, orphans and children. It addresses the notion that "too few people

work" and "focusing on key capabilities of people and the state", which in this context alludes to PWDs (RSA 2013d:14–16).

The *White Paper on Integrated National Disability Strategy* of 1997 represents a paradigm shift in the conceptualisation of disability from the medical or welfare model to a social model that recognises the fact that disability is a human rights and developmental issue (RSA 1997b:4–5). The White Paper on Integrated National Disability Strategy of 1997 emphasises the attainment of a good and equitable quality of life for PWDs. Its main objectives reflect two main pillars. First, the systematic integration of PWDs into all policies, plans, programmes and strategies aimed at enhancing the quality of life of all PWDs at all levels, within all public and private institutions. Second, a coordinated, multi-sectoral, interdisciplinary and integrated approach in designing and implementing programmes and interventions that affect major national population concerns (RSA 2005:5). This is underscored by De Vos Belgraver (2014:59) who argues for the promotion of the institutionalisation of PWDs in public institutions. The White Paper on Integrated National Disability Strategy (1997b) advocates measures for removing barriers that result in discrimination of PWDs in the workplace. In terms of unemployment, it proposes the following policy objectives: the unemployment gap between PWDs and abled persons must be narrowed; the range of employment options for PWDs must be broadened in order to provide occupational choice; and the vocational integration of PWDs must be facilitated regardless of the origin, nature and/or degree of disability (Mbeki 2007:6). This is highlighted by Article 27 of the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006), which requires the government to ensure that PWDs have equal access to employment.

The Code of Good Practice on the Employment of PWDs, (RSA 2002:3–7) provides guidelines to employers and employees regarding the development, refinement and implementation of disability equity policies designed to meet the needs of their particular workplaces. It also provides measures to be taken by employers to ensure equitable representation and fair treatment of PWDs in the workplace. Such measures include: reasonable accommodation (without unjustifiable hardship) for PWDs; recruitment and selection processes; the retention of employees who become disabled during employment; and confidentiality and disclosure of disability. The Technical Assistance Guidelines on the Employment of PWDs , 2004 (RSA 2004) intends to complement the Code of Good Practice on the Employment and to assist employers further in the practical implementation of their obligations towards PWDs as set out by the EEA. The Technical Assistance Guidelines provides a practical guide for the implementation of the Code of Good Practice on the Employment (RSA 2002:3–8).

According to the World Health Organisation (WHO) (WHO 2011a:xi), approximately one billion people (15%) of the world's population live with some type of disability. There are between 60 and 80 million PWDs in Africa (UN

2014b). In South Africa, with its population of 52.98 million, there are 2.9 million (7.5%) PWDs (Lehohla 2014; RSA 2016:36); of which Asian (4.6%), Coloured (4.2%), African (4.0%) and White (3.2%) (RSA 2016:37). Table 1 portrays PWDs per race and gender working in the public sector.

Table 1: PWDs working in South Africa public sector

Race	PWDs	Gender	
		Men	Women
Africans	5 710 (65.41%)	52%	48%
Asians	286 (3.28%)	49%	51%
Coloureds	658 (7.54%)	59%	41%
Whites	2 075 (23.77%)	48.27%	51.73%
Total	8 729 (0.66%) of 1 324 228 employees		

Source: (Adapted from Republic of South Africa: 2015b:14–15).

In addition, Table 1 illustrates that the public sector has not achieved government's mandate of 2% PWDs. It also portrays that more men than women have employment. Table 1 indicates that more must still be done to include PWDs into the mainstream of public employment.

Figure 1 illustrates that there are five generations of employees working side by side in the South African public service. These generations are: the Silent Generation (SG) which comprises of 0.01% abled persons and 0% are PWDs; Baby Boomers (BB) constitute 12.65% (of which 95% are abled persons and 5% are PWDs); Generation X (GX) comprises 44.98% (of which 94% are abled persons and 6% are PWDs); Generation Y (GY) constitutes 33.78% (of which 93% are abled persons and 7% are PWDs); and the Born Free Generation (BFG) comprises 2.32% (of which 77% are abled persons and 23% are PWDs) (RSA 2015b:17). From the figure it is clear that the SG and first cohorts of BB should have been on retirement according to the government's retirement policy (RSA 2015c). The immediate retirement of these employees first, creates advancement opportunities for those lower in the hierarchy. Second, it creates a capacity void that cannot immediately be filled from within the public service. Third, it creates recruitment and selection challenges (RSA 2011:10 cited in Motsoeneng and Kahn 2013:9); and employment opportunities for unemployed youth, which includes PWDs. It also creates challenges particularly regarding the lack of succession planning and mentoring in public institutions, which negatively impacts transfer of knowledge and retention of institutional memory.

Figure 1: Public service workforce by generations
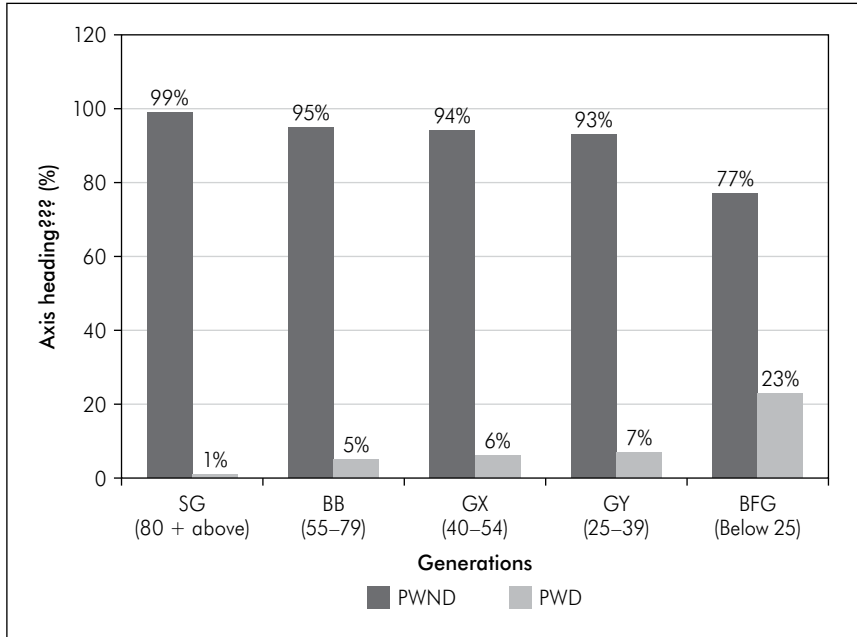
Figure 1 depicts that none of the four economically active generations reflects the government's target of 2% of PWDs. The figure portrays that according to the normal hierarchy progression GX is the next senior management cadre that must take over the leadership reigns from the BB. It means that GY have to fill the vacancies that are created by GX. However, according to the DPSA Annual Report (RSA 2015a:22) there are 1 761 GY in SMS positions. The question is: where have these young people gained the necessary leadership and managerial experience to function at SMS levels? This shows that there are flaws in the recruitment and selection processes and procedures of the public service (Motsoeneng & Kahn 2013:9–10).

De Vos Belgraver (2014:58) refers to the rights of PWDs that are entrenched in legislation as well as the gains made by including them into the mainstream of equality in South Africa. However, the reality as can be gleaned from the statistics below portrays a different picture of what one would have expected after more than two decades of freedom. The representation of PWDs at management level is a stark reality of what it means not to be free. Senior management constitutes 97.63% of which 0.92% is PWDs; middle management comprises 93.22% of which 0.80% is PWDs; and lower management constitutes 94.34% of which

0.91% is PWDs (RSA 2015b:18). The results reveal that PWDs at management levels are below 1%. There are no PWDs at senior management level that are director generals (DGs) and heads of departments (HoDs) (RSA 2015b:21). Does it mean that PWDs do not have the necessary qualifications and competencies to become DGs and HoDs or is it a matter of not providing equal opportunities to them? The latter seems to be the situation in the public service (Jones 2015; Mahlangu 2015a; Mahlangu 2015b; Nare 2015; Trichardt 2015). According to these interviewees institutional HR policies and practices seem to favour abled persons rather than PWDs even if they are better qualified. Clearly, *disability* is not *inability*.

There are 9 644 people in SMS in the public service of which 119 (1.23%) are PWDs. Of this total 37 (31.09%) are women and 82 (68.91%) are men (South Africa 2015a:14–15). PWDs per race shows that Africans constitute 55.46% (of which 68% are men and 32% are women); Asians comprise 6.72% (of which 62% are men and 38% are women); Coloureds constitute 6.72% (of which 50% are men and 50% are women); and Whites comprise 31.09% (of which 76% are men and 24% are women) (DPSA 2015b:20–21). Coloureds are the only race that has achieved its PWDs gender equality target of 50% women at SMS. The other race groups still have a long way to go before achieving their respective targets. White men's predominance at SMS both in race and gender still continues after more than two decades of democracy.

The generational representation of PWDs at SMS is as follows: SG constitute 15 (0.16%) (of which 15 (0.16%) are abled persons and 0 (0%) PWDs); BB comprise 1 893 (of which 1 859 (98.17%) are abled persons and 34 (1.83%) are PWDs); GX are 5 975 (of which 5 896 (98.66%) are abled persons and 79 (1.34%) are PWDs); and GY are 1761 (of which 1755 (99.53%) are abled persons and 6 (0.47%) are PWDs) (RSA 2015b:22). The statistics reveal that PWDs at generational levels are not well presented at the SMS decision-making processes of the public service. This is inconsistent with their slogan, "nothing above us without us" (United Nations 2004).

On the one hand, the number of GY that have been appointed at SMS not only raises concerns, but it is also evident that the public service lacks capacity that can be filled by PWDs. These concerns are: the representation of PWDs at generational level is less than 2%; GY lack the necessary leadership and managerial experience that is required of candidates at SMS level, which in turn, means that they cannot make meaningful contributions at SMS level. The poor performance of certain public institutions may be attributed to the appointment of inexperienced GY at SMS, which implies that the public service lacks capacity at SMS levels. GY would have to depend on experienced subordinates to guide them in decision-making processes or appoint consultants to provide them with solutions to issues and questions. Subordinates that are older than their

GY managers may endeavour to undermine their authority, which may result in institutional political clashes and generational conflict. Employees would begin to question the recruitment and selection processes of the institution (Motsoeneng and Kahn 2013:9–10). On the other hand, appointing GY at SMS levels is an indication that the public service does not have a sufficient human resource pool to draw from. It means that GY should be trained, developed and empowered before they can be promoted to the next higher management level. It also means that there is a need for succession planning, mentoring and coaching of GY (Lancaster and Stillman 2010:39–43; Salkowitz 2008:11). Public institutions are also required to rethink their investment in PWDs. As a component of the workforce, if rightly trained, developed, empowered and mentored; they can make a difference in the effectiveness of the institution. They not only understand PWDs as customers, but would also provide better services to them, which would increase customer satisfaction and the public image.

The representation of PWDs at SMS per age group reveals the following: in the age group 25–29 there are 39 (of which 39 (0.40%) are abled persons and (0%) PWDs); in the age group 30–34 there are 447 (of which 447 (4.64%) are abled persons and (0%) PWDs); in the age group 35–39 there are 1 275 (of which 1 269 (99.53%) are abled persons and 6 (0.47%) are PWDs); in the age group 40–44 there are 2 033 (of which 2009 (98.82%) are abled persons and 24 (1.18%) are PWDs); in the age group 45–49 there are 2 088 (of which 2 052 (98.28%) are abled persons and 36 (1.72%) are PWDs); in the age group 50–54 there are 1 854 (of which 1 835 (98.98%) are abled persons and 19 (1.02%) are PWDs); in the age group 55–59 there are 1 315 (of which 1 295 (98.48%) are abled persons and 20 (1.52%) are PWDs); in the age group 60–64 there are 521 (of which 508 (97.5%) are abled persons and 13 (2.50%) are PWDs); in the age group 65–69 there are 57 (of which 56 (98.25%) are abled persons and 1 (1.75%) is PWDs); in the age group 70–74 there are 13 (of which 13 (0.13%) are abled persons and (0%) PWDs); and in the age group 75–79 there are 2 (of which 2 (0.02%) are abled persons and (0%) PWDs) (RSA 2015b:22). From the above statistics it is obvious that those 60 year of age and older should have been on retirement (RSA 2015c). The rest of the BB will be retiring within the next five to 10 years. The void that would be left by these employees will create advancement opportunities for the remaining generations, which includes PWDs.

The representation of PWDs at provincial government level is an indication that the government is merely paying lip service in celebrating two decades of freedom of PWDs (De Vos Belgraver 2014:58). The statistics show that there are 9 530 (98.7%) SMS at provincial government level and only 119 (1.23%) are PWDs. Of the nine provinces, Mpumalanga is the only province that has achieved government's target of 2% PWDs. In the total workforce of 322 there are 7 (2.7%) PWDs, and 315 (97.3%) abled persons. The rest of the provinces

still have a long way to go in achieving the government's target. These provinces are: Limpopo 9 (1.78%) PWDs and 497 (98.22%) abled persons; Eastern Cape 11 (1.60%) PWDs and 497 (98.4%) abled persons; North West 5 (1.52%) PWDs and 323 (98.48%) abled persons; Gauteng 9 (1.16%) PWDs and 769 (98.84%) abled persons; Northern Cape 2 (0.76%) PWDs and 261 (99.24%) abled persons; KZN-Natal 4 (0.66%) PWDs and 599 (99.34%) abled persons; Free State 1 (0.28%) PWDs and 358 (99.72%) abled persons; and Western Cape 1 (0.26%) and 385 (99.74%) abled persons (RSA 2015b:22). Of the 158 public departments only 29 (18.35%) have achieved government's target of 2% of PWDs; 60 (37.97%) departments have achieved 1–1.9% and 69 (43.68%) departments have achieved below 1% (RSA 2015b:23). Of the 45 national departments only 10 (22.22%) have achieved government's target of 2% PWDs. This represents 70 (1.29%) PWDs and 5 346 (98.71%) abled persons (RSA 2015b:22,37). The Department of Tourism and Department of Women, Children and PWDs are among the 10 national departments that have exceeded government's 2% of PWDs. They have achieved 5.28% and 3.54% respectively (RSA 2015b:37). The statistics reveal that government is aware of the slow progress (RSA 1997b:4–6); and that there is a lack of political and administrative will in achieving its target of 2% employment of PWDs. Clearly, this is a violation of Section 9(3) (4) of the Constitution, which entrenches the rights of PWDs.

There are 17 284 employees at middle management service level of which 226 (1.31%) are PWDs. Of this 144 (63.72%) are men and 82 (36.28%) are women (RSA 2015b:19). The statistics not only reveal that men maintain their predominance over women, but also prohibit women from achieving gender equality at SMS because the middle management service is a feeder component for the next higher management levels. This is underscored by Pesonen *et al.* (2009 cited in Kahn and Louw 2014:105), who state that men are inclined to appoint men that are similar to them in senior management positions. PWDs at middle management service level per race are as follows: Africans 48.23%, Asians 7.52%, Coloureds 9.73% and Whites 34.51% (RSA 2015b:19). According to the population demographics discussed above Africans are underrepresented and Asians and Whites have superseded their representation (RSA 2013a:7). To achieve the government's targets of equality means that there must be a simultaneous top and bottom approach in transforming the management cadre in the public service.

Employment

According to the World Health Organisation PWDs are more likely to be unemployed and generally earn less than abled persons. Statistics show that employment rates are lower for disabled men (53%) and women (20%) than

for abled men (65%) and women (30%) (WHO 2011b:11) and in South Africa only 0.9% are economically active population (RSA 2016:37–38). Employers are reluctant to appoint PWDs because they assume: PWDs cannot effectively perform the required job tasks; the fear of costly special facilities; lack of education or training, lack of transportation, the need for special features at the job, difficulty in completing their duties because of their disability (US Bureau of Labor Statistics 2013:5–6; Mahlangu 2015b; Nare 2015). The access of PWDs to the workplace is compounded by barriers that prevent their mobility. These include structural barriers in the built environment; inaccessible service points; inaccessible entrances due to security systems; poor town planning; and poor interior design (Phyffer 2015; Radube 2015). There is an urgent plea for barrier free environments where PWDs will have equitable access to social, economic, legal, communication and information domains (RSA 1997; Pietersen 2015; Smit 2015).

The US Bureau of Labor Statistics (2013:2) reveals that 38.6% of PWDs with a college degree encountered barriers to employment, compared with 52.9% of those with less than a grade 12 certificate. The research also shows the degree of difficulty that PWDs have in completing their duties: 27.8% experienced little difficulty, 21.1% experienced moderate difficulty, 7% experienced severe difficulty and 44.1% experienced no difficulty. The statistics refute the assumption that PWDs cannot effectively perform their work (Boland 2015; Jones 2015; Moodly 2015; Trichardt 2015). The statistics also reveal that the more educated PWDs are, the better their performance and employment opportunities. Further, the statistics show that PWDs can make a meaningful contribution to the effectiveness of the institution. They show that only 7% may find it challenging to complete their duties. Research shows that 12.5% of PWDs are more prone to request changes in their workplace than abled persons (8.4%). These changes may include among others the following: new or modified equipment; physical changes to the workplace; policy changes to the workplace; changes in work tasks, job structure, or schedule; changes in communication or information sharing. These changes are mainly physical which may be ascribed to an unfriendly PWDs environment, outdated equipment and technology and aging of PWDs (Jones 2015; Mahlangu 2015b; Trichardt 2015; US Bureau of Labor Statistics 2013:3). Abled persons are inclined to request changes in policy, communication and information sharing and training. PWDs (42.2%) enjoy more flexible work schedules than abled persons (35%). In the same vein, more PWDs (5.8%) have temporary employment than abled persons (4.4%) (US Bureau of Labor Statistics 2013:4).

Figures 2 and 3 illustrate a comparison of the economically active population of PWDs and abled persons. Figure 2 illustrates that the BB are almost equal to the combined total of both GY and GX. It shows that disabilities increase with age. Therefore, managers should invest in the development and employment of

Figure 2: Economically active population of people with Disabilities

Generation Y
21.12%

Baby Boomers
21.12%

Generation X
30.72%
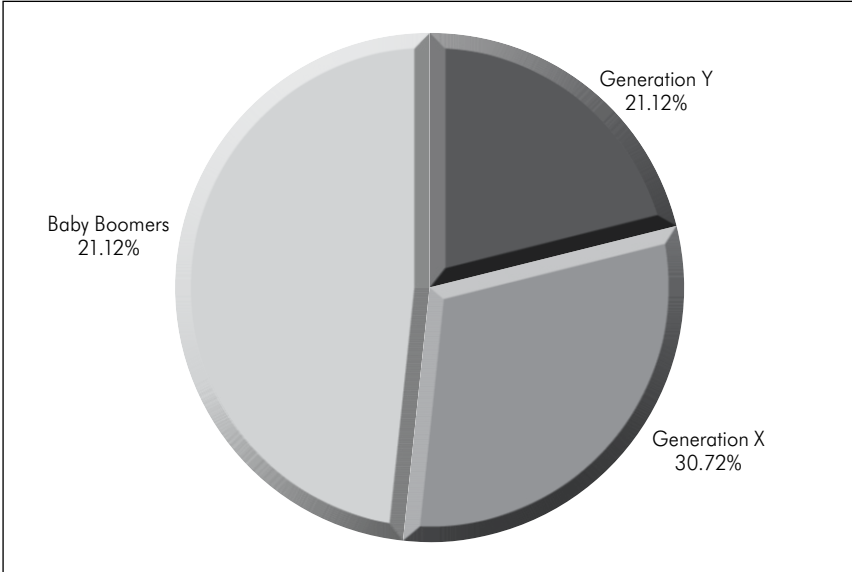
Figure 3: Economically active population of people without Disabilities

Baby Boomers
17.44%

Generation Y
50.65%

Generation X
31.91%
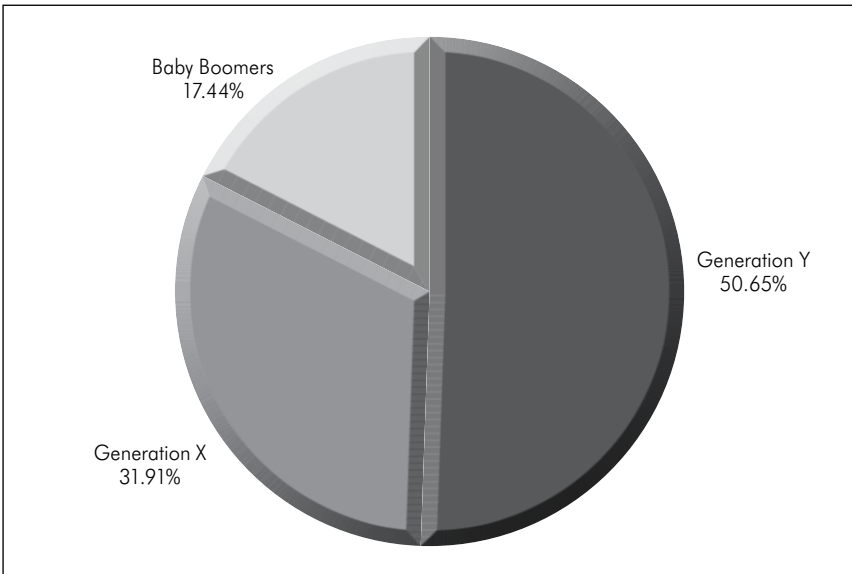
PWDs while they are young. Managers should also ensure older PWDs receive the necessary assertive support mechanisms to improve their performance.

Figure 3 depicts that GY is more than 50% of the workforce, which means that they are the future workforce. Therefore, more resources should be invested in their development and future employment. They need mentoring to complement their experience, which would prepare them to fill positions at senior management levels as older employees (GX and BB) retire.

EQUALITY FOR PWDS – WHEN?

According to the 2011 National Census the demographics of the South African population comprises of 51.8 million people; 51.3% are women and 48.7% are men, which is a difference of 2.6% women. A further analysis of the population reveals that Africans constitute 79.2%, Asians 2.5%, Coloureds 8.9% and Whites 8.9% and other/unspecified 0.5% (RSA 2015b:6). The economically active population of South Africa consists of 48.8% men and 47.8% women, which is a difference of 1%. A comparison between the population and economically active population reveals that Africans comprise 79% (of which 38.6% are men and 40% are women); Asians comprise 2.7% (of which 1.4% are men and 1.3% are women); Coloureds constitute 9.3% (of which 4.5% are men and 8.7% are women); and Whites constitute 8.7% (of which 4.3% are men and 4.3% are women) (RSA 2015b:6). A comparison between the population and EAP shows that Africans are underrepresented by 0.2%, Asians are overrepresented by 0.2%, Coloureds are overrepresented by 0.4% and Whites are underrepresented by 0.2%. From the above it is clear that the racial ratios are derived from the population demographics and the gender ratios are derived from the racial percentage. Therefore, it is obvious that the ratio of PWDs should equate to their representation of the demographics, which according to Lehohla (2014), is 2.9 million (7.5%) (of which 8.3% are women and 6.5% are men). Thus PWDs should comprise 7.5% (of which 3.75% should be men and 3.75% women) and not 2%, which does not reflect the broad representation of the South African public service (s195(1)(i) of the Constitution, 1996; s1 of Employment Equity Act of 1998). In 1995 the government was aware that the prevalence of PWDs in South Africa was approximately 5% (RSA 1997b:6).

The South African government has postponed its goals of 2% representation of PWDs in the public service in 2005, 2010 and 2015. It has currently achieved 0.66% PWDs (RSA 2015b:5). This means that the public service should recruit and appoint 17 756 (1.34%) candidates in order to reach its goal (RSA 2015b:15). A decade later (2005), the public service is 0.34% short of reaching the half way mark of 1%. In 2012 PWDs constituted 1.4% of the economically

active population, which is no comparison with foreign nationals who constitute 3.1% at top management level, 2.5% at senior management level, 2.4% at professional qualified level and 1.5% at technical skilled level. Foreign nationals also far exceed the percentage of PWDs at SMS (0.66%) (RSA 2013b:9–13; RSA 2015b:5).

The 2% of PWDs seems to be a blanket equity approach which does not specify the composition of the 2%. No reference is made to race, gender or management level. Unlike gender equality, where it is clearly stated that that the workforce needs to comprise of 50% women at SMS (RSA 2006:12, 16). It is not clear whether the 2% is included or excluded from the 50% gender equality. If, included, it means gender equality is 49% for abled persons. This truism means that it can be assumed that the 2% of PWDs can be divided into 1% for men and 1% for women. The discretion of the implementation of the composition of the 2% in the workplace is entirely up to public institutions, which is evident from the statistics below. The public service has achieved 0.66% of PWDs (RSA 2015b:14). Only 10 (22.22%) of the 45 national departments have achieved the government's target of 2% PWDs, which accounts for 70 (1.29%) PWDs (RSA 2015a:22, 37). Of the 158 public departments only 29 (18.35%) have achieved government's target of 2% of PWDs (RSA 2015b:23). Of the nine provinces, Mpumalanga is the only province that has reached government's target. It has achieved 2.7% PWDs (RSA 2015b:23). The above results clearly show that the government is not in one accord in implementing and achieving its own goals. Such results are not encouraging the private sector to comply with the government's policy.

In March 2015 the DPSA had a workforce of 433 of which women at SMS accounted for 37 (41.1%) and men 53 (58.9%) and 6 (1.39%) PWDs (RSA 2015a:110). During the same period it recruited 31 candidates of whom 12 were African men and 1 Coloured and 18 African women; and promoted 4 African men and 4 African women. A total of 444 employees trained during this period. However, PWDs were neither recruited nor promoted to the next higher rank nor did they receive training (DPSA 2015a:121, 131). Therefore, it is apparent that the training needs of PWDs were not determined which means that they were excluded from training and development for the period under review. Such action means that PWDs are deliberately being deprived of development and advancement opportunities. Their potential remains dormant because they are neither developed nor empowered. Thus they are robbed of making a meaningful contribution to the effectiveness and productivity of the institution.

In 2012 the Public Service Commission (PSC) had a workforce of 245 of which four (1.83%) were PWDs. In 2013 it appointed a fifth candidate and subsequently reached its goal of 2.04% (RSA 2015d:36). Nine of the employees were promoted; none of them were PWDs (RSA 2015d:94). A total of 175 employees received training, of which two (0.81%) were PWDs; and 106 employees received

performance rewards, of which two (0.81%) were PWDs (RSA 2015d:37, 95–96). This demonstrates that PWDs are capable of performing at levels where their performance not only contributes towards the effectiveness of the institution, but is also recognised and rewarded. It is difficult to distinguish the management levels at which PWDs are appointed because the PSC's report does not make a distinction between abled persons and PWDs (RSA 2015d:93).

The 50% women at SMS that should have been reached in 2009, is currently 40.5% (South Africa 2015b:5, 24). It will take years before women will enjoy equality with men (Eccles 1996 cited in Kahn and Louw 2011b:673–675; RSA 2013b:17; RSA 2008:87, 89). From the above it can be inferred that it would take even longer before PWDs will enjoy equality in the South African public service.

NEW LENSES FOR MANAGING PWDS

A new management perspective is needed for managing PWDs, which Figure 4 proposes. It suggests four factors: recognising the equality of PWDs, valuing and rewarding PWDs and self-actualisation. The Figure illustrates that a new

Figure 4: New lenses for managing PWDs
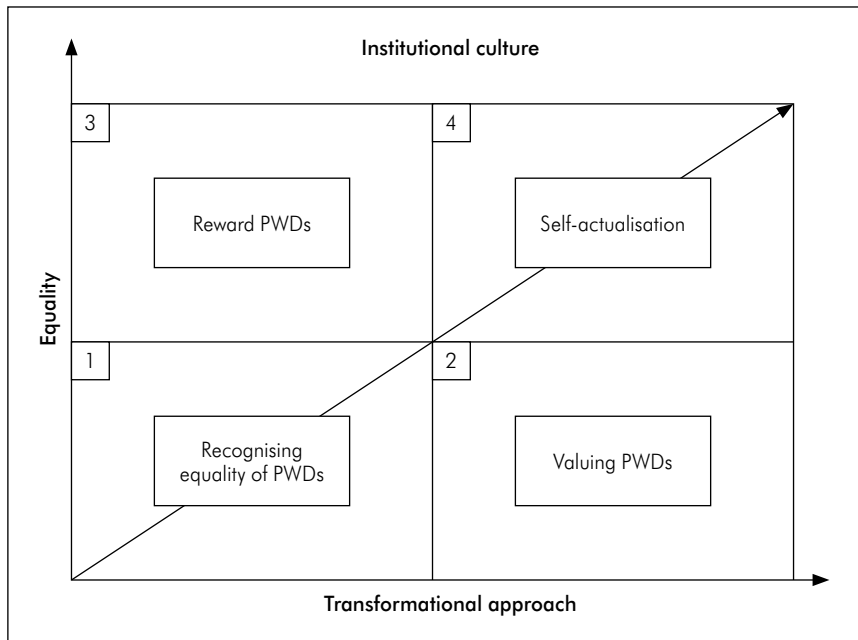
Source: (Adapted from Kahn and Louw 2014:117)

organisational cultural approach is needed for managing PWDs. It requires that management and employees should undergo training that will help them cultivate a new mindset for managing and understanding PWDs. The X axis represents a gradual increase in equality as PWDs are given equal employment opportunities and strive towards achieving self-actualisation. The Y axis represents a transformational approach in managing and ensuring the equality of PWDs.

Recognising the Equality of PWDs

The basis for equality of PWDs is embedded in Sections 9(3)(4) of the Constitution. It means that PWDs must be reflected in the broad representation of the public service (s195(1)(i) of the Constitution, 1996; s1 of Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998). Since the racial and gender ratios are derived from the population and racial demographics it is clear that the ratio of PWDs should equate their representation of the demographics, which is 7.5% (Lehohla 2014). Gender equality for PWDs should be based on government's principle of 50% women at all management levels (South Africa 2013c), which is 3.75% for men and women. This means that the government has to reconsider its goals of 2% of PWDs and has to take drastic and concrete measures to accelerate the rate of equality of PWDs. It means that the public service should recruit and appoint 83 029 (6.27%) candidates to reach its goal of 7.5% of PWDs. This requires transformational leaders (Stoker, Grutterink & Kolk 2012; Van Wart 2008:80). *De jure* equality provides the means for PWDs to enjoy "full and equal rights" from institutional HR policies and practices; while *de facto* ensures that they enjoy these rights (*Webster's New World College Dictionary* 1999:378, 381; RSA 1996:7; RSA 2002:2). This is underscored by Legge (1995) and Paauwe (2009) (cited in Andresen and Nowak 2015:1, 18) who claim that effective HR practices have a positive impact on the financial performance of institutions. Therefore, HR practices should provide equal employment opportunities for all employees; including PWDs. Equality of opportunity is a principle of the CRPD that is closely related to non-discrimination. First, it means that society and the environment are home to all. Second, it also recognises the difference between people but ensures that everybody has the same opportunity to enjoy rights (United Nations 2014a:16).

Valuing PWDs

The institution should create a PWD-sensitive culture in which PWDs can be respected and accepted for who they are, can be developed, empowered and advanced according to their abilities. This means that PWDs should have equal

access to all the resources of the state; and to use those resources not only for their individual advancement, but also for the effectiveness of the institution (Fennel and Arnot 2008:195–196; RSA 2013a:3–4). Drucker (1992:81–82) contends that the effectiveness of tools of production (capital and technology) depends on the potential of the people that use them. It means that highly competent and qualified employees are more productive than those who are less competent and qualified (Cook 1991:4–5). People are the only resource with personal goals. They strive for self-actualisation and higher status and have preferences, dislikes, needs and wants (Jackson & Schuler 2000:XIX). Therefore, employees must be motivated and supported in achieving their goals (Campbell 2009:21; McShane and Von Glinow 2007:92–94). Effective HRM allows institutions to increase their effectiveness and employee satisfaction (Storey 2001:6–8). Institutions are becoming more complex and diverse therefore, adaptability and flexibility are essential characteristics for the survival and success of institutions. Institutions realise that the quality of their HR is a critical success factor (Beardwell and Holden 2001:374–376). Therefore, they should invest in the continuous development of employees (Erasmus and Van Dyk 1999:210–211).

Line and HR managers should manage employees as unique individuals with unique competencies and personalities. They must remember that *disability* is not *inability*. Employees' physical attributes should be seen as opportunities that can be harnessed to enhance institutional effectiveness. When PWDs are given opportunities and reasonable accommodation they contribute to the effectiveness of the institution (RSA 2002). It means that they should be included in the decision-making processes of the institution (United Nations 2004).

Rewarding PWDs

Reward is a system of financial rewards and employee benefits, which together comprise the total remuneration of the employee. The system also incorporates the non-financial rewards (recognition, achievement, responsibility and personal growth) and performance management processes. The combination of financial rewards, employee benefits and non-financial compensation comprises the total reward system (Armstrong 2012:4). Werner, Schuler and Jackson (2012:330) agree that total rewards include both monetary and non-monetary rewards given to employees. The reward system is a means of rewarding employees fairly and consistently for their competencies, performance, contribution and value to the institution. A good reward system ensures that employees' efforts are directed towards achieving the institution's goal (Martin and Whiting 2011:163, 171); and strengthening institutional culture (McShane & Von Glinow 2007:261). Employees use remuneration to determine the value of their performance and worth to the institution (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) 2015:4,

13); and weigh up the monetary and non-monetary benefits (Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, Sono and Werner 2005:278–279).

Self-actualisation

According to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, every individual yearns to achieve self-actualisation (McShane and Von Glinow 2007:92–93). The use of assistive devices is not only the means to remove environmental barriers, but a mechanism that increases PWDs' participation in social and economic activities. Whites have more access to assistive devices, while Africans have the lowest access. Those living in urban areas have better access to all types of assistive devices compared to those living in rural areas (RSA 2014: xiv). Adaptive technology, like autocorrect, spell check and iPhone's Siri allow PWDs to be more productive, efficient and effective. WhiteSmoke can aid in writing emails, and reading and writing Word documents and Powerpoint presentations. A half-QWERTY keyboard can help with typing for users who have carpal tunnel syndrome, one hand or limited fine-motor skills. A blind person can use it along with Braille; which can read the text aloud as the person types (Arnold 2013:80).

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The research shows that impairment is an individual health matter, while disability is a public concern and social concept which involves politics and power. Therefore, it is incumbent on the government to take the necessary legislative measures to ensure the equality of PWDs. South Africa has succeeded in crafting legislation to introduce formal (*de jure*) equality, but lacks the political and administrative will to ensure that PWDs benefit from substantive (*de facto*) equality. This means that, in practice, PWDs enjoy neither legislative protection, nor social and cultural equality.

The qualitative interviews conducted showed that the complexity and diversity of disabilities make it very challenging to categorise PWDs, which is a problem for the public service, which wants to manage PWDs in the same manner as abled persons. This results in disability being systematically enforced, thus excluding PWDs from mainstream social and cultural activities. This reality denies PWDs the possibility to achieve self-actualisation.

The research reveals that population demographics have been used to determine the racial and gender ratios in South Africa. This truism means that the percentage for PWDs should be based on the same principle. PWDs comprise 7.5% of the population, which means that government's 2% of PWDs is not a true reflection of their representation of the demographics. They only represent 0.9%

Table 2: Legislative framework for including PWDs in mainstream workplace

Legislation	Main purpose
Disability Rights Charter, 1992	Affirms 18 rights that PWDs are entitled to, which, among others, include: non-discrimination, education, employment, health and rehabilitation, participation in sport and recreation and access to housing and social security.
White Paper on Transformation in the Public Service, 1995	Envisaged percentage of PWDs in the public service was targeted at 2% by the year 2000.
Section 9(3) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, 1996 Section 9(4) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, 1996	Undoubtedly states that "the state may not unfairly discriminate directly or indirectly against anyone on one or more grounds, including race, gender, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language and birth". The national legislation must be enacted to make unfair discrimination illegal.
White Paper on Integrated National Disability Strategy (INDS), 1997	Shifts the conceptualisation of disability from a medical or welfare model to a social model that recognises disability as a human rights and developmental issue.
White Paper on Social Welfare, 1997	Social Welfare is "a welfare system, which facilitates the development of human capacity and self-reliance within a caring and enabling socio-economic environment".
Section 1 of the Employment Equity Act (EEA) 55 of 1998	To redress the past imbalances that previously disadvantaged blacks, women and PWDs endured and to ensure equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce.
Skills Development Act 1998 and the Skills Development Amendment Act 37 of 2008	Provides for improving the skills of all South Africans.

Legislation	Main purpose
Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (PEPUDA) 4 of 2000	No person may unfairly discriminate against any person on the grounds of disability, which includes providing environmental accessibility and reasonable accommodation of PWDs in the workplace.
National Disability Policy, 2001	To facilitate the achievement of the priorities of the Social Development Department through the development of integrated developmental services to people with disabilities and the parents of children with disabilities. To analyse all the relevant disability instruments supporting equality and accessibility as a coherent whole.
Code of Good Practice on the Employment of PWDs (CGPE), 2002	Provides guidelines to employers and employees regarding the development, refinement and implementation of disability equity policies designed to meet the needs of their particular workplaces.
Technical Assistance Guidelines on the Employment of PWDs (TAG), 2004	To assist employers in the practical implementation of their obligations towards PWDs.
The National Development Plan: 2030 Vision	To eliminate poverty and reduce inequality. To allow PWDs to develop to their full potential by removing barriers, namely physical, information, communication and attitudinal barriers. The plan states that "disability must be integrated into all facets of planning, recognising that there is no one-size-fits-all approach".
Change in Ministry, 2014	In 2014, the portfolio of PWDs was moved from the Women's Ministry in the presidency to the Social Development Department.
White Paper on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016	To strengthen disability equity evidence collection to ensure people with disabilities have equitable access to opportunities, lifelong learning, training and capacity building, and all other services.

Source: Republic of South Africa (2016:160–161).

of the economically active population. It is suggested that government should adopt a ratio that truly reflects the composition of PWDs in South Africa.

The research shows that government has not achieved its target of 2% of PWDs to date. The public service took more than two decades to achieve 0.66% of PWDs; therefore it could take years before PWDs will enjoy equality with abled persons. The qualitative interviews revealed that PWDs are competent and qualified, and that they have disabilities, but not the inability to perform their duties and responsibilities. It is suggested that annual targets should be set to increase the percentage of PWDs in the public service; this percentage should form part of DGs, HoDs and SMS performance management agreements until the 7.5% PWDs is achieved. The research shows that the gender composition of PWDs is not explicitly expressed in percentage. The proposed 7.5% of PWDs should be split in half to accommodate gender equality of PWDs, namely 3.75% for men and women respectively.

The qualitative interviews reveal that PWDs do not enjoy equal representation at management levels with abled persons in the workplace. PWDs receive equal training and development opportunities, but not equal employment opportunities; therefore they are deprived from senior and top management positions and from achieving self-actualisation. It is recommended that PWDs should not only receive equal employment opportunities, but also be promoted to senior and top management positions according to their abilities and that the necessary assertive devices be provided for them.

The research shows that GY and BFG are appointed to SMS positions, which raises a concern that should be addressed at the appointment and selection processes. The view is that candidates from these generations do not have the required experience and exposure that is needed at SMS. It is recommended that GY should receive the necessary mentoring, training, development and experience before they can be considered for appointment to SMS positions.

The research shows that new lenses are needed for managing PWDs. It requires a 'people management' approach which, among others, includes recognising the equality of PWDs, valuing and rewarding PWDs; which will lead to their self-actualisation. It reveals that transformation of equality of PWDs can take place only in an enabling institutional culture, which can be brought about by transformational leaders. It is suggested that a transformational leadership approach be adopted to transform the public service.

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Contextualising Gender Mainstreaming in Integrated Development Plans (IDPs)

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ABSTRACT

The article explores *inter alia* the status of gender mainstreaming in policymaking processes at municipal level in South Africa in general and in the Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) in particular. A review of feminist approaches in the South African context highlights that awareness regarding women's participation and empowerment is recognised at societal and political levels and led to the establishment of the South African Women's Charter in 1994. This awareness at the local government level gave rise to the Local Government White Paper of 1998; the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998; and the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. These legislative measures emphasised improved participation of women in ward committees and also ensured that women's needs during municipal development plans have to be taken into consideration. However, the findings of this study expose a different dimension whereby policies are considered gender-neutral and suggest that women are still side-lined in policymaking processes. An overall analysis of findings concludes that the matters of gender and women's empowerment are ongoing, debatable issues that call for society to adopt a changed mindset and policymakers should engage in transformational thinking. The article proposes a 'Gender Mainstreaming in IDP processes (GM-IDP) Checklist'. It posits that this will effect an improvement that can be made applicable within every municipality in South Africa.

INTRODUCTION

Public Administration/Management is the "central instrument through which national policies and programmes are implemented" and ideally should be "guided by principles of fairness, accountability, justice, equality and non-discrimination" (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) 2014b:8. It should also strive to be a "model of governance for society which includes the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment in the civil service workforce" (United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) 2014b:8). In a study conducted by the UNDP (2014b) entitled *Gender Equality in Public Administration*, it is stated that globally, "in many developed and developing countries, public administration often remains patriarchal, perpetuating gender-biased traditions, attitudes and practices" and maintains that as yet, women are not active participants in public administration processes.

The advancement of gender mainstreaming and gender equality in global public administration is included in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Section 20 of the document entitled "Transforming Our World: The 2013 Agenda for Sustainable Development" (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) Undated:11). It emphasises that "realizing gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls will make a crucial contribution to progress across all the Goals and targets". It goes on to declare that to achieve "full human potential … and sustainable development" is impossible if women, who constitute half of the population are denied full and equal human rights and opportunities" (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) Undated:11). This implies that "women and girls must enjoy equal access to quality education, economic resources and political participation as well as equal opportunities with men and boys for employment, leadership and decision-making at all levels". The intention, according to UNDESA (Undated:11) is to work towards "a significant increase in investments to close the gender gap and strengthen support for institutions in relation to gender equality and the empowerment of women at the global, regional and national levels". All forms of discrimination and violence against women and girls must be eliminated, and the achievement of this goal will necessitate the engagement of men and boys. The UNDESA document concludes that the "systematic mainstreaming of a gender perspective in the implementation of the Agenda is crucial" (UNDESA Undated:11).

Another addition to the list of gender initiatives is a document released by the UNDP entitled "UNDP Gender Equality Strategy 2014–2017. The Future We Want: Rights and Empowerment". The document "provides outputs and indicators for gender equality for each of its seven outcomes" (UNDP 2014a:6). These outcomes are stated below in Table 1.

Table 1: Outcomes (1–7) of the UNDP Strategic Plan, 2014–2017

Outcomes	Intention	Focus	Gender mainstreaming[1]
Outcome 1	Growth is inclusive and sustainable, incorporating productive capacities that create employment and livelihoods for the poor and excluded	To eradicate poverty, future growth and development must be inclusive, equitable and sustainable, and the equal participation of women is a prerequisite for achieving sustainable development	*Yes*
Outcome 2	Citizen expectations for voice, development, the rule of law and accountability are met by stronger systems of democratic governance	Establishing or strengthening the framework for democratic governance and building resilience into the principles, rules of engagement, systems and core institutions of governance	*Not directly indicated. The strategic entry points emphasise gender equality and women empowerment in governance processes, decision-making structures and capacity-building programmes*
Outcome 3	Countries have strengthened institutions to progressively deliver universal access to basic services	To focus on capacity of institutions to lead the development process and deliver justice, security and other basic services to all women and men, including the most marginalised	*Yes*
Outcome 4	Faster progress is achieved in reducing gender inequality and promoting women's empowerment	To substantially increase the investment in and focus on outcomes and outputs relating to gender equality and the empowerment of women in United Nations development framework programmes	*Yes*
Outcome 5	Countries are able to reduce the likelihood of conflict, and lower the risk of natural disasters, including from climate change	To help countries to recover rapidly and effectively from conflict-induced crises in cases where prevention has fallen short, and to deal with the consequences of natural disasters, especially as they are exacerbated by climate change	*Not directly indicated. The strategic entry points do emphasise capacitating women's organisations to deal with disasters; and encourage the incorporation of a gender perspective in disaster risk reduction policies*

Outcomes	Intention	Focus	Gender mainstreaming[1]
Outcome 6	Early recovery and rapid return to sustainable development pathways are achieved in post-conflict and post-disaster settings	Believing that early interventions that create livelihoods, revitalise local economies, build social cohesion and address structural inequalities between men and women can provide the foundation for full recovery and chart a path for sustainable development	Yes
Outcome 7	Development debates and actions at all levels prioritise poverty, inequality and exclusions, consistent with our engagement principles	To focus on ensuring the centrality of sustainable human development principles in key developmental debates and actions, through the prioritisation of poverty, inequality and exclusion	Yes

Source: (Author's compilation adapted from UNDP 2014a:6).

Outcome 4 especially, serves to reinforce and complement the "integration of gender equality and women's empowerment throughout the rest of the outcomes" (UNDP 2014a:12). The impact of these outcomes will, however, only be assessed and measured in the coming years.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATION

Gender is defined by Holmes (2007:150) as a concept that is "socially constructed and not naturally given; it is carried out differently in a variety of cultural contexts". This statement is supported by Okotie (2007:421) who explains that gender is "a socially constructed phenomenon ... brought about [when] society ascribes different roles and duties to" members of that society. Connell (2009:10) agrees, emphasising that it "is a social structure, but of a particular kind" and that gender involves specific interpersonal relationships and roles in any given society. In summary therefore, the concept gender is explained by various scholars as comprising "socially constructed categories of woman and man" (Ritzer 2007:2); "responsiveness to the structure of relationships between women and men" (Rai 2007:98); the "cultural distinction between females and males" (Heywood 2007:201); "social differences between men and women" (Taiwo 2013:5244); and varied social and cultural attributes linked to feminine and masculine activities,

roles and practices (Vyas-Doorgapersad 2014a:405; Vyas-Doorgapersad and Surujlal 2014:268).

A close scrutiny of the explanations provided by a range of scholars and academics (Evans 2000; Giddens 2009; Lars 2003; Rubin 1975; and Thomas 1995) reveals that gender is related to wide-ranging needs and roles that complement their feminine and masculine individualities. Gender mainstreaming; "constitutes a clear example of policy succession or policy adaptation, prompted by the desire to overcome the limitations of existing policies, and the need to respond to a changed policy environment" (Mazey in Verloo 2001:1). According to Daly (2005: 436); the primary objective "of the gender mainstreaming approach is to institutionalize equality by embedding gender-sensitive practices and norms in the structures, processes, and environment of public policy".

To provide context, other gender-related concepts related to the gender mainstreaming phenomenon are briefly highlighted below:

Gender analysis is the process of assessing the impact that a development activity may have on females and males, and on gender relations (the economic and social relationships between males and females which are constructed and reinforced by social institutions) (Hunt 2004:100). *Gender awareness* is an understanding that there are socially determined differences between women and men based on learned behaviour, which affects access to and control of resources. This awareness needs to be applied by conducting gender analysis of projects, programmes and policies (World Bank Undated:1). *Gender disaggregation* means analysing and representing data to show actual and relative (numbers and percentages) differences between males and females in a given situation (Auriacombe 2015:92). *Gender discrimination* refers to discrimination based on a person's gender or sex, and such discrimination affects girls and women more frequently than it does men (National Association of Japanese Canadians 2015:1). *Gender equity* refers to fairness and justice in the distribution of benefits and responsibilities between women and men (World Health Organisation 2001 in WordPress.com 2015:1); while *gender equality* is concerned with the "opportunities which are sought to narrow gender gaps" (United Nations 2002:5). Gender equality demands equal opportunities, respect, freedom of expression, participation, and consideration in decision-making processes, strategic positions, community-based representation, family-based involvement and also, importantly, it calls for societal-based recognition (see, among others, Mukhopadhyay 2004; Reeves and Baden 2000; Shapiro and Olgiati 2002; Subrahmanian 2003). *Gender norms* are the tasks, roles, ambitions and patterns of behaviour regarded as typical and acceptable for males and females in a given society (Auriacombe 2015:92). *Gender roles* are the behaviours, attitudes and activities expected or common for males and females. Whereas sex roles are essentially biologically determined (ensuring successful reproduction and forming the basis of sexual

division of labour, in which women are associated with childrearing), gender roles (behaviour that is considered "masculine" or "feminine") are culturally determined (Houghton Mifflin Company 2005:1). *Gender sensitivity* means understanding and consideration of the socio-cultural factors underlying sex-based discrimination. The term also applies to attitudes that socialise girls and boys into certain behaviours or opportunities (Sachet.org.pk 2015:1).

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In order to advance gender mainstreaming and gender equality, the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women Undated:1) emphasised that "many countries have adopted decentralisation policies as a means to promote democratic governance and the achievement of development goals". In the context of decentralisation, it is at local government level that the responsibility is borne for implementing policies and programmes designed to deliver on national commitments such as development priorities incorporating gender equality and women's empowerment.

In order to achieve the developmental needs of the country and meet the democratic, decentralised and developmental mandate in South Africa, the most significant policy document in local government is the IDP that establishes future development for local governments. The IDP "aims to co-ordinate the work of local and other spheres of government in a coherent plan to improve the quality of life for all the people living in an area". It must take cognisance of the existing conditions, problems and resources available for development. In other words the IDP must look at the economic and social development of the area as a whole. In addition "it must set a framework for how land should be used, what infrastructure and services are needed and how the environment should be protected" (Education and Training Unit [ETU] 2015:1).

The IDP document and the implementation processes lack gender mainstreaming. This assertion is substantiated by the review of official documents whereby the Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2007:1) has identified gender mainstreaming challenges that include "insufficient human and financial resources, inadequate implementation at local level, role confusion, and [crucially, that] gender equality [is viewed] as an unfunded mandate". CoGTA believes that in the past – and the same is still true in the present context – "mainstreaming was the strategy that would ensure women's plans were recognised". CoGTA calls for "actual programmes in municipal Integrated Development Plans (IDPs)" and maintains that women issues should be incorporated at the "core of all government programmes" (Parliamentary Monitoring Group 2007:1).

The emergence of feminist approaches has led the way towards development of several feminist ideologies. These ideologies include "Liberal Feminism" (Hooks 1984:1–5); "Anarchist Feminism" (Dunbar-Ortiz 2002:9); "Socialist Feminism" (UK Essays 2015:2); and "Marxist Feminism" (Marx 1990). Based on Jayal (2005:3) and the philosophy that "better representation of women should result in superior policy outcomes that specifically address women's needs and interests", Vyas-Doorgapersad has added another ideological term, namely "Democratized Feminism" (2014b: 111). These feminist ideologies have led to various developmental approaches, such as Women in Development (WID); and Gender and Development (GAD) (see March, Smyth and Mukhopadhyay 1999:20); and also Women and Development (WAD) (Auriacombe 2015:92–94). This article emphasises the GAD approach that "draws on Socialist Feminism". The GAD approach was developed in the 1980s and its primary objective is to remove disparities in social, economic and political equality between women and men. This was laid down "as a pre-condition for achieving people-centred development". The GAD approach does not focus on the biological inequalities among the sexes, but instead examines "how social roles, reproductive roles and economic roles are linked to gender inequalities of masculinity and femininity" (Auriacombe in Vyas-Doorgapersad 2015:4). Due to the relevance of this approach to bring transformation in organisational processes and societal mind-shift, "several gender analysis frameworks have been developed as the tools of GAD, with the aim of enabling development planners to systematically understand gender issues in their local contexts" (Mayoux 1995 in Akerkar 2001:3). The GAD approach, according to the National Gender Policy Framework (RSA: the Office on the Status of Women Undated: ii) "focuses on 'strategic needs,' the goal of which is gender equality", hence it is considered as the analytical framework for this article.

GENDER AND THE INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLAN

The issue of gender parity in municipalities has not developed to its full potential. Therefore very few researchers have taken the initiative to explore gender linking to elements of participation, representation, and equity variables. At municipal level, the strategic development plan, the IDP, lacks gender mainstreaming. Even the official document entitled "IDP Guide Pack" (Department of Provincial and Local Government (now CoGTA) Undated:32) states that "gender issues are about complex social, economic and political relationships that are not necessarily easily introduced into the IDP process", hence this so-called "guide" only provides clues rather than strategies for gender mainstreaming. Refer to Box 1 below.

In order to explore the application of gender issues in IDP, a significant research initiative was conducted in three municipalities, namely eThekwini, Hibiscus Coast and Msinga (Human Resource Research Council 2005:17–22; also refer to

Box 1: Gender and IDP Applicability

Define what gender issues mean in your municipality, and how they will be addressed in the IDP process
Firstly, it is necessary, in the preparation phase, to reach common agreement on how gender issues will be defined for and inform the process. This will include defining what types of gender issues are relevant in the specific municipal area. Where possible, aggregating information according to gender will facilitate the development of strategies and projects that impact on gender equity and development.
Ensure adequate representation during the process
It is necessary to encourage the full representation of women in all aspects of the IDP process, including public participation activities, among technical, professional and implementation staff and through the IDP Representative Forum. While having more women in structures participating in the IDP process is necessary, it is not sufficient to ensure that gender issues feature as part of the IDP process. Municipalities will also have to look at how to increase their own capacity to ensure that the needs of different social groups can be met through the IDP process, by possibly calling on gender advocacy and support groups.
Mainstream gender issues throughout the IDP process
Unlike transport or water, gender issues are not sectoral. Viewing gender issues as cutting across all aspects of development does provide a point of departure in this respect. This means that gender issues should feature as part of the process in a targeted systematic manner, not through a once-off acknowledgement of their importance, but continuously in all the phases of the process. Throughout the planning and implementation process and during the monitoring and evaluation activities key questions may be raised to verify that gender issues have received adequate attention. It will therefore be necessary to consider the impact of specific strategies and projects on gender relations.
Develop an integrated gender equity programme
In addition to integrating gender issues as a cross-cutting dimension through all the aspects of the IDP, focusing directly on gender issues as a means to address poverty alleviation and equity will require the development of an integrated gender equity programme.

Source: (Adapted from the Department of Provincial and Local Government Undated:32).

Todes, Sithole and Williamson 2007). The following gender-based challenges were explored: "[ ]…gender is not a high priority in any of the municipalities; women councillors were outnumbered by their male counterparts; [and] low levels of women's representation reflected conservative local politics". Furthermore it was observed that there was "resistance to addressing gender issues in council" which is clearly a major hurdle. The HSRC study also maintained that "attention to gender within the IDP documents was limited; women tended to be regarded as one of the 'vulnerable groups' deserving of special attention, but, in practice, this was not carried through within the IDP". In conclusion, the research revealed that "gender is not considered in the overall development thrusts of the municipality, and the IDPs do not respond explicitly to several identified needs".

CoGTA also conducted an assessment of IDPs in six cities in 2007 (as Department of Provincial and Local Government [DPLG]) and the outcome remains much the same, indicating that "they are not as effective as they should be" (CoGTA 2011:6). The Gender Policy Framework for Local Government (DPLG, Undated) explores more research findings emphasising challenges such as that "municipal IDPs often have outputs that are not gender-specific". It appears that the major challenge is to "define specific indicators that will highlight intended outcomes for women" because there is a marked "lack of participatory planning in the budgeting and IDP processes; and there are still municipalities that do not consider training in gender analysis and mainstreaming a priority in development planning".

Further, the findings emphasise that there is a "lack of gender expertise and sensitivity among IDP officials [that] implies omission of gender issues in the final plan" (Hofisi 2012:70) and that this hinders the fulfilment of the notions of democratic and developmental local government. Based on these findings, in order to obtain gender mainstreaming as a strategy for achieving gender equality, Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka, under Secretary-General, and executive director of UN Women (2014:3) emphasises that "evaluations and studies have found that gender mainstreaming has not been effective in all aspects of policy and programming, or in all sectors". She goes on to claim that there are "misleading and false dichotomies between targeted programme interventions and those incorporating gender perspectives across different sector policies and programmes" and that a further concern is the ongoing lack of "comparable data for tracking allocations and expenditures of resources for gender equality and the empowerment of women". This lack of monitoring has serious repercussions in that it "delays progress in advancing gender equality". This statement is supported by the former Deputy Minister of the former Department of Provincial and Local Government (Republic of South Africa), Ms Nomatyala Hangana, (who served in the portfolio from 29 April 2004 to 11 May 2009), who stressed that "gender considerations have to inform [our] Integrated Development Planning processes, [our] budgeting, programme implementation as well as monitoring, evaluation and reporting" (Undated:3). In addition, Carrim (2011:6) states that public "participation is crucial to effective IDPs. But getting effective participation is difficult". This inadequate gender-based participation moreover complements the lack of gender mainstreaming in the IDP processes.

CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK

The author also conducted studies in several municipalities to understand the gender dynamics in their policymaking processes. In 2013 a study was

undertaken at the Sedibeng District Municipality (SDM) and the findings indicated that there was a marked lack of women representation in senior managerial positions (SDM Integrated Development Plan 2013:5). This indicated the need for a gender-sensitive assessment to identify appropriate strategies for gender mainstreaming (Govender and Vyas-Doorgapersad 2013:173). The research was later extended to Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality, Bojanala Platinum District Municipality and Ndlambe Local Municipality. These findings published in 2014 underlined that a gender-based distribution of work is vital and has the potential to promote socio-economic development (Vyas-Doorgapersad 2014b:119).

In 2015, the research was extended to include the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (CoTMM) as an area of exploration. A qualitative research design was planned and the general interview guide approach was utilised "to ensure that the same general areas of information were collected from each interviewee" (McNamara in Turner 2010:8–9).The sampling frame comprised six directors who hold strategic portfolios at the CoTMM, namely IDP; Corporate and Shared Services; Employment Equity Division; Community and Business Safety; Finance; and Strategic Executive Support. The sample group also included 60 lower-level employees (30 males and 30 females). The employees were approached by utilising a convenient sampling method. A sampling frame cannot generalise the situation as unabridged, therefore the primary responses were complemented with secondary sources (such as a literature review, annual reports, IDP reports and human resource documents) to substantiate the responses. The responses were categorised to generate themes that are illustrated below.

Gender equality

Gender equality is considered as a significant objective for development, hence the "Gender Policy Framework attempts to ensure that the process of achieving Gender equality is at the very center of the transformation process in South Africa within all the structures, institutions, policies, procedures, practices and programmes of government, its agencies and parastatals, civil society and the private sector" (RSA: the Office on the Status of Women Undated: ii). However, in practice the situation is still challenging. The research findings indicated that in terms of Gender Equality Policy, the management and employees showed a positive attitude; the respondents accepted that (conceptually at least) the policy is officially documented at the CoTMM. Regarding the implementation of gender equality measures, the employees (67%) were not satisfied with the execution aspect, and furthermore indicated that there was even a lack of awareness of such measures at the CoTMM. This despite the National Policy Framework for

Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality (Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWAF) 2012, in Vyas-Doorgapersad 2013:11) that emphasises the urgent need to "establish appropriate gender-based policies, programmes, structures, projects, and mechanisms, thereby empowering, encouraging, capacitating and authorising women".

Gender-based participation

There is a "need for participatory approaches to bring the voices and strategies of different groups of stakeholders into the process. One reason may be that Gender and Development involves the application of external models and concepts as the basis for designing or assessing the differential impact of interventions for women and men" (Akerkar 2001: 3). However, concerning the issue of gender-based participation in the IDP processes, responses indicated a challenging scenario whereby the responses from management (67%) and employees (63%) indicated their dissatisfaction. This raises serious concern because ideally, "gender issues must receive the nod from policymakers throughout the process – from the initiation of policies, through their formulation, implementation, evaluation and finally the review. To meet this requirement will however call for gender champions who are dedicated policymakers and must include both men and women" (Basheka and Vyas-Doorgapersad 2015:218).

Gender mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming is a "strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated" (Poswayo Undated: 3). With reference to gender mainstreaming in the IDP processes, the management (17%) and employees (77%) disagreed with the lack of gender incorporation in development plans in the CoTMM structures. This situation supports the fact that municipalities throughout the country are experiencing the same nature of challenges, as stated as long ago as in 2002 in a keynote address by Ms Ntombazana Botha, Deputy Minister of Provincial and Local Government (2002:13–14) that "the IDPs provide powerful tools for municipalities to facilitate integrated and coordinated service delivery. The question, however, is whether in the planning, municipalities takes into account: who the beneficiaries of the services are, whether they will make use of the service and whether they will make use of the service and whether they will be able to access that service". These views were expressed during the Gender and Local Government Transformation Conference, held in Cape Town where

she furthermore added that "IDPs are driven predominantly by men and male consultants; that the IDPs are not gender-responsive; and that men often benefit disproportionately from development programmes" (2002:14).

By reviewing the responses, it can be deduced that the situation is favourable at the theoretical level but the practical aspects of gender participation in policymaking processes are weak. The responses also indicated that unawareness of and dissatisfaction regarding gender mainstreaming in the IDP processes are still challenging issues requiring urgent attention. These primary responses correspond with the secondary findings, authenticating that the perceived aims of gender mainstreaming and gender equality are not witnessed in the official documents of the municipality. According to the CoTMM IDP 2014/2015 there are political and administrative role players in the IDP processes. At the political level, there are 210 elected councillors of whom 105 are ward councillors. The role of a municipal council, as laid down in the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 is to engage in meaningful discussions related to the development of the municipality. Municipal councils are responsible for the approval of by-laws, the IDP, and the municipal budget. However, there is no database to clarify the gender-base of these officials. In addition, there are five members, of whom four are males, serving the portfolio(s) within standing committees. There is only one female member who is given a (political) role for the IDP implementation process. The standing committee members are responsible for taking decisions on IDP and are required to submit reports to the council. At the administrative level, there are 29 officials, of whom 23 are males, and only six are females who hold office in the delegated portfolio (Personal interview with an Administrator: CoTMM Ms DM Machika 16 March 2015). From the stated information it is clear that the CoTMM has not achieved its strategic objectives as set out in its adopted growth and development strategy which forms part of the IDP (that is, to address gender focused issues in the economy by dealing with inequalities and mainstreaming women, youth and the disabled). There is still gender inequality at both the administrative and political participation levels in the IDP processes within the CoTMM.

THE WAY FORWARD

The article proposes a checklist for the effective implementation of gender mainstreaming in IDP processes. It is suggested this be named the Gender Mainstreaming in IDP processes (GM-IDP) Checklist (refer to Box 2). It is recommended that this checklist should be given close consideration by role-players involved in the formulation and implementation of IDPs.

This checklist may assist role-players to establish gender mainstreaming in the IDP processes as a favourable output. In addition, IDP should be regarded as an

Box 2: Gender Mainstreaming in IDP processes (GM-IDP) Checklist

- Understand gender mainstreaming and gender equality concepts
- Comply with the National Gender Policy Framework for Local Government
- Attend gender sensitising training sessions/workshops/municipal training courses
- Identify gender-based skills gap
- Conduct gender-based needs analysis
- Perform gender-based skills analysis
- Appoint gender focal points
- Introduce local government gender forums
- Establish a gender management system
- Make gender visible in all stages of the development plan
- Consider the IDP from a gender perspective
- Identify gender equality challenges
- Identify gender segregated needs
- Identify gender segregated roles
- Establish a gender segregated delegation of tasks
- Preserve gender-based representation in the consultation processes
- Maintain gender-based participation in the needs analysis
- Endorse gender-based participation in the community-based analysis
- Ensure gender-based representation in the stakeholder analysis
- Determine gender-integrated decision-making processes
- Institute gender-sensitive indicators to monitor the IDP processes
- Establish gender-integration into the key performance indicators (KPIs)
- Ensure that the IDP promotes gender equality

Source: (Compiled by the author).

excellent governance tool which enhances elements of democracy and enforces legislative frameworks that demand gender equality.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

A review of the available literature and official gender-related documents emphasises that gender is not adequately mainstreamed in the IDPs and in many cases ignores crucial issues such as women empowerment, gender-based violence, employment, security, etc. It is suggested that CoTMM and all municipalities in South Africa should advocate and lobby for gender-based participation and representation in the IDP processes. Furthermore, IDP Representation Forums must invoke gender issues for incorporation in their development plans. All

municipalities, regardless of their size, should incorporate gender mainstreaming as one of the KPIs, and gender audits must also be performed on a regular basis.

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Social Development Policy Implementation in Rwanda

Challenges of the Implementation of the Community-based Health Insurance Policy in Local Government

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ABSTRACT

This article aims to highlight the Social Development Policy Implementation in Rwanda in general and the challenges of the implementation of the Community-based Health Insurance (CBHI) policy in local government in particular.

The article provides conceptual clarifications of the context of the CBHI policy, the regulatory framework of CBHI policy in Rwanda and the stakeholders involved to ensure the successful implementation of the community health insurance scheme. The Rwandan districts adopted several strategies to implement the national policy on community health insurance in order to promote social welfare. The article aims to find out whether local governments are strategically equipped to effectively and efficiently develop strategies to implement CBHI.

Finally, the article will discuss the challenges that local governments have to implement strategies to promote the health insurance scheme. Through a review of literature, official documents, and related editorials, the article utilises a desktop conceptual and documentary analysis of the units of analysis. A qualitative approach was adopted by way of interviews with relevant stakeholders as a unit of observation to determine the challenges of the implementation of the health insurance scheme in local governments.

INTRODUCTION

In Rwanda, the health policy adopted in 2005 and revised in 2014 set the overal goal of ensuring universal accessibility (geographical and financial) of equitable and affordable quality health services (preventive, curative, rehabilitative and promotional). The law governing the Community-Based Health Insurance (CBHI) is a policy instrument adopted by the government to enable healthcare service affordability. The role of local governments in the management of the CBHI scheme is mainly to mobilise the community to pay premiums (mobilisation committees created at village, cell and sector level) (Prime Minister's Office 2015:22).

Despite that most local governments (districts) in Rwanda pledged regularly to reach 100% CBHI enrolment in recent years, this target is very seldom achieved and variations are observed in districts' performance. As an example, the Institute of Policy Analysis and Research (IPAR) reported that for the financial years 2014–2015 and 2015–2016 the average enrolment rate was 78% (2016:24) against 86% in 2009 (Ministry of Health 2010:6).

A number of scholars like Kalab and Krishna (2004), Ekman (2004), Gottret and Schieber (2006), Bennet, Kelley and Silvers (2004), Collins, Kalisa, Musange, Saya and Kunda (2016); have researched the CBHI schemes in a bid to understand the characteristics of such plans and the factors that contribute to its success especially in the developing countries. Most of these scholars recognised that the CBHI has a good effect on increasing the utilisation of health care services and universal coverage by extending financial protection to the poor. They also highlight some weaknesses like overall low income due to the fact that most members are not the well-off members of the community hence cost recovery challenges. Despite that these scholars demonstrated the strengths and weakness of such a scheme based on a number of agreed indicators, limited literature exists on such a policy implementation strategy by local governments especially in Rwanda where the CBHI is enhanced by government policy.

This article seeks to elucidate how the local governments in Rwanda are currently equipped in terms of strategies to effectively implement the CBHI as an important social development policy and highlights the challenges faced therein. The scope of the study presented by this article is limited to the analysis of the local government strategies for the implementation of the CBHI scheme in a policy analysis perspective; hence the study findings generalisations need to be limited to this stage of the CBHI policy process. The period covered by the study is 2010 (date of the CBHI policy adoption) until June 2016.

The researcher opted for analytical methodology using the available secondary data on the CBHI scheme in Rwanda and a review of authoritative literature on social development and CBHI schemes worldwide. Kothari (2004) says that with analytical research, the researcher has to use facts or information already

available, and analyse them to make a critical evaluation of the material; hence the study will primarily focus on desk research. A qualitative approach was applied through semi-structured interview techniques to collect complementary data on key points under study from key informants.

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATIONS

Social development

According to Midgley (2014:xii) there is limited scientific work focusing on social development theoretical framework and practice and no common agreement exists among scholars on the exact definition of social development. According to the World Bank (2005:2), social development promotes local, national and global institutions that are responsive, accountable and inclusive and it empowers poor and vulnerable people. This definition seems to describe some characteristics of social development and its goals but does not clarify its content and the indicators for its measurement. The World Bank identifies five goals of social development that are: participation and civic engagement; social analysis; community driven development; conflict prevention and reconstruction; and social safeguards.

According to Midgley (2014:1), social development refers to government policies and programmes concerned with social aspects of development such as reducing poverty, increasing literacy, combating malnutrition and improving access to health and education, eradication of poverty and hunger, improving education and literacy, reducing infant and maternal mortality, ending gender discrimination, enhancing participation in the political process, increasing access to improved sanitation; and others.

In Rwanda, social development state responsibility is enshrined in the country's Constitution and also integrated in the national development policies and the government vision policies like Vision 2020, government's seven year programme (2010–2017) and EDPRS2 (2013–2018). According to Article 48 of the National Constitution adopted in 2003 and revised in 2015, the state has the duty to put in place development strategies for its citizens who also have the responsibility to participate in the country's development. Articles 20 and 21 provide that each Rwandan has the right to education and to good health (Prime Minister Office 2015).

The Vision 2020 and EDPRS2 seek to fundamentally transform Rwanda into a middle income country by 2020 which implies average economic growth of 11.5%, GDP per capita of US$ 1,240 and reducing poverty below 30%. One of the main pillars of Vision 2020 is human resource development and a

knowledge-based economy which implies investment in general peoples' welfare programme, education and health services (Ministry of Finance 2000:14).

In the same context, the government agenda programme for 2010–2017 Pillar IV focuses on social well-being with the goal to have skilled, knowledgeable, healthy and wealthy citizens (Prime Minister's Office 2010:48). Other specific social development programmes and social sector policies exist like the health sector policy (2014), education policy (adopted in 2005 and revised in 2010), the social protection strategy (adopted in 2013) including a number of programmes like Ubudehe, Vision 2020 Umurenge or VUP. Such poor empowerment programmes consist of offering to the identified poor direct material or financial support like shelter, health insurance, providing the active poor with paid jobs in labour intensive projects or microfinance support schemes with low interest loans or via labour intensive paid work.

Public policy

A number of definitions of public policy were proposed by different scholars. According to Clarke E. Cochran *et al.* (1999) cited by Birkland (2011:8) the term public policy always refers to actions of the government and the intentions that determine these actions. The same scholars add that it is the struggle of the government over who gets what. Guy (1999), proposed a simplified definition saying that public policy is the sum of government activities whether acting directly or through agents as it has influence on the life of citizens. These definitions focus much on the initiator of public policy which is the government but do not clarify the goals and involved processes.

Cloete and De Coning (2011:7) suggest that public policy is government's statement of intent, including sometimes a more detailed programme of action to give effect to selected normative and empirical goals in order to improve or resolve perceived problems and needs in society thereby achieving desired changes in a given society.

Birkland (2011:9) put it correctly that public policy has common attributes such as: policy being made in response to some sort of problem, policy is made on public behalf, policy is oriented towards a goal or desired state such as the solution of a problem, policy is ultimately made by government, policy is implemented by public and private actors who have different interpretations of problems, solutions and motivation, policy is what government decides to do or not to do (meaning that no action is also a policy option or decision).

Regarding public policy types, Cloete (2016:31) says that different typologies of policies can be identified like, sectoral policies, macroeconomic policies, institutional policies, regulatory policies or vision policies. Such policies can be described also as inducing (carrots); punitive (sticks); persuasive (sermons). The

drivers of policy according to Cloete (2016:33) include rationality, emotions, ideology, a combination of these factors, or organisational objectives.

According to Parson (1995:77) cited by Cloete (2016:31), any policy evolves as a cycle starting with a policy problem recognition and analysis (issue structuring), policy option and goal formulation or policy design, policy decision-making, policy implementation, policy evaluation and review.

As regards policy implementation, scholars like Meter and Horn (1975) cited by Hill and Hupe (2014:48) proposed a theoretical framework for policy implementation success. They proposed a model of six variables linked dynamically to the production of the outcome of performance assuming that policy implementation success will be likely in a situation where marginal changes are required with high levels of goal consensus. The variables include: policy standards and objectives, the resources and incentives, the quality of inter-organisational relationships, characteristics of the implementing agency (organisation control or relationship with the policy-making or policy enforcing body), the economic, social and political environment, the disposition of the implementers (involving elements like their cognition/understanding of the policy, their attitude vis-à-vis the policy like acceptance, rejection, indifference, etc.) and the intensity of such response. Such approach may be qualified as top-down as the element of flexibility of procedures and processes is limited and perceived as a source of inefficiency.

In another perspective Cloete (2016:84) says that the variables that influence the degree of success of policy programmes are mainly the degree of control over the implementation process (and the degree of dependence on factors outside your direct control), the adequacy of resources for implementation and the quality of management of the implementation process.

In Rwanda, policies are put in place by the government (the Executive or the Legislature) by virtue of exercising the state's constitutional responsibility of putting in place development strategies for its citizens according to Article 48 of the Rwandan Constitution. The source of policies are mainly the necessity to implement the national development Vision 2020, the government programme, the economic development and poverty reduction strategy, internationally agreed upon objectives or programmes, the President's priorities as stated in his speeches or otherwise communicated, or the desire to address new challenges or tap new opportunities (Prime Minister's Office 2013:43). The policymaking process in Rwanda starts within ministries where policies and strategies are formulated and the cabinet is the ultimate decision-making organ. The Cabinet Manual suggests that good policy proposals must have clear objectives, consider all options, be evidence-based, be deliverable (realistic and achievable), be joined up (stakeholders consultation) and be well communicated (Prime Minister's Office 2016:47). Regarding local governments, by virtue of the decentralisation policy in

force since 2000, they can make local policies in the form of by-laws and local strategies which must be consistent with national policies.

Community-based Health Insurance Scheme

According to Gottret and Schieber (2006: 96) the CBHI can be defined as not for profit prepayment plans for health care, with community control and voluntary membership. They generally spread risk from the healthy to the sick but if the prepayments are based on income can also be risk sharing from the better-off to the poor. A variety of CBHI forms exist such as those community organised and managed mutually (mainly observed in francophone West Africa), hospital organised and managed community financing systems (mainly observed in the East Africa region); or plans that are closely associated to the government health care financing policy (observed in countries like Tanzania and Rwanda).

The international interest in the CBHI is substantiated by a statement by the World Health Organization (WHO) on sustainable health financing structures and universal coverage issued in 2011. The statement urged all member states to: "....ensure that health-financing systems evolve so as to avoid significant direct payments at the point of delivery and include a method for prepayment of financial contributions for health care and services as well as a mechanism to pool risks among the population in order to avoid catastrophic health care expenditure and impoverishment of individuals. The members were also encouraged to aim for affordable universal coverage and access for all citizens on the basis of equity and solidarity" (WHO 2011).

Jakab and Krishna (2004) cited by Gottret and Schieber (2006:97) identified three common features of most CBHI plans which are that the affiliation is based on community membership (though some community members may not be part of the plans especially the extreme poor who cannot pay premiums) and the community is strongly involved in the system management. Another characteristic is that the beneficiaries are excluded from other forms of health coverage (as the CBHI regroup the poor who cannot afford other forms of financing). The last characteristic is that the members share a set of social values such as voluntary participation, participation and solidarity.

Regarding the strengths of CBHI, Ekman (2004:249) cited by Gottret and Schieber (2006:99) analysed the merit of such schemes considering a number of criteria like resource mobilisation, quality of care, provider efficiency, moral hazard, financial protection, out-of-pocket spending and access to care. He found that there is strong evidence that the CBHI provides some financial protection by reducing out-of-pocket spending but there is evidence of moderate strength that CBHI improves cost recovery.

Gottret and Schieber (2006:99) say that CBHI may complete or fill the gaps of other financing schemes or may be a first step towards a larger scale system. According to Bennett, Kelley and Silver (2004) cited by Gottret and Schieber (2006:100) the CBHI can help to meet the needs of a specific category of people such as rural middle class and informal workers; this being the reason why some governments like in Rwanda launch the CBHI scheme.

Regarding the weakness of CBHI, Gottret and Schieber (2006:101) say that the main challenge of such schemes is that they are limited by the low overall income of the community hence they have to complement their basic resources with user fees, government subsidies and donor assistance. They add also that sometimes the protection offered by such a scheme is hindered by the small size of the pool and that schemes are affected by problems of adverse selection inherent in voluntary prepayment schemes.

In Rwanda, according to the CBHI law, the CBHI is defined as a solidarity system in which persons come together with their families and pay contributions for the purpose of protection and receiving medical care in case of sickness (Prime Minister's Office 2015:13). The law provides that CBHI membership is compulsory for all Rwandans who are not covered by other social health insurance systems. Though the law governing the organisation and functioning of CBHI was enacted in 2015, the CBHI as government policy has been implemented since 2005 after the adoption of the CBHI policy which was revised in 2010.

Regarding the coverage of social health insurance for the total population of Rwanda (11.4 million), the National Institute of Statistics of Rwanda (2015:vi) reported that the health insurance coverage rate was 70% in 2014 (with the CBHI accounting for around 65%). Other forms of social health insurance (public and private) cover the remaining percentage.

EVOLUTION AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE CBHI SCHEME IN RWANDA

The first form of CBHI scheme emerged in the 1960s in some parts of the country like in Kibungo area (in the East) the scheme was called "Umuvandimwe" and in Butare (South) the scheme was called "Umubano mu Bantu" both aiming at increasing health care service utilisation. In the period that followed the end of the genocide against the Tutsi in 1994 with a huge support of international organisations the access to health care service was free of charge until 1997. As the health care service user charge was reintroduced a significant drop in the health care service was registered with an average 0.28 contacts per year per capita in 1996. In 1999 in order to overcome such constraints the government of Rwanda in three hospitals Kabgayi, Kabutare and Byumba used a pilot phase

which yielded concluding results. In 2005, the government decided to roll out the CBHI scheme to all 30 districts. The guiding policy for the CBHI was adopted by the Cabinet in 2004 and revised in 2014 and the law governing the organisation of CBHI was enacted in 2015 (Ministry of Health 2012:8).

According to the Ministry of Health (2010:5) the CBHI was identified as a privileged channel for the growth of financial accessibility to health services in both rural settings and in the informal sector that complements other social health insurance schemes (public or private covering public servants and other formal sector workers). According to the CBHI law this scheme covers drugs and medical services provided at the health post or health centre; drugs and medical services provided at the hospitals of districts or provinces and drugs and medical services provided at the hospital or referral hospital level (Prime Minister's Office 2015:17).

Regarding premium rates, since 2011 after the adoption of the revised CBHI policy, Rwandans began prepayment based on income or wealth status of households which is determined by the Ministry of Local Government as part of the *Ubudehe* system for more equity (before CBHI members used to pay a flat fee of Frw 1,000 that was supplemented by government subsidy). The Ministry of Health aggregated the four *Ubudehe* categories (initially there were six categories that were reduced to four after a revision by the Ministry of Local Government in 2015) into three CBHI broad categories. CBHI category one that regroups about 27% of the population, is comprised of Ubudehe group one (destitute or very poor households). The annual CBHI category one premium amounts to Frw 2,000 (US$ 3.00) per person and is paid by the government and development partners. CBHI category two group (about 72% of the population), is comprised of Ubudehe categories two and three (poor and resourceful poor). The annual premium for category two members is Frw 3,000 (US$ 4.50) per person. CBHI category three members (about 1% of the population) comprise the better-off (food rich and money rich) they pay an annual premium of Frw 7,000 (US$10.50). The CBHI beneficiaries also pay a small fixed fee of Frw 200 per visit at health centres (that finances the CBHI units' administration costs), and contribute a co-payment of 10% of the total CBHI bill to the district and referral hospitals. Government policy is that category one beneficiaries do not pay health centre fees or hospital co-payments. Membership of CBHI is family-based and compulsory for all people who do not have other health insurance (Collins *et al.* 2016:12).

Some studies have documented a number of achievements of the CBHI programme in Rwanda. According to the Ministry of Health (2010:6) the CBHI enrolment increased from 7% in 2003 to 74% in 2013. According to Collins *et al.* (2016:22) membership satisfaction is another key indicator of the success of this programme as the majority of CBHI members surveyed stated that the benefits of CBHI membership included lower health care costs (97%) and better access to drugs (73%). It is also noted that more equity in health care utilisation is achieved

by both the well-off and the poor people as a result of the financial protection. Another positive outcome is the incidence of financial catastrophe resulting from out-of-pocket payments for health services that substantially decreased between 2000 and 2010, with the proportion of all households (insured and uninsured) spending over 10% of household consumption falling from 11% in 2000 to 2% in 2010 (UR-CMHS-SPH July 2015 cited by Collins *et al.* 2016: 20).

Despite these positive outcomes, some research revealed a number of challenges in the CBHI implementation especially regarding enrolment. The results of the 2013 household survey indicated that the majority (67%) of category two households (which is the largest as 76% of all eligible population are in this category) felt that the payment of premiums was not easy and a significant portion (22%) said they would not re-enrol in CBHI in the following year, mostly because they could not afford the premiums and/or co-payments. 21% of category two households said that they had to pay their premiums in instalments and 67% of them reported not being able to access services before completing the payments. Another challenge highlighted is that despite the introduction of the graduated premiums reducing inequity in general, some inequity persisted among category two members who cannot afford the rate fixed for their category (for prepayment and co-payment). Also, the application of a flat co-payment is regressive since poorer category two and three members pay the same co-payment as better-off members in those two groups (Collins *et al.* 2016: 23).

The health care service providers' cost recovery in line with the CBHI scheme is done in two ways in Rwanda: The first approach is called fee-for-service payments. It implies that the provider receives a payment from the CBHI contributions after producing an invoice. The second approach is called capitation payment where the health care service provider receives a fixed amount for each enrolled member for a given reference period (Ministry of Health 2010).

REGULATORY AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK OF CBHI IN RWANDA

In Rwanda all health insurance schemes are regulated by the law n° 48/2015 gazetted in early 2016. This law stipulates under Article 3 that: "…any person, whether a Rwandan or a foreign national who is on Rwandan territory shall be required to have health insurance" (Prime Minister's Office 2016:10). Article 7 of this law provides for two types of health insurance; social health insurance and commercial health insurance. The category of social health insurance includes health insurance provided by public entities, the CBHI schemes and the insurance provided by the health insurance association (Prime Minister's Office 2016:12). The law governing health insurance schemes in Rwanda was

Figure 1: Structure of Rwandan Health Insurance System
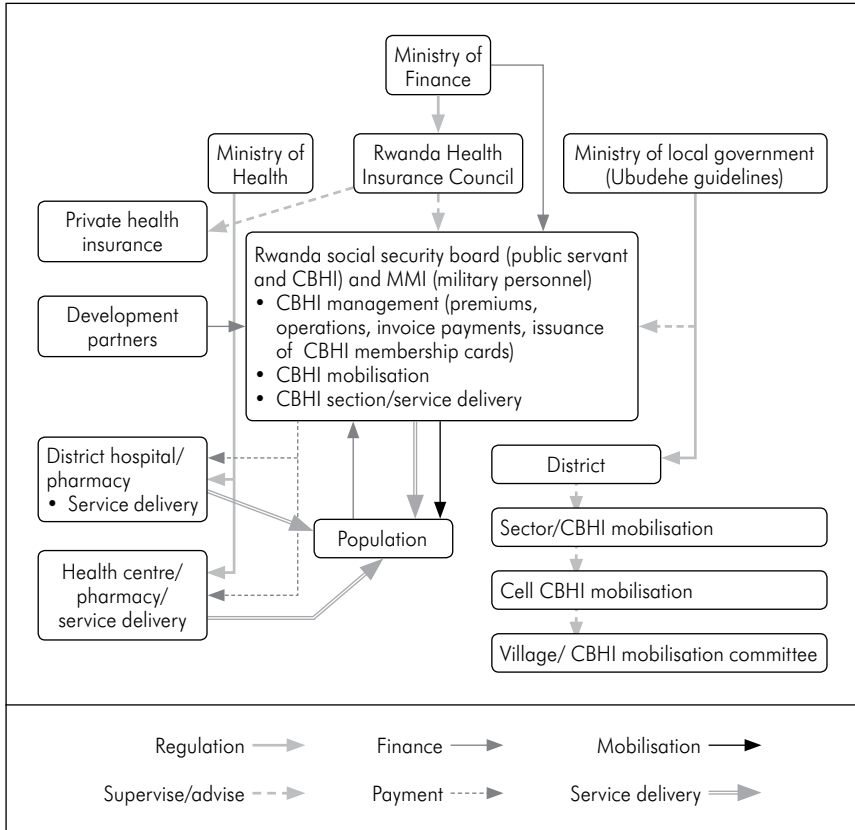
established under Article 26 of the Rwanda health insurance council supervised by the ministry in charge of insurance (The Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning) with the main responsibility of supervising health insurance activities (Prime Minister's Office 2016:24). The health policy adopted in 2005 and revised in 2014's overall goal is to ensure universal accessibility (geographical and financial) of equitable and affordable quality health services (preventive, curative, rehabilitative and promotional). The CBHI scheme is therefore a policy instrument for the achievement of the health policy and the health financing strategy with the ultimate goal to achieve national vision policies like Vision 2020 and EDPRS II.

The CBHI policy was initially adopted by the government of Rwanda in 2004 and revised in 2014 whereas the law governing the organisation of CBHI (law

nº 03/2015) was gazetted in April 2015. The law n° 45/2015 (gazetted in 2015) transferred the mandate of management of CBHI to this entity (initially under the Ministry of Health and the districts). The social health insurance policy institutional framework after the adoption of the CBHI law in 2015 can be summarised as indicated in Figure 1.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT CBHI SCHEME IMPLEMENTATION STRATEGIES AND CHALLENGES

The article's conceptual framework assumes that in the context of decentralisation (especially in Rwanda) the success of the policy implementation process at the local level (sub-national) depends on variables such as a high level of consensus on policy standards and objectives as suggested by Hill and Hupe (2014:48) and the degree of control over the implementation process (and the degree of dependence on factors outside direct control) along with the adequacy of resources for implementation and the quality of management of the implementation process (Cloete 2016:84). The verification of this assumption in the context of Rwandan CBHI policy implementation by local governments was done by applying qualitative research design and related techniques by means of key informant interviews considered as the population of all 30 districts who act as CBHI policy implementers at local level and the central government represented by the Ministry of Health as policymaking organ along with the Rwanda Social Security Board as the national CBHI scheme implementing agency.

The study sample comprises three districts selected based on their performance in CBHI enrolment during the year 2015–2016 (the 1st and 6th that is, Kicukiro in the City of Kigali with 95%; Kirehe in the Eastern province with 90% and Rubavu in the Western province with 70%). The two central level population units were retained in the sample. Each sample unit was represented by a key informant who is in charge of the CBHI policy implementation. The data collected aimed at responding to the question regarding how effective are district strategies to achieve CBHI mobilisation targets as their main responsibility in this policy implementation and what are the challenges faced therein.

By reviewing the local government strategies for CBHI mobilisation, the level of understanding of the national policy regulating the community health insurance programme by local government officials was analysed. It was found that all local government officials interviewed confirmed that they know the main CBHI policy driving principles and objectives. However, except Kicukiro district, other districts' respondents (Kirehe and Rubavu) indicated that they had not yet read the whole text of the CBHI law document (either the former adopted in 2007 or the new one gazetted in 2015) hence they had not mastered all the

details about the law such as the penalties for people refusing or inciting others not to pay CBHI premiums. This situation was observed among technicians and elected leaders. It was also found that the respondents did not have such policy documents at hand. Despite this finding, it was found that the respondents are aware of the districts' responsibilities regarding the CBHI policy implementation. All local government key informants contacted confirmed that their knowledge of district responsibility is due to capacity building workshops on the CBHI scheme organised by the Ministry of Health and the RSSB that they had attended. This was also confirmed by the interviewed official in charge of the CBHI scheme at the Rwandan Ministry of Health. The officer said that the ministry's policy communication strategy privileged consultation workshops after the adoption of the CBHI policy. She added also that consultation during the CBHI policy design process was mainly inter-ministerial but emphasised that local government leaders such as vice-Mayors in charge of social affairs were also associated.

However, the same official added that the ministry is planning new consultation meetings with different stakeholders to discuss observed shortcomings in the implementation of law nº 48/2015 regulating health insurance in general as it seems that the law is not being enforced especially the provision that says that adhering to at least one health insurance scheme is compulsory to all Rwandans and foreigners living in Rwanda; along with the provision that requires that all employers must contribute to premium payments for their employees. According to officials, local governments as the administrative entities that are close to the communities, should play a primordial role in such law enforcement. This shows that policy communication mechanisms exist despite that the level of such communication efficacy may be limited as some policy provisions are not known and not implemented by policy implementers. In view of such limitation, it is evident that more policy briefs may help to address such challenges.

The district responsibility regarding the CBHI policy implementation is mainly community mobilisation for paying premiums. Regarding the degree of control over the CBHI policy implementation process, all district officials interviewed confirmed that the district has full control on deciding the CBHI enrolment target. Generally, all three district officials interviewed say that they always target 100% enrolment as they want to protect all families against catastrophic out-of-pocket health expenditures. The district officials interviewed also maintain that they have control over the enrolment of the communities into the Ubudehe wealth category which serve as basis for determining the CBHI member category and premium rates. As the management of the CBHI premiums was generally assigned to the RSSB since 2015, all district officials interviewed pointed out that the districts do not have a say in the performance of the CBHI section staff who are under the RSSB authority despite that their performance may affect the population's momentum to pay premiums (in case of poor performance).

According to the interview with the Director of the CBHI mobilisation unit at the RSSB, after the change adopted by the government regarding the CBHI management in 2015, some districts manifested a certain decrease of their involvement in the community mobilisation mission whereas the CBHI law stipulates that the CBHI mobilisation committee operates at grassroots level (chapter three of Law nº 03/2015). He pointed out the district should plan for mobilisation as it also has staff in charge of CBHI mobilisation instead of relying on RSSB financial support to facilitate the mobilisation activities. The official indicated also that some districts seem to overload the staff in charge of CBHI mobilisation with other responsibilities even when CBHI enrolment is low. It was found that the RSSB produces on a monthly basis a report on CBHI enrolment progress per district which is shared with the district authorities as support to monitor the CBHI programme. He called for more synergy in the effort to maximise CBHI enrolment as RSSB cannot succeed in this mission with limited personnel.

Regarding the adequacy of institutional and financial resources mobilised by the district for the implementation of the CBHI policy, all the district officials interviewed confirmed that during the CBHI year 2015–2016 no standalone policy document had been elaborated for the CBHI promotion. The review of the three surveyed districts' development plans (2013–2018) showed that the health promotions strategic interventions do not include specific provision on the CBHI promotion. However, all the districts confirmed that they have records of several documented district authorities' decisions (either by the Council or by the Mayor) regarding CBHI scheme promotion. Another key finding is that all three districts surveyed integrated the CBHI enrolment target in their annual district performance contract (Imihigo). Regarding financial resources it was found that not all districts had budgeted for CBHI mobilisation activities in the year 2015–2016. Rubavu district which ranked last in CBHI enrolment performance across the country at the end of the CBHI year 2015–2016 with a 69.51% enrolment rate, had budgeted zero francs for such activities. In contrast, Kicukiro district and Kirehe district whose performance was 95.10% and 90.95% respectively had budgeted 10 million Frw and 3 million Frw for CBHI mobilisation during the same year. This shows that all other things being equal, the pay-off of the allocation of financial resources in support of CBHI promotion activities is evident in terms of the effect on enrolment performance.

The case of Rubavu districts can corroborate the RSSB interviewed official's point of view that he observed a decrease of some districts' involvement in CBHI mobilisation after the transfer of CBHI management's mandate from the districts to the RSSB. However, a positive development in Rubavu was observed since the start of the new CBHI year as the district budgeted Frw 8,676,000 in support of mobilisation activities and this move had encouraging repercussions on the district's CBHI enrolment performance for the first months of the year

2016–2017. Another interesting institutional resource indicated by the respondent is the District Health Management Team (DHMT) headed by the district's vice-Mayor in charge of social affairs which is functional in all districts surveyed. The DHMT regroup district officials in charge of health promotion and health care service delivery including the RSSB representative. They meet on a quarterly basis and are regularly updated on the progress with the CBHI premiums collection and formulate recommendations to address perceived hindrances. The respondents from Kicukiro and Kirehe districts confirmed that they are satisfied by the contribution of the RSSB in the DHMT decisions regarding CBHI scheme promotion whereas the satisfaction is low for the interviewed officials in Rubavu districts. Generally, the complaint regarding RSSB support to the district CBHI mobilisation effort is that they (RSSB) do not systematically support the districts financially to meet their CBHI enrolment targets whereas the community mobilisation is indispensable to meet enrolment targets which effort is costly. All district officials interviewed confirmed that the mobilisation committees at sector, cell and village level were elected and sensitised on the CBHI schemes and their role but no district provided other forms of facilitation to sensitise communities. It appears also that the mobilisation did not include comprehensive training on CBHI law and on mobilisation strategies (they attended a one day workshop to explain the CBHI scheme after their election).

Regarding the CBHI mobilisation strategy adopted by the districts during the year 2015–2016, from the data collected from the surveyed districts we found that that they are diverse but some elements are common. The first finding is that in all districts surveyed no one developed an extensive or summarised written district CBHI mobilisation strategy but rather different decisions (meeting resolutions) were taken in reaction to past performance in CBHI enrollment. The community consultation or participation in such strategies' formulation was also limited or indirect through the District Council. In some districts like Kicukiro as urban district the district mobilisation strategy was based on a preliminary assessment of the socio-economic and cultural condition of the district's population.

The interviewed officials from Kicukiro district pointed out that they had faced in previous years a situation where some people who are ranked among the well-off by "Ubudehe" categorisation had failed to pay CBHI premiums. They conducted house-to-house visits targeting the defaulters and established a list of defaulters who are really poor and those who are not. As the direct support to the poor people through social protection programmes generally is transferred by the central government as fixed budget they tried to find alternative support for paying premiums for the needy not covered by the government transfers. Their strategy consisted of working closely with the district partners mobilised via the Joint Action Development Forum (institutionalised district development partners' forum) to pay for the poor (who were a big percentage of those who were

uncovered). The same spirit of preliminary assessment of the community situation and readiness to pay premiums was also conducted in Kirehe district during the same period. According to the district authorities interviewed, such assessment helped to understand the main sources of revenue of the population and the saving culture in the district so as to adapt the mobilisation to such characteristics. As the main source of revenue identified was farming activities (banana, coffee, cattle) they decided to focus sensitisation on saving for the CBHI scheme during the harvesting period. They work closely with farmers' cooperatives to this effect. They also promoted the informal community saving scheme called "Ibimina" which existed to make sure that the communities can put their savings in a local bank long before the start of the new CBHI year. Like Kicukiro they also promoted partnership with development partners especially during the period of drought which affected many households that lost agriculture production. However, the exact statistics on the district's population who are part of the 'Ibimina" saving scheme could not be found but the district officials interviewed maintain that the majority of households adhere to at least one 'Ikimina". They suggest also that if the RSSB could open its CBHI premium account as early as possible, like in January, (against current practice of authorising payment starting June) this would facilitate the population even more so that they do not finalise payment for the whole family within the covered year.

In Rubavu district during the year 2015–2016 the mobilisation strategy focused on house-to-house visits by grassroots authorities to encourage all citizens to pay CBHI premiums. The district officials interviewed revealed that for the following CBHI year (2016–2017) more resources were mobilised to make sure that they identified all defaulters and obtained commitments to pay within an acceptable timeframe. They also privilege partnership with civil society organisations and the private sector for the payment of premiums for the poor who are in the CBHI category two (who cannot afford paying Frw 3000 for each family member).

Another finding is that despite the CBHI law providing administrative sanctions to CBHI defaulters (those who refuse to pay premiums while being part of the well-off, not eligible for social protection direct support offered by the government to the indigents) all district officials interviewed said that they never resort to sanctions as they think this approach might be counterproductive. All district officials interviewed maintained that they did not have detailed information about the CBHI law provisions regarding such sanctions.

Regarding the CBHI mobilisation strategy, the official from the Ministry of Health interviewed confirmed that before 2015, the ministry used to devise annual CBHI mobilisation strategies that were adopted by the districts. It was pointed out that the ministry is planning to resume this practice and develop indicative CBHI mobilisation strategies as support to the various CBHI policy implementers along with capacity building activities.

CONCLUSIONS

This article concludes that the CBHI enrolment levels have increased over time in Rwanda as the government and the districts adopted diverse mobilisation strategies to maximise CBHI enrolment. Despite that districts' strategies are not summarised into a single guiding document, most districts select intervention options based on preliminary assessment of the socio-economic and cultural patterns of the concerned target population (saving culture, source of revenues, satisfaction on CBHI section service, etc.) to inform proposed intervention focus. The level of control over the CBHI policy implementation since 2015 has reduced as most responsibilities were transferred to RSSB leaving the local government with the main responsibility of community mobilisation. It is noted that in order to reach enrolment targets set by the local governments during "Imihigo", joint actions and synergies are needed between the former and RSSB especially regarding co-financing mobilisation activities and more consultation with the communities who pay premiums; to promote a bottom-up approach.

It was also observed that there was some limitation regarding inadequate common understanding of the policy objectives between the policymakers (ministry) and the policy implementers (districts). As solution to this challenge improvement in policy consultation and policy communication is needed. Generally, a more bottom-up policy implementation approach may contribute to the improvement of the CBHI policy outcome of limiting out-of-pocket health care related expenditures. Further researches are recommended to shed more light on opportunities and challenges of such social development policies' implementation strategies by local governments using a comparative approach.

NOTE

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Towards a Model for Assessing Performance of Public Sector Organisations (PSOs) in Uganda

A Rapid Assessment

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ABSTRACT

This article derives from a rapid assessment undertaking of 13 PSOs out of the 119 existing PSOs in Uganda. The assessment was conducted to generate a set of guidelines and best practices for conducting rapid assessments of PSOs but also to assess the performance of the 13 PSOs. African democracies remain entangled in a myriad of challenges to meet citizen expectations. Performance of public sector agencies is often fingered for the deficiencies in public service delivery considering such agencies are responsible for critical functions like provision of health, education, water and sanitation, public roads and communication services which have greatest dividends to the workings of any government. Under the influence of the New Public Management (NPM) doctrines of the 1980s, most governments undertook reforms resulting in creation of autonomous agencies with mandates to deliver a range of specialised services. The assumption was that such agencies could discharge their mandates efficiently and effectively against the bureaucratic 'evils' of the Weberian old public administrative systems. In Uganda, concerns have been flying from different directions about the performance of PSOs and their exact contribution to the results agenda of government. In Uganda's

context, considering the lack of guidelines for conducting rapid assessments birthed the initiative for a rapid assessment from whose findings this article originates. The study presents a model or framework for conducting assessments of PSOs in a democratic state as suggested.

INTRODUCTION

Governments in both developed and developing countries remain directly or indirectly the prime providers of public services. While public sector reforms initiated in the 1980s tended to favour the private sector in delivery of public goods and services as Rosenbloom *et al.* (2009:9) guides; governments even in such an environment maintain a strong regulatory and oversight role. Moreover, the government's obligation to promote the public interest is one area that invariably distinguishes public administration from private management. How well government delivers its roles of public service whether directly through its agencies or indirectly through contracting the private sector becomes a matter of necessity. The numerous public sector reforms created several PSOs variously given names–authorities, commissions, and state enterprises.

Measurement of the performance of the PSOs has to considerably regard the context in which such organisations deliver their services. Indeed, Alford and O'Flynn (2012:5) reported that even amidst waves of public management reforms in developing countries over the last three decades which attempted to entrench private sector styles in the running of governments; these developments themselves led governments to play both a bigger and a smaller role in society. The government role is smaller in that public services can be delivered by a wide array of parties external to a given PSO as well as by in-house production. Whether internal or external creates demand for services. In most countries, public utilities for services like water, electricity, gas, transport have been sold off to the private sector. PSOs have equally contracted out a wide variety of functions from garbage collection and cleaning to security and employment services. Government agencies have also established collaborative agencies with other government agencies to realise the purposes they cannot achieve on their own. Paradoxically, the more government surrenders the role of producing public services to external parties, the more its role expands in other aspects. This is because the public agencies need to interact with external entities to elicit their productive contributions (Alford and O'Flynn 2012:5).

Policy problems faced by governments today have become increasingly complex and with this complexity, measuring the performance of the public sector

becomes difficult. Moreover, it has been argued by Cai and Wang, (2012:794) that attempts to assess the public sector performance often attracts some obstacles due to, among others, the multidimensional nature of the objectives championed by PSOs whose fulfillment level must be measured and obtained through the necessary information. Dixit (2002:697) stresses two important features of the public sector; which in their own way pose difficulties for assessment and provide an appropriate context for assessing results of PSO assessments. The first is that bureaucrats often serve several masters: including the users of the service, payers for the service, politicians at different levels of government, and professional organisations. The second, a consequence of the first, is that the agency and so the bureaucrats who work in it have several ends to achieve.

On the apparent difficulty in precise measurement of PSOs, Stefanescu, *et al.* (2010:1) using the Romania experience, identified the difficulties of defining and measuring performance in the public sector. They argue that an essential condition for the performance of civil servants is the optimal initial selection of appropriate personnel for the public administration. Personnel should be appointed mainly on professional criteria; such as competence and PSOs in Uganda are diverse. Among the 13 PSOs that were assessed, some provided regulatory and oversight services (authorities), while others directly provided specialised services (commissions and parastatals). In either two categories, some PSOs, in a drive to promote efficiency and effectiveness, contracted out a wide range of functions and some government agencies established collaborative arrangements with other government agencies to realise purposes they could not achieve on their own. Some public-sector departments relied on co-production efforts from their own clients. Paradoxically, the more government surrendered the role of producing public services to external parties, the more its role expanded in other aspects. This is because public agencies need to interact with those external entities to elicit their productive contributions. This interaction occurs in a wide variety of ways including contracting, partnering, education, persuasion, incentives, hard and soft regulation and enhancing service information and convenience–which together have important implications for policy-making and management. This in itself creates a natural demand for performance measurement studies. The rapid assessment and evaluation of Uganda's PSOs was conducted within the above context.

OBJECTIVES OF THE ASSESSMENT

A Rapid Assessment of the sampled PSO was designed as a "quick hit" tool to provide us with an analysis of performance of the PSOs in Uganda's context, understanding of the best practices in the performance of PSOs, and providing

a roadmap for improvement. Beebe (2001:10) reports that the Rapid Assessment Process (RAP) has gone under many names but invariably all use the techniques of fieldwork to provide solid, field-based findings for use by policymakers and programme planners. Rapid assessments use a team of researchers, encourage triangulation of research findings, and should be conducted as an iterative process to produce high-quality findings.

The study was conducted to address the following objectives:

- To establish the best practices and guidelines for rapid assessment of PSOs.
- To produce a set of guidelines, and checklist for the government to carry out rapid assessments in the future
- To assess the relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, sustainability and where possible the impact of sampled public sector organisations in Uganda.

PROCEDURES FOR CONDUCTING A RAPID ASSESSMENT

The public sector rapid assessment involved four basic steps:

❶ Setting the questions	❷ Data Collection	❸ Data Analysis	❹ Risk Identification
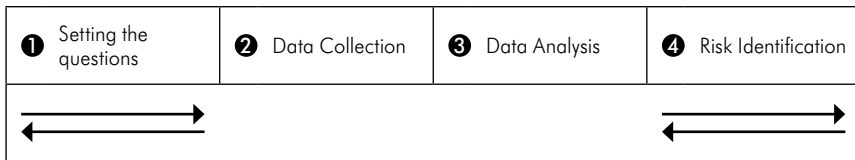
Source: (Authors own construction)

Step 1: Setting of the questions

A list of guiding questions was developed based on a checklist of items recommended by the ADB for inclusion while conducting rapid assessment of PSOs. This list of questions was based on the activities of planning, budgeting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation which are used for assessing the results and performance of PSOs. In addition to this generic list of questions, the evaluation questions set by the client under each of the evaluation criteria, of relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability, had questions which were also clustered around five key elements of the assessment framework– planning, budgeting, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

In addition, the formulated questions were supplemented by other observations specific to each of the 13 PSOs. The list of all questions was validated with the OPM technical team during the review workshop to ensure there was a common understanding by all stakeholders. A pilot of the questions was also conducted in one of the PSOs outside the sample size.

Step 2: Data collection

Based on the formulated questions, the second step involved collecting both primary and secondary data from each of the 13 sampled PSOs. The primary data collection was done using three sets of instruments–the rapid assessment questionnaire, institutional assessment questionnaire and the interview protocol guide. Secondary data was collected from a set of reports at government level as well as for each of the sampled PSOs. Secondary sources further provided background information on the PSOs.

Step 3: Data analysis and interpretation of findings

Based on the information obtained from both primary and secondary data collection exercise appropriate analysis techniques were applied to make sense of emerging findings. The analysis of the respondent's views from the rapid assessment survey and institutional survey questionnaires was conducted using frequencies and percentages to identify the trends of opinions on each of the questions and in some cases, trend analysis was done for items that assessed financial and human resource information. Qualitative data analysis involved thematic analysis of the findings based on a SWOT framework matrix which primarily assessed the strengths and weaknesses in each of the PS0s.

Step 4: Risks identification

The study, based on the analysis and review of documents from each of the PSOs, identified possible risks that the emerging findings posed to achieving PSO, sector and development results. Additional meanings from the emerging findings were derived from interviews, observations and secondary sources. The risks identified are useful to inform individual PSOs, their sector, government and for better project governance risk assessments.

RAPID ASSESSMENT MODEL

This framework is based on a conception of a democratic government in which the three functions (executive, judiciary and legislature) are operating under the doctrine of separation of powers and checks and balances. The same government is assumed to exist to champion the needs and aspirations of its citizens and as such it works as an agent under the principal-agent framework. The government is assumed to operate under systems, structures and the officials who work therein (both political and administrative are assumed to have certain skills and degree of shared values).

Figure 1: Rapid Assessment Model
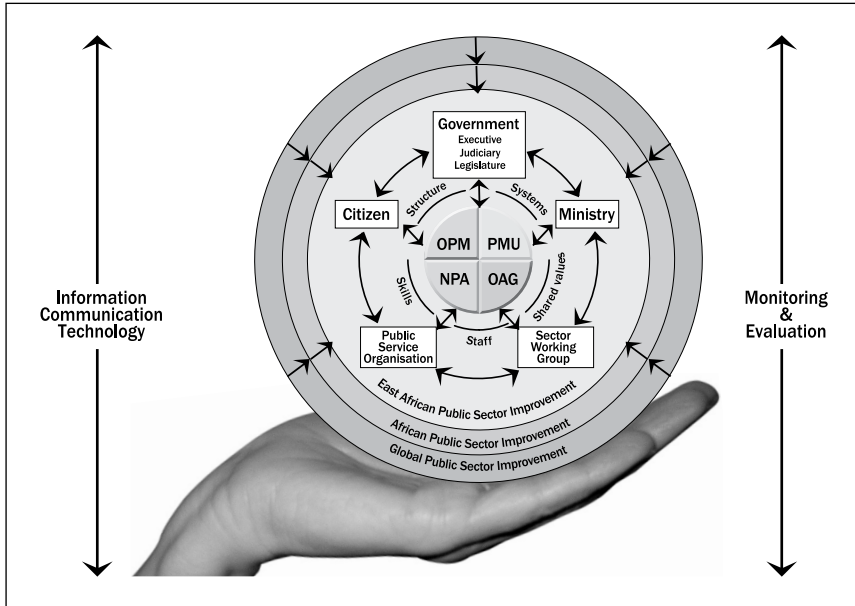
Government at the central level also delegates some of the roles to specialised ministries. The ministries dealing in a common sector have sector working groups as coordinating units. There are a number of PSOs in each of the sectors and these ought to contribute to the sector goals. The framework suggests that coordination of efficiency assessments should be done by specialised government units like the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM), Office of the Auditor General (OAG), Parastatal Monitoring Unit (PMU) and National Planning Authority (NPA). The model recommends that there should be strong systems of monitoring and evaluation across all elements of the framework and this should be supported by well-deployed information communication technologies.

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

The respondents from whom findings were obtained varied by age distribution with 53% being from the age group 40–49 years; compared to 21% in the age group 30–39 years; and 21% 50–59 years.

Of the survey respondents, 75% had master's qualifications and 12% had PhDs as their highest qualification. This again implies the respondents were of an

adequate qualification stature to understand the questions that were being asked. Of the respondents 72% were males and 28% were females.

Figure 2: Age category of respondents by Gender
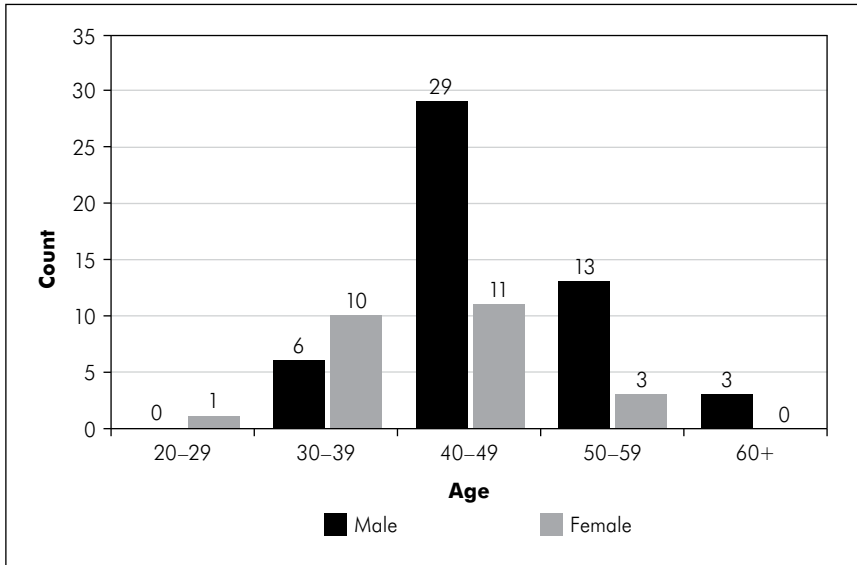
Figure 3: Highest level of educational attainment of respondents
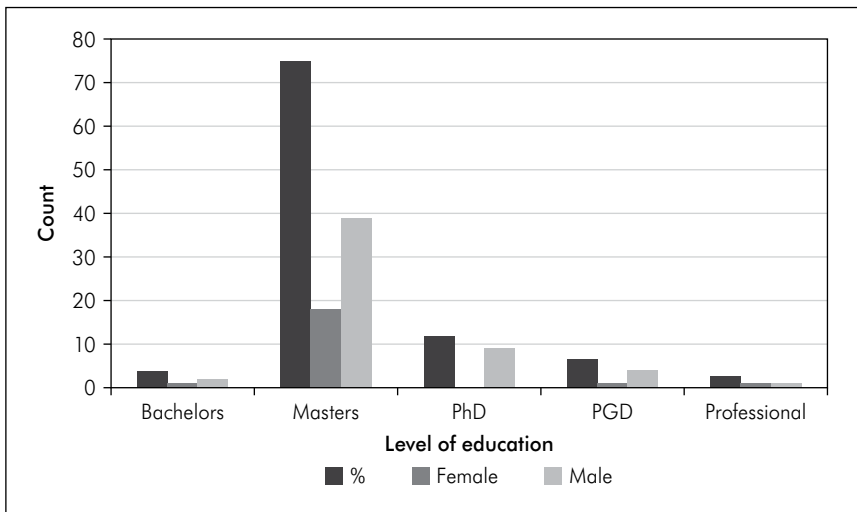
Figure 4: Category distribution of respondents
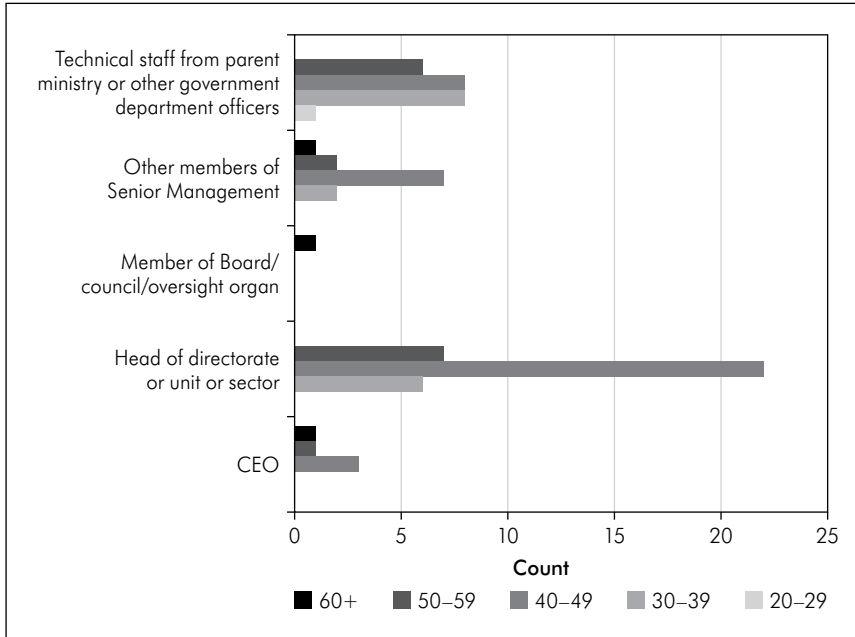
The technical personnel in the PSOs and parent ministries often have a deeper understanding of the processes of planning, budgeting, and implementation of government programmes, monitoring and evaluation. The assessment findings in terms of category of respondent's distribution were as follows:

The heads of department or directorates constitute the majority (50%) and these were more than 24% who were technical staff from parent ministries and 18% were other members of senior management of PSOs and parent ministries/ oversight agencies. In the assessment 94% of the respondents were Christians while the remaining 6% was shared among the other religions.

In terms of the years of experience, which, presumably reflects the respondent's wide range of public sector operations in Uganda, 41% had over 15 years of experience in the public sector, 25% had 10–15 years of experience, 25% had 5–10 years and only 10% had less than five years of experience. This implies the majority of respondents had an outstanding experience in the public-sector context.

- 27% of the respondents to a great extent agree that there are linkages between levels of results from national down to operational levels compared to 58% who moderately agree and 16% who only agree to a lesser extent.

Figure 5: Years of experience in the public sector
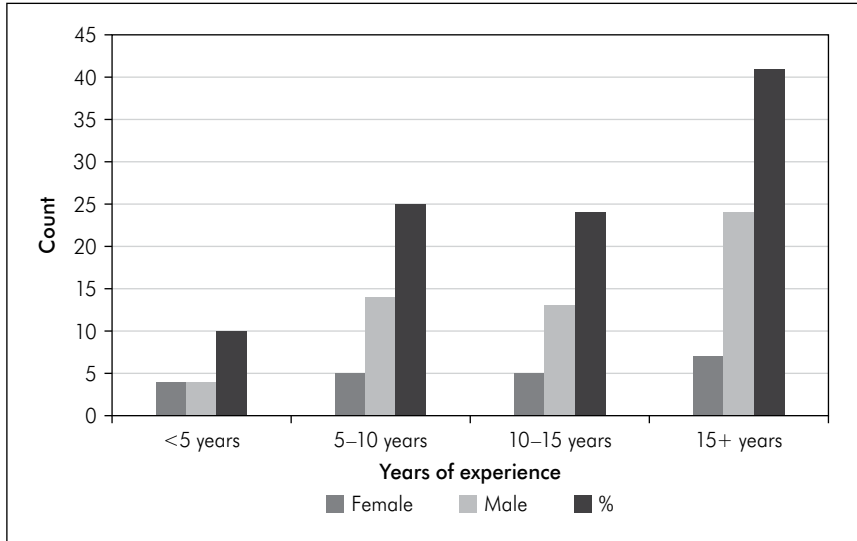
By combining those who greatly agree and moderately agree, generally; 85% of the respondents generally agree that within the sampled PSOs, there are linkages between levels of results from national down to operational levels although 71% of respondents again had uncertainty as to whether strategic planning and related activities by PSOs were aligned to NDP II.

- 90% of the respondents generally agree that the sampled PSOs budgeted for annual reporting on inputs and outcomes as required by government although the majority of sampled PSOs did not demonstrate clear distinction between outcomes and impact.
- 89% of the respondents believe that indicators and targets specified for each level of results in the sampled PSOs are SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant, and Time-bound).
- 90% of respondents believe PSOs assessed have been consistent and supportive of the policy framework of the sector and parent ministries.
- 89% of the PSOs assessed were performing functions in accordance with the assigned mandate functions from the time they were established.
- 91% of the respondents believed that organisational priorities of assessed PSOs were aligned to budget deliverables and still 90% believed that policies and processes were oriented to deliver intended results.
- Most of the assessed PSOs did not demonstrate strategic leadership in diversification of the financial base of their organisations; as demonstrated

by only 50% of the sampled PSOs that had a financial resource mobilisation strategy.

- 100% of the assessed PSOs had strategic plans which demonstrates adequacy of the policy direction although there is no substantial evidence regarding the success of their implementation as PSOs do not have evaluation reports on their strategic plans. This percentage shows improvement compared to the findings of the 2009 diagnostic study where only 60% (72 of 119) of the PSOs had a strategic plan.
- 88% of the PSOs had a human resource manual, 75% have a financial management manual, 87% had a procurement manual but only 62% of the assessed PSOs had a corporate governance board manual, internal audit and a sector investment plan.
- 100% of the PSOs had audited financial statements as compared to 27% of the total PSOs that had submitted audited accounts up to 2006 and 55% that had submitted up to 2005 as per the findings of the 2009 diagnostic study.
- 89% of the assessed PSOs had quarterly internal audit reports and 66% of the PSOs had management accounts and financial risk plans. 100% of the PSOs use annual audited accounts as a key performance management tool. This shows some improvement based on the fact that the 2009 diagnostic study found 60% of the PSOs did not have internal audit functions. The auditor general's role in exposing audit queries to most PSOs could be a possible factor for this improvement.
- 43% of the assessed PSOs supported remittance of all moneys collected from fees in PSOs while 29% supported its immediate use at departments where it is collected and 28% supported that it should be utilised at the PSO level.
- 100% of all PSOs surveyed had performance contract staff as compared to only five PSOs of the 119 surveyed in 2009 which had performance contracts.
- 86% of the PSOs blamed change in funding priority as the compelling reason for deviating from original budgeted activities and strategic plans.
- 71% of the PSOs blame low awareness among PSOs of the linkages between the respective PSO objectives and NDP II & Vision 2040.
- 71% believe participation in sector-wide activities by PSOs has an implication on accurately setting and measuring targets.
- 51% of the PSOs blame limited application of the sector wide approach to planning, budgeting and implementation as responsible for difficulties in setting and measuring targets.
- 83% of the PSOs regard use of board performance appraisals and reports as a key performance management tool.
- 57% of the PSOs regard risk management reports as a key performance management tool.

- 100% of PSOs indicated they used reports of evaluation of their strategic plans although evidence of such reports could not be adduced. Some PSOs like LGFC had an ongoing review of the strategic plan; UWLA had their strategic plan ending but was yet to be reviewed.
- 100% of PSOs indicated they often use publication of activities and costs as a key management tool although no evidence of such could be found on the websites of PSOs.
- 71% of the PSOs indicated they conducted customer and beneficiary surveys as a key performance tool although no reports of such could be obtained from all the assessed PSOs.
- 86% of the PSOs surveyed indicated they used corporate social responsibilities and reports as key performance tool.

Interdependencies

The results-based framework recognises that to achieve optimal development results, planning, budgeting, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation must be coordinated and should exhibit results features intended for maximum efficiency and effectiveness. The view is that development results and processes should be the basis for formulating initiatives, actions, and mitigation measures to improve results delivery. In line with this broad goal, the PSOs ought to be assessed on the (1) extent to which they focus on common results, (2) extent to which their activities are interdependent, and (3) extent to which their activities are integrated horizontally across sector line ministries and vertically along levels of government. The findings on each of the ratings that measured the status of sampled PSOs in Uganda are summarised below.
- 88% of the respondents generally agree that planning initiatives in assessed PSOs sets priorities for the budget allocations while 82% believe budgets are aligned to the PSO plans.
- 79% of the respondents generally agree that budgets in the assessed PSOs define final delivery outputs while 76% believe services are delivered as budgeted.
- 83% of the respondents believed that measurable indicators in assessed PSOs facilitated monitoring of service delivery while 79% believed that monitoring systems in place improved service delivery.
- 73% of the respondents believe that monitoring systems provide data for evaluation while 74% believe that evaluation initiatives often assess results monitored.
- 72% of the respondents believed that evaluation results informed succeeding planning initiatives in assessed PSOs while 74% believed that planning results considered information from evaluations.

The efforts by PSOs and their sectors should be integrated horizontally across sector ministries and vertically through all levels of government. This requires that national development goals (as contained in NDPII) are translated into specific agency priorities. Development programmes are increasingly becoming cross-sectoral and PSO efforts need to be coordinated through integrating agencies' sector working groups just as results-oriented public sector management efforts at the national level should be linked with subnational levels so that all levels of government contribute to a common set of development results. Strengthening horizontal and vertical integration enables better attribution and contribution to nationally defined results, and ensures that initiatives in various agencies and at various levels of government complement each other. The rapid assessment assessed the extent to which the sampled PSOs met these requirements.

- 84% of the respondents believe national development goals in assessed PSOs were translated into specific sector priorities.
- 84% of the respondents believed that organisational responsibilities were defined with sector line collectively being responsible for their achievement through effective coordination.
- 71% of respondents in assessed PSOs believe the shortcomings in PSOs is a result of poor leadership and management.
- 68% of the respondents believed that development goals are translated and cascaded to all levels of government.
- 86% of respondents believe that PSOs in Uganda have strategic plans aligned to sector, ministry and government priorities but only 73% believe there is a high degree of balance of responsibilities between PSOs, the sector and the parent ministry.
- 64% of respondents in assessed PSOs believed that members of the public were aware of the activities of the PSOs in Uganda.
- 68% of the surveyed respondents believe that organisational responsibilities are defined, with all levels of government contributing to deliver a common set of development results.

Figure 8 indicates that the overall trend of results demonstrated that most PSOs in Uganda still faced challenges as they moved from budgeting to implementation up to the evaluation activities.

PSO efficiency

The efficiency measures focused on soundness of management and value for money, and how well the various activities of the PSOs transformed the available resources into the intended results in terms of quantity, quality and timeliness.

Figure 6: Horizontal Integration of PSO across Sector Ministries

	To what degree are national development goals translated into specific sector priorities?	To what extend are shortcomings in PSOs be a failure of poor leadership and management?	To what degree are organisational responsibilities defined with sector line collectively responsible for achieving through effective coordination?
Great Extend	27%	31%	21%
Moderate	55%	43%	60%
To a less extend	18%	21%	19%
Not at all	0%	0%	0%

Vertical integration of PSO through all levels of government

70 60 50 40 30 20 10 0

Source: (Authors own construction)

Figure 7: Vertical Integration of PSO through all levels of Government

	To what degree are development goals translated and cascaded to all levels of government?	To what extend do PSOs in Uganda have strategic plans aligned to sector, ministry and government priorities?	To what degree is there balance of responsibilities between PSOs, the sector and the parent ministry?	To what extend are the members of the public aware about the activities of PSOs in Uganda?	To what degree are organisational responsibilities defined, with all levels of government contributing to deliver a common set of development results?
Great Extend	27%	39%	23%	16%	14%
Moderate	39%	46%	51%	43%	54%
To a less extend	31%	16%	22%	56%	29%
Not at all	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Vertical integration of PSO through all levels of government

Source: (Authors own construction)

Figure 8: Trend analysis of the risks as per PSO functional activities
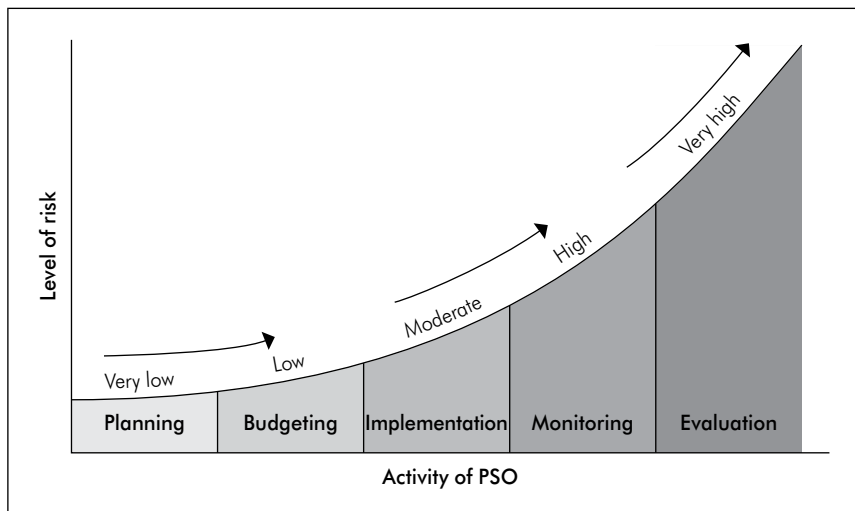
From Table 1 it should be noted that there was an average release of funds for undertaking the PSO activities from government of about 87.57%. This clearly indicates that the government majorly undertook its obligation of making sure that more than three quarters of the budgeted funds were released to the PSOs. On another note, the PSOs on average spent 94.5% of the funds that were released to them. Therefore there is no excuse for the PSOs not to have fulfilled their mandates due to the fact that almost all the funds released to them had been utilised. Therefore the PSOs were both very efficient in requesting their funds to undertake their activities and very efficient in utilising the funds.

PSO effectiveness

Effectiveness focused on measuring the extent to which PSOs objectives and results had been achieved and a number of measures were used of which some of the findings are summarised in Table 2 below.

The evaluation results as seen from Table 2 show that UNBS and NARO performed well against their outputs achieving 100% and 80% respectively. The education sector performed poorly achieving only 32% at the sector level and 33% at PSO (ESC) as demonstrated below.

The quantitative measure of (in)efficiency of PSOs is computed in terms of cost-effectiveness to establish the extent to which the PSOs have been able to use the available resources to maximise their outputs. A cost effectiveness ratio

Table 1: Annual Budget Performance (Government of Uganda & Non-Tax Revenue)* FY2015/16

	Public Sector Organisation	Sector Performance (%)						Pso Performance (%)						Baseline	Variation (Bn)
		Sector Approved (Bn)	Sector Released	Sector Spent	% Of Budget Release	% Of Release Spent	% Of Budget Spent	Sector Approved	Sector Released	Sector Spent	% Of Budget Release	% Of Release Spent	% Of Budget Spent	Average funding (2003–2007) Bn	
1	NEMA	494.870	333.170	332.010	67.3	67.1	99.7	9.046	6.828	6.701	75.5	74.1	98.1	7,543	–1
2	NARO	460.5	406.99	400.091	88.2	87.1	98.7	98.24	71.11	67.8	72.4	69.0	95.4	27,237	44
3	UNBS	158.12	150.95	141.699	95.5	89.6	93.9	20.73	18.61	18.59	89.8	89.7	99.9	2,216	16
4	UTB	158.12	150.95	141.699	95.5	89.6	93.9	12.02	11.29	10.34	94	86	99.1	3,55	8
5	LGFC	690.278	469.714	457.341	68	97	66.3	5.183	4.704	4.669	91	99	90.1	1.360	3
6	ESC	625.21	577.95	572.76	92	99	92	6.49	5.996	5.331	92	89	82.1	2.427	4
7	NMS	818.86	821.2	821.2	105	93.1	82.8	218.61	216.61	218.61	99	100	100	2.972	216
8	ERA	2,826.0	2,826.00	2,826.00	2,826	2,826	2,826	2,826.00	2,826	2,826	2,826	2,826	2,826		
9	AMNESTY	13.383	14.059	13.818	105	103.2	98.3	2.73	2.6	2.57	95.3	94.4	99.1	3.303	–1
10	UWA	158.12	150.95	141	95.5	89.6	93.9	62.95	57.92	51.51	92.01	88.9	81.8		0
11	UCC	17.009	14.936	14.952	88	100	88	97.28	86.1	88.51					0
12	UIA	158.12	150.95	141.699	95.5	89.6	93.9	12.284	10.24	83.36					0
13	URF	928.02	191.75	190.39	20.7	20.5	99.3	417.93	358.08	375.589	85.7	85.6	99.9		358

Table 2: Outcome and Output performance of PSOs and their sectors

	PSO	Sector Performance (%)					Pso Performance (%)					% of the approved budget spent	PSO Efficiency % of Budget spent/% of achieved
		Achieved	Moderately satisfactory	Not achieved	No assessment	Denominator	Achieved	Moderately satisfactory	Not achieved	No assessment	Denominator		
1	NEMA	65	15	21	8	34	50	25	25	0	4	74%	148%
2	NARO	74	7	19	0	103	80	20	0	0	5	69%	86%
3	UNBS	70	14	16	0	56	100	0	0	0	7	90%	90%
4	UTB	70	14	16	0	56	55	9	18	18	5	86%	156%
5	LGFC	60	19	10	10	118	55	9	18	18	11	90%	164%
6	ESC	32	13	19	35	77	33	67	0	0	3	82%	249%
7	NMS											100%	
8	ERA											143%	
9	AMNESTY	55	24	21	0	132						94%	
10	UWA	70	14	16	0	56							
11	UCC	43	7	36	14								
12	UIA	70	14	16	0	56							
13	URF	40	33	27	0	45	50	17	33	0	6	90%	180%

PSO	Reported changes
UTB	a) Uganda's visibility increased internationally, domestically and regionally. b) Improved service provision standards in the hotel sector with 61 hotels now classified with star ratings. c) A database of tourist facilities has been developed and populated. d) Introduction of the single EA tourist visa which has increased cross-border tourist transits between the 3 JTMC countries of Uganda, Kenya and Rwanda.
NEMA	a) The increasing awareness or ENR management among MDAs. b) The improving commitments to ENR by local governments during planning and budget processes. c) All local governments have integrated ENR management in their development plans; the challenge is still the actual budget implementation that has remained low due to constraints in resource availability. d) The increasing environmental compliance level of approved projects (EIAs) from 40% in FY2009/10 to 70% in FY2015/16 especially in the oil and gas sector as a result of increasing enforcement by NEMA and its partners (the key MDAs). e) The increasing number of companies which have developed self-regulatory systems and cleaner technologies as a result of increasing enforcement by NEMA using initiatives such as environment policies, ISO14001 etc. f) The increasing participation of partners and the public in ENR management activities and the increasing number of environmental litigation, especially court cases of public interest. g) The increased participation of Uganda in the key NEMA conventions and support for funding.
AC	a) Reduction in conflicts. b) Demobilisation of ex-combatants, resettlement of reporters, improved access to social economic re-integration of reporters.
EDSC	Competent male and female education service personnel recruited, education personnel policies implemented and managed, professional management of education service personnel, handling confirmation, validation, regularisation and disciplinary cases.
LGFC	Transparency and equity in allocation of grants to local governments Increase in local revenues allocated. Improved coordination between sector ministries and local governments, improved skills and capacity for budget formulation.
UIA	Ease of doing business in Uganda has improved. More industries in Uganda have been able to access their plots in the industrial parks.

(CER) > 100% indicates inefficiency of the PSO while CER<100 indicates the PSO operates at the frontier. The results in Table 2 indicate that apart from NARO (86%) and UNBS (90%), the remaining PSOs operate inefficiently. For instance, the ESC spent 82% of the approved budget but only 33% of the planned indicators were achieved. The inefficiencies among the PSOs reflect the wastages and loss of resources that could have been put to productive use.

PSO impact

It is extremely difficult to assess the impact of the use of targets in PSOs, due to the fact that it is difficult to assess what would have occurred had they not been introduced. Unlike scientific experiments, where there is a control experiment, no such control experiment exists in the public sector. In some situations, a government introduces pilot schemes in an attempt to gain some sort of comparison, but it is often difficult to get precise comparisons. Impact was measured based on changes at both short-term (outcome) and long-term (impact) that PSOs had posted as a result of their activities.

It was observed that there was difficulty in appreciating the outcomes and impact among most PSOs. The majority of the stakeholders in PSOs understand output measures as opposed to outcome and impact measures.

CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Government operates as a system and inefficiencies in one part of the system have an effect on the functionality of other parts. The findings demonstrate that several initiatives for improving performance have been undertaken for the public sector agencies. The performance of these sectors has, however, not been effective and efficient. This rapid assessment found that recommendations intended to improve efficiency and effectiveness of PSOs have often not been implemented. The efficiency and effectiveness gains which are anticipated through addressing performance gaps of PSOs have thus remained in existence. Moreover, the existing performance appraisal methods in PSOs do not adequately link individual staff or departmental performance to performance of the PSOs in their entirety as there is a tendency to evaluate personal traits and attributes rather than performance of tasks of the individual and the department.

The appointment of the board members of PSOs has remained a problematic governance area that needs to be resolved considering its importance in providing a conducive environment for performance of PSOs. There is an apparent relationship between the competence of the board and the actual performance of the PSOs. PSOs with strong and competent multi-skilled members perform

better than boards where political considerations dominate the selection of the membership. There is also absence of the uniform number of members of the boards. Some PSOs still operate under old legal frameworks and no action has been taken by the respective ministries to address this critical gap that was identified in the 2009 study. The implication of this is that most of the PSOs fail to align their objectives with the new development agenda of the country (Vision 2040).

The assessment reveals a continued trend of reliance on consolidated funds for financing the PSOs yet even this funding is not sustainable compared to trends of what is budgeted and released for implementation. There is a relationship observed between financing of PSOs and their performance. PSOs that have huge funding like UCC and UIA report better performance. CEOs of PSOs lack mastery of the environmental factors and context in which they operate. The assessment found that almost all the sections requiring CEOs to give a synthesis of the SWOT and PEST analyses of their PSOs could not generate the required high-level findings. There is a positive trend in performance measurement of the PSOs in Uganda and appropriate management tools to guide effective decision-making are in place. PSOs are now assessed together with other MDAs by the OPM on a regular basis. There is also sector-oriented performance reporting which documents the contribution of individual PSOs to the performance of the sector. However, there are still coordination challenges between PSOs and SWGs. Specific performance indicators that cover the functional areas of each PSO have been developed and these are linked to key sector objectives and the number of performance indicators has been decreased to between five and eight as a means of promoting simplicity and clarity in performance management. This is a positive development from key actions taken resulting from the 2009 efficiency and effectiveness study.

Strategies to enhance internal revenues which could have reduced pressure on the Consolidated Funds account have not been undertaken. The drive to raise more revenues could also raise its own risk for PSOs diverting them from the core mandate if not closely controlled. There is increasing support among PSOs for retention of all revenues internally collected which was an incentive for increased revenue outturn. The RA could not verify the percentage of PSOs that were dependent on donors to compare with the 2009 findings which reported high-level dependency on donors to have been in excess of 70% which threatened long-term sustainability. Budget cuts often implemented within the middle of the financial year have negative implications on the performance of the sectors and individual PSOs. They undermine effectiveness and efficiency in the implementation of the planned activities. Associated with budget cuts is the delayed release of funds which leads to late or non-implementation of programmes. While performance measurement systems have been instituted as most PSOs are assessed under government's annual assessment reports, some

PSOs like NMS and ERA have difficulty in providing information and a specific policy needs to be developed by government on the need for compliance to information requests for such assessments.

NOTES

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Promoting a Culture of Organisational Learning

A Case Study of the Department of Science and Technology

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ABSTRACT

This article investigates the culture of organisational learning – or lack thereof–that exists at the Department of Science and Technology (DST). The empirical research problem that was identified is the significant amount of public funds which is spent within the Department on training and development of staff. Despite significant investments, the service delivery of the Department seemed not to have improved. Our tentative hypothesis is that the root cause of the poor return on investment in respect of training and development is the absence of a culture of organisational learning. In this article the main attributes of a learning organisation are identified. A measurement instrument is developed which consists of 22 survey items and five proposed constructs. The fieldwork commences with the implementation of a survey to measure the extent to which the DST exhibits the attributes of such a culture. The findings suggest that the following key factors are significant when promoting a culture of organisational learning: strategic planning, inter- and intra-communication, as well as an inclusive and participatory leadership style. It is suggested that if the DST endeavours to promote a culture of organisational learning, its service delivery track record would also improve.

INTRODUCTION

The Department of Science and Technology (DST) invests considerable public funds in the training and development of its staff. It can be expected that such investments would coincide with the acquisition of skills and the improvement of basic service delivery by its staff. This appears not to be the case. One possible cause of the poor return on investment could be the absence of a culture of organisational learning at the DST. In this article we report on our investigation into the culture of organisational learning at the DST. In the first section of this article we report on the findings of the literature review on organisational learning. This is followed by our research methodology, data collection methods, data analysis, and interpretation. In this article we report our findings and make specific recommendations for the improvement of the culture of organisational learning at DST.

BACKGROUND TO THE CASE STUDY

The DST is the national department responsible for science and technology policy in South Africa. Its mission is to develop, coordinate and manage a national system of innovation that will bring about maximum human capital, sustainable economic growth and improved quality of life in the country (White Paper on Science and Technology 1996:5).

The DST has developed strategic policy documents such as the White Paper on Science and Technology (1996), National Research and Development Strategy (NRDS) (2002), and the Ten-Year Innovation Plan (TYIP) (2008). The purpose of the TYIP is to guide South Africa's transformation towards a knowledge-based economy in which production and dissemination of knowledge lead to economic benefits and enriches all fields of human endeavour (Department of Science and Technology, 2008:8). It can be argued that the TYIP is one of the DST's means to respond to the demands of the changing world and environment as influenced by external factors. For example, most countries, including South Africa, have prioritised innovation as a tool for economic growth and development. The gap between research NRDS results and commercialised products (innovation chasm) has been an ongoing issue in South Africa for decades and TYIP strategy is aimed at addressing this gap.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

The study also assists in determining whether skills learned are being transferred in the workplace, and if this results in continuous improvement and service

excellence. The DST invests significantly in the training and development of its employees and in ensuring that they are continuously empowered. However, little attention is focused on the returns on this investment and how these might influence the internal processes, the systems and outputs, and the outcomes and impacts of its services. Employees tend to maintain the status quo even after returning from training interventions that are aimed at improving productivity. As such, an evaluation of the DST's approach towards learning and development could be crucial in order for the DST to maximise its flexibility in responding to strategic objectives leading to the successful implementation of its strategies.

THEORIES ON ORGANISATIONAL LEARNING

A learning organisation is described as a continuous processes of change adaptation, development and learning (Swieringa & Wierdsma 1992:71–72). According to Karkoulian, Messarra and McCarthy (2008:5), although researchers tend to use the key terms "organisational learning" and "learning organisation" interchangeably, a clear difference exists. Organisational learning is simply a process, while a learning organisation signifies an outcome. A learning organisation is the ultimate goal that an organisation strives to achieve, whereas organisational learning is the means through which a learning organisation is attained; a learning organisation is the normative facet of organisational learning.

Argyris and Schön (in Mkhize 2011:31) discussed two levels of organisational learning: single-loop and double-loop learning. They defined single-loop learning as responding to changes in the environment without changing the core set of organisational norms, and double-loop learning as responding to changes in the environment by changing the core set of organisational norms and assumptions. In other words, single-loop learning is learning within a given framework and double-loop learning is learning by changing the framework. For the DST, being a national department entrusted with the responsibility to formulate science and technology policies, double-loop learning is required.

Pawlowsky (2003:62–88) describes the process phases of organisational learning in terms of four steps. These steps continuously repeat themselves and are not necessarily sequential: the identification of information that seems relevant to learning and to the creation (generation) of new knowledge, or both; the exchange and diffusion of knowledge, either from the individual to the collective level or at the collective level itself; the integration of knowledge into existing knowledge systems at a collective level, an individual level, or both, or into the procedural rules of an organisation, whereby either integration or modification of the adopted system can take place; and the transformation of the new knowledge

into action, and the reapplication of the knowledge into organisational routines, so that it has an effect on organisational behaviour.

Drejer (2000:206–220) argues that being a learning organisation requires an understanding of the strategic internal drivers needed to build a learning capability. The author suggests that learning organisations have the following core strategic blocks: mission and vision-clarity and employee support of the mission; strategy and espoused values of the organisation with leadership that is perceived as empowering employees; encouraging an experimental culture and showing strong commitment to the organisation; supporting a strong culture of experimentation which is rewarded and supported at all levels in the organisation; the ability of an organisation to transfer knowledge within and from outside the organisation and to learn from failures; and teamwork, cooperation and group problem-solving as the mode of operation and for developing innovative ideas.

Pearn, Roderick, and Mulrooney (1995:19), describe characteristics of a learning organisation based on the Garratt (1990:77) theory of learning organisations. These characteristics are that learning organisations encourage people at all levels of the organisation to learn regularly and rigorously from their work; learning organisations have systems for capturing learning and moving them to where they are needed; they value learning and are able to continuously transform themselves.

To become a learning organisation, organisations need to be skilled in the following five activities: systematic problem-solving that relies on scientific methods rather than guesswork; experimentation with new approaches; learning from experience and past history; learning from the best practices of others; and transferring knowledge quickly and efficiently through the organisation to minimise the risk of losing all the newly learnt and acquired knowledge (Garvin 1993:1–15).

According to Cook and Yanow (1995:430–459) learning is related to knowledge as it is the act of acquiring knowledge. Cook and Yanow further indicate that learning is the process of expanding and improving knowledge.

The promotion of organisational learning in the public service encourages public servants to learn more efficiently and effectively from their own experiences in order to improve the quality of public management. It is therefore important to put in place an enabling environment that provides the right incentives for staff to do so (World Public Sector Report 2005:102).

ATTRIBUTES OF A LEARNING ORGANISATION

In the following section, the attributes of the learning organisation will be discussed: vision and mission support, empowerment by leaders, culture of experimentation, knowledge transfer, teamwork as well as systems.

Vision and Mission Support

For Senge (1990:7–23) leaders in learning organisations are designers, teachers, and stewards. Such leaders are required to build a shared vision. The skills involved in creating such a vision include encouraging personal vision, communicating and asking for support among employees, and understanding that it is an ongoing process.

Fiol and Lyles (1985:804–805) indicate that the organisation's strategic posture partially determines its learning capacity. Thus strategy influences learning by providing a boundary to decision-making and a context for the perception and interpretation of the environment. Similarly, the strategic options that are perceived are a function of the learning capacity within the organisation.

Empowerment by Leaders

Malhotra (2001:32) and Stacey (1995:239–252) take a slightly different view on the role of management in relation to learning. They both argue that the most important learning processes within an organisation are precisely those that cannot be managed. Innovation often takes place in informal 'shadow' networks of individuals interested in the same issues. In order to support and strengthen this creativity, Malhotra and Stacey argue that organisations should allow their staff the room to act on incomplete information, trust their own judgement, and to feed input from informal fora into formal structures.

The theoretical consideration inherent in this model of organisational learning of Pearn *et al.* (1995:68) is the type of management style or practice, and control systems in an organisation which can either block or facilitate organisational learning. Pearn *et al.* (1995:69) argue that organisational learning can be achieved by moving away from a command-and-control style of management to increased involvement and empowerment of everyone in the organisation.

Berson, Nemanich, Waldman, Galvin and Keller (2006:577–594) define leadership as a process of influencing and teaching others to understand why and how certain activities and goals need to be accomplished. As such, it constitutes a process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to learn and accomplish shared goals in an organisation. These authors argue that leaders should play a central role in the organisational learning process in multiple ways. First, by providing contextual support in the organisation, leaders obtain the needed resources for learning to occur through exploitation and exploration. Second, leaders are critical to the integration of learning across groups and organisational levels. Leaders enable and enhance this integration by providing a foundation of shared understanding of needs and purpose at different levels of the organisation. Third, leaders are important in institutionalising learning

by integrating new and existing knowledge into the organisation's policies and practices.

According to Schwella (2013:70), the social learning approach to leadership requires that organisations continuously learn and experiment in order to improve capacity and performance. To Schwella leaders should therefore not be directive and authoritarian, but should rather be facilitators creating space for experimentation learning.

Culture of Experimentation

Experimentation is defined as the degree to which new ideas and suggestions are attended to and dealt with sympathetically. Experimentation is the most heavily supported dimension in the literature of organisational learning (Goh 2003:24). Nevis, Di Bella, Gould (1995:10) consider that experimentation involves trying out new ideas, being curious about how things work, or carrying out changes in work processes. Nevis continues to state that experimentation includes the search for innovative solutions to problems, based on the possible use of distinct methods and procedures.

Thornhill and Van Dijk (2003:349) argue that the tendency to focus too much on systems and processes to the exclusion of other factors inhibits the management of a learning organisation. The challenge is evident when an organisational structure is too hierarchical and the free flow of information is not promoted. Employees hold on to their positions and status, because they do not understand the larger role that they play within the overall organisation. Their territory has to be protected, and innovation or development might just harm their status quo.

Knowledge Transfer

Organisational learning is a social phenomenon. Each individual's learning depends upon the knowledge that other members of the organisation possess (Figueiredo 2003:607–643). This social interaction facilitates not only the communication and coordination between individuals, but also learning. The meaning and understanding of organisational learning is defined according to its context. Learning through identification with the organisation is more powerful than trying to teach individuals by using incentives. Learning is located at an entity level and that is why learning and knowledge management are part of institutional memory (Kogut & Zander 1992:383–397).

Organisational Knowledge

Wang and Ahmed (2001:12) indicate that organisational knowledge is stored

partly within individuals in the form of experience, skills and personal capability. Therefore, to create a learning environment between individuals and the organisation and to facilitate interaction and strengthening of each other's knowledge base, has become the main risk for management.

Levitt and March (1988:319–340) are less positive about the capacity of organisations to manage knowledge effectively and point to the considerable limitations that impede organisational learning. These include the complexity of organisational experiences, human habits, hierarchical structures, routines, and differing interpretations by different sub-groups within an organisation.

Schein (1985:34) argues that the limitations to learning within an organisation can be overcome through good leadership. By good leadership he means the ability of the leader to guide the organisation through various stages of a change process, to contain anxiety, and to influence the organisational culture in a positive way throughout this process.

Systems

According to Wang and Ahmed (2001:11), the system view of organisational learning has been taken mainly from the information processing perspective. There are two streams within the system view: organisations as a closed system or an open system. Wang and Ahmed indicate that under the view of a closed system, organisational learning is restricted within an organisation itself. The viewpoint of organisations as an open system takes into account the situational factors and includes inter-organisational learning as an important part of the whole organisational learning system.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

It is quite clear that there are two types of methodological paradigms; qualitative and quantitative. These methodological paradigms are at a high level of complexity as they represent not merely collections of research methods and techniques, but also include assumptions and values regarding their use under specific circumstances. Webb (2010:181) indicates that qualitative methodologies are particularly relevant in explorative studies. The qualitative researcher studies human action in its natural setting through the eyes of the actor who is the subject of the study. In contrast to the quantitative researcher, who uses somewhat artificial settings of experiments and surveys, the qualitative researcher describes the phenomenon in detail and tries to understand human behaviour within the appropriate context.

Since this study required information on the opinions, behaviour and views of the DST employees, the research methodology adopted is that of quantitative

research in order to obtain substantial evidence. However, to enhance the validity of the findings methods of data collection within the qualitative research design were also used.

DATA COLLECTION METHODS

There are various methods of collecting data that can be used such as questionnaires, interviews, documentation reviews, observation, focus groups and case studies (Coldwell & Herbst 2004:54). Polonsky and Waller (2011:96) indicate that data collection is an integral part of the research process and to the success of the research project, and that all research and planning effort is of little use if data is gathered incorrectly or respondents fail to cooperate.

Webb and Auriacombe (2006:588–602) indicate that data collection methods in the qualitative methodological paradigm enable the researcher to gain inside knowledge of the study objective. With the quantitative methodological paradigm, the researcher aims to analyse organisational learning factors and the relationship between them in isolation of the context or setting, with the ultimate aim to arrive at general statements. Whereas the qualitative researcher wants to observe the natural settings of the research object, the quantitative researcher emphasises control, and makes use of artificial settings such as experiments and surveys. Among the qualitative data collection methods, a researcher could make use of personal observation in the natural field setting; personal and group face-to-face interviewing, and documentary sources; whereas experiments and surveys in the form of questionnaires belong to the quantitative methodological paradigm (Webb 2010:159–160).

There are two types of sources from which data can be collected: primary and secondary sources (Polonsky & Waller 2011:97). According to Sekaran (2003:219) primary data refers to information obtained first-hand by the researcher on the variables of interest for the specific purpose of the study, while secondary data refers to the existing information such as information obtained from reports of the organisation. Polonsky and Waller (2011:95) further indicate that primary data can be qualitative or quantitative. They report that qualitative data collection techniques include in-depth interviews, focus groups, projective techniques and observational methods. They argue that qualitative techniques effectively allow the researcher significant insight into the feelings of individuals who are in the sample population.

For this study, focus was on primary data gathering in order to get first-hand information on the behaviours, feelings and experiences of the DST employees. According to White (2000:49) a survey is a way of describing and explaining some aspect of the population and surveys are carried out by way of interviews,

questionnaires or both. White indicates that interviews are used when taking a qualitative approach; however, it is possible to numerically code the findings from interviews so they can be used in quantitative methods. Coldwell and Herbst (2004:48) state that surveys and questionnaires allow researchers to gather information from people quickly and easily in a non-threatening way.

It was for this reason that survey questionnaires were chosen. Each respondent was given a questionnaire with a set of questions relating to the culture of organisational learning in the DST and the impact thereof towards service excellence. Questionnaire items were structured in such a way that they were easy for the respondents to understand, thus preventing ambiguity. Questions were grouped categorically according to the type of information required.

A survey with 22 statements (also referred to as items) was drafted and administered to respondents. Responses were solicited on a 5-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree and Strongly Agree). After completion of the literature review, various themes were evident. These themes led the researcher to draft survey items which reflect a number of proposed constructs. A total of five constructs were proposed by the researcher. These proposed constructs are the following: DST strategic planning (items 1–4); Opportunities for learning and return on investment (items 5–8); Inter-intra programme communication (items 9–13); Knowledge management and learning from experiences (items 14–18); and DST leadership style (items 19–22).

EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

For this study, a sample of 65 employees across the DST were randomly selected and 55 responded; thus an 85% response rate. Of the 55 respondents, 29% were working in the Corporate Services and Governance Programme, 22% were working in the International Cooperation and Resources, and the Human Capital Development and Knowledge Resources respectively, 18% within the Socio-economic Partnerships Programme and 9% within the Research, Development and Innovation Programme. The sample was made up of 9% Deputy Directors General, 5% Chief Directors, 27% Directors, 38% Deputy Directors, and 20% Assistant Directors (Assistant Director is the entry level for most of the positions in the DST, hence they are representative of junior management employees). A majority of the respondents (58%) had been working for the DST for five years or more; 16% had been with the DST for three to five years and the remaining 26% had been with the DST between one and three years (Tomotomo 2016:45–47).

There are several ways of testing the reliability of the items of a construct. One method of testing the internal consistency of the items of a construct is through

the calculation of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Though Cronbach's alpha value is not a test, the reliability of constructs is measured by item analysis and one way of measuring the reliability is via the use of Cronbach's alpha. According to Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum and Strahan (1999: 278) Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency; that is, how closely related a set of items are as a group.

Only three of the above-mentioned five proposed constructs are considered to be reliable. These constructs are: DST strategic planning, Inter-intra programme communication, and DST leadership style. The following constructs were determined not to have sufficient internal consistency: Opportunities for learning and return on investment, and Knowledge management and learning from experiences (Tomotomo 2016:51–59).

For the purpose of this article, only the findings in respect of the following constructs will be interpreted: DST strategic planning, Inter-intra programme communication, and DST leadership style. The findings of those individual items that were excluded during the exploratory factor analysis of the proposed constructs will not be discussed in this article.

INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Single scores for each of the proposed constructs were determined for each respondent by calculating the mean of the participating (reliable) items of the constructs. In respect of the proposed construct reflected in Table 1, the mean and median scores for the construct: DST strategic planning, are 3.39 and 3.5 respectively indicating an average view between neutral and agree.

Respondents indicated that the strategic planning process does not always include efforts to bring programmes together; it rather perpetuates the division and therefore efforts are fragmented. In the literature review, it was indicated that being a learning organisation requires an understanding of the strategic internal drivers needed to build a learning capability (Drejer 2000:206–220).

In respect of the proposed construct in Table 2, the mean and median scores for the construct: Inter-Intra programme communication, are 2.7 and 2.8 respectively indicating an average view between disagree and neutral.

The majority of respondents indicated that there is a scant atmosphere of sharing and learning from the past in the DST. This is in contradiction of Senge (1990:7–23) who emphasises that in a learning organisation, leaders are designers, stewards, and teachers and are responsible for building organisations where people continually expand their capabilities to understand complexity, clarify their vision, and improve shared mental models: that they are responsible for their learning.

Table 1: Summary of distribution of respondents' views on the proposed construct: DST strategic planning

% Strongly Disagree	% Disagree	% Neutral	% Agree	% Strongly Agree
1. Innovation plans are clear and shared with all employees.				
3.6%	20.0%	3.6%	34.6%	38.2%
2. My daily operations are clearly aligned with the strategic objectives of the DST.				
7.3%	0.0%	7.3%	43.6%	41.8%
3. In my opinion, information in the DST flows across the programmes.				
16.4%	30.9%	20.0%	30.9%	1.8%
4. I am often informed about the activities or engagements of other programmes in relation to the work done by my programme.				
21.8%	29.1%	9.1%	20.0%	20.0%

Source: (Author's own construction)

Table 2: Summary of distribution of respondents' views on the proposed construct: Inter-intra programme communication

% Strongly Disagree	% Disagree	% Neutral	% Agree	% Strongly Agree
9. Employees in the DST often share information of new knowledge on their work with other colleagues.				
20.4%	31.5%	25.9%	18.5%	3.7%
10. Employees in the DST often share their learning experiences from their work with their colleagues.				
18.2%	25.5%	38.2%	18.2%	0.0%
11. Differing views in my programme or in the DST at large are publicly discussed and tested.				
18.2%	25.5%	38.2%	18.2%	0.0%
12. In my opinion, mistakes and failures in the DST are regarded as part of learning.				
9.1%	23.6%	45.5%	18.2%	3.6%
13. Learning experiences from past mistakes and failures in my programme get incorporated into operational processes and daily routines.				
10.9%	16.4%	38.2%	29.1%	5.5%

Source: (Author's own construction)

In respect of the construct reflected in Table 3, the mean and median scores for the construct: DST Leadership Style, are 2.71 and 2.75 respectively, indicating an average view between neutral and disagree.

Respondents seem to have a negative view of DST leadership style and this can be attributed to the top-down management style in the DST. This is contradictory to Pearn *et al.* (1995:69) who argue that organisational learning can be achieved by moving away from a command-and-control style of management to increased involvement and empowerment of everyone in the organisation. The command-and-control management style is adopted at the DST, given its hierarchical organisational structure, hence the DST does not engage in organisational learning. Pearn indicates that leadership style and control systems in an organisation can either inhibit or facilitate organisational learning. In the DST context, the leadership style does inhibit organisational learning.

The Influence of the Biographic Characteristics of Respondents on their Views on Organisational Learning at the DST.

According to Cohen (1988:23) the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) test compares more than two groups, for example several age categories. An ANOVA test may also be used to compare two categories. With the application of the ANOVA test the researcher was able to identify significant variance between response categories in respect of the proposed construct: DST leadership style. This variance is caused by two independent variables: Post designation and age of respondent. The findings are reported below.

Table 3: Summary of distribution of respondents' views on the proposed construct: DST leadership style

% Strongly Disagree	% Disagree	% Neutral	% Agree	% Strongly Agree
19. The DST leadership involves all employees in decision-making processes.				
40.0%	21.8%	25.5%	7.3%	5.5%
21. There is participatory leadership in the DST.				
16.4%	29.1%	30.9%	20.0%	3.6%
22. Knowledge management is at the centre of daily operations at the DST.				
32.7%	5.5%	32.7%	20.0%	9.1%

Source: (Author's own construction)

Table 4: Summary of analysis of DST leadership style by designation

Designation	n	Mean	Std Dev
Assistant Directors	11	3.23	0.553
Deputy Directors	21	2.65	0.731
Directors	15	2.97	1.039
Chief Directors	3	1.67	0.144
Deputy Directors General	5	1.70	0.112

Source: (Author's own construction)

One-way ANOVA of the Construct: DST Leadership Style by Designation

In Table 4 the means scores of DST leadership style are calculated for the various designation groups.

It could be concluded that significant differences exist between the mean views of the various designations for DST leadership style: Assistant Directors; Directors; and Deputy Directors General.

Whereas Assistant Directors view the DST leadership style as neutral to positive, Directors are slightly less than neutral and the Deputy Directors General have the least positive view. This can be attributed to the fact that Assistant Directors are mainly younger employees as compared to Directors and Deputy Directors General who are mature employees. Another contributing factor could be that an Assistant Director's years of service or employment period in the DST is mainly less compared to the Directors and Deputy Directors General.

One-way ANOVA of the Construct: DST Leadership Style by Age

In Table 5 the mean scores of DST leadership style calculated for the various age groups are provided.

It is concluded that significant differences exist between the mean views of the various age groups for the construct: DST leadership style.

The middle age group (36–45 years) has a rather neutral stance on DST leadership style. The youngest age group (26–35 years) has a less than neutral (tending to negative) view and the older age group (>45 years) has a distinct negative view of DST leadership style.

Table 5: Summary of means scores of DST leadership style by age

Age	n	Mean	Std Dev
26–35 years	14	2.73	0.762
36–45 years	23	3.11	0.839
46 and older	18	2.19	0.760

Source: (Author's own construction)

This can be attributed to the age and designation among the two groups of respondents whereby respondents in the age category 36–45 have different expectations on their assessment of whether the DST leadership is participatory and inclusive whereas respondents in the age category >45 have a firm understanding in their assessment that the DST leadership is not participatory and inclusive (Tomotomo 2016:69).

RECOMMENDATIONS

Findings in the literature review revealed that strategic vision, communication, as well as leadership style, are key factors contributing towards embracing a culture of organisational learning. The DST invests significantly towards the training and development of its employees. From the research findings a number of recommendations that have implications for the culture of organisational learning at the DST are made.

The findings indicate that factors such as adequate communication and leadership are significant in the promotion of a culture of organisational learning. In addition, the following items indicate problem areas at the DST: items 3, 4, 9, 10, and 11. It has been deduced from the findings that information sharing and communication in the DST is not effective. The DST structure and its degree of role differentiation impacts on effective communication and information flow within the organisation. The Department is responsible for science and technology policy conceptualisation and coordination and is mandated to conduct research and development as well as innovation strategies, thus requiring an alternative approach towards learning and development which is outcome and impact based. The findings suggest that information flow is a major problem in the DST, especially across the organisation. The results therefore support the contention that the DST culture does not support organisational learning.

Another main research question is what the DST could do to promote a culture of organisational learning. Based on the findings of this study it is evident that most DST employees understand the strategic objectives and initiatives of the institution. However, the DST needs to involve its employees in strategic planning processes, improve on inter-intra programme communication and also adopt a leadership style which is participatory and is inclusive of all employees in order to create a culture that embraces organisational learning.

How could these factors of organisational learning be improved at the DST? The literature review indicated that, it is the role of leadership to enforce and encourage employee involvement. If DST employees are involved in the strategy planning process, this will enhance their level of understanding of DST strategic initiatives and their personal contribution towards driving service excellence. Employees will know how their daily operations are aligned with the strategic objectives of the DST.

The inter-intra programme communication will ensure that employees share their learning experiences from their work with their colleagues thus contributing towards continuous service delivery improvement. The participatory and inclusive leadership style will ensure that knowledge management is at the centre of daily operations and that leadership recognises and rewards service excellence.

Various initiatives can be pursued to improve the culture of organisational learning at the DST. The Department should involve all employees in the strategic planning process. Its objectives must be shared with all employees and there should be effective and efficient communication across directorates within the organisation. The DST leadership style needs to be participatory and inclusive of all employees.

CONCLUSION

In the literature review a number of constructs – or variables – were identified that could serve the purpose to promote a culture of organisational learning at the DST. These include strategic planning; opportunities for learning and return on investment; inter-intra programme communication; knowledge management and learning from experiences; and leadership style.

The survey with 22 items served to evaluate the culture of organisational learning at DST in the context of the five above-mentioned constructs. Exploratory factor analysis confirmed the reliability of three of the five constructs. For the purpose of this article the findings on the three constructs were reported on: DST strategic planning, inter-intra programme communication and DST leadership style. These constructs include the following items from the survey: 1, 2, 3, 4, 9,

10, 11, 12, 13, 19, 21, and 22. The findings on the remaining individual items were not presented for the purpose of this article.

NOTE

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The Management of Health Risks in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education

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ABSTRACT

Employees are generally regarded as the most valuable asset of any organisation. It is thus critical that employees' general well-being be promoted to ensure that health risks such as sickness, employee incapacity, and ill-health incidents are minimised. An employer has a constitutional obligation and statutory responsibilities to provide a workplace that is free of any disease, clean, safe, and conducive to effective and efficient performance of human resources. This article reflects on a qualitative study conducted in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education aimed at interrogating the challenges faced by the Department in managing core health risks amongst its educators. Based on a comprehensive literature survey, document analysis, international best practice, and the input obtained from human resource practitioners, health risk professionals and educators in the Department, recommendations are made to improve the implementation of health risk management programmes and strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Among the values and principles guiding the public administration, as provided for in section 195(1) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, 1996, is that good human resource management practices should be cultivated to maximise

human potential. Chapter 3, section 22 of the Basic Conditions of Employment Act, 1997 deals specifically with sick leave. The South African Government acknowledges that employees have medical reasons to be absent from work. However, certain procedures have to be in place to ensure that service delivery is not compromised. Government departments have to ensure that sick leave is granted within a structured framework to limit possible abuse. In this regard the Code of Good Practice, as contained in the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 states that employers must manage their disabled or incapacitated employees while making every attempt to re-deploy and accommodate them within their organisation. Furthermore, section 14(1) of the Appointment of Educators Act 76 of 1998, as amended, gives management authority to discipline educators who absent themselves without valid reasons. All of these statutory mechanisms were designed to regulate the behaviour of employees in the public sector while seeking to ensure effective management of health risks in general and sick leave in particular.

The general view of the South African Government regarding employee health and well-being is that employees should be efficient and be productive at all times in the workplace. In this regard, the Public Service Regulations, 2001 was amended to incorporate Part VI in Chapter 1 as guidelines to manage health risks. A literature review, however, revealed that public sector employees increasingly become prone to illnesses due to unhealthy lifestyles, high work demands and stress, poor management and leadership, as well as an unconducive organisational health climate. This implies that issues of health risk should feature prominently on senior management's agenda at all times. It is evident that the impact of guideline mechanisms and frameworks has not yet been determined by the Government in terms of the change in the prevention of abuse of sick leave and the reduction in absenteeism since its implementation.

The KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (KZN DOE) has a dedicated Human Resource Management Unit (HRMU) premised on traditional human resource management principles. However, recently there is a shift towards a more strategic approach to manage human resources in the Department. The HRMU has designed various strategic health risk management policies and wellness programmes. However, the primary responsibility for the implementation of these strategies and programmes rests with the principals, deputy principals, and heads of department in schools. Educators appointed by the DOE have the unenviable task of achieving excellent tuition results at all levels. In spite of their efforts in this regard, the challenges that they face currently lead to high levels of stress, excessive use of sick leave, long periods of incapacity leave, and absenteeism. Absenteeism of educators (i.e. teachers) in schools has significant ramifications, both in terms of the quality of education as well as in financial terms. Teachers' absence often means that pupils have lost

opportunities to learn and it disrupts normal school activities and compromise the overall learning process.

The KZN DOE's Health Risk Management Strategy forms part of the control systems in the Department aimed at monitoring sick leave trends and curbing absenteeism. The Department's Strategic Plan (2010–2015:12) reflects that this Strategy is vital to ensure that healthy educators, supported by a safe work environment, deliver quality education and contribute to improved matriculation results and other key strategic educational goals. Furthermore, the financial resources spent on compensating employees must match the end result (i.e. improved educational outcomes). In terms of the Personnel and Salary System (PERSAL) Report, during the 2015/2016 financial year the number of employees who took sick leave was 32 159 (30% of the total number of employees), accounting for 159 058 sick leave days. The cost of sick leave was R188,211,104.25, translating to an average cost of R5 790.33 per employee. This is clearly an unsustainable situation. The MEC's Budget Speech (Mchunu 2014:3) further indicated that levels of ineffectiveness and inefficiency in the Department are unacceptably high, mainly due to high levels of absenteeism. This raises a fundamental question about the capacity of the Department in general and the HRMU in particular to successfully implement its health risk management strategy and wellness programmes.

This article aims to report on findings of an empirical study conducted in the KZN DOE to investigate the implementation of the Department's health risk management strategies and programmes. The study aimed to determine whether the implementation of such programmes and strategies over the past five years by the KZN DOE has yielded desirable and intended outcomes. Furthermore, the study intended to pinpoint particular challenges associated with the implementation of these programmes and strategies as well as to make recommendations to overcome such challenges.

HEALTH RISK MANAGEMENT: A CONCEPTUAL AND CONTEXTUAL ORIENTATION

The concept "health" is defined by the World Health Organisation (WHO online:2014) as "a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity". Vasethevan and Mthembu (2013:2) contribute to this definition by stating that health, well-being and wellness tend to be used interchangeably. To this Foxcroft and Roodt (2013:172) add that employee well-being refers to the full range of aspects that contribute to an individual's assessment of his/her quality of life, including social aspects, physical and mental health, and feelings of happiness and safety. In the same

vain McGuire, Henderson and Mooney (1988:4) argue that the concept health is complicated by the intricate relationship between health care, health status, and the nature of the social and physical environment in which humans work and live. Health thus does not only refer to the physical well-being of individuals, but rather to the total social, emotional, spiritual and cultural dimensions of human welfare.

According to De Haan (2001:xiii), a number of factors influence the complete health status of individuals. These factors include adequate nutrition, sufficient pure water, sanitation, immunisation, maternal and child health services, destruction of insect vectors, services for treatment of common ailments and education in health matters. Due to the multidimensional nature of these factors, De Haan (2001:8) suggests that multidisciplinary teams in the workplace should be dedicated to the general health and well-being of employees. In this regard Nicholas (2008:350) confirms that various organisations in the private and public sectors have recently embarked upon employee health and wellness programmes to provide employees with opportunities to utilise such programmes for their well-being in the workplace. There is an increasing body of evidence that suggests that those employees who take good care of their health are less absent and more motivated. Prevention of minor ailments would lead to a healthy and productive workforce with a low rate of absenteeism (*cf.* Coon and Mitterer 2010:430).

According to De Haan (2001:8) and Jamison *et al.* (2006:97), occupational or workplace health is a significant variable, especially in developing countries, since the benefits enjoyed by employees and their families form part of the overall primary health care system. The rationale behind this view is that healthy employees may not be at risk of getting infections easily, have more knowledge about dealing with psycho-social problems, and are generally better equipped to manage their lifestyles. Employee health and wellness programmes should incorporate all the necessary health needs for employees, including practicalities such as having first aid kits and fire extinguishers in the workplace (Regis 2008:338). According to Marks *et al.* (2000:5) and Thorogood and Coombes (2004:4), a health promotion approach is vital to make changes in work conditions aimed at improving the overall health of employees. However, Wall and Owen (2002:155) posit that a shift of emphasis from health care to health prevention requires a willingness to allocate scarce organisational resources to often "unglamorous" health risk areas. They further postulate that it means recognising that the contribution of public managers in the implementation of health programmes equals that of clinicians and other health practitioners.

As far as health risks are concerned, the Occupational Health and Safety Management Systems Requirements (2007:4) regards a health risk as a combination of the likelihood of an occurrence of a hazardous event or exposure

and the severity or injury or ill-health that can be caused by the event or exposure. From an organisational vantage point, Young (2006:11) defines risk as "the exposure of an organisation to potential losses, resulting from shortcomings and/or failures in the execution of its operations. These losses may be caused by internal failures or shortcomings of people, processes and systems, as well as the inability of people, processes and systems to cope with the adverse effects of external factors". Pencheon *et al.* (2001:442), Nersesian (2008:2), and Strydom and King (2009:716) in this regard strongly propagate the design of measures (e.g. health risk strategies and programmes) to mitigate general organisational risks (e.g. financial losses) and specific employee health risks. Such mitigating measures, according to Booyens (2014:403), should make provision for a process of identifying possible risks, analysing or assessing these risks (qualitatively and/or quantitatively), planning the interventions necessary to mitigate these risks, implementing the mitigation strategies and monitoring and evaluating or reviewing the outcome of the interventions. It should thus incorporate specialised health management responsibilities and function, entailing strategic analysis, health strategy development, its implementation, and the review thereof. Policy-relevant analysis should include an assessment of the health benefits of simultaneous reductions in multiple risks because of epidemiological and social characteristics of risk factor exposure and hazard (Lopez *et al.* 2006:6; Marmont and Wilkinson 2006:2).

The loss of key staff has the potential to affect service delivery and production outputs and is thus a risk factor that requires the attention of senior management in public institutions. A number of reasons may be attributed to the loss of staff, such as absenteeism, work stress, low morale and job satisfaction. These become health risk factors which essentially need effective health risk management (Young 2006:10). Therefore, an effective employee health risk management function, based upon a broad and integrated framework, is necessary to ensure that all potential risks are covered (Young 2006:25). Similarly, McCann *et al.* (2011:76) and Smith (2012:54) contend that it is the responsibility of every manager to ensure that adequate measures are designed to manage the risks within their key performance areas. Muchinsky (2006:346), Tennant and Howells (2010:28), and Muller, Bezuidenhout and Jooste (2011:296) pinpoint particular managerial functions of health risks including safe work systems, policies, procedures, control measures, training programmes, safe working behaviours, the establishment of health and safety committees, and health and safety action plans. Broadly speaking, these are all the necessary requirements for ensuring the health and well-being of employees in the workplace. In addition, employee assistance and wellness programmes should be aimed at preventing and treating a wide variety of employee

behavioural and/or medical problems, including substance abuse, family disruptions, stress and work-based traumas.

Robson and Toscano (2007:226) and Duffey and Saull (2008:264) focus upon the rights of employees and assert that they have the right to know about health risks, get training in the safe use of equipment, complain about safety issues and concerns, and refuse to perform any task that may harm them. These authors further caution that employers should give effect to these rights by making safety procedures available, training employees, and having the necessary mechanisms such as health and safety inspections and committees in place to respond to any concerns. This requirement is in line with the provisions of the Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 in South Africa.

HEALTH RISK MANAGEMENT IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT

In the South African Government, health risk management became common practice mainly due to the findings of the Auditor-General's Performance Audit (2005) of the management of sick leave benefits in national and provincial departments. This Audit revealed serious problems associated with health risks management in general and the management of sick leave in particular. In virtually all government departments the Audit revealed that a number of procedural issues were incorrectly applied, especially that the information on PERSAL was inconsistent with the number of sick leave days utilised, and that supervisors were not managing sick leave effectively. It further became evident that the financial value of mismanaged sick leave and ill-health retirement approvals had not been considered as lost revenue by accounting officers.

Another significant finding was that in terms of the prescripts for the management of sick leave, provisions only existed for temporary and permanent disability leave, once the sick leave credit had been exhausted. After that, employees could qualify for medical retirement. The lack of explicit regulations led to a situation where some employees exploited the system by feigning illness and ended up leaving the public service on the grounds of ill-health. It was also found that the Employee Assistance Programme (EAP) did not form part of a human resource strategy to address the well-being of employees to proactively reduce sick leave levels (AG Report 2005:18). The Audit findings prompted the Department of Public Service and Administration to develop a Management Policy and Procedure on Incapacity Leave and Ill-health Retirement (PILIR) for Public Service employees. The PILIR was approved in November 2005 and implemented in 2006.

Health risk management in the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education

This study focused on the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education (KZN DOE) as case study with multiple units of analyses. These units of analysis include staff in two district offices, including general human resource practitioners, health risk professionals, and educators.

KZN DOE is the biggest department in the province with a total budget of R42,142 billion allocated in the 2015/16 financial year. This represents 41.3% of the total budget of the provincial government. The largest share of the Department's budget allocation (82.8%), is for the provision of personnel (Scott 2015/16:21). Furthermore, the KZN DOE has an organisational structure that is designed to respond to core strategic objectives. However, there are inherent organisational challenges as well as environmental influences that have to be taken care of on an ongoing basis. The stress, sick leave, incapacity leave and absenteeism are some of the challenges that have to be managed by the relevant managers. Wexley and Yukl (1977:13) concede that despite all the pressures exerted upon an organisation, the values and behaviour of the organisation's members are generally shaped by their cultural background. In others words, educators' cultural belief systems and values may prevail over that which is inconsistent with what their work-related objectives are. This is essentially in keeping with the occupation of educators whose overall work performance has to navigate through learners with different personalities, attitudes, psychological issues and levels of aptitude. They also have to deal with pressures from the National Department of Education in relation to new measures aimed at improving teaching and ultimately, the matric results. Therefore, educators' behaviour is critical to the success of the KZN DOE. In essence, the environment and support systems are the cornerstones for the general well-being of educators and learners. The benefit to be derived from this would be healthy educators and reduced utilisation of sick leave and application for incapacity leave.

One of the fundamental challenges that the KZN DOE faces is absenteeism amongst educators. Ordinarily educators who experience significant levels of pressure and anxiety to deliver excellent results may be stressed and depressed. Inevitably, such feelings have the potential to result in the over-application of sick leave. In severe cases, this could lead to incapacity and hence long periods of absence. Stress should be avoided by all means as it may have a negative effect upon organisational behaviour as well as individuals' health. However, stress levels may not always be easily detected or measured and this could lead to absenteeism, staff turnover, coronary heart disease and viral infections (Kinicki and Fugate 2012:165).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The empirical investigation into the challenges associated with the implementation of the health risk management strategy in the KZN DOE followed a qualitative research design in an interpretivist research paradigm. A case study design was further utilised with two units of analysis (i.e. sites), namely the Pinetown as well as Umlazi District Offices. Semi-structured interviews were utilised as data collection instrument to elicit the purposively sampled participants' perceptions, experiences, challenges and views on the implementation of health risk management strategies and programmes. The content of the piloted Interview Schedule was based on an extensive literature survey, departmental document analysis (e.g. an analyses of sick leave reports from PERSAL, PILIR reports from the Health Risk Manager, as well as reports from the Employee Health and Wellness Manager), international best practice, and the stipulations of statutory and regulatory prescripts. The principles of data and source triangulation were thus utilised to verify the extent to which these practices and prescripts are applied in the KZN DOE.

Five participants were selected on the basis of their human resource management positions within the KZN DOE (i.e. senior management, including the Head of Department, middle management, and operational level educators). Another participant was selected based on his/her health risk management responsibilities (i.e. Health Risk Manager). One other participant was selected due to the fact that some health risk-related matters were outsourced to an independent external service provider. The total sample was seven (*n*=7).

Table 1: Biographical information

Participant	Years of service	Designation
1	24	Head of Department
2	37	Senior Manager: HR Services
3	32	Senior Manager: HRD and Employee Wellness
4	25	Deputy Manager: HR Services – Pinetown District Office
5	20	Deputy Manager: HR Services – Umlazi District Office
6	37	Principal Personnel Officer – District Office
7	19	Health Risk Manager

For purposes of comparative analysis, participants 1, 2, 3 and 7 were categorised as "Group 1" and participants 4, 5 and 6 as "Group 2". By following the phases of thematic analysis as guided by Braun and Clarke (2006), three main themes emerged from the data, namely:

- challenges associated with leave management and policy implementation (theme 1);
- general employee health and wellness management (theme 2); and
- managerial aspects associated with a health risk management strategy (theme 3).

Some input obtained overlap with other themes, but are inextricably linked as the analysis of findings below clarifies.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Based on the thematic analysis of the research findings, the challenges, general employee health and wellness, as well as managerial aspects associated with the implementation of the health risk management programmes and strategies, the following themes of findings emerged:

Location and displacement

Issues of poor school infrastructure and lack of resources influence the displacement of educators were cited by 14% of participants. This aspect is compounded by the fact that the Policy on Post-Provision Norm has negatively influenced the attendance of educators. Annually, the KZN DOE adjusts its educator allocations according to fluctuation of pupil enrolments at schools guided by Section 2.4 of the Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998, read in conjunction with the Personnel Administrative Measures of 1998. The objective of this process is to ensure that the Post-Provision Norm, which is currently 1 educator to 31 learners, is maintained. In terms of the process, those educators found to be in excess are transferred to other schools. The negative outcome of this process impacts in numerous ways on the lives of the affected educators, particularly financially, due to incurring additional travelling costs. Moreover, the newly allocated school might be under-resourced, thereby affecting the transferred educator's ability to provide effective teaching and learning. These issues are cited as reasons why affected educators become stressed, depressed and eventually take sick leave.

Beyond location, displacement was another factor of concern to participants, where the pervasive political dynamics influence some educators' decision

on displacement as cited by 29% in Group 1 and 14% in Group 2. The same participants added that educators generally abuse the Policy on Post-Provision Norm by declaring themselves displaced when they encounter problems at a particular school or in their immediate residential area and decide to stay at home. In essence, despite the KZN DOE not sanctioning their move, they attempt to transfer themselves. Should they not have their requests met, they decide to absent themselves on the pretext of being sick.

Workload and work stress

Eighty-six percent (86%) of the participants from both groups emphasised that the situation of inadequate human resource capacity has led to excessive workloads. Employees become overwhelmed with work, exacerbated by pressures and deadlines that need to be met. Performing additional duties to ensure that teaching and learning are not compromised by the absence of staff, further results in stress and fatigue. This confirms the opinion of Partab (2010) that the physiological effects of stress like fatigue and headaches ultimately impair functioning and contributes to job burnout. Moreover, the ratio of educator to learner in most public schools is acknowledged as being fairly disproportionate, which evidently contributes to stress.

Another salient point raised by two participants (29%) in Group 2 is that existing staff in the Leave Section are also pressurised and proceed to take sick leave which severely compromises the output and workflow of the entire unit. They are generally susceptible to psychological stress which has the potential to affect their ability to produce quality work and meet critical deadlines. While attempting to cope under demanding circumstances, they unwittingly place themselves under duress.

Pinpointing health risk factors

There seems to be a generally inability of supervisors to closely monitor the sick leave tendencies of staff. Twenty-nine percent (29%) of participants confirmed that this makes it difficult for KZN DOE to determine underlying health risk factors. In this regard Muller *et al.* (2011:290) pinpoint some common harmful socio-psychological conditions which may result in low quality of work life, including stress, dissatisfaction, apathy, withdrawal, tunnel vision, forgetfulness and inner confusion about roles. While it could be argued that staff have a responsibility to inform their supervisors of the reasons for their regular absence, this can only be achieved when trust exists. This is confirmed by Robbins (2001) who states that trust should be at the centre of a working relationship, because parties are able to share information and discuss issues of importance openly with an understanding

that confidentiality will prevail. However, this trust seems to be compromised in the relationship between supervisors where information about sick leave is not shared. There could be deeper, more complex underlying health risk factors which cause educators to absent themselves without reporting and also of failing to confide in their supervisors.

In addition to ill-health concerns, 28% of participants were of the opinion that educators are experiencing serious financial challenges which have a negative impact upon their well-being. This in turn has led to excessive use of sick leave and abuse of policies by resigning or applying for early retirement, only to apply for re-appointment once they received their pension benefits. It is therefore noteworthy that there are health risk factors which have to be assessed for the benefit of the KZN DOE so that effective strategies to manage health risks are implemented. Although some of the problems are beyond the capacity of KZN DOE in terms of resolution, it is vital that a conducive work environment be established which is supportive and empathetic to the affected individuals. The success of the implementation process of health risk management strategy is dependent upon the full understanding of the health status of educators.

Poor management of sick leave processes

Seventy-one percent (71%) of the participants explained that the problem of managing sick leave effectively was pervasive across all levels of management. Three participants (43%) in Group 1 mentioned that poor management of sick leave has attracted the attention of the Auditor-General. It seems that the processing of leave forms is at the core of the problem. Some sick leave forms were submitted late from schools leading to backlogs in the Leave Administration Section. Two participants (29%) in Group 2 were of the view that the principals' lack of urgency to ensure that sick leave forms arrive timely at the Circuit Office as soon as they had been signed was highly problematic.

Another shortcoming as far as the late submission of sick leave forms is concerned, is the implications upon the health condition of the affected employees. An audited and updated sick leave profile is imperative when granting incapacity leave in instances where sick leave had been exhausted. Such sick leave profiles are also critical in the event where alternative placement is advised by the Health Risk Manager and more importantly, it keeps all members of staff aware at all times of their sick leave credits. According to 58% of participants, when sick leave records are not updated, incorrect assumptions are made with regard to sick leave credits, resulting in staff taking sick leave even when they no longer have sufficient sick leave credit.

There was a poignant issue mentioned by three participants (43%) in Group 2 that school principals were somehow enthusiastic when submitting applications

for substitute educators, with the majority of vacancies caused by educators on sick leave. However, instead of submitting both the application for substitute educator and the sick leave forms for the educator to be substituted, they would only submit the application for substitute educators. They added that principals were applying for substitute educators at an alarming rate, as more educators are booked off sick, resign, or apply for early retirement. This has placed the KZN DOE in a predicament where it has been compromised by having to reappoint educators who had left the service within 12 months as substitute educators. Often the Department find itself reappointing educators who had just resigned or taken early retirement. While it is acknowledged that the interests of the learners take precedence, it is equally important that sick leave management is not compromised by the failure to attach sick leave forms to the application for appointment of a substitute educator. There are also other conditions attached to the re-appointment of educators after a break in service in accordance with HRM Circular 72 of 2010.

The majority of participants (58%) concurred that the Human Resource Management Unit should promote compliance with sick leave policies and procedures, most supervisors are still ignoring critical provisions of sick leave directives and the PILIR. They elaborated by stating that supervisors are effectively responsible for ensuring that those absent from work report accordingly, complete the necessary sick leave forms, submit medical certificates and submit sick leave forms to the district office within the specified timeframes. Proper leave management enjoins supervisors to also keep their own sick leave registers which helps keep track of sick leave used and sick leave credit available. It also helps to expedite the process of planning the appointment of substitute educators.

The same participants raised concerns about certain school principals who fail to attend workshops arranged by the Human Resource Management Unit (HRMU) on sick leave management. Some principals would send representatives who sometimes distort information when providing feedback. The effect of this is that principals are generally ill-informed on new processes, procedures and regulations. Fourty-three percent of participants also mentioned that sick leave reports are never discussed at management meetings, which is a risk that has to be addressed, as sick leave has serious financial implications for the Department. Procedurally, the HRMU can only process sick leave and incapacity leave applications once they have been received from the principals and supervisors. They have to stick to the stipulated provisions, particularly timeframes to ensure that capturing and updating sick leave records remain on track. Therefore sick leave management is essentially a dual responsibility between a supervisor and supervisee. Two participants in Group 2 further stressed the need to improve documentation and maintenance of sick leave records, as well as the need to improve infrastructure at circuit offices.

Abuse of sick leave

The abuse of sick leave occurs in numerous ways, including failure to complete sick leave forms and feigning sickness. One participant (14%) in Group 1 and two participants (29%) in Group 2 mentioned that some educators used sick leave as an excuse to express their anger or unhappiness about their supervisors or workplace. The sick leave directive provides for absence without the submission of the medical certificate for one or two days. This provision is sometimes exploited when an educator does not feel like going to work. Others would submit medical certificates on a regular basis, even if they are effectively not sick but reacting to a particular matter they were aggrieved about, as stated by three participants (43%). There were diverse thoughts on the actual reasons why educators take sick leave. However, it is evident that general dissatisfaction and unhappiness at work, as well as financial problems were notable causal factors.

Fourty-three percent of participants further mentioned that non-compliance with sick leave policies compromises the administrative process of capturing and updating leave and eventually leads to increased audit queries. It also adds to the administrative burden, since educators who are not at school or who failed to report for duty for 14 days are deemed to have been dismissed. Once they are dismissed they promptly present themselves which then requires another process of reinstatement.

Issues raised under the theme *Employee and Wellness Management* can be summarised as follows:
- lack of information;
- the need for advocacy and promotion of the Department's health and wellness programmes;
- lack of resources for the promotion of the Department's employee assistance programme; and
- limited collaboration with all health risk management stakeholders.

The most significant issues raised under the theme *Management of the health risk management strategy,* include the following:
- limited policy implementation capacity;
- voluminous incapacity leave forms leading to excessive administrative burden;
- lack of understanding of the significance of health risks on the Department;
- limited promotion of employee wellness; and
- high demands due to the workload of employees.

Based on the research findings the significance of the following challenges associated with the successful implementation of the Department's Health Risk Management Strategy can be highlighted.

Figure 1: Core health risk management challenges
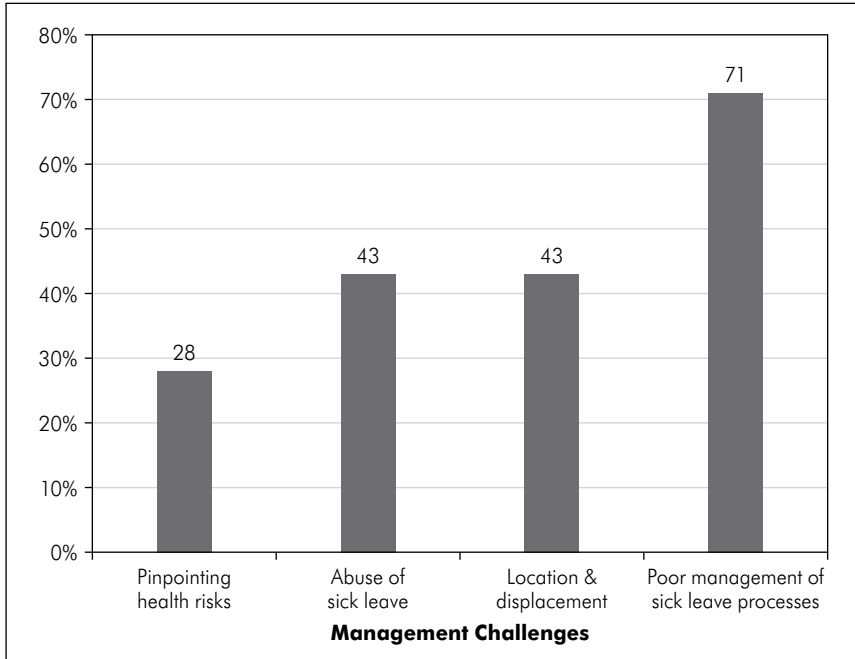
RECOMMENDATIONS TO IMPROVE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF HEALTH RISK MANAGEMENT PROGRAMMES AND STRATEGIES

Based on data triangulation and the empirical verification of the challenges experienced by the KZN DOE to successfully implement its health risk management programmes and strategies, the following recommendations are suggested to address them.

Health risk management strategies and wellness programmes

With regard to health risk management strategies and wellness programmes offered by the Employee Health and Wellness Unit, advocacy should be improved with a view to increase access to these programmes and to encourage educators to utilise it more often. In order to achieve maximum benefit from wellness programmes, it is recommended that an on-site cluster of all wellness services be established within district offices. Such clusters should include mental health

assessments, given that mental and behavioural disorders are high on the list of the disease profile of the Department.

Sharing of information relating to employee assistance programmes between officials at Head Office and district offices has to be improved and engagement on relevant activities should be strengthened. The KZN DOE must also promote the employee assistance programmes as part of an effort to build trust and confidence with possible alleviation of stigma associated with employee assistance programmes. Wellness programmes should be extended to all district offices and schools for the health benefit of all educators, as the impact would be detrimental for learners. There should be constant monitoring of all wellness programmes in order for management to remain sensitive to the health and wellness of educators.

Identified health risk factors through health risk assessments should be deliberated at management meetings, so that the overall functioning of the Department is not compromised. Stakeholder meetings should be strengthened and held on a monthly basis to assess the impact of the wellness programmes. Health promotion should be enforced through regular wellness events, as they have a potential to build confidence and eradicate stigmatisation of wellness programmes. The KZN DOE should utilise internal communication effectively, so that all the good work achieved by the Employee Health and Wellness Unit and its partners filters throughout the entire Department and district offices. Supervisors and managers should sign an undertaking that they would treat all information in strict confidence.

Workload, capacity and work stress

The KZN DOE has to reprioritise its financial allocations in line with the austerity measures or consider shifting of funds from non-essential services, so that sufficient funds become available to expedite the process of filling vacant posts. Each district office should have a Wellness Practitioner to facilitate the implementation of the Employee Assistance Programme in the Department. As a short term measure, administrative personnel in circuit offices closer to district offices should be seconded to assist with leave capturing at certain intervals to ameliorate the problems of delays in leave administration. This measure may have the additional benefit that it could empower circuit administration personnel with PERSAL skills, knowledge, and general exposure to the health risk management system.

With regard to schools, the Department needs to revisit the Post-Provision Norm and the enrolment policy. If the approved ratio is 1:31 and the situation in some classes is 1:70, it suggests that serious flaws exist within the system of school enrolments. In addition, schools with inadequate capacity should be identified by

district managers and measures be put in place to assist them with the necessary support. An audit of the employee health and wellness programmes is furthermore necessary to gain insight into the effectiveness of these programmes.

Management of sick leave

The Head of Department has to ensure that principals and supervisors provide lists of educators who have taken leave during the month. The HRMU furthermore has to report principals and supervisors who constantly fail to attend workshops regarding health risks and leave management. A refresher training or workshop on the provisions of the PILIR and sick leave directives should be arranged for educators to ensure that complaints of lack of knowledge, mismanagement and non-compliance are addressed.

Principals should be advised that for any application for a replacement educator to be approved, it should be accompanied by the sick leave or incapacity leave forms of the educator being replaced. A sense of responsibility and ethical behaviour should also be inculcated by the executive management in the Department. The strengthening of sick leave policies and directives should be given attention with a view to introduce stricter punitive measures against those found to have abused sick leave. Consideration should also be given to limit the number of days for temporary incapacity leave. Reporting protocols need to be strengthened and technology be used to ensure that loopholes are not used as an excuse for non-compliance.

Health programme implementation

A task team comprising of DPSA, human resource practitioners and the health risk manager should be established to consider the concerns of both the employer and the employees in relation to the implementation of PILIR.

Management meetings on EAP and wellness

The executive management of the Department should ensure that employee health and wellness reports, including health risk assessment reports are standing items on the agenda of executive management meetings. The executive management should furthermore meet with the Health Risk Manager at least quarterly, to interrogate amongst others, a health risk assessment report and disease profile. Employee health and wellness needs to be treated as a strategic matter deserving of the executive management serious attention at all times. Employee health and wellness reports should provide the KZN DOE with valuable information in terms of the health status, disease profile and health risk factors affecting

educators. It is also recommended that the head of the Employee Health and Wellness Unit provides executive management with monthly health risk profiles of all employees.

General operational conditions

Schools with adequate capacity should be used as "capturing points" for sick leave. The PERSAL system should be installed and staff appointed to receive and capture sick leave for all schools within identified areas. Once all the capturing is done, leave forms should be submitted to the district offices for updating of records, auditing, and filing. If better resourced schools cannot be used as capturing points, circuit offices should capture leave records.

Location and placement of educators

It is recommended that the Department appoint a task team to investigate the negative consequences of educator transfers. Such a task team should also work with the Labour Relations Unit to ensure that disputes arising from educator displacements flowing from the Post-Provision Norm processes as well as general grievances at schools are addressed amicably and resolved within reasonable time.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this article was to report on the findings obtained through a literature survey and empirical study conducted among managers and educators within the KZN DOE and a participant from an independent service provider. The aim of the study was to determine challenges faced by the KZN DOE in the effective implementation and health risk management programmes and strategies to curb absenteeism. From the findings, it can be concluded that although the Department generally institutionalised health risk management through the PILIR, the abuse of sick leave is still prevalent. This study brought to the fore the fact that the implementation and management of the health risk management strategies and programmes of the KZN DOE have not yet yielded the anticipated policy outcomes as initially intended. Recommendations to address implementation challenges and full compliance by all health risk management role-players could lead to a more integrated approach premised upon managerial, clinical, medical, actuarial and legal principles. Effective implementation of health risk management strategies and programmes could rid the Department of educators with ill-intentions of manipulating the sick leave system.

NOTE

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