

200

A NORMATIVE MODEL FOR MANAGING ORIENTATION PROCEDURES FOR  
EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT PUBLIC PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN  
POST-APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA

A thesis presented to the Department of Public  
Administration in the Faculty of Commerce and  
Administration at the University of Durban-Westville in  
fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor  
of Administration

by

IGNATIUS WILHELM FERREIRA 200/120

Promoter: Professor M.S. Bayat

Co-Promoter: Dr H.F. Wissink

March 1996

T960015

IN HUMBLE SUBMISSION TO ALMIGHTY GOD

D E C L A R A T I O N

I, the undersigned, declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work, and has not previously in its entirety or in part been submitted at any university for a degree.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Ignatius Wilhelm Ferreira', with a long horizontal flourish extending to the right.

Ignatius Wilhelm Ferreira  
March 1996

"THERE IS NO SUBSTITUTE FOR TRAINING"

August Bequai

A NORMATIVE MODEL FOR MANAGING ORIENTATION PROCEDURES FOR  
EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT PUBLIC PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN POST-  
APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA

SUMMARY

Promoter : Professor M.S. Bayat  
Co-promoter : Dr H.F. Wissink  
Degree : Doctor Administrationis  
Faculty : Commerce and Administration  
University : University of Durban-Westville

In the **first chapter** the problem regarding a lack of orientation training in the government service is comprehensively explained, and the broad research goal is stated, supported by major study objectives. Certain key questions are asked, whereafter the research methodology is comprehensively explained.

In the **second chapter** the factors that led to the implementation of discriminatory personnel administration practices in the government services in apartheid South Africa are explained. This chapter attempts to provide answers to certain key questions pertaining to the fundamental factors that gave rise to institutionalised apartheid policies and practices in the central government service in apartheid South Africa.

In **chapter three** a theoretical basis for the management of orientation procedures is explored. This includes an explanation of the role of philosophy, including a reference to a philosophical base for Public Administration, as well as various viewpoints on the subject.

Public Administration theory is explained in chapter three. This is followed by an explanation of a theory for personnel management and a theory for the management of orientation procedures. This chapter attempts to provide an answer to the key question relating to the present paradigmatic status of Public Administration and also researches an appropriate approach to the discipline that could be adopted to meet the requirements of this study.

**Chapter four** explores theories of attitude change and human behaviour, including orientation for attitude change. An explanation of theories of resistance to change follows, which includes a number of self-interest theories, personality theories, social psychological theories, and an appraisal of change theories. The importance of knowledge of the various theories of human behaviour and resistance to change for this study, is pointed out.

**Chapter five** provides a comparative overview of discrimination and affirmative action in selected countries. In this chapter the key question of which of the existing theoretical criteria for the normalisation of society would be suitable as bases

for the implementation of effective and efficient orientation procedures, is explained. The possibility of utilising such criteria as behaviour modification instruments for public managers for the implementation of affirmative action and equitable public personnel management practices in post-apartheid South Africa is explored.

**Chapter six** researches affirmative action and orientation procedures particular to South Africa. In this chapter the question of discrimination in South Africa, with special reference to discrimination in the South African government service, is explained. Affirmative action as a concept and the necessity for the formulation and implementation of an official policy for affirmative action are explained at length. Finally, an overview of examples of certain past orientation programmes in the South African government service is given.

**Chapter seven** reviews the empirical survey, the research methodology for the empirical survey as well as the interpretation of the research findings. In this chapter, the research methodology used during the empirical survey is explained. Secondly, the operationalisation of the survey questionnaire used for gathering the data needed for analysis and interpretation is explained. Thirdly, the survey data is presented and explained.

**Chapter eight** contains a brief overview of model theory as well as illustrations and an explanation of selected models for training and orientation. This include a proposed normative model for the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa. A comprehensive model that could serve as a basis to accommodate the managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel administration in post-apartheid South Africa, is proposed in this chapter. It also attempts to provide answers to key questions about the nature and extent of existing orientation procedures in the central government service.

In **chapter nine**, the final chapter, proposed answers to the final question are furnished, namely that of whether arguments could be constructed for the general application of the proposed normative model for the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel administration in post-apartheid South Africa. This chapter consists of, *inter alia*, a summary of the various chapters of the thesis, certain conclusions that were arrived at during the study, as well as a number of proposals that emanated from the research.

Proposals are submitted on the following aspects:

1. REPRESENTATIVITY.
2. FEMALE REPRESENTATION.
3. DISABLED REPRESENTATION.



4. ORIENTATION TRAINING FOR MANAGEMENT.
5. PRIORITY OF ORIENTATION TRAINING.
6. BUDGETING FOR ORIENTATION TRAINING.
7. DIFFERENT ORIENTATION PROGRAMMES FOR NEW AND EXISTING OFFICIALS.
8. CO-ORDINATION OF ORIENTATION PROGRAMMES.
9. UNIFORMITY OF ORIENTATION TRAINING.
10. ASSISTANCE BY SENIOR OFFICIALS WITH ORIENTATION TRAINING.
11. FREQUENCY OF ORIENTATION TRAINING.
12. TIME OF ORIENTATION TRAINING.
13. ORIENTATION FOR LANGUAGE USAGE AND COMMUNICATION.
14. DURATION OF ORIENTATION TRAINING.
15. LOCALITY FOR ORIENTATION TRAINING.
16. RDP CONTENT OF ORIENTATION TRAINING.
17. STATUTORY BASIS OF ORIENTATION TRAINING.
18. CENTRAL ORIENTATION TRAINING COMMITTEE.
19. DECENTRALISED ORIENTATION UNITS.
20. REGULAR REPORTING ON PROGRESS WITH ORIENTATION TRAINING.
21. ANNUAL REPORTS TO PARLIAMENT ON ORIENTATION TRAINING.
22. URGENCY OF INSTITUTING ORIENTATION TRAINING PROGRAMMES.

A NORMATIVE MODEL FOR MANAGING ORIENTATION PROCEDURES FOR  
EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT PUBLIC PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN POST-  
APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA

AFRIKAANSE OPSOMMING

Hoofstuk een behels die identifisering van die probleem aangaande oriëntering in die staatsdiens, verduideliking van die breë navorsingsdoelwitte en sleutelvrae, asook die navorsingsmetodologie.

Hoofstuk twee behandel die faktore wat tot rassediskriminasie in die staatsdiens in Suid-Afrika gelei het.

Hoofstuk drie ondersoek die teoretiese basis van die studie. Die rol van filosofie, asook 'n paradigmatische benadering tot publieke administrasie word verduidelik. Personeelbestuur en oriëntering word behandel.

Hoofstuk vier ondersoek teorieë van houdings en houdingsveranderings. Teorieë van menslike gedrag word verduidelik, binne die konteks van die onderwerp van die studie.

Hoofstuk vyf beskryf, op 'n vergelykende basis, aspekte van diskriminasie en regstellende aksie in verskillende lande. Die toepaslikheid van internasionale studies oor normalisering van samelewings op die Suid-Afrikaanse situasie word ondersoek en verduidelik.

**Hoofstuk ses** beskryf diskriminasie en regstellende aksie in Suid-Afrika. Voorbeelde van oriënteringsprogramme word verduidelik.

**Hoofstuk sewe** beskryf die empiriese navorsing, die vraelys, die metodologie van die administrering van die vraelys, die statistiese ontleding van die response op die vraelys, sowel as die interpretering van die empiriese navorsingsresultate.

**Hoofstuk agt** beskryf kortliks modelteorie, vertoon geselekteerde modelle vir opleiding en oriëntering, sowel as 'n voorgestelde normatiewe model vir die bestuur van oriënteringsprosedures in die staatsdiens.

**Hoofstuk nege** voorsien 'n opsomming van die navorsingsverslag, met 'n oorsig van die verskillende hoofstukke, sowel as 'n bepaalde toekomsvisie, wat binne die konteks van die aanbevelings in die hoofstuk beskryf word. Bepaalde gevolgtrekkings en finale aanbevelings word in hierdie finale hoofstuk gemaak.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The following people are thanked for their assistance, encouragement and contributions to the completion of this thesis:

**Professor M.S. Bayat**, Department of Public Administration, Faculty of Commerce and Administration, University of Durban-Westville, for his professional mentorship.

**Dr H.F. Wissink**, Departmental Head, Department of Public Administration and Law, Commerce and Public Management, Port Elizabeth Technikon, for his motivation and leadership.

**Members of the Research Committee** of the Port Elizabeth Technikon, for their support, financial and otherwise.

**Mr J.N.C. van Zyl**, Dean, Faculty of Marketing, for his support.

**Mr C. Bosma**, Statistician, Port Elizabeth Technikon, for his professional advice and assistance.

**The administrative and academic staff** of the Port Elizabeth Technikon for their valued assistance.

**Miss M. Nel**, senior translator at the Port Elizabeth Municipality, who undertook the language editing.

All the respondents to the questionnaire, for their sincerity, and willingness to respond.

Contact persons at the nine provincial government services, as well as at the central government departments, including the Public Service Commission.

My wife, Alta, and our three children for their sacrifices during the study period, and for their continued love and support.

My late parents, who gave me life.

My three brothers, Chris, Tom and Jan, for their support and encouragement.

Family, friends and colleagues, for their support and encouragement.



I.W. Ferreira  
Port Elizabeth  
March 1996

CONTENTS

<u>CHAPTER 1</u>		27
<u>GENERAL INTRODUCTION - RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH</u>		
1.1	INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND	27
1.2	STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	32
1.2.1	Statement of the broad research goal	35
1.2.2	Setting of study objectives	36
1.3	KEY QUESTIONS PERTAINING TO THE RESEARCH	38
1.4	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	39
1.4.1	Theory and literature search	40
1.4.2	Empirical survey	40
1.4.3	Normative model construction	41
1.4.4	Data interpretation and proposals	41
1.5	DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH	42
<u>CHAPTER 2</u>		43
<u>BRIEF ANALYSIS OF CAUSAL FACTORS OF RACIAL DISCRIMINATION IN SOUTH AFRICA</u>		
2.1	INTRODUCTION	43
2.2	ETHNOCENTRISM WITH REFERENCE TO A BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF ETHNIC OCCUPATION OF SOUTH AFRICA	44
2.2.1	Occupation of the Southern African territory by Europeans	48
2.2.2	Occupation of the country by indigenous peoples	42
2.2.3	The influence of African-Nationalism on South Africa	55
2.3	THE EVOLUTION OF RACIAL DISCRIMINATION IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT SERVICE / THE EMPOWERMENT OF THE AFRIKANER IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT UP TO 1993	58
2.3.1	The role of the Afrikaner Broederbond	58
2.4	AN OVERVIEW OF VIEWPOINTS OF RACIAL	

		15
	DISCRIMINATION IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT SERVICE	63
2.5	DISCRIMINATORY PROVISIONS IN STATUTORY AND SUBORDINATE DIRECTIVES PERTAINING TO DEPARTMENTS	72
2.5.1	Overview of statutory and subordinate provisions pertaining to racial discrimination in the central government service of South Africa	79
2.6	FEMALES	83
2.7	SUMMARY	84
	<u>CHAPTER 3</u>	86
	<u>THEORETICAL BASIS FOR MANAGING ORIENTATION PROCEDURES</u>	
3.1	INTRODUCTION	86
3.2	THE ROLE OF PHILOSOPHY IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES	87
3.3	A PHILOSOPHICAL BASE FOR PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	90
3.3.1	Approaches to the paradigmatic development of Public Administration	91
■	The generic approach	93
■	Marais' critique of J.J.N. Cloete's approach	95
■	The systems approach	98
■	The public management approach	109
3.3.2	New Public Administration Initiative	111
3.3.3	Motivation for initiating a new approach	113
3.3.4	Development management	118
3.3.5	Policy analysis	123
3.3.6	Management of change as a supplementary process	127
■	The public manager as a change agent	128
■	Resistance to change	129
■	Behaviour modification	130

		16
■	The managerial grid	131
■	Non-directive counselling	131
■	Sensitivity training	132
■	Transactional analysis	132
3.4	<b>A THEORY FOR PUBLIC PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT</b>	133
3.5	<b>A THEORY FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF ORIENTATION PROCEDURES</b>	144
3.5.1	Advantages of orientation	146
■	Cost-effectiveness	148
■	Reduction of stress and uncertainty	149
■	Reduction in the turnover of labour	149
■	Development of a positive attitude	150
■	Responsibility for orientation	150
■	The contents of the orientation programme	152
■	The orientation programme	153
■	Formal management training programmes	157
■	Assignment and follow-up	159
■	Cost/benefit analysis for orientation	160
■	Features of orientation	163
■	Evaluation of orientation	164
■	Implications for trainers	166
■	Incidental benefits of orientation	167
3.6	<b>SUMMARY</b>	168



CHAPTER 4THE NATURE OF ATTITUDES AND THEORIES OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR AND RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

4.1	INTRODUCTION	170
4.2	THE NATURE OF ATTITUDES	171
4.3	THEORIES OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR	176
4.3.1	The Field theory	176
4.3.2	The Expectancy theory	177
4.3.3	The Equity theory	178
4.4	ORIENTATION FOR ATTITUDE CHANGE	180
4.5	THEORIES ON RESISTANCE TO CHANGE	181
4.5.1	Self-interest theories	182
■	The inertia/homeostasis theory	182
■	Fear and insecurity theories	183
■	Power theories	184
4.5.2	Personality theories	184
■	Conservatism	185
■	Prejudice	186
4.5.3	Social Psychological theories	186
4.5.4	Appraisal of change theories	188
■	Moderating factors in the environment (external factors)	189
■	Moderating factors in the person (internal factors)	191
■	The hardy personality	192
■	Other factors	194
4.6	SUMMARY	197

		18
<u>CHAPTER 5</u>		198
<u>A COMPARATIVE OVERVIEW OF DISCRIMINATION AND AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN SELECTED COUNTRIES</u>		
5.1	INTRODUCTION	198
5.2	RACIAL CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO ROODE	199
5.3	INDIA	201
5.3.1	Discrimination in India	202
5.3.2	Affirmative action in India	203
5.4	SRI LANKA	210
5.4.1	Discrimination in Sri Lanka	211
5.4.2	Affirmative action in Sri Lanka	214
5.5	MALAYSIA	216
5.5.1	Discrimination in Malaysia	218
5.5.2	Affirmative action in Malya/Malaysia	219
5.6	UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	224
5.6.1	Discrimination in the United States (1)	224
5.6.2	Affirmative action in the United States (1)	226
5.6.3	Discrimination in the United States (2)	226
5.6.4	Affirmative action in the United States (2)	236
5.7	RELEVANCE TO SOUTH AFRICA OF THE OTHER COUNTRIES' EXPERIENCES WITH AFFIRMATIVE ACTION	242
5.8	SUMMARY	244
<u>CHAPTER 6</u>		247
<u>DISCRIMINATION, AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AND ORIENTATION PROCEDURES IN SOUTH AFRICA</u>		
6.1	INTRODUCTION	247
6.2	RACIAL DISCRIMINATION IN SOUTH AFRICA	248
6.3	THE NEED FOR AFFIRMATIVE ACTION TRAINING IN SOUTH AFRICA	257

		19
6.4	AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN SOUTH AFRICA	258
6.5	ORIENTATION PROCEDURES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT SERVICE	274
6.6	SUMMARY	281
	<u>CHAPTER 7</u>	283
	<u>THE EMPIRICAL STUDY</u>	
7.1	INTRODUCTION	283
7.2	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	283
7.2.1	The normative survey method	287
■	Collecting the data (1)	289
■	The population and the sample	289
■	The introduction of bias	289
■	Organisation and presentation of data	291
■	Collecting the data (2)	291
7.3	THE STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE	293
7.3.1	The essence of questionnaire design	295
■	Structured and open-ended questions	295
7.3.2	Independent variables	297
7.3.3	Dependent variables	297
7.3.4	Statistics	302
■	The mean	302
■	The median	303
■	Frequency distribution and the Pearson chi-square test	303
■	Skewness factor	303
■	Analysis by explanatory variables	304
7.4	INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS	304
7.5	SUMMARY	387

CHAPTER 8OVERVIEW OF MODELS FOR ORIENTATION AND A PROPOSED NORMATIVE MODEL FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF ORIENTATION PROCEDURES FOR EFFECTIVE PUBLIC PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN POST-APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA

8.1	INTRODUCTION	389
8.2	ELEMENTS OF MODEL CONSTRUCTION	389
8.2.1	The orientation model of Dessler	392
8.2.2	The sequential model	394
8.2.3	The results-orientated HRD model	394
8.2.4	The survey-feedback model	397
8.2.5	Tracey's systems flow-chart model	399
8.2.6	Management model of the South African Management and Development Institute	401
8.2.7	Orientation model 1	403
8.2.8	Orientation model 2	406
8.3	A NORMATIVE ORIENTATION MODEL FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF ORIENTATION PROCEDURES FOR EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT PUBLIC PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT	409
8.3.1	The management of change	413
8.3.2	Destabilising forces	416
■	Prejudice	417
■	Discrimination	418
■	Racism	419
■	Sexism	421
■	Crime	422
■	Ignorance	423
8.4	SUMMARY	425

	21
<b><u>CHAPTER 9 - CONCLUSIONS AND SUMMARY</u></b>	427
9.1 CONCLUSIVE SUMMARY	
9.2 BRIEF OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS	427
9.2.1 Chapter 1	428
9.2.2 Chapter 2	429
9.2.3 Chapter 3	429
9.2.4 Chapter 4	430
9.2.5 Chapter 5	430
9.2.6 Chapter 6	430
9.2.7 Chapter 7	431
9.2.8 Chapter 8	431
9.2.9 Chapter 9	432
9.3 Vision for the future	432
9.4 PROPOSALS	436
9.5 SUMMARY	447
ANNEXURES 1 - 12	450
<b><u>LISTS OF FIGURES, TABLES, AND GRAPHS</u></b>	
<b>FIGURES</b>	
Figure 1 The evolution of Public Administration in South Africa	92
Figure 2 Environment system 1	101
Figure 3 Environment system 2	103
Figure 4 Schwella's model	104
Figure 5 Public Management model of Fox et al	109
Figure 6 Dubrin's Organisational Staffing Model	135
Figure 7 Personnel Management model	143
Figure 8 The Field Theory	177
Figure 9 The Change Cycle	195

		22
Figure 10 - 16 - Step training and development system		400
Figure 11 The Management Training Model of SAMDI		402
Figure 12 Orientation Model 1		404
Figure 13 Orientation Model 2		407
Figure 14 Orientation Model 3 (Normative Orientation Model)		411
<b>TABLES</b>		
Table 1	Results of disempowerment	47
Table 2	Senior Management in the Public Sector	65
Table 3	Total employees in the government service in relation to managerial posts' incumbents	73
Table 4	Overview of discriminatory measures	80
Table 5	The Generic Approach	94
Table 6	Wissink's model of Policy Analysis	126
Table 7	Generic Competency Model	136/137/138
Table 8	Key developments in affirmative action in the USA	239
Table 9	White males as a percentage of highest paying jobs in the USA	240
Table 10	Anti-discriminatory measures due for review in the USA	241
Table 11	Attributes of the senior government official	249
Table 12	Racial imbalances in the government service	249
Table 13	Mean and Median statistical analysis	306
Table 14	Statement 1 (Frequency distribution and skewness)	308
Table 15	Statement 2	309
Table 16	Statement 3	310
Table 17	Statement 4	311
Table 18	Statement 5	312
Table 19	Statement 6	313
Table 20	Statement 7	314

Table 21	Statement 8	315
Table 22	Statement 9	316
Table 23	Statement 10	317
Table 24	Statement 11	318
Table 25	Statement 12	319
Table 26	Statement 13	320
Table 27	Statement 14	321
Table 28	Statement 15	322
Table 29	Statement 16	323
Table 30	Statement 17	324
Table 31	Statement 18	325
Table 32	Statement 19	326
Table 33	Statement 24	327
Table 34	Statement 21	328
Table 35	Statement 22	329
Table 36	Statement 23	330
Table 37	Statement 24	331
Table 38	Statement 25	332
Table 39	Statement 26	333
Table 40	Statement 27	334
Table 41	Statement 28	335
Table 42	Statement 29	336
Table 43	Statement 30	337
Table 44	Statement 31	338
Table 45	Statement 32	339
Table 46	Statement 33	340
Table 47	Statement 34	341
Table 48	Statement 35	342

Table 49	Statement 36	343
Table 50	Statement 37	344
Table 51	Statement 38	345
Table 52	Statement 39	346
Table 53	Statement 40	347
Table 54	Statement 41	348
Table 55	Statement 42	349
Table 56	Statement 43	350
Table 57	Statement 44	351
Table 58	Statement 45	352
Table 59	Overall skewness	353
Table 60	Statement 13 (gender)	357
Table 61	Statement 13 (posts)	357
Table 62	Statement 13 (language)	357
Table 63	Statement 24 (gender)	358
Table 64	Statement 24 (posts)	358
Table 65	Statement 24 (language)	358
Table 66	Statement 33 (gender)	359
Table 67	Statement 33 (posts)	359
Table 68	Statement 33 (language)	359
Table 69	Statement 43 (gender)	360
Table 70	Statement 43 (posts)	360
Table 71	Statement 43 (language)	360
Table 72	Statement 45 (gender)	361
Table 73	Statement 45 (posts)	361
Table 74	Statement 45 (language)	361
Table 75	Desler's model	393
Table 76	Sequential model	394



Table 77	Results-oriented	395
Table 78	Survey-feedback	397

**BAR GRAPHS**

Bar graph 1	Statement 1	308
Bar graph 2	Statement 2	309
Bar graph 3	Statement 3	310
Bar graph 4	Statement 4	311
Bar graph 5	Statement 5	312
Bar graph 6	Statement 6	313
Bar graph 7	Statement 7	314
Bar graph 8	Statement 8	315
Bar graph 9	Statement 9	316
Bar graph 10	Statement 10	317
Bar graph 11	Statement 11	318
Bar graph 12	Statement 12	319
Bar graph 13	Statement 13	320
Bar graph 14	Statement 14	321
Bar graph 15	Statement 15	322
Bar graph 16	Statement 16	323
Bar graph 17	Statement 17	324
Bar graph 18	Statement 18	325
Bar graph 19	Statement 19	326
Bar graph 20	Statement 20	327
Bar graph 21	Statement 21	328
Bar graph 22	Statement 22	329
Bar graph 23	Statement 23	330
Bar graph 24	Statement 24	331
Bar graph 25	Statement 25	332
Bar graph 26	Statement 26	333
Bar graph 27	Statement 27	334
Bar graph 28	Statement 28	335
Bar graph 29	Statement 29	336
Bar graph 30	Statement 30	337

Bar graph 31	Statement 31	338
Bar graph 32	Statement 32	339
Bar graph 33	Statement 33	340
Bar graph 34	Statement 34	341
Bar graph 35	Statement 35	342
Bar graph 36	Statement 36	343
Bar graph 37	Statement 37	344
Bar graph 38	Statement 38	345
Bar graph 39	Statement 39	346
Bar graph 40	Statement 40	347
Bar graph 41	Statement 41	348
Bar graph 42	Statement 42	349
Bar graph 43	Statement 43	350
Bar graph 44	Statement 44	351
Bar graph 45	Statement 45	352
<b>Graph 1</b>	<b>Overall skewness</b>	354
Bar graph 47	S13 gender	357
Bar graph 48	S13 posts	357
Bar graph 49	S13 language	357
Bar graph 50	S24 gender	358
Bar graph 51	S24 posts	358
Bar graph 52	S24 language	358
Bar graph 53	S33 gender	359
Bar graph 54	S33 posts	359
Bar graph 55	S33 language	359
Bar graph 56	S43 gender	360
Bar graph 57	S43 posts	360
Bar graph 58	S43 language	360
Bar graph 59	S45 gender	361
Bar graph 60	S45 posts	361
Bar graph 61	S45 language	361

**BIBLIOGRAPHY**

## CHAPTER 1

### GENERAL INTRODUCTION, RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH

#### 1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

According to Government Gazette No. 16414 (1995:4), the Government of National Unity (hereafter referred to as the GNU) inherited a society marked by deep social and economic inequalities, as well as by serious racial, political and social divisions.

Guided by the principle of national reconciliation, the government adopted the Reconstruction and Development Programme (hereafter referred to as the "RDP") as the main policy instrument to reconstruct, which, *inter alia*, means to reorient and unite the South African society in a common purpose to overcome many of the political, social and economic problems of the past and to ensure a stable transition to growth and development of all the peoples of South Africa.

In forging ahead with the processes of reconciliation, reconstruction and development, the South African government service has a major role to play. To fulfil this role effectively, the government service will need to free itself from its past practices, which were steeped in apartheid, to be transformed into a much more coherent, representative, competent and democratic instrument for executing new government policies and meeting the needs of

all citizens.

The government's commitment to the above process is demonstrated by the fact that in the RDP White Paper (ANC, 1994) administrative transformation is identified as one of its top five strategic priorities, along with education, health, housing and land claims.

A first step in this direction was taken by the new government through the introduction of the Public Service Act of 1994 (Procl. 103/1994), which created the basis for integrating the fragmented system of state administrations inherited from the apartheid era into a unified national public service. Much more needs to be done, however, in transforming the government service into an instrument capable of achieving the crucial goals set out in the RDP White Paper in line with the objectives of the GNU (Government Gazette No. 16414, 15 May 1995:4).

In order to bring about the changes in the process of policy implementation as envisaged by the GNU, it is considered as imperative that all the management cadres in the government service should be neutral and impartial without unfair prejudice or discrimination. This is regarded as necessary for the execution of all the facets of its spheres of influence as well as for the purpose of this research project, and, in particular, of public personnel management and orientation practices.

The above is stated against the background of four decades of implementation of apartheid policies by government officials loyal to the previous Nationalist-based government.

The proposed research is based on the assumption that existing orientation procedures in the South African government service are inadequate for proper orientation of public service personnel on all post levels.

The ultimate goal of orientation training is the effective and efficient implementation of the policies of the GNU, that would bring about the general welfare of all the inhabitants of South Africa. This assumption includes the view that, because of their inherent defects, the present approaches to orientation procedures in the government service cannot bring about the necessary behaviour modification and changes in attitudes of certain management cadres to implement normalisation and affirmative action policies that will be part of a post-apartheid South Africa.

The above assumption is based on the current demographic personnel composition of the management cadres of the government service, which is inextricably linked to certain attitudes of certain management cadres in the government service. These attitudes are based on the fact that a dominant cultural and ethnic group is currently

employed as senior officials in the various central government departments (Bayat and Meyer, 1994:130).

The necessity for an attitude change among public administrators in terms of a new, democratic political dispensation is stressed by Bayat et al (Bayat in Bayat and Meyer, 1994:9) as follows:

" ... public administrators must take cognisance of these developments and make their contributions by changing their attitudes and creating an environment that is conducive to change as South Africa moves towards a post-apartheid society ... ".

The abovementioned assumption also includes the view that a certain bias exists against females and disabled individuals that may preclude those groups from competing on an equal basis for available posts or promotion opportunities in the government service.

McLennan explains in the above regard that the representation of women in senior management structures in the government service does not correspond with the percentage distribution of women among the eligible voters in South Africa (McLennan in Bayat and Meyer, 1994:138).

The previously described situation is particularly applicable during the execution of public policies, where certain fundamental foundations and guidelines of public administration, inter alia fairness and reasonableness, probity, taking of balanced decisions, and the upholding

of democratic requirements, carry a specific weight where the general welfare is concerned (Cloete, 1986:9-33).

If the foregoing statements are accepted, then it could be assumed that the current ideological inheritance that for decades was part of the government official's daily assignment, resulted in particular attitudes to certain ethnic and cultural groups in the management cadres of the government service.

The above view is substantiated by Carstens and Ngutshane (Carstens and Ngutshane in Bayat and Meyer, 1994:252) when they state that:

" ... the current civil service senior management establishment would be one of the target groups of reform ... ".

Picard states that (Picard in Bayat and Meyer, 1994:261):

" ... efforts will have to be made to reorientate the public service towards development management and social service delivery for the whole population ... ", and " ... such efforts will have to include a strategy of retraining within the civil service ... ".

The above view is confirmed in a report on a speech by the East Cape Director-General, Mr T. Botha, when he stated on 2 August 1995 that racial tension and conflict would result if white government officials did not change their attitudes towards serving the new government. He also stated that his provincial government was unhappy with the

"high degree of apathy" among former (white) government officials (Botha, 1995:2).

The assumption can be made that intensive orientation procedures will have to be implemented to induce new and existing officials to comply with the personnel management requirements of post-apartheid South Africa. It is imperative that such orientation procedures be implemented as soon as possible by the GNU. This will facilitate the smooth transition from the previous discriminating public personnel practices to normalised personnel practices.

This chapter contains the proposed motivation and research methodology that will be followed by the researcher to ascertain the present status of orientation practices in the government service, as well as possible improvements thereto.

## 1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The problem to be researched is the assumed lack of effective and efficient orientation procedures for new and existing personnel in the central and provincial government service of South Africa. These are deemed vital to meet the requirements of effective and efficient public personnel management in a post-apartheid environment. This assumption is made as a result of specific needs regarding various facets of personnel management



identified in the RDP of the GNU (RDP, 1994:127).

(Henceforth the Reconstruction and Development Programme will be referred to as the "RDP").

These needs are summarised as follows:

- The elimination of historical inequities in public sector employment.
- The launching of a programme of affirmative action, that must include training and support to those previously excluded from holding responsible positions in the government service. According to the RDP (ANC, 1994), within two years of the implementation of the affirmative action programme, public sector recruitment and training should reflect South African society in terms of race, class and gender.
- The transformation of the Civil Service Training Institute to train new employees and retrain existing government service employees as required by the RDP. The word "retrain" used in the RDP (ANC, 1994) is interpreted as including those officials who are currently occupying managerial posts in the government service. This group would also include those officials who were obliged to carry out the policies of the previous government in terms of entrenching statutory elements of racial discrimination.

The retraining mentioned above should pertain to elements of departmental legislation, as well as to aspects of public personnel management. This training should, *inter alia*, focus on attitude changes that would make the successful implementation of the RDP possible.

An indication that the current GNU is aware of possible opposition to the RDP by senior managers in the government service was given by Minister J Naidoo, Minister without Portfolio on 9 July 1994. He stated in a paper delivered to a Gauteng conference on development planning that the government would not tolerate any government official who attempted to sabotage the RDP (Reporter, Die Burger, 1994: 2).

The requirements of the RDP are also linked to the following deficiencies in government service in general:

- Lack of centralised orientation procedures in the civil service.
- Lack of an insight into the structure and composition of the institutions responsible for determining the legislative framework that serves as policy guidelines for public officials on various levels of policy making.

- Lack of a work ethic in the average public official.
  
- The continued maintenance of prejudicial and discriminatory practices in all facets of public personnel management regarding the current demographic personnel composition of the management cadres of the government service. This deficiency is considered to be linked to ethnocentric attitudes in current management cadres towards different cultural and ethnic groups employed as officials in the various government departments. This perceived dysfunctional condition (problem) also includes the view that a certain bias exists against females and disabled individuals that may preclude those groups from competing on an equal basis for available promotion posts in the government service.

#### 1.2.1 Statement of the broad research goal

This research proposes to investigate the management of orientation procedures by senior managers on various post levels for the execution of effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa.

### 1.2.2 Setting of study objectives

The above broad research goal will be achieved by setting the following study objectives:

- To describe the present paradigmatic dilemma of Public Administration as an academic discipline.
- To describe various approaches to Public Administration and to decide on an approach to the subject that would facilitate the development and description of a normative model for managing orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa.
- To provide a brief analysis of the philosophical, historical and political factors that led to the introduction of legalised and institutionalised discriminatory personnel management practices in the government service of South Africa.
- To describe a philosophy of and a theoretical basis for orientation procedures within a public personnel management context.
- To describe discriminatory practices in selected countries on a comparative basis to South Africa as well as to give an overview of remedial measures, such

as affirmative action, implemented to rectify past injustices and the degree of success achieved therewith.

- To extract and describe from existing theory criteria for effective orientation procedures that can be utilised as a behaviour modification instrument for public managers to bring about fair and equitable public personnel management practices in post-apartheid South Africa.
- To describe certain theories and methods of attitude change.
- To describe the nature and extent of orientation, including various models of orientation and also a comparative study of orientation procedures.
- To analyse the results of the empirical survey undertaken among senior managers in the government services of the nine provinces and in selected departments of the government service and to report thereon.
- To describe existing orientation procedures in the government service.

- To develop and propose a normative model for managing personnel orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa.
  
- To draw conclusions and submit proposals that may contribute to the managing of personnel orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa.

### 1.3 KEY QUESTIONS PERTAINING TO THE RESEARCH

The following key questions pertain to this research:

1.3.1 What are the key factors that gave rise to institutionalised apartheid policies and practices in the government service in apartheid South Africa?

1.3.2 How does this research fit into the currently accepted paradigm of the discipline?

1.3.3 What are the existing theoretical criteria for effective orientation procedures that can be utilised as a behaviour modification instrument to guide public managers in the implementation of policies/strategies such as affirmative action and equitable public personnel management practices in South Africa?

1.3.4 What are the experiences of other countries, with particular reference to India, Sri Lanka, Malaysia and the United States of America, regarding discrimination and affirmative action and how do those experiences compare with the South African situation?

1.3.5 What is the nature and extent of existing personnel orientation procedures in the South African government service?

1.3.6 Can a normative model be constructed to accommodate the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa?

1.3.7 Would it be possible to apply the proposed normative model to personnel orientation management in the central and provincial government services in South Africa?

#### 1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research consists of the following four aspects:

- Theory and literature search, consisting of primary and secondary sources of existing information published in articles and in textbooks as well as in other secondary sources.

- Empirical survey.
- Normative model construction.
- Data interpretation and recommendations.

These aspects are explained as follows:

#### 1.4.1 Theory and literature search

A literary study of available texts comprising a study of relevant books, articles in journals and papers, interviews and other applicable published materials.

#### 1.4.2 Empirical survey

A survey of the attitudes towards certain orientation practices and other viewpoints of senior managers in the nine provincial government services as well as in selected central government departments.

The survey will be conducted on two managerial levels:

- Chief directors and higher management.
- Directors.

The responses will be recorded on a five-point Likert scale by utilising a structured, self-administered



questionnaire. The same questionnaire will be used for both categories of management cadres, while the data interpretation will consist of the following:

- Determining relative values pertaining to criteria that emerged from the survey and transferring the data in codified form to a computer data-base (Statistica).
- Interpreting and analysing the data obtained, by utilising statistical methods of analysis.

#### 1.4.3 Normative model construction

Following the literature study and empirical research, a normative model for managing orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa will be constructed and proposed.

#### 1.4.4 Data interpretation and proposals

This aspect of the research will attempt to interpret the various findings of the empirical survey in view of existing theory. A synthesis of the various conclusions and proposals of each chapter into a combined summary of proposals will be posed.

### 1.5 DEMARCATION OF THE RESEARCH

The research is limited to the nine provincial government services and selected departments of the central government service.

The following chapter will briefly analyse certain factors that led to the introduction of legalised and institutionalised discriminatory personnel management practices in the government service in South Africa.

## CHAPTER 2

### BRIEF ANALYSIS OF CAUSAL FACTORS OF RACIAL AND OTHER DISCRIMINATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Yinger (1969:542) describes a term "ethnocentrism", defined by William Graham Sumner, as a view of the world:

"in which one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it" (Yinger, 1969:542).

Taking into account the evolution of society in South Africa in general and the development of governmental structures since European settlers set foot on Southern African soil in 1652, the identification and description of the term "ethnocentrism" has particular relevance for the study of the management of orientation procedures by managers on various post levels in the government service of South Africa.

It is regarded as imperative that effective orientation procedures be implemented and maintained to prevent the negative effects of the ethnocentric attitudes of certain management cadres in the government service. This is particularly necessary in respect of personnel practices with regard to officials and proposed officials of different ethnic origins as well as of those individuals occupying senior managerial posts in the various government departments.

To gain insight into the various social and demographic forces that shaped the present disposition of the complex society in South Africa, this chapter will briefly analyse certain factors that led to the introduction of legalised and institutionalised discriminatory personnel management practices in the government service in South Africa.

## 2.2 ETHNOCENTRISM WITH REFERENCE TO A BRIEF HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF ETHNIC OCCUPATION OF SOUTH AFRICA

According to Yinger (1969:542), the ancient Greeks and Romans regarded all outsiders as "barbarians". This attitude can be observed in contemporary society, where nations usually assume that their cultural patterns are "right" and "proper", while the practices and beliefs of others are acceptable only to the extent that such views may correspond with those of one's own group.

The term ethnocentrism often implies a belief in the superiority of a particular group, such as members of a religious movement, a social class or a specific ethnic group within a larger society. Ethnocentrism thus may imply prejudice, intolerance, and discrimination between groups of cultural entities (Yinger, 1969:546).

From the individual's point of view, ethnocentrism is simply a belief in what he or she have been taught and readily accepts, because it identifies him or her as a "good" group member, enhances self-esteem and facilitates interaction with other members of the group.

Ethnocentrism serves to reinforce the normative systems of particular societies by affording it credibility in the eyes of the majority, justifying their real life existence in particular and their fundamental beliefs about life in general.

Ethnic culture is a complex and painfully acquired lifestyle whereby the members have had to battle with problems of survival, security, and social interaction. According to Yinger (1969:542) a belief that supports this system has value under certain conditions. However, when problems of security and social interaction involve continuous interdependent contact between ethnocentric groups, a belief in the superiority of a particular society may be a serious obstacle to the satisfaction of the very needs from which it originally grew.

In South Africa a pattern of ethnocentricity has been clearly recognisable since 1652, when Europeans first

settled on the Southernmost tip of Africa. The evolution of European cultural patterns in South Africa has resulted in contemporary society here being burdened with an ideological inheritance that has permeated through all its layers. This inheritance includes most legislative and executive institutions established since 1652.

The abovementioned phenomenon of "ethnocentrism" can be observed even in the present time in governmental structures in South Africa. It can therefore be stated that in South Africa the occurrence of ethnocentrism manifested itself in an extreme ideology, termed what is commonly known today as "apartheid".

The ideology and philosophy of apartheid served to divide the various communities in the country, polarising groups, causing untold hardships and serving as a catalyst for the proliferation of disadvantaged and disempowered communities among the peoples of South Africa (Bayat, 1991:7).

Bayat, **et al** (1994:189) provides statistics as illustrated in Table 1 to indicate the results of the disempowerment of the majority of the peoples of South Africa regarding employment of various groups in the government service in

this country.

Table 1 - Results of disempowerment

SENIOR EMPLOYMENT IN THE GOVERNMENT SERVICE BY RACE AND INCOME CATEGORY					
Income	White	Coloured	Asian	Black	% White
R165 001 +	29	0	0	0	100,0
R120 000 - R165 000	3	0	1	0	75
R110 001 - R120 000	91	1	0	0	98,9
R87 001 - R110 000	720	5	5	2	98,4
R74 001 - R87 000	1945	17	55	12	95,9
R49 001 - R74 000	13596	1509	1055	397	82,1
R38 001 - R49 000	21809	2147	1952	814	81,6
R29 001 - R38 000	42048	4974	3389	3119	78,6
<b>Total</b>	<b>80241</b>	<b>8653</b>	<b>6457</b>	<b>4344</b>	<b>80,5</b>

The above figures become meaningful when one considers that, in spite of only one in every four citizens in the country being white, that group comprised as recently as 1992, 80,5% of the senior employment groups in the government service of South Africa.

According to Moolman (1976:1) people of European descent entered South Africa from the South at Table Bay. From there the settlement extended eastwards. It was a Dutch-speaking stream that for more than a century made no significant contact with indigenous peoples. By 1770, the flow of Europeans was stopped in the vicinity of present-day East London by a stream of indigenous people

moving southwards. This large-scale contact situation gave rise to an increasing number of clashes between indigenous peoples and Europeans that were complicated by internal clashes between the Dutch and the English and, in respect of the indigenous peoples, by tribal clashes.

The clashes between the Dutch and the English gave rise to the Great Trek, during which most of the Dutch-speaking Europeans in the Eastern Cape migrated northwards. This movement led, inter alia, to a rapid occupation of the interior of South Africa and also to many new black-white confrontations (Moolman, 1976:1).

#### 2.2.1 Occupation of the Southern African territory by Europeans

According to Joyce (1990:8), official segregation according to race and class in South Africa already existed during the time of Jan van Riebeeck in 1652. A need for people to assist at the settlement for the production of fresh fruit and vegetables and other food for the European travellers to the East led to the importation of slave labour by Van Riebeeck.

From as early as 1658, thousands of slaves were imported from Guinea and Angola on the west coast, from Delagoa Bay on the East coast, from Madagascar, Java, and from the Malayan archipelago. This process continued, and by 1795, when the British first occupied the Cape, the slave



population had grown to approximately 17000, a figure larger than that of the European community. As the Europeans reached the part of the country hitherto occupied by the Xhosa and other indigenous peoples, periodic confrontations flared up as a result of competition for land and livestock.

By the end of the Dutch era, the Europeans were in control of vast tracts of territory up to the Fish River in the East and half-way to the Orange River in the North. The pattern of European dominance was established during this pioneering phase. Europeans owned most of the land and they were in authority at every level of administration and of the economy.

The status of indigenous people was by law largely restricted to that of labourer. Segregation became firmly entrenched. Social mixing between races gradually diminished during the eighteenth century, and those who still married across the colour line were already shunned by the establishment.

The Dutch Reformed Church began to keep separate baptismal records and from about 1820 onwards started the practice of holding separate church services for Europeans and indigenous peoples. Slavery and the large pool of cheap and submissive labour created a general belief among Europeans that they were an innately superior race, that

the menial work was to be done by the indigenous people, and that a race-based and white-dominated social order had been pre-ordained.

In the nineteenth century Sir Theophilus Shepstone contrived his own version of territorial apartheid with the introduction of a pass system to control the movement of indigenous peoples. During 1894, the Glen Grey Act was passed, which delivered individual land tenure and a form of self-government to the Transkeian territories. The Glen Grey Act represented a shift in British policy from the belief that Europeans and indigenous peoples could live together to the decision that they could not and that separate development was the solution to racial conflict (Joyce, 1990:8-9).

The events described above eventually led to the evolution of the legally-supported "apartheid state" that would become the vehicle for the repression and subjugation of the indigenous peoples of South Africa.

The manifestation of the European influence was evident in the different approach of the Europeans to the infrastructural evolution in the colonised territories that developed since colonisation began. This influence also made itself felt around the world in countries such as India, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Australia and the United States of America, all countries where the traditional

lifestyles of the various indigenous peoples were destined to change dramatically through European intervention.

According to Moolman (1976:1), the occupation of the land by Europeans was characterised by several factors. Firstly, the Europeans, in accordance with European custom, regarded the land they took possession of as their own property. This occupation process continued unabated until most of the country was divided into a large number of farms, smallholdings and town stands which, except for certain areas of state-owned land, were privately owned.

Secondly, the Europeans utilised the natural resources of the country on a large scale and established an impressive infrastructure of roads, railways, power lines and telecommunications. For a long time the development of agricultural resources remained the focus, but mineral, water, and other resources were subsequently also exploited.

Towns and cities were laid out. Many new activities, such as teaching, professional services, commerce and industry, and administration, were introduced country-wide (Moolman, 1976:3). Europeans, with the aid of indigenous labour, welded the variety of rural and urban activities into an economy that, over the years, developed to become a strong, extensive and nationally integrated economy (Moolman, 1976:3).

Thirdly, Europeans continued to develop political structures that were consolidated to form greater units according to their perception of the democratic model. During the era of the French Revolution the first two republics in South Africa were founded. In their wake followed about ten other republics and numerous colonies that emerged and disappeared until, in 1910, all the political units united to form the Union of South Africa. In 1961, the Union became the Republic of South Africa (Moolman, 1976:3).

#### 2.2.2 Occupation of the South African territory by indigenous peoples

According to Moolman (1976:3) indigenous peoples entered the country in various migratory waves from the north over a period of several centuries. Indigenous peoples left no written records of their history, and details of their migrations had to be reconstructed later. What is known, however, is that the Nguni stream migrated southwards through the eastern parts of the country and was the first to come into contact with Europeans. Streams of Sotho-speaking people, on the other hand, occupied the South African highlands and had already settled there when the Europeans arrived at the Cape in 1652 (Moolman, 1976:3).

The nature of the occupation of the land by indigenous people differed completely from that of Europeans.

Firstly, the indigenous peoples, with their African background, and African way of life, did not take possession of the land as private property, but as communal or tribal property. Secondly, they did not develop a consolidated economy, but built up many small subsistence economies around tribal organisations. Furthermore, they did not develop the country's natural resources on a scale comparable with that of the Europeans or established a national infrastructure. They did not consolidate to form greater political units, but continually fragmented into tribal units with hereditary systems of authority. In a few cases, larger combinations were established.

The military rule of Shaka over practically the entire area of present-day Natal is an example, but his rule lasted only about a decade, after which the Zulu empire disintegrated, partially because of internal forces and partially because of the presence of the Europeans. The process of occupation and the long drawn-out contact situation between Europeans and indigenous peoples eventually crystallised into a number of important phenomena.

Firstly, the European and indigenous streams flowed into one another so that the various groups co-existed without actually integrating. This co-existence of people

occurred because many indigenous peoples established themselves first on the farms, and later in the towns and cities founded by Europeans. Most of the indigenous peoples, however, remained in the tribal areas, which later became reserves and still later homelands.

As it became increasingly difficult to maintain the African way of life, the tribal areas shrank to the low point reached at the end of the last century. By that time, the European governments in South Africa had realised that the process whereby Europeans took possession of indigenous areas as their private property by such means as purchase, negotiation and conquest could no longer be allowed.

Several commissions were appointed to delimit indigenous "reserves" in which Europeans were prohibited from possessing land. But the European occupation of the land and the fragmentation of the tribal areas was by then irreversible.

Literally hundreds of reserves, tribal farms, private indigenous farms, and concession areas for mission stations existed throughout the country. There were even so-called labour farms owned by Europeans on which indigenous peoples lived as if the land were tribal land. The Tomlinson Commission of 1954 investigated this state of affairs and presented the then government with various

proposals in this regard (Moolman, 1976:4).

### 2.2.3 The influence of African Nationalism on South Africa

In the 20th century, the whole world order changed radically. In the aftermath of the two world wars, the "winds of change" raged over Africa. Colonialism was rejected, and what had once been legitimate, became reprehensible.

For almost a century the colonial powers had maintained their African colonies merely by implanting a small white population that usually represented less than one per cent of the indigenous population. These powers, however, now began to withdraw from Africa, and more than forty independent African states emerged virtually overnight.

Concepts such as self-determination, majority rule, human rights and "one man one vote" acquired a powerful new meaning. Indigenous peoples were no longer content to accept a European-styled destiny and there was a national awakening everywhere on the Continent. Almost overnight, a new Africa emerged. South Africa was not prepared for these developments. Since the advent of the British during the Napoleonic era, the political scene had been dominated by English-Afrikaans strife and confrontations.

The issue of black-white relationships was largely

ignored. South Africa was plunged into a dilemma. Decolonisation as in the rest of Africa, namely a withdrawal of the European administration, was impossible because the then four million Europeans (18 per cent of the population) had, over the centuries, developed separately from Europe, despite the contacts they had maintained.

The Europeans had become an integral part of South Africa, yet the traditional pattern of the contact situation between the Europeans and indigenous peoples was obviously no longer acceptable. In the new contact situation, new adjustments had to be made. Most of the Europeans in South Africa had placed a high premium on the preservation of their identity and values. This situation reached near-fanatical proportions amongst the largest group among them, the Afrikaners (Moolman, 1976:5-6).

Since early in the century white supremacists saw separate but equal development as the only means of preserving their own identity and appearing democratic in the eyes of the nations of the outside world, who began to view the situation in South Africa with increasing apprehension.

The policy of separate development was nevertheless carried out after the Nationalists came to power in 1948. Several bantustans and national states were subsequently



established. In spite of the eventual failure of the policy of separate development, or "apartheid", as it became known, its implementatation caused untold misery to most people of colour in this country.

Bayat (1991:7) proposed that:

" ... it (caused) the majority of the population of this country to see public servants as collaborators in the dispensation of hurtful apartheid measures ... " (Bayat (1991:7)).

FitzGerald (1993:16) illustrates this point further by stating that:

" ... the majority of potential clients (of the government service) were denied basic human rights on the basis of race. We all know that this majority consisted of people who were not only second-class citizens, politically, but third-class customers as far as the provision of public services and typical civil service attitudes were concerned. There can be no doubt that the South African public service constitutes a clear example of an archetypal caste organisation ... " (FitzGerald (1993:16)).

After this very brief overview of certain historical events in South Africa, attention can now be directed to the evolution of racial discrimination within the government service of South Africa.

### 2.3 THE EVOLUTION OF RACIAL DISCRIMINATION IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT SERVICE / THE EMPOWERMENT OF THE AFRIKANER IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT UP TO 1993

When searching for examples of racial discrimination in the South African government service, it is necessary to unearth the factors that determined the beginnings of the policies of separate development.

Two questions that can be asked within the context of the origins of separate development in South Africa, are: **what modus operandi did the Afrikaner use to free himself from British rule and how and why did he adopt the policy of separate development?**

To answer the above questions, reference is made to a book written by J.H.P. Serfontein on the "Brotherhood of Power", which clinically analyses the factors that led to the Afrikaner's rise to power and the eventual policies adopted to ensure Afrikaner supremacy and exclusivity.

#### 2.3.1 The role of the Afrikaner Broederbond

The evolution of Afrikaner domination and the policy of separate development can be found in the early documents of the Afrikaner Broederbond, an organisation which, as early as 1935, had formulated racial policies that would be adopted when the National Party gained power in 1948.

According to Serfontein (1978:10) the Afrikaner Broederbond is a secret organisation established on June 5, 1918, to further Afrikaner interests. The establishment of the organisation was the result of strong Afrikaner Nationalism, that became even stronger because of British rule in South Africa. The humiliation, on a daily basis, of Afrikaans speakers by the English welded the wave of nationalism into an all-consuming force that had as its mission, the shaking off of the chains of British domination at all costs.

The Broederbond became all-powerful and had as its primary mission the preservation and promotion of Afrikaner interests in all walks of life, from education, through religion, politics, commerce, and the government service. This included the replacement of the English-speaking government officials appointed by the British since the Anglo-Boer war (1899-1902), by Afrikaners. In spite of the original mission of the Afrikaner Broederbond being limited to opposing everything British, certain European influences in the build-up to the second World War, notably those of Nazi-Germany, twisted the viewpoints of certain leaders of the organisation towards the ideal of National Socialism, and, with that ideal, towards the doctrine of racial purity, or, in this context, the so-called superiority of the European race.

During 1935 the Broederbond expressed itself in favour of racial segregation (Serfontein, 1978:29). Mention was made of this policy, according to Serfontein (1978:45) in a 16 page document written by a Professor A.N. Pelzer, then a senior Broederbond member, and read on 1 October 1968 in a jubilee speech that explained certain historical factors of the policy of separate development formulated by the Broederbond during the pre-war period. The speech clearly spelled out the official viewpoint of that organisation regarding the racial question in South Africa:

" ... by 1935 the AB (Afrikaner Broederbond) had already formulated a policy that ... can be regarded as crucial in this respect ... total mass segregation should not only be stated as the ideal, but also should be the immediate practical policy of the State ... "  
(Serfontein, 1978:45).

A prominent "Broeder", pointed out at a meeting of the executive council of the Afrikaner Broederbond held on November 3, 1939 the necessity for:

" ... civil service organisations to be conquered and retained for the "volk" (meaning white Afrikaners) by means of secret reform organisations ... ".

By 1941, according to Serfontein (1978:50) the Policy Committee of the Broederbond had drafted a constitutional blueprint. The document was an undisguised blueprint of Afrikaner imperialism, laying the foundations of a state where the Afrikaner would dominate the government service

as well as all walks of life. By 1943 the Broederbond had already infiltrated the government service with prominent Broederbond members in key positions in government departments (Serfontein, 1978:64).

The doctrine of National Socialism of Nazi-Germany was closely followed by a number of senior Broeders and was seen by many Broederbonders as a means of escaping from the British influence. Serfontein (1978:64) mentions ties the Afrikaner Broederbond had with Germany since the mid-30's and the fact that prominent Broederbond members such as N. Diederichs (later Minister of Finance in the Nationalist government), P. Meyer (later Chairman of the SABC Board) and H. van Rensburg (leader of the Ossewabrandwag, a pro-Nazi National Socialistic organisation during the Second World War), had visited Germany before the Second World War to closely study Nazi propaganda techniques, manipulation of public opinion and infiltration of government and other public bodies.

According to Serfontein (1978:64) a special report was submitted to General Smuts on November 4, 1941, by an unnamed clerk who had worked for the Broederbond for three years:

" ... he discovered its true aims and resigned in disgust...".

The abovementioned clerk wrote that he eventually discovered that the real aim of the Afrikaner Broederbond was to recruit and enrol officials in **key positions** in the Police, Railways, Post Office, Education and "**other government departments**". This implies that the government service **in its totality** was targeted for the implementation of the aims and goals of the Afrikaner Broederbond.

Serfontein (1978:64) further writes that a report entitled "Afrikaner Broederbond" by Dr E.G. Malherbe, Military Intelligence Chief of the then Smuts government, written on March 29, 1944, stated the following on pages seven and eight:

" ... Ever since the arrival of the first Nazi agents disguised as scientists, educationists etc, the Afrikaner Broederbond has become intensely interested in the Nazi system. Dr Diederichs and a specially selected Stellenbosch student were sent over (to Germany) to study National Socialism. Both of them qualified in the Nazis' Anti-Komintern training school."

In addition to the above, a judge found in 1941 that Dr Verwoerd had:

" ... made himself the tool of Nazi propaganda in the Union ... " (Serfontein, 1978:66).

Serfontein (1978:66) also describes how Dr Verwoerd himself, the "grand architect of apartheid" at a Jubilee meeting in 1943 expressed virulent anti-British and anti-Semitic sentiments and demanded that:

" ... the Afrikaner Broederbond must gain control of everything it can lay its hands on in every walk of life in South Africa. Members must help each other to gain promotion in the civil service or any other field of activity in which they work with a view to working themselves up into important administrative positions ... ".

The above evidence is borne out by the fact that P.S. Rautenbach, then Chairman of the Planning Committee for State of the Afrikaner Broederbond, held the post of Chairman of the Commission for Administration until the early eighties. Prominent members of the Afrikaner Broederbond were since 1948 appointed to key positions in all government departments and semi-state institutions on all three levels of government. It is possible that some of them still occupy these positions.

#### 2.4 AN OVERVIEW OF VIEWPOINTS OF RACIAL DISCRIMINATION IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT SERVICE

It is intended in this section to give the viewpoints of prominent South Africans on the government service. This is regarded as necessary to place the question of the necessity of deliberating on orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa in its proper perspective.

After the broad perspective on discrimination in the government service has been considered, with the help of those mentioned above, examples of racial discrimination in legislation and other directives pertaining to

government officials and employees during the time when the race discrimination ideology was at its most prominent during Nationalist Party rule will be described.

For the purposes of this research, the practice of public administration is viewed from the perspective of the central and provincial government service. This affords special importance to the statement by Bayat (1991:7), that the traditional approach to the practice of public administration has deeply divided and polarised the people of South Africa.

According to Bayat (1991:7), the reality of the South African practice of public administration played an important part in the formulation of policies on entrenching the ideology of racial discrimination.

Carstens and Ngutshane in Bayat and Meyer (1994:253), state that partisan reforms in the South African bureaucratic structures may elicit a strong reaction from government officials and not do justice to the idea of a non-partisan government service. The top echelons of the bureaucracy in the South African government service could inhibit administrative and other reforms and impede the implementation of new policies. Their past allegiance to the governing National Party would make them a target group for administrative reform.



Should the top managers not participate in the reform process, the exercise could be in jeopardy. These comments underscore the assumption that resistance to change may exist in respect of the new democratic governmental dispensation.

According to Bayat and Wissink in Bayat and Meyer (1994:272), the hegemony of white Nationalist politics favoured Europeans in the current composition of the senior ranks of the government service. Bayat and Wissink in Bayat and Meyer (1994:273) furnish the following figures to substantiate their statement:

**Table 2 - Senior management in the public sector**

White	Black	Indian	Coloured
80241	4344	6457	8653

A special edition of the official journal of Idasa and the Institute for Multi-Party Democracy, DSA, "Reconstruction of the State", edited by Van Zyl Slabbert, contains a number of articles on the present government service in South Africa by noted academics and prominent South Africans.

To gain a better understanding of the research problem selected extracts from the articles mentioned above, are reproduced here. The reproductions are not necessarily

verbatim, but due references are made to the original authors of the relevant articles.

Cloete (1993:6) states that the current public service is experiencing a severe legitimacy crisis. Although only a minority of public officials are elderly, white, Afrikaner males, they tend to occupy virtually all the major management positions in the public service. This is the outcome of the ideals/strategies of the Afrikaner Broederbond described previously. Cloete adds that the public service has not only faithfully adopted the National Party's grand apartheid policies, but has assisted the executive in fashioning these ideologies into more feasible policy action plans (Cloete, 1993:6).

Ncholo (1993:8) envisages new constitutional provisions on equality and non-discrimination that will compel the government service into employment equity. The government service will have to become an equal opportunity employer. No longer will it be possible to cater only for a limited constituency.

Ncholo (1993:8) further explains that government service employment will have to reflect the socio-political and socio-economic composition of the entire South African nation. The government service will be required to rationalise staffing levels while at the same time creating opportunities for those who have previously been

excluded (Ncholo, 1993:8).

Lungu (1993:12) explains that apartheid created a bureaucracy to serve its own ends and that an undisputed need exists to reform it towards democratic ideals. The realisation of this goal may be problematic, because, as Latieb (1993:14) points out:

" ... assuming that current civil servants will be retained, one cannot underestimate the ability of their upper ranks to manipulate and obstruct new policy orientations and the implementation of objectives ... "

In the above respect, reference is made to reports of alleged sabotage by senior officials of the Department of Home Affairs during the week of the first democratic elections in South Africa from 26 to 29 April 1994. This may be indicative of possible pockets of resistance to a new governmental dispensation in South Africa (Die Burger, 1993: 5 May: 1).

McLennan (1993:23) argues that change for the present government service is inevitable. Its negative, apartheid-driven image cannot be disputed. Most South Africans are aware of its regulatory nature, carefully supervised by bulky, insensitive structures cut off from community needs and demands (McLennan, 1993:23).

FitzGerald (1993:16) states that the senior policy-making echelons are overwhelmingly dominated by those possessing the characteristics of whiteness, maleness, Afrikanerness, and a Christian-Calvinist pedigree. Excluded from the bureaucratic apex of government are women, indigenous peoples, Muslims, Hindus, Jews, Catholics, and mother-tongue speakers of English, Portuguese, Venda, Sotho, Zulu, or Gujirati (FitzGerald, 1993:16).

The rationale behind the foregoing explanation would presumably include Xhosa speakers, as well, and also any other ethnic, cultural or linguistic group that do not correspond with the image of a white male of Afrikaner descent. Such an individual would be the archetype of the authoritative public manager in terms of the ideology of the force behind Afrikaner nationalism.

FitzGerald (1993:16) stresses the point that the government service needs to be legitimated. He emphasises that legitimisation can be achieved by affirmative action quotas, judicious capacity building, education, training and fair and just equal opportunity techniques.

Louw (1993:20) views the present government service culture as authoritarian, secret, discriminatory, corrupt, and unaccountable.

Schwella (1993:18) writes that the civil service (government service) has served as a vehicle of upward mobility for Afrikaners since the National Party assumed power in 1948. Macro political change will introduce new values in terms of policy priorities, organisational culture and personnel practices, and there are indications that these values may not be favoured by those in management posts in the government service. Personnel practices will impact in a definitive way on the career expectations of many present public officials.

Schwella (1993:18) substantiates the above statements with a report by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) on a survey undertaken in 1992 among 5320 members of the Public Servants Association (PSA), a body representing mainly white government officials. The survey found, according to Schwella (1993:18), that the PSA consisted mainly of Afrikaans-speaking males with permanent appointments in the government service, who had more than five years of service, educational qualifications higher than Standard 10, and who tend to be supporters of the National Party.

A majority (63%) of the respondents to the above-mentioned survey believed that the transition process would culminate in a black majority government within a year or two of the elections. Only 39,4 per cent were positive or generally positive about the implications of black

majority rule; 35,7 per cent were uncertain and 24,9 per cent were negative.

Supporters of the Conservative Party and other right-wing parties were significantly more negative about the above-mentioned possibility than supporters of the National Party and parties to its left. The possible retrenchment of staff as a result of political appointments was a major concern. A total of 68,9 per cent expected such replacements; 17,8 per cent felt uncertain and only 13,3 per cent indicated that they did not believe that it would happen.

The above-mentioned survey also found that anxiety about the political future was causing public officials to be highly apprehensive about their career security. The large majority (96,7%) were convinced that special attention should be given to this matter. Schwella (1993:19) concludes his article with special mention of the uncertainty and insecurity of current public officials about their future in a new, changed government service. He cites three possible roles that may be fulfilled by officials in periods of transition and transformation:

- **The conservative reactionary role** that tends to cling to the past. At the most negative side, such role-players may attempt to sabotage necessary changes. They also may profess to the neutral desire to

"maintain standards" and may stress bureaucratic regulations and style, while attempting to maintain the status quo as long as possible. There were definite indications of this type of attitude in the government service.

- The radical revolutionary role that argues for a complete demolishing all present administrative systems and structures. Over-zealousness may, however, destroy the productive capacity and efficiency of the present administrative system.
  
- The democratic professional service role that strives to combine the benefits of a politically legitimate government service with the benefits of a professionally efficient government service. This would be the desirable option for South Africa. Given the present position, this ideal will require major constructive efforts from all concerned (Schwella, 1993:19).

The above are an indication of present-day schools of thought about the government service among certain academics and prominent individuals. Against this background, and as stated in the opening paragraph of this section, the origins of racial discrimination as well as examples thereof in legislation and other directives pertaining to government officials and employees during

the time when the race discrimination ideology was at its most prominent during Nationalist Party rule, will be explained in the paragraphs that follow.

## 2.5 DISCRIMINATORY PROVISIONS IN STATUTORY AND SUBORDINATE DIRECTIVES PERTAINING TO DEPARTMENTS

So much evidence has been gathered on the racial ideology of the National Party, that assumed office in 1948, in addition to the evidence furnished above, that any reference to race in the documents henceforth mentioned will represent only the tip of the proverbial iceberg. Futhermore, the legislators used subtle references to race to minimise the negative effect that too many direct references to race might have caused.

It should be borne in mind that most of the following directives have since been amended or withdrawn altogether. However, the influence of their very existence for a considerable period of time on the employment opportunities of people of colour can even today be clearly seen in the demographic composition of the management cadres of the government service.

The disadvantageous situation of indigenous peoples employed in the government service as a result of racial discrimination is duly illustrated by current statistics on the demographic distribution of race groups in the



government service. The statistics show that of the total number of 628349 black and white officials employed in the government service during 1991, 9985, or 1,6 per cent, were European males occupying managerial positions in central government departments. The corresponding figure for indigenous peoples occupying managerial positions in the central government service was 398, or 0,06 per cent of the total number stated above, viz 628349. The total numbers of indigenous peoples and Europeans employed in the central government service are relatively equal viz 306311 indigenous peoples against 322038 Europeans, making a total of 628349. As a result, 25 times more Europeans occupy managerial positions than the corresponding figure for indigenous peoples. This illustrates the disadvantageous effect of racial discrimination in the central government service since the inception of the 1948 government. See Table 3.

Table 3 - Total employees in the central government service in relation to those occupying managerial positions in 1991

Employees (all races)	Indigenous peoples	Europeans	Black managers	White managers
628349	306311	322038	398	9985
Percentages	48%	51%	0.063%	1,6%

The anomaly illustrated in table 3 is addressed in paragraph 1.4.19 of the African National Congress' Reconstruction and Development Plan. Under the heading "Democratising the State and Society" aspects such as

repressive labour policies, including neglect of training (paragraph 1.4.13), are specifically mentioned as areas of concern which should receive special attention from the government (RDP, 1994:5).

The aim with this study is to propose a normative model that will facilitate the managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa, in accordance with the RDP (1994). The implication of this intention is that the normalisation of the South African government service is closely linked to the attitudes and viewpoints of the incumbents of senior managerial posts in the public service.

The attitudes and viewpoints of the senior managers of specific policy units will be instrumental in the implementation of RDP policies. Nortje and Bekker (1990:77) state in this regard that knowledge and insight gained by officials must be supported by positive attitudes. Officials have to go about their daily business with a deliberate community-based approach that will be visible proof of their understanding of, responsibility, as well as a service-oriented commitment to the achievement of community needs (Nortje en Bekker, 1990:77).

While the aforementioned reference was written specifically with local government in mind, the principles expounded by the authors can be applied *mutatis mutandis* to the other levels of government in South Africa.

The RDP is understood to be essential as a vehicle to bring about an improvement in the quality of life of the majority of South Africans, who for many years, were statutorily deprived of the ability to compete on an equal basis with people of European descent in the socio-economic spheres of South Africa. It is also understood that most of the current incumbents of senior posts are from the previous government and that the normalisation process would take a number of years to complete. This state of affairs may necessitate the expediting of the implementation of orientation programmes to optimally utilise the available time and funds.

According to FitzGerald (1993:16) a large number of senior and managerial officials who were part and parcel of the implementation of the apartheid policies are still firmly in place. It is therefore regarded as necessary to state the legislative influences that they were subjected to in the execution of personnel policies during the apartheid era. A clear understanding of the facts pertaining to this particular period in the history of public personnel management in the government service is vital. Only then will it be possible to move to the next step, and that is

to deliberate on the steps necessary to devise orientation procedures.

The procedures referred to above must firstly orientate those already in place to change their attitudes about race and public personnel management.

Secondly they must put in place, should such measures not exist, particular mechanisms that can be instrumental in the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa, in accordance with the RDP.

A crucial aspect of personnel management in the government service is the procedure for the appointment of candidates. The permanent appointment of officials in the Department of Justice was regulated by a special Public Service Code, called the Codified Instructions for the Public Service. In paragraphs 4 and 5 of that code, that respectively dealt with applications for permanent appointments in the department and the origin of candidates, the race of the candidate was specifically mentioned in paragraph 4, with the request that it must be written on the application form (Z83).

Paragraph 5 of the abovementioned directive covered the origin of the candidate, and magistrates were instructed to satisfy themselves about the applicant's race by

examining of the birth certificate, identity document, and thorough personal observation and special investigation to determine whether the applicant was, in fact, of pure white origin. The implication of paragraph 5 appears to be that, should the opposite be the case and the applicant is found not to be of pure white origin, a permanent appointment would not be possible. This example is regarded as a basic directive that served to support the policy of separate development, especially with regard to employment of people of colour in the government service.

With the above basic prohibition as a point of departure for government service employment, the absence of people of colour in the government service, particularly before the 1983 Constitution (Act 110 of 1983) can be easily understood. This is particularly true in respect of the absence of black officials in various departments.

The Fourth Cumulative Supplement to the Code of the Department of Justice, also called the Z100, dated 21 September 1961, contains numerous examples of racism. Certain of these provisions may already have been withdrawn or replaced by other measures. Nevertheless, at the height of the apartheid era the implementation of such measures were part of the normal daily routine of thousands of officials in all government departments.

To illustrate the above, section A of the Fourth Cumulative Supplement states, regarding casual interpreters, the rate per hour is given as R1,50 for Europeans (including Syrians), R1,00 per hour for Asians (including Japanese, Indians, Chinese, and Egyptians) and South African Coloureds, and 50c per hour for the Bantu (indigenous peoples). Subsistence rates reflect a similar differentiation, for instance 10c per hour for Europeans (including Syrians), 7½c per hour for Asiatics (including Japanese, Indians, Chinese, and Egyptians) and South African Coloureds, and 3c per hour for the Bantu.

The above variations are evidence of the lawmaker's perception that differentiated needs existed among people of different groupings. Another, perhaps more suitable, example involves regarding the appointment of non-Europeans as commissioners of oaths. Paragraph 3, page 2 of the section "Commissioner of Oaths" stipulates that whenever a magistrate receives an application for the appointment of a non-white (the term is not defined in this context) as a commissioner of oaths, he must request the local police to submit a report on the character of the applicant. Another example of pure racial discrimination is found in paragraphs 12(c)(i), (ii) and (iii) of the Code, that read as follows:

12(c) (i) **"Magisterial Libraries.-** The office personnel including a public prosecutor, judges and senior government officials are allowed access to magisterial libraries. At the discretion of the head of the office junior government officials and members of the Bar and Side Bar may be allowed access.

(ii) Unless special circumstances exist articulated clerks not being members of the Side Bar, and particularly **non-European articulated clerks,** should in the normal course of events be **excluded** from magisterial libraries.

(iii) Subject to the above and regard being had to the government's **Race Segregation Policy,** it is left to the discretion of the head of the office to determine whether, when and under what circumstances an individual should be allowed access to magisterial libraries.

**2.5.1 Overview of statutory and subordinate provisions pertaining to racial discrimination in the central government service of South Africa**

The following is a summary of other provisions indicating racism in the government service regarding "non-white" employees during the height of Nationalist rule. Most of the following directives have since been amended or

withdrawn altogether. The reason for providing these examples is that they illustrate certain statutory factors that contributed to the disadvantageous position of people of colour employed in the government service vis a vis opportunities for promotion to management posts.

The following paragraphs illustrate a number of examples of racism towards employees of colour in government service. The main stumbling block in the progress of people of colour in the government service during the years of Nationalist Party rule was not so much the statutory provisions that laid down certain prohibitions to service conditions and remuneration in respect of people of colour, but the rationale behind the introduction of and the attitudes with which these directives were formulated and implemented.

See Table 4.

Table 4 - Overview of discriminatory measures

LEGISLATION AND/OR DIRECTIVE

	Legislative or Directive	Section/ Paragraph	Stipulation
1	CODIFIED INSTRUCTIONS GOVERNMENT SERVICE DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE 1964.	Part XVI Messengers Par. 234(2) (e)	Documents to be submitted together with an application for appointment as a temporary messenger.  (e) A Certificate from the Department of Labour that a suitable European person is not available for appointment. (The employment of a temporary non-European messenger will nevertheless be approved with the distinct understanding that his services will be summarily terminated if and when a European candidate for permanent appointment becomes available.)



2	See 1.	Part XVII Temporary employees Employment Class of temporary employee that may be employed Par. 294	Temporary units must as a rule be of the same race and gender as the incumbents of the posts against which they are employed.
3	See 1.	Part XXV Government Pension Fund and Government Widows Pension Fund Par. 420(1) and (2)	<p><b>Par 1 - Officials on probation -</b> Officials on probation must with regard to paragraph (2) hereunder on commencement of service contribute to the Government Service Pension Fund.</p> <p><b>Par 2 - Non-European officials and employees -</b> Non-European officials of the government service do not automatically qualify for inclusion in the provisions of paragraph 1.</p>
4	See 1.	Part XXVI Government Employees' Benefit Fund and Service Gratification Par. 423(1)	<p><b>Par 1 - Qualification for membership -</b> All European employees of the government including married women can become members of the Government Service Employees' Benefit Fund in terms of section eighty-six of the Government Service Pension Act (1955) (as amended by section eight of the Amendment Act on Pension Acts, 1957).</p>
5	PUBLIC SERVICE REGULATIONS PROMULGATED IN TERMS OF SECTION 26 OF THE PUBLIC SERVICE ACT, 1957 (ACT 54 OF 1957), TO BE EFFECTIVE FROM 1 JANUARY 1960. (INCLUDING AMENDMENTS UP TO 15 NOVEMBER 1963.)	Par. A15.1 regarding medical aid	A15.1 - From a date determined by the Commission (the Public Service Commission) by notice in the Gazette, the Commission recognise the Public Service Medical Aid Association, hereinafter referred to as the Association, as the institution of which White officers and employees shall be compelled to become and to remain members, subject to the provisions of this regulation.
6	See 5.	Par. D1.1(a) (iii);(b) (i)	<p>Subject to the provisions of regulation D2 and save where other special provision is made in this chapter, or unless accommodation subsistence allowance is otherwise provided or paid by the Government or where an officer or employee during his absence from his headquarters stays at his home the head of the department may pay to an officer or employee who is necessarily absent from his headquarters for a period of 24 hours or longer on official duty the Republic, in the territory, in the Caprivi Strip, in Lesotho, in Botswana, or in Swaziland, including the travelling time, subsistence allowance at the following rates:</p> <p>(a) in the case of a White officer or employee if his annual salary wage, including pensionable allowances and the cash value of pensionable privileges supplied in kind ... (iii) is equal to or lower than the maximum notch of the scale attaching to a post of administrative officer in the administrative division: not exceeding R7 per day.</p> <p>(b) In the case of a Non-White officer or employee ... not exceeding R2 per day.</p>

7	See 5.	Par. D5.1-2 Minimum Camping Equipment and Camping Allowance	<p>D5.1 - An officer or an employee who is required to camp on account of the nature of his duties and/or the circumstances under which his duties are performed, shall be provided with the minimum camping equipment as prescribed by the Treasury on the recommendation of the Commission.</p> <p>D5.2 - Camp allowance, in lieu of subsistence allowance, is payable to an officer or employee at the following rates for the period during which he stays in camp:</p> <p>(a) To a White officer or employee  Married: Not exceeding R5 per day.  Unmarried: Not exceeding R3.50 per day. (b) To a Non-White officer or employee (all racial groups):  Married: Not exceeding R1,45 per day. Unmarried: Not exceeding R1 per day.</p>
8	See 5.	Par. F1.5 To an officer or employee who is transferred at State expense and who moves his personal effects from (his previous place of residence to another place of residence in the interest of the State)	Par F1.5 - To an officer or an employee who is transferred at State expense a head of a department may pay an amount not exceeding R100 if the transferee is a White person, or R50 if the transferee is a Non-White person. In respect of depreciation of personal effects and to meet expenses arising from his transfer, other than those for which provision is made elsewhere in these regulations.

As most of the above provisions are not in existence any more, and regulatory measures of employment in the government service are now uniform in respect of all officials and employees, it would appear, on the surface, that all is well. However, when figures of employment patterns among the management cadres in the government service are studied, the statement by FitzGerald (1993:16) mentioned earlier, that the senior policy-making echelons are overwhelmingly dominated by those possessing characteristics of whiteness, maleness, Afrikanerness, and a Christian-Calvinist pedigree, does not seem to be completely out of place.

## 2.6 FEMALES

According to the 1994 Country Report on the Status of South African Women (Govender, 1994:1), the women of South Africa had to face three forms of discrimination: **race**, **class** and **gender**. Women from the indigenous peoples of this country have had to bear the brunt of discrimination in terms of employment practices through the centuries, coupled with cultural beliefs regarding the status of women in South Africa.

The adoption in 1993 of the Interim Constitution has revitalised the struggle for gender equality in South Africa. Equality for women is also enshrined in the Preamble to, as well as in the chapter on Fundamental Rights in the Constitution. The Constitution specifically prohibits discrimination on the grounds of race, gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, or social origin (Govender, 1994:1).

According to Govender (1994:1), South African women have the prospect of fair treatment, including meaningful corrective action (affirmative action).

Attitudes to this new recognition of women in the government service of South Africa are part of the empirical survey of this study conducted in the government service as well as in the nine provincial government

services of South Africa. They will be duly reported on during the description of the statistical analysis of the responses to the survey.

## 2.7 SUMMARY

This chapter examined the concept of ethnocentrism and briefly analysed certain factors that led to the introduction of legalised and institutionalised discriminatory personnel management practices in the government service in South Africa.

A brief historical overview of European and indigenous occupation in South Africa was given. This was followed by a discussion on the evolution of racial discrimination in the South African government service, and the role of the Afrikaner Broederbond was specifically explained. Then followed an overview of viewpoints on racial discrimination in the South African government service, after which various examples of statutory and subordinate provisions of a discriminatory nature pertaining to the government service were given.

In the following chapter attention will be devoted to the theory, nature and extent of public administration in general, and public personnel management in relation to orientation procedures in particular. This exposition will lead to a description of the management of

orientation procedures in the government service in post-apartheid South Africa.

### CHAPTER 3

#### A THEORETICAL BASIS FOR MANAGING ORIENTATION PROCEDURES

##### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Managing orientation procedures for effective public personnel management is an integral part of training and development when viewed as a component thereof (Klingner and Nalbandian, 1985:235). In order to determine a theoretical basis for the management of orientation procedures in a post-apartheid South Africa, a "funnel" approach will be followed to illustrate the development of the concept from a philosophical and theoretical premise towards the study of public administration, which includes public management, public personnel management, as well as management of orientation procedures.

In order to determine a philosophical and theoretical premise, a brief explanation the term "philosophy" will be provided, followed by an exposition of viewpoints on the paradigmatic status of the discipline of Public Administration. This will be followed by a description of the various theoretical approaches to the subject of Public Administration, whereafter the place of management theory in relation to a theory for Public Administration will be discussed. This will be followed by a description of a theory for public personnel management, theories on the management of orientation procedures and, finally, certain practical examples of orientation.

### 3.2 THE ROLE OF PHILOSOPHY IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

According to Copi (1969:286), the word "philosophy" is derived from two Greek words, namely philos, meaning "love", and sophia, meaning "wisdom". It can, therefore, be inferred that the word "philosophy" means, literally translated, "the pursuit of wisdom". Copi (1969:286) states that philosophy began in the sixth century B.C. in Greek colonies on the western coast of Asia Minor. The earliest philosophers regarded all knowledge as their responsibility. They were the first scientists and also the first philosophers. They undertook both to describe and to explain the world around them and also presumed to give advice in matters of conduct, both personal and social. During the time of Plato (427-347) and Aristotle (384-322), philosophers were concerned not only with logic, mathematics and natural science, but also with literary criticism and aesthetics generally (Copi, 1969:286).

The special sciences (the term "special sciences" in this context is understood to mean **specialised** sciences, such as Economics, Psychology, Sociology, Political Science and Public Administration) acquired large amounts of reliable knowledge and developed their own techniques of investigation. This resulted in a split from philosophy into separate branches of learning. What has remained for philosophy, in addition to questions of conduct and value, has itself become a philosophical issue.

A number of philosophers hold the view that the major remaining task of philosophy is to study and develop critically the methodology of the sciences. Others have urged that the proper task of philosophy is to collect the piecemeal results achieved by the special sciences (as defined above) and to combine them into a unified account of reality as a whole, as perceived by a particular special science.

It can be stated that the essence of philosophy is systematic reflection upon experience to the end of obtaining a rational and comprehensive understanding of the universe and man's place in it (Copi, 1969:286).

According to Hughes (1987:2), the social sciences since developing as autonomous disciplines, have tended to re-examine their philosophical foundations only during periods of crisis, when familiar and trusted methods no longer seem to justify the faith originally invested in them. Also when researchers lose confidence in the significance of their findings, and when formerly obvious and taken-for-granted principles no longer seem well-defined. It is during such periods that warnings about the "coming crisis" are heard or pleas for a re-examination of social theory is voiced. Such periods force scholars to reconsider fundamentals and re-evaluate the philosophical bases of their disciplines (Hughes, 1987:1).



The above viewpoint also applies to the discipline of Public Administration. Philosophy will, therefore, according to Hughes (1987:11) attempt to explain phenomena conceived in terms of the basic concepts that characterise a discipline, whatever it may be.

According to Hughes (1987:13) the philosopher Locke argued that philosophy simply aims to clear away obstacles that lie in the way of knowledge, such as vague speech, muddled terms, imprecise notions and the like. Philosophers, such as Descartes, Leibnitz and Hegel, concerned themselves with metaphysics (the study of existence, of the most general categories that can be used in describing what exists: universal and particular, space and time, substance and attribute, necessity and causality). They saw philosophy as being concerned with constructing the whole of human knowledge into logically connected systems (Copi, 1969:286).

Hughes (1987:14) also refers to the lack of consensus within the social sciences as to whether they are sciences, pseudosciences, immature sciences, multiparadigm sciences, or moral sciences. Since their appearance on the intellectual scene, they have failed to produce analyses of social life as convincing as the analyses produced by the natural sciences of the material world.

In spite of Economics, economic crises do occur, or for the purposes of this research: in spite of Public Administration,

public administration crises do occur. This is often blamed on the politicians for not heeding the advice of scientists or for not having the courage to implement the findings of the specialised science, be it Economics or Public Administration (Hughes, 1987:14).

With the above very brief discussion of the concept of philosophy, the focus will now shift to a philosophical basis for Public Administration, as the mother discipline of the concepts that are the subjects of this research.

Various academics in the recent past in South Africa have expressed their preferences for a particular philosophical basis for the discipline of Public Administration. Different views are continually being put forward and heatedly debated, and the prevalence of academic animosity has been observed as a result of contradicting viewpoints on the paradigmatic status of Public Administration.

### 3.3 A PHILOSOPHICAL BASE FOR PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Stillman (1976:3-4) argues that it is pointless to pin down an exact definition of public administration, simply because the many variables and complexities of public administration make almost every administrative situation a unique event, eluding any highly systematic categorization. This difficulty is manifested by the suggestion of different phases and paradigms

in the development of the study field of Public Administration (Hanekom, 1988:70-79).

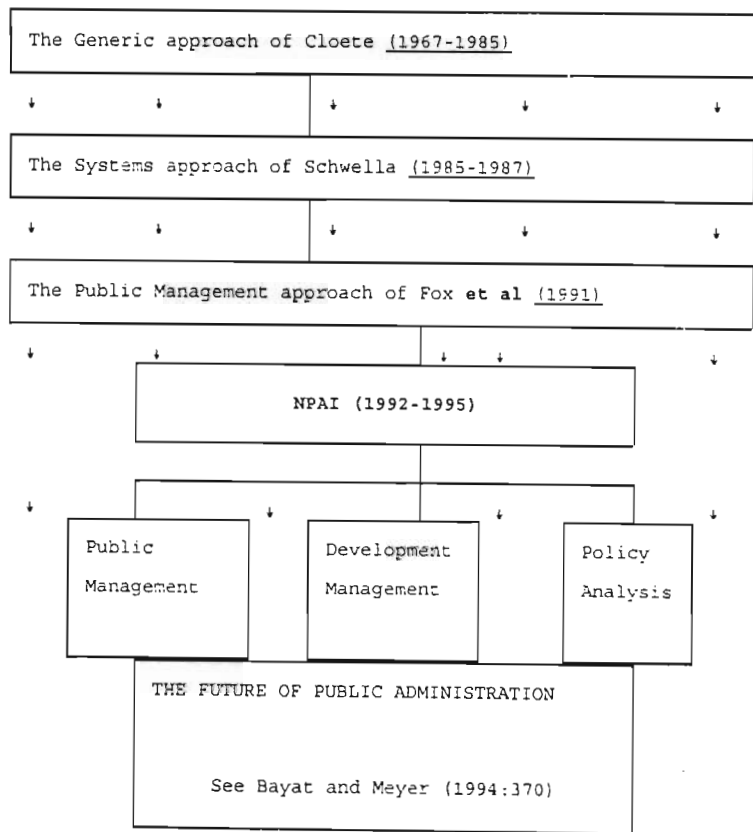
### 3.3.1 Approaches to the paradigmatic development of Public Administration

Freysen (1988:159) states that many different viewpoints regarding the paradigmatic status of Public Administration are entertained, based on different metaphysical premises (metaphysics: the study of existence, of the most general categories that can be used in describing what exists: universal and particular, space and time, substance and attribute, necessity and causality (Copi, 1969:286)) and corresponding views of science.

Freysen (1988:159) argues that according to realistic-empiricist metaphysical premises and an objective science perception, it may be argued that Public Administration can or cannot have paradigmatic status. In terms of idealistic-rational metaphysical premises and a relativistic science perception, it also may be argued that Public Administration has or does not have paradigmatic status. Freysen (1988:159) further intimates that paradigmatic status in the social sciences is a subjective concept. Should that view be accepted, then, because the social sciences are subjective in that their subjects of study create their own situations, Public Administration, being a subjective discipline, does possess a subjective paradigmatic status.

This study will view the evolution of Public Administration in South Africa from three different and consecutive approaches, namely the **generic** approach, as expounded by Cloete (1976:2-4 and 1986:2-3), the **systems** approach, as expounded by Schwella (1985:39), and the **Public Management** approach, as expounded by Fox et al (1991:8). The **Public Management** approach will be further explained in terms of three sub-branches, namely **Public Management**, **Development Management**, and **Policy Analysis**. See figure 1.

Figure 1 - The evolution of Public Administration in South Africa



## ■ The generic approach

According to Cloete (1976:2-4 and 1986:2-3) administration, and by implication public administration, consists of a wide-ranging set of activities or processes that can be grouped according to their respective functions. Six main generic groupings of activities/processes will be obtained on the basis of the functions policy-making, organising, financing, staffing (personnel provision and utilisation), determining of effective and efficient work procedures, and determining of effective and efficient control measures, which can be subdivided into two main categories, namely checking (controlling) and accountability, to ensure that the original target will be reached (achieved). Administration is therefore a collection of activities/processes, and each of the six main groups mentioned above has to be carried out in full to achieve any objective (regardless of whether it is a tangible product or a social state) through action. This implies that administration is not merely a concept or an idea, but a social phenomenon consisting of mental effort and other activities. It is this state of affairs that makes administration an **enabling** activity that functions within a group context.

In practice the intention is that a taxonomy (systematising) of the activities is usually undertaken. Taxonomy is regarded as the first step in the scientific study of a subject.

The joint action referred to above means that the generic administrative activities or processes will always precede and/or accompany the functional and auxiliary activities that are concerned with producing goods or rendering services. According to Cloete (1986:2-3), the three categories of activities can be illustrated as follows:

**Table 5 - The Generic Approach**

Administrative activities and processes	Functional activities	Auxiliary services
Policy-making. Financing. Organising. Staffing. Determination and improvement of work processes. Controlling (checking and rendering account).	For example: Building roads. Nursing patients. Providing postal services. Educating scholars and students.	Data processing. Undertaking public opinion surveys. Collecting and analysing statistics. Research. Decision-making.

The six main groups mentioned under "administrative activities and processes" cannot be separated in practice.

The various activities/processes in question are usually considered and undertaken simultaneously. For example, when an objective is being set and "policy is being made", cognisance will have to be taken of what can theoretically as well as in practice be expected of the other processes of administration, namely organising, financing, staffing, determining of work procedures and exercising of control, to ensure that the objective is achieved. Thereafter, when the organisational arrangements are being considered (when organising occurs) it will be necessary to attend to the availability of funds and to the personnel needed to implement

the action programme. Each of the aforementioned main groups of generic processes in the cycle of administration constitutes a complex field of activity which becomes even more complex as the extent and size of the operation expand (Cloete, 1976:2-4 and Cloete, 1986:2-3).

■ Marais' critique of J.J.N. Cloete's approach to Public Administration

Marais (1988:169) refers to J.J.N. Cloete as the first exponent of the process approach in South Africa. According to Marais (1988:170) the basis of criticism against the process approach of Cloete is his view that:

" ... Administration takes place in every situation where two or more persons are busy working or playing together... "

This statement by Cloete is followed immediately by the following statement:

" ... However, administration should not be confused with the substance or the object of the activity with which two or more persons are occupied at a particular time ... " (Marais, 1988:170).

Marais' (1988:170) view of Cloete's approach is that Cloete maintains that the concept administration is an encompassing composition of processes. Cloete views the administrative process as consisting of six different main groupings of processes, namely:

" ... policy-making, organising, financing, personnel provision and management (utilisation), the establishment of procedures, and the control over the execution of the activities to ensure that the objective is reached ... "

A further criticism by Marais (1988:170) of Cloete's viewpoint is the fact that Cloete does not offer a definition for the term administration, but merely gives a description of the processes. In this context Marais (1988:174) concludes that Cloete equated Public Administration with administration, because Cloete used the administrative process approach to the exclusion of any other possible approach.

According to Marais (1988:170) the majority of lecturers in Public Administration at tertiary educational institutions in South Africa until recently were former students of Cloete, or were schooled under this approach. These academics were strongly influenced by Cloete's administrative process approach that eventually became the "staple diet" of lecturers and students in Public Administration at universities and technikons in South Africa.

The trend mentioned above also spread to the central personnel institution of the South African government service, the Public Service Commission (previously called the Commission for Administration) as well as to the Institute of Town Clerks (Marais, 1988:170).

Academics who, in varying degrees, share Marais's criticism of Cloete's approach to Public Administration, include most of



the followers of the NPAI movement (New Public Administration Initiative). From those ranks have come the new criticism, that by adhering to his approach to the subject of Public Administration, Cloete had, in fact, contributed to the entrenchment of the policy of separate development. The accusation has also been levelled against Cloete that in his books on public administration he described South Africa as a democratic state: "South Africa is a democratic state" (translated) (Cloete, 1976:24), during the height of the apartheid era. This fact is also referred to by Bayat (1991:7). In his latest book, however, Cloete readily admits the historical lack of democracy in South Africa by stating that:

" ... most South Africans suffered under the dictatorship of a single minority party ... " (Cloete, 1993:172), and that the government started only in February 1990 with activities to bring full democracy to all population groups (Cloete, 1993:179).

Although Cloete's bias towards the doctrine of separate development has not been proved beyond doubt, and in spite of utterances in his latest book to the contrary (Cloete, 1993:172), his academic credibility with the contemporary academic fraternity in South Africa is less than perfect. His major contribution to thinking in the field of Public Administration in South Africa cannot, however, be disputed and his works are still widely used at tertiary educational institutions throughout the country.

## ■ The systems approach

Schwella (1985:39) explains the systems approach in a controversial article that had a mixed reception among the members of the existing Public Administration fraternity.

According to Schwella, in recent years a semantic question has arisen in South African Public Administration which has captured the interest of practitioners and academics interested in Public Administration. Schwella (1985:39) refers in this regard to Cloete in the June 1984 edition of the "Journal of Public Administration" (Cloete, 1984:37). In his article "Public Administration or Public Management", Cloete states the reasons, as he sees them, why the terms "management" or "public management" should be introduced in the academic literature and practice of Public Administration in South Africa.

Schwella (1985:39) indicates that he supported the reintroduction of the terms "management" or "public management" in the academic literature and practice of South African Public Administration because these terms were originally used in the South African academic literature and were still being used in international literature on Public Administration. He also mentioned that attempts were being made to avoid the use of these terms in the literature on Public Administration. In the article he illustrated the need for the use of these terms in academic literature on Public

Administration. He finally proposed a model within which provision is made for the use of these terms as well as the term "public administration" (Schwella, 1985:39-43).

From Schwella's remarks above, the following can be deduced:

- Initially the terms "management" or "public management" were used in South African academic Public Administration; and
- For a number of reasons the use of these terms has subsequently been discouraged.

Although it may be true that the word "management" is traditionally used for denoting the functions needed to establish and run private undertakings, it does not necessarily follow that this is the only sense in which the word can be used. As with many other words (for instance the word "administration"), the word "management" can and does have more meanings than one, and the meaning of a word can easily be deduced from the context in which it is used.

Scwhella (1985:42), argues that the mere use of the term "public management" does not necessarily imply that people hold negative views about the functioning of public administration.

Schwella (1985:42) argues further that there is a need for the use of the terms "public management" and "management" in academic Public Administration. He states that although an effort has been made to discourage the use of these terms in South African academic Public Administration, the effort has not been entirely successful. This is indicated by the fact that after a great many years and attempts it was necessary in 1984 to raise the matter, which proved that it was still an issue at that time.

Experience in the practice of public administration at local and central government levels bears out the fact that the use of the terms "management" and "public management" have recently become more common than ever (for example, job designations such as "nursing services manager"), which indicates that there is a need for these terms in practice. Another example is the title of the post "Assistant Director: Personnel Management", that has been used by the central personnel institution of the South African government service (the Public Service Commission).

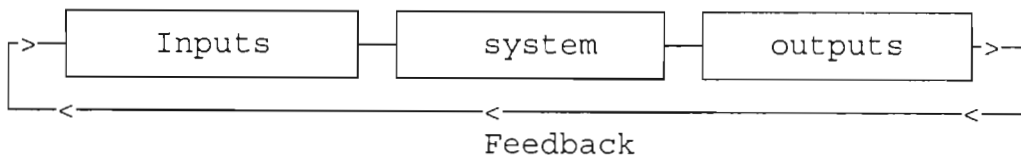
In attempts to avoid the terms "management" or "public management" they are often replaced by the word "administration". Dunsire (1973:228-229) lists no fewer than fifteen different meanings of the term "administration".

According to Schwella (1985:43) a definite need existed for the proposal of a model within which the terms "public

management", "management" and "public administration" could be accommodated. Ignoring that need could have been detrimental to the academic discipline of Public Administration. In short, what was needed was something public administrators were trained to deal with, namely a compromise between the total avoidance of the terms "public management" and "management", and the substitution of the terms "public administration" and "administration" for these terms.

The first model suggested by Schwella (1985:43) is described as a basic input-output environmentally based systems model, similar to Figure 2.

Figure 2 - Environment System (1)



Schwella (1985:44) indicates that in presenting this model the first pitfall to be avoided is the error of deification. One should not assume that concepts and names are a perfect description of a given reality. Reality is so complex that it defies precise description and classification. A second pitfall to be avoided is attempting to clarify terms which will be used in a technical sense only by reference to dictionaries. Many such attempts have been made, particularly in the case at issue, but they have mostly met with limited

success. With these two reservations in mind, one must make certain choices which, although subject to limitations, may possibly alleviate the problem.

Schwella (1985:44) proposes in this regard an open systems model for explaining and understanding of reality. Such models have been used in a number of ways in the studying of numerous human and natural phenomena (Schwella quotes examples of Von Bertalanffy (1956), Easton (1965) and Baker (1973)).

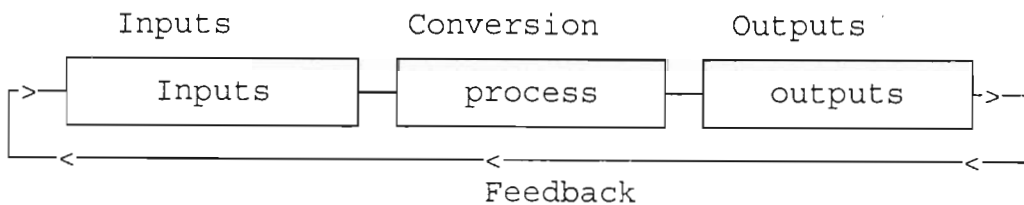
Schwella (1985:45) explains that an open system receives inputs from the environment, transforms them through operations into outputs, and receives feedback from the environment on its success.

The universe, according to Schwella (1985:45), is the most comprehensive system, and all other systems could be seen as sub-systems of other, bigger systems. Systems have structures which are more or less formalized and perform certain functions for their survival. Having very briefly explained a number of relevant open systems concepts and ideas, one can now use these in an attempt to provide perspectives on public administration and the terms relevant to it.

Schwella (1985:45) further states that public administration (the practice) is in the broadest sense involved in the execution of government programmes. With this in mind it is now possible to state, from a systems perspective, that public

administration is that subsystem of a society which has been created to fulfil those needs of citizens that have been authoritatively transformed, through the political process, into governmental goals and objectives. For this purpose the subsystem public administration consists of structures and functions that receive inputs from its environment, transforms them into outputs, and receives renewed inputs and feedback from the environment. Diagrammatically this can be presented as in figure 3.

Figure 3 - Environment System (2)



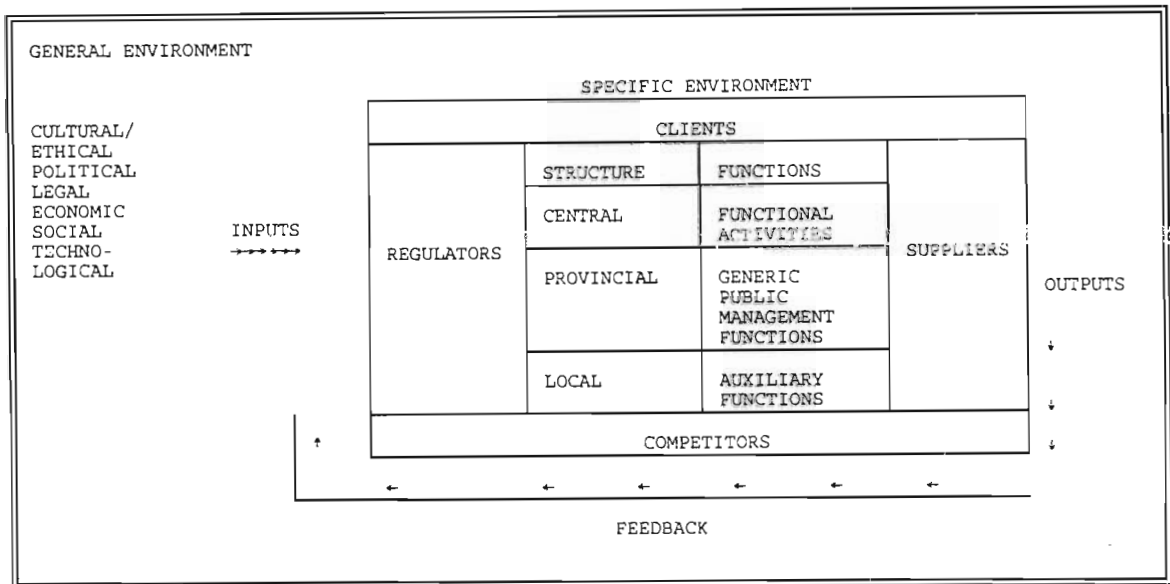
Schwella (1985:46) concludes that environment can be conceptualized as having general and specific parts. The general part is constituted of the cultural/ethical, the political, the legal, the economic, the social and the technological components. The specific part is constituted of client, supplier, competition and regulator components.

Structure refers to formal and informal patterns of action for the execution of functions, which could range from the informal group within a public work setting to government departments. For the purposes of illustration, however,

structure will be classified generally into central, provincial and local government institutions.

Schwella's model is illustrated in figure 4.

Figure 4 - Schwella's model



The above represents a conceptual model for public administration as a societal subsystem. Schwella (1985:47), suggests that, when the term "public administration" is used, it should refer to the societal subsystem as illustrated above. In terms of Schwella's model, Public Administration as an academic discipline will focus on the structure, functions and dynamic interrelationships between the elements of the last-mentioned model, as well as with the particular aspects of the environment as relevant at a given place and time.

Schwella (1985:48) asserts that the systems approach as explained in the paragraphs above, would open the way to



greater semantic clarity and the further development of the discipline of Public Administration. It could also then be stressed that although this view also incorporates a management approach, that approach would represent only one aspect of the broader and more stimulating academic enterprise of Public Administration (Schwella, 1985:48).

Following the explanation of the systems approach as expounded by Schwella, it is regarded as necessary to include an explanation of the systems approach expounded by Caiden (1982:236) as well as a critique of the systems approach by Erasmus in Bayat and Meyer (1994:84).

According to Caiden (1982:236), Easton, with his energy systems model, is regarded as the most influential exponent of the systems approach. In this approach, which was followed by Schwella as explained above, inputs in the form of demands and support are transformed by the political system (the making and execution of authoritative decisions for a society) into decisions and policies.

The ideas of Easton broke away from the traditional descriptions of formal institutions to direct attention to the administrative system in context, the administrative transformation of resources (inputs) into societal products (outputs), the structure and functions of the administrative system, administrative behaviour, administrative stratification, and administrative recruitment. The systems

approach, according to Caiden (1982:236) broke away from the bureaucratic paradigm and was helpful in reorienting current administrative thinking to non-bureaucratic administrative systems.

Within the above context, the views of Erasmus in Bayat and Meyer (1994:83-101) on the deficiencies of the systems approach as an absolute dogma deserve mentioning here. Erasmus in Bayat and Meyer (1994:84) is of the opinion that the systems approach only has real value when viewed in a less reductionist and ideologically predetermined manner.

According to the general systems theory, the typifying characteristic of the relationship between elements of systems is their propensity to maintain or restore a condition of equilibrium among all the elements. This characteristic, according to Erasmus in Bayat and Meyer (1994:88), may contribute to a distorted and possibly an iniquitous view of the world.

The causal linearity of a process comprising inputs, throughputs, outputs and feedback in dynamic interaction with a discernable environment fits in with the way the empirical world appears to function. In this manner, the systems theory brings hugely complex processes within the cognitive reach of researcher and practitioners. It does so by reducing those processes to a single, predictable, causal unilinear process.

Because the system is assumed to exist, and because it is assumed to have an inherent inclination for equilibrium, the systems theory enables the system, i.e. public administration, to be readily understood. If one of the elements of the system changes, it is assumed that all the other elements will respond in such a manner that equilibrium within the system will be maintained. However, Erasmus in Bayat and Meyer (1994:90) questions the validity of the view that any society consists of several interrelated subsystems and that such subsystems interact within an indeterminate cycle of mutual reciprocity that promotes and enables harmony and overall stability within the system.

Erasmus in Bayat and Meyer (1994:90), substantiates the above view by referring to Minzberg (1983:177) who states that each subsystem pursues its own dynamic ends, to the exclusion of other subsystems. As a result, subsystems often compete with overall systems goals for primacy.

Evidence of the above-described phenomenon within a system is furnished by Karen and Walcott (1990:2) with an explanation of the factors that led to the Challenger space shuttle accident on 28 January 1986. One of the main reasons put forward for the occurrence of the disaster was intense competition among the various sub-divisions of the NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration) organisational structure charged with the shuttle program.

Three field centres, the Marshall Space Flight Center in Huntsville, Alabama, the Johnson Space Center near Houston, and the Kennedy Space Center in Florida competed for resources for their respective contributions to the shuttle programme.

As the NASA budget grew progressively leaner in the 1980's, the three organisational structures mentioned above competed for resources and responsibilities and resisted sharing information or dividing and co-ordinating tasks.

Ultimately it was found that the main causes of the accident were the lack of effective communication and lack of sharing of resources as well as the propensity of the various management structures within the three organisational sub-divisions to:

" ... contain potentially serious problems and to attempt to resolve them internally rather than communicate them forward ... ".

The Challenger case study reiterates Minzberg's (1983:177) view that each subsystem within a system pursues its own dynamic ends, to the exclusion of other subsystems.

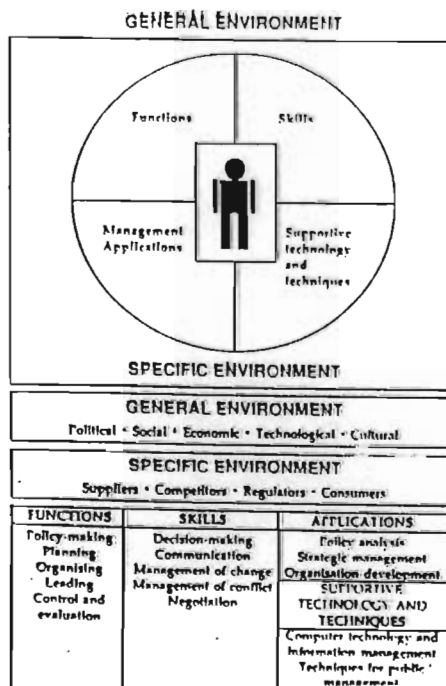
Erasmus in Bayat and Meyer (1994:91-92) accedes that simply because of the existence of assumptions and/or assertions that the systems theory is fallacious should not result in the whole systems approach being rejected. There can be little doubt that systems do exist, and that their elements are

integrally related. Systems per se should, however, be viewed with a fundamental conceptualisation and empirically driven consideration of the nature, limits, and usefulness of systems theory and its contributing concepts.

■ The public management approach

As the principal advocate of the public management approach, Fox et al (1991:2) describes public administration as a system of **structures** and **processes**, operating within a particular society as **environment**, with the objective of facilitating the formulation of appropriate governmental policy, and the **efficient execution** of the formulated policy. The concepts "structures", "processes", "governmental policy" and "efficient execution" should, for the purposes of this discussion, be understood as variables. The approach of Fox et al (1991:3-6) is illustrated with Figure 5.

Figure 5 - The public management model of Fox et al (1991:8)



The model of Fox et al (1991:3) takes as its point of departure a perceived general environment. This general environment consists of various sub-environments, for instance political, social, economic, technological, and cultural. These sub-environments are only examples of possible environments. Those mentioned are taken as being representative of most facets of contemporary human societal existence and its need-generating elements.

Fox et al (1991:3-4) shows a specific environment, within the general environment, that consists of suppliers, competitors, regulators and consumers. The interaction between the components of the general environment and the factors of the specific environment are regulated by particular functions, skills and applications.

The above model can be transposed as a framework for the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa.

Fox et al (1991:5) identifies five possible enabling functions or processes, that can serve as a conversion mechanism for goal achievement, namely policy-making, planning, organising, leadership and motivation, and control and evaluation. These functions are situation-bound and could change as the needs of the particular environment fluctuate.

The model of Fox et al (1991:5), as referred to above, is specifically suited for this research, as it is more descriptive by nature, and therefore more readily understood. Another reason that makes Fox et al's approach suitable for this research is the fact that one of the aspects/approaches to this model is the management of change in terms of a number of factors that hold specific significance for the managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa. These include, inter alia, aspects such as the public manager as a change agent, resistance to change, behaviour modification, sensitivity training and change as a fact of organisational life (Fox et al 1991: 164-172).

### 3.3.2 New Public Administration Initiative

After 1991, various schools of thought on a suitable paradigmatic approach for public administration in a transitory South African situation were proposed. Among the most prevalent in this regard was the New Public Administration Initiative (NPAI) as explained in the Mount Grace Resolutions (Papers) (Mc Lennan and FitzGerald, (1990). The NPAI initiative can be viewed as an important catalyst in the transition from the public management approach to the combined public management, development management and policy analysis approach.

The role of the NPAI within the abovementioned transition was briefly explained by Wissink (1992), during a prize-giving function of the Public Administration Students' Representative Association (PASRA; now known as SAPASA (South African Public Administration Students' Association)) of the Port Elizabeth Technikon which took place during October 1992.

According to Wissink (1992), during the 1960's, the American Public Administration community became disillusioned with the approach being followed in the United States, in particular the domination that political science and administrative science had over their discipline. During 1968 Waldo, of Syracuse University, sponsored a conference of young public administrators, on a "new public administration". The proceedings of that conference were subsequently edited and published by Henry Marini and referred to as "The New Public Administration: The Minnowbrook Conference".

The essence of the Minnowbrook conference included a disinclination to address traditional concerns such as efficiency, effectiveness, budgeting, and administrative techniques. It focused on normative theory, philosophy and activism. The questions it raised dealt with issues such as values, ethics, the development of the individual member in the organisation, the relation of the client with the bureaucracy, the problems of urbanisation, technology and violence. The emphasis of this approach tended towards a moral perspective (Wissink, 1992).



This "new public administration" approach in the United States was shortlived. However, it nudged public administrationists to reconsider the overpoliticisation of public administration.

According to Wissink (1992), the new public administration initiative (NPAI) in South Africa originated during 1990.

### 3.3.3 Motivation for initiating a new approach

The motivation for initiating the new approach was borne out of a dissatisfaction with contemporary public administration in South Africa. Following the initial conference of the NPAI, at Mount Grace, the following major reasons for existence of the NPAI were put forward:

- At that time the practice of public administration in South Africa was largely uninvolved in the development of the poorer communities, in particular urban communities of black people who moved from the rural areas to the cities.
- The then bureaucracy served the interests of a government without legitimacy, and which was unrepresentative and unaccountable, even to its own "minority" of supporters.
- Black public administrators were denied access to, and participation in the higher echelons of the public service.

- The bureaucracy was overpoliticised. The Nationalist Party government had for many years controlled the public service, to the detriment of other population groups.
- Public policy-making was a closely kept secret, and the public decision-making process excluded the majority. The excessive secrecy undermined the democratic requirement that the activities of the bureaucracy should be transparent and open for scrutiny by the public.
- The multiplicity of government departments based on race, resulted in an excessive squandering of resources (Wissink, 1992).

According to Wissink (1992), certain shortcomings existed with the teaching of Public Administration within academic departments of tertiary educational institutions:

- Public Administration teaching in South Africa was viewed as too descriptive; lacking sufficient analytical, explanatory and predictive techniques.
- It was also viewed as too reductionist; restricting and reifying Public Administration to one view of the administrative process only.
- It ignored other dimensions of, and approaches to government.

- It was viewed as fragmentary, while largely arbitrary boundaries existed within Public Administration and Development Administration.
- It suffered from racial and gender imbalances that were historically associated with apartheid.
- In general, teaching of Public Administration in South Africa was regarded as outdated and out of pace with a rapidly transforming society such as South Africa (Wissink, 1992).

According to Wissink (1992), the Mount Grace Resolutions defined the role of the NPAI in that it would endeavour to bring about new approaches to the study, teaching and practice of public administration in South Africa. This would, *inter alia*, entail promoting the following:

- A more democratic, inclusive and participatory government and public service at all levels of government.
- A just, equitable and non-racial society with equal access for all people to public resources.
- Providing better public services to people to enable them to improve their quality of life and become more self-reliant.

- Maintenance of sustainable economic, social and political growth and development.
- Values such as efficiency, effectiveness, productivity, accountability, responsibility and responsiveness.
- More rigorous scientific analysis, explanation and prediction of governmental and administrative phenomena as opposed to mere description of administrative procedures.
- An open and critical debate on explanatory models for this purpose.
- An explicit developmental focus instead of a control- and regulation orientated approach, must be established. This should include rationalisation between Public Administration and Development Administration.
- Developing proactive and useful international networks (Wissink, 1992).

According to Wissink (1992), the conference agreed to establish the following:

- A discussion forum consisting of academics, researchers and practitioners in the field of Public Administration and related disciplines, which share the need for a new

approach as summarised above. This forum became known as the Forum for Public Administration and Development.

- A regular journal for the NPAI.
- A registered trust fund, promoting the objectives of the NPAI, and to engage in general fund-raising. The Foundation for Public and Development Administration was formally registered as a trust fund, with appointed trustees.
- The recruitment of interested and sympathetic persons and groups who share its views and proposed actions, to join NPAI, was initiated (Wissink, 1992).

At a later conference in 1992, according to Wissink (1992), the NPAI elected an executive committee, comprising of representatives from the various regions in the country. This arrangement produced a decentralised or federal arrangement which aimed to promote the NPAI on a regional basis, and also to improve communication and the attainment of objectives which were set at the Mount Grace Conference (Wissink, 1992).

The advent of the NPAI can be viewed as a transition between the public management approach, and the three-pronged approach that is advocated in 1995, namely public management, development management and policy analysis.

Bayat and Meyer (1991:386) question the validity of entering into a study of the discipline and practice of public administration. According to them, public administration has a future as long as human beings exist. People do not exist for the sake of existence, but for the specific purpose to create opportunities for the next generation of citizens. This implies an effective and efficient system of public administration to provide the framework for implementing sound public policies (Bayat and Meyer, 1991:386).

Bayat and Meyer (1991:386) suggests a system of public administration that is consumer-driven, and of which the main function is to facilitate growth, development and stability. They propose a system where the function of public administration encompasses three key concepts, namely growth, development and stability. According to Bayat and Meyer (1991:387) modern society demands that a government should meet the objectives of economic growth, social development and political stability. Public administration should be viewed by decision- and policy makers with these viewpoints as points of departure (Bayat and Meyer, 1991:387).

#### **3.3.4 Development management**

According to Adlem & Botes (1980:1) the concept of development management has developed during the last decade. Development management as a science places prominence on environmental factors that are particular to each country or region and

plays a decisive role in the development rate of the specific country (Adlem & Botes (1980:1)).

One of the most difficult concepts to define is the concept of **development**. Various theorists have attempted to define development in terms of their specific fields of interest, but have not succeeded. Economists, for example, would indicate that the parameters for development can be found on the socio-economic area of societal existence. This would refer to their view that increased **per capita** income could be used as a yardstick to measure **development**. Economists, however, admit that various factors, such as monetary exchange rates, imbalances between total income and population and lack of sufficient data may contribute to aberrations in the final conclusions regarding perceptions of development in respect of a particular country (Adlem & Botes, 1980:4).

Adlem & Botes (1980:4) explain development in terms of two possible parameters:

Firstly, they argue that a country that is **Western** (or **modern**) is a country of which the population enjoys a high **per capita** income with a concomitant high standard of living. This is manifested by the ability of individuals to afford the "good" things in life. This argument often leads to unfounded conclusions, as, for example, countries such as Iran, Iraq, Saudi-Arabia and Kuwait indicate a high **per capita**-income, but in reality only the owners of oil fields enjoy high earnings,

as opposed to the relative poverty of the majority of the population. The visible manifestations of a high per capita-income can be observed on two levels.

- The **material** area, such as vehicles (for example the ability to absorb manufactured vehicles) high quality dwellings which include all the latest appliances, freeways, highly graded hotels, and airlines with the latest models of airliners.
  
- The **spiritual** area, such as opera theatres, universities, art galleries, schools, luxury churches, a small percentage of unemployment, low unemployment and workmens' compensation insurance and comprehensive health services (Adlem & Botes, 1980:5).

It must be emphasised that the abovementioned indicators of "wealth" is explained from a western philosophical standpoint, and that the perceptions from a third world perspective may differ completely from those indicated.

Secondly, the degree of industrialisation can also be used as a visible parameter to indicate development. The characteristic of a Western (**modern**) country is its level of industrialisation in which the population (as a result of industrialisation with the concomitant economic activities) is mostly urbanised. In order to maintain such a highly industrialised state, highly sophisticated, effective and



efficient public and private institutions are required (Adlem & Botes, 1980:6).

The proposal by Brynard (1992:44), of a *pro forma* management approach for government departments, needs to be mentioned here. In order for development and growth to be facilitated by effective and efficient public institutions, a more cost-effective public sector is required. Such a cost-effective government service requires change and adjustment in management practices and attitudes. A more business-oriented approach to public management should be pursued.

The changes necessary to bring about development pose new challenges to be met by government managers such as the development of a new organisational culture, the management of change, and addressing the questions of responsibility, public accountability, financial accountability and applicability of reforms in all government institutions (Brynard, 1992:51).

According to Brynard (1992:51), the anticipated success or failure of implementing reform initiatives (to aid development and growth for the benefit of the general welfare (my insertion)) depend upon, *inter alia*, the degree to which the reigning behaviour, attitudes and culture are conducive to change (Brynard, 1992:51).

Thirdly, it is possible to differentiate between developed and developing countries on the grounds of values, or normative

factors. Certain religious affiliations may generate this view, contrary to the so-called "heathen" nations, who, allegedly, are part of the underdeveloped world. The validity of this view is, however, threatened by evidence of the so-called **spill-overs** of modern Western society, such as crime, drug addiction, divorce, venereal disease, suicide, permissiveness, slum living areas, noise, heart and other diseases, pollution, overpopulation and other societal ills (Adlem & Botes, 1980:7).

It can be argued that the developed countries strive for the optimal spiritual and material welfare for the underdeveloped societies with the available resources. This ambition may have the profit-motive as a basis, however, in agreement with Adam Smith's statement in 1776, that:

"in his quest to enrich himself, man subconsciously and involuntarily succeeds to enrich society" (Samuels, 1970:37),

certain benefits of this profit-seeking by the developed countries will inevitably be gained by the underdeveloped countries. In order to achieve this goal, the science and discipline of **Development Management** has to be utilised in order to bring about the necessary changes in the developing societies in order to effect development in the western (modern) idiom.

According to Adlem & Botes (1980:8), a rigidly standardised administrative process approach would not suffice as a

conversion mechanism for bringing about development in different developing countries, as it is not possible to compile a blueprint of the respective variables that may be present within a particular country and which may differ completely from any other country (Adlem & Botes, 1980:8).

According to FitzGerald et al (1995:4), ensuring sustainable development in a country means moving beyond a narrow, but nevertheless important, concern with economic growth to considerations relating to the quality of that growth. This implies ensuring that people's basic needs are met, that the resource base is conserved, that there is a sustainable population level, that environment and cross-sectoral concerns are integrated into decision-making processes, and that communities are empowered. Sustainable development is concerned with improving the overall quality of life as well as satisfying particular human needs (FitzGerald et al, 1995:4).

### 3.3.5 Policy analysis

Wissink in Fox et al (1991:204) provides several definitions of policy analysis by various authors. The definition of Dunn, for example, according to Wissink in Fox et al (1991:205), states that policy analysis is:

" ... an applied social science discipline that uses multiple methods of enquiry and argument to produce and transform policy-relevant information that may be utilised in political settings to resolved policy problems ... ".

Lindblom, according to Wissink in Fox et al (1991:205), implies a more descriptive approach to policy analysis in the following questions:

- What are the underlying processes by which policy is made?
- To what extent does intelligence (information gathering) really count in the policy-making process?
- What is the nature of democracy in policy-making systems?
- What are the institutional rigidities and irrationalities that inhibit the policy-making process?
- Are there alternative policy-making systems or policies for policy issues of a general nature?

It would appear that Laswell's position of a concern for both **knowledge of** and **knowledge in** the policy-making process, as expounded by Wissink in Fox et al (1991:206), with a particular bias towards the latter and including a more **prescriptive** approach, is generally accepted as a point of departure for theorising on the science and discipline of policy analysis.

According to Wissink in Fox et al (1991:213), the task of the policy analyst has been specified as the generating of information on public policy issues to solve the problems related to these issues. It includes *ex post facto* generation of information on the performance of policy decisions.

"Analysis for policy" approach includes the following three activities.

- **Policy issue analysis**, which is the structuring of policy issues.
- The **advocacy** of policy alternatives, which might involve various modes of information search and research activity.
- The **policy outcome analysis** which includes the monitoring and evaluation activity. The policy monitoring and evaluation activity is part of both "analysis for policy" and "analysis of policy".

The following model with which policy analysts can approach the science and discipline of policy analysis, is proposed by Wissink in Fox et al (1991:214).

Table 6 - Wissink's model of policy analysis

ANALYTICAL APPROACH	ANALYTICAL FOCUS	ANALYTICAL INSTRUMENTS
Policy Content Analysis	Policy Interpretation studies	Judicial practice Administrative law
	Comparative Policy Analysis	Correlation of policy content
	Policy dynamics	Indicators of policy change
	Policy Pathology	Problems and ailments of the policy process
Policy Systems Analysis	Policy Behavioural Studies	Influence, decisions of shareholders and actors
	Policy Institutional Studies	Role of institutions and organisations
	Policy Process Studies	Agenda setting; procedures of policy-making bodies and/or committees
Policy Issue Analysis	Policy Problem Structuring	The objective nature of public problems
	Policy Advocacy	Recommended policy alternative
Policy Outcome Analysis	Policy Monitoring	The outcome of policy actions
	Policy Impact Evaluation	The value of policy actions

Wissink in Fox et al (1991:216) concludes that although a comprehensive definition of the phenomenon of policy analysis does not yet exist, there is reasonable agreement among theorists that it implies a multi-disciplinary approach that seeks to generate information about and in the decision process in order to provide the means for optimal policy decisions.

The existence of policy analysis as an activity at or near the top of the senior management cadres in the government service is regarded as vital for the successful maintenance of policy implementation on a contingency basis. In this regard it is concluded that academics or social scientists would mostly occupy themselves with the analysis of policy, while government policy analysts would apply themselves to analysis

for policy, or, within this context, to policy issue analysis (Wissink in Fox et al, 1991:216).

### 3.3.6 Management of change as a supplementary process

According to McCurdy (1977:368) various approaches to Public Administration are possible. He maintains that no one approach is suitable as being universally acceptable for Public Administration. McCurdy (1977:368) writes in this respect that no universals exist within the academic discipline of Public Administration and the practice of public administration. He is of the opinion that the future public administrator will need a combination of all the approaches to Public Administration so far expounded in order to be able to cope with the job of public manager.

To follow one approach only regarding the management of change, will result in a rigidity that will fail under certain conditions. McCurdy (1977:368) stresses that no one technique, no one theory, no one approach to public administration is really dispensable. Public Administration needs to employ all its approaches, from a contingency point of view, that could easily adapt to the dictates of each situation, with its particular different requirements, and with its particular dynamics.

## ■ The public manager as a change agent

The changing environment of the South African political and social situation places stringent demands on the management skills of the public manager as a change agent to effect the general welfare of a fast-growing population. This task has to be accomplished with ever-decreasing resources. The public manager has to cope with virtually limitless needs of the population, while the prevalence of misuse of public funds by public officials in a large number of ways exacerbates an already precarious government service situation even further.

In this respect Fox et al (1991:164) reflects on the public manager as a change agent. The persons who assume the responsibility of managing the change process within an organisation are known as **change agents**. Any public manager may act as a change agent, although it must be stressed that a change agent may be a non-manager, for example a staff specialist or outside specialist whose area of expertise is vested in the implementation of change (Fox et al, 1991:164).

In the event of major organisational change, according to Fox et al (1991:164), internal managers often procure the services of outside specialists as consultants to provide advice and assistance. In contrast, internal public managers who act as change agents may be more thoughtful and cautious than the outside consultants, because they are aware of the culture, limitations and environment of the government service and



because they have to face up to the consequences of their actions. However, in general, the public manager who acts as a change agent may concentrate his change efforts either on individuals and groups or on structural processes. The public manager will ideally, and initially endeavour to explore the possibility of changing the attitudes and behaviour of individuals and groups through communication, decision-making and problem-solving (Fox et al, 1991:164).

Fox et al's (1991:165-172) work pertaining to the various interventions of the public manager as a change agent is explained under the headings "resistance to change", "behaviour modification", "the managerial grid", "non-directive counselling", "sensitivity training", and "transactional analysis".

#### ■ Resistance to change

Fox et al (1991:167) furnish the following assumptions regarding resistance to change:

- \* Change involves both learning something new, and unlearning existing knowledge and attitudes.
- \* Change requires motivation, and if motivation is not present, the introduction of motivation may be the most difficult part of the change process.

- \* Organisational change, such as new structures, processes and reward systems, occur only through individual changes in key positions in the organisational structure.
- \* Most adult change involves attitudes, values and self-images, as well as the unlearning of present responses. This unlearning process is initially inherently painful and threatening.
- \* Change is multi-cyclical, and all changes have to be negotiated in a certain manner before it may be stated that a stable change has taken place.
- \* Generally, planned change may be described as consisting of three stages: unfreezing, changing, and refreezing (Fox et al, 1991:167).

#### ■ Behaviour modification

According to Fox et al (1991:167), behaviour modification attempts to shape, improve, and direct behaviour of members of the institution through concentration on consequences. By causing pleasing consequences to follow specific forms of behaviour, the frequency of that behaviour may be increased. Briefly, behaviour modification is about rewarding certain types of behaviour. Reinforcement is also a factor in behaviour modification (Fox et al, 1991:168).

## ■ The managerial grid

According to Fox et al, (1991:168), the managerial grid uses small face to face groups as the basic learning mechanism. The theoretical formulation that forms the basis of a "grid" seminar, is the **managerial grid**. This is a graphic way to express underlying theories and assumptions about the manner in which people should be managed in work environments. The grid is based on the managerial styles of "concern for people" along the Y-axis and "concern for production" along the X-axis on a two-dimensional, nine-point scale. The grid itself has nine possible positions along each axis, creating eighty-nine positions within which the leader's specific style may fall. It does not show the results obtained, but rather the dominating factors in a leader's thinking in terms of obtaining results (Fox et al, 1991:168).

## ■ Non-directive counselling

According to Fox et al, (1991:169), non-directive counselling is based on the belief that people can solve their own problems with the aid of a sympathetic listener. The public manager listens, repeats, synthesises, understands and gives feedback. The subordinate, however, determines the alternatives and makes the decisions. Non-directive counselling improves morale and reduces worker alienation. The real value of this type of intervention has not yet been proved conclusively (Fox et al, 1991:169).

## ■ Sensitivity training

According to Fox et al, (1991:169), sensitivity training, or T-group or laboratory training, is an experiential method using relatively unstructured face-to-face groups as the main learning vehicle. In addition to assisting people to accept change, the objectives of sensitivity training are to help people to understand themselves better, to create a better understanding of each other and to develop specific behavioural skills.

The major criticisms of sensitivity training have been, according to Fox et al, (1991:170), that it generates too much emotional stress for the participants. Also, that the process deprives the participants of their psychological defences thereby constituting an invasion of privacy. The openness achieved with sensitivity training cannot readily be carried forward by the participants to their work environments (Fox et al, 1991:170).

## ■ Transactional analysis

According to Fox et al, (1991:171), transactional analysis is a technique used to help people to better their understanding of their own behaviour and that of others, particularly in interpersonal relationships. The primary concepts in transactional analysis are ego states, transactions, strokes and the ways that people spend their time.

Ego states comprise three states, parent, adult and child.

A transaction is a basic unit of social interaction, consisting of an exchange of words and behaviour between people.

A stroke is a unit of recognition, which may be positive or negative.

The ways in which people spend their time are classified into six categories: withdrawals, rituals, activities, pastimes, psychological games, and authentic encounters or intimacy.

The primary concern of transactional analysis is the discovery and fostering of awareness, self-responsibility, self-confidence and sincerity. It lays the foundations for changing dysfunctional behaviour by developing mutual trust between people. It also promotes authentic interpersonal relationships, and provides a means of opening up communication channels and of identifying, analysing and deciding on ways to eliminate communication barriers (Fox et al, 1991:171).

#### **3.4 A THEORY FOR PUBLIC PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT**

Andrews (1988:3) states that the personnel function consists of a network of functions and functional activities. These functions and activities, with the aid of defined analytical

methods and auxiliary aids and with the recognition of specific normative guidelines, are exercised in order to provide, utilise, remunerate, train, develop, and maintain a motivated corps of personnel for the public sector.

Various authors have formulated definitions for public personnel management.

Carrell et al (1986:3) defines personnel management as:

"...a set of programs, functions, and activities designed to maximise both personal and organizational goals".

Ivancevich et al (1989:7) briefly defines personnel/human resources management as:

"...the function performed in organizations that facilitates the most effective use of people (employees) to achieve organizational goals and individual goals".

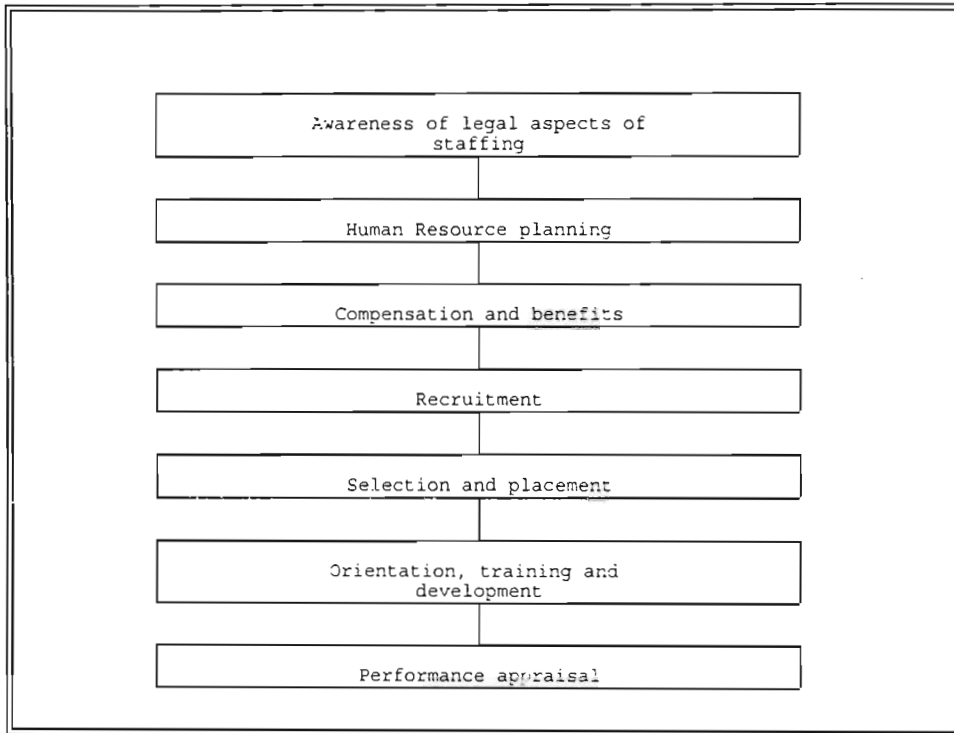
Dubrin (1990:219) defines personnel management as "staffing" with the following definition:

" ... Staffing is the process of making sure there are the necessary human resources to achieve organisational goals ...  
".

Although Dubrin's definition omits the management (utilisation) aspect of personnel management, scrutiny of his Organisational Staffing Model implies the inclusion of a management function. See Figure 6.

Figure 6 - Dubrin's Organisational Staffing Model.

## Dubrin's Organisational Staffing Model



Stahl (1983:28) defines public personnel management as:

"...the performance of all managerial functions involved in planning for, recruiting, selecting, developing, utilizing, rewarding, and maximizing the potential of the human resources of an organization".

Stahl also states that this definition was devised with private enterprise in mind, but that it could also be made applicable to the public sector.

Bearing in mind Stahl's above comment about the universal nature of personnel management, the description of Dessler (1984:1) also deserves mentioning:

"... in order to understand what personnel management is, we have to ask what it is that managers do...", and "... most experts agree that there are five basic functions all managers perform: planning, organising, staffing, leading, and controlling. In total, they represent what is often called the management process...".

Dessler (1984:2) explains that the function staffing consists of the following concepts and techniques:

- Job analysis.
- Planning manpower needs and recruiting candidates.
- Orienting and training new employees.
- Wage and salary management.
- Providing incentives and benefits.
- Appraising performance
- Face-to-face communicating.
- Developing managers.

The South African Board for Personnel Practice has, in co-operation with the Electricity Supply Commission (ESKOM), published a Generic Competency Model for Human Resource Practitioners with a notable exposition of their view of what personnel management entails. The Board views personnel management as consisting of four components adding up to a competence value. Table 7 illustrates the Board's Generic Competency Model for Human Resource Practitioners (SABPP, 1990:3-5).

Table 7 - Generic Competency Model



<u>EDUCATION</u> KNOWLEDGE BASE	<u>TRAINING</u> SKILLS BASE	<u>APPLICATION</u> EXPERIENTIAL BASE
<p><b>Social Sciences</b></p> <p>1 Industrial Psychology 2 Industrial Sociology 3 Industrial Law/Labour Law</p> <p><b>Business Sciences</b></p> <p>4 Business Management 5 Economics 6 Accounting 7 Statistics 8 Computer systems</p>	<p><b>Functional</b></p> <p>1 Research Methodology 2 Measurement 3 Assessment 4 Systems design 5 Group process 6 Mentoring 7 Consulting</p> <p><b>Managerial</b></p> <p>8 Leadership 9 Planning 10 Budgeting 11 Communication 12 Marketing and promotion 13 Negotiating 14 Change Management 15 Monitoring 16 Reporting</p>	<p><b>Employee level deployment</b></p> <p>1 Recruitment 2 Selection 3 Career management 4 Termination 5 Retirement planning</p> <p><b>Administration</b></p> <p>6 HR policies 7 HR procedures 8 Job evaluation 9 Compensation management 10 Employee assistance programmes 11 Occupational health 12 Industrial relations 13 Disciplinary procedures 14 Grievance procedures 15 Accommodation and feeding 16 Recreation</p> <p><b>Performance development</b></p> <p>17 Design</p>
		<p><b>APPLICATION</b> <b>EXPERIENTIAL</b> <b>BASE</b></p> <p><b>Employee level deployment</b></p> <p>18 Induction/orientation 19 On the job training 20 Off the job training 21 Performance assessment 22 Developing counselling 23 Job advancement 24 educational assistance</p> <p><b>Group level</b></p> <p><b>Intra-group functioning</b></p> <p>25 Team development 26 Conflict management 27 Participation</p> <p><b>Inter-group functioning</b></p> <p>28 Matrix 29 Cross cultural environments 30 IR structures 31 Trade union relationships</p> <p><b>APPLICATION</b> <b>EXPERIENTIAL</b> <b>BASE</b></p> <p><b>Employee level deployment</b></p> <p>32 Collective bargaining</p> <p><b>Organisational level Corporate strategy</b></p> <p>33 Business planning 34 Manpower 35 Succession planning</p> <p><b>Corporate structure</b></p> <p>36 Organisation design 37 Job design 38 Resource utilisation</p> <p><b>Corporate functioning</b></p> <p>39 Corporate values 40 Employee motivation 41 Opportunity equalisation</p>

29 Cross cultural environments 30 IR structures 31 Trade union relationships	<b>VALUES</b>
<b>APPLICATION</b>	<b>BEHAVIOURAL BASE</b>
<b>EXPERIENTIAL BASE</b>	<b>Professional</b>
<b>Employee level deployment</b>	1 Systemic thinking 2 Measurement orientation 3 Objectivity 4 Judgement 5 Innovation 6 Assertiveness 7 Accountability 8 Integrity 9 Confidentiality 10 Flexibility
32 Collective bargaining	<b>Inter-personal</b>
<b>Organisational level Corporate strategy</b>	11 Respectfulness 12 Recognition 13 Responsiveness 14 Empowerment 15 Consultation
33 Business planning 34 Manpower 35 Succession planning	<b>Managerial</b>
<b>Corporate structure</b>	16 Customer focus 17 Quality focus 18 Results focus
36 Organisation design 37 Job design 38 Resource utilisation	
<b>Corporate functioning</b>	
39 Corporate values 40 Employee motivation 41 Opportunity equalisation 42 Human resource utilisation	

The above units of personnel management represent, according to the South African Board of Personnel Practice, a cross-section of what personnel managers (human resource practitioners) should be occupied with in terms of their personnel management function.

From the quoted definitions and descriptions of (public) personnel management at least four distinctive requirements for the effective execution of personnel management functions can be identified:

- staff has to be **provided**.
- staff has to be **maintained**.
- staff has to be **trained, developed and evaluated**.
- staff has to be **effectively utilised**.

Andrews (1988:16) describes these requirements as the functional activities of the personnel function. The following is a brief description of the four components:

**Provision of personnel** - According to Andrews (1988:16), the provision of personnel:

"... is made possible by executing the processes of human resource planning, position determination and job classification, recruitment, selection and placement."

**Maintenance of personnel** - Once the personnel has been provided via the provision of personnel function, steps have to be taken to maintain the presence of the appointed human resources. Andrews (1988:157) mentions "compensation packages" that can be construed as to include both a salary and various service conditions. Of these Andrews (1988:159) include certain ergonomic factors, such as an attractive work environment.

**Training and development of personnel** - Stahl (1983:iv) groups the issue of staff development and training under the heading "developing top performance". According to Stahl (1983:275) training and development of personnel is the very essence of supervision.

Fox et al (1991:77) defines training as the process by which job-related skills and knowledge are taught. In the same reference he mentions the term "accultivation", and defines that as the process by which organisational norms are

acquired. The phenomenon of the acquisition of organisational norms as defined by Fox et al (1991:77) pertains well to the managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa, and this particular aspect will be further explained later in this thesis.

Training is, according to Holden (1986:231), the most important process to ensure organisational effectiveness. Training is also necessary for the fulfilment of employee potential. Holden (1986:231) cites four elements involved in the training process:

- social evolution;
- legal mandates;
- maximising performance; and
- prolonging employee service.

Regarding **social evolution** as the first element, Holden states that in a changing environment the organisation must acknowledge the obsolescence of old approaches to training and training programs. Not only must training programs be designed for new employees, **but management must be prepared to retrain senior officers constantly** (Holden, 1986:232).

As the second element Holden (1986:233) regards **legal mandates** as of utmost importance for public employees in the execution of their duties. Officials should be aware of legal

implications concerning their work, as well as the cost of improper performance.

**Maximising performance** is the third element of training that Holden (1986:233) explains. He emphasises that the best reason for training is to teach employees discretion and judgement. Ultimately a good training program does far more than to prepare employees for the job; it socialises them into the ideology and values of the organisation.

Regarding the fourth element of **prolonging employee service** Holden (1986:234) refers to a problem of public service employment, namely employee turnover. Large amounts of money is spent on training an official for his post. When a competent employee resigns, a vacuum is created that cannot be filled before the training and experience combine to provide another employee capable of competent performance. When these elements of training, as expounded by Holden, are considered, it can be inferred that the necessary attitudes that have to be cultivated in the employees within the organisational structure will have to take place via the medium of training.

As most individuals are already equipped with certain values and norms, orientation procedures would be essential in order to ensure that the values and norms whereby the organisational goals can be most expeditiously achieved are transferred to employees and officials not only as soon as possible after the

commencement of service, but also as part of a continuous process of training throughout the period of employment.

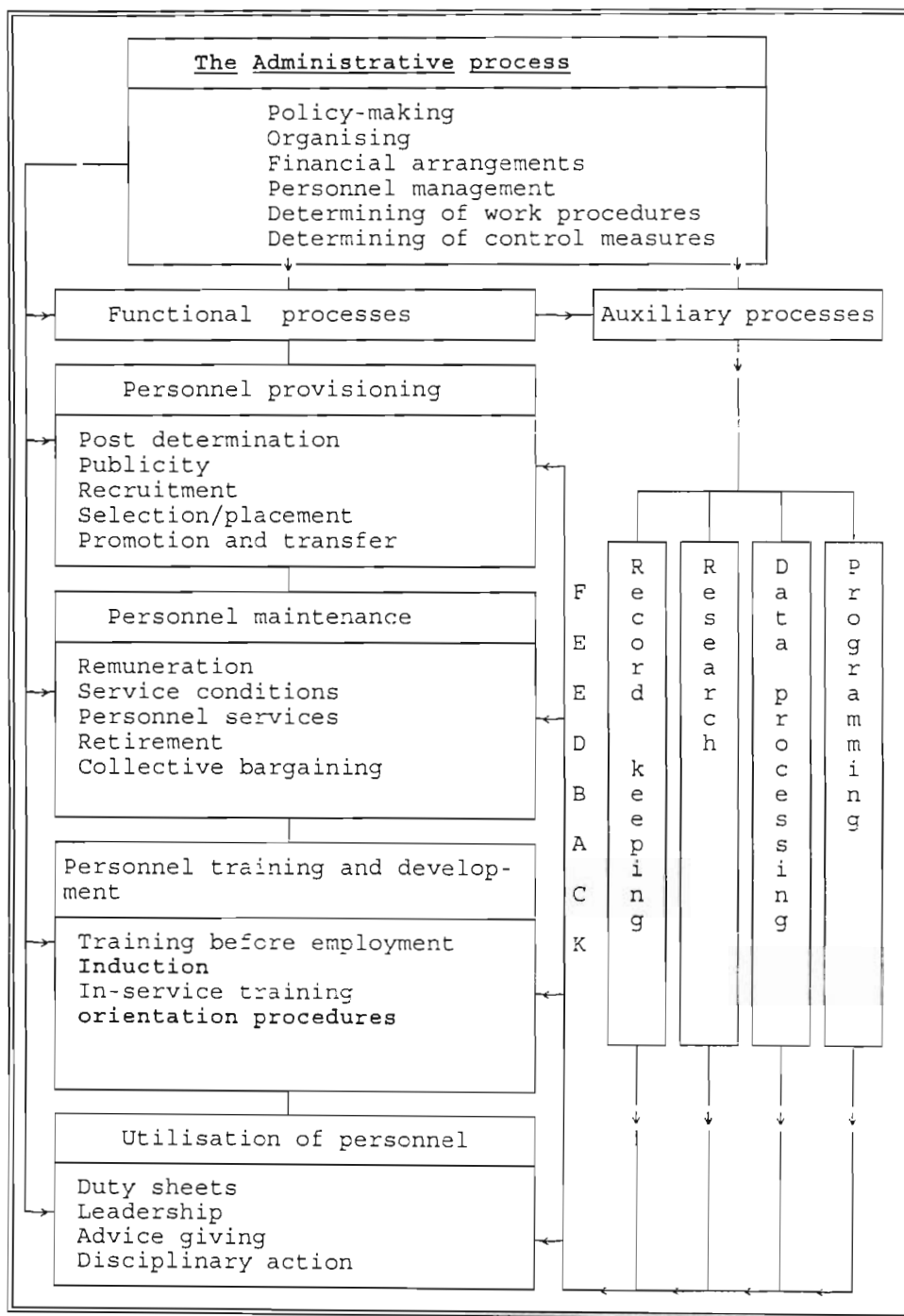
**Utilisation of personnel** - The inferral is made that once personnel has been provided via the personnel provision process, maintained with acceptable compensation packages, trained, developed and effectively evaluated, a process of optimal utilisation of personnel has to follow to ensure that the work is carried out effectively and efficiently.

Andrews (1988:19) regards optimal utilisation of personnel as possible through transfers and promotion, discipline and punishment, guidance and motivation.

Although many authors have put forward their own particular model for public personnel management, it should be accepted that no one model will suffice to make provision for all possible situations that may be encountered in the process of public personnel management. Bearing in mind the situational nature of public administration and the similar situation of its subordinate components, of which public personnel management is one, any models that are used for public personnel management should be continuously subjected to review and scrutiny, to determine whether that particular model is still applicable under the prevailing circumstances.

Figure 7 is an illustration of personnel management according to a South African model.

Figure 7 - Personnel management



The above model of public personnel management was adapted from a model put forward by Cloete (Cloete, 1975:7).

### 3.5 A THEORY FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF ORIENTATION PROCEDURES

When literature on orientation procedures is researched, it is found that, in spite of the phenomenon of orientation being mentioned fairly regularly in literature on personnel management, extensive theoretical information regarding orientation is relatively scarce, compared to other facets of training and development. This trend is particularly evident in literature on public personnel management. This observation is substantiated by Glueck (1974:231) when he states that orientation has not been studied a great deal.

In terms of the stages of development of personnel functions everyone agrees that new employees need to be orientated. Everyone claims to do it. A few studies indicate that while present managerial orientation programs are not the best, in general everyone has them. Little scientific research has been done on whether the programs are adequate. Thus the function is said to be in early development (Glueck, 1974:231).

Most authors on the subject of public personnel management devote a brief discussion of orientation procedures under the heading of training and development, thereby merely recognising its existence within the wider concept of training and development, and briefly describing their view of the concept. In order to illustrate this finding, a number of views on orientation by authors on the subject of personnel management will be explained.



According to Dessler (1984:223) orientation means providing new employees with basic information about the employer, information that they need to perform their jobs satisfactorily. He further states that orientation is one component of the employer's socialisation process, which is an ongoing process that involves instilling in all employees the prevailing attitudes, standards, values, and patterns of behaviour that are expected by the organisation and its departments. Key words from Dessler's description is that orientation is an ongoing process, involved in instilling particular attitudes, standards, values and patterns of behaviour that are expected by the organisation.

If, for the purposes of this thesis, it is accepted that the management cadres of the government service presently possess attitudes, standards, values and patterns of behaviour that were expected by an apartheid government, then it would seem appropriate that the process of orientation, as defined by Dessler, should prove to be valuable to a post-apartheid government. This would not only be to orient new employees but also to effect behaviour modification of the management cadres of the central government service. This viewpoint, that orientation is about the learning of new attitudes, norms, and behaviour patterns, is particularly emphasised by Glueck (1974:234).

Marks (1970:7) proposes that the orientation process is imperative to ensure a positive attitude from the employee.

Summers (1977:394) states that orientation is intended to leave a positive impression in the mind of the new employee. This view is reiterated by Humphrey and Angus (1989:97).

Cuming (1986:183) states that orientation training is carried out in order to help recruits in an organisation to overcome their sense of strangeness, secure acceptance, and develop in them a sense of belonging. A large proportion of labour turnover occurs during the early weeks of employment, mainly because no effort has been made to make the newcomer feel at home. The content of such orientation should be of common interest to all newcomers, no matter how junior or how senior they may be (Cuming, 1986:184).

Gorton (1983:174) states that every effort should be made during orientation to assure that new staff members gain correct understanding of the many facets of the organisation and of their working environment.

### 3.5.1 Advantages of orientation

After a person has accepted a position at an organisation, he/she should be encouraged to feel part of the organisation. Most employees are initially enthusiastic and want to know a lot about their new position and the organisation. They arrive at the organisation on their first day, full of positive expectations and intentions. However, employees are often disappointed when they do not receive the necessary information

immediately or are not introduced to their colleagues. This disappointment and the concomitant dissatisfaction are often directly or indirectly the cause of resignations within the first few months after accepting the position. This type of situation can be avoided by means of an effective orientation programme.

Marx (1978:82) explains orientation as the process by means of which new employees are systematically and gradually introduced to and assimilated into the institution by introducing them to the other members of staff and the objectives, policy, rules, regulations and activities pertaining to the establishment, as well as the operations of the department in which they will work, the duties and responsibilities delegated to them personally and the apparatus which they will have to use.

Orientation is an effort to introduce the employee to the organisation, his/her position, his/her supervisors and his/her colleagues. Orientation tries to bridge the gap between the actual employment and the productive work performance by the employee. This may be viewed as the last step of the employment process, but also as the first step in the training of the new employee.

According to Technikon South Africa (1993:125-141) matters of daily routine and general work pressure in departments are often regarded as being of greater importance than the orientation of new employees. It is sometimes also accepted

that a newcomer should by virtue of his/her qualifications and/or experience have sufficient knowledge and background to integrate with his/her new work environment. This may lead to the unproductive employment of manpower, frustration on the part of the employee or even to early resignation. Orientation in general is aimed at preventing this situation. More specific objectives will be explained in the paragraphs that follow:

■ **Cost-effectiveness**

According to Technikon South Africa (1993:125-141) formal orientation programmes are associated with high costs. The programme usually involves senior personnel and for the duration of the programme they are withdrawn from their normal duties. These costs are justified, however, when one takes into consideration that unnecessary absenteeism and early resignations, owing to problems with adaptation and integration, are prevented. An early resignation would mean that the whole, expensive process of recruitment and selection would have to be repeated.

Orientation reduces the period before the newcomer is really productive, by presenting the necessary information in a logical and systematic way. A newcomer who has not been properly informed, still has to get the work done and often has to ask the supervisor or his/her colleagues for help. Effective orientation prevents the time of these people from

being taken up unnecessarily. Expensive mistakes which the newcomer may make through ignorance, are also prevented to some extent.

A good orientation programme may lead to greater loyalty and it may activate the newcomer to better work performance (Technikon South Africa, 1993:125-141).

#### ■ Reduction of stress and uncertainty

It is to be expected that the new work and the unknown colleagues will cause uncertainty and to some extent stress and anxiety in the new employee. Fears that he or she will not fit in with the work group, that he or she will not be accepted by his/her colleagues or that the employee will not meet the demands of the new position, can only be overcome through a conscious effort on the part of management. The objective of the orientation programme therefore is to make him/her feel at home (Technikon South Africa, 1993:125-141).

#### ■ Reduction in the turnover of labour

Labour turnover is usually high during the first few months of service. Employees who have undergone a proper orientation programme identify more quickly and more permanently with the organisation. Since they get to know the rules and regulations, the work methods and procedures more rapidly, they may feel part of the organisation or a specific work group much

sooner. To a large extent this prevents the early termination of service (Technikon South Africa, 1993:125-141).

#### ■ Development of a positive attitude

For as long as the employee is not sure of what to do in various circumstances, he will probably do very little. This in itself is extremely demotivating and keeps the employee from self-realisation and cordial integration with the rest of the work-force.

Effective initiation by means of a suitable orientation programme usually makes the difference. As soon as an employee knows what to do, where, when and how it should be done, he has more self-confidence to start working. When the employer shows the newcomers, by means of the orientation programme, that he is interested in his/her employees and that he wants to contribute to their job satisfaction, this usually leads to positive attitudes towards the organisation (Technikon South Africa, 1993:125-141).

#### ■ Responsibility for orientation

Both the personnel department and line management (the supervisor) play key roles in the orientation process. The part of the orientation process for which each of them is responsible, depends on management's disposition and the nature of the personnel department. In small organisations which do

not have a personnel department or only a small personnel section, the supervisor has the greatest responsibility for the orientation of the new personnel. Even in a large organisation there are certain aspects of the orientation process which should be handled in the new employee's own department.

It is the responsibility of line management to prepare the other employees for the new employee's arrival - this should take place before the new employee starts work. Reasons for the new appointment may be given, for example, in order to smooth out any possible suspicions and hostility. When the new employee arrives, the supervisor must make him/her feel welcome in the new work environment. The supervisor must inform the newcomer about the nature and location of his/her work place. He should furthermore tell the newcomer about the nature and extent of the duties of his/her position and point out to him/her where these fit into the broader context of the organisation. The supervisor must also introduce the new employee to his/her colleagues. The function of every existing employee and the connection between his/her work and the newcomer's work must also be pointed out to him/her as they are being introduced to the employee. The personnel department must co-operate closely with line management in the orientation of new personnel. It is the personnel department's task and responsibility to:

- \* create a proper orientation programme;
- \* train line management with regard to their responsibility in the initiation of new employees;
- \* ensure that line management implements the established programme;
- \* control the implementation of the orientation programme;
- \* evaluate and adapt the programme if this is required in the circumstances.

■ **The contents of the orientation programme**

The contents of the orientation programme will differ from one organisation to the next. Beach (1985) provides a list of fundamental matters that should be included in an orientation programme, but points out that the list is not complete and that every organisation will adapt the contents of its orientation programme in order to meet its requirements:

- \* The organisation's history, its policies as well as the implementation of such policies.
- \* The services/products offered by the enterprise.
- \* The layout of the buildings or plant and all other facilities.
- \* Broad organisational structures.
- \* Responsibilities of workers towards the organisation and vice versa.
- \* Compensation procedures.
- \* Prescribed rules of conduct.



- \* A tour of the department/departments.
- \* Work schedules.
- \* Collective bargaining agreements.
- \* Fringe benefits, such as life insurance, medical scheme, pension fund and unemployment insurance.
- \* Safety programme.
- \* Training possibilities.
- \* Promotion policy and possibilities.
- \* Introduction to colleagues.
- \* Establishment of a feeling of belonging and acceptance in the new employee.
- \* Sincere interest in the new employee.
- \* Performance appraisal system.
- \* Division of work.

#### ■ The orientation programme

According to van der Merwe (1978:8) the orientation programme can usually be divided into two phases, namely first-day orientation and continued orientation.

First-day orientation is important since first impressions are usually lasting impressions. Care should be taken not to confront the new employee with too much information on the first day. The newcomer's nervousness together with the strangeness of the situation limit his/her ability to absorb and process too much new information.

It should be borne in mind that newcomers are not totally uninformed about what goes on in the organisation, regarding its policies, the type of product or service produced or rendered or the nature of the job. During the application phase, the selection interview and through informal contact with people already employed by the institution, a prospective employee gathers basic information about the new working environment before the first day of work.

According to van der Merwe (1978:8) the following principles should be built into a first-day orientation programme for new employees:

- \* Only the most essential information should be conveyed to newcomers. Their emotional state makes them unreceptive to too much factual information. Their interest is restricted to what they are expected to do and with whom they have to work.
- \* A specific person should be made responsible for receiving and orienting a new worker.
- \* The orientation programme should be planned well in advance and in full detail so as to inform the person responsible for the orientation of a newcomer fully as to what is expected of him/her in this regard.

First-day orientation should be seen as the responsibility of the personnel department and the line functionaries. It is important that a first-day orientation programme should be well-planned and presented effectively, because it has been proven statistically that those workers who leave the institution after the shortest period of employment (within the first two months), are those who were not properly oriented (Van der Merwe, 1978:8).

According to Technikon South Africa (1993:137) continued orientation is necessary because it serves no purpose to overburden the new employee with too many details on his/her first day. The orientation programme should therefore be continued after the first day. While the newcomer received only general information about the task on the first day, this must now be explained in more detail and demonstrated if possible. The newcomer should also get the opportunity of doing the task him/herself, under the supervision and with the help of the orientation assistant.

Continued orientation is presented in the period during which the employer's attitude towards the organisation is being formed. It could, therefore, mean the difference between negative and loyal employees. Through continued orientation the employer also gets the opportunity of presenting the orientation programme thoroughly and of allowing the newcomer some time in between sessions, to master the information. In time, the newcomer has to apply the information received during

orientation practically. If the new employee experiences problems or he still has uncertainties, these can be dealt with in a follow-up session. Contact should, furthermore, be retained between the newcomer and the orientation assistant for as long as it takes the newcomer to be integrated with the work group (Technikon South Africa, 1993:1390).

According to Technikon South Africa (1993:139) orientation is a process whereby the new employee is systematically introduced into the organisation from the moment duties are assumed, up to the level where a productive contribution can be made by the employee. By means of effective orientation the initial costs of employing the newcomer can be limited, stress and uncertainties in the new employee reduced, early resignation avoided and a positive disposition fostered in the newcomer.

The orientation programme must be evaluated on a regular basis to determine whether the set objectives are being achieved.

According to Glueck (1974:231), every new worker needs to be oriented to job expectations, job knowledge, and work. Orientation is the process designed to introduce the new employee of the organisation to the establishment and to the job he/she will perform. This normally includes discussion of the personnel policies and work policies of the organisation, and job conditions, and the people the new employee will work with to get the job done, as well as informing him/her of the institutional culture of the employer.

Orientation has not been studied a great deal. It is generally accepted that all employees need to be oriented. Little scientific research has been done on whether existing orientation programs are adequate. Thus the function is said to be in early development. Glueck (1974:231) states that orientation programs have been described in a general way by relatively few sources.

#### ■ Formal management training programmes

In a section on formal management training programmes, Glueck (1974:240) explains orientation for management trainees. After an individual has been selected to become a manager, there are two distinct approaches to his orientation and placement. The first is to orient the person briefly and let him go to work; this is the approach most organisations take with non-managerial employees. The second is to have the future manager oriented and trained in a management training program and then assign him to a position.

Glueck (1974:241) further explains that certain organisations use a combination of both the abovementioned approaches. The National Industrial Conference Board in the United States of America, has examined the abovementioned programmes in two studies during 1956 and 1963. In the 1956 study, the various methods used in management training programs were examined. Trainees of the 240 companies studied rank ordered preferences for possible methods as follows.

* Informal, learn while doing .....	40%
* Formal on-the-job training.....	33%
* Classroom training .....	12%
* Trainee observes others working .....	10%
* "Assistant to" positions .....	4%
* Written assignments .....	1%
	100 %

The effective companies felt that 16 years of school were enough for these trainees. According to those companies, the best methods to use were actual learning experiences, with much less emphasis on classroom methods with written assignments. Eight years later, management training programmes were studied again by the same researchers, this time the study included 26 highly rated programs. The study was based on questionnaires from 1,074 male college graduates who had completed the programmes. One third of the trainees had liberal arts degrees, two thirds business management or technical degrees. First the researcher focused on those who quit the companies and the training programs. He found those who quit did so because:

- \* Training was not active enough for trainees.
- \* Trainees' progress was not checked often enough.
- \* Training was too slow moving and not tough enough.
- \* The trainers were weak instructors.

* Informal, learn while doing .....	40%
* Formal on-the-job training.....	33%
* Classroom training .....	12%
* Trainee observes others working .....	10%
* "Assistant to" positions .....	4%
* Written assignments .....	1%
	100 %

The effective companies felt that 16 years of school were enough for these trainees. According to those companies, the best methods to use were actual learning experiences, with much less emphasis on classroom methods with written assignments. Eight years later, management training programmes were studied again by the same researchers, this time the study included 26 highly rated programs. The study was based on questionnaires from 1,074 male college graduates who had completed the programmes. One third of the trainees had liberal arts degrees, two thirds business management or technical degrees. First the researcher focused on those who quit the companies and the training programs. He found those who quit did so because:

- \* Training was not active enough for trainees.
- \* Trainees' progress was not checked often enough.
- \* Training was too slow moving and not tough enough.
- \* The trainers were weak instructors.

The programmes examined were typical in duration: from 4 to 24 months. The trainees felt the objectives of the programs were satisfactory. They strongly preferred on-the-job training which gave them an opportunity to show what they could do and to learn what the business was all about. The "best" program as evaluated by trainees was relatively short (five months), well planned (detailed course outlines and exams if classroom oriented), with feedback (receiving ratings from being closely supervised), and emphasis on real problems and practice. The "worst" program was longer (one year), poorly planned, emphasised "background material" (history of company, detailed product list), too classroom oriented (many lectures, tests), and offered infrequent ratings. These evaluations were congruent, according to Glueck (1974:242). Both companies and trainees preferred a minimum of formal classroom work, a maximum of actual work. The company gets productivity sooner, the individual receives rewards sooner. Most of the trainees wanted to test themselves against the challenge of the "real world" to see if they can do the job. Programs that did not allow that and emphasised lectures or mere observation of how departments work, satisfied neither of these objectives (Glueck, 1974:242).

#### ■ Assignment and follow-up

According to Glueck (1974:242) the final phase of the orientation program is the assignment of the new employee to the job. At this point, the supervisor is supposed to take



over and continue to orient new employees. But as was demonstrated by a Texas Instrument study by Gomersall and Myers (Glueck, 1974:234 and 242), supervisors are busy people, and even though they might be well-intentioned, they can overlook some of the facts needed by the new employee to do a good job.

Another good control measure to establish adequate orientation is to design a feedback system to help assure this (Glueck, 1974:242).

■ **Cost/benefit analysis for orientation**

Glueck (1974:242) explains that there are several ways of evaluating the costs and benefits of orientation programmes. The first approach is to compute the cost per new employee of the orientation programme. This is done as follows:

Direct costs:

Cost of trainers or  
orientation specialists  
+ Cost of materials provided  
+ Cost of space used (if applicable)

Indirect costs:

Cost of time to supervise trainers/orientation  
specialists  
+ Cost of supervisors of new employees on the job

---

= Orientation costs.

After computing these costs, the organisation should compare its costs per employee to the costs for comparable organisations. The organisation can also compare the costs of

running its own program versus contracting it to outside vendors (Glueck, 1974:245).

Regarding benefits, Glueck (1974:245) explains that the trainees can be asked to evaluate the benefits by using an attitude questionnaire. Companies can also experiment as Texas instruments did and measure the differential retention rate and the output rate for an orientation programme versus no orientation programme. The results of two different orientation programmes can be compared, and results of attitude surveys and retention rates can be compared with those of other organisations (Glueck, 1974:245).

Glueck's (1974:231-245) description of a number of approaches to orientation by certain companies in the private sector should not be made applicable *mutatis mutandis* to the government sector. However, as organisational development is present in both sectors, and in view of the uniform human element within organisational structures, it may be useful to take cognisance of orientation programs as practised in private enterprise, in order to be able to broaden the knowledge base regarding the subject. This is necessary to be able to gather sufficient insight to develop and propose a normative model for the management of orientation procedures in the government sector.

According to Youst and Lipsett (1989:73) engineering graduates, no matter how bright, usually require a long period before

their work is fully up to speed in a new company. The Corning Glass Works in Corning, New York, in the United States, has devised an individualised approach to orientation training. This approach, they claim, shortens start-up learning time and build task-management skills that last.

Youst and Lipsett (1989:73) writes that new employees do not accomplish much until they start to build relationships with all work associates. They also have to learn specific departmental technologies and how to follow required procedures and get necessary support services.

According to Youst and Lipsett (1989:73), Corning's individualised approach, known as SMART Engineering, is built on the foundation of two very successful programs - the Corporate Orientation System and the SMART Process for new plant supervisors. SMART is an acronym for "Self-Managed Awareness, Responsibility, and Technical competence".

The Corporate orientation system requires attending 10 modules spanning 25 to 30 hours in a three-month period. It involves structured contracts with supervisors and key questions designed to guide comprehension of seminar material and to stimulate continuing discussions.

The SMART Process for new plant supervisors is centered on key questions about operations and on an oral peer-review panel that certifies completion of the process.

Both programs, highly respected within the company, appeal to corporate engineering directors who want new engineers to avoid the time-wasting "sink or swim" approach that was once considered unavoidable. At Corning, the integration and training of new engineers is often interrupted and complicated by frequent travel to domestic and international plants and by project managers. In addition, many separate functional and departmental specialities apply to Corning's product research and manufacturing problems in its 60000-plus product manufacturing concern. SMART works because it is flexible, adaptable, and individualised to meet the needs of diverse employees (Youst and Lipsett, 1989:73).

#### ■ Features of orientation

Youst and Lipsett (1989:73) explains that SMART Engineering is not a one-shot, time-bound session. It is a multistep process that promotes organisational as well as individual development. Groups of managers are charged with developing key questions to provide new engineers with the experiences, contracts, skills, and information for their start-up and long-term career effectiveness. The managerial discussions have a major impact on the organisation, often providing both the "heat" and "light" on important issues. They help build eventual consensus with a "manage by prevention" focus - providing new employees with the knowledge and resources to solve problems before they come up.

All new employees must take responsibility for their own learning. The SMART Engineering process provides common questions to answer, although each requires visits to plants, research areas, and out-of-the-way (but vital) building facilities, and meetings with seasoned experts, project receivers, and members of associated departments, handouts, other printed materials; and videotapes are used extensively. Teamwork and coaching among participants is encouraged throughout. The last two stages of the process are an oral peer review session and service as a reviewer on subsequent review panels (Youst and Lipsett, 1989:74).

#### ■ Evaluation of orientation

According to Youst and Lipsett (1989:75) one informational study of the effectiveness of plant-based SMART found that start-up time was cut in half, from six to three weeks. During the two-year period ending in January 1987, more than 300 new employees enrolled in SMART Engineering. Most submitted evaluation questionnaires when they were certified, and of the 1986 participants, many completed a simple three-month, post-certification questionnaire. Brief interviews were held with 30 of 60 new hires during one four-month period, and 19 of their supervisors answered questionnaires. In all, six separate studies produced exceptionally consistent responses.

Overall ratings of participants and supervisors were favourable. More than 85 percent cited improved start-up effectiveness or improved networks and relationships with co-workers, suppliers, and customers. In a study that asked which presentation was most helpful, 37 percent cited improved understanding of purchasing procedures, problems and ethics.

Some participants, mostly recent college graduates, identified travel and project responsibilities that conflicted with SMART Engineering priorities as significant problems. Procedures were revised in several ways during the two year-period, such as tailoring the program to each person and not requiring the employees to take part in activities they and their supervisors did not consider important or relevant to job responsibilities.

The above changes helped to reduce the priority concerned from an initial 20 percent response to less than 10 percent.

Participants were encouraged to anticipate travel time and to build in, with the consent of their supervisors, a more generous time-allotment for training.

Supervisor responses in the study cited above and in general managerial reviews were exceptionally supportive (Youst and Lipsett, 1989:74).

## ■ Implications for trainers

The development and success of the SMART Orientation Process has many important implications for training.

- \* Items to be learned are derived from the needs of the organisation. They come from problems faced by new employees and needs identified by managers who agree with their peers about questions important in their departments.
- \* the process encourages active involvement of participants by raising questions that can only be answered by drawing on a variety of sources and personal contacts.
- \* For employees with competing travel schedules or obligations, the SMART method permits flexibility in finding time for the training.
- \* The review process ensures completion of the learning.
- \* Learning for the reviewers continues as the review process reinforces their knowledge. Plus, they stay up-dated about ongoing organisational changes.
- \* Feedback through the review process and formal evaluations provide a basis for continuing revision as needed.

- \* Personal contacts throughout the organisation help develop an appreciation of and identification with its culture.
- \* Versions of the SMART Engineering Process can be used successfully for start-up training for technicians, secretaries, engineering specialists and geographically distributed staff groups (Youst and Lipsett, 1989:74).

■ **Incidental benefits of orientation**

According to Youst and Lipsett (1989:74) the SMART orientation process encourages frequent contacts between supervisors and new subordinates, providing an opportunity for coaching and bonding. Supervisors benefit from the first-hand contact with new employees, hearing concerns directly and opening their own doors for follow-up contacts. As in any large company, career paths at Corning can take varied directions, and at the start, SMART participants get an overview of company information and career opportunities that might not be evident for years to engineers who never left their individual departments.

The SMART orientation process teaches new engineers to take personal responsibility for their career growth and to develop professional habits that are critical to career success. Ensuring that new employees know how to use the total resources of the company shortens start-up learning time and builds in task-management skills that allow them to adapt to the pressures of a new job.



While orientation programmes, such as those explained above, may not necessarily be totally applicable to the managing of orientation procedures in the government service, knowledge of such programs facilitate the design and implementation of government service orientation programs. In the light of the relatively scarce literature on the theory and management of orientation procedures *per se*, cognisance has to be taken of instances where organisational structures, public or private, have taken an interest in orientation and have integrated such programmes into its strategic planning for organisational development. In later chapters specific attention will be devoted to orientation programmes in existence in various public institutions, with a view to gain sufficient knowledge and insight in order to be able to develop and propose a normative model for the management of orientation procedures for effective and efficient public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa.

### 3.6 SUMMARY

This chapter briefly investigated, in a funnel approach, theories of the science and discipline of public administration, public personnel management and the management of orientation procedures as sub-disciplines of public administration.

A brief explanation of the term "philosophy" was given, followed by an exposition of viewpoints on the paradigmatic

status of the discipline of Public Administration. This was followed by a description of the various theoretical approaches to the subject of Public Administration, whereafter the place of management theory in relation to a theory for Public Administration was explained. Then followed descriptions of theories for public personnel management and the management of orientation procedures. Finally, certain practical examples of orientation in both the public and private sectors were provided.

In the next chapter the nature of attitudes and theories of human behaviour as related to the question of resistance to change will be explained. This will include an explanation of orientation for attitude change, as well as of various factors that may inhibit voluntary behaviour modification in people.

## CHAPTER 4

### THE NATURE OF ATTITUDES AND THEORIES OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR AND RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The field of training has experienced an upsurge of development in recent decades. This trend has been observed in the United States and Britain, and to an increasing extent, in South Africa. Evidence of this phenomenon can be found in the large volume of literature and research on the subject of training having been en still being published in recent times.

In spite of extensive availability of literature on the subject of training, literature on orientation procedures per se, as a sub-component of training, is relatively scarce, as confirmed by Glueck (1974:231). Orientation training, per se, is, however, regarded as of paramount importance in the process of shaping of positive attitudes in the workplace. In order to be able to substantiate this statement, the concept of attitudes will be briefly examined in relation to the aims of this study.

Considering the above, the question can be asked: "why orientation procedures"? The answer to this question can be found in the traditional and historical factors related to attitudes that synergised to result in the various cultural and ethnocentric viewpoints that presently characterise the composition of the various population groups in South Africa.

This chapter will describe the nature of attitudes and theories of human behaviour such as the field theory, the expectancy theory and the equity theory. This will be followed by a description of orientation for attitude change and theories on resistance to change. The latter will include, *inter alia*, descriptions of self-interest theories such as the inertia/homeostasis theory, fear and insecurity theories, power theories and personality theories. This will be followed by appraisal of change theories, moderating theories in the environment, moderating factors in the person, and other factors.

#### 4.2 THE NATURE OF ATTITUDES

Most societies in countries of the world came about as a result of similar evolutionary processes than those that determined the present societal composition in South Africa. However, the multiplicity of cultures that converged to produce the current South African nation are each typified by its own unique historical and ethnocentric background. A brief overview of various historical factors that strongly influenced government policies and practices in South Africa was given in the second chapter.

Various legislative measures are envisaged by the current South African government in terms of the RDP (ANC, 1994), that may force the implementation of measures such as affirmative action policies, to rectify the imbalances in public personnel policies of the past (ANC, 1994:127). This should bring about

changes in negative and established attitudes on race of existing public officials, and particularly those on managerial levels. However, such changes may not take place as smoothly as desired and may become problematic for the political office bearers, as representatives of the new order.

The above view is reiterated by Latieb (1993:14), when he states that:

" ... assuming that current civil servants will be retained, one cannot underestimate the ability of their upper ranks to manipulate and obstruct new policy orientations and implementation objectives. The centralised accumulation of knowledge in the persons of senior bureaucrats makes it possible for them to define the constraints and resource parameters within which policies can be formulated ... ".

During the first ever democratic general election in South Africa during April 1994, the power of officials to manipulate public policy was illustrated when they negatively influenced the ability of the Independent Electoral Commission (IEC) to orchestrate an efficient administrative and organisational effort.

The above state of affairs was ascribed to either a general disinterest in the elections, or deliberate attempts by certain officials of the department of Home Affairs to sabotage the success of the election. The problems encountered with missing ballot-papers, lack of co-ordination of election officials and difficulties with the eventual counting of the ballot-papers are well documented in news

reports during the period 27 April 1994 to 10 May 1994  
(Reporter, Die Burger, 1994:1).

An interview with Mr F. France, Senior Project Co-ordinator: Accreditation and Logistics of the IEC (Independent Electoral Commission) in the Eastern Cape, has revealed that five middle-management officials were arrested in Gauteng in connection with the hiding and disappearance of a large quantity of ballot papers and Inkatha stickers. This action contributed to much confusion during the election and was also the cause of delays during subsequent counting of ballot papers (France:1994).

In the light of the foregoing it may be necessary to formulate and bring about changes in attitudes towards public personnel management policies among senior managerial personnel in the government service. This would be particularly relevant for the purpose of facilitating the smooth, effective and efficient implementation of the policies of the government, especially with regard to the RDP (ANC:1994).

The RDP is continuously being mentioned by the State President as the single most important policy document of the government. Within this context it is understood that the RDP will be used to ensure that the general welfare in all societal areas of the population of South Africa is seriously pursued, within budgetary limits, by every executive governmental institution in the country.

The officials that will be charged with the implementation of the policies of the RDP will have to be fully committed to ensure the success of the RDP. To ensure this commitment, effective and efficient orientation procedures that will be executed on a continuous basis, should immediately be adopted and implemented. This requirement pertains not only to existing managerial personnel, but should also be part and parcel of the public administrative thinking of all officials, from the entry-level to top managerial levels.

The orientation process should also, if and where practically possible, be extended to the new political office bearers, where intensive training regarding the place and role of political office bearers vis a vis officials, and vice versa should be done, as well as attention to particular aspects of accountability and transparency when dealing with public matters.

To ensure that all role-players are totally committed to the successful implementation of government policies, including those mentioned in the RDP (1994), it must be ensured that positive attitudes regarding the impending changes from previous apartheid-based government policies are cultivated. This requirement may initially be difficult to execute in certain respects.

Kiesler et al (1969:3) refers to Green's description of attitudes regarding the concept of attitude that:

" ... the concept of attitude implies a consistency or predictability of responses ... " (Green, 1954:336).

It will be noted that no specific definition of the concept "attitude" is furnished by Green, however, Kiesler et al gives a lengthy explanation of various approaches to the concept of attitudes, which may not be relevant to this study.

Notwithstanding the foregoing, in order to arrive at an understanding of the universal meaning of the term "attitude" that may be suitable for this study, the definition of Zimbardo-Ebbeson (1969:6) may have particular significance:

" ... attitudes are generally regarded as either mental readiness of implicit predispositions that exert some general and consistent influence on a large class of evaluative responses. These responses are usually directed towards some object, person or group. In addition, attitudes are seen as enduring predispositions, but ones that are learned rather than innate. Thus, even though attitudes are not momentarily transient, they are susceptible to change ... " (Zimbardo-Ebbeson, 1969:6).

The sentence " ... These responses are usually directed towards some object, person or group ... " contained within Zimbardo et al's definition, is particularly relevant within the confines of this study.

The above relevancy is mentioned because the study of managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa implies the existence of certain negative attitudes towards certain cultural and ethnic groups by certain incumbents of managerial posts in the government service.



In the light of the foregoing, the **primary** purpose of this study can be suggested to be the elimination of negative attitudes harboured by certain senior public managers towards certain groups in the government service regarding facilitating the implementation of the RDP (RDP,1994). **Secondarily**, but no less important, is the orientation of new employees to inculcate in them the necessary bureaucratic culture and also to prepare them for a government service career. The following section will be devoted to an explanation of theories of human behaviour. This is deemed necessary in order to gain insight into the process of orientation, the experience of change per se, and the effects of changed circumstances on people.

### 4.3 THEORIES OF HUMAN BEHAVIOUR

This brief explanation of theories of human behaviour is provided to clarify certain behavioural patterns of people during the process of change.

Kastner (1981:15) elucidates on three basic theories of human behaviour, namely the **Field** theory, the **Expectancy** theory and the **Equity** theory. Each of these theories will be briefly explained in the paragraphs that follow.

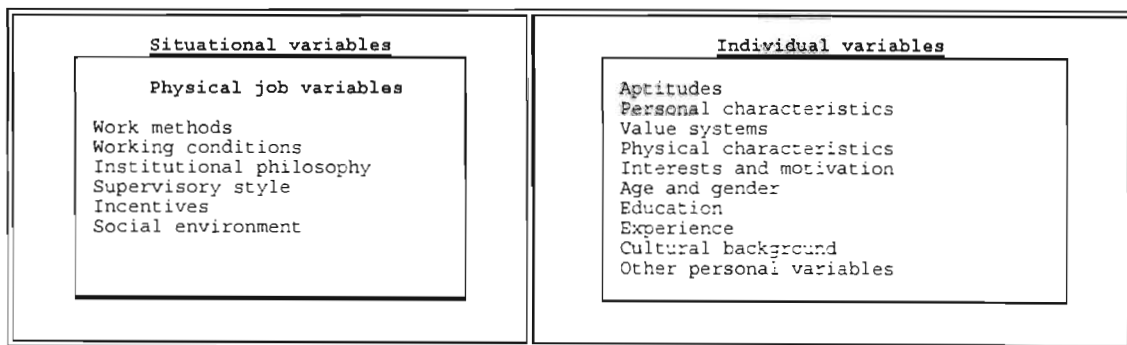
#### 4.3.1 The Field theory

The field theory views human behaviour as a reaction to

stimuli emanating from the environment or from within the individual. Behaviour is seen as a function of the total field (gestalt) that exists at a given time for a given person. According to this view, behaviour is dependent upon the individual's perception and interpretation of the field as a whole. His perception and interpretation are in turn affected by his personal make-up and previous experience.

Figure 8 is an illustration of this phenomenon.

Figure 8 - The field theory



#### 4.3.2 The Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory renders another perspective on the analysis and prediction of courses of action that an individual will follow when he/she has the opportunity to make personal choices about his/her behaviour. This theory points to the fact that the motivational "force" to engage in particular behaviour is a multi-faceted function of the expectancies the person holds about what **outcomes** are likely to result from that behaviour and the value (valence) assigned to these outcomes (Kastner, 1981:15).

The above view holds that if "working hard" has a negative value, then the motivational force to work hard will be low. This theory, however, only applies to behaviour that is under the voluntary control of the individual. In job situations there are basically two choices over which the employee has voluntary control, namely:

- the amount of effort and energy he puts into his job activities; and
- the performance strategies or approaches he uses in going about his job.

#### 4.3.3 The Equity Theory

The **equity** theory enunciates the assumption that the rewards inherent to the job can be either above or below that which is subjectively perceived by the employee to be equitable. This may result in tension and dissatisfaction. The tension in turn causes the employee to attempt to restore equilibrium by a variety of behavioural or cognitive measures that may be counter-productive to the institution (Kastner, 1981:15, Vroom and Deci, 1970:146).

According to Kastner (1981:16) the relevance of the abovementioned theories to public personnel management can be summarised as follows:

- Explanation of human motivation and behaviour in the work situation is facilitated.
- The complex nature of motivation and behaviour is underlined, in that motivation and behaviour are seen as a function of a specific person (with all his or her characteristics) within a specific situation (with all its characteristics).
- Further research is stimulated, for instance by merely extending the model (see the Field theory), it can be used to identify employee problems in an institution.
- The importance of people-oriented personnel planning is emphasised; if public personnel structures and practices do not meet the requirements of the employees, staff problems will inevitably ensue, taking various forms such as lower productivity, higher absenteeism, low worker morale as well as high staff turnover.
- Why people work - a crucial question underlying personnel management - can be answered with a degree of accuracy.

Behaviour is, according to Kastner (1981:16), directed towards the attainment of goals or towards the satisfaction of needs. People will thus work if personnel structures and practices contain mediums that are based on their needs. In this context it should be remembered that institutions play an increasingly important part in the lives of people and that

employees are to a greater extent than in the past dependent upon their employment to satisfy their needs - in fact, industrialisation makes it virtually impossible for the average man to satisfy all his needs outside an institution (Kastner, 1981:16).

#### 4.4 ORIENTATION FOR ATTITUDE CHANGE

Epstein and Cook (1987:4) writes that in South Africa resistance by whites to black advancement is not only an organisational issue, but is also an intensely human issue of people whose "comfort zones" within an organisational structure have been radically disturbed. They are no longer sure where and how they fit into the culture of the organisation, and may manifest their feelings of insecurity in their management styles. According to the authors, institutional personnel policies that expect employees to adapt to new ideas that simultaneously appear to threaten their position in the company are likely to fail. People are more likely to accept change in one particular aspect of their lives when they feel secure and supported in other aspects (Epstein and Cook (1987:4).

Moerdyk and Fone (1988:14) holds that not all change is resisted and that **reactions** to change cover the full range from total acceptance and implementation to total rejection and resistance. The key element in determining this attitude

is the perceived outcome of the change process to the person; those that the person sees as beneficial to himself will be accepted and those that are perceived as harmful to his interests will be resisted. Thus the effects of the change are likely to be judged in terms of the person's **self-interest**, as he perceives it at the time of the change taking place (Moerdyk and Fone (1988:14)).

Another perspective can be had on the issue of change, with particular reference to the managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa, with a brief explanation of a number of theories of human behaviour.

#### 4.5 THEORIES ON RESISTANCE TO CHANGE

On the question of why change is resisted, Moerdyk and Fone (1988:15) explain that the effects of change are generally judged in terms of the person's **self-interest**, as he perceives it at the time. Other explanations of this resistance involve the **personality** of the person(s) concerned, the **social psychology** of persuasion (including group dynamics), the theory of **psychological reactance** and the "**not invented here**" or NIH syndrome.

For the purposes of this study and in the light of the complexity of human nature it is regarded as necessary to briefly describe the above-mentioned theories of resistance to change as they apply to the problem of managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa.

#### 4.5.1 Self-interest theories

According to Moerdyk and Fone (1988:15) these theories generally argue that people have vested interests in the status quo and that any changes that threaten these interests are resisted. Three sub-theories can be identified within this general category - these are **inertia**, **fear**, and **power** theories.

##### ■ The Inertia/Homeostasis Theory

This theory, as part of the self-interest theories family, holds that people are located within numerous complex systems in which the various elements and subsystems have over time settled into a state of equilibrium or homeostasis. The person's values, beliefs and aspirations are components within these larger systems. If and when a change occurs within part of a system, homeostatic forces arise that counteract the change to restore the equilibrium and maintain the status quo. Examples of these changes are changes in administrative

procedures, changes in conditions of employment, the introduction of new technology necessitating changes in job procedures and, particularly with regard to older people, training programmes designed to develop new technical or interpersonal skills.

### ■ Fear and Insecurity Theories

The **fear** and **insecurity** theories, according to Moerdyk and Fone (1988:15) sees resistance to change as arising from uncertainty about the outcomes of the change process. This fear takes many forms, including the loss of status and earnings, the fear of possible failure in the new circumstances with concomitant loss of self-esteem and respect of others. Change itself may be feared because it creates a number of potential unknowns.

In the South African situation, the resistance to black advancement can be linked to this fear motive in a number of ways - fear that any job opened to black employees will lose status, resulting in lower wages, service conditions and social standing, as well as the fear that standards may drop.

Because many white workers have historically been able to exert collective pressure in their wage negotiations, they have been able to improve their earnings relative to those workers who did not possess this negotiating power prior to the election of a democratically elected government in April



1994. White workers in this category have the most to lose, because of their historically privileged position regarding remuneration and position in the work situation (Moerdyk and Fone (1988:15)).

#### ■ Power Theories

**Power** theories, according to Moerdyk and Fone (1988:15), are closely related to the fear theory discussed in the previous section. This include theories that are concerned with maintaining the existing **power** relationships. These occur initially in informal group situations where group processes are used to ensure that group norms are not transgressed. Secondly, in more formal settings, power is important at the national and regional level where the distribution of money and services in the social arena is at issue. Given the traditionally unequal distribution of national wealth on the basis of colour, race and ethnicity, any effort at equalising opportunities at the occupational level may be seen to be detrimental to the interests of the poorly skilled but relatively overpaid segments of the workforce.

#### 4.5.2 Personality Theories

Moerdyk and Fone (1988:15) refer to Barnes (1967: no page nr available) and Patti (1974, no page number available) regarding identification of four groups of individuals who differ in their attitudes towards change. These are

labelled **rational advocates**, **rational resisters**, **radicals**, and **traditionalists**. Within this reference Moerdyk and Fone (1988:16) mention Patti (1974: no page nr available), who distinguishes between the **conserver**, a basic change-avorter who is mainly concerned with maintaining his position within the organisational structure, the **climber**, a selective change-supporter who is primarily concerned with acquiring power positions and prestige and will support those changes he sees as benefiting his own position, and, finally, the **professional**, who tends to support change that will enhance the attainment of organisational objectives.

Moerdyk and Fone (1988:16) further explains three personality theories, namely **tolerance/intolerance of ambiguity**, **conservatism** and **prejudice**. Of these three, the last two will be explained for the purposes of this study.

## ■ Conservatism

Conservatism is seen as striving to firstly maintain the **status quo**, secondly to believe that any change is to be resisted, thirdly believes that current modes of functioning should be maintained and fourthly holds that where change is necessary, this should be gradual and within the existing framework. The conservative personality theory is found predominantly among older people and members of the working classes, who tend to be more conservative than professional classes. This may be because the **stati** of the working classes

may be subject to more violent change than those of the professional classes.

## ■ Prejudice

The theory of prejudice (within the context of this study the term "prejudice" is understood to refer to **racial** and **gender** prejudice) is of particular importance to the issue of black and women advancement in South Africa. The term prejudice could be construed to mean "pre-judging" and prejudiced people are those who tend to categorize members of various groups and objects as likely to behave in certain ways without those people or objects having the opportunity to prove otherwise.

### 4.5.3 Social psychological theories

This group of theories include the sub-theories **group dynamics**, **psychological reactance** and the **not invented here syndrome**.

- **Group dynamics** refer to the identification of an individual with a group and its collective action. The individual's behaviour is determined by the direction of the group action (Sherif and Cantril, 1947:290, as referred to by Moerdyk and Fone, 1988:16).
- **Psychological reactance** refers to the theory that people are by nature democratic and that they react negatively if free choice is denied to them. If the individual

feels that he or she is being coerced or forced to act in a particular manner, Brehm (1966; 1972: no page nrs available, as referred to by Moerdyk and Fone, 1988:16), argues that the person may act in such a way as to restore lost freedom. This view is reiterated by Reber (1985:612-3), as referred to by Moerdyk and Fone (1988:16), when he states that:

" ... people will react against attempts to restrict or control their choices and decisions ... " (Reber, 1985: 612-3, as referred to by Moerdyk and Fone, 1988:16).

According to Moerdyk and Fone (1988:16) it is this motive that is termed **psychological reactance** and that is often the motive underlying resistance to change. A notable side-effect of the reactance motive is its capacity to produce public and private change in **opposite** directions. If the coercion to adopt a given position is both powerful and lacking in legitimacy, the recipient may agree outwardly but disagree strongly in private and may, as a result, set about to sabotage the project (Moerdyk and Fone, 1988:16).

- According to Moerdyk and Fone (1988:16) the not invented here syndrome is the view that local circumstances are special and that "imported" solutions are accordingly inappropriate for the particular local problem. Change can be postponed or circumvented clandestinely for long periods until the original motivation for change has lost impetus.

#### 4.5.4 Appraisal of change theories

Epstein and Cook (1987:4) explains that the key to experiencing change lies in how the person **appraises** the change that he or she is facing. Two people will respond differently to what appears to be the same changes. They will be "seeing" different events or outcomes. Person A, for example, will experience fear if he is a helpless passenger on a speeding train. Person B, on the other hand, will enjoy the experience of riding on a roller-coaster that may generate even higher gravitational forces than the speeding train.

The perceptions of each of the above situations will be situation-bound and as such will exert its influence on the particular person with the concomitant reactions that will be dictated by the expected outcome of the situation by the person concerned.

It follows that the appraisal of what happens to a person is influenced both by the demands of his or her environment and the characteristics and resources within the person. The actual demands made and the resources available are less significant in triggering the stress response than are the **perceived** ones (Epstein and Cook, 1987:4).

Epstein and Cook (1987:5) mention two moderating factors in the **environment**, ie social support and control, and three moderating factors in the **person**, ie type A-B behaviour pattern, hardy personality, and other factors. These factors

can be classified as being **external** and **internal** factors moderating a person's appraisal of change.

■ **Moderating factors in the environment (external factors)**

\* **Social support**

Social support is the degree to which a person is linked in a network of supportive relationships and is one of the most widely researched moderators of change and stress. For most people warm, supportive relationships at home, among friends, among colleagues and employers are fundamental for coping with stress. As a rule isolated people are more likely to find change distressful than those whose social network is secure. This is particularly relevant in South Africa where people's social position occupies so central a place in their experiences of life.

An example of the above is the marginal position of people from **disadvantaged** communities that has shown to inhibit their ability to cope in the workplace. Black advancement programmes have tried to address this problem, but the very description of black advancement itself has emphasised differences, and possibly compounds the problem of isolation and relative lack of actual power which members of such programmes might experience in a predominantly white

environment. That is why certain whites' resistance to black advancement is not only an organisational issue, but is also an intensely human issue of people whose "comfort zones" have been radically disturbed.

\* **Control**

All humans have a basic need to make sense of the world and to feel in control. Thus one of the most important moderating factors in change is the degree to which people are able to influence events, things and people around them. It is also true that people support what they helped to create. People affected by change should be allowed an active part in the planning and conduct of change. This will contribute to their ownership of the problem and to their sense of mastery. With persistent change people are confronted with evidence of their own failure and with inescapable proof of their inability to alter the circumstances of their lives. This results in loss of self-esteem and erosion of mastery (Epstein and Cook, 1987:5).

It can be inferred that should certain managers experience change in the negative manner as described above, certain defence mechanisms will be activated that will adversely affect their behaviour in the workplace. The reaction may then be detrimental to their relationships and managerial functions pertaining to those individuals and groups who are perceived by the manager as being a cause of or part of the

threat to their own security.

■ Moderating factors in the person (internal factors)

\* Type A-B

Regarding personalities coping with stress which may come about as a result of change, Epstein and Cook (1987:5) furnishes a description by Friedman and Rosenman (1974: No page nr available) of the type A-B behaviour pattern:

Typical type-A characteristics are:

- Easily provoked impatience.
- Time urgency.
- Overconcerned with deadlines.
- Tendency to perform several tasks at once.
- Overcommitted to work and productivity.
- Competitive and ambitious.
- Little concern for others.
- Very responsible and conscientious.
- Excessive drive and hostility.
- Tendency to withhold anger (even when appropriate).

The interaction between hostility and the tendency to withhold anger (anger-in), is, according to Dembroski, et al, (1985: page nr not available) as referred to by Epstein and Cook (1981:4) thought to be more closely related to coronary heart disease than any of the other factors. Underlying type-A characteristics is a need always to be in control of what



happens and a tendency to overreact to situations of uncontrollability.

For type-A's, explained above, lack of control is associated with particularly high levels of stress. Periods of uncertainty and change are therefore likely to be experienced as highly stressful. The primary coping mechanism of type-A people is the unrealistic appraisal of change and challenges. They tend either to overestimate demands, which results in inappropriately increasing their efforts, or underestimate demands and expose themselves to overload. Perceptions of exhaustion and tiredness are suppressed and internal coping mechanisms overestimated.

Epstein and Cook (1981:4) list the characteristics of the type-B person who tend to be:

- Less competitive.
- More relaxed and easy going.
- Not so impatient and time conscious.
- Able to enjoy non-work related activities.
- More likely to adapt to conditions of change.

#### ■ The Hardy Personality

Epstein and Cook (1981:6) reports a study by Hilker, medical director of the Bell Telephone Company, who studied symptoms

of stress at a time when Bell was undergoing drastic change, both through internal reorganisation and by external demands for **affirmative action** and the curbing of monopolistic practices.

Hilker noticed, according to Epstein and Cook (1981:6), that a number of the company's executives who were most exposed to change and stress, showed no symptoms of strain and were in fact the healthiest members of the staff, able to deal most effectively with the change. This observation led to the introduction of the "hardy personality-types" whose main characteristics could be described as follows:

- \* Commitment (versus alienation) - believing in the truth, importance and value of who one is and what one is doing.
- \* Control - (versus powerlessness) - tendency to believe and act as if one has influence over the course of life's events.
- \* Challenge - (versus threat) - tendency to value change and unpredictability as opportunity for growth.

Epstein and Cook (1981:6) report that Kobasa (1985: no page nr available) found that several less hardy personality types reported more stress during change despite high levels of social support from their families. It was inferred that the

staff member expressed his reliance on the support by means of stress symptoms, whereas those individuals who had apparently less social support, came out strongly in handling the stresses of change in the work situation.

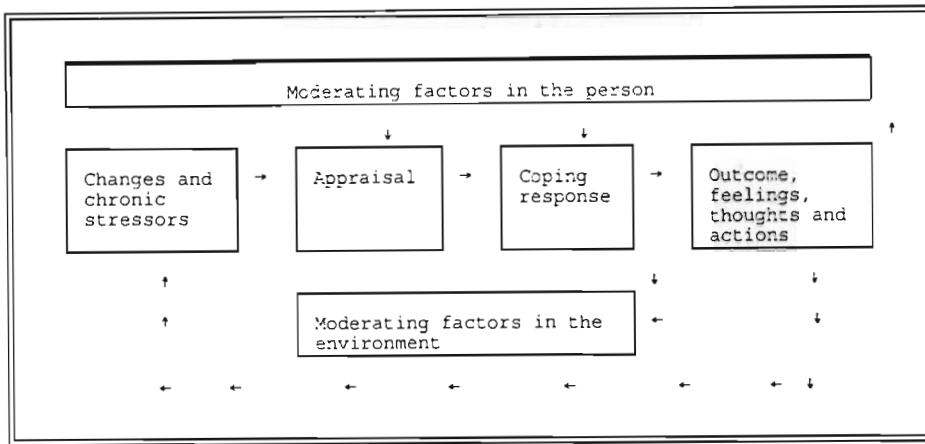
#### ■ Other factors

A number of other personality factors that have been shown to moderate stress reactions to change were mentioned by Epstein and Cook (1981:6):

- \* High self-esteem.
- \* A sense of competence.
- \* Cognitive flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity.
- \* Effective problem-solving skills.
- \* Higher threshold for anxiety.
- \* High level of motivation (need achievement).
- \* Extroversion.

Figure 9 illustrates that the effect of change on people depends on how they respond to change per se, and that their coping with change depends in turn on their appraisal of the change, which is influenced by the environmental and personal factors discussed above (Epstein and Cook, 1987:6).

Figure 9 - The change cycle



Considering the aforementioned explanation, the ideal model for change would prescribe the following skills needed to manage transition (according to Epstein and Cook (1981:6), referring to Hopson and Adams (1977: no page number available)):

- \* To be able to move into the new situation with as little immobilisation, minimisation and depression as possible.
- \* To exit from the old situation (let go).
- \* To manage the anxiety generated.
- \* To behave in the new situation to maximise the chances of fulfilling set objectives.

Reynolds (1989:20), in an address on how adults learn, emphasises the importance of internal motivation that originates from the need to grow and develop to self-realisation. However, he also stresses the point that training in problem solving should not rely entirely on case studies alone, but should also make use of real problems from the work situation, as this will be more productive and of greater interest to the trainees.

The standpoint as described above, has particular relevance for the training of managers to manage orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa as the **infinite variability of possible situations** that may be encountered in public personnel management cannot be simulated satisfactorily in a training environment that is exposed to change.

This explanation of various theories on personality and resistance to change is seen as sufficient for the purposes of this study. It follows that when a normative model for the managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa is developed, these various approaches to the behaviour of people and how they experience the change phenomenon, should be kept in mind, and, where possible, included in the normative base of a model for orientation procedures.

The theories as described above, can make a valuable contribution to the training situation, of which orientation is a sub-component.

#### 4.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter the nature of attitudes were explained.

A number of theories of human behaviour were explained, as well as orientation for attitude change. Then followed an explanation of theories of resistance to change, which included a number of self-interest theories, personality theories, social psychological theories, and appraisal of change theories.

The importance of knowledge of various theories of human behaviour and resistance to change for the study of managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa was pointed out.

In the next chapter a comparative overview of the nature and extent of orientation procedures in selected countries will be provided, including elements of discrimination and affirmative action inasmuch as those concepts pertain to the relevant countries.

## CHAPTER 5

### A COMPARATIVE OVERVIEW OF DISCRIMINATION AND AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN SELECTED COUNTRIES

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of discrimination can be identified when unfair or unequal treatment is observed being given to individuals or groups. Discrimination refers to an action, or behaviour, based on an attitude (Popenoe, 1980:323).

Yinger (1969:42) describes two meanings of the term discrimination. The one refers to being discriminating in the sense that one draws a particular distinction based on generally accepted standards of behaviour and excellence. This interpretation refers to knowledge of certain standards associated with one's group and applying those standards in a skilful manner.

Another interpretation, according to Yinger (1969:42), is the concept of discrimination as "the unequal treatment of equals." This can be explained as the application of an irrelevant or unfair criterion, by means of which one person or group receives an undue advantage, while another person or group, whilst possessing equal qualifications, suffers an unjustified penalty. This context refers to discrimination "against," not "between" (Yinger, 1969:42). The most common form of discrimination "against" is found in the act of racial discrimination.

This chapter will investigate, on a comparative basis, discriminatory practises in selected countries as well as remedial measures that may have been taken, if any, to rectify past injustices with regard to racial and other discrimination. The countries selected for the comparison are India, Sri Lanka, Malaysia and the United States of America. The existence and effectiveness of anti-discriminatory measures such as affirmative action, will be discussed.

## 5.2 RACIAL CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO ROODE

Roode (1971:130) explains that the term "race" has to be clearly defined in terms of the particular context in which it is used. He states that the term lends itself to differentiated interpretations. In this regard he refers to various researchers who classified the different peoples on earth in terms of particular race groups.

Roode (1971:130) describes Bernier's quadruple classification during the seventeenth century as (i) the inhabitants of Europe, North Africa and parts of Asia, (ii) Africans, (iii) Asians, and (iv) the inhabitants of Lapland.

In 1738 the Swiss naturalist Linnaeus distinguished between four general types of races in the world for example Europeans, Americans, Asians and Negros (Roode, 1971:130).



The German physiologist Blumenbach proposed a quintuple race classification of earth's human inhabitants namely Caucasian, Mongoloid, Ethiopian, American and Malayan. He used hair type, skin type, build as well as skull shape as principal criteria for his classification (Roode, 1971:130).

Contemporary classifications according to Roode (1971:131) varies between a threefold classification of Caucasian, Mongoloid and Negroid to a quadruple classification of Australian, Negroid, Mongoloid and Caucasian (Roode 1971:130). He concludes the explanation of theories on race by proposing that the term race can be used with reference to a group that is a biologically descendant group and/or who views the group as possessing a common ancestry of which the differences relate to an own cultural identity, and which group is aware of differences between it and other groups.

In terms of the above it is important to note that Roode's definition emphasises the relations between groups with each a real or alleged common biological ancestry, often with an own cultural identity and with an awareness of the existence of the concept "race" (Roode, 1971:131).

If the above premises are accepted as a point of departure for the purposes of this discussion, then the term "racial discrimination" can be explained as the targeting of another race group than one's own for unequal and unfair treatment (Roode, 1971:132). As racial discrimination is usually

preceded by racial prejudice, it follows that the act of racial discrimination relates to negative action or actions to the detriment of those who are being discriminated against (Roode, 1971:132).

### 5.3 INDIA

According to Weiner (1993:5) India is a society based on a hierarchy where the ranking of castes, as high and low, are regarded as a natural state of affairs. Disparities among India's castes are not the result of British colonial rule but are deeply embedded in the Indian social order.

If the above statements are taken as a point of departure, then caste discrimination in India can be viewed as a given and in that respect worthy of investigation insofar as it being analogous in certain respects to the South African history of racial discrimination. The only difference that will be proposed in this respect is that, contrary to the situation in South Africa, discrimination in India has been an observable phenomenon since long before the colonisation process began.

Racial discrimination in recent history in South Africa will be viewed in terms of it being one of the consequences of the colonisation process of this country during the past three centuries by certain European powers.

### 5.3.1 Discrimination in India

The word caste, according to Opler (1969:146), combines the meanings of the Hindi terms **varna** and **jati** and refers to large Indian social groups. The **varnas** are the four great divisions of the Indian population, namely the Brahmans, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas and Sudras. Among these, the Brahmans are in the superior position and the Sudras are regarded as inferior. In Hindu belief these divisions are divinely ordained. The division into hierarchically arranged groups, or castes, is correlated with occupational functions. The Brahmans are the traditional priests of society, the Kshatriyas form the military and governing group, the Vaishya, traditionally employed in agriculture, are the traders and businessmen. The Sudras are traditionally the servants of the other groups.

The Sudras are divided into two main sections, known as "clean" and "unclean". The unclean Sudras are known as the "Untouchables", called by Gandhi as Harijans, or "children of God", in an attempt to arouse the Indian national conscience to their plight. The traditional work of the "untouchables" is often considered as religiously polluting to other castes, as in working with leather and disposing of the carcasses of dead animals.

The "Untouchables" were often denied the priestly services of Brahmans as well as access to temples. Drinking wells used by the higher castes were closed to them, and they were forced to

live in separate hamlets (Opler, 1969:146). The so-called "clean" Sudras have also suffered major disabilities in the past, as the greatest gap in the caste system has been between the three upper **varnas** and the Sudras. In recent times the blue collar workers all came from the ranks of the Sudras. The different groups of Sudras are each known as a **jati** (Opler, 1969:146). Thus, groups such as gardeners, potters and carpenters, although they are all Sudras, are recognised as separate **jatis** or castes.

Each group described above is governed in caste matters by its own caste assembly, and each has strict rules controlling dining and social relations with other **jatis** and **varnas**. Violation of the regulations may result in fines or other penalties, even in outcasting, a formal expulsion from the caste which often ends in economic ruin as well as social ostracism (Opler, 1969:146).

The various groups of **varnas** are endogamous and hereditary - each person from those groups must marry within his or her **varna**, and the marriage partners and their offspring will remain members of their particular group throughout their lives (Opler, 1969:146).

### 5.3.2 Affirmative action in India

In 1950 a new constitution made public discrimination against "untouchables" in India illegal. The then new constitution

emphasised the equality of all citizens before the law. The political power of the "untouchables" has afforded them privileges regarding government employment and admission to institutions of higher learning (Opler, 1969:146).

According to Weiner (1993:5) the post-independence nationalist leadership led by Nehru were committed to undoing the caste structure and changing India to a more egalitarian society. Included in the new constitution of 1950 was a provision that there shall be no discrimination on the grounds of religion, race, caste, sex, descent, place of birth or residence. Another clause was included that stated that none of the aforementioned articles shall prevent the state from making special provision for the advancement of "socially and educationally backward classes" or citizens, including the so-called scheduled castes, or "untouchables" (Weiner, 1993:5).

Whilst the Indian constitution of 1950 reconfirmed the classical 19th century liberal conception of the rights of citizens, it simultaneously asserted that special entitlement could be provided on the basis of membership of a particular group.

Weiner (1993:5) states that a conflict situation arose in India as a result of the apparent ambiguous nature of the abovementioned articles in the constitution: equal opportunity for all but special benefits for some. The basic question

that was posed was, who ought to be the beneficiaries and what were to be the benefits? These two basic issues, according to Weiner (1993:5) are the focal points of any affirmative action programme.

According to Béteille (1993:7) affirmative action is also known in India as positive discrimination. It is generally described as a policy of reservations. The term "reservations" is understood to mean that certain privileges called "reservations" are "reserved" for certain classes of people. This could mean particular quotas being laid down ensuring certain groups of people certain privileges, such as government employment, or admission to universities.

Béteille (1993:7) mentions three basic types of reservations, namely political reservation, job reservation and higher education reservation.

According to Béteille (1993:7) political reservation relates to the number of seats in parliament and state legislatures. These are mandatory provisions guaranteed by Articles 330 and 332 of the Constitution of India. These provisions apply only to the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes. Political reservation has been relatively free of controversy and there has not been any sustained demand for similar privileges for other classes. No specific demand for political reservation was articulated by the other backward classes (Béteille, 1993:8).

The second form of reservation according to Béteille (1993:8) is known as "job reservation". Job reservation refers to the reservation of certain government service posts in the union and state governments. This form of reservation has proved to be markedly controversial compared to political reservation. A quota system is in operation for job reservation in the government service in respect of the scheduled castes and tribes. This type of reservation has been controversial in respect of the other backward classes. It is from these other backward classes that the greatest volume of litigation in the field of job reservation emanated (Béteille, 1993:8).

Two groups were identified as being so disadvantaged as to qualify to be beneficiaries in the new dispensation. One group, according to Weiner (1993:5) was the "untouchables", also known in India as the "scheduled castes", and who comprised between 135 to 140 million people, about 15 per cent of the population. The other group singled out to be a beneficiary was the tribes, another caste or *jati* of the Sudras main group, that comprised 65 million people, 7 per cent of the total Indian population.

The tribes were seen as disadvantaged because they were isolated from the rest of the population, and the "scheduled castes" or "untouchables" were seen as disadvantaged because of their long history of being discriminated against (Weiner, 1993:5). Both groups were given seats in parliament and in other elected bodies in proportion to their percentage of the

population.

Provision was made for special reservations or quotas for admission into schools, colleges, medical and engineering schools, and for employment in government service (Weiner, 1993:5). The constitution also provided that special benefits could be allocated to other backward communities but the government did not do so, partly because so many communities called themselves backward, and partly because the educational and employment differences between the backward and the so-called forward castes were not as clear as was the case for the tribes and the scheduled castes (the "untouchables") (Weiner, 1993:5).

According to Béteille (1993:8) two commissions were set up by the government of India to recommend uniform measures for the advancement of the other backward classes in the country. The recommendations of the first commission, presented to the government in 1955, was unsuccessful. A second commission, known as the Mandal Commission, was established in 1979 and presented its recommendations in 1980.

After the Indian government had accepted the recommendations of the Mandal Commission for implementation in 1990, the Chief Justice of India, supported by eight judges, gave judgement on 16 November 1992 that upheld by a majority of 6 to 3 the decision of the government to provide job quotas for the other backward classes as recommended by the Mandal Second Backward



Classes Commission, and successfully defeating the uniform measures movement in India. This was in effect a strategy by the Indian Prime Minister to win greater electoral support.

The Indian Prime Minister announced *inter alia* that there would be reservations or quotas for the other backward classes in university admissions and for government employment. A quota of 27% was established for the other backward communities on top of the 22% provided for the tribals and the scheduled castes. In all, nearly 50% of admissions into colleges, medical schools and engineering schools and appointments in government service, were put aside for approximately 75% of the population.

A conflict situation started to develop between those entitled to equal opportunities and those entitled to the special provisions. The result was massive demonstrations and violence by the excluded classes, partly because they were excluded but also because there was a growing sense that a moral injustice was being committed, that equality of opportunity was being eroded, and that the government had extended the benefits for political reasons (Weiner, 1993:6).

A third type of reservation related to education, particularly higher education. According to Bêteille (1993:9) it had often been pointed out in the past that posts reserved for the scheduled castes and the tribes could not be filled because of a lack of qualified candidates. A remedy for this situation

was to reserve places in educational institutions for the backward classes.

Béteille (1993:9) explains that the reservation of seats in higher educational institutions, particularly in medical and engineering colleges, has been a source of as much litigation as reservation of posts in the government, although the dispute revolved again about reservations or caste quotas in favour of the other backward classes rather than the scheduled castes and tribes.

For the two latter categories described above there has been, for the last several decades, reservations of seats in educational institutions in proportion to the population, whereas for the other backward classes the practice has varied from one state to another, in a similar manner as for job reservation. The Mandal Commission made recommendations for a uniform pattern of reservations in educational institutions in all states similar to its recommendations for job reservations. However, the union government has not, as yet, issued directives in this regard (Béteille, 1993:9-10).

The Indian experience is one in which affirmative action is defined rigidly in terms of quotas. Furthermore, the government saw the quota system as a low-cost solution for reducing disparities between the castes. Little or no attention was paid, however, to the development of the primary and secondary school systems. Because of the limited

expenditure on mass education, the pool of qualified scheduled castes and tribals who could have entered university and government employment on an equal basis remained small.

A degree of equality was achieved with the quota system. However, in most respects the scheduled castes and the tribes remained the poorest in Indian society.

India's failure to deal with the disparities between rich and poor has to be viewed in the context of a country that has a very low economic growth rate, so that the economic upswing that might have lifted the poor did not take place and few resources were available that could be used for the expansion in education and other social services (Weiner, 1993:6).

#### 5.4 SRI LANKA

The Sri Lankan experience, described by Weiner (1993:4), raises a fundamental question as to whether an affirmative action programme to achieve greater equality among ethnic groups will reduce or exacerbate ethnic conflict. The Sri Lankan government's policies contributed to a reduction in the differences between the relatively better off minority, the Tamils and the majority Sinhalese-speaking community through programs to provide greater education, health care, income and employment for everyone.

The special affirmative policies to benefit the Sinhalese in government employment and in university admissions, however, intensified the political divisions and led to a civil war that was destructive for the entire country. The case of Sri Lanka is an example of affirmative action that failed (Weiner, 1993:7).

Weiner (1993:7) emphasises the abovementioned view by stating that:

" ... Sri Lanka is an example of an affirmative action programme which intended to reduce disparities between ethnic groups, and which went as badly wrong as anyone could ever have imagined. It is the disaster case ... " (Weiner 1993:7).

Before considering the reasons for Weiner's statement, it is regarded as necessary to furnish a brief explanation of the demographic composition of Sri Lanka as well as an overview of the historical imbalances that gave rise to the formulation and implementation of affirmative action measures in the first place.

#### 5.4.1 Discrimination in Sri Lanka

According to Ryan (1969:223) two different ethnic groups comprise 93% of the total population in Sri Lanka. These are the Sinhalese Buddhist group (75% of the population), and the Tamil Hindu group (18%), who are subdivided into two groups, the Ceylon Tamils and the Indian Tamils. The Sinhalese are a basically Caucasiod people deriving originally from North

India. Their language, Sinhalese, is indigenous to Sri Lanka. The Sinhalese population predominate in numbers on most of the island except the far north and the east coast. The Sinhalese preserved the caste system, albeit in a less rigorous form than that of the Indian system (Ryan, 1969:223).

The Ceylon Tamils have lived in Sri Lanka for centuries, mostly on the Jaffna Peninsula. The Ceylon Tamils are Hindu in religion, and they speak Tamil. They operate the caste system similar to India.

The Indian Tamils in Sri Lanka are the descendants of South Indians brought in as labourers, originally on the British coffee plantations and later on tea and rubber plantations. They form a large majority in the interior highlands, are Hindu in religion and Tamil-speaking. Most live on the large plantations forming an ethnic group socially distinct from the Ceylon Tamils as well as from neighbouring Sinhalese.

The final population group that are mentioned here is the approximate remaining 7% of the population, namely a group that consist of Burghers, Malays and Veddahs. The Burghers are descendants of mixed Dutch and Sinhalese marriages. They are urban, westernised and English speaking. Malays are an indigenous group tracing their ancestry to Java. Veddahs are descendants of the aboriginals of the island (Ryan, 1969:224).

According to Samarasinghe (1993:41) the Sinhalese and the Tamils are separated from each other by language and religion. Almost 95% of the Sinhalese are Buddhists and approximately 90% of the Tamils are Hindus. Almost 90% of the Sinhalese live in the southern part of the island. Approximately 70% of the Tamils live in the north-east of the country, while the rest live in the south. The Sri Lankan Tamils, who are fighting for a separate state called "Eelam", in the north-east consider that area to be a traditional Tamil homeland, a claim disputed by Sinhalese.

Approximately 90% of the plantation Tamils live in the south amongst the Sinhalese, mostly in the tea areas in the central highlands. About 33% of Muslims live in the eastern province while the rest are scattered in other parts of the island. The Tamils form an overwhelming majority of over 90% of the population of the northern province. However, they only number about 42% in the east. The Muslims (33%) and the Sinhalese (25%) account for the rest of the eastern population (Samarasinghe, 1993:42).

According to Weiner (1993:8) Sri Lanka is a poor country, largely agrarian and a major tea exporter. A remarkable feat is that this poor country has succeeded in levelling up its poor through its social services. It has introduced a national health care programme, universal education at the elementary school level, and rice subsidies for the poor. The result is that with a per capita income of approximately \$500

(R2000) per annum Sri Lanka raised its literacy rate to 87%, lowered the infant mortality rate to 20 per thousand, and increased the average longevity to the age of 71 years.

Despite the abovementioned successes, according to Weiner (1993:8), the Sinhalese were resentful that the Tamils had a disproportionately higher share of government employment, higher levels of advanced education, and were generally enjoying a higher standard of living. The historic reason for these advantages that the Tamils enjoyed was the fact that missionaries had built schools in the predominantly Tamil areas in the north and east of the country during the nineteenth century (Weiner, 1993:8).

#### **5.4.2 Affirmative action in Sri Lanka**

Affirmative action in Sri Lanka centred around two main areas, namely language policy and the university admissions policy. The significance of these two affirmative action concentration points for the purposes of this study will be made clear in the paragraphs that follow.

According to Samarasinghe (1993:45), Sri Lanka's affirmative action programs originated primarily to help the Sinhalese majority to gain fair access to all national resources. The argument advanced in favour of such programs originated on the one hand from the fact that the Sinhalese Buddhists, who represented approximately 69% of the total population of the

country, were relatively disadvantaged during five centuries of western occupation of the country. This is particularly true in respect of the last 150 years of the British administration (Samarasinghe, 1993:45).

In spite of the above, certain minority groups, such as the Christians in religious terms and the Sri Lankan Tamils in ethnic terms, were relatively advantaged during that period. Affirmative action was therefore seen to be necessary to redress the balance and to correct historical injustices and disadvantages (Samarasinghe, 1993:45).

In 1956 a Sinhalese Buddhist political party took power on the party policy of elevating the status of the Sinhalese. Its aim was to eliminate English as the official language of the country and to replace it with Sinhalese only, discarding the second language, namely Tamil. Within a decade the Tamil component of the government service dropped from 50% to 15% as few Tamils spoke Sinhalese. Entrance examinations to the universities, medical and engineering schools which were conducted previously in English, were now in both Tamil and Sinhalese. This resulted in each community having its own examiners.

When the education department realised that Tamils were receiving higher marks than the Sinhalese, the marks were standardised so that the Sinhalese and Tamil pass rates would be in proportion to the population numbers. The result was a



marked decrease in Tamil enrolments and a marked increase in Sinhalese enrolments in higher education. As the Tamils saw themselves being displaced from medical and engineering schools, the universities and from government employment, their resentment grew. Unemployment became rife.

Because of the above circumstances, the Tamils turned to armed conflict and called for the creation of an independent Tamil state in the northern and eastern portions of the island. Even the efforts of a new market-orientated Sinhalese government in the late 1970's to stimulate the economy to provide higher economic growth with more employment did not succeed in appeasing the Tamils.

The strife that followed is manifest of the failure of affirmative action policies that were implemented by the majority Sinhalese in order to utilise its political power to restrict employment and other opportunities for the Tamils. It was not a policy that emerged out of consensus among the major ethnic groups in the country. In the case of Sri Lanka the special opportunities that were created for the Sinhalese had nullified the equal opportunities for all with disastrous consequences for the country (Weiner, 1993:9).

## 5.5 MALAYSIA

According to Bone (1969:262) Malaysia is composed of the 11 states of the Malay Peninsula, including Sarawak and Sabah in

northern Borneo. Malaysia as a country has been in existence since 16 September 1963 when the former British North-Borneo territories were joined with the already existing Federation of Malaya. The country is situated just north of the equator (Bone, 1969:262).

According to Bone (1969:262) the original population of mainland Malaysia consisted of various groups of aborigines. The largest of these groups is the Senoi, or Sakai, who inhabit the mountains and foothills of the central ranges. Another major aboriginal group, the Jakuns, or Proto-Malays, are found in the southern lowlands of the mainland. The third and last of the important aboriginal groups are the various tribes of Negritos who inhabit the coastal forests and swamps in the north of the peninsula.

The major indigenous population group in Malaysia, according to Bone (1969:263), is the Malays, also known as the Deutero or coastal, Malays. This group constitutes approximately 50% of the mainland population and derives originally from the Proto-Malay peoples, with an intermixture of Chinese, Thais and Arabs. The coastal Malays hail predominantly from Sumatra, centuries before the arrival of Europeans to Southeast Asia (Bone, 1969:263).

The British government, according to Bone (1969:266), ceded independence on 31 August, 1957, to the Alliance Party in Malaya. The Alliance Party represented a coalition of the

major political parties of the country's three mainstream racial groups, namely the United Malayan National Organisation (UMNO), headed by Tunku Abdul Rahman, the Malayan Chinese Association (MCA), and the Malayan Indian Congress (MIC). During the elections of 1955, the Alliance won 51 of the 52 seats in Parliament. Singapore, which had been administratively separated from Malaya after World War II, continued to function as a self-governing city state, with Great Britain controlling its defence and foreign affairs. During May, 1961, Prime Minister Tunku Abdul Rahman proposed the establishment of a federation of Malaysia to include Malaya, the Borneo territories, and Singapore. After two years of negotiations, the Federation of Malaysia was brought into being on 16 September 1963 (Bone, 1963:266).

#### 5.5.1 Discrimination in Malaysia

According to Puthuchearry (1993:23) the case of the Malaysian affirmative action policies and programs offers a useful comparison to affirmative action in South Africa. The target group for affirmative action in Malaysia, as in South Africa, is the majority group, the Malays. The only notable difference between the situation regarding affirmative action of the two countries lies in the fact that the group that is presumed to have been favoured in the past and who now faces a degree of discrimination in order to rectify certain perceived structural injustices, have never been in a position of political power. The Chinese and the Indian minorities in

Malaysia benefitted, not through targeted public policies, but because of their being able to take advantage of economic opportunities within the system.

Historical discrimination in Malaysia was of an indirect nature, consisting of structural constraints on Malay participation in the modern sectors of the economy rather than one of domination and exploitation of Malays by other groups (Puthuchearry (1993:23)).

#### 5.5.2 Affirmative action in Malaya/Malaysia

Puthuchearry (1993:23-24) writes that during the colonial period affirmative action programmes were introduced to favour the Malays, rather than the other communities. The affirmative action programmes that were implemented after independence are thus a continuation and intensification of colonial policies (Puthuchearry, 1993:23-24).

Puthuchearry (1993:23) explains that in the Malaysian situation three arguments were put forward in favour of the implementation of affirmative action policies.

First, at the time of the drafting of the Constitution the Malays were not a distinct demographic majority of the population of the then Malaya (now Malaysia). They did, however, constitute the largest single community, but comprised less than 50% of the total population. Therefore,

constitutional guarantees assuring affirmative action for the economically disadvantaged were seen as an inherent part of the Constitution based on democratic rights and social justice which could not be changed by the whims and fancies of future governments.

Second, the case for affirmative action in the then Malaya (now Malaysia) was based not only on socio-economic grounds but on political grounds as well. The preferential policies introduced during the colonial period were based not merely on the fact that the Malays were economically disadvantaged compared with the Chinese but that Malays occupied a distinct position in the political system as the original inhabitants of the country. The question of political superiority was based not so much on any objective assessment of who actually arrived first, as on a perception held by the majority of Malays that Malaya was exclusively their country (Puthuchery (1993:24)).

Third, as preferential policies favouring Malays had been introduced under colonial reign, it was argued that any attempt to deny Malays these privileges would be tantamount to taking away something from this group. Since 1948 the colonial authorities, under pressure from the Malays, inserted a special clause in the Constitution guaranteeing the continuation of the affirmative action policies.

The wording of the Constitution was vague, presumably to incorporate the two different bases for affirmative action namely, (i) correcting economic disadvantages as recognising the unique position of the Malays. At the same time the Constitution aimed to protect the individual rights of all citizens irrespective of race or creed. Thus the Malay Agreement of 1948 charged the British High Commissioner with the responsibility of safeguarding "the special position of the Malays and the legitimate rights of the other communities".

Up to independence in 1957 the abovenamed provisions were implemented with the result that, while not one party was fully satisfied with the arrangements, no party felt completely deprived (Puthucheary, 1993:25).

While recognising the need to lay the basis for a non-racial and independent Malaya, and for a democratic system in which all citizens would enjoy equal rights as citizens, it was also accepted that affirmative action was necessary to correct the socio-economic differences in income between the Malays and the Chinese. This same principle was accepted by the leaders of the Alliance Party, the coalition made up of the political parties representing the three main ethnic groups, the Malays, the Chinese and the Indians, and which has been in power since independence (Puthucheary, 1993:25).

According to Weiner (1993:6) the post-independence constitution made no reference to affirmative action but did include a clause which referred to "special rights for Malays". The Constitution did not specify what these "special rights" were. During 1969 riots took place, characterised by ethnic violence. This caused the Malay dominated government to afford more prominence to the concept of "special rights".

A new economic policy was introduced which was intended to accelerate economic growth and to provide special privileges for Malays. Resources were provided for the rural Malays, including land settlement schemes, agricultural credit and price supports.

In 1969, according to Weiner (1993:6) Malays had only 2% of equity in firms, and few Malays were occupying management positions. Arrangements were made to expand Malay equity capital, so that by 1990 the equity percentage was increased to 22%, although the larger share of it was Malay institution-owned, rather than by individuals.

Appointments in the government service were made at a ratio of four Malays to one non-Malay. Many non-Malays were resentful of the special privileges given to Malays, however, the Chinese leadership within the governing alliance were willing to go along with the arrangement. In this respect the Malay and Chinese elites had struck a political agreement: the Chinese business community successfully argued for an economic

development policy that would promote growth by enabling multi-nationals to enter the market, to create a tax structure that provided incentives for investment, and that permitted the free market to operate. In return the Chinese agreed that the Malays could control the administrative services, the police and the army. The understanding was that the Chinese would be involved in business, while the Malays would run an administration that pursued pro-growth policies (Weiner, 1993:7).

The abovementioned agreement between the Chinese and the Malays resulted in the economy of Malaysia growing between 6 and 7 per cent per year from 1969 (Weiner, 1993:7). Weiner (1993:7) writes that the combination of economic growth and special privileges produced a Malay middle class. Differences between most Malays and Chinese continued, and while relative inequalities between the two communities remained at a high level, the Malay community became increasingly prosperous during the 90's as employment opportunities grew with the expansion of a number of industries, particularly electronics.

Obstacles to achieving the goals of the affirmative action programme, however, revolved around factors such as that the large number of Malays entering universities, were entering in the liberal arts. Contradictory hereto, most Chinese students chose science and technology subjects, giving them the advantage in the technologically advanced sectors. Generally, however, Malays did better than Chinese in finding employment



in the government service. There were also gains among the rural poor as a result of the land settlement and rural development schemes, the growth of public education and, for the major part, the expansion of opportunities for employment (Weiner, 1993:7).

## 5.6 UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

According to Redding (1969:519) the origins of contemporary racial discrimination in the United States of America can be traced to the year 1619, when 20 Africans were brought from West Africa to the English colony of Virginia to serve as slaves. Slavedom in Virginia was not limited to minority racial groups. Redding (1969:519) shows that at that time in Virginia, a number of white people served as slaves. They were known as "indentured servants". The numbers of black slaves, however, soon overtook the numbers of white slaves in the American colonies.

### 5.6.1 Discrimination in the United States (1)

A decree was promulgated in Maryland in 1663 that:

" ... All Negroes, ... within the province, and all Negroes to be hereafter imported, shall serve durante vita, that is, perpetually ... " (Montagu, 1969:519).

By 1665 most Negroes in the American colonies were slaves for life. Importation of black slaves from the Caribbean islands and from Africa increased their numbers to approximately

250,000 by 1750 (Redding, 1969:519). Gradually the slaves started to rebel against their slavery. This resistance bred rigid measures to deal with disobedient slaves and particularly those who deserted. Even in self-defence the slaves could not lift their hands against a "Christian" white.

The above measures culminated in legislation which was called the "Black Laws" and were applied indiscriminately against all Negroes. As all the slave rebellions were incited by Negro slaves who possessed a smattering of education, later all education for Negroes were discouraged. A small number of Negroes did succeed in becoming educated and among these were John Russwurm, who finished Bowdoin College in 1826, and John Chavis, in the 1830's (Redding, 1969:519).

After 1831 laws throughout the South decreed it a crime to teach Negroes. During the Civil War (1861-1865), 200,000 Negroes enlisted, on the promise of freedom in exchange for their military duties, and 38,000 was killed in the conflict. After the war the "freedmen" had difficulty adapting to freedom. They were used to being dependent on their masters and the characteristic of responsibility had to be learned by them.

A new federal agency called the Freedmen's Bureau, assisted by private establishments such as the American Missionary Association and the Babtist Home Mission Board, facilitated the process of adapting Negroes to the concept of freedom

(Redding, 1969:519-521).

### 5.6.2 Affirmative action in the United States (1)

After the Civil War, according to Redding (1969:521) the Freedmen's Bureau gradually started to appropriate land and to turn it over to Negroes. Employment opportunities were created, and fair wages paid. Negroes voted in great numbers, and several Negroes were voted into public office. Negro legislators were credited with establishing the first free public schools in that state, where a Negro was the State Treasurer. Another, Jonathan Gibbs, a graduate of Dartmouth College, was Florida's Secretary of State.

Between 1869 and 1876 sixteen Negroes represented seven Southern states in Congress (Redding, 1969:521). This movement, a precursor to the concept of "affirmative action", which would emerge nearly a century later, was known as "reconstruction". Southern reactionism, however, was fuelled by the attempts at reconstruction. Whites were opposed to the Negroes' land ownership, their education and their voting rights (Redding, 1969:519-521).

### 5.6.3 Discrimination in the United States (2)

After the assassination of President Lincoln, the anti-Negro movement gained momentum. This was manifested by the North Carolina Proclamation of President Andrew Johnson, which

eliminated all the hard-won rights of the Negroes. Gradually the whites gained political control and civic authority. Everywhere in the South the intent appeared to be to:

" ... reduce the freedmen to conditions of servitude worse than that from which they had been emancipated, a condition which was slavery in all but its name ... ".  
(Redding, 1969:521).

The subjugation of Negroes was maintained by white supremacist institutions such as the Ku Klux Klan, the Red Shirts, the Knights of the White Camellia, and other groups of masked white men, whose resort to violence became legendary.

Negroes, many of whom had voted and some of whom had held public office during Reconstruction, were no longer allowed to vote. They were barred from employment that whites found desirable. Where schools existed, they were inferior, and attendance of Negroes in white schools were forbidden. The Thirteenth and Fourteenth Constitutional Amendments passed by Congress were not applicable to Negroes. They could not hold office. Effectively the Negroes were forced to live behind a "colour line" and eventually this line effectively divided blacks from whites (Redding, 1969:521).

Redding (1969:521) writes that the subjugation of the Negroes was resisted by various people in America, white and black, who believed in equal rights for all. Men such as Booker T. Washington, Monroe Trotter, George W. Cook and Daniel Williams were prominent in the movements to achieve equality for all

race groups. Their programme of opposition was called the Niagara Movement.

The Niagara Movement lost its identity in 1910, when the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) was formed by a small group of prominent whites and Negroes, who believed that people of colour should have the same rights and privileges that other citizens enjoyed. The principal spokesman for NAACP declared:

" ... We claim for ourselves every single right that belongs to a freeborn American, political, civil and social; and until we get these rights we will never cease to protest and assail the ears of America ... ".

According to Redding (1969:522), employment opportunities created by the First World War caused thousands of Negroes to migrate from the South to the North. Soon, slum areas originated in cities such as Philadelphia, New York, and Chicago. Life was difficult for the Negroes in these and other cities. Schools were vastly inadequate, and hospitals as well. Building codes were not enforced where Negroes lived.

Another dimension saw the influx of Negroes in white neighbourhoods, which caused the whites to flee. Meanwhile, in the South, racial discrimination were practised with vigour. Forty-six Negroes were lynched in the South between January and October 1917. In July that year 40 Negroes were killed by white mobs in East St. Louis, Illinois. Soon, over 500,000 Negroes were drafted into the military, where they

were frequently taunted by white soldiers. Negroes were segregated from their white fellow soldiers. Their facilities in the army were inferior. They were used principally as labourers (Redding, 1969:522).

After World War I, according to Redding (1969:522), the Negroes' war service was soon forgotten. Severe racial discrimination was still practised in America. Seventy-five lynchings took place in 1919, blamed mostly on the Ku Klux Klan. Anti-lynching bills were defeated three times in Congress between 1919 and 1940 (Redding, 1969:524).

According to Redding (1969:524), in spite of the racial antagonism, the Negroes' contributions to cultural and social life were gradually being recognised. In a number of cities municipal authorities set up commissions to deal with the problems of interracial living. Such commissions were established in Washington, Philadelphia, New York and Chicago in order to temper the racial antagonism that emanated from whites.

Scholars from both races attempted to find solutions to the racial question. White interest in the Negro culture and way of life grew. In spite of Negroes beginning to enter public office, the experience of the majority of Negroes in America was still segregation and discrimination.

As a result of labour unions discriminating against them, most jobs in industry were inaccessible to Negroes. Public accommodation, such as restaurants, hotels and theatres were generally closed to Negroes. White traders in Negro neighbourhoods sold them inferior commodities at inflated prices and on exorbitant credit terms. Their public schools and colleges, neglected by the government, were inferior.

Gradually isolated changes in the government's attitude to rights for Negroes began to change. This was noticeable with Presidential Executive Order 8802, during World War II, with which the Committee on Fair Employment Practices was created and which declared no discrimination in employment of workers in defence industries and in government in terms of race, creed, colour or national origin. Training opportunities for Negroes were opened, and thousands went into aircraft plants, shipyards and ammunition factories (Redding, 1969:524).

According to Weiner (1993:9) the steps to end segregation and discrimination culminated in the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title VII. The term "affirmative action" originally appeared in this Act, with the wording that employers who had engaged in discriminatory practices had to take "affirmative action" to compensate for wrong practices.

The abovementioned Act also made particular mention of its mission to enforce the constitutional right to vote, to confer jurisdiction upon the district courts of the United States to

provide injunctive relief against discrimination in public accommodations, to authorise the Attorney-General to institute suits to protect constitutional rights in public facilities and public education, to extend the Commission on Civil Rights, to prevent discrimination in federally assisted programmes, to establish a Commission on Equal Employment Opportunity and for other purposes (Preamble to the Act, 1964).

Within the above context the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, As Amended, the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and Sections 501 and 505 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, As Amended (Prohibitions against discrimination because of handicap in the Federal sector) (Laws Enforced by the EEOC, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1990:1-36).

A year after the promulgation of the **Civil Rights Act** of 1964, Title VII, President Lyndon Johnson issued an Executive Order requiring "affirmative action" in employment and promotion for all Federal contractors, even if they had never discriminated. In the early 1970's the Equal Opportunity Employment Commission established quotas, also known as statistical goals, for the employment of certain minority groups (Weiner, 1993:9).

By the early 1970's, according to Weiner (1993:9), the term "affirmative action" had acquired a double meaning. To certain people it meant an active or affirmative effort to



recruit and promote minorities and to end discriminatory practices. This included efforts by universities and firms to actively recruit minorities and women, and create special programmes to improve the skills that minorities (Negroes or African-Americans, Hispanics (people from Latin-American origin, including Cubans, as well as people from other underdeveloped countries) needed to effectively compete in the labour market. To others, affirmative action meant mandatory results through quotas. This debate moved to the courts, as in the Bakke case, explained hereunder.

The medical school of the University of California (UCLA) at Davis had reserved 16 seats for blacks (Negroes, African-Americans or other black people). A white candidate who were refused admission to the university and whose entrance examination scores were higher than that of the 16 admitted blacks filed suit that his civil rights had been violated. The Supreme Court ruled in a five to four decision that race could be taken into account in the university's admission practices.

Subsequently, regarding the above case, in another five to four ruling, the Supreme Court ruled that the system of quotas established by the medical school was unacceptable because it made race the exclusive factor for a fixed number of admissions. Initially the decision appeared to be indecisive but it illustrated the American ambivalence towards affirmative action; that there should be equal opportunity for

all based on merit but at the same time that there was a national need to take positive steps to remedy historical injustices and continued barriers to equal opportunities for blacks (Weiner, 1993:10). See also **Griggs v. the Duke Power Company**, recounted in chapter 6. Other significant cases relevant to this issue published by the Office of Program Operations of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (selected recent developments in Title VII and Adea Law: 1993) are the following:

- Johnson v. Santa Clara County Trans. Agency, 480 U.S. 616 (1987). In this case the Supreme Court upheld a state employer's consideration of an applicant's gender as one factor in promoting a woman under its affirmative action plan. Following United Steelworkers v. Weber, the Court held that the voluntary affirmative action plan did not violate Title VII as it contained no absolute bar to majority group employee advancement, was temporary and was designed to remedy a "manifest imbalance" in the gender composition of the workforce.
  
- Local 28, Sheet Metal Workers Int'l Ass'n v. EEOC, 478 U.S. 421 (1986). The Supreme Court approved the use of a 29% nonwhite membership goal as part of an affirmative action plan adopted after a finding of discrimination. The Court held that Title VII section 706(g) allows relief for non-victims when an employer or union has engaged in persistent or egregious (unprecedented)

discrimination or when necessary to remove the effects of pervasive discrimination.

- Cunico v. Pueblo School Dist. No. 60, 693 F. Supp. 954 (D. Colo. 1988) aff'd, 917 F.2d 431 (10th Cir. 1990). In this case the district court held that, when a School Board retained a black social worker over a more senior employee solely to maintain a given proportion of black administrators, it discriminated on the basis of race in violation of Title VII and the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States of America. The court also held that if preferential treatment of an employee had been required by an affirmative action plan, the plan would be invalid. In order to be valid, an affirmative action plan must be a remedy for past discrimination or designated to remedy a traditionally race segregated job classification.
  
- City of Richmond v. J.A. Croson Co., 488 U.S. 469 (1989). In this case the Supreme Court adopted a strict scrutiny standard in reviewing race-conscious affirmative action plans by governmental entities. In striking down the city's set-aside plan for minority building contractors, the Court held that a generalised claim that there had been past discrimination in a particular industry could not justify the use of a rigid racial quota. Affirmative action remedies must be tied to evidence of discrimination, even if only statistical evidence of a

disparity between availability and utilisation is presented. Strict scrutiny should be used in reviewing remedial plans to ensure that a compelling governmental interest exists to justify state-sponsored affirmative action

■ United States v. Paradise, 480 U.S. 149 (1987).

The Supreme Court upheld a court order requiring that 50% of promotions to the rank of corporal be qualified black candidates. The Court listed factors to determine whether the use of racially conscious remedies such as the following was appropriate: the necessity for the relief and the efficacy of alternative remedies, the flexibility and duration of the relief, the relationship of numerical goals to the relevant labour market and the impact of the relief on third parties.

■ Wygant v. Jackson Bd. of Educ., 476 U.S. 267 (1986).

A provision of the collective bargaining agreement required that minority teachers not be laid off at a rate greater than their representation in the workforce. Adhering to the agreement, the School Board laid off tenured nonminority teachers and retained minority teachers with less seniority. In a plurality decision, the Supreme Court held that the collective bargaining agreement provision violated the equal protection clause.

- Fire Fighters' Local 1784 v. Stotts, 467 U.S. 561. 1984.  
The Supreme Court rejected an injunction modifying a consent decree that required layoffs in contravention of a **bona fide** seniority plan. The Court stated that an award of competitive seniority can be granted only to those persons who have been actual victims of discrimination. Courts may not grant preferential treatment to any individual simply because the group to which he or she belongs is adversely affected by a **bona fide** seniority system.

#### 5.6.4 Affirmative action in the United States (2)

According to Weiner (1993:10) the controversy in the United States continues over the question of quotas. While goals and timetables are generally acceptable as a means of expanding opportunities for minorities, they are carefully scrutinised to ensure that they are not, in fact, referring to quotas. Weiner (1993:10) expounds further that the debate over quotas has obscured a number of positive features of the United States's affirmative action programmes. One is that affirmative action is not simply a government policy but is one pursued by private firms as well as educational institutions.

The above entities have devised programmes to actively recruit minorities and to create training programmes to enable minorities to perform at competitive standards. Another is to

recognise that minorities and women have often been denied employment opportunities, not through intended discrimination, but through tests and recruitment requirements that unintentionally discriminate. For example, height requirements for positions in the police and fire departments limited opportunities for Asian Americans.

Laws intended to protect women often meant that women were excluded from working at night, or excluded them from work that was regarded as only suitable for men - mostly jobs involving physical activities that women were capable of performing. The opinion was also developed of occupational necessity which recognised that for certain occupations preferences should be given to particular ethnic and racial groups. In the above context it was recognised that if the police were to effectively win community support, then black majority areas such as Detroit could not function with an exclusively white police department. Since affirmative action programmes addressed the issue of unintended as well as discriminatory practices, the American interventions reached below the middle class beneficiaries to substantial sections of the working class (Weiner, 1993:11).

Since 1994 a movement by certain Conservative and Republican elements in the United States have called for the abolishment of the concept of affirmative action (CNN News, 27 February 1994, 05:20). In this news programme it was reported that affirmative action had come under fire coast to coast with a

Republican initiative, spearheaded by Newt Gingrich, Speaker of the House of Assembly. According to his "Contract with America" policy, affirmative action should be directed to individual capabilities, not to privileging certain groupings.

According to Valentine (1995:44-45), California, which has the country's largest bloc of electoral votes, almost 10 percent, is shaping up as the main battleground for affirmative action.

In the above instance, the conservative initiative was taken further by Thomas E. Wood, executive director of the California Association of Scholars (CAS) a Berkely-based conservative think tank, and Glynn Custred, professor at California State University at Hayward, who is also a member of the CAS board of directors.

The question of how California's voters will react to the initiative engineered by these two educators may not only determine the fate of affirmative action in the nation's most populous state, but may well be the issue that decides whether a Democrat or a Republican will enter the White House during 1996.

The initiative against affirmative action would be placed before voters during 1996, and if passed, state affirmative action programs would be repealed (Valentine, 1995:44-45).

The diagram on the following page sets out key developments in affirmative action in the United States since 1960 to the present (Berry, 1995:34-35).

**Table 8 - Key Developments in Affirmative Action in the United States since 1960 to the present**

1960	In the Eisenhower's Committee's final report to the president, Vice President Richard Nixon urges the incoming administration of President J.F. Kennedy to require federal contractors to use something stronger than passive nondiscrimination to achieve equal employment opportunities. The next year, President Kennedy orders federal contractors to stop discrimination in the workplace and to use affirmative action to ensure employment without regard to race, creed, colour and national origin.
1971	In <i>Griggs v. Duke Power Co.</i> , the Supreme Court directs that employment qualifications must be related to the job in question and not designed simply to perpetuate racial exclusion. Civil rights groups pressure Bethlehem Steel Company to adopt an affirmative action initiative to ensure fairness in the hiring, training and promotion of African-Americans.
1973	A suit filed by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission leads AT&T (a well-known telephone company in the United States) to agree to pay \$15 million in back wages and to award \$23 million in raises to blacks, other racial minorities and to women who experienced discrimination.
1974	The Supreme Court declares moot (immaterial) the case of <i>DeFunis v. Odegaard</i> , in which a graduate of the University of Washington, rejected by his <u>alma mater's</u> law school, alleged that less qualified minorities were admitted to the school. By 1974, DeFunis was in his third year of law school and the state Supreme Court had already declared the university's action constitutional.
1978	In <i>Regents of the University of California v Bakke</i> the High Court rules that race can be taken into account as one factor in determining admission policies but declared it unconstitutional for a state university to set aside a specific number of positions for a designated group. <u>Congress passes the Civil Service Reform Act, which calls for immediate development of a minority recruitment program to increase representation of minorities in specific federal job categories.</u>
1980	The Supreme Court, in <i>Fullilove v. Klutznick</i> , rules as appropriate the use of narrowly tailored remedies, such as a 10 percent set-aside for minorities or limited use of quotas to correct past discrimination.
1981	The Justice Department, under President Ronald Reagan, announces it will no longer demand that employers maintain affirmative action programs or that they hire according to numerical racial goals.
1986	The Supreme Court rules in <i>Wygant v. Jackson Board of Education</i> (a Michigan case), that "race conscious" hiring is permissible, but there must be convincing evidence of past discrimination.
1989	In <i>The City of Richmond v. J.A. Croson</i> , the High Court rules that state and local governments are limited in reserving a percentage of their business for minority contractors, unless those governments are correcting well-documented past cases of discrimination in the letting of contracts. As a result of the ruling, a long standing minority set-aside programme in Atlanta is struck down.
1990	New York Mayor David Dinkins' administration establishes the city's first minority contracting program, following post-Croson rules. Three years later, Rudolph Giuliani becomes mayor and provisions to increase the number of city contracts awarded to minorities and women are eliminated.
1994	The U.S. Court of Appeals for the 4th Circuit declares as unconstitutional the University of Maryland's Benjamin Banneker scholarships for high-achieving black students.
1995	In California, two white scholars and a state legislator lead a ballot effort to bar the use of gender, race, or national origin as criteria for granting special treatment in hiring for public jobs, education and awarding of contracts.



<p><b>February 1995</b></p>	<p>An effort similar to the California campaign fails in the Mississippi state Senate. About 22 states, including Washington, consider rolling back affirmative action policies.</p> <p>Senator Phil Gramm, of Texas, announcing his bid for the presidency, says that on his first day as chief executive, he would abolish federal contract affirmative action programs.</p> <p>U.S. Senate Majority Leader Robert Dole of Kansas, noting that 62 percent of white men voted Republican in 1994, announces a Republican study of whether affirmative action requirements in federal law should be dropped. Weeks later, Dole says he would introduce legislation barring the government from using affirmative action to benefit "favoured groups".</p> <p>President Clinton orders a review of federal affirmative action programs, intending to protect those policies that work and change or abolish those that do not work.</p>
<p><b>June 1995</b></p>	<p>The Supreme Court is scheduled to rule on <i>Adarand Constructors v. Peña</i>, a suit filed by a white Colorado contractor who contends that a Latino company, because of ethnicity, won a contract for a government highway project, even though the white contractor submitted a lower bid.</p>

In the United States, according to the U.S. Census Bureau, the Congressional Record and the Glass Ceiling Commission, white men make up 47% of the work force, while comprising 41% of the population. They own 64% of the country's businesses and have most of America's highest-paying jobs. The following examples have relevance:

**Table 9 - White males as percentages of the distribution of highest-paying jobs in the United States**

Judges	70%
Air traffic controllers	71%
Lawyers	73%
Construction supervisors	84%
Police detectives and supervisors	75%
U.S. Senators	89%
Fire company supervisors	94%
Senior managers	95%

The table on the following page illustrates certain of the more prominent anti-discriminatory measures in favour of

minorities and women in the United States that will come under scrutiny by Congress and the White House during 1995/1996.

Table 10 - Anti-discriminatory measures due for review by Congress and the White House

Banking	The Federal deposit Insurance Corporation can approve minority bank acquisitions by minority holding companies without regard to asset size. Ten percent of funds awarded through the Local Public Works Capital Development and Investment Program are slated for contracts with minority firms.
Business	The Small Business Administration requires the heads of all federal agencies to establish goals annually for the participation of "small, disadvantaged communities" in procurement contracts and subcontracts.
Communications	The Public Telecommunications Facilities Programme gives special consideration to applications that forced the ownership and control of telecommunications operations by minorities and women. In radio licencing, the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) must consider the use of tax certificates and bidding preferences to ensure full participation by small businesses, rural telephone companies and firms owned by minorities and women. Owners in jeopardy of losing their licences may opt to sell it to a minority-owned firm for up to 75 percent of the market value. The minority firm must meet the basic qualification to hold a FCC licence.
Defence	Five percent of the value of procurement, research and development, military construction and operation and maintenance contracts is slated for historically black colleges, other minority institutions and "socially and economically disadvantaged individuals." This requirement was extended to the Coast Guard and the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA).
National Aeronautics and Space Administration (Nasa)	The Pilot Mentor/Protege Programme provides certain incentives to major defence contractors to assist small, disadvantaged businesses in meeting defence contract requirements.
Education	The Department of Education is authorised to make grants to post-graduate institutions that substantially contribute to legal, medical, dental, veterinary or other graduate education opportunities for black Americans. Priority in selection for Model Programme Community Partnership and Counseling Grants is given to proposals that include areas with high proportions of minority, limited English speaking, disabled, nontraditional, economically disadvantaged or so-called at-risk students. At least twelve percent of amounts appropriated for the Academic Research Facilities Modernisation Programme are reserved for historically black colleges and universities and other schools with substantial minority enrolments.
Environment	At least ten percent of total federal funding for research related to the Clean Air Act is to be made available to disadvantaged businesses.
Equal Employment Opportunity Commission	All federal departments and agencies are required to prepare annually a "national and regional equal employment opportunity plan" for submission to the EEOC. Large federal contractors - those with procurement of construction contracts totalling more than \$50,000 - are required to file written affirmative action plans and make good faith efforts to attain goals and set timetables to remedy the underuse of minorities and women. Civil service reforms of 1978 mandate the development of a minority recruitment program to eliminate underrepresentation of minority groups in certain federal job agencies.
Housing and Urban development	Applications for the Section 8 Housing Assistance Programme and the Section 202 Direct Action Loan Programme must include a description of the level of ownership by minorities and women in the project. Also, it should include strategies to include such businesses in the project's contracting and procurement.
Transportation	Recipients of surface transportation funds must establish goals for including disadvantaged businesses and ensure that at least ten percent of funds go to such firms.

From the foregoing it can be inferred that racial discrimination is still an important factor in American society in general, and in the American government service in particular. According to Berry (1995:48), it is possible that if minority groups in the United States do not take urgent preventive steps, Congress and the states are likely to repeal affirmative action along with other measures characterised as benefiting African-Americans, Asian-Americans, Latinos, women and other minority groups. President Clinton may well calculate his political future on the strengths and weaknesses of affirmative action policies.

The political signalling that already has had an adverse effect in the workplace in recent years in the United States may further constrain the opportunities of qualified minorities. The anger and alienation of particularly young African-Americans, many of whom are separatists or black nationalists and have already written off the system, are likely to increase. Americans are about to enter the 21st century still encumbered by the myths and stereotypes about African-Americans. The problem of the colour line in America will remain for a long time still (Berry, 1995:48).

#### 5.7 THE RELEVANCE TO SOUTH AFRICA OF THE OTHER COUNTRIES' EXPERIENCES WITH AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

If the experiences with affirmative action of the countries mentioned thus far, are considered in terms of what is

required for post-apartheid South Africa, two major aspects can be highlighted:

- A statutory-based policy for affirmative action has to be accompanied by a consistent growth rate in the economy in order to gain full advantage of the equalising process.
- The previously advantaged groups, at whose expense the affirmative action process will be implemented, would have to accept the fact that a period of transition would be necessary to redress the existing imbalances. However, it should be made clear that a time limit is attached to the equalising action, and that a date or time will arrive in the not so distant future when the disadvantaged groups would have been afforded sufficient time to get a foothold in the social competition to enable them to compete on an equal basis with the previously advantaged groups.

After a defined period of time the statutory stipulations would have to be removed in order to enable everyone to compete on an equal basis for the available opportunities and resources. It is further proposed that this procedure may succeed only if as great as possible unity of purpose coupled to a growing patriotism could be established in the minds and hearts of the population. This will only be possible if one purpose for everyone can be created, one main language can be established, a

basic decency could be instilled in every individual and group, from family life to cultural groups, and an inherent respect for human life and property could be cultivated.

In the above respect the emphasis would have to be on education and training for everyone, from infant status through school and tertiary education to senior adult status. Furthermore, the individuals charged with the implementation of sound, community-orientated government policies, the government officials, should be trained, retrained and orientated to carry out their duties with only one main mission in mind: the achievement of the general welfare of society (Weiner, 1993:2-14).

## 5.8 SUMMARY

This chapter investigated, on a comparative basis, discriminatory practises in selected countries as well as remedial measures that may have been taken, if any, to rectify past injustices with regard to racial and other discrimination. The countries selected for the comparison were India, Sri Lanka, Malaysia and the United States of America. The existence and effectiveness of anti-discriminatory measures such as affirmative action was explained.

The examples chosen have shown that different communities were over the centuries subjected to a natural evolution of

discriminatory practises that may have been part of the human psyche since earthly time began. However, as a result of various pressures as the different peoples each experienced the hurt and humiliation of racism and discrimination over the world, steps were formulated and occasionally implemented to rectify past injustices and ostracism of innocent people.

In many cases normalising measures to rectify the injustices mentioned above were only partly successful; in others a lot of good were achieved. Each community appears to have had unique problems relating to racism, discrimination and group domination. Each community had to approach its own discrimination problems from a new angle.

The success of affirmative initiatives will depend entirely on the value systems of the particular community. The question is whether the basic point of departure of the specific community can be argued from a humanitarian point of view, or is the allurements of power too strong a factor when leaders have to make decisions on the subjugation of their people?

In the next chapter discriminatory practices in South Africa will be briefly examined in relation to the necessity for affirmative action. As discrimination in South Africa was covered at length in chapter two the gist of the chapter will be devoted to the topic of affirmative action in general in south Africa, then to affirmative action as it is perceived in the government service, with special emphasis on the White

Paper on the Government Service of 1995, whereafter orientation procedures for government officials will be explained.

CHAPTER 6DISCRIMINATION, AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AND ORIENTATION PROCEDURES  
IN SOUTH AFRICA

## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Beekman (1982:14) the South African government service has in the recent past been controlled by Afrikaans-speaking members of the National Party. Within this context members of other language groups would not have been able to pursue a satisfactory career in the government service. Members of other language- and population groups were aware of the fact that the government could make decisions and formulate policy on their behalf, and on that basis the government-of-the-day should have been their affair. However, although those groups were governed, they did not share in the process of governing. As far as their inclusion in the decision making-, policy formulation- and policy implementation processes are concerned, they were effectively alienated by having been deliberately and statutorily excluded from meaningful employment in the government service of this country (Beekman: 1982:15).

In this chapter discriminatory practices in South Africa will be briefly examined in relation to the necessity for affirmative action. Brief mention will be made of racial discrimination in South Africa. This discussion on discrimination in South Africa will be superficial, in view of



the comprehensive exposition of the topic that was given in chapter two.

The nature and extent of affirmative action within the South African context will be examined in this chapter, whereafter past and existing orientation procedures for government officials, newly appointed or otherwise, will be explained. The gist of the chapter will be devoted to the topic of affirmative action in general in South Africa, then to affirmative action as it is perceived in the government service, with special emphasis on the White Paper on the Government Service of 1995.

## 6.2 RACIAL DISCRIMINATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

According to FitzGerald in Bayat and Meyer (1994:129) the history of South Africa in terms of the segregation practices developing out of the colonial era, combined with the recent four decades of implementation of apartheid-based policies, have generated a government service caste. The top decision and policy-making levels of the government service have been dominated by individuals scoring high on a check-list of ascriptive and subjective attributes as illustrated in table 11 below:

Table 11 - Attributes of the average senior government official

ASCRPTIVE (ATTRIBUTORY) CHARACTERISTICS	SUBJECTIVE (PERSONAL SPECIFIC) CHARACTERISTICS
White Male Afrikaans-speaking Christian-Calvinist	Nationalist Party- supporting

The racial imbalances of the composition of the senior management cadres during the time of writing (1994) as shown by FitzGerald in Bayat and Meyer (1994:130) may be illustrated as follows in table (12).

Table 12 - Racial imbalances in the government service

Whites	96,6%
Coloureds	0,8%
Indians	2.1%
Africans	0,5%

The above statistics should be considered bearing in mind the fact that during 1994 whites comprised approximately 12,7% of the total population in this country (CSS intermediate survey, October 1994).

In addition to the above statistics, FitzGerald in Bayat and Meyer (1993:131) states that racial or ethnic origin does not necessarily correlate with progressive or reactionary outlook in terms of the necessary public administration transition, nor does it inform about the precise extent of potential opposition to implementing post-apartheid policies and programmes. The attitudes of the majority of the white administrators who served under the apartheid rule appeared not to have changed commensurate with the new political thinking in the country.

A survey that was conducted by the Centre for South African Politics at the University of Stellenbosch during 1991 has polled the views of the country's most influential elites, including top bureaucrats such as directors-general, deputy directors-general and chief directors in various government services. The report found that continuing support existed for the apartheid policies among 40% of the respondents. No other white elite group in that category, with the exception of farmers, polled as high a percentage as the surveyed administrators (FitzGerald in Bayat and Meyer (1994:131)).

According to Bayat and Wissink in Bayat and Meyer (1994:272) one of the major issues that had to be dealt with by the new government after transition was the restructuring of the government service. The imperative role that the government service had to play with the implementation of government policies necessitated rapid restructuring of the composition

of the government service in order to ensure a smooth transition to a democratic and non-racial society. In practical terms the transition *per se* is presently problematic, as four decades of governing in terms of apartheid-based policies can not readily be undone (Bayat and Wissink in Bayat and Meyer, 1994:272).

According to the Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the government service (Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:5) the transformation of the public service is a complex and potentially controversial process. It is also being undertaken in a context where other government policies are likely to have a significant impact on the public service. Thus, while the White Paper provides a broad framework for the transformation of the public sector, further elaboration of policy will be necessary in the forthcoming years.

The government service inherited by the new Government (1994) was structured and developed by the previous government to promote and defend the social and economic system of apartheid. As a result, many of its policies and practices, if left unchanged, could seriously jeopardise the capacity of the government service to meet its new role in the social and economic transformation of the country. It is important, therefore, to identify the principal flaws peculiar to the inherited government service system and that will need to be overcome if the service is to discharge its new roles effectively, efficiently, and equitably. The main

shortcomings of the previous government service are explained below (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:5).

The administration as a whole was characterised by its lack of representativeness of all the peoples of South Africa. The administration of government was dominated by the white minority even though it had a majority black population. This was particularly the case within the management echelon, which in 1994 was 85 per cent white. The government service was also heavily biased in terms of gender. In 1994 only 3 per cent of senior management was female (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:6).

Because public officials were seen by the majority of the broader South African community as the agents of the apartheid state, they lacked popular legitimacy. Even where officials tried honestly and diligently to implement constructive policies, as some did, they met with opposition and hostility among the communities they were attempting to assist (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:6).

In the experience of the majority black population, the previous government service in South Africa failed to live up to what should have been its essential mission and purpose, that of serving all the people of South Africa. The system of

service provision that developed historically was both discriminatory and exclusionary, and was based largely on the assumption that communities were passive recipients rather than active participants in the limited services that were provided. The notion that the service could or should play an important developmental role was not a priority for the previous government. The purpose of state officials was to administer, control and, at best, to hand down services, not to work closely with communities in ways that might enable them to take control of their own development and empowerment. (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:6).

The government service became highly authoritarian, centralised and rule-bound in its operation. This was characterised in particular by the development of a vertical, top-down management structure in which the lower levels (as well as members of the public) were hardly consulted. There was little or no incentive for creativity. (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:7).

Accountability within the government service tended to be limited to administrative and budgetary accountability. Employees were held accountable for adherence to rules and procedures rather than for efficiency and productivity. The performance audits introduced lately by the Auditor-General covered only a few areas and seem not to have had much impact

on improved output and increased public insight.

Wider countability of the service to the public was not in evidence. In fact, the various government services were characterised by their secretiveness and the exclusion of public scrutiny. Information was closely guarded and released only under pressure. Decisions with a strong impact on the public were frequently made outside the scrutiny of the various Parliaments let alone that of the population as a whole. This state of affairs created space for widespread inefficiency, mismanagement and misappropriation of funds and increased the illegitimacy of the government in the public's eye. The government under these circumstances became very much a law unto itself (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:7).

No fully deployed management information systems were installed to promote information sharing and efficient monitoring and revision of public sector programmes. One important consequence of this is that few reliable statistics on the staffing and composition of the public service are available.

Budgetary proceedings were formalistic, unrelated to past performance and future programme goals, and exclusive of public participation. Rigidity in procedures and detail locked resources into inappropriate or badly-planned

programmes. Overall control of expenditure and the prevention of corruption were not effective (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:7).

Productivity in the government service is relatively low, particularly if judged in terms of the ability to deliver services that meet the needs of all the people of South Africa. Low productivity results in part from lack of appropriate education and training opportunities for the majority of staff. But it also results from the fact that a disproportionate number of organisational units and staff are involved in essentially duplicative administrative functions, whereas serious under-staffing frequently occurs at the level of essential service provision, particularly for the previously disadvantaged communities (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:7-8).

The government service is characterised by high income differentials between the lowest and highest paid workers. The income differential ratio is about 1:25 as compared with most other countries at a comparable level of development, where the ratio lies between 1:8 and 1:18. Whereas pay levels for managers are relatively high, those for the lower echelons are greatly depressed.



In the past, promotion and advancement were often seen to be dependent on criteria such as political allegiance, race and gender, rather than on merit and dedication. Linked to this, there was a lack of adequately defined career paths and an under-provision of related training opportunities, especially for disadvantaged groups. This helped to reduce opportunities for career advancement amongst such groups and to reproduce inequalities in the racial and gender composition of service, particularly at management levels (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:8).

For much of the apartheid era, labour relations were either prohibited or closely regulated according to race. The result for many government service workers, particularly black workers, was that they were denied the opportunity to improve their conditions through collective bargaining.

Recently, however, progress has been made towards establishing collective bargaining rights for all government service workers. The principle of affirmative action is also coming to be widely accepted by unions and professional associations, irrespective of their racial base (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:8).

Many of the problems outlined above have served to inhibit the development of a professional work ethic and commitment

amongst government service workers. Some islands of efficiency did exist, however, and some officials showed impressive dedication and capacity under the most unfavourable conditions. In many parts of the service, however, inefficiency, mismanagement and corruption became the norm. In the former "TBVC states" and "self-governing territories", for example, lack of commitment to one's work was seen by some government officials as a subtle form of opposition to the Bantustan system. Unfortunately, over time this lack of commitment tended to become a way of life (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:8).

### 6.3 THE NEED FOR AFFIRMATIVE ACTION TRAINING IN SOUTH AFRICA

Highlighting the training needs in terms of affirmative action of the South African government service, Bayat and Wissink in Bayat and Meyer (1994:276) emphasise that given its crucial and critical role, affirmative action training is a priority. Affirmative action trainees need bridging training, mentorship training, skills and job competency training, as well as awareness training aimed at changing the attitudes of previously advantaged personnel (Bayat and Wissink in Bayat and Meyer (1994:276). The next section will deal with aspects of affirmative action as applicable to the South African situation.

#### 6.4 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN SOUTH AFRICA

According to Myburgh (1994) affirmative action is defined as corrective action in order to correct imbalances of the past. In the employment context the target group is disadvantaged employees. By disadvantaged is meant those employees who have grown up in an environment which was not conducive to the development of their full potential. This definition has, however, certain problems, according to Myburgh (1994). In terms of the definition it is questionable whether white females and coloured persons as well as the disabled are deserving of affirmative action. In terms of the definition posed each and every individual would have to be evaluated individually in order to determine his or her eligibility for affirmative action.

A possible solution to the above problem, according to Myburgh (1994), is to use as a point of departure the assumption that anyone except white males (in the case of the government service, anyone except white Afrikaner males) have, in the past, been disadvantaged and to proceed with the argument from that point onwards (Myburgh, 1994).

The terms "equal employment opportunity" and "affirmative action" originated, as stated previously (see chapter 5), in the United States of America. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 served as the foundation document of affirmative action in that country. Various court decisions pertaining to

affirmative action have been recorded in the United States (see chapter 5). Perhaps the most significant of these cases, according to Myburgh (1994) was that of **Griggs v the Duke Power Company**. Prior to this decision illegal discrimination meant intentional discrimination. Accordingly only if an employer discriminated on the grounds of race or against disadvantaged groups on an intentional basis did that constitute discrimination. If there was no intention to discriminate then, even if there was discrimination, it was not illegal.

The Griggs case held that the requirement to avoid intentional discrimination had little effect in changing employment systems in the United States as at most it required employers to avoid crude forms of discrimination. The Griggs case established the principle that practices that had an adverse impact on disadvantaged groups, whether done intentionally or otherwise, without business justification were illegal. A new definition of illegal discrimination was therefore constituted.

In the Griggs case the employer claimed the right to use educational and test qualifications in selecting employees for employment even though as a result a higher proportion of minorities than whites were screened out. The employer's claim was based on considerations of good faith (**bona fide**); the implications being that he could not be held to blame for the fact that more disadvantaged people were screened out than

others. The Court held, however, that such good faith reliance was not a defence for practices that had an adverse impact on certain groupings - they were illegal unless required by business necessity. Effectively this decision forced employers to reconsider practices that would not have been addressed by the narrow concept of discrimination (Myburgh, 1994).

In South Africa, up to 1970, very few institutions provided equal employment opportunities for all groupings. However, since the 1970's such programmes were imported from abroad in the form of the **Sullivan Code of Conduct**, which came about as a result of the Griggs decision. Also the **EEC Code of Conduct** for European and British multi-nationals, while the Griggs principle was effectively codified in the **British Race Relations Act** of the mid-1970's (Myburgh, 1994).

In South Africa in the past in the private sector black advancement and affirmative action meant finding a black executive official and placing him in a prominent position among the senior management cadres irrespective of whether he possessed the ability to perform the work, or not. Today employment opportunities have to be equally accessible for all people, irrespective of origin (Venter, 1994:1). (See also Section 8, paragraphs (1), (2), (3) and (4) of the Constitution Act, 1993 (Act 200 of 1993)).

According to Venter (1994) affirmative action should be seen as a special emphasis process, that should enable previously and currently disadvantaged groups (in this case blacks, women and the disabled) to participate fully in all aspects of wealth generation. The term "wealth generation" in the context of this study should be understood to include equal opportunities in the government services for persons from all walks of life to have access to career paths that could bring about a comfortable style of living, including sufficient material means, as well as an affluent personal status, such as those accompanying senior government service positions.

During February 1995 the proposed affirmative action policy for the government service was considered by the Central Chamber of the Public Service Bargaining Council (Ed., Die Staatsamptenaar, 1995:10). The policy framework represents national norms and standards for affirmative action. Being a broad framework, the different affirmative actions within these norms were subject to negotiation and consultation at central, departmental and provincial levels with the employee organisations concerned within the Public Service Bargaining Council. The framework now provides the structure for negotiations and consultations and simultaneously it protects the rights and interests of serving officials. The framework has also been published as a chapter of the Public Service Staff Code by the direction of the Public Service Commission. The general guidelines include the following:

- When evaluating the state of representativity, and monitoring progress, the main focuses will be population groups, gender and disabled persons, which constitute the main criteria for determining representativity.
  
- In order to facilitate evaluation and monitoring, a central data base will be developed and maintained. The data base will reflect the composition of the whole of the public service at central and provincial levels by department and at various post levels and within various occupational classes. The data base will be disaggregated as necessary by departments at both central and provincial levels.
  
- Considering the size and occupational diversity of the public service, occupational families and classes will receive specific attention, including their review in accordance with the objective of broad representativity. Since not all of the 300-plus occupational classes can be addressed simultaneously in this regard, a prioritised approach will have to be followed. Priorities will be dictated by, among other things:
  - \* The existing composition of an occupational family or class.
  - \* Supply from the labour market.
  - \* The wishes of the government as collective employer as well as those of organised labour and the community.

- \* The assessed possibility of effecting significant change in the short to medium term.
- \* The available financial and other resources.
- When taking steps in pursuance of greater representativity, particular attention will be paid to the possible effect of such steps on the position of serving personnel. Their statutory rights will be respected, and all actions carried out in a manner which will ensure that the constitutional principles and provisions in terms of which the public service is staffed and administered, are complied with.

Experiences elsewhere, notably in India and the United States have demonstrated the inherent difficulties with affirmative action and it may thus be possible that the government may consider introducing legislation on affirmative action in addition to the existing stipulations as contained in the Interim Constitution 1993 (Act 200 of 1993). Any such legislation will be tabled in the Chamber at the central level of the Public Service Bargaining Council in accordance with the provisions of the Public Service Labour Relations Act, 1994.

The Public Service Commission will be responsible for providing policy, measures, systems and programmes to direct, facilitate, support and evaluate affirmative action activities.



Other responsibilities include:

- \* Developing and maintaining a central data base in respect of the government service's composition.
- \* Advising the government on policy and targets.
- \* The development and maintenance of policy, actions and regulating measures to promote a broadly representative government service.
- \* The overhead management of specific actions, measures or programmes where necessary.
- \* The development and presentation of enablement training to participants in special programmes and the training of managers to effectively manage the process in cases where such training cannot be presented departmentally.
- \* Monitoring and ensuring progress and reporting to Cabinet and Parliament in this regard.

Departments and administrations will be responsible for the promotion of a more representative government service in accordance with policy and shall see to the implementation and management, at departmental level, of actions, measures and programmes as recommended and directed by the Public Service Commission from time to time.

Departments have to design and implement departmental affirmative action programmes after registration with the Public Service Commission. They will also be responsible for the in-service training of participants in special programmes, including the appointment of mentors to facilitate such training.

Departments and administrations will report to the Public Service Commission on progress concerning departmental actions to promote representativity and are responsible for the promotion of an organisational culture which will be receptive to actions aimed at the promotion of a more representative government service.

Where instituted in terms of provincial legislation, Provincial Service Commissions will be required to oversee, in accordance with national norms and standards, the implementation of policy, actions, measures and/or programmes aimed at a broadly representative government service and to monitor progress made as a result of such policy, practices and programmes within their specific provinces.

Detailed arrangements in this regard will be made between the Public Service Commission and the Provincial Service Commissions with regard to each and every action, measure or programme on the implementation of affirmative action (Ed., Die Staatsamptenaar, 1995:10).

According to the Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:12) the Interim Constitution stresses the need for a "public service broadly representative of the South African community". (Section 212(2)(b) and Principle XXX of Schedule 4).

Representativeness is one of the main foundations of a non-racist, non-sexist and democratic society, and as such is one of the key principles of the new Government. Achieving representativeness is in essence a necessary precondition for legitimising the public service and driving it towards equitable service delivery.

For centuries indigenous peoples were systematically excluded from positions of influence in the state and civil society. Although a small elite benefitted from the Bantustan dispensation, the majority of senior posts in government are still held by whites. Women and disabled people have been similarly disadvantaged, in particular those from black communities. As a result, there has been an enormous waste in human potential. The skills, talents and experiences of such people were not developed and allowed to enrich the performance of the public service.

With the new dispensation in South Africa, this situation cannot be allowed to continue. To meet the new and challenging tasks with which it is faced, it is absolutely

imperative that the public service draws upon the skills and talents of all South Africans, and derives the benefits that a more representative service will bring.

In countries that have tried to increase equal opportunities in employment through strategies that have fallen short of affirmative action, three main steps have typically been taken.

- \* The introduction of laws outlawing discrimination on the basis of such factors as race, gender, and disability.
- \* The introduction of reforms in the procedures for the recruitment, selection and promotion of staff to promote greater equal opportunity.
- \* The promotion of attitudinal changes throughout the organisation, especially at management level, to ensure the necessary commitment for the success of such changes.

In South Africa, all three steps are being pursued vigorously. The Interim Constitution specifically prohibits discrimination in employment in any form. Organisational and attitudinal changes to promote equal opportunities are important components in strategies for institution building, restructuring and rationalisation. Such steps, although important, are unlikely by themselves to lead to major changes in the representativeness of the government service in the

short term. Attitudinal changes, for example, are often notoriously difficult to implement and frequently take many years to achieve. The RDP White Paper foresees a truly representative service by the end of the decade, and also requires substantial change in the short term:

"Within two years of the implementation of the programme, recruitment and training (in the government service) should reflect South African society in terms of race and gender." (RDP White Paper, paragraph 5.10.3).

A more pro-active approach is therefore vital, and this will initially have to take the form of affirmative action. The development and implementation of affirmative action programmes will allow special measures to be taken to ensure that people from disadvantaged groups inside and outside the government service will be identified and appointed through proper procedures within all ministries and at all levels of the government service, with the aim of achieving representativeness and improved service delivery.

The benefits of affirmative action programmes will be directed towards black people, women and people with disabilities. In developing appropriate programmes for such groups, it will be important to take into account differential levels of skill, qualifications and experience. Formally skilled and/or experienced persons from these disadvantaged groups would not be in need of additional training, apart from normal familiarisation and induction procedures. Those with potential but less skills, qualifications and experience would need to be exposed to accelerated and intensive training aimed

at upward mobility.

It will be important to examine carefully the concept of "defined quotas" called for in the RDP. It might be more practical to work on the basis of measurable and achievable departmental targets reviewed from time to time. Each department at the national and provincial level will be required to draw up a detailed affirmative action plan. Such plans will need to be consistent with the goals, objectives, norms and standards outlined in the Constitution and specified by the national government, particularly through its RDP White Paper.

Plans as mentioned above will need to include:

- \* An audit of the composition of departmental personnel according to race, gender and disability.
- \* Goals, objectives and measurable targets and outcomes for the affirmative action process.
- \* Strategies and time-frames for their achievement.
- \* methods for the annual monitoring and evaluation of progress, including the production and use of accurate management information statistics.

- \* The people and units designated as responsible within departments for ensuring the effective implementation of affirmative action programmes.
  
- \* Awareness rising and training strategies designed to promote a positive view of affirmative action and to discourage tokenism and the stereotyping of beneficiaries.

The results of affirmative action will have to be visible within the first few years, up to 1996. In line with the objectives of the RDP all departments must define their affirmative action targets, and present annual progress reports that will be subject to parliamentary scrutiny.

All departments will be required to prepare detailed plans for the internal monitoring and evaluation of their affirmative action programmes. In addition they will be required, as indicated above, to present an annual progress report for scrutiny by Cabinet so that special measures should be taken in cases where departments have failed to make visible progress towards their affirmative action targets within the two years stipulated in the RDP White Paper. Similar processes will be followed at the provincial level.

In order to fulfil its accountability to Parliament in accordance with section 209 of the Constitution, the Public Service Commission also has a major role to play in achieving

greater representativity in the Public Service. In the development and implementation of affirmative action programmes, plans and measures, the Commission will be guided by government policy as reviewed from time to time.

It is envisaged that programmes of affirmative action will be strengthened by future legislation designed to ensure the active and correct implementation of such programmes according to the law. Such legislation will need to be introduced in Parliament as soon as possible, and it will have to be carefully dovetailed with the Labour Relations legislation currently being developed (Draft White Paper on the transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995).

Bearing the foregoing in mind, particularly regarding the acquired culture of lack of responsibility and a work ethic that developed in the government service over the last four decades, the necessity for the nurturing of an ethical and a service-rendering approach by government officials and -workers should be a priority. This view is substantiated by Wissink and Hilliard in a recent newspaper article on avoiding the pitfalls of affirmative action (Wissink and Hilliard, 1995:6).

In the abovementioned article Wissink and Hilliard (1995:6) explain that public officials are expected to be accountable:



" ... Every decision taken by an official should be based on facts and may not prejudice the rights of others. These officials, by their actions, should set the tone of conduct for the rest of the country. Regrettably, such exemplary behaviour usually remains little more than an ideal. To combat malpractices, further measures, such as codes of conduct, rules and regulations, procedural manuals and prescriptive guidelines are needed. However, such measures do not and cannot automatically guarantee that high ethical standards will be upheld by the officials. In the end it is the public official that plays a pivotal role in the maintenance of impeccable public morality. The maintenance of internally accepted values and norms is an indispensable prerequisite for a 'clean' and well-administered public service. If such values and norms are departed from it could harm the general welfare of the public. This may be felt in the form of mediocrity, erratic and irregular service delivery patterns, more consumers' complaints and overall deterioration in public goods and services. To promote good government and unblemished administration, unambiguous standards and norms must be continually developed, consistently applied and constantly honed to adjust to the fluid South African political situation ... " (Wissink and Hilliard, 1995:6)

The above sentiments will only be realised if the policy of affirmative action is supplemented by an aggressive and thorough orientation training programme in order to instil in the decision-makers and implementers of public policies the values and norms necessary for and conducive to the continued striving for and maintenance of the general welfare of all the population groups of this country.

The policy of affirmative action in the government service will need to be carefully legislated and closely co-ordinated with the Labour Relations legislation currently being drafted. The need for a uniform Labour Relations Act will need to be seriously addressed if inequity and discrimination between labour sectors is to be avoided. This would also help to promote more effective labour relations at all levels, particularly by strengthening the mediation services,

streamlining the industrial court system and entrenching union organising rights. To that end, the Department is committed to a process of continuous consultation with public service unions, employee organisations, and public sector offices (at central, provincial and local levels) in the drafting of any new legislation (Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May 1995:12-14).

Presently numerous senior officials who were in the service of the previous government are experiencing anxiety regarding their future in the government service in the light of the latest developments and official points of view regarding affirmative action in the government service. This situation was observed during visits to all nine provinces and certain central government departments during July 1995, and during which interviews were held with senior officials in the various institutions. The purpose of these visits was to have the questionnaire, that was designed to undertake the empirical survey to support this dissertation, completed by senior officials in the various government institutions. The perceived threat to the employment position of the senior officials was exacerbated by a statement on 31 July 1995 by the Public Service Commission to the effect that all government officials must re-apply for their posts (Greybe, 1995:1-2).

The abovementioned report was repudiated by the Minister of the Public Service and Administration, Dr Z. Skweyiya with a report issued on 31 July 1995 (Van Zyl, 1995).

When the foregoing is considered, the conclusion is arrived at that the success or failure of implementing affirmative action in the government service lies with the approach to management of public organisations. This approach will have to emanate from the senior management cadres of executive institutions. It is therefore imperative that their attitudes and commitment to the service rendering ethic be beyond reproach. Such a state is essential for the successful implementation of normalising government policies. In view of the ideological heritage of certain of the senior officials in government institutions, as well as the lack of insight of the newly appointed officials in the government services, the need for training and orientation is becoming increasingly apparent as the only mechanism whereby the welfare of all the population groups of this country can be seen to be achieved and maintained.

#### 6.5 ORIENTATION PROCEDURES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT SERVICE

According to Botes (1970:9), every government official should receive goal-directed training from the day of appointment. The new entrant in the work situation should, according to Botes (1970:9), receive training and retraining on a continuous basis from as soon as possible after commencement

of duty to prepare him or her for the demands of possible future senior positions (Botes, 1970:9).

As long ago as 1947 the Centlivres Commission of Enquiry into Training in the Government Service had found that little was being done to present structured orientation training to government officials (Botes, 1970:15). Training in general did exist, but the particular concept of orientation training was not a priority within the training programmes of government departments (Botes, 1970:15).

Subsequent training programmes presented to government officials consisted of large quantities of information on topics such as general supervision, the task of the supervisor, the importance of supervision, as well as training, in various sections of the government service staff code and numerous other training programmes as compiled and presented by the South African Management and Development Institute (SAMDI) (previously known as the Public Service Training Institute). In most instances the training function was decentralised to individual government departments who had to provide for the creation of posts and the appointment of training officers. However, orientation training *per se* previously comprised a minuscule part of the general training programmes of departments as well as of the programmes presented by SAMDI.

Notwithstanding the above, orientation training programs were found, and those will be briefly discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

The Public Service Staff Code of 2 July 1986 included a self-training study guide that contained 17 tasks in paragraph 5.4 regarding orientation training that had to be researched by the junior official (Public Service Staff Code. 1986. Self Training Guide for the Assistant Personnel Officer. Par 5.4 - Orientation, Training and Development). These tasks were as follows:

" ...

- (i) Compile an organogram of your department and indicate who the incumbents of the posts are.
- (ii) Briefly furnish the purpose of your department.
- (iii) List your department's regional offices and their geographic localities.
- (iv) Furnish the names of those in charge of the Personnel Department, including the second-in-command.
- (v) Indicate the different sections of the Personnel Department and show under whose control the sections are administered.
- (vi) Who is the departmental training officer?
- (vii) What do you understand under "fringe benefits" and name the fringe benefits of the State as employer.
- (viii) Does your Personnel section possess the Consolidated Instructions? If so, study them thoroughly in order to undergo a verbal test.
- (ix) Do you understand the term "probation period"?

- (x) What is the difference between 1 month and 1 calender month?
- (xi) What is the difference between a quarterly report and a supervisory report?
- (xii) How often is your supervisor required to compile supervisory reports on your behalf?
- (xiii) Are you allowed to see these reports and is it important that these reports are discussed with you?
- (xiv) What is the purpose of the incidentation reports and why must it be kept up-to-date?
- (xv) Do you have a duty sheet? What are your duties?
- (xvi) How many posts are there on your department's establishment?
- (xvii) What is the difference in motive between the government service and the private sector? ... "  
(Public Service Staff Code. 1986. Self Training Guide for the Assistant Personnel Officer. Par 5.4 - Orientation, Training and Development).

The simplistic nature of these tasks, being part of an orientation program, is indicative of the lack of importance the compiler of the self-training guide attached to the nature, extent and necessity of orientation training.

During 1986 the Regional Office of the Department of Education and Training (DET) presented the following topics in an induction course for its teaching and non-teaching staff (compiled by Thozama Faba):

"...

- Aim of the Department of Education and Training.
- Head office.
- Regional office.
- Circuit offices.

- Teaching training offices.
- Technical colleges.
- Schools.
- Cape Regional office.
- Deputy-directorates and divisions.
- Conditions of service.
- Salary.
- Service bonus.
- Medical aid.
- Leave.
- Pension.
- Housing loan.
- Housing subsidy.
- Subsistence and travelling expenses.
- Training.
- Security.
- Office equipment.
- Supervisor's report.
- Tea club.
- Office hours.
- Behaviour of officials ... " (DET. 1986. Induction for new employees. Port Elizabeth).

In spite of being labelled "induction for new employees", the above course was also presented to existing personnel. This course appears to have been an improvement over the orientation segment in the Public Service Staff Code described in the previous section.

Another orientation program that was found was used by the Public Service Commission during the early 1960's - a much more useful document than the previous examples. However, to what extent that programme was later offered and presented is questionable. It is known that during 1962 officials of the Public Service Commission did travel around the country to offer orientation courses similar to the last mentioned course.

The above fact was ascertained from the personal experience of the researcher during his early years at the Department of Labour (Ferreira, 1995). This practice was apparently discontinued when the training function was decentralised from the Public Service Commission to individual departments during 1968 (Botes, 1970:96).

The contents of the orientation training course as presented up and including 1968 was as follows:

" ...

- Origin of the State.
- Purpose and functions of the State.
- The State and its institutions.
- The classification of forms of government.
- Constitutions.
- The division of governmental authority.
- Various levels of government.
- Legislative Authority.



- Executive Authority.
- Judicial Authority.
- The environment within which public administration takes place.
- Guidelines for public administration.
- The Generic Administrative Processes.
- Policy making.
- Planning.
- Decision making.
- Organising.
- Financing.
- Work methods and procedures.
- Personnel administration:
  - Communication.
  - Human Relations.
  - Documentation.
  - Telephone.
  - Control.
- Team work.
- Security ... " (Orientation. 1969. P.S.C.).

The latter-described orientation course appears to have been of more theoretical substance than any other orientation programmes that had been offered in the past while its nature and extent appeared to have been superior in its holistic content than the other orientation programs encountered.

This country has now entered into a new phase regarding government administration. A large number of variables are influencing the work performance of government officials. For instance, officials that came from the previous dispensation

are experiencing an anxiety factor in the form of job insecurity (Greybe, 1995:1). This is in spite of contradictory statements by the Minister for the Public Service and Administration (Van Zyl, 1995).

For those officials emanating from the previous dispensation orientation training to change possible negative attitudes have to take place as well as training to convince those officials that they must not withhold valuable information during their training of new appointments. For officials originating from those groups who were previously disadvantaged as far as employment in the government services is concerned, and that have been newly appointed in so-called "affirmative action" initiatives, orientation training in a public service culture has to take place, with special emphasis on the aspects of responsibility, work ethic, and the concept of service rendering in a transparent and accountable manner.

## 6.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter discriminatory practices in South Africa was briefly examined in relation to the necessity for affirmative action. Brief mention was made of racial discrimination in South Africa.

The question of discrimination in South Africa, with special reference to discrimination in the South African government

service, was explained. Affirmative action as a concept, and the necessity for the formulation and implementation of an official policy for affirmative action was discussed at length. Finally an overview of examples of certain past orientation programmes in the South African government service was given.

In the following chapter an analysis of the empirical survey will be reported on, which will include an exposition of the research methodology for the empirical survey as well as the interpretation of the research findings.

## CHAPTER 7

### THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

#### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the first chapter the problem to be researched was defined as the assumed lack of effective and efficient orientation procedures for new and existing personnel in the central government service of South Africa. Research of this nature was deemed necessary in order to meet the requirements of effective and efficient public personnel management in a post-apartheid public administration environment, bearing in mind the neglect caused to the disenfranchised population groups in this country during the implementation of apartheid-based policies by the previous government service.

In this chapter the research methodology used with the empirical survey will firstly be explained. Secondly, the operationalisation of the survey questionnaire used for gathering the data needed for analysis and interpretation will be explained. Thirdly, the survey data will be presented and explained. Finally, a summary will be provided.

#### 7.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

When considering the basic key assumption stated in chapter 1 as the assumed lack of effective and efficient orientation procedures for new and existing personnel in the central and

provincial government service in South Africa, it is intended to test that assumption against the available empirical survey data.

A further assumption that was made was that the major factor that gave rise to the key assumption stated above is the existing demographic composition of the incumbents of senior management posts of the two stated levels of government in South Africa (chief director and higher, and director). It was also assumed that the majority of those existing officials served under the previous government and that a major percentage of them may hold attitudes that are opposed to the aims and objectives of the current government, for example the RDP. This assumption was supported by the sub-assumption that the majority of the senior managers in the government service are, during the time of this research, white, male and Afrikaans-speaking.

It was further assumed that gender discrimination still exists in the government sector, as well as discrimination against the disabled.

In order to be able to investigate to what extent the management posts in the present government service under the GNU was still occupied by officials who were loyal to the previous administration, an empirical survey among selected central government departments and the nine provincial governments was embarked upon.

Another objective with the empirical survey was to determine the attitudes of the incumbents of selected senior posts on both levels of government towards aspects such as the management of orientation training, attitudes towards the necessity for and the degree of success of as well as commitment towards the Reconstruction and Development Programme, the concepts of affirmative action, possible traces of racialism, traces of sexism and traces of prejudice towards the physically disabled among certain senior officials, in their respective capacities as managers of public policy programmes in government institutions.

Landman (1988:70) describes **method** as the Latin term **methodus** and the Greek term **methodos** combined as **meta + hodos** as the **way by which** the scientific researcher must select a method permitting access to the phenomenon. The method is determined to a large extent by the nature of the phenomenon or by the sphere of investigation. Method implies a systematic procedure in analysing the phenomenon. After having settled the question of the objectives of scientific practice the researcher's next step is to decide on possible approaches that can be used to attain these objectives (Landman, 1988:70).

According to Leedy (1980:1) research is:

" ... the manner in which we attempt to solve problems in a systematic effort to push back the frontiers of human ignorance or to confirm the validity of the solution to problems others have presumed solved. Research is

circular in the sense that the researcher seeks facts (data) which seem pertinent to the solution of the researchable problem from within the research universe (environment) that gave rise to the researchable problem, and which is potentially fact-laden. The collected data is then organised, analysed, and interpreted in order to facilitate the solution of the researchable problem that gave rise to the research effort originally, and the research cycle is thus completed. However, it may be more realistic to see this cyclical concept as a helical (spiral) concept as research frequently gives rise to further unexplored problems which then requires a repeat of the research cycle for their solution ... " (Leedy, 1980:7).

Methodology is an operational framework within which the facts are placed so that their meaning may be seen more clearly (Leedy, 1980:91).

Leedy (1980:119-223), explains the following four principal research methodologies which may be used depending on the type of research objective:

- The **historical** method which is appropriately applied to data that are in literary form or documentary by nature.
- The **analytical survey** method, which is appropriate for data that are quantitative in nature and need statistical assistance to extract their meaning.
- The **experimental method**, which is appropriate for data derived from an experimental control situation in which two separate groups are involved, the one group being the control group while the other group is the experimental group.

- The descriptive survey method, sometimes called the normative survey method (Leedy, 1980:133), which is appropriate for data that are derived from observational situations and which may lie buried deep within the minds, attitudes, feelings/opinions, or reactions of people.

The above four principal research methodologies are not sequenced in any order of priority. Leedy is critical of those academics who display a prejudice for a given research methodology as:

" ... it is difficult to defend the position of those who claim that unless research fits an arbitrary prejudice for a given methodology, it fails to be research. All highways are of equal excellence; each, however, traverses a different terrain, but they all converge on the same destination. In other words, when research is viewed as an offensive against ignorance of the truth, then the four principal research methodologies are merely separate avenues leading in the direction of enlightenment. No one methodology is superior to any other, and they all converge at one coveted point: the point from which we are able to discern that of which we were hitherto unaware ... " (Leedy, 1980:3-9).

### 7.2.1 The Normative Survey Method

Based on the research objective of this dissertation as defined in Chapter 1 and the brief discussion of the four principal research methodologies above, the normative survey method was decided on as the appropriate research methodology to be used. The aim was to develop a general view of the management of orientation procedures for effective and



efficient personnel management in a post-apartheid South-Africa, thereby establishing what may be viewed as the norm for orientation procedures in the government service. In fact:

" ... the name (normative survey method) implies the assumption that whatever we observe at any time is normal (the norm) and under the same conditions could conceivably be observed at any time in the future. The basic assumption underlying such an approach is that given phenomena usually follow a common pattern or norm. Sometimes this survey method is called the descriptive survey method in which case the researcher looks (observes) with intense accuracy at the phenomena of the moment and then describes precisely what (he) the researcher sees (observes) ..." (Leedy, 1980:133-135).

Leedy (1980:133-135) asserts that although the normative survey method is appropriate for data that are derived from observational situations, observation is not restricted to observation with physical vision (the eye). Millions of survey studies have been conducted in which observation has been by means of a questionnaire and in interview studies observation has been mainly with the ear rather than with the eye. However in all observation instances observation is accompanied by the making of a record and the record is always a part of the observation. This record of the preservation of facts may be in **narrative form** or in the form of **tables, charts, graphs** and other summary and trend-indicating techniques (Leedy:1980:133-135).

Leedy (1980:133-134) furnishes the following as a basic rule that governs the descriptive/normative survey method:

"... Nothing comes out at the end of a long and involved study which is any better than the care, the precision, the consideration and the thought that went into the basic planning of the research design and the careful selection of the population. The results of a survey are no more trustworthy than the quality of the population or the representativeness of the sample. Population parameters and sampling procedures are of paramount importance and become critical as factors in the success of the study ... " (Leedy, 1980:109-110).

With recognition to the above basic rule and the particular need of all researchers to calculate all costs of both time and money in relation to their research survey, four salient characteristics of the normative/descriptive survey method that need attention in the research design stage are described in the paragraphs that follow (Leedy:1980:134-135).

#### ■ Collecting the Data (1)

The technique of observation is the principal means of collecting the data in this type of survey situation.

#### ■ The Population and The Sample

The population for the research survey must be carefully chosen and clearly defined. In addition measurable or quantifiable limits must be determined in order to set distinct limits on the population.

#### ■ The Introduction of Bias

There is a susceptibility to distortion of the data through

the introduction of bias into the research design thus particular attention should be given to the methodology to safeguard against such bias.

According to Leedy (1980:161), bias may be defined as follows:

" ... Bias is any influence, condition, or set of conditions, which, singly or together, cause distortion or aberration of the data from those which may have been obtained under the conditions of pure chance; furthermore, bias is any influence which may have disturbed the randomness by which the choice of a sample population has been selected ... " (Leedy, 1980:161).

In the light of the foregoing, the researcher has to realise and acknowledge the possibility of biased data. Failure to recognise the possible effect that bias may have had in distorting the collected data in a research study when analysing and interpreting the data, and when making inferences or formulating conclusions may allow the integrity of the researcher to be questioned. This failure would demonstrate an immature approach to serious research, as nothing is gained by ignoring the possibility of bias.

In addition to the above, facts cannot be forced to support research hypotheses as this is nothing else but denying the realities existing in the research situation. The researcher must strive to ensure that bias is limited to the minimum, and should allow the facts to speak for themselves. However, bias should be accepted as an inevitable condition in most survey research studies by researchers, and they should not be unduly

upset by its presence (Leedy, 1980:161-163).

#### ■ Organisation and presentation of data

The collected data must be organised and presented systematically depending on the research objective(s) so that valid and accurate conclusions may be drawn from them.

#### ■ Collecting the Data (2)

The questionnaire is the usual measuring instrument used in order to ensure the collection of reliable structured data needed for analysis and interpretation in a research study. It records and preserves the facts that are part of the observation. Three methods of using the questionnaire to gather data are mentioned here, namely the postal survey, the telephone survey and the personal interview (self-administered method). The personal interview method (self-administered), will be explained in the paragraphs that follow.

#### \* The personal interview (self-administered method)

For the purposes of this study it was decided to make use of the self-administered survey which was regarded as the most reliable survey method in the light of the sensitivity of the issues covered in the questionnaire. In this instance the self-administered survey was considered the best method under the circumstances because the researcher would have had the

opportunity to be present to reassure the respondent about the anonymity and harmlessness of the questionnaire to his or her position. Being in an interview situation the respondent could be assisted, without being influenced in any way, to complete the questionnaire with the least wastage of time. On average the time taken to complete the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher was between 5 and 10 minutes. The self-administered questionnaire also has additional advantages which include the following:

- \* As all questionnaires are identical it provides a homogeneous stimulus to the potential respondent and eliminates the possibility of the impersonal effect encountered in both the telephone survey and the postal survey.
- \* The purpose and scope of the questionnaire could rapidly be explained by the researcher without any attitudinal influencing whatsoever, to the potential respondent who would then be free to decide whether he or she wants to complete the questionnaire or not.
- \* In a relatively short time data may be obtained from a large number of people over a vast geographical area, covering no less than all nine provinces in the country as well as the head offices of selected central government departments in Pretoria.

Some of the reasons why the postal survey method was decided against were the following:

- The possibility of a low-response rate can cause bias in the data as the possibility existed that the characteristics of the non-respondents may have differed from those of the respondents.
  
- There is so much "junk" mail with forms and questionnaires to be completed nowadays that the potential respondent may have developed a negative attitude and placed the questionnaire in the wastepaper basket with the rest of the "junk" mail.

### 7.3 THE STRUCTURE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

With regard to the design of the questionnaire it was decided to have it fully structured as far as possible with no use being made of open-ended statements. The sequencing of the statements was also of importance as starting the questionnaire with threatening/sensitive statements may stop the respondent before he has even started and resulted in an extremely poor response rate.

The language preference of the sample population had to be taken into account as providing the potential respondent with a questionnaire in his own language increased the probability of him or her responding. Therefore it was decided to have

all questionnaires including the covering letter circulated in both English and Afrikaans in an attempt to improve the response rate. Due cognisance was taken of the fact, that in certain areas, among others the Western Cape, Free State and Pretoria, Afrikaans is still widely used in the government services, while in a number of other areas, such as the Eastern Cape and Kwazulu-Natal, English have been found to be more predominant as the *lingua franca* in the government services.

The design stage of a questionnaire is a complex task and many revisions in length, content and wording are usually required before the researcher is satisfied that the questionnaire will gather the desired data. In addition, before the questionnaire can be finalised, it is important to conduct a preliminary investigation in order to test and refine it. Such an investigation was done, by way of a pilot study, using a similar questionnaire, among senior personnel at the Port Elizabeth Technikon. During the pilot study a number of shortcomings in the original questionnaire were detected, and subsequently corrected.

According to Rossi (1983:84) it is important for a questionnaire to satisfy three objectives:

- \* It should meet the aims of the research.

- \* It should reflect accurate information regarding the research study.
  
- \* It should be executable within the time and resources available (Rossi, 1983:84).

### 7.3.1 The essence of question design

#### ■ Structured and Open-ended Questions

In survey research both structured (also called closed) questions and open-ended (also called unstructured or free response) questions may be used. However, in order to facilitate the response rate and the analysis of the returned questionnaires, it was regarded as advisable to use structured questions as they are more economical and less time-consuming to administer.

According to Rossi (1983:124), a structured question is:

"... a question that contains specific mutually exclusive categories of responses from which the respondent selects a category that best suits his response ... " (Rossi, 1983:124).

An open-ended question is a question that requires the respondent to write down a response word for word. They are time-consuming, uneconomical and usually result in respondent fatigue setting in as they require considerable thinking and thus have a demotivating effect which often results in a poor



response rate. Their use should therefore be kept to a minimum although they may provide the researcher with insight into the situation being researched not usually obtainable with structured questions. In addition open-ended questions are difficult to analyse as no meaningful system of classification can be selected in advance, the researcher not being able to anticipate the various responses to the open-ended questions (Rossi, 1983:42-43).

The questionnaire was finalised after approximately nine months of revision, meetings with the statistician, the study project supervisors, 2 registered clinical psychologists, the head of the Institute for Planning and Research at the University of Port Elizabeth as well as the head of department of the department of Industrial Psychology at that university. The services of the Political Sciences Research Unit of the University of Stellenbosch were also procured, whereafter a pilot study was done among senior personnel at the Port Elizabeth Technikon.

The end result of these efforts culminated in a document that was presented to hundreds of potential respondents around the country, in all nine provinces and in selected departments of the central government service.

In the design and structure of the questionnaire, two concepts were introduced, namely **independent variables** and **dependent variables**. Landman (1988:98) describes these two terms as

follows:

### 7.3.2 Independent variables

**Independent variables** are the presumed cause or variable that takes place **first**. In experimentation, the manipulated variable is the independent variable. It is under the direct control of the researcher, who may vary it in any way desired. The independent variables are the conditions or characteristics that the researcher manipulates in his attempt to ascertain their relationship to observed phenomena (Landman, 1988:98). For the purposes of this study the independent variables of the questionnaire were determined as the target population for the survey, the biographical details of the respondents, for example present post level, level of government employed in (central or provincial), age group, mother tongue and gender.

### 7.3.3 Dependent variables

**Dependent variables**, according to Landman (1988:98) are those variables that may have the presumed effect, or that which takes place **second**. The variable to which subjects will be asked to respond is called a dependent variable; its effect depends upon the presence, absence, or quantity of the independent variable. For the purposes of this study the dependent variables were determined as the attitudinal responses to aspects such as orientation procedures,

affirmative action, race, gender and the disabled that were included in the questionnaire in the form of forty-five statements. In terms of this description, the questionnaire was divided into two main sections:

- **Section A**, (independent variables) requesting biographical particulars, containing information on present post level, level of government employed in (central or provincial), age group, mother tongue and gender.
  
- **Section B** (dependent variables), pertaining to attitudes to orientation procedures, affirmative action, race, gender and the disabled. Section B was divided into forty-five basic statements (see annexure 5).

The measuring instrument decided upon, namely the five-point Likert scale of response as described by Zimbardo-Ebbeson (1969:125), was employed in consultation with the statistician. According to this method a person's attitude score is the sum of his individual ratings. The opinion per statement to be tested is rated on a five-point Likert scale and was adapted for the dependent variable statements as follows:

#### **Rating value**

1 = Strongly disagree. 2 = Disagree. 3 = Undecided. .  
4 = Agree. 5 = Strongly agree.

In order to determine the target population a list of chief directors' and directors' posts at central government level as well as at the nine provinces was obtained from the Public Service Commission (fax no 012-3232386, M Wilson: 28 June 1995). The total target population was determined from the available document mentioned above, a total of 1380 posts, consisting of 310 chief directors' posts and 1070 directors' posts. It was further decided in consultation with the statistician to predetermine an expected response rate of 20% of the available posts, a total of 276 posts, which were split into 62 chief directors' and 214 directors' posts, the incumbents of which would be requested to respond to the questionnaire.

It has to be stated at this juncture that since the early stages of making contact with the various government institutions, a serious degree of negativity towards the research project was encountered at certain provinces and also at certain departments at central government level by certain individuals. This fact was one of the main reasons why the researcher decided to employ a self-administered technique for the completion of the questionnaire, as the possibility of a low response rate was viewed as a reality should the questionnaire have been administered in any other manner, either postal or telephonically.

The self-administered route decided upon proved to be the correct one, and one that yielded an acceptable response rate.

Had other methodologies been employed only, an extremely low response rate would have resulted.

The above fact was confirmed during personal visits by the researcher to the available chief directors and directors in all nine provinces and in the central government service in Pretoria. The researcher also found that existing incumbents in senior posts were often reluctant to co-operate, showed signs of distrust and fear, and only completed the questionnaire because of the physical presence of the researcher.

The situation mentioned above was, however, not found at all institutions, as there were a number of senior officials at various other institutions who went out of their way to complete the questionnaire and to assist the researcher in finding the incumbents of other posts that could be requested to complete the questionnaire. A large number of the posts were, however, not filled at the time of the researcher's arrival at the relevant institutions, and he was told that such posts are presently vacant, and that the previous incumbents had either resigned, or taken early retirement, and that the posts would be advertised within the near future.

Four methods of approaching the target population with the questionnaires were employed in order to effect the highest possible response rate. Firstly, questionnaires were posted to selected contacts in a few provinces who indicated their

willingness to assist the researcher in anticipation of a personal visit by him to have the questionnaires completed by the respondents that occupied the relevant posts. Secondly, questionnaires were faxed to selected contacts in provinces that appeared willing to assist in the project. Thirdly, as many institutions as possible were visited to have the questionnaires completed.

In many instances, blank questionnaires had to be left with the secretaries of the incumbents of the posts in question, as the relevant senior officials were not available, or were away for a few days, and could, therefore not attend to the questionnaire immediately. In each such case follow-up actions were undertaken on arrival back in Port Elizabeth by reminding those involved telephonically and/or by fax to have the questionnaires completed and returned as soon as possible. Fourthly, those institutions whose questionnaires were still outstanding were reminded by numerous telephone calls, faxes and letters (examples attached).

While not ideal, and because of time constraints, it was decided in consultation with the statistician to commence the statistical analysis of the questionnaires after 206 responses had been received. This response figure indicates the achievement of a 15% overall response percentage in terms of the 1380 posts originally identified, which translates to a 75% response percentage in terms of the 276 posts agreed upon as the sample target population.

The research findings are based on 206 usable completed questionnaires from the incumbents of a targeted 276 posts, consisting of 45 questionnaires from the chief director post level from a possible 62 individuals on central and provincial government level, and 161 questionnaires from the director post level out of a possible 214 individuals on central and provincial government levels.

With the assistance of the statistician of the Port Elizabeth Technikon, who used the computer program "Statistica" to process the collected data and to generate the various statistical results, the relative values pertaining to the set statements that emerged from the survey were transferred in codified form to the computer data-base.

#### 7.3.4 Statistics

Descriptive statistics is a type of research that is primarily concerned with the nature and degree of existing situations or conditions. The purpose is to describe rather than to judge or interpret (Landman, 1988:59).

##### ■ The mean

The mean is a measure of central tendency found by adding all scores and dividing by the number of scores. The mean provides a score that each case would have if the variable was distributed equally among all observations (Landman, 1988:70).

### ■ The median

Half of the responses were at or below the figure given. According to Leedy (1985:34) the term "median" refers to the precise centre of the numerical array of given values.

### ■ Frequency distribution and the Pearson chi-square test

A frequency distribution is a distribution that shows how many times a particular score appears. Use is made of class intervals. This indicates that the frequency is not determined by particular scores but by a number of scores regarded as a unit (Landman, 1988:63). The Pearson chi-square test is a test that measures the frequency distribution of the responses from the standpoint of a zero-hypothesis indicating differences in responses between certain groups as significant.

### ■ Skewness factor

Skewness indicates the overall propensity of the respondents after all possible responses, and its frequencies, have been calculated by the frequency distribution method. **A skewness of 0 indicates an overall average neutral response.** Skewness also refers to an overall distribution that is perfectly symmetrical about its mean (Landman, 1988:93).



## ■ Analysis by explanatory variables

Analysis by explanatory variables enables the researcher to arrive at conclusions based upon a comparative analysis by multi-dimensional cross-tabulation of the available data (Bosma, 1995).

## \* Dimensional cross-tabulation

Dimensional cross-tabulation refers to the statistical cross-tabulation of two or more explanatory variables that are analysed in terms of their respective variable responses to given statements (Bosma, 1995). In this research a minimum of a two-dimensional- and a maximum of a three-dimensional approach was followed with the analysis of given different statements of the questionnaire. Responses to selected statements were tested and compared against given independent variables.

## 7.4 INTERPRETATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

In terms of the nature of the objective with the empirical survey, namely to test the attitudes of senior managers at central and provincial government level on orientation, affirmative action, racism, sexism and the disabled, the inherent subjectivity in attitude survey was realised and kept in mind during the analysis of the results. However, according to Zimbardo-Ebbeson (1969:123) it is possible to

measure subjective attitudes by using quantitative techniques, so that each individual's opinion can be represented by some numerical score.

It was assumed in the research that the measuring technique employed, namely a five-point Likert scale, would presuppose that a particular test item has the same meaning for all respondents, and thus a given response will be scored identically for everyone making it. Zimbardo-Ebbeson (1969:123) state that such assumptions may not always be justified, but that no measurement technique has as yet been developed which does not include them. In the following section the results of the mean, the median, the frequency distribution as well as the analysis by explanatory variables of the empirical research will be provided. After the description of the statistical findings of the empirical research, in the following chapter, those results that proved positive in terms of the initial assumptions will be utilised in the development of the proposed normative model.

#### ■ Descriptive statistics

This statistical approach will test the mean and the median of the responses to the respective statements.

Table 13 provides a diagrammatic illustration of the mean and the median statistical analysis of the forty-five statements.

Table 13 - Mean and median statistical analysis

STATEMENTS	MEAN	MEDIAN	STATEMENTS	MEAN	MEDIAN
S1	3.73	4.00	S23	4.35	4.00
S2	3.21	4.00	S24	3.00	3.00
S3	3.80	4.00	S25	4.4	4.00
S4	3.54	4.00	S26	2.94	3.00
S5	2.17	2.00	S27	4.39	4.00
S6	3.84	4.00	S28	3.64	4.00
S7	4.23	4.00	S29	4.25	4.00
S8	2.33	2.00	S30	4.28	4.00
S9	2.72	2.00	S31	4.12	4.00
S10	3.57	4.00	S32	4.26	4.00
S11	3.47	4.00	S33	3.3	3.00
S12	4.41	5.00	S34	3.2	3.00
S13	4.37	4.00	S35	4.18	4.00
S14	2.76	3.00	S36	4.45	4.00
S15	4.03	4.00	S37	3.70	4.00
S16	3.5	4.00	S38	4.29	4.00
S17	3.84	4.00	S39	3.22	3.00
S18	3.56	4.00	S40	2.95	3.00
S19	3.15	3.00	S41	4.32	4.00
S20	4.17	4.00	S42	2.88	3.00
S21	4.01	4.00	S43	4.5	5.00
S22	4.28	4.00	S44	4.01	4.00
			S45	4.32	4.00

The results emanating from the above table is found in the mean and median responses, to, in particular, statements 13, 24, 33, 43 and 45. Within this context the mean and median responses to these statements showed tendencies that could be construed as provisionally supporting the assumptions stated in the introduction to this chapter. These responses will be explained later.

- \* **Frequency distribution, skewness, and the chi-square test**  
(The numbers are rounded off and may not equal 100).

Frequency distribution tables incorporating a skewness factor, with accompanying bar graphs, will be provided in the illustrations on the following pages in respect of all 45 statements.

- \* **The Pearson chi-square test**

Another test of statistical significance is the Pearson chi-square test. According to Landman (1988:54), the chi-square test determines the probability that observed and expected preferences, as indicated by the respondents, may differ. The Pearson chi-square test assumes a zero-hypothesis in terms of those responses with significant differences between independent variables in their answers to a particular statement. Any p-value above 0.05 indicates non-significant differences between the various groups' responses, and therefore general agreement between these groups in their responses to a particular statement.

As statements 13, 24, 33, 43 and 45 are regarded as important for the purposes of this study, the chi-square test was conducted on them and the p-values in respect of the three independent variables applicable to each of the statements determined (see table 13 above). See also tables 60 to 74.

TABLE 14: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

## Statement 1

There should be different orientation programs for new and existing officials.

Statement 1			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	25	12.1	0.92
2	26	12.6	
3	3	1.45	
4	77	37.38	
5	75	36.40	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 1: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

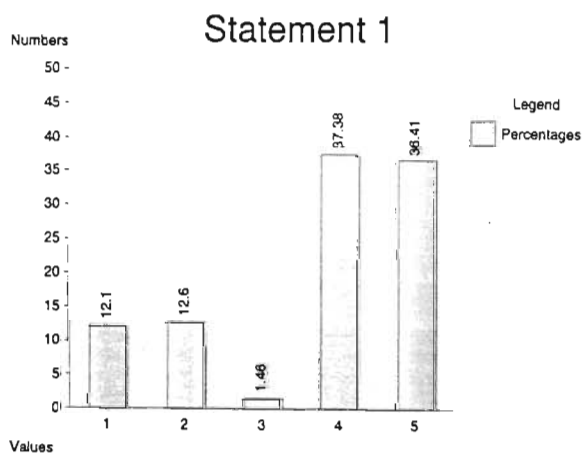


TABLE 15: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 2

Orientation programs should be co-ordinated from the central personnel authority (the Public Service Commission).

Statement 2			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	31	15.05	0.94
2	47	22.82	
3	20	9.71	
4	62	30.10	
5	46	22.33	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 2: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

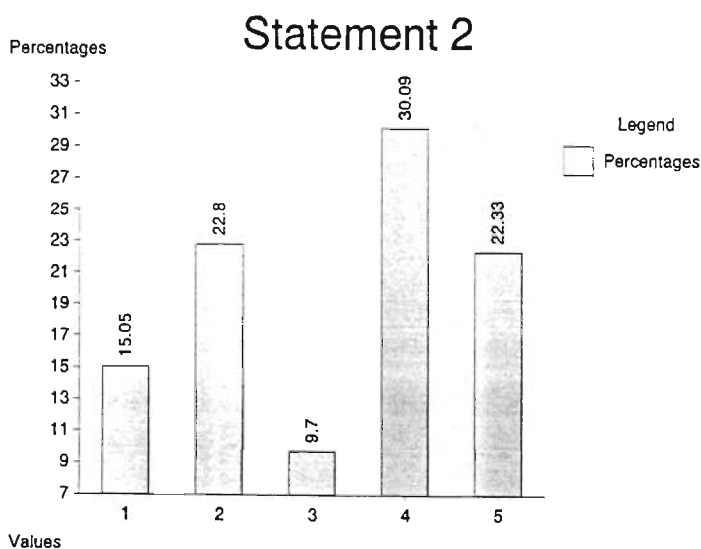


TABLE 16: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 3

Orientation programs should contain information about the history of the institution.

Statement 3			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	8	3.88	1.10
2	19	9.22	
3	22	10.68	
4	114	55.34	
5	43	20.90	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 3: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

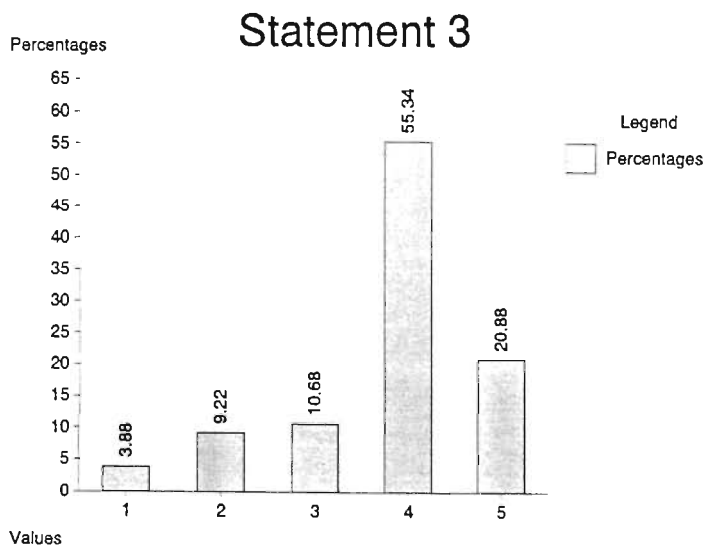


TABLE 17: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 4

Orientation programs should be managed autonomously by each department.

Statement 4			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	17	8.25	0.59
2	36	17.48	
3	24	11.70	
4	77	37.38	
5	52	25.25	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 4: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

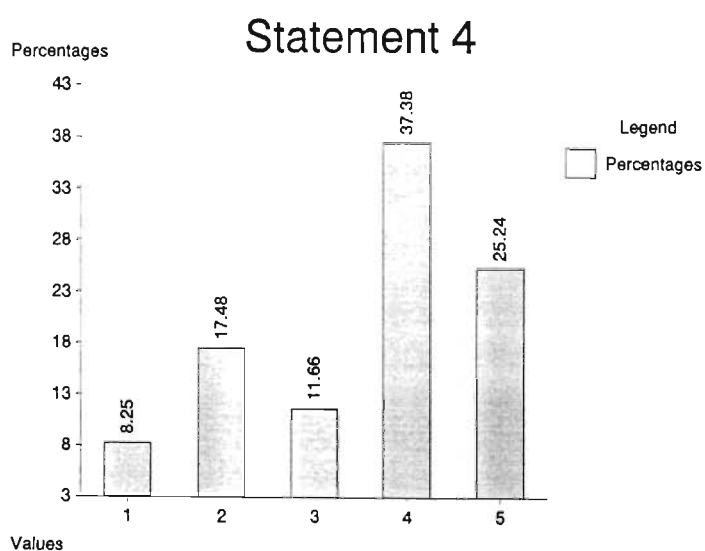




TABLE 18: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 5

Different orientation programs should be presented to different population groups.

Statement 5			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	86	41.75	-0.84
2	57	27.67	
3	18	8.74	
4	30	14.56	
5	15	7.28	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 5: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

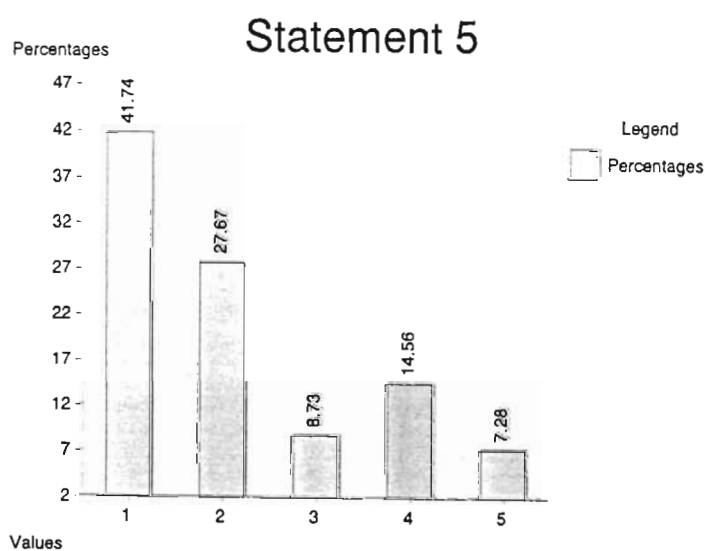


TABLE 19: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 6

Senior officials in each department should take part in presenting orientation programs.

Statement 6			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	9	4.37	1.06
2	19	9.22	
3	22	10.68	
4	101	49.03	
5	55	26.70	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 6: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

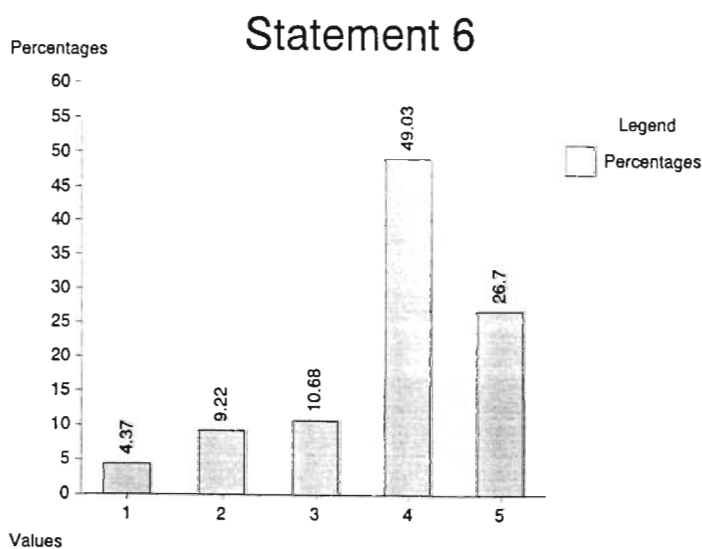


TABLE 20: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 7

Orientation training should take place immediately after commencement of service.

Statement 7			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	3	1.46	1.43
2	19	9.22	
3	7	3.40	
4	74	35.92	
5	103	50.00	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 7: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

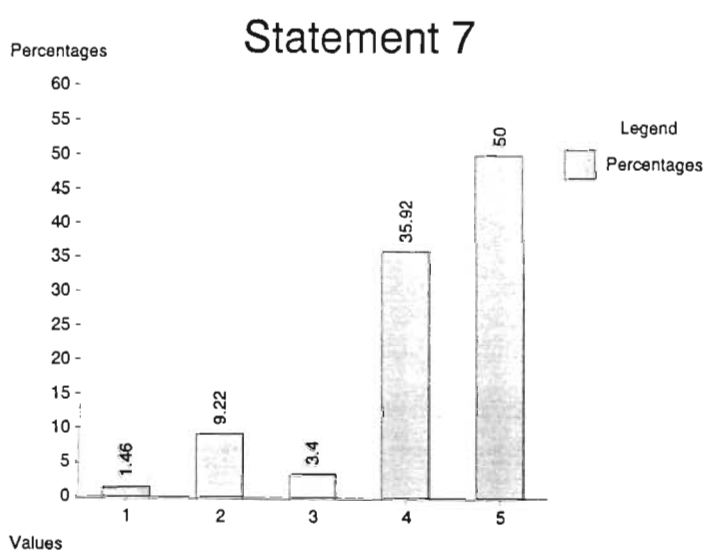


TABLE 21: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 8

Demonstrating is a justified response for government officials to air their grievances.

Statement 8			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	62	30.10	-0.65
2	72	35.00	
3	25	12.34	
4	35	16.99	
5	12	5.83	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 8: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

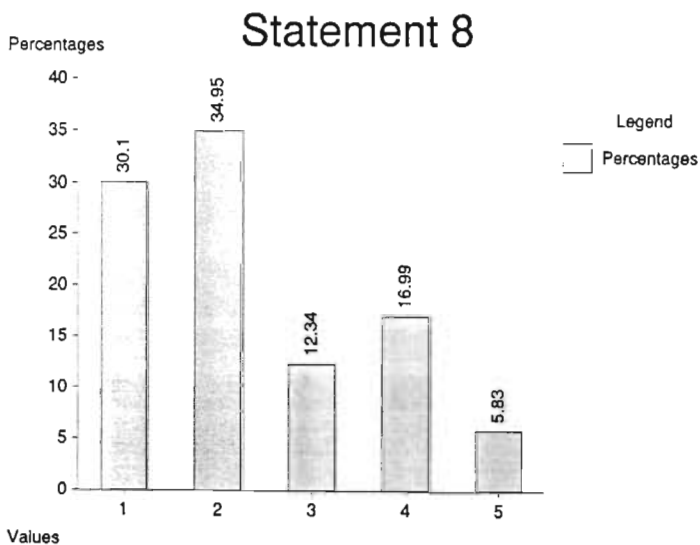


TABLE 22: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 9

Orientation training for new appointees should take place after a few weeks of service.

Statement 9			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	33	16.02	-0.41
2	85	41.26	
3	18	8.34	
4	46	22.33	
5	24	11.65	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 9: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

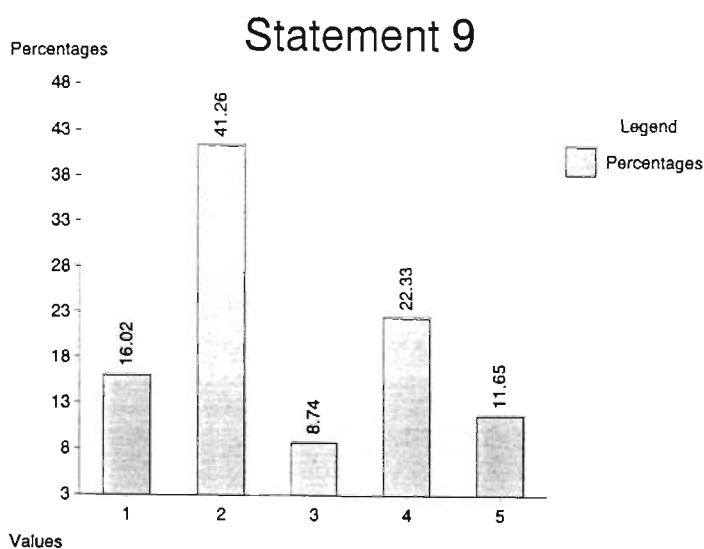


TABLE 23: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 10

Existing officials should undergo regular orientation training.

Statement 10			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	7	3.40	0.60
2	36	17.48	
3	32	15.53	
4	95	46.12	
5	36	17.48	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 10: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

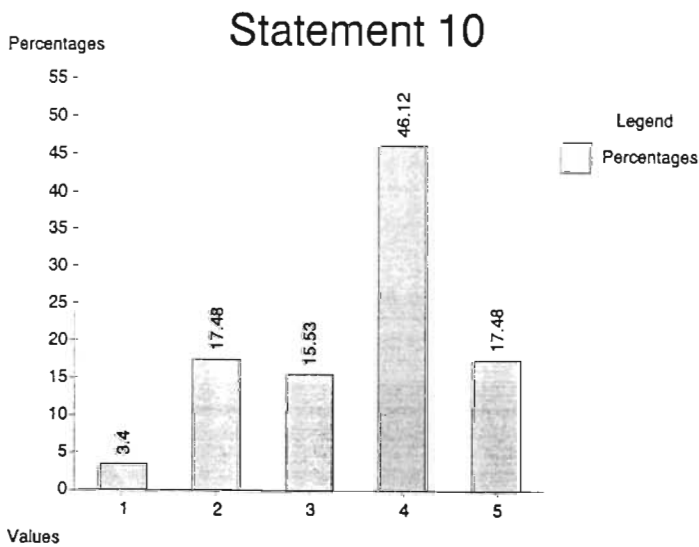


TABLE 24: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 11

Affirmative action with respect to disabled persons is necessary when filling government posts.

Statement 11			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	11	5.34	0.48
2	36	17.48	
3	41	19.90	
4	81	39.32	
5	37	17.96	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 11: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

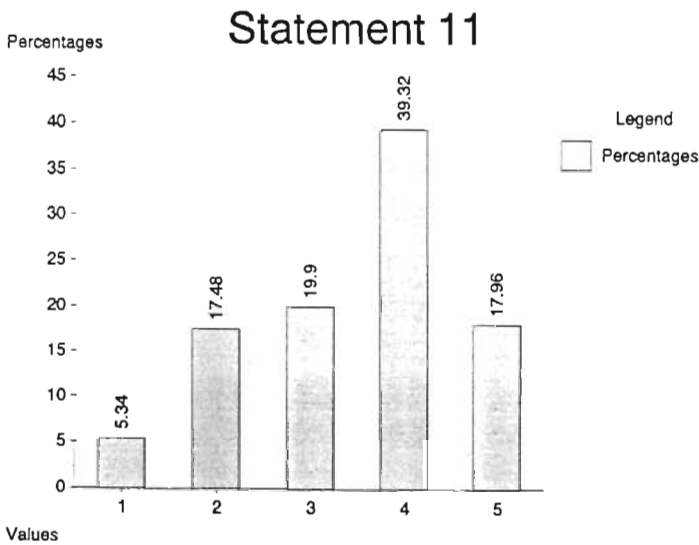


TABLE 25: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 12

A code of ethics for government officials should form part of orientation training programs.

Statement 12			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	1	0.49	1.12
2	0	0.00	
3	15	7.28	
4	86	41.75	
5	104	50.49	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 12: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

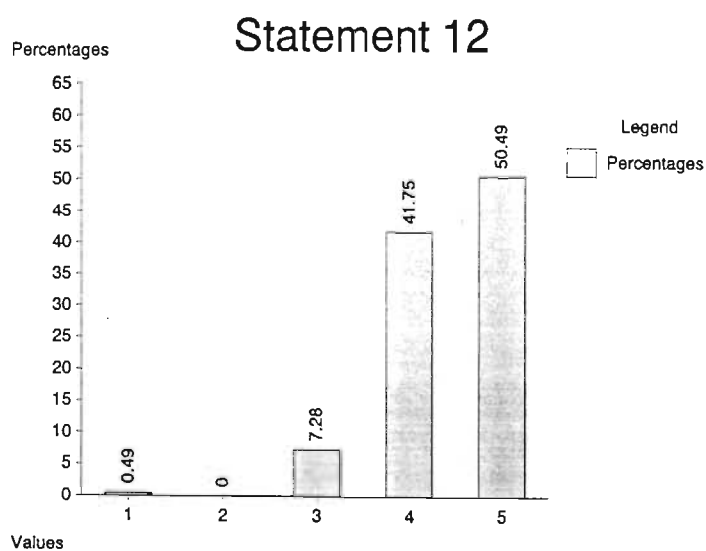




TABLE 26: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 13

Orientation programs can contribute to better morale and group spirit among employees.

Statement 13			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	0	0.00	0.36
2	2	0.97	
3	6	2.91	
4	111	53.88	
5	87	42.23	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 13: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

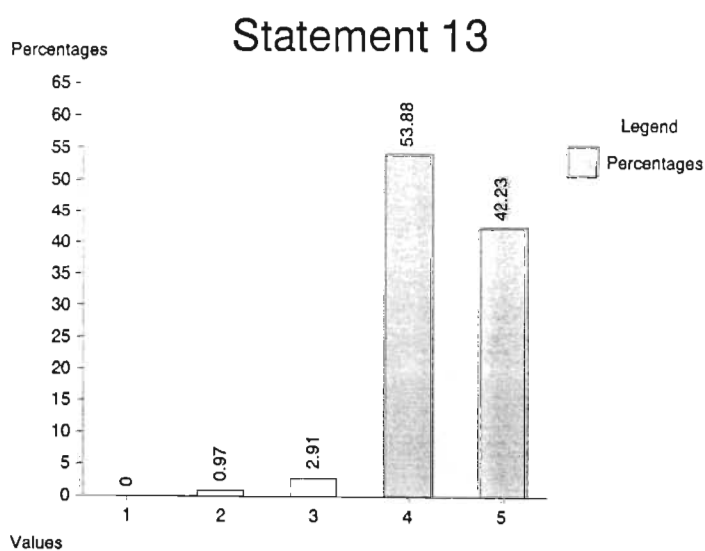


TABLE 27: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 14

Orientation programs should make provision for the fact that blacks are being economically exploited

Statement 14			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	35	16.99	-0.32
2	67	32.52	
3	42	20.39	
4	37	17.96	
5	25	12.14	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 14: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

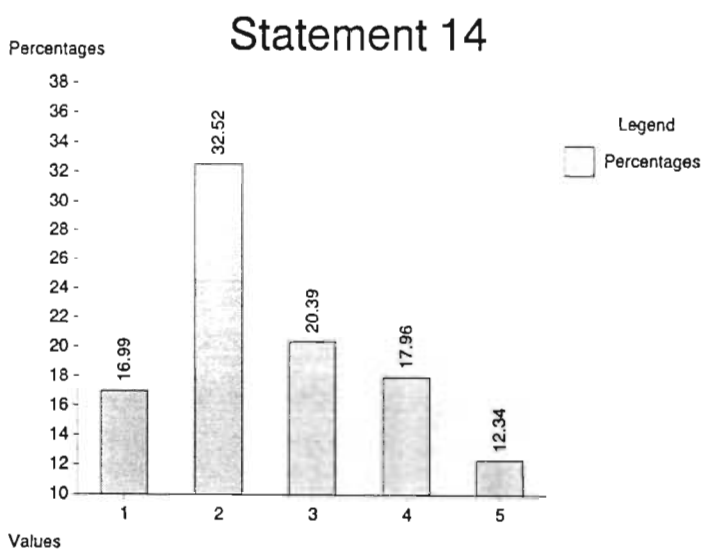


TABLE 28: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 15

The appointment of an experienced official to facilitate the integration of new officials into the institution (the "mentor system") is necessary for successful orientation.

Statement 15			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	0	0.00	0.74
2	8	3.88	
3	23	11.17	
4	130	63.11	
5	45	21.84	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 15: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

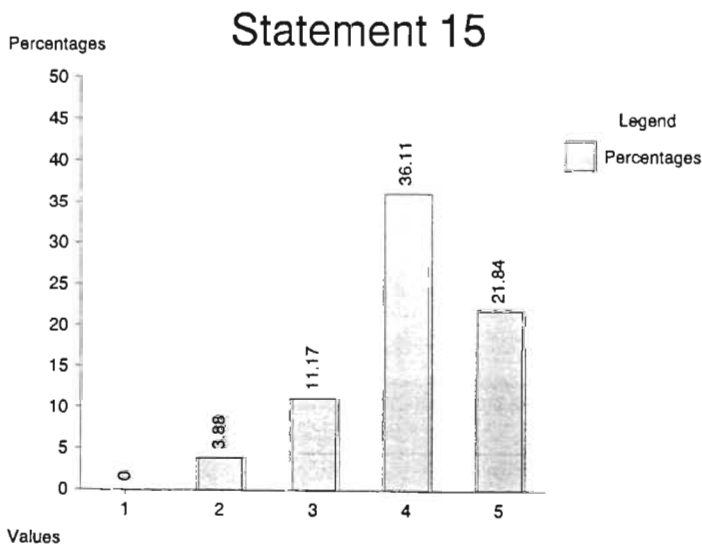


TABLE 29: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 16

Affirmative action with respect to gender is necessary when filling government posts.

Statement 16			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	19	9.22	0.57
2	39	18.93	
3	18	8.74	
4	81	39.32	
5	49	23.89	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 16: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

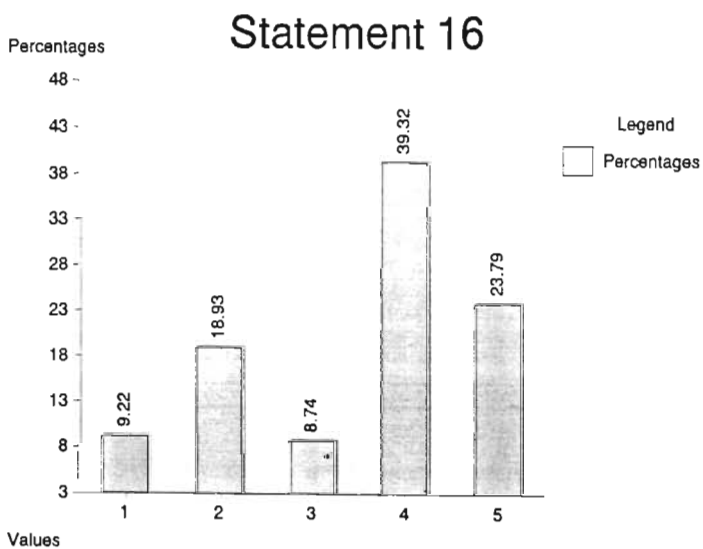


TABLE 30: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 17

Every government official should be fluent in the use of English.

Statement 17			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	5	2.43	0.99
2	29	14.08	
3	11	5.34	
4	108	52.43	
5	53	25.73	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 17: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

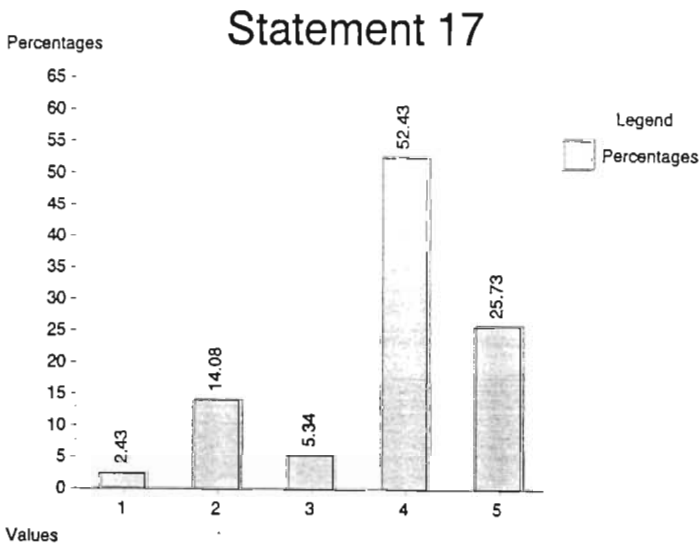


TABLE 31: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 18

Orientation programs should at least be conducted over periods of one week.

Statement 18			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	5	2.43	0.54
2	30	14.56	
3	46	22.33	
4	95	46.12	
5	30	14.56	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 18: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

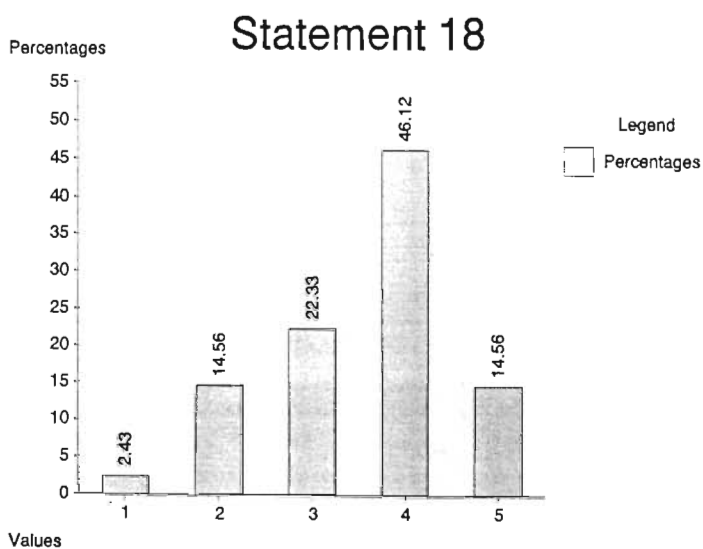


TABLE 32: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 19

Orientation training should take place away from the normal workplace.

Statement 19			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	20	9.71	0.13
2	60	29.13	
3	26	12.62	
4	70	33.98	
5	30	14.56	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 19: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

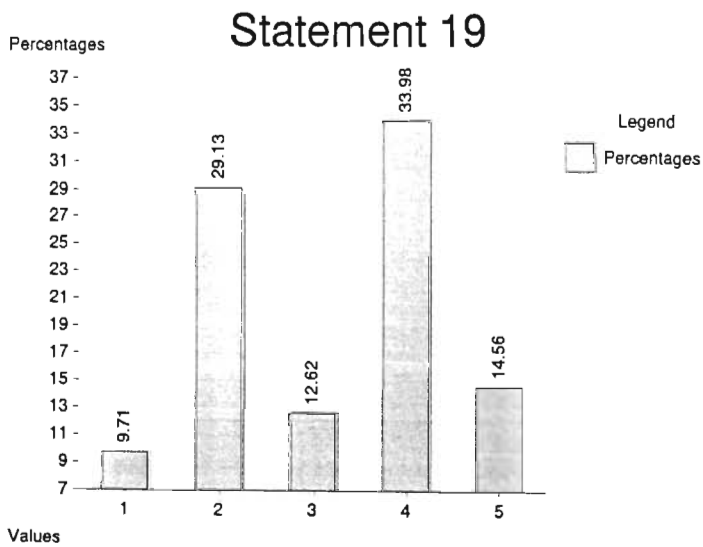


TABLE 33: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 20

Accepting a post in a subordinate position to a person of another population group should not cause relationship problems in the workplace.

Statement 20			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	0	0.00	1.04
2	10	4.85	
3	10	4.85	
4	121	58.74	
5	65	31.55	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 20: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

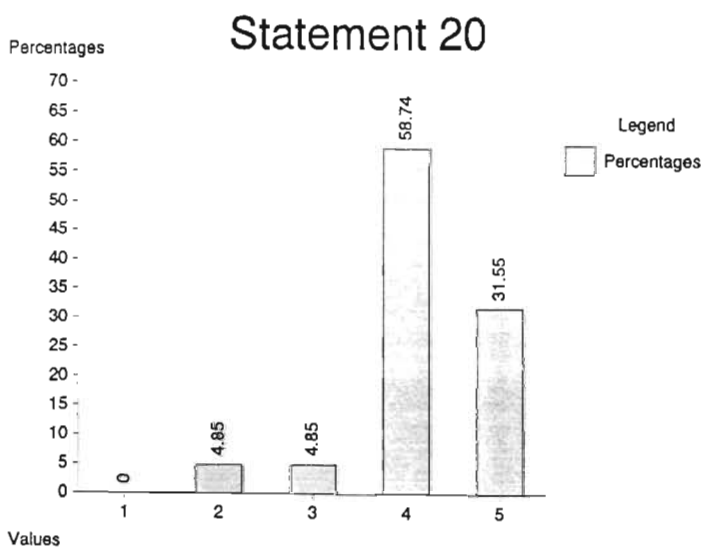




TABLE 34: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 21

The ergonomic environment (ease of work) of the new appointee on commencement of service is important to ensure a positive attitude from the beginning.

Statement 21			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	1	0.49	1.00
2	6	2.91	
3	17	8.25	
4	130	36.11	
5	52	25.24	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 21: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

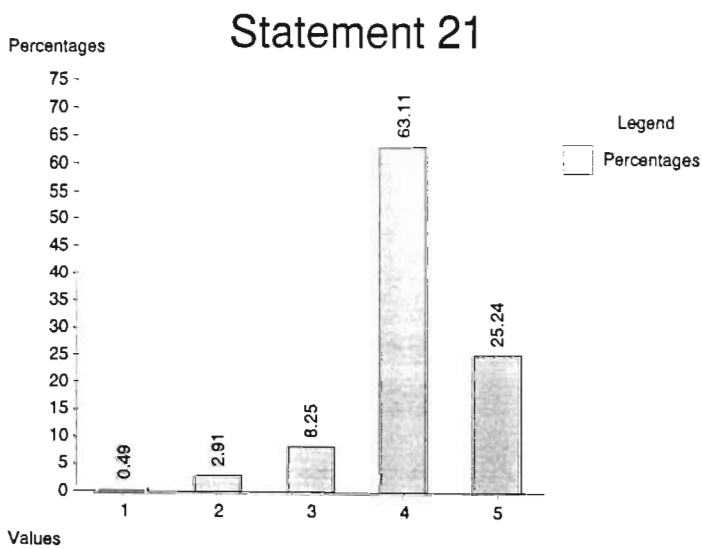


TABLE 35: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 22

Accepting a post in a subordinate position to a person of another gender should not cause relationship problems in the workplace.

Statement 22			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	0	0.00	0.76
2	4	1.94	
3	6	2.91	
4	125	60.68	
5	71	34.47	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 22: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

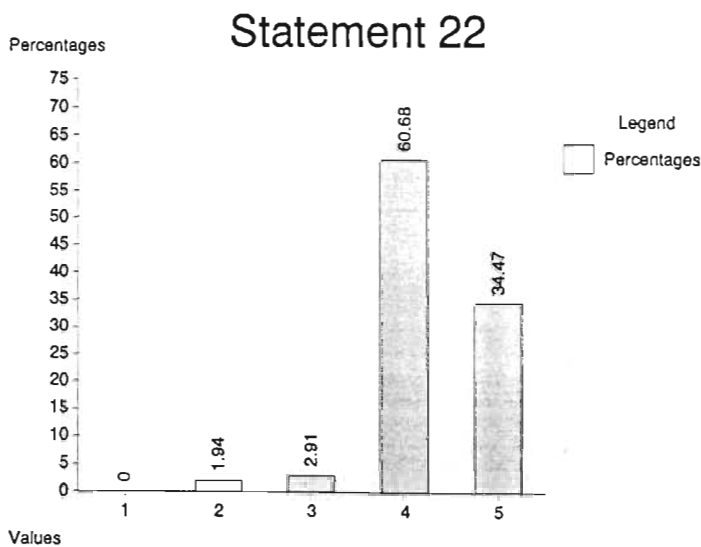


TABLE 36: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 23

Orientation programs should include information about continued education and training.

Statement 23			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	0	0.00	0.54
2	2	0.97	
3	5	2.43	
4	117	56.80	
5	82	39.81	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 23: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

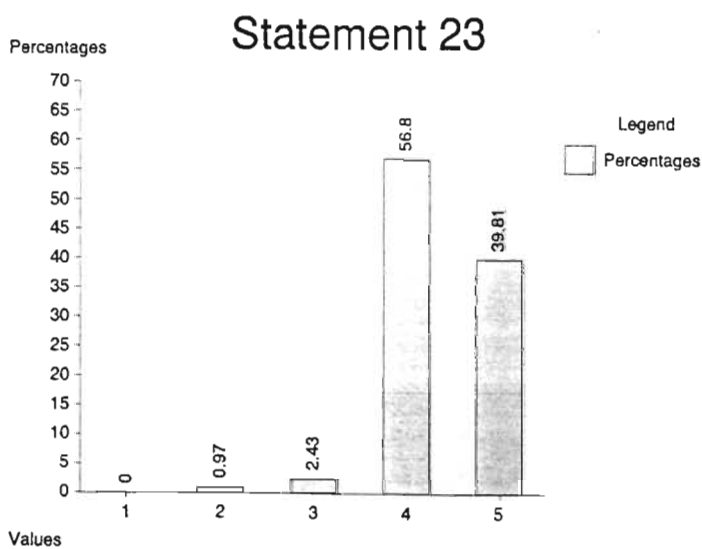


TABLE 37: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 24

The Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) will be as successful as was originally anticipated.

Statement 24			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	19	9.22	-0.02
2	42	20.39	
3	85	41.26	
4	40	19.42	
5	20	9.71	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 24: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

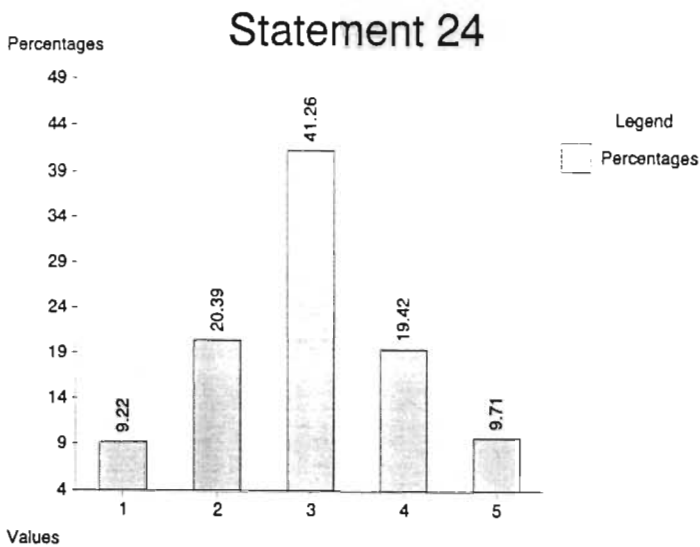


TABLE 38: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 25

Orientation training should include information about staff appraisal systems in the workplace.

Statement 25			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	0	0.00	0.82
2	3	1.46	
3	2	0.97	
4	111	53.88	
5	90	43.69	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 25: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

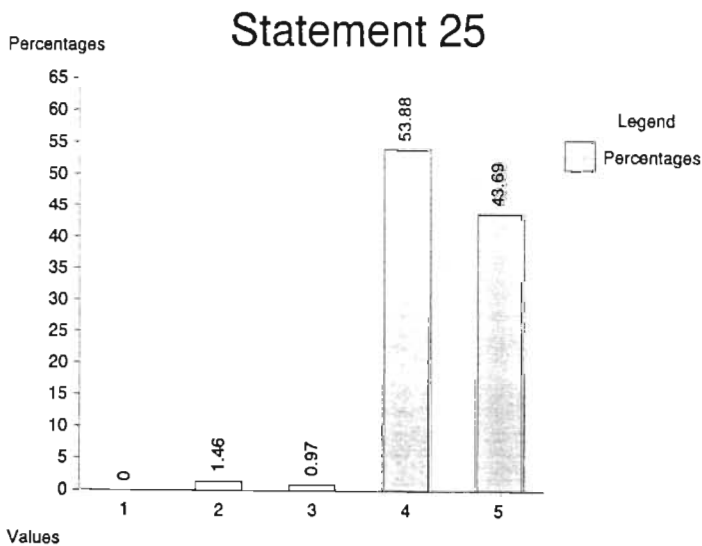


TABLE 39: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 26

Government officials without applicable qualifications and experience should be encouraged to take early retirement.

Statement 26			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	27	13.11	-0.04
2	60	29.13	
3	40	19.42	
4	57	27.67	
5	22	10.68	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 26: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

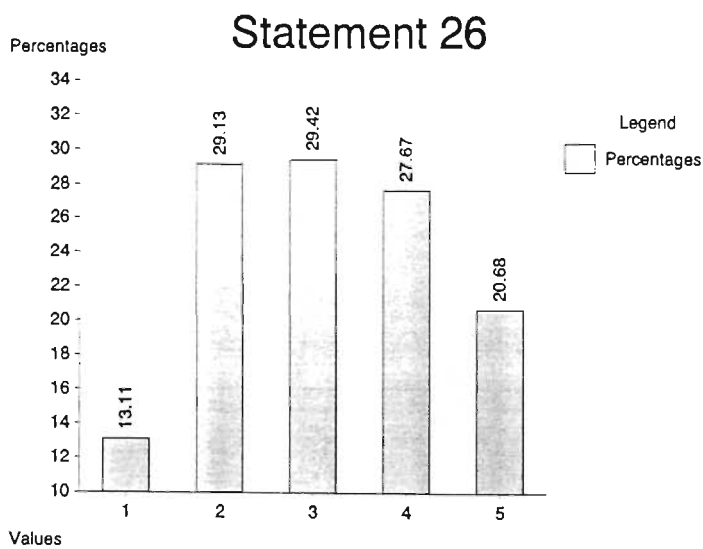


TABLE 40: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 27

Orientation training should include information about career planning and advancement in the workplace.

Statement 27			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	1	0.49	0.95
2	0	0.00	
3	5	2.43	
4	111	53.88	
5	89	43.20	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 27: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

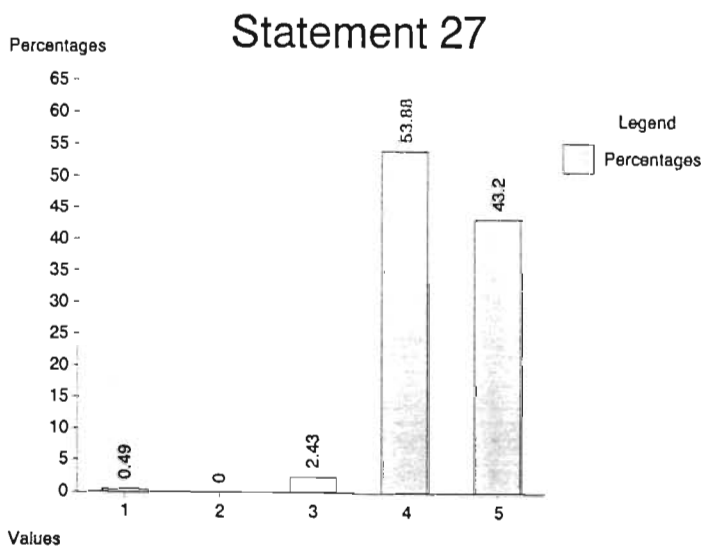


TABLE 41: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 28

Affirmative action with respect to previously disadvantaged population groups is necessary when filling government posts.

Statement 28			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	14	6.80	0.84
2	27	13.11	
3	23	11.67	
4	98	47.57	
5	44	21.36	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 28: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

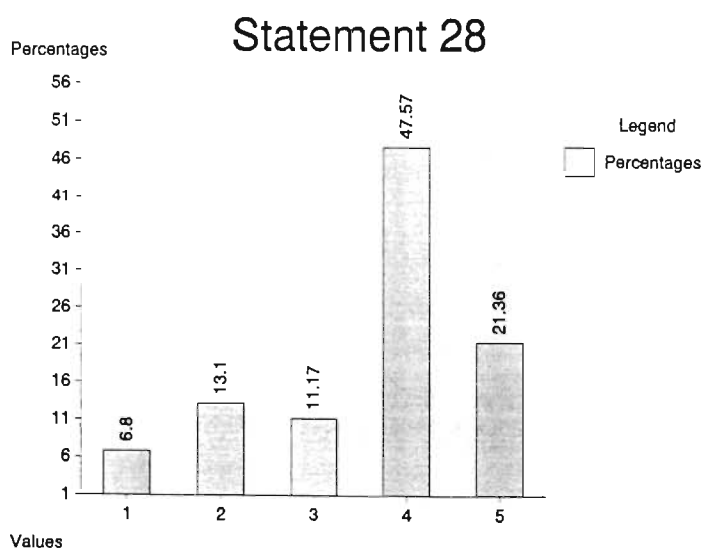




TABLE 42: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 29

Orientation programs help to instill feelings of security, pride and confidence in the new appointee.

Statement 29			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	1	0.49	1.04
2	3	1.56	
3	10	4.85	
4	122	59.22	
5	70	33.98	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 29: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

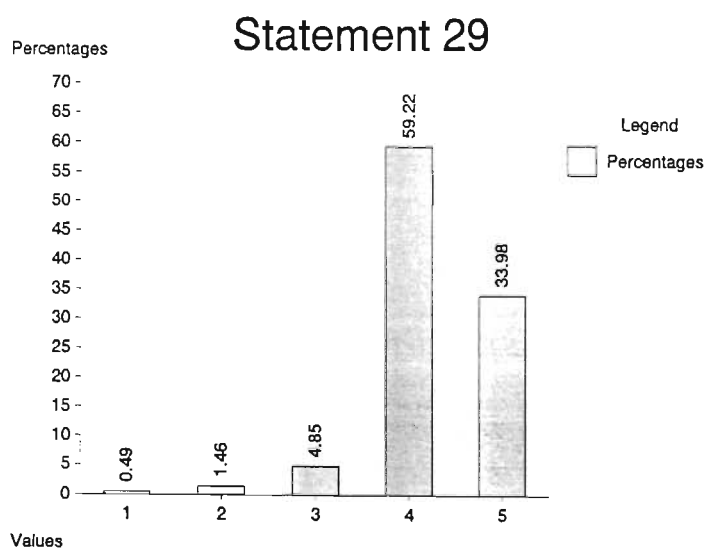


TABLE 43: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 30

Orientation training should form an integral part of general training programs in departments.

Statement 30			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	0	0.00	1.06
2	7	3.40	
3	7	3.40	
4	113	54.85	
5	79	38.35	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 30: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

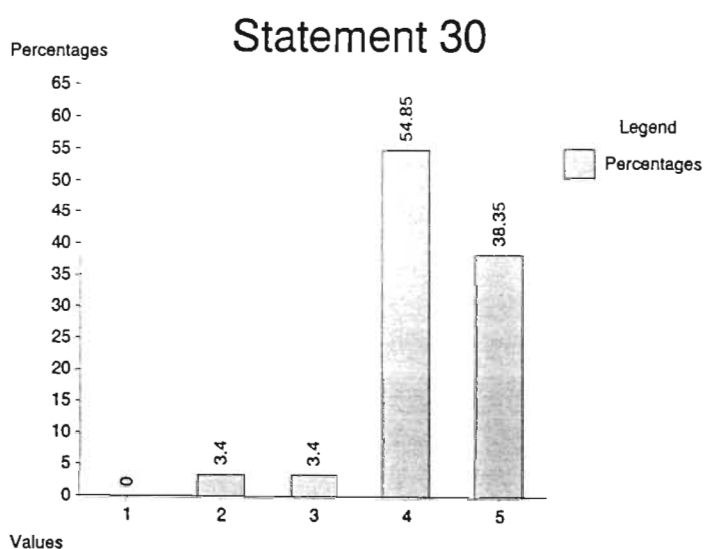


TABLE 44: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 31

Orientation training for senior government officials should include training for a positive attitude towards the RDP.

Statement 31			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	4	1.94	1.41
2	8	3.88	
3	14	6.80	
4	114	55.34	
5	66	32.04	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 31: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

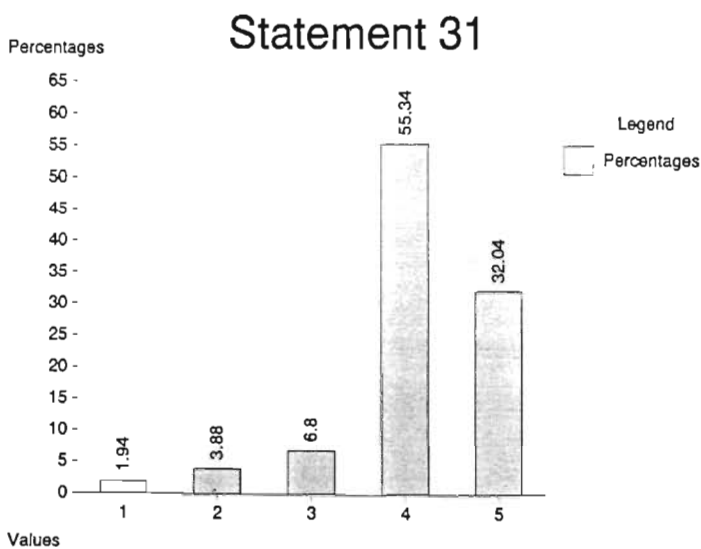


TABLE 45: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 32

Different types of misconduct and disciplinary procedures should form part of orientation programs.

Statement 32			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	0	0.00	0.46
2	2	0.97	
3	12	5.83	
4	123	59.71	
5	69	33.50	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 32: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

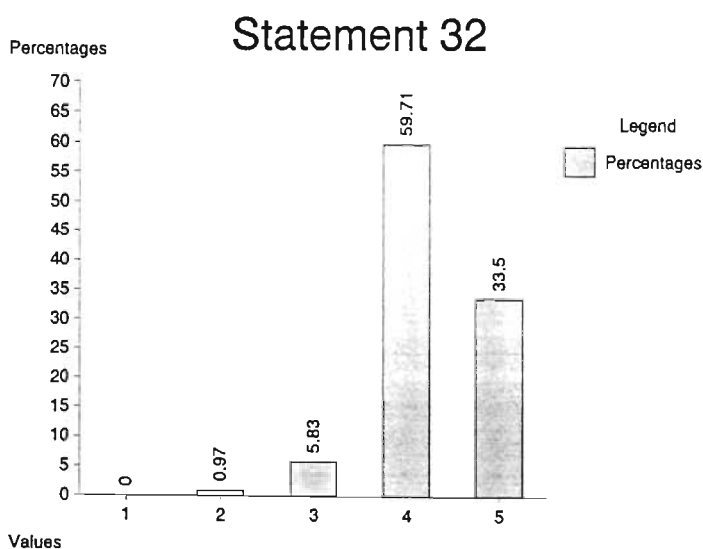


TABLE 46: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 33

The influence of Western philosophies contributed to a better quality of life for the indigenous peoples of South Africa.

Statement 33			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	15	7.28	0.37
2	32	15.53	
3	31	29.61	
4	71	34.47	
5	27	13.11	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 33: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

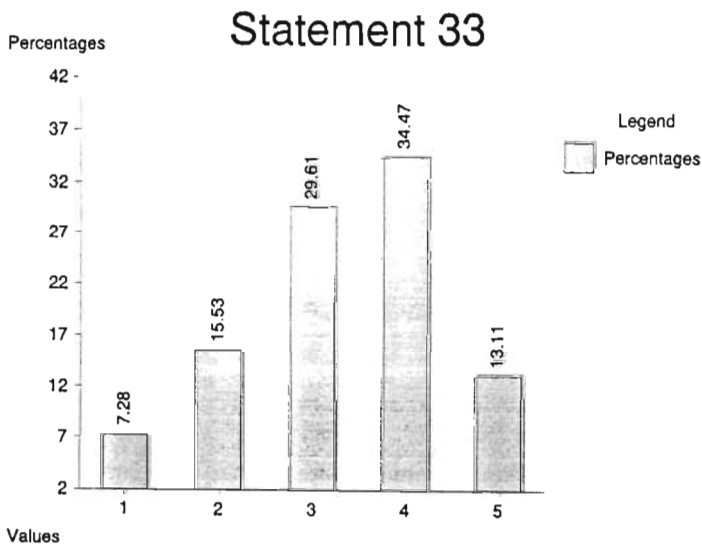


TABLE 47: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 34

There should be a standard in respect of socially unacceptable mannerisms (such as exaggerated convulsions and twitches) in the government service.

Statement 34			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	13	6.31	0.26
2	34	16.50	
3	76	36.89	
4	64	31.07	
5	19	9.22	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 34: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

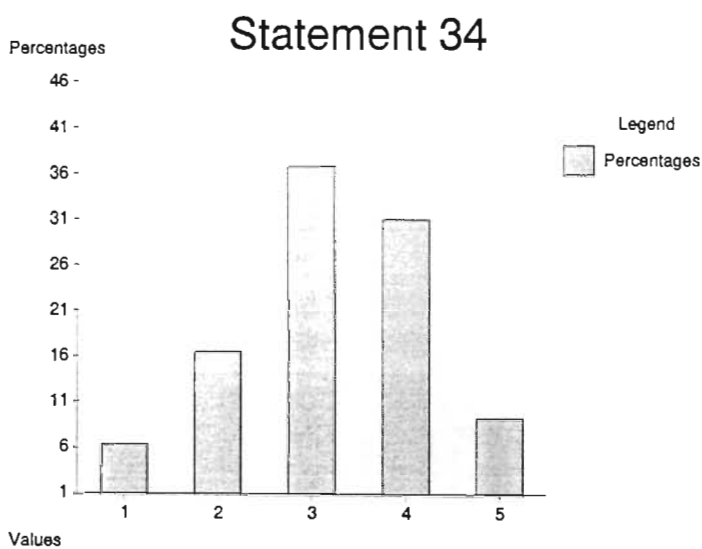


TABLE 48: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 35

Information about the established grievance procedure should form part of orientation programs.

Statement 35			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	4	1.94	1.60
2	4	1.94	
3	10	4.85	
4	121	58.74	
5	67	32.52	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 35: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

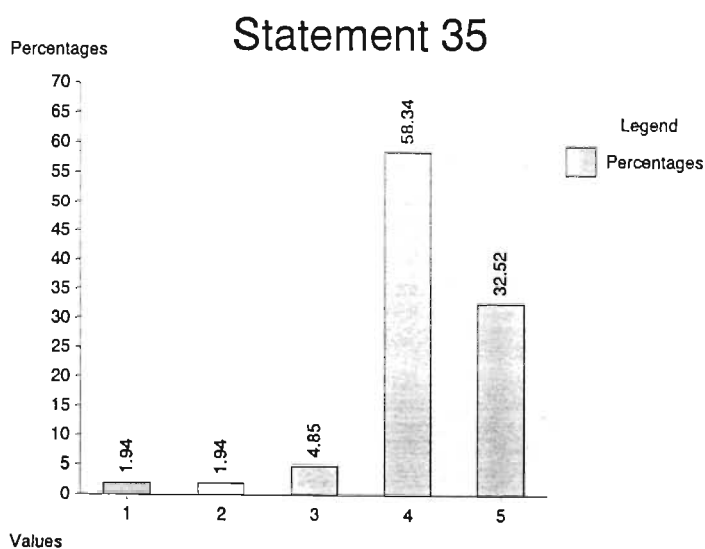


TABLE 49: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 36

Orientation programs should emphasise the mission and strategic position of the institution.

Statement 36			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	1	0.49	1.10
2	0	0.00	
3	4	1.94	
4	102	49.51	
5	99	48.06	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 36: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

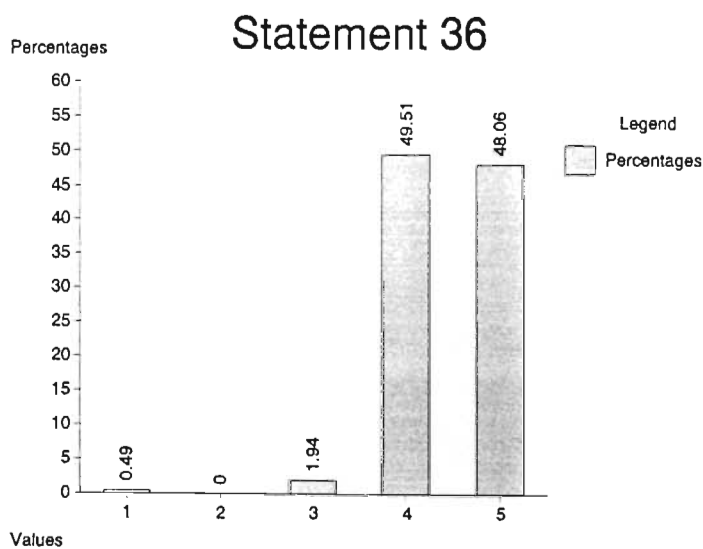




TABLE 50: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 37

There should be a standard of physical appearance in the government service in respect of a dress code.

Statement 37			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	9	4.37	0.99
2	24	11.65	
3	23	11.17	
4	113	54.85	
5	37	17.96	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 37: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

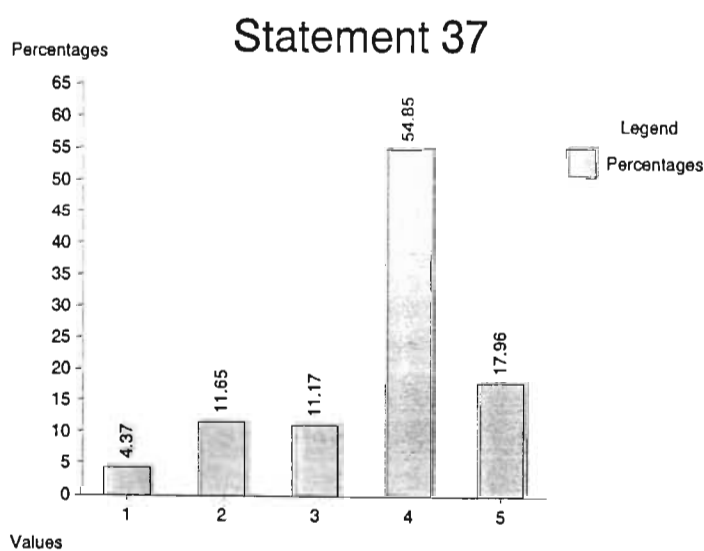


TABLE 51: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 38

Orientation programs should contain information about the role and place of the public official within the political, executive, administrative and functional environments.

Statement 38			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	1	0.49	1.33
2	6	2.91	
3	5	2.43	
4	114	55.34	
5	80	38.83	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 38: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

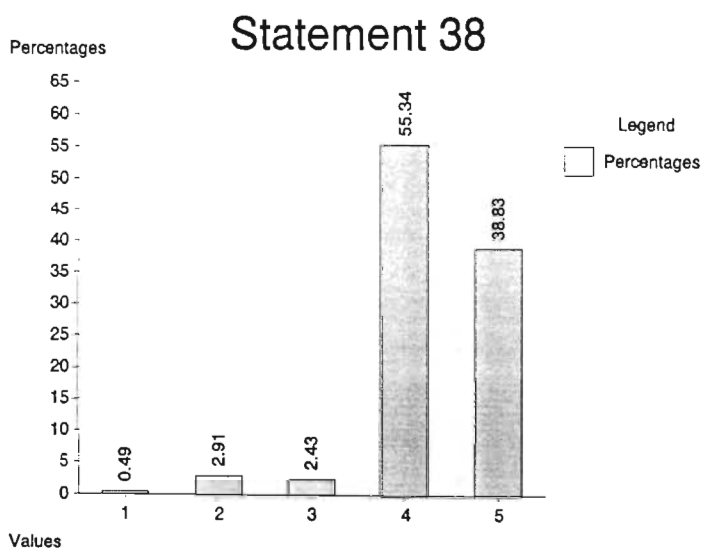


TABLE 52: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 39

Gender discrimination still exists in the government service.

Statement 39			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	14	6.80	0.20
2	55	26.70	
3	36	17.48	
4	74	35.92	
5	27	13.11	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 39: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

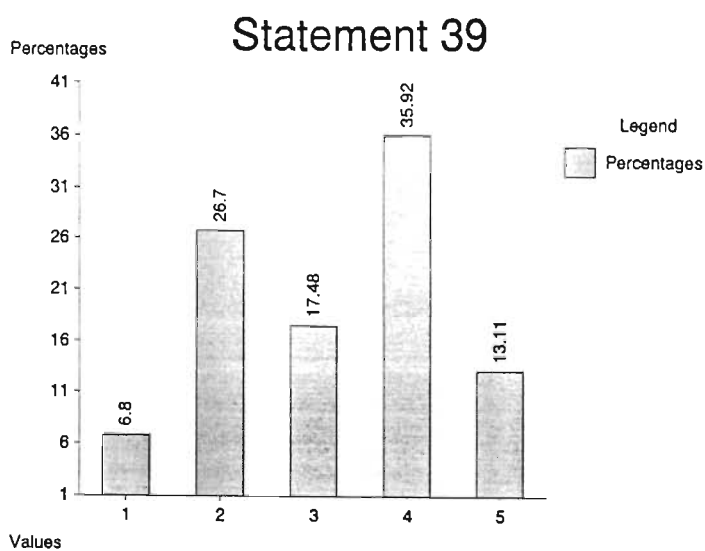


TABLE 53: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 40

Females are better suited to secretarial work than males.

Statement 40			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	25	12.14	0.11
2	57	27.67	
3	41	19.90	
4	69	33.50	
5	14	6.80	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 40: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

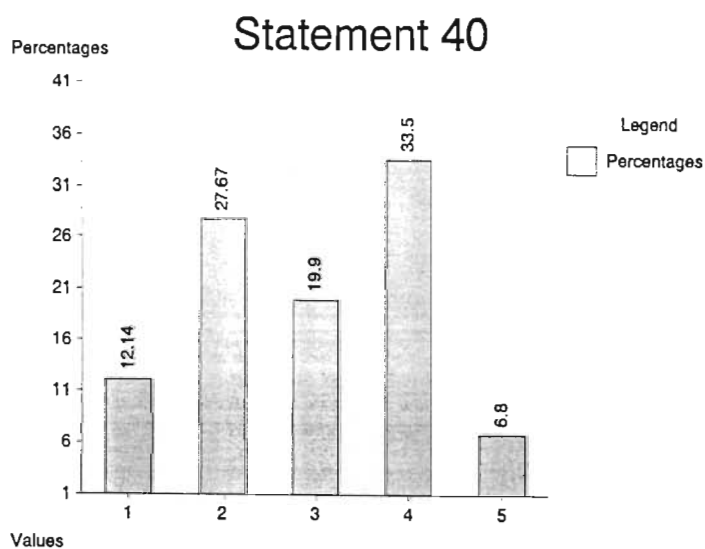


TABLE 54: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 41

Orientation training should include training in how to deal with the public.

Statement 41			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	3	1.46	1.63
2	3	1.46	
3	9	4.37	
4	102	49.51	
5	89	43.20	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 41: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

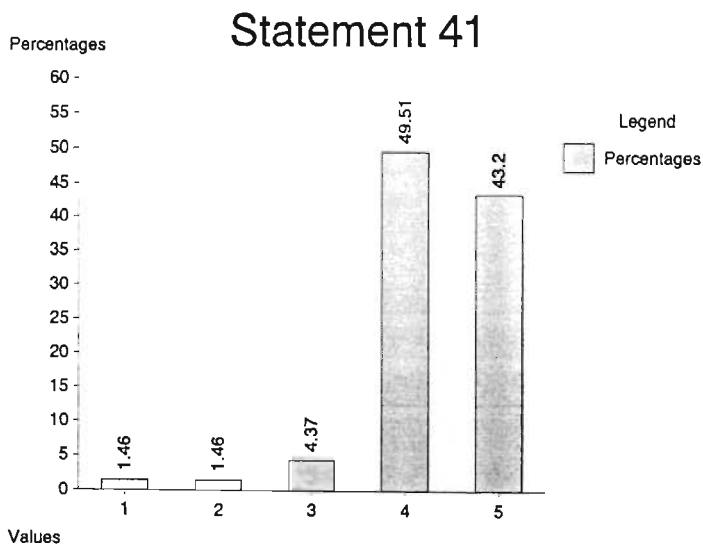


TABLE 55: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 42

Policy implementation by the government in accordance with African customs and traditions will bring about prosperity for the peoples of South Africa.

Statement 42			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	23	11.17	-0.05
2	47	22.82	
3	83	40.29	
4	38	18.45	
5	15	7.28	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 42: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

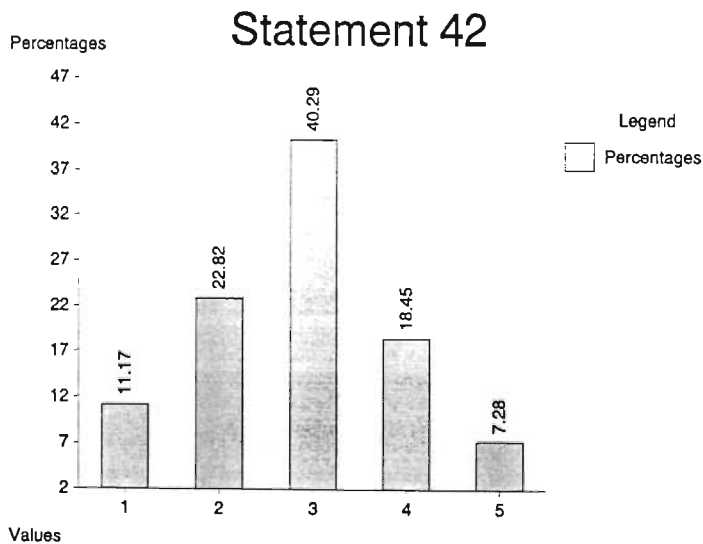


TABLE 56: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 43

Females that meet the necessary requirements should in all respects be treated on an equal basis as males when senior managers in the government service are selected.

Statement 43			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	1	0.49	1.35
2	0	0.00	
3	5	2.43	
4	87	42.23	
5	113	54.85	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 43: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

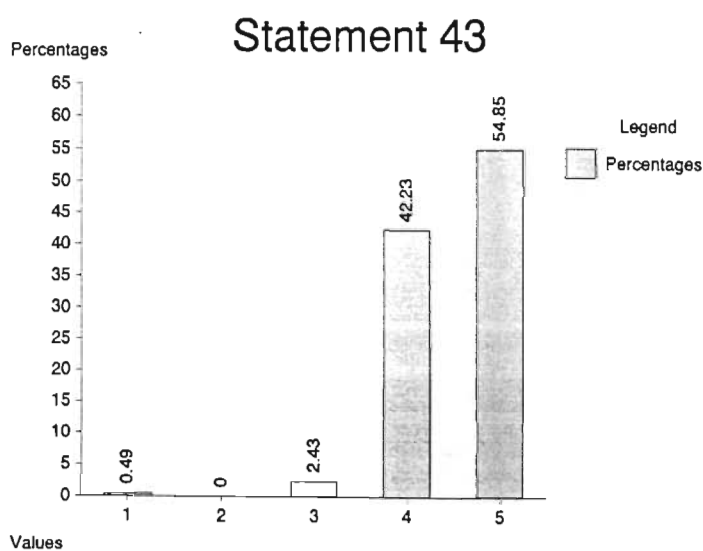


TABLE 57: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 44

Orientation programs should be presented to all officials during regular intervals throughout their careers.

Statement 44			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	4	1.94	1.18
2	11	5.34	
3	22	10.68	
4	110	53.40	
5	59	28.64	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 44: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

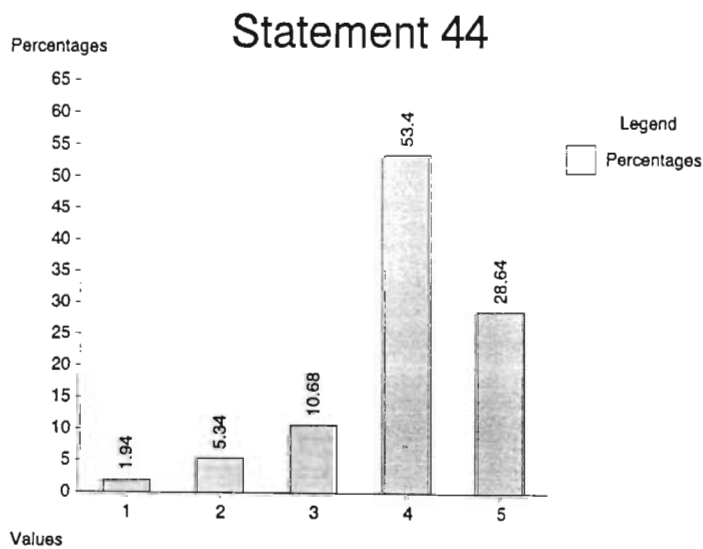




TABLE 58: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AND SKEWNESS

Statement 45

Disabled individuals that meet the requirements should in all respects be treated on an equal basis as other candidates when senior managers in the government service are selected.

Statement 45			
Values	Count	Percent	Skewness
1	0	0.00	0.97
2	5	2.43	
3	14	6.80	
4	97	47.09	
5	90	43.69	
Totals	206	100	

BAR GRAPH 45: FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION

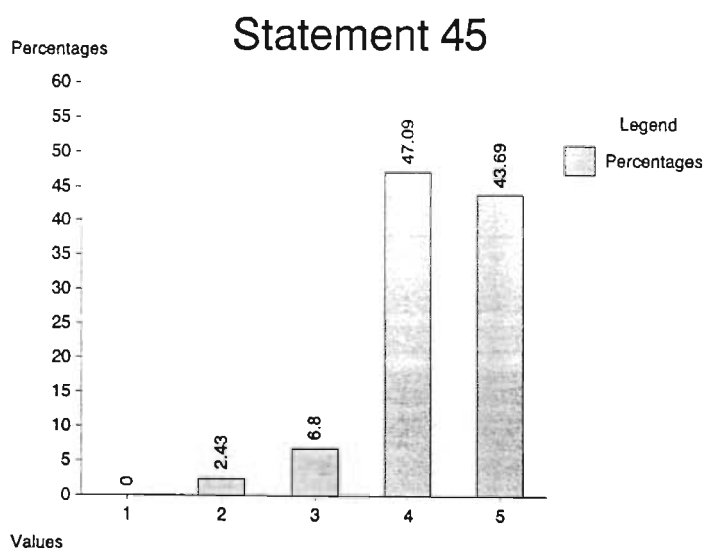
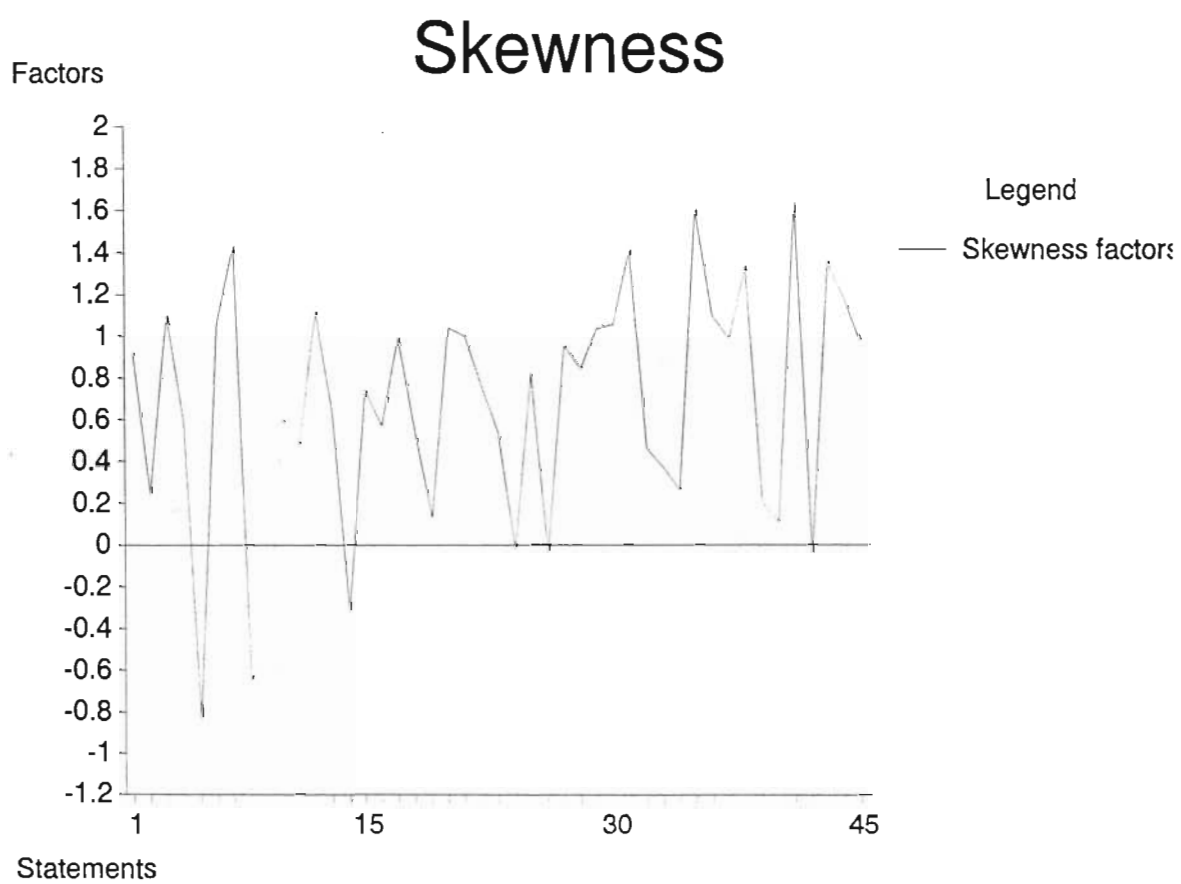


Table 59 - Overall skewness (see graph 1)

Statement	Skewness	Statement	Skewness
1	0.92	31	1.41
2	0.24	32	0.46
3	1.10	33	0.37
4	0.59	34	0.26
5	-0.84	35	1.60
6	1.06	36	1.10
7	1.43	37	0.99
8	-0.65	38	1.33
9	-0.41	39	0.20
10	0.60	40	0.11
11	0.48	41	1.63
12	1.12	42	-0.05
13	0.63	43	1.35
14	-0.32	44	1.18
15	0.74	45	0.97
16	0.57		
17	0.99		
18	0.54		
19	0.13		
20	1.04		
21	1.00		
22	0.76		
23	0.54		
24	-0.02		
25	0.82		
26	-0.04		
27	0.95		
28	0.84		
29	1.04		
30	1.06		

Graph 1 - Overall skewness



## \* Skewness

The frequency distribution tables were analysed in terms of their skewness projection, the results of which are indicated in the tables on the following pages. The skewness factor in a frequency distribution table indicates the overall propensity of the respondents to the statements of the questionnaire after all possible responses, and its frequencies, have been calculated by the frequency distribution method. A skewness of 0 indicates an overall average neutral response.

## ■ Analysis by explanatory variables

It was decided, in consultation with the statistician, to earmark five key statements for the explanatory variables analysis, statements 13, 24, 33, 43 and 45.

In this analysis, the responses of the respondents in respect of the indicated statements of the questionnaire, are analysed in terms of variable explanatory variables, in this instance

the independent variables. The variables chosen for this type of analysis are **gender**, **post**, and **language**. On the recommendation of the statistician, and for the purposes of this analysis, it was decided to reduce the language groups to three, namely **Afrikaans** (language group 1), **English** (language group 2), and **indigenous languages** including **other** (group 3).

Included in the tables that follow is the Pearson chi-square test. According to Landman (1988:54), the chi-square test determines the probability that observed and expected preferences, as indicated by the respondents, may differ. Any result above 0.05 assumes no significant differences between the various groups' responses, and therefore general agreement between these groups in their responses to a particular statement.

The chi-square test was done on statements 13, 24, 33, 43 and 45. See the P-(Pearson chi-square) values incorporated in tables 60 to 74.

■ Statement 13

Orientation programs can contribute to better morale and group spirit among employees.

Table 60 - Statement 13, gender; Bar graph 47

GENDER			
S13	%	%	P
Values	M	F	
1	0	0	
2	1	0	
3	2	8	
4	54	54	
5	43	38	
Totals	100	100	0.37

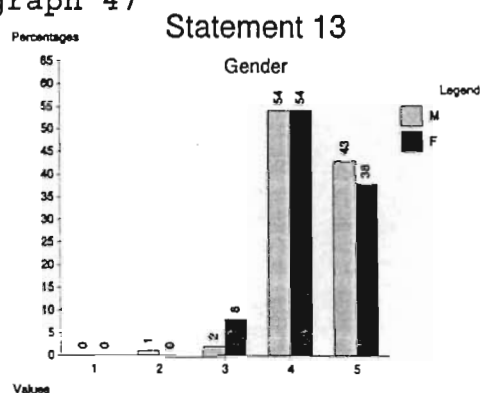


Table 61 - Statement 13, posts; Bar graph 48

POSTS			
S13	%	%	P
Values	CD	D	
1	0	0	
2	2	1	
3	2	3	
4	62	52	
5	33	45	
Totals	100	100	0.42

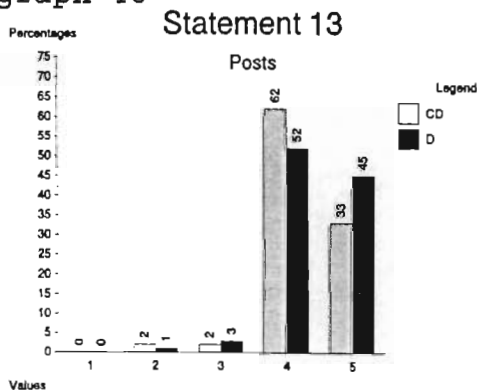
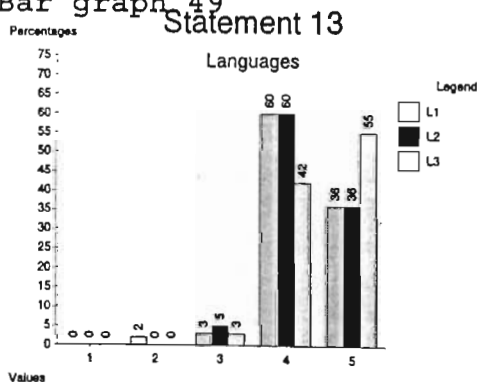


Table 62 - Statement 13, languages; Bar graph 49

LANGUAGES				
S13	%	%	%	P
Values	L1	L2	L3	
1	0	0	0	
2	2	0	0	
3	3	5	3	
4	60	60	42	
5	36	36	55	
Totals	100	100	100	0.26



■ Statement 24

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) will be as successful as was originally anticipated.

Table 63 - Statement 24, gender; bar graph 50

GENDER			
S24	%	%	P
Values	M	F	
1	10	0	
2	19	29	
3	42	38	
4	19	21	
5	9	13	
Totals	100	100	0.42

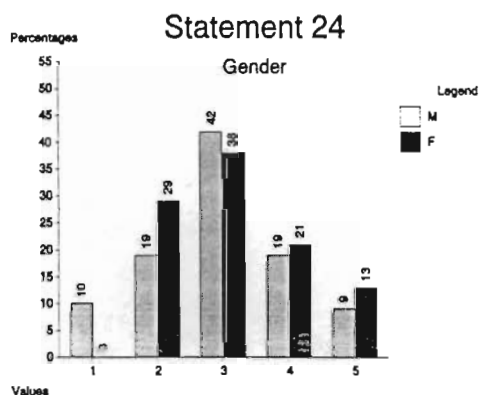


Table 64 - Statement 24, posts; bar graph 51

POSTS			
S24	%	%	P
Values	CD	D	
1	4	11	
2	18	21	
3	33	43	
4	29	17	
5	16	8	
Totals	100	100	0.13

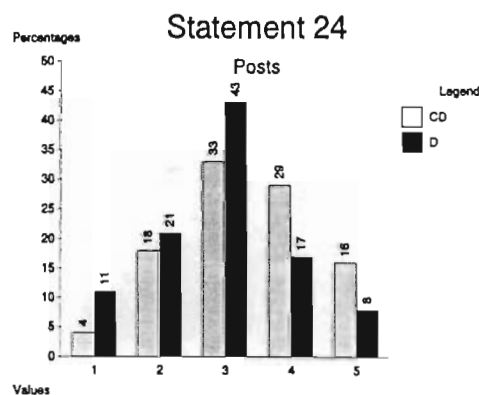
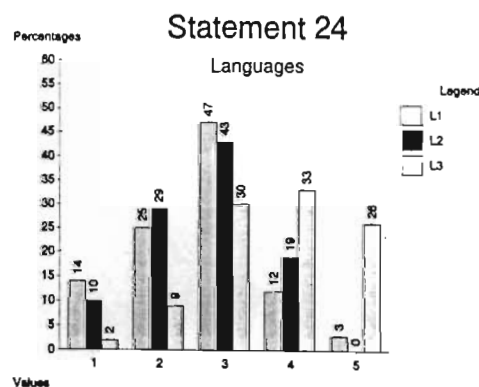


Table 65 - Statement 24, languages; bar graph 52

LANGUAGES				
S24	%	%	%	P
Values	L1	L2	L3	
1	14	10	2	
2	25	29	9	
3	47	43	30	
4	12	19	33	
5	3	0	26	
Totals	100	100	100	00.00



■ Statement 33

The influence of Western philosophies contributed to better quality of life for the indigenous peoples of South Africa.

Table 66 - Statement 33, gender; bar graph 53

GENDER			
S33	%	%	P
Values	M	F	
1	7	8	
2	15	21	
3	29	38	
4	36	25	
5	14	8	
Totals	100	100	0.68

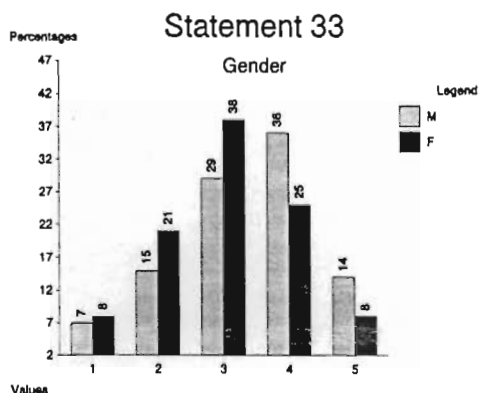


Table 67 - Statement 33, posts; bar graph 54

POSTS			
S33	%	%	P
Values	CD	D	
1	16	5	
2	11	17	
3	24	31	
4	38	34	
5	11	14	
Totals	100	100	0.14

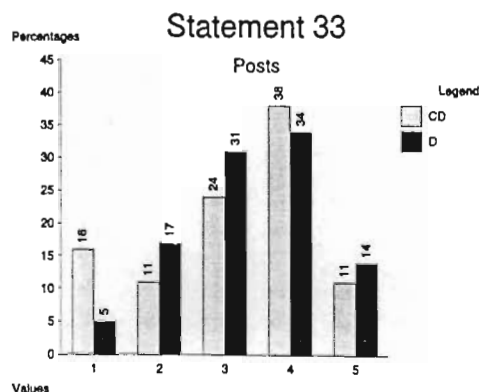
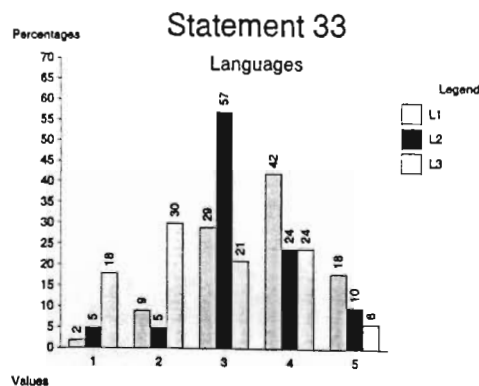


Table 68 - Statement 33, languages; bar graph 55

LANGUAGES				
S33	%	%	%	P
Values	L1	L2	L3	
1	2	5	18	
2	9	5	30	
3	29	57	21	
4	42	24	24	
5	18	10	6	
Totals	100	100	100	00.00





■ Statement 43

Females that meet the necessary requirements should in all respects be treated on an equal basis as males when senior managers in the government service are selected.

Table 69 - Statement 43, gender; bar graph 56

GENDER			
S43	%	%	P
Values	M	F	
1	1	0	
2	0	0	
3	3	0	
4	43	33	
5	53	67	
Totals	100	100	0.57

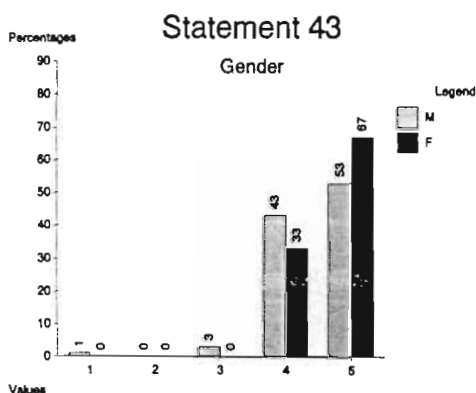


Table 70 - Statement 43, posts; bar graph 57

POSTS			
S43	%	%	P
Values	CD	D	
1	0	1	
2	0	0	
3	9	1	
4	42	43	
5	49	55	
Totals	100	100	0.014

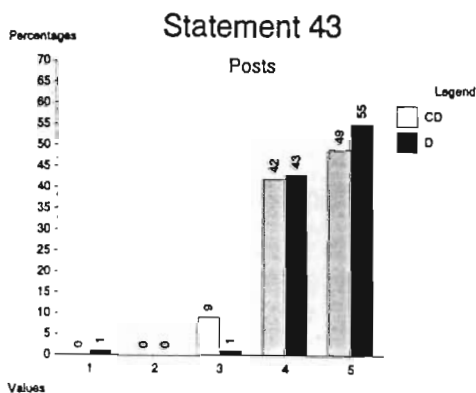
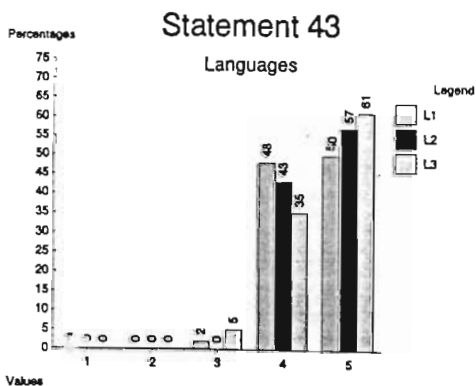


Table 71 - Statement 43, languages; bar graph 58

LANGUAGES				
S43	%	%	%	P
Values	L1	L2	L3	
1	1	0	0	
2	0	0	0	
3	2	0	5	
4	48	43	35	
5	50	57	61	
Totals	100	100	100	0.46



■ Statement 45

Disabled individuals that meet the requirements should in all respects be treated on an equal basis as other candidates when senior managers in the government service are selected.

Table 72 - Statement 45, gender; bar graph 59

GENDER			
S45	%	%	P
Values	M	F	
1	0	0	
2	2	4	
3	7	8	
4	48	42	
5	43	46	
Totals	100	100	0.89

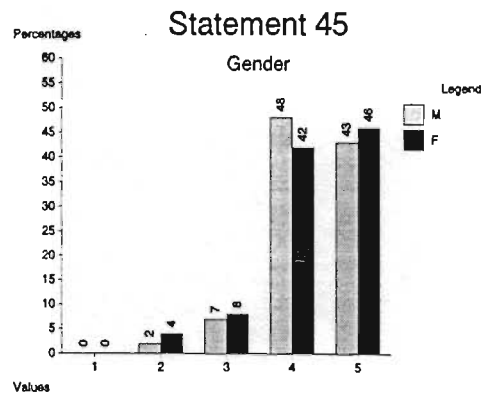


Table 73 - Statement 45, posts; bar graph 60

POSTS			
S45	%	%	P
Values	CD	D	
1	0	0	
2	2	2	
3	13	5	
4	53	45	
5	31	47	
Totals	100	100	0.10

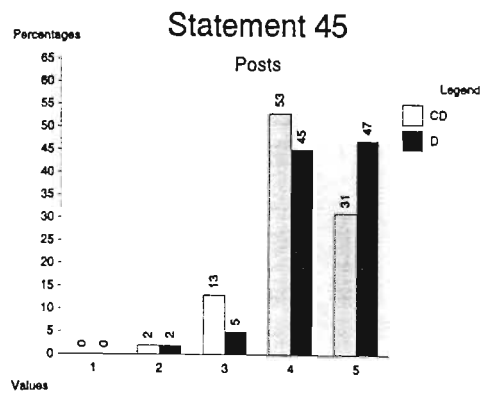
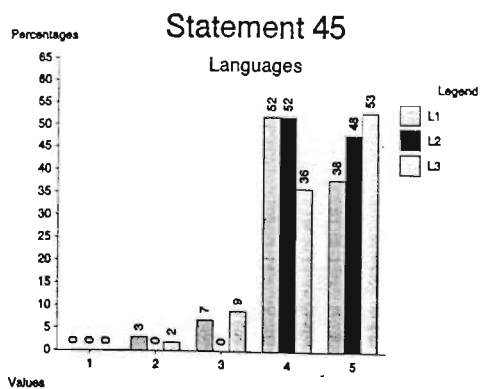


Table 74 - Statement 45, language; bar graph 61

LANGUAGES				
S45	%	%	%	P
Values	L1	L2	L3	
1	0	0	0	
2	3	0	2	
3	7	0	9	
4	52	52	36	
5	38	48	53	
Totals	100	100	100	0.25



The findings of the statistical analysis of each statement of the questionnaire will be explained below.

#### Statement 1

There should be different orientation programs for new and existing officials.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.92. This result indicates that while 1.46% of the respondents were undecided, 73.78% of the respondents supported the statement, and 24.76% stood negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 2

Orientation programs should be co-ordinated from the central personnel authority (the Public Service Commission).

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.24. This result indicates that while 9.71% of the respondents were undecided, 52.4% of the respondents supported the statement, and 37.85% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 3**

Orientation programs should contain information about the history of the institution.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.10. This result indicates that while 11.65% of the respondents were undecided, 76.21% of the respondents supported the statement, and 13.11% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 4**

Orientation programs should be managed autonomously by each department.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.59. This result indicates that while 11.65% of the respondents were undecided, 62.61% of the respondents supported the statement, and 25.73% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 5**

Different orientation programs should be presented to different population groups.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of

-0.84. This result indicates that while 8.74% of the respondents were undecided, 21.84% of the respondents supported the statement, and 69.41% responded negatively to the issue. This particular statement yielded the most extreme negative response of the survey, indicating that the respondents were predominantly opposed to the statement.

#### Statement 6

Senior officials in each department should take part in presenting orientation programs.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.06. This result indicates that while 10.68% of the respondents were undecided, 75.73% of the respondents supported the statement, and 13.59% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 7

Orientation training should take place immediately after commencement of service.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.43. This result indicates that while 3.4% of the respondents were undecided, 85.92% of the respondents supported the statement, and 10.68% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 8**

Demonstrating is a justified response for government officials to air their grievances.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of -0.65. This result indicates that while 12.14% percent of the respondents were undecided, 22.82% of the respondents supported the statement, and 65.06% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 9**

Orientation training for new appointees should take place after a few weeks of service.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of -0.41. This result indicates that while 8.74% of the respondents were undecided, 34.00% of the respondents supported the statement, and 57.29% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 10**

Existing officials should undergo regular orientation training.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of

0.60. This result indicates that while 15.53% of the respondents were undecided, 63.6% of the respondents supported the statement, and 20.89% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 11

**Affirmative action with respect to disabled persons is necessary when filling government posts.**

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.48. This result indicates that while 19.90% of the respondents were undecided, 57.28% of the respondents supported the statement, and 22.82% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 12

**A code of ethics for government officials should form part of orientation training programs.**

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.12. This result indicates that while 7.28% of the respondents were undecided, 92.23% of the respondents supported the statement, while 0.485% responded negatively to the issue. The last-mentioned percentage reflects the response of one respondent of the 206 respondents that responded to the questionnaire.

**Statement 13**

Orientation programs can contribute to better morale and group spirit among employees.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.63. This result indicates that while 2.91% of the respondents were undecided, 96.11% of the respondents supported the statement, while, 0.971% (two respondents), responded negatively to the issue.

Another test subjected the responses to statement 13 of the questionnaire to analysis by explanatory variables, which included dimensional cross-tabulation. Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by males and females (gender), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.37. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between males and females in their responses to statement 13.

Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by chief directors and directors (post), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.42. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between chief directors and directors in their responses to statement 13.



Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by three language groups L1, L2 and L3 (language) (see page 339), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.26. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between the language groups in their responses to statement 13.

#### Statement 14

Orientation programs should make provision for the fact that blacks are being economically exploited in this country.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of -0.32. This result indicates that while 20.39% of the respondents were undecided, 30.1% of the respondents supported the statement, and 49.51% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 15

The appointment of an experienced official to facilitate the integration of new officials into the institution (the "mentor system") is necessary for successful orientation.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.74. This result indicates that while 11.17% of the respondents were undecided, 84.95% of the respondents supported the statement, and 3.88% responded negatively to the

issue.

#### Statement 16

Affirmative action with respect to gender is necessary when filling government posts.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.57. This result indicates that while 8.74% of the respondents were undecided, 63.1% of the respondents supported the statement, and 28.15% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 17

Every government official should be fluent in the use of English.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.99. This result indicates that while 5.34% of the respondents were undecided, 78.16% of the respondents supported the statement, and 16.51% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 18**

Orientation programs should at least be conducted over periods of one week.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.54. This result indicates that while 22.33% of the respondents were undecided, 60.68% of the respondents supported the statement, and 16.99% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 19**

Orientation training should take place away from the normal workplace.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.13. This result indicates that while 12.62% of the respondents were undecided, 48.54% of the respondents supported the statement, and 38.84% responded negatively to the issue.

## Statement 20

Accepting a post in a subordinate position to a person of another population group should not cause relationship problems in the workplace.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.04. This result indicates that while 4.86% of the respondents were undecided, 90.29% of the respondents supported the statement, and 4.85% responded negatively to the issue.

## Statement 21

The ergonomic environment (ease of work) of the new appointee on commencement of service is important to ensure a positive attitude from the beginning.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.00. This result indicates that while 8.25% of the respondents were undecided, 88.35% of the respondents supported the statement, and 3.4% responded negatively to the issue.

## Statement 22

Accepting a post in a subordinate position to a person of another gender should not cause relationship problems in the workplace.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.76. This result indicates that while 2.43% of the respondents were undecided, 96.61% of the respondents supported the statement, and 1.94% responded negatively to the issue.

## Statement 23

Orientation programs should include information about continued education and training.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.54. This result indicates that while 2.43% of the respondents were undecided, 96.61% of the respondents supported the statement, while 0.971% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 24**

The Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) will be as successful as was originally anticipated.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of -0.02. This result indicates that, while a markedly large number of respondents (41.26%) were undecided, (the largest number of undecided responses of the survey) 29.13% of the respondents supported the statement, while 29.61% responded negatively to the issue.

Another test subjected the responses to statement 24 of the questionnaire to analysis by explanatory variables, which included dimensional cross-tabulation. Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by males and females (gender), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.42. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between males and females in their responses to statement 24.

Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by chief directors and directors (post), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.13. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between chief directors and directors in their responses to statement

24.

Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by three language groups L1, L2 and L3 (language) (see page 339), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 00.00. This result indicates significant differences in preferences between the language groups in their responses to statement 24.

#### Statement 25

Orientation training should include information about staff appraisal systems in the workplace.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.82. This result indicates that while 0.971% of the respondents were undecided, 97.57% of the respondents supported the statement, while 1.46% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 26

Government officials without applicable qualifications and experience should be encouraged to take early retirement.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of -0.04. This result indicates that while 19.42% of the

respondents were undecided, 38.35% of the respondents supported the statement, while 42.24% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 27

Orientation training should include information about career planning and advancement in the workplace.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.95. This result indicates that while 2.43% of the respondents were undecided, 97.08% of the respondents supported the statement, while 0.485% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 28

Affirmative action with respect to previously disadvantaged population groups is necessary when filling government posts.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.84. This result indicates that while 11.17% of the respondents were undecided, 68.93% of the respondents supported the statement, while 19.91% responded negatively to the issue.



## Statement 29

Orientation programs help to instill feelings of security, pride and confidence in the new appointee.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.04. This result indicates that while 4.85% of the respondents were undecided, 93.2% of the respondents supported the statement, while 1.945% responded negatively to the issue.

## Statement 30

Orientation training should form an integral part of general training programs in departments.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.06. This result indicates that while 3.4% of the respondents were undecided, 93.2% of the respondents supported the statement, while 3.4% responded negatively to the issue.

## Statement 31

Orientation training for senior government officials should include training for a positive attitude towards the RDP.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.41. This result indicates that while 6.8% of the respondents were undecided, 87.38% of the respondents

supported the statement, while 5.82% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 32

Different types of misconduct and disciplinary procedures should form part of orientation programs.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.46. This result indicates that while 5.83% of the respondents were undecided, 93.21% of the respondents supported the statement, while 0.971% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 33

The influence of Western philosophies contributed to a better quality of life for the indigenous peoples of South Africa.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.37. This result indicates that while 29.61% of the respondents were undecided, 47.58% of the respondents supported the statement, while 22.81% responded negative to the issue.

Another test subjected the responses to statement 33 of the questionnaire to analysis by explanatory variables, which included dimensional cross-tabulation. Frequency distribution

of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by males and females (gender), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.68. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between males and females in their responses to statement 33.

Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by chief directors and directors (post), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.14. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between chief directors and directors in their responses to statement 33.

Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by three language groups L1, L2 and L3 (language) (see page 339), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 00.00. This result indicates significant differences in preferences between the language groups in their responses to statement 33.

## Statement 34

There should be a standard in respect of socially unacceptable mannerisms (such as exaggerated convulsions and twitches) in the government service.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.26. This result indicates that while 36.89% of the respondents were undecided, 40.29% of the respondents supported the statement, while 22.81% responded negatively to the issue.

## Statement 35

Information about the established grievance procedure should form part of orientation programs.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.60. This result indicates that while 4.85% of the respondents were undecided, 91.26% of the respondents supported the statement, while 3.88% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 36**

Orientation programs should emphasise the mission and strategic position of the institution.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.10. This result indicates that while 1.94% of the respondents were undecided, 97.57% of the respondents supported the statement, while 0.485% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 37**

There should be a standard of physical appearance in the government service in respect of a dress code.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.99. This result indicates that while 11.17% of the respondents were undecided, 72.81% of the respondents supported the statement, while 16.82% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 38**

Orientation programs should contain information about the role and place of the public official within the political, executive, administrative and functional environments.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.33. This result indicates that while 2.42% of the respondents were undecided, 94.17% of the respondents supported the statement, while 3.40% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 39**

Gender discrimination still exists in the government service.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.20. This result indicates that while 17.48% of the respondents were undecided, 49.03% of the respondents supported the statement, while 33.5% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 40**

Females are better suited to secretarial work than males.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.11. This result indicates that while 19.9% of the

respondents were undecided, 40.3% of the respondents supported the statement, while 39.81% responded negatively to the issue.

#### Statement 41

Orientation training should include training in how to deal with the public.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.63. This result indicates that while 4.37% of the respondents were undecided, 92.71% of the respondents supported the statement, while 2.9% responded negatively to the issue. This result represent the most extreme skewness factor of the survey, indicating the highest degree of differentiation between the negative and the positive responses, bearing in mind the relative percentage of the "undecided" response.

#### Statement 42

Policy implementation by the government in accordance with African customs and traditions will bring about prosperity for the peoples of South Africa.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of -0.05. This result indicates that while 40.29% of the respondents were undecided, 25.73% of the respondents supported the statement, while 33.99% responded negatively to

the issue.

#### Statement 43

Females that meet the necessary requirements should in all respects be treated on an equal basis as males when senior managers in the government service are selected.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.35. This result indicates that while 2.43% of the respondents were undecided, 98.08% of the respondents supported the statement, while one respondent, (0.485% of the response population) responded negatively to the issue.

Another test subjected the responses to statement 43 of the questionnaire to analysis by explanatory variables, which included dimensional cross-tabulation. Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by males and females (gender), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.57. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between males and females in their responses to statement 43.

Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by chief directors and directors (post), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.014. This



result indicates no significant differences in preferences between chief directors and directors in their responses to statement 43.

Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by three language groups L1, L2 and L3 (language) (see page 339), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.46. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between the language groups in their responses to statement 43.

#### **Statement 44**

**Orientation programs should be presented to all officials during regular intervals throughout their careers.**

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 1.18. This result indicates that while 10.68% of the respondents were undecided, 82.04% of the respondents supported the statement, while 7.28% responded negatively to the issue.

**Statement 45**

Disabled individuals that meet the requirements should in all respects be treated on an equal basis as other candidates when senior managers in the government service are selected.

The response to this statement yielded a skewness factor of 0.97. This result indicates that while 6.80% of the respondents were undecided, 90.78% of the respondents supported the statement, while 2.43% responded negatively to the issue.

Another test subjected responses to statement 45 of the questionnaire to analysis by explanatory variables, which included dimensional cross-tabulation. Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by males and females (gender), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.89. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between males and females in their responses to statement 45.

Frequency distribution of responses to this statement in respect of expected different responses by chief directors and directors (post), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.10. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between chief directors and directors in their responses to statement 45.

Frequency distribution of the responses to this particular statement in respect of expected different responses by three language groups L1, L2 and L3 (language) (see page 339), were subjected to the Pearson chi-square test, which yielded a p-value of 0.25. This result indicates no significant differences in preferences between the language groups in their responses to statement 45.

These findings indicate two streams of responses in respect of certain key statements such as statements 24 and 33. The deduction is made that two particular factions within the research population, language groups 1 and 2 opposed to language group 3 have significant differences in preferences in terms of their responses to the two statements mentioned. The reason for this may be that members of the existing cadres of senior government officials who emanate from the previous dispensation have an opposing view in respect of the indicated statements to those who hail from the ranks of the disadvantaged, and who had been appointed relatively recently.

It must be emphasised that the results of the empirical survey done for this study do not purport to represent the opinions of all the officials of the government services of South Africa, which include the central government service as well as the nine provincial governments. The analysis is regarded as valid only in respect of those who responded. These respondents being a large number, their responses could not, for the purposes of this research, be disregarded.

In spite of the foregoing the findings of the empirical survey have shown that the concept of orientation training is predominantly supported and accepted by the respondents. The various assumptions regarding a lack of orientation training in the government service, the demographic composition of the management cadres in the executive institutions, as well as the underrepresentativity of females have been confirmed by the respondents. An element of conservatism is still in existence in the government service, according to the results of the survey. Negativity towards the aims and objectives of the RDP had been illustrated by the analysis of the responses to the questionnaire. However, an overwhelming positive response was found in terms of certain facets of orientation training, the questions of female and disabled employment, as well as in the overall agreement that identical orientation programmes should be presented to the different population groups. The results of the empirical survey serves to motivate the researcher to continue with the development and proposal of a normative model for effective and efficient public personnel management in the government service.

## 7.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter the empirical survey of selected chief directors and higher, and directors in the nine provincial government services and in the central government departments was explained and the results interpreted against the background of the original assumptions that served as

motivation to commence with this study.

In the next chapter the various facets of model development will be explained, and a normative model for the management of orientation procedures for effective and efficient public personnel management in the government service will be proposed.

## CHAPTER 8

### OVERVIEW OF MODELS FOR ORIENTATION AND A PROPOSED NORMATIVE MODEL FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF ORIENTATION PROCEDURES FOR EFFECTIVE PUBLIC PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN POST-APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA.

#### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter information extracted during the literature search as well as certain inferences made as a result of the empirical survey will be used as points of departure for the design of a normative model for the management of orientation procedures for government officials at government institutions.

The envisaged normative model will not purport to represent any existing method or methods for the management of orientation procedures for government officials at government institutions. Neither will the normative model be used in a pejorative sense to disparage any existing approach to the research subject. Rather, the normative model will endeavour to expound a set of basic points of departure within a definite normative framework that could be utilised for the purpose of the management of orientation training.

Acceptable orientation procedures could serve as a guide to management in the government service to determine policies for future staff and organisational development programs. This chapter should be seen as an attempt to illicit an approach to the management of orientation procedures for implementation by

the South African Management and Development Institute as being part of the overall training programmes of central government departments and by the training divisions of Provincial Service Commissions in respect of provincial government services.

In this chapter the concept of model construction will be briefly examined, whereafter examples of various models will be shown and discussed. Finally, a normative model for the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa will be proposed.

## 8.2 ELEMENTS OF MODEL CONSTRUCTION

The basic criteria for the development of a normative model for the management of orientation procedures for effective and efficient public personnel management, is that the approach to the management of orientation procedures suggested in this work should be found to be able to achieve, maintain and enhance the mission of the government. An example in this regard is striving for the successful implementation of the RDP. Also, to ensure harmonious employee relations in the workplace between various population groups including an acceptance of the necessity for the taking of rectifying steps to eliminate the imbalances that originated during the implementation of apartheid policies by the previous government.

The approach described above could serve as motivation for management and government officials to ensure that the performance levels of all personnel will contribute to the realisation, on a continuing basis, of the mission of the government service previously defined as achieving, maintaining and enhancing the highest possible degree of spiritual and material welfare of the population of the country within the framework of the available resources.

According to Bobbitt *et al* (1978:11) the most efficient method to study organisational behaviour is by way of a model. A model is a representation of reality accomplished by abstracting concepts from a situation and depicting the way in which the concepts are related. A simplified **systems** model is described in chapter 3 (see figure 2 as an illustration of a simplified input-output systems transformational model).

Another example of a systems model is the model proposed by Schwella (Figure 4 in chapter 3).

The choice of a particular model, according to Bobbitt *et al* (1978:11), usually depends on the situation being analysed as well as the answers being sought relative to the given situation.

According to Bobbitt *et al* (1978:11), models may be classified on the basis of which a particular model represents reality. An **iconic model** looks like the reality it seeks to represent,



for example a scale model of an architectural project. An **analog model** behaves in the manner similar to the reality it represents, but may not have a similar appearance, for example factory layout presentations. Another type of model is the **symbolic model** which uses symbols to represent the reality being studied. These types of models are frequently used in mathematical equations. Another type of model is the **verbal model**. A verbal model depicts reality through the use of verbal statements that set forth the relationships among the various concepts being studied (such as is the case with certain systems models) (Bobbitt et al, 1978:12).

The effectiveness of a model will depend upon three factors. First, it will depend upon the validity of the model in representing reality. Second, the more the model contributes to the ease of analysis, the more valuable it will be. Third, an important test of the validity of a model is the predictive accuracy of the model. It should allow the manager using the model the ability to predict future behaviour of the organisational unit under given circumstances (Bobbitt et al, 1978:12).

#### 8.2.1 The orientation model of Dessler

Dessler (1984:220) links his model of motivation with the concept of orientation in his work. According to Dessler (1984:221), orientation falls within the scope of training and development, and, in that context, the necessity of providing

the employee with the basic skills needed to perform his or her work successfully. For motivation to take place, the employees must believe that their efforts will result in rewards. It is through orientation training that they can be provided with the knowledge, skills and insight they need to perform their tasks successfully, maintain satisfactory human relationships in their work sphere, all of which will allow them to earn the awards that they are striving for in the workplace (Dessler, 1984:221). Dessler's model of orientation is illustrated in table 75.

Table 75 - Desler's model of orientation

GENERAL COMPANY ORIENTATION		SPECIFIC DEPARTMENTAL ORIENTATION	
1.	Overview of the organisation - brief history, what the organisation does (products/services), where it does it (branches, etc), how it does it (nature of the operations), structure (organisation chart) etc.	1.	Department functions - explanation of the objectives, activities, and structure of the department, along with a description of how the department's activities relate to those of other departments and the overall company.
2.	Policies and procedures - work schedules, vacations, holidays, grievances, identification badges, uniforms, leaves of absence (sickness, educational, military, maternity/paternity, personal), promotion, transfers, training etc.	2.	Job duties - a detailed explanation of the duties of the new employee's job (give him/her a copy of the job description) and how the job relates to the activities of the department.
3.	Compensation - pay scale, overtime, holiday pay, shift differentials, when and how paid, time clock, etc.	3.	Policies and procedures - those that are unique to the department, such as breaks, rest periods, lunch hour, use of time sheets, safety, etc.
4.	Benefits - insurance, retirement, tax sheltered annuities, credit union, employee discounts, suggestion system, recreational activities, etc.	4.	Department tour - a complete familiarisation with the departmental facilities, including lockers, equipment, emergency exits, supply room, etc.
5.	Safety information - relevant policies and procedures, fire protection, first aid facilities, safety committee, etc.	5.	Introduction to departmental employees.
6.	Union - name, affiliation, officials, joining procedure, contract, etc.		
7.	Physical facilities - plant/office layout, employee entrance, parking, cafeteria, etc.		

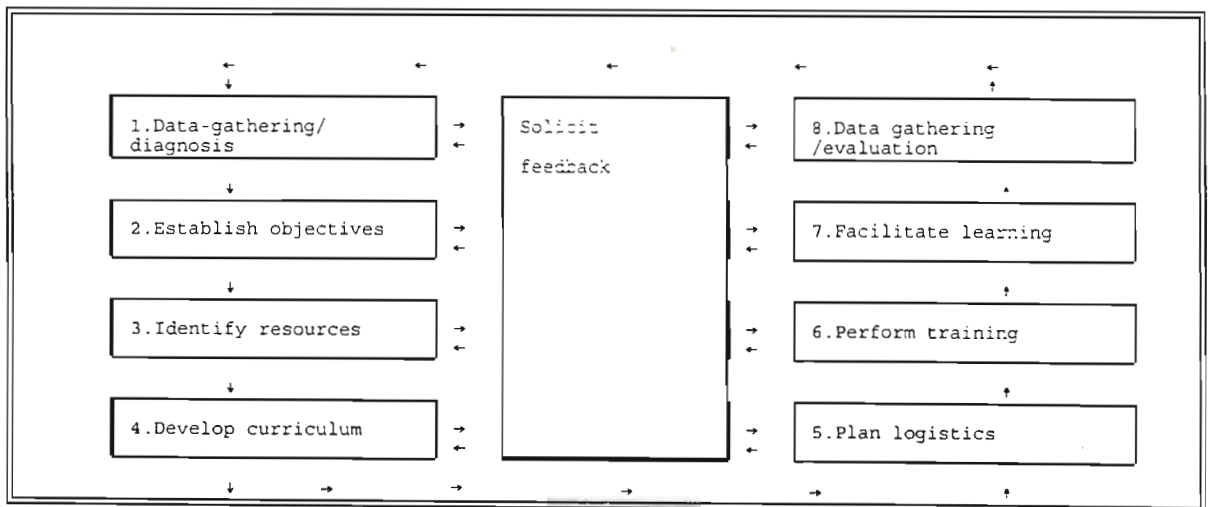
Although Dessler's model effectively addresses the question of functional orientation, it fails to depict a normative view of

the management of the orientation process. It is nevertheless useful on the operational level, should it be necessary to find guidelines for the steps pertaining to functional orientation.

### 8.2.2 The Sequential model

The **sequential** model as proposed by Camp et al (1986:5) illustrates more specifically the components of an effective training process. It also illustrates the different steps of an effective training process and the question of preparation is emphasised as being as important to the success of the training initiative as the actual presentation of the course itself. The sequential model of training is illustrated in tabular form in table 76.

**Table 76 - The sequential model of an effective training process**



### 8.2.3 The Results-oriented HRD model

According to Phillips (1991:63) the evaluation of the human research and development program has to allow for a termination of the process whenever appropriate. During the program, activities are geared towards achieving results, and in some cases data are actually collected. After the program, additional data are collected, analysed and reported. The Results-oriented HRD model of Phillips is illustrated in table 77.

Table 77 - The Results-oriented HRD model of Phillips

1.	Conduct a needs analysis and develop tentative objectives.
2.	Identify purposes of evaluation.
3.	Establish base-line data.
4.	Select evaluation method/design.
5.	Determine evaluation strategy.
6.	Finalise program objectives.
7.	Estimate program costs/benefits.
8.	Prepare and present proposal.
9.	Design evaluation instruments.
10.	Determine and develop program content.
11.	Design or select training and development methods.
12.	Test program and make revisions.
13.	Implement or conduct program.
14.	Collect data at proper stages.
15.	Analyse and interpret data.
16.	Make program adjustments.
17.	Calculate return on investment.
18.	Communicate program results.

The different models cited represent interesting studies in terms of their particular aims and objectives. However, when viewed from the perspective of a normative model for the management of orientation procedures in the government service

the above models appear to be more suited in terms of the needs of the private sector than the public sector. In the paragraphs that follow, possible orientation programs that may be useful during the design of a normative model for the management of orientation programs in the government sector, will be briefly discussed. Thereafter existing normative models for the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South-Africa will be explored, followed by a proposed normative model for the management of orientation training for effective personnel management in a post-apartheid South-Africa.

Bobbitt et al (1978:285) is of the opinion that a proven way of improving organisational performance is to ensure that its members function more effectively on an individual basis. This view involves two approaches. The first type consists of those approaches that attempt to enhance job motivation. One way to do this is to change the individual's motivational structure. An alternative is to change the task itself or the individual's perception of the task. The aim is to make the task more interesting and intrinsically rewarding. The second type of approaches aim at **changing the manager**. This category include aspects such as **attitude change, job enrichment, management by objectives, goal setting, management development and leadership training, sensitivity training, behaviour modification, and transactional analysis** (Bobbitt, 1978:300).

#### 8.2.4 The Survey Feedback model

Bobbitt et al initially approach the question of change within organisational structures with the survey feedback model illustrated below with table 78.

Table 78 - The Survey Feedback model



The first step in implementing the survey feedback approach is to obtain the commitment of top management. When the approach involves a conceptual framework, or theoretical model, commitment must be obtained to the model as well as their commitment to the data gathering. If top management does not accept the theoretical model, the approach will most likely fail no matter how effective the data-gathering effort. Top management must also be committed to sharing the data with lower levels and to working with them in solving any problems that may emerge.

The second step in the process is the gathering of the data. These data may be gathered by questionnaires, interviews, or process observation. The most frequently used method of data gathering is the closed-end questionnaire. Often, however,

questionnaires will contain open-ended questions to give respondents an opportunity to express their opinions or feelings.

The third step in the process is the analysis of the data. Usually, the data are prepared in a format to show scores for each unit within the organisation and the organisation as a whole.

The fourth step is to feed the data back to the members of the organisational structure. The individual in charge of the survey, either an internal or an external consultant, assists top management in understanding and diagnosing the data and in presenting the data to the members of the organisational structure.

The final step in the process is to develop plans of action based upon the implications of the data to the members. In many cases this will lead to implementation of individual and/or group approaches to change or to design appropriate approaches.

Criticism of the survey feedback model is that should the commitment phase not be successful, for example if members are not committed to use the data or are not allowed to become involved in corrective action, then the survey approach may lead to dysfunctional outcomes rather than functional (Bobbitt, 1978:344).

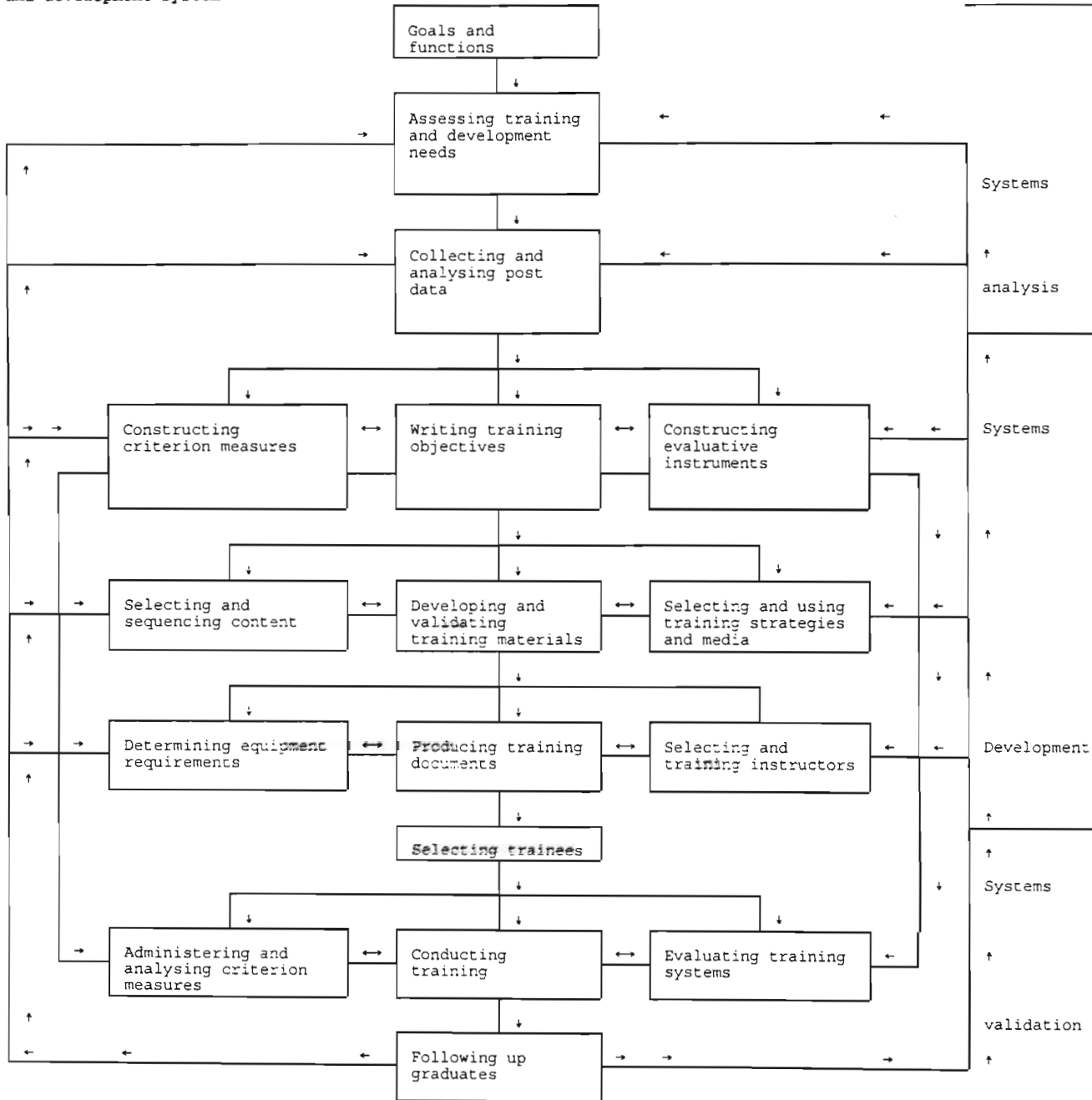
#### 8.2.5 Tracey's systems flow-chart model

Tracey (1984:42) proposes a flow-chart model of a 16-step training and development system. This model depicts a closed-loop system, a continuous sequence of steps beginning with goals and functions, continuing through the other system components to evaluation of the end products of the system, and returning to goals and functions - a constantly repeating cycle of evaluation, feedback, and improvement. The system consists of three major phases, systems analysis, systems development and systems validation (Tracey, 1984:42).

Tracey's model is illustrated in figure 10.



Figure 10 - Flow-chart model of a 16-step training and development system



Tracey's model is an example of a model of the functional

aspects of planning and maintaining a training and development system. Advantages of the model is its simplicity and the comprehensive coverage of the proposed sequence of events pertaining to training and development. This model is often referred to by the South African Management and Development Institute (SAMDI), which is the training institution of the Central Personnel Authority of the government service (the Public Service Commission) in the planning and implementation of its training function.

#### **8.2.6 Management model of the South African Management and Development Institute**

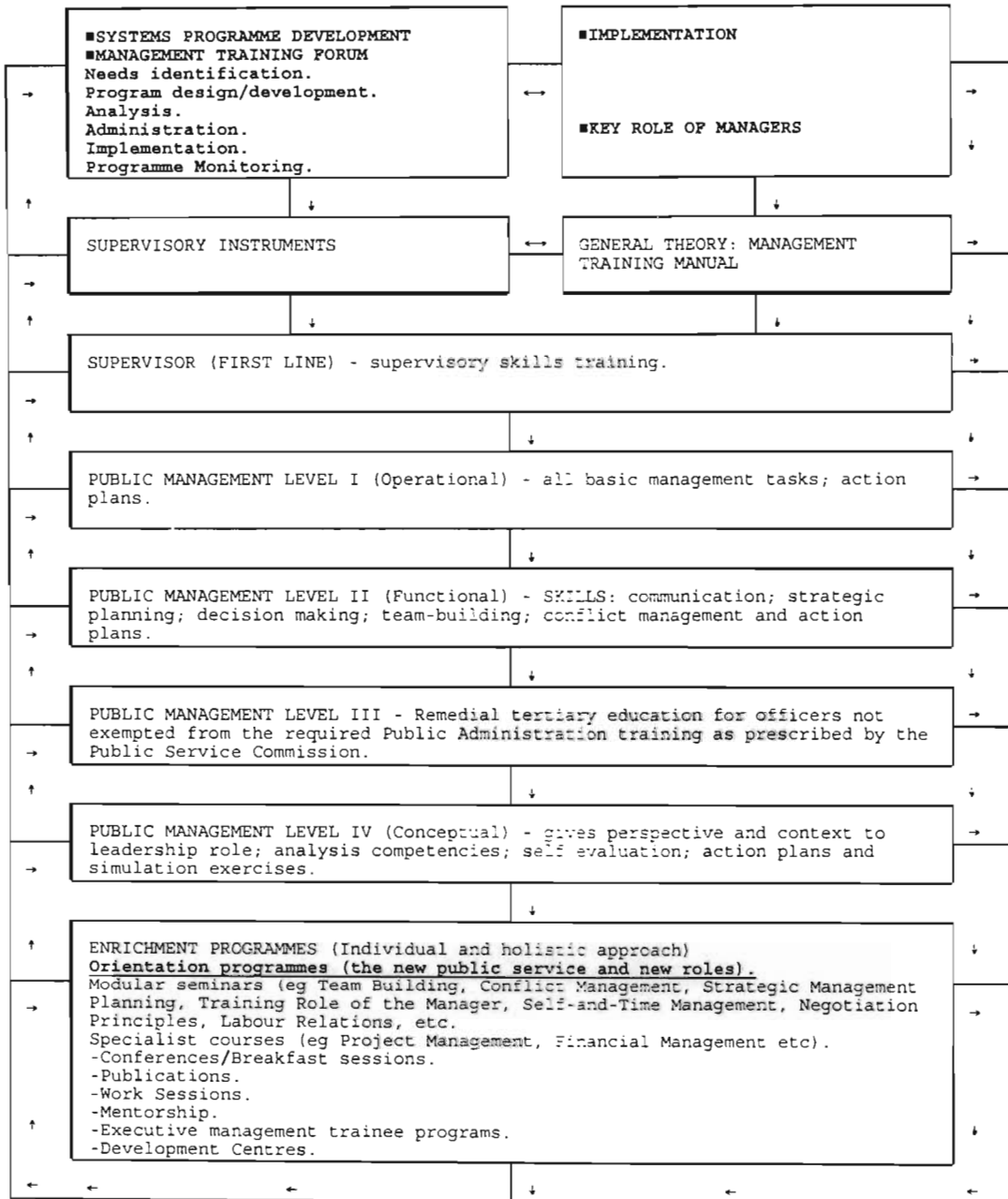
Another model that is currently being used by SAMDI is their management training model. This model is proposed for use by the central government service as well as by the training institutions of the nine provincial governments. The necessity for such a model is explained by the South African Management and Development Institute as being able to prevent unnecessary duplication, ensuring that newly designed courses will serve the purposes of the RDP and the government service.

Provinces with no infrastructure or management training in place, could make use of training models in established provinces based on the model as illustrated in figure 11.

It has to be emphasised that this model features management training, on the various levels of supervision as found in the

different departments on central and provincial government levels (Welman, 1995,7).

Figure 11 - The Management Training model of the South African Management and Development Institute (The training institution of the government service)



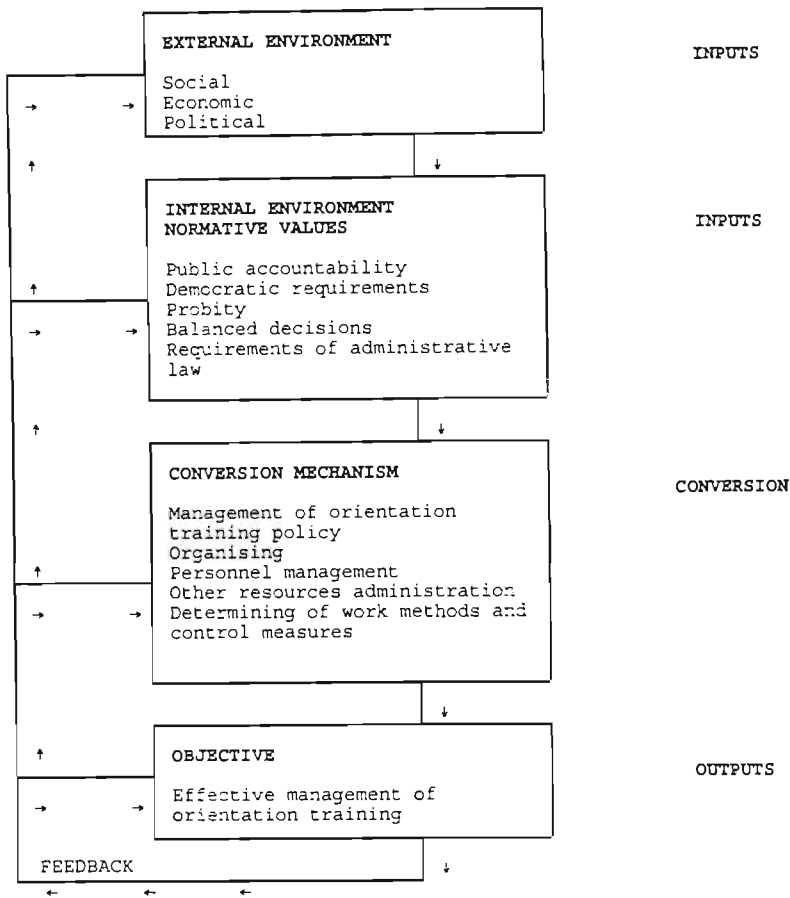
The above model provides an overview of management training in the South African government service. Orientation training is listed under "Enrichment programmes" and purports to cover aspects such as "the new public service and new roles". While

being commendable in terms of being part of the overall management training policy of the Institute, the question of orientation training should occupy a more prominent position within the training policy of the Institute. As orientation is viewed as the "scene-setter" of attitudes and loyalties towards government service in general, it is proposed that orientation training should take place first, before any other training commences. Orientation training should also form part of each component of the above training model.

#### 8.2.7 Orientation model 1

The next model to be shown is one of three models depicting a normative view of the management of orientation procedures from differing perspectives within a public administration context (Ferreira, 1995:14).

Figure 12 - Orientation model 1



Easton's view (1979:29-30) of a political system was used as a basis for the design of this model. This dynamic response model (also known as the analytical input-output transformation systems model) emphasises need generation from total external environments. The first of these sub-systems serves as the "inputs" sub-system. In this sub-system examples of external need-generating environments are listed as adapted by Ferreira (1992: 35), as the social environment,

economic environment and political environment. These are only examples of possible external input environments that may influence goal-achievement, as the numbers and types of environments that are possible may be unlimited.

The generated needs can only be satisfied by goal-setting, the achieving of which will be considered the sub-system "outputs". The process of need satisfaction has to move through an internal environment, consisting of another input sub-system, the different normative guidelines, that will serve as "filters" to maintain norms and standards in terms of the current body politic, community values and legal requirements during the different facets of the policy process.

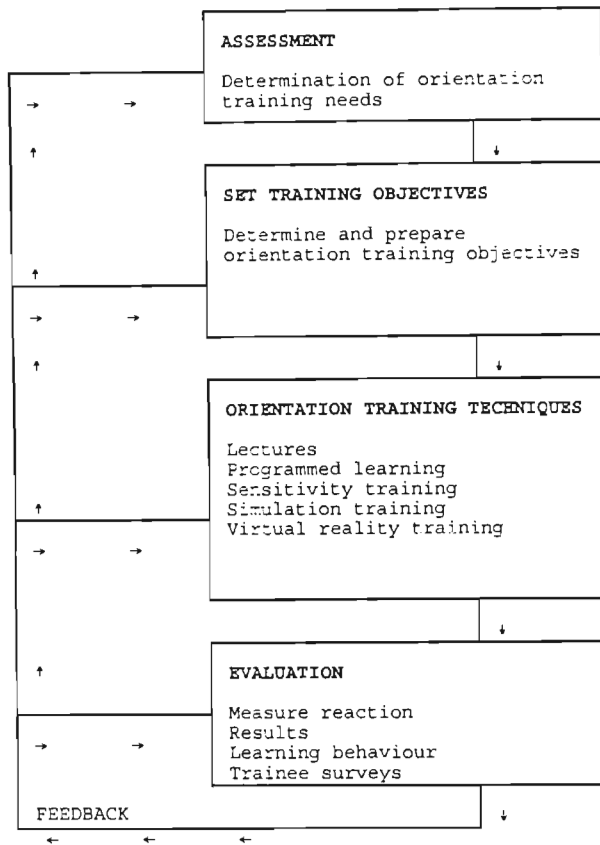
A conversion (or management) sub-system, consisting of various steps is utilised during the policy implementation phase in order to serve as a **conversion mechanism** that will enable the institution faced with the task of satisfying the need that was originally generated by the particular external environment to proceed towards achieving the goal, in this instance orientation training. Due to the subjective and variable nature of public needs the conversion mechanism **can and does vary**. Each environment or situation sets its own requirements, necessitating suitable adaptation of the conversion mechanism within a situational context.

After the goal has been achieved and the need accordingly been satisfied, feedback occurs to the original environment where the degree whereto the original need had been optimally satisfied, is checked. Should the goal have been achieved, the original external environment will be found to have changed to a new external environment, the "inputs" sub-system, which, in its turn, proceeds to generate new needs that have to be satisfied by new goal achievement, and the cycle of the system commences again (Ferreira, 1995:15-16).

#### 8.2.8 Orientation model 2

This model is an illustration of policy management (conversion) for implementation of the basic orientation training process. It focuses on the orientation training function as part of personnel management in the previously shown model (orientation model 1) (Ferreira, 1995:17).

Figure 13 - Orientation model 2



### ■ Assessment

In this model during the assessment stage it would be necessary to decide on a priority basis in respect of the individuals that would have to undergo orientation training. In the case of the government service this aspect should be argued from the point of view that all officials need to receive orientation training. The need for orientation training should, therefore, be seen as continuous, and applicable to every official.



## ■ Orientation training objectives

The orientation training objectives can be determined as improving the following aspects:

- \* Lack of an insight into the structure and composition of the institutions that are responsible for determining the legislative framework that serves as policy guidelines for public officials, on various levels of policy making.
- \* Lack of a work ethic among the average public official.
- \* The continued maintenance of prejudicial and discriminatory practices in all facets of public personnel management regarding the current demographic personnel composition of the management cadres of the central government service. This deficiency is viewed as being linked to ethnocentric attitudes by certain management cadres to different cultural and ethnic groups employed as officials in the various central government departments. This perceived dysfunctional condition (problem) also includes the view that a certain bias exists towards females and physically handicapped individuals that may preclude those groups to compete on an equal basis for available promotion posts in the government service.

## ■ Orientation training techniques

The orientation training techniques will depend on the post levels of the officials to be trained.

Possible orientation training techniques include lecturing (chalk and talk), programmed learning, sensitivity training, simulation training and, recently, visual reality training techniques.

## ■ Evaluation

As far as evaluation of the effectiveness of the training is concerned, measurement of the reaction to training as well as the results of the training is possible via trainee surveys. Also the behaviour of the trainee in the work situation can be monitored by the supervisor (Ferreira, 1995:17).

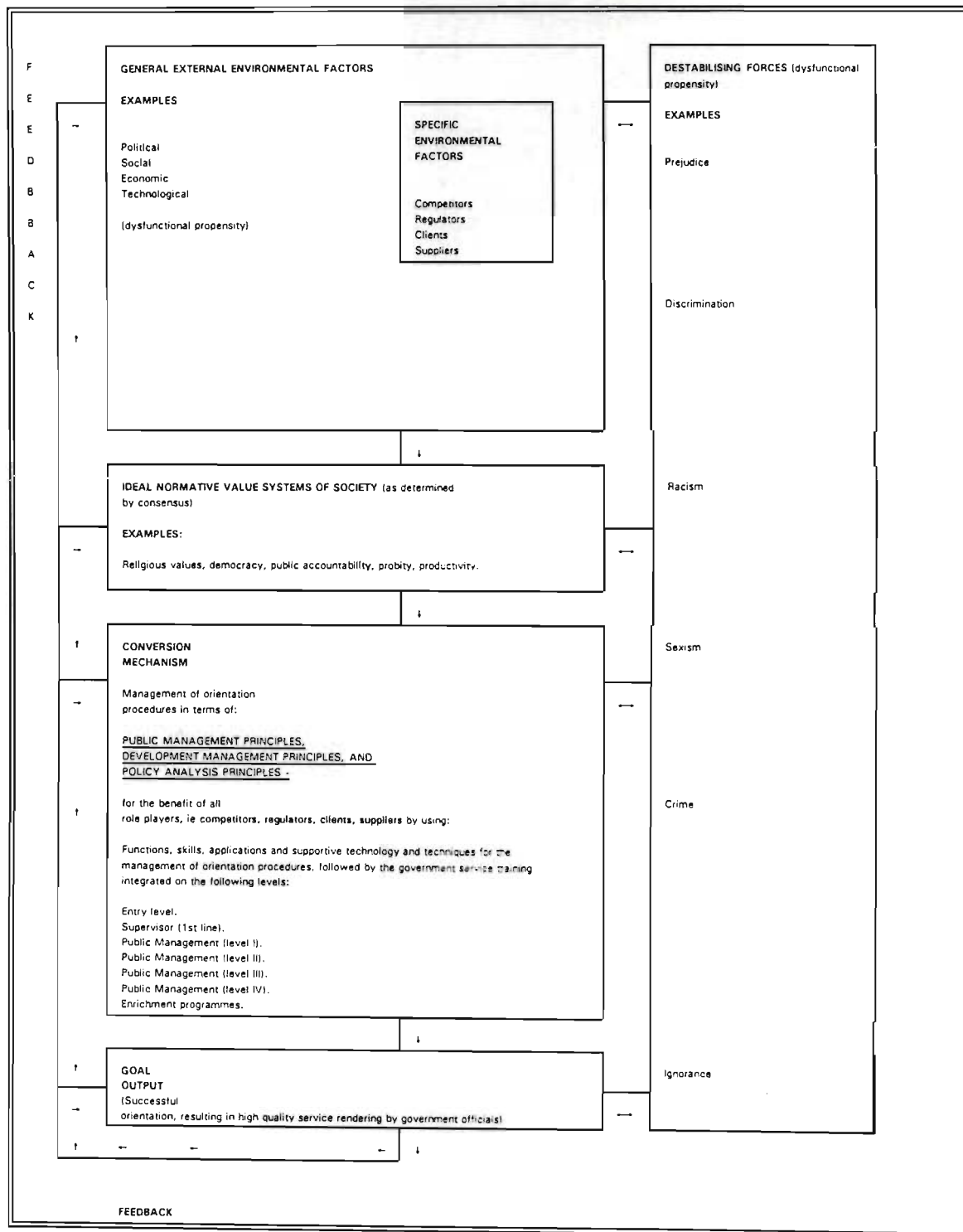
### 8.3 A NORMATIVE MODEL FOR THE MANAGEMENT OF ORIENTATION PROCEDURES FOR EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT PUBLIC PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT IN POST-APARTHEID SOUTH AFRICA (ORIENTATION MODEL 3)

The normative model for the management of orientation procedures for government officials at government institutions proposed in this thesis is presented as an environmentally

orientated normative model, where the management of orientation procedures function is taking place within the framework of, and being subjected to the forces of, an external and an internal environment, as well as certain destabilising forces. The model illustrated is an adaptation of certain previously mentioned models, namely Wissink's model (Wissink, 1992:30), Fox **et al**'s model (Fox **et al**, 1991:8), Easton's model (Easton, 1979:29-30) and Ferreira's models (1995:14 and 17). The normative model should be seen from a normative perspective, flexible by nature, and inherently dynamic as a tool for bringing about change within the framework of a transformational approach to the management of orientation procedures.

The normative model for the management of orientation procedures for government officials at government institutions is illustrated with figure 14 on the following page.

Figure 14 - Normative model for the management of orientation procedures



The above model takes as its point of departure a perceived general environment consisting of various sub-environments, for instance political, social, economic, and technological.

These sub-environments are only examples of possible environments. Those mentioned are taken as being representative of most facets of contemporary human existence and its need-generating elements.

Fox et al (1991:3-4) as well as Wissink (1992:30) shows a specific environment, within the general environment, that consists of suppliers, competitors, regulators and consumers. The interaction between the components of the general environment and the factors of the specific environment are then regulated by certain functions, skills and applications.

The above model can be transposed as a framework for the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa.

Fox et al (1991:5) identifies five possible enabling functions that can serve as a conversion mechanism for goal achievement, namely policy-making, planning, organising, leadership and motivation, and control and evaluation. These functions are situation bound and could change as the needs of the particular environment fluctuate.

In order to execute the functions described above, certain skills, applications and supportive technology and techniques are needed.

The skills referred to above are aspects such as decision-making, communication, management of change, management of conflict and negotiation.

The applications referred to above are aspects such as policy analysis, strategic management and organisation development.

The supportive technology and techniques referred to above include aspects such as computer technology, information management and specific techniques for public management which would include an awareness of the service-rendering nature of public management, with the necessity of a goal-directed approach; the goal in this instance being the achievement, maintenance and enhancement of the general welfare.

### 8.3.1 Management of change

Regarding the **management of change** aspect of the **skills** described in Fox et al (1991:163-172), certain critical areas are identified that could be made applicable to the management of orientation procedures for effective and efficient public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa (adapted from the Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service. 1995. Government Gazette no 16414, 15 May, pp. 9-10).

In working successfully towards the normalisation of government service policy implementation, it is vital that the

transformation process is guided by a clear, comprehensive and commonly accepted vision of certain fundamental principles to guide the composition and operation of the new government service. These fundamental principles are summarised here (adapted from the Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service. 1995. Government Gazette no 16414, 15 May, pp. 9-10).

- A service orientated commitment to the provision of high quality services to all South Africans in an unbiased and impartial manner.
  
- Responsiveness to the needs of all the inhabitants of the country.
  
- Representativity of all sections and levels of South African society.
  
- The maintenance of fair labour practices for all public service workers irrespective of race, gender or physical appearance or disability.
  
- Goal and performance orientated service.
  
- Efficient, effective and productive service.
  
- Commitment to the effective training and career development of all staff;

- Holistic, integrated and co-ordinated service delivery;
- Pursuance of democracy in its internal procedures and in its relations with the public;
- Respectful of the Rule of Law and human rights;
- Open to popular participation and scrutiny;
- Accessible and informative;
- Honest, transparent and accountable;
- Oriented towards the development of an ethos of service rather than domination;
- Faithful to the Constitution, non-partisan and loyal to the Government of the day.

These principles and the collective vision that they represent are based upon the relevant provisions of the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1993, (Act 200 of 1993), (Section 212 (2) (b) and Principle XXX of Schedule 4), as well as chapter 5 of the RDP White Paper (1994). These principles should comprise the nucleus of any orientation program that is going to be devised for the orientation of officials in the post-apartheid government service.



In addition to the above, the following aspects as described in the Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995:Government Gazette no 16414, 15 May, pp.10-32) have specific bearing on a possible course outline of an orientation program for government officials:

- Meeting basic needs through improved service delivery.
- Achieving representativeness through affirmative action.
- Institution building and management.
- Restructuring and rationalisation.
- Improving pay and employment conditions.
- Promoting effective labour relations.
- Developing a professional ethos.
- Democratising the state.
- The effective management of human resource development.
- Monitoring and evaluation.
- Acceptance of the necessity for training and retraining, particularly orientation training, as a vehicle to equip officials to pursue, maintain and enhance the general welfare of the inhabitants of this country.

The above aspects are described comprehensively in the Draft White Paper mentioned above.

### 8.3.2 Destabilising forces

Regarding the destabilising forces, these are regarded as negative influences that are constantly acting as inhibitors

for effective and efficient personnel management in the government service. The destabilising forces selected are prejudice, discrimination, racism, sexism, crime, and ignorance. These are only examples of destabilising forces. The actual list of forces that continually strive to destabilise, and in fact, destroy, society and orderly government, is, for the purposes of this discussion, regarded as unlimited.

### ■ Prejudice

Popenoe (1980:322) writes that the Latin root of the word "prejudice" means "judging before". Prejudice is judging, be it people, objects, or situations- in terms of stereotypes or generalisations. In South Africa the phenomenon of racial prejudice exists. Roode (1971:132) writes that racial prejudice indicates a negative and undignified attitude of one population group towards another population group (also from individual members of one population group towards individual members of another population group) and where the rational consideration of the real circumstances and characteristics of the other population group and its individual members exerts no influence on the determination of the particular attitude. In terms of this description a certain stereotyping exists regarding the members of another population group which is usually based on false premises (Roode, 1971:132).

The empirical survey has shown that a certain prejudice towards other population groups does exist in the South African government service. Within this context the question of prejudice is viewed as a destabilising factor.

### ■ Discrimination

According to Popenoe (1980,323) the concept "discrimination" is related to the concept "prejudice". However, although they generally occur together, they should be understood as two separate concepts. Where prejudice refers to an attitude, or a feeling, discrimination means unfair or unequal treatment given to individuals and/or groups (Popenoe, 1980:323).

Discrimination can thus be defined as being an unfair action, or behaviour, based on a prejudicial attitude.

Discrimination is often found to be legal, or statutory. In the United States, for example, according to Popenoe (1980:323) voting restrictions existed in the original 13 colonies. The right to vote was given only to white males over the age of 21 who owned property. The legal restriction meant that in voting, the poor, the non-white, the young and women were all discriminated against. During the early nineteenth century, legal discrimination against poor white males was remedied. In 1870, legal discrimination against black people in voting was abolished, although many more subtle discriminatory practices, such as enforced separatism, remained. Not until the early twentieth century was the discrimination against women as

voters eliminated (Popenoe, 1980:324).

Legal, or statutory, discrimination in the South African government service is explained in chapter 2 of this thesis.

## ■ Racism

Racism is defined by Miles (1989), as quoted by Foster (1991:203), as an ideology: a representation of the "other" in terms of negatively evaluative content. In Miles's terms racism is a specific discourse that involves particular representations of real or imagined somatic features as well as attributions of negatively evaluated characteristics (Foster, 1991:203).

In the United States, according to Popenoe (1980:331) there exists what is termed "institutional racism" that is manifested in a structured inequality in American society. Although it appears to be an impersonal force, institutional racism relies on the active and pervasive operation of anti-black attitudes and practices. Institutional racism in the United States is found in, among others, economic institutions, educational institutions, as well as in the criminal justice system (Popenoe, 1980:332). The American racial problem was comprehensively explained in chapter 5.

In South Africa, according to Foster (1991:205) two figures were prominent between 1920 and the mid-1940's in the context

of racism: H.F. Verwoerd and W.A. Willemse. Verwoerd, after completing both masters and doctoral degrees at the University of Stellenbosch by 1924, was appointed as the first professor of applied psychology at that university in 1927. Verwoerd was convinced that academics should play a role in social problems and by the late 1920's he became involved in the poor-white problem.

Verwoerd adopted a sectionalist viewpoint in claiming that Afrikaner problems required Afrikaner solutions. He played an active role in the 1934 Volkskongres (Nation's Congress, meaning, in this instance, the congress of white Afrikaners) on the poor-white issues where he argued for political solutions to social problems. Political control by Afrikaners would provide the solution. In the mid-1930's Verwoerd was active in another sphere of racism when he led deputations to protest against the arrival of Jewish refugees from Nazi Germany (Foster, 1991:295).

According to Foster (1991:205) W.A. Willemse obtained his doctorate in psychology from the University of Pretoria in 1929. As his contemporaries, including Verwoerd and others, he became a leading figure in the development of Afrikaner nationalism and racist thinking. By 1937 Willemse was professor of psycho- and socio-pathology at the University of Pretoria. Willemse was active in developing a theory of criminology appropriate to Afrikaner nationalism which emphasised racial distinctions. During 1942 Willemse took the

initiative in proposing a system of racial classification for the population as a whole. Key themes in the writings of Willemse held that blacks were inferior in both cultural and intellectual terms. He was systematically opposed to "race-mixing" and based such reasoning on "scientific" grounds. This groundwork by Willemse and others eventually manifested in a formal racist policy during the apartheid years after 1948 (Foster, 1991:205). See also chapter 2 of this thesis.

### ■ Sexism

According to Popenoe (1980:178), sexism, like racism, classism and ageism, is based on an attitude of superiority by one group towards another. For example, blacks and orientals are judged by whites to be inferior, old people are judged as inferior by their juniors, working class people are looked down upon by so-called upper classes, and women are condescended to by men.

In the above context, the dominant group seeks to justify itself by reference to "biological facts" and "nature" even though the theories that lead to these references usually have little scientific foundation. The dominant group maintains its own power through condescension, discrimination, the threat of removing the so-called rights and privileges upon which the less dominant group is dependent, and outright exclusion (Popenoe, 1980:179).

Popenoe (1980:179) writes that it is difficult for a woman to challenge sexism. A woman who seeks to reverse male sexist attitudes based on the male belief that women are the weaker, less competent and less intelligent sex can easily be made to fear that if she asserts her right to equality, her personal life will suffer irreparable damage. In American society, even to the present day, the place of women in society has been largely determined by men (Popenoe, 1980:180).

The existence of sexism in South African society is confirmed by the necessity of including a special reference to gender equality in the **Constitution Act** of 1993 (Act 200 of 1993), (Section 8), where it is stated that:

" ... no person shall be unfairly discriminated against on one or more of the following grounds: ... race, gender, sex ... ".

In spite of the stipulations in the abovementioned Act, the reality of gender distribution in the management cadres of the South African Government Service is still quantitatively inclined towards men (FitzGerald, 1993:16).

#### ■ Crime

Popenoe (1980:233) defines crime as behaviour that has been prohibited by government authority, and which can be punished through the application of formal sanctions. In the context of this study, the prevalence of so-called "white-collar" crime needs to be mentioned. White-collar crimes include crimes such

as bribery and corruption, embezzlement that are committed for the benefit of individuals or groups. Partly because it is committed by high-status persons, a great amount of white-collar crime is never brought to book (Popenoe, 1980:233).

In South Africa many examples of white-collar crimes exist within the government service. A recent example is the fraudulent implementation of the State President's school feeding scheme in the Eastern Cape, where millions of rands have allegedly have been embezzled by falsification of numbers of school children that qualified for school feeding (Call for arrest of food scam fraudsters. 1995. **Eastern Province Herald**, 10 August, p. 2. c. 7.).

#### ■ Ignorance

Ignorance is defined by the Odhams Dictionary of the English Language as simply " ... lack of general knowledge ... " (Odhams Dictionary of the English Language. 1963. Watford: Odhams.). In the context of government service the question of "ignorance" is viewed as imperative in relation to the insight required from the committed government official to be able to perform his/her duties effectively, efficiently, diligently, with integrity and with an unprejudiced and service-rendering attitude.

The above insights can only be gained by government officials with studies in the theory and practice of the subject of



Public Administration. As formal studies are not always available or possible for officials to undertake, orientation training has to be employed as a vehicle to enlighten officials regarding their place and duties and the manner of executing those duties within the framework of government service.

Bearing in mind the destructive influences of the described destabilising forces in the government service, orientation training as a vehicle to counteract these destabilising forces, has to be presented on a continuous basis to all officials, from entry levels to top management levels. Receiving orientation training and retraining can be compared with regular practice for a sport - if neglected, the incumbent will or may slip back into the bad habits that tend to inhibit effective and efficient service rendering - to the detriment of the general welfare as a whole.

This concludes the explanation of the various components of the proposed normative model for the managing of orientation procedures for effective and efficient public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa.

The proposed normative model is specifically suited for this research, as it is more descriptive by nature, and therefore readily understood. Another reason that makes this approach suitable for this research is the fact that one of the chapters in Fox *et al*'s book (chapter 11) explains the management of change in terms of a number of factors that hold specific

significance for the managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa.

The factors referred to above include, inter alia, aspects such as the public manager as a change agent, resistance to change, behaviour modification, sensitivity training and change as a fact of organisational life (Fox et al 1991: 164-172).

#### 8.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter the concept of model construction was briefly examined, whereafter examples of various models pertaining to training and orientation, were depicted and explained. Finally a normative model for the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa was proposed.

The models as explained were proposed in order to develop an effective and efficient orientation training procedure that will enable all officials to approach their duties with a positive, loyal and enthusiastic attitude. Implementation of the proposed normative model, or part or parts thereof, will contribute to a positive benefit-to-cost ratio for the taxpayer, whose general welfare is the overriding reason for the existence of government service.

It is concluded from this chapter that the normative model for the management of orientation procedures as proposed in this chapter should be used as a reference for the design and implementation of an orientation procedure for government officials at government institutions.

It is also concluded that the normative model adopted as presented above, apply specifically to the central government service as well as to the nine provincial government services in South Africa.

In the next chapter the work done so far in this thesis will be briefly summarised, certain conclusions will be arrived at, and a number of proposals will be submitted.

CHAPTER 9CONCLUSION AND PROPOSALS

## 9.1 CONCLUSIVE SUMMARY

The research as presented in this thesis is based on the assumption stated in the first chapter that existing orientation procedures in the South African central government service are inadequate for proper induction and orientation of public service personnel on all post levels in the government service.

The abovementioned assumption also included the view that a certain bias exists toward females and the physically disabled that may preclude those groups to compete on an equal basis for available posts or promotion opportunities in the government service.

The problem to be researched was stated in chapter one as being the assumed lack of effective and efficient orientation procedures for new and existing personnel in the central government service of South Africa.

The above assumptions were confirmed during an interview with Mr M. Welman of the South African Management and Development Institute, which is the training institution of the central government service (Welman, 1995). During the interview Mr

Welman indicated that orientation training is regarded by the Institute as a subordinate part of a greater training programme offered by the Institute, and of which a model is illustrated in chapter 8 (see table 13). He also affirmed that the Institute allowed individual departments and provinces to implement and present orientation training (including induction procedures) as the need arises.

In order to embark on researching the problem as stated, the broad research goal for the study was determined as an investigation into the management of orientation procedures by senior managers on at least two post levels for the execution of effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa.

## 9.2 BRIEF OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

### 9.2.1 Chapter 1

In the first chapter the problem regarding a lack of orientation training in the government service was set out, and the broad research goal was stated, supported by major study objectives. Certain key questions were asked, whereafter the research methodology was comprehensively explained.

### 9.2.2 Chapter 2

In the **second chapter** the factors that led to the implementation of discriminatory personnel management practices in the government services in apartheid South Africa were explained. This chapter attempted to provide answers to certain key questions pertaining to the fundamental factors that gave rise to institutionalised apartheid policies and practices in the central government service in this country.

### 9.2.3 Chapter 3

In **chapter three** a theoretical basis for the management of orientation procedures was explored. This included an explanation of the role of philosophy, as well as a philosophical base for Public Administration, and various viewpoints on the subject.

Public Administration theory was explained in this chapter. This was followed by an explanation of a theory for personnel management and a theory for the management of orientation procedures. This chapter attempted to provide an answer to the key question relating to the present paradigmatic status of Public Administration and also researched an appropriate approach to the discipline that could be adopted to meet the requirements of this study.

#### 9.2.4 Chapter 4

**Chapter four** explored theories of attitude change and human behaviour, including orientation for attitude change. An explanation of theories of resistance to change followed, which included a number of self-interest theories, personality theories, social psychological theories, and an appraisal of change theories. The importance of knowledge of the various theories of human behaviour and resistance to change, was pointed out.

#### 9.2.5 Chapter 5

**Chapter five** provided a comparative overview of discrimination and affirmative action in selected countries. In this chapter the key question of which of the existing theoretical criteria for the normalisation of society would be suitable as bases for the implementation of effective and efficient orientation procedures, was explained. The possibility of utilising such criteria as behaviour modification instruments for public managers for the implementation of affirmative action and equitable public personnel management practices in post-apartheid South Africa was explored.

#### 9.2.6 Chapter 6

**Chapter six** researched affirmative action and orientation procedures particular to South Africa. In this chapter the

question of discrimination in South Africa, with special reference to discrimination in the South African government service, was explained. Affirmative action as a concept and the necessity for the formulation and implementation of an official policy for affirmative action were explained at length. Finally, an overview of examples of certain past orientation programmes in the South African government service was given.

#### 9.2.7 Chapter 7

Chapter seven reviewed the empirical survey, the research methodology for the empirical survey as well as the interpretation of the research findings. In this chapter, the research methodology used during the empirical survey was explained. Secondly, the operationalisation of the survey questionnaire used for gathering the data needed for analysis and interpretation was explained. Thirdly, the survey data was presented and interpreted.

#### 9.2.8 Chapter 8

Chapter eight contained a brief overview of model theory as well as illustrations and an explanation of selected models for training and orientation, including a proposed normative model for the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa. A proposed model that could serve as a basis to



accommodate the managing of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post- apartheid South Africa, was proposed in this chapter. It also attempted to provide answers to key questions about the nature and extent of existing orientation procedures in the central government service.

#### 9.2.9 Chapter 9

In this chapter, **chapter nine**, which is also the final chapter of the thesis, answers to the final key question posed in chapter one, are proposed, that is whether arguments could be constructed for the general application of the proposed normative model for the management of orientation procedures for effective public personnel management in post-apartheid South Africa. This chapter also contains, **inter alia**, a summary of the various chapters of the thesis, certain conclusions that were arrived at during the study, as well as a number of proposals that emanated from the research.

### 9.3 VISION FOR THE FUTURE

It is vital for the successful implementation of public policies that the transformation process is guided by a clear, comprehensive and commonly accepted vision of the steps that need to be taken to address the needs, hopes, aspirations, desires, ambitions, and values of the inhabitants of the country. This vision depends on the willingness of the role-

players in public administration on all levels of policy-making, from the political level to the functional level, to function on a community-oriented basis.

South Africa has for too long a period been subjected to an ideological and authoritative approach to the concept of the general welfare. What is needed now is a core of officials, on all post levels, who are willing and able to approach their duties with the aim to be:

- Service-oriented and committed to the provision of high quality services of an excellent quality to all South Africans in an unbiased and impartial manner.
- Responsive to the needs of the public, as well as humane and caring in its dealings with them.
- Representative of all sections and levels of South African society.
- Willing to maintain fair labour practices for all public service workers, irrespective of race, gender or class.
- Geared towards socio-economic development and the reduction of poverty.
- Goal and performance oriented.

- Efficient, effective and productive.
- Committed to the effective training and career development of all staff.
- Holistic, integrated and co-ordinated in their service delivery.
- Democratic in implementing internal procedures and in their relations with the public.
- Respectful of the Rule of Law and human rights.
- Open to popular participation and scrutiny.
- Accessible and informative.
- Honest, transparent and accountable.
- Oriented towards the development of an ethos of service rather than domination.

In order to equip the officials, who will be charged with the responsibility to implement the policies that will bring about normalisation of societal conditions in South Africa, in accordance with the directives of the RDP, with knowledge and skills, it is necessary that those officials have to be optimally committed to the ideal of public service rendering

with a dedicated and positive attitude.

To achieve a situation where government officials fully understand their place and role in the service of the community, intensive and continuous orientation training programmes will have to be presented to all officials on all post levels. The primary training function, before the commencement of any other training (which is regarded as no less important), has to be orientation training, in order to prepare the officials to be receptive and willing to undergo the other types of training.

The empirical survey has shown that the majority of those surveyed support the concept of orientation training, particularly regarding orientation training as a mechanism that can improve morale and **esprit de corps** among officials. It was also found, from the results of the analysis of the empirical survey, that orientation programmes help to instil feelings of security, pride and confidence in new as well as in existing officials.

With the conviction that serious consideration should be given to affording a much higher priority to orientation training in the government service than is presently the case, the proposals set out on the pages that follow, are proposed in terms of the findings of this study. This should be viewed in conjunction with the normative model proposed in chapter 8, as a model for managing and implementing orientation training.

## 9.4 PROPOSALS

### 1. REPRESENTATIVITY

Demographic representation must improve (affirmative action essential). Analysis of the survey response to this problem (statement 28 of the questionnaire) indicated that while 11.17% of the respondents were undecided, 68.93% of the respondents supported the statement. In this respect it is proposed that officials with 20 years' or longer service and who are over 50 years old should be given the opportunity to accept early retirement in order to vacate posts for affirmative action appointments.

### 2. FEMALE REPRESENTATION

Female representation must improve (affirmative action essential). Analysis of the survey response pertaining to this problem (statement 16) indicated that while 8.74% of the respondents were undecided, 63.1% of the respondents supported the statement. Females should be encouraged to strive for promotion posts. Orientation programmes presented to females should include training to overcome the traditional limitations of female employment such as pregnancy, child care and pre-menstrual tension (PMT).

### 3. DISABLED REPRESENTATION

Disabled representation must improve (affirmative action essential). Analysis of the survey response pertaining to this problem (statement 45) indicated that while 6.80% of the respondents were undecided, 90.78% of the respondents supported the statement. The disabled should be encouraged to strive for promotion posts. Orientation programmes presented to the disabled should include training to overcome the traditional limitations of disabled employment such as lack of acceptance by colleagues, ergonomics, lack of self-esteem, as well as entrenchment of the fact that the disabled employee is able to make a useful contribution to the goals of the institution.

### 4. ORIENTATION TRAINING FOR MANAGEMENT

Orientation training should include management training to address lack of knowledge and insight of administration and community matters. In this respect it is proposed that the existing management training model of the South African Management and Development Institute (SAMDI) be utilised. That model is currently being used by SAMDI as their management training model. The model is proposed for use by the central government service as well as by the training institutions of the nine provincial governments. The necessity for such a model is explained by SAMDI as it being able to prevent unnecessary duplication, ensuring that newly

designed courses will serve the purposes of the RDP and the government service.

#### 5. PRIORITY OF ORIENTATION TRAINING

Orientation training should receive a higher priority than is presently the case. Current corruptive and other practices in the government service of South Africa, on central as well as on provincial government level, necessitate an expeditious approach to the implementation and maintenance of orientation training for all officials on all post levels.

Various deficiencies in government service have been identified in this study, including certain destabilising factors as explained in chapter 8 of this thesis. Affording a higher priority to orientation training than is presently the case, while improving the level of service delivery of officials, will contribute to a more productive implementation of the RDP.

#### 6. BUDGETING FOR ORIENTATION TRAINING

Budgeting should allow for the allocation of funds to orientation training institutions which should include aspects such as maintenance of specific orientation programmes, suitable venues for training as well as for the employment of high-quality training officers.

It is understood that the training function of the government service has to compete for funds with other areas that need fund allocation. However, it should be borne in mind that if the officials (manpower) charged with the implementation of comprehensive public policy programmes, such as the RDP, are not fully committed to the ideals of such programmes, successful implementation may not take place.

Analysis of the survey response to this problem (statement 24 of the questionnaire regarding attitudes towards the successful implementation of the RDP) indicated that while a markedly large number of respondents (41.26%) were undecided, (the largest number of undecided responses of the survey) only 29.13% of the respondents supported the statement. This is indicative of the negative viewpoint being held by certain senior officials regarding this issue.

Making funds available for sophisticated orientation training facilities will be an investment that may contribute to a considerable cost-saving as a result of the judicious implementation actions that will be followed after training by committed officials, as against the half-hearted approach that is presently be the case, according to the survey results.

#### 7. DIFFERENT ORIENTATION PROGRAMMES FOR NEW AND EXISTING OFFICIALS

According to the results of the statistical analysis, 73.78% of the respondents to the empirical survey favoured the



concept of different orientation programmes for new and existing officials, with only a 3% undecided factor. In this respect the orientation of existing officials should be embarked upon without delay.

#### 8. CO-ORDINATION OF ORIENTATION PROGRAMMES

Orientation training should be co-ordinated centrally, but each government department should manage an orientation program suited to its own requirements. This view was upheld by the analysis of the survey response to this question relating to statement 11 of the questionnaire. The analysis indicated that while 52.4% of the respondents supported the idea of orientation programmes being co-ordinated centrally, 62.61% of the respondents supported the principle that each government department should manage an orientation program suited to its own requirements.

#### 9. UNIFORMITY OF ORIENTATION TRAINING

Analysis of the survey response to the question of different orientation programmes for different population groups (statement 5 of the questionnaire) indicated that while only 8.74% of the respondents were undecided, 69.41% responded negatively to the issue. This particular statement yielded the most extreme negative response of the survey, indicating that the respondents were predominantly opposed to the idea of differentiation in the presentation of orientation training

programmes to different population groups.

Orientation training should, in the light of the above, be identical for all population groups, with slight adjustments to compensate for the abnormality caused by apartheid. This could include training in cross-cultural communication, personal growth and self-development, goal achievement and goal-directedness. Also aspects such as ethnic tolerance as well as national pride should form part and parcel of orientation programmes.

#### 10. ASSISTANCE BY SENIOR OFFICIALS WITH ORIENTATION TRAINING

Senior officials should assist with orientation training.

Analysis of the survey response to this problem (statement 6 of the questionnaire) indicated that while 11.65% of the respondents were undecided on this issue, 62.61% of the respondents supported the statement.

It is proposed that senior officials, with their superior experience and insight, should take part in presenting orientation training programmes. This contribution should not be detrimental to their time management schedules, but should be regarded as important in the sense that an investment is made in positive attitudes that may result in higher productivity and improved employer/employee relations in the long term.

## 11. FREQUENCY OF ORIENTATION TRAINING

Analysis of the survey response to this problem (statement 11 of the questionnaire, whether existing officials should undergo regular orientation training) indicated that while 15.53% of the respondents were undecided on this issue, 63.6% of the respondents supported the statement.

This is indicative of the fact that the majority of respondents to the statement is of the opinion that regular orientation training for existing officials will be beneficial in terms of optimal execution of their official duties.

It is recommended that orientation training should be offered regularly for all officials, irrespective of rank, although the most senior officials should be able to schedule their training lectures as it suits them.

## 12. TIME OF ORIENTATION TRAINING

Orientation training for new appointees should take place immediately after commencement of service.

Analysis of the survey response to this problem (statement 7 of the questionnaire) indicated that while only 3.4% of the respondents were undecided, 85.92% of the respondents supported the statement. This result should be viewed in conjunction with the analysis to the response to statement 9

(orientation training should take place after a few weeks of service), which indicated that while 8.74% of the respondents were undecided, only 34.00% of the respondents supported the statement.

The overall result suggests that a strong opinion exists among those surveyed that orientation training should take place immediately after commencement of service.

### 13. ORIENTATION FOR LANGUAGE USAGE AND COMMUNICATION

Language and communication training, specifically in English, should intensify. This could be achieved by regular language bulletins emanating from the central training institution. Training in public speaking should be part of the training programmes for all officials. This recommendation is supported by the analysis of the response to statement 17 of the questionnaire, regarding the fluency in English of officials. Analysis of the survey response to this statement indicated that while 5.34% of the respondents were undecided, 78.16% of the respondents supported the statement.

### 14. DURATION OF ORIENTATION TRAINING

Orientation training should last at least a week, or longer.

Analysis of the survey response to this problem (statement 18 of the questionnaire) indicated that while 22.33% of the

respondents were undecided, 60.68% of the respondents supported the statement.

#### 15. LOCALITY FOR ORIENTATION TRAINING

Orientation training should preferably take place away from the normal place of work.

Analysis of the survey response to this problem (statement 19 of the questionnaire) indicated that while 12.62% of the respondents were undecided, 48.54% of the respondents supported the statement, and 38.84% responded negatively to the issue.

While orientation training could take place in the workplace **per se**, it is proposed that the initial intensive orientation training programmes should take place away from the normal place of work. This is to allow the trainee to concentrate fully on the concepts being transferred to him or her, as well as placing the employee in a camaraderie-inducing situation with his or her colleagues, which can be beneficial to long-term informal relationships at work.

#### 16. RDP CONTENT OF ORIENTATION TRAINING

Orientation training should include updated information on the RDP. This aspect was covered in statement 31 of the questionnaire and was supported by 87.38% of the respondents,

with only a 6% undecided factor.

This proposal goes hand in hand with recommendation 5, and is regarded as of paramount importance for the successful achievement of goals directed to the upliftment of the community.

#### 17. STATUTORY BASIS OF ORIENTATION TRAINING

Orientation training should be statutorily laid down in terms of the Constitution and the RDP guidelines. Directives on orientation training should also be embodied in subordinate legislation, such as the Public Service Act, the Public Service Regulations and the Public Service Staff Code.

This proposal will empower the training structures to negotiate and compete for funding for orientation training programmes. It will also eliminate any arbitrary indecision on the part of management or trainees of whether orientation training programmes should be attended, or not.

#### 18. CENTRAL ORIENTATION TRAINING COMMITTEE

A central orientation training committee should be established to co-ordinate, monitor, maintain and enhance orientation training. Such a committee should function under the auspices of the South African Management and Development Institute (SAMDI). Directives on a central orientation training

committee should be contained in legislation, such as the Public Service Act, and sub-ordinate legislation, such as the Public Service Regulations and the Public Service Staff Code.

#### 19. DECENTRALISED ORIENTATION UNITS

Each government department should have an orientation training unit, headed by the Head of Training of the department. This proposal should be read in conjunction with proposal 7, regarding the management of orientation programmes by each department in terms of their own requirements.

#### 20. REGULAR REPORTING ON PROGRESS WITH ORIENTATION TRAINING

Monthly reports on orientation training should be submitted to SAMDI by each department. This is necessary for purposes of enforcement and control, particularly if measures regarding orientation training are contained in legislation, as indicated in proposal 18.

#### 21. ANNUAL REPORTS TO PARLIAMENT ON ORIENTATION TRAINING

SAMDI should report on orientation training in the public service as part of their annual report to Parliament. This is part of the measures Parliament should take to maintain parliamentary control over departmental activities. Should legislation regarding orientation training be promulgated, it is the duty of Parliament to ensure that it is regularly (at

least annually) reported to regarding the state of orientation training in the government services.

## 22 URGENCY OF INSTITUTING ORIENTATION TRAINING PROGRAMMES

The different orientation programmes envisaged should be designed bearing in mind that if the problems outlined above are not addressed urgently, they will seriously compromise the ability of the Government to achieve its major goals of reconstruction and development, nation building and national reconciliation, and community empowerment and democratic participation. A complete transformation of the public service is called for if it is to assist rather than obstruct the achievement of the goals set for the nation by the GNU.

### 9.5 SUMMARY

This thesis investigated the management of orientation procedures for effective and efficient personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa. The research topic:

**"a normative model for the management of orientation procedures for effective and efficient public personnel management in a post-apartheid South Africa",**

is exhaustive in terms of its context within the South African society. The present **status quo** in the country has evolved because of a number of historical, political and socio-economic factors that contributed to a societal melting pot that is in the process of producing an equitable and



democratic society. The role of the government service in this transformation is indisputable.

The officials who have to shoulder the responsibility of implementing the policies of the representative legislature (the Acts) and to translate those policy guidelines into concrete actions to attempt to bring about the welfare of the community, have to be committed, dedicated, accountable and efficient. In order to produce such individuals, without whom the immense task cannot proceed, proper orientation training is imperative. Without orientation training the fears, the doubts, the prejudices and the ingrained negative viewpoints will remain, and will continue to contaminate the government service culture to the point of non-achievement of important public goals.

This work should be seen a starting point in studies on the topic of orientation. Little have previously been written on this topic. The insights and experience gained during this research as well as the theoretical foundation thereof is viewed as a useful point of departure for continued study and research.

Orientation training should be regarded as a serious matter by the decision-makers of this country. Only when orientation training has succeeded in achieving its rightful place as the most important training function of any training institution, will a first step have been taken to address the numerous

problems facing the government services of South Africa.

*PORT ELIZABETH TECHNIKON*

## TELEPHONE AND FAX NUMBERS

Work - tel - 041-5043893; fax - 041-5043920

Home - tel - 041-713681; fax - 041-343519

P.O.Box 12637

Centrahil

6006

1 July 1995

The Director-General

Department of \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Dear Dr/Sir/Madam

**TRAINING SURVEY IN DIE PUBLIC SERVICE**

The attached questionnaire is part of a D.Admin study project. The target population is a sample of the posts of Chief Director and higher, and directors' posts in the different government departments, including your department, as well as similar posts in the nine provinces. The nature and extent of the project is explained in more detail in the covering letter to the questionnaire.

I will appreciate it if you would possible be able to arrange that a sample of approximately 30% of your senior personnel, in the abovementioned posts, complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire has been designed to take a maximum time of ten minutes to complete. No names have to be given and **complete anonymity is guaranteed.**

As I envisage to visit your office personally during the month of July to collect the completed questionnaires, it would not be necessary to return the vorms by post.

Thank you for your assistance in this regard.

Yours faithfully



I.W. Ferreira

Senior Lektor: Departement van Publieke Administrasie en Regte  
Port Elizabethse Technikon.

**PORT ELIZABETHSE TECHNIKON**

## TELEFOON EN FAKSNOMMERS

Werk - tel - 041-5043893; faks - 041-5043920

Huis - tel - 041-713681; faks - 041-343519

Posbus 12637

Centraal

6006

1 Julie 1995

Die Direkteur-Generaal

Departement

van \_\_\_\_\_

---



---



---



---

Geagte Dr/Mnr/Dame

**OPLEIDINGSOPNAME IN DIE STAATSDIENS**

Die aangehegte vraelys is deel van 'n D.Admin studieprojek. Die teikenpopulasie is 'n monster van die poste van Hoofdirekteur en hoër en direkteursposte in die verskillende staatsdepartemente, insluitende u departement, asook soortgelyk poste in die nege provinsies. Die aard en omvang van die projek word meer breedvoerig in die dekkingsbrief tot die vraelys beskryf.

Ek sal dit hoog op prys stel as u moontlik kan reël dat 'n monster van ongeveer 30% van u senior personeel, in die bogenoemde posvlakke, die vraelys kan invul. Die vraelys is ontwerp om 'n maksimum van 10 minute van die respondent se tyd in beslag te neem. Geen name hoef verstrek te word nie en **volkome anonimiteit word gewaarborg**.

Aangesien ek beoog om gedurende die loop van Juliemaand 'n persoonlike besoek by u kantoor af te lê om die vraelyste te kom kollekteer, is dit nie nodig om die vorms terug te pos nie.

Baie dankie vir u bystand in hierdie verband.

Die uwe.



I.W. Ferreira

Senior Lektor: Departement van Publieke Administrasie en Regte  
Port Elizabethse Technikon.

## ANNEXURE 3

Geagte Heer/Dame

**NAVORSINGSVRAELYS**

Onlangs het u 'n vraelys oor oriënteringsopleiding (induksie, inlywing) van openbare amptenare ontvang.

Die vraelys is ten opsigte van studies vir 'n D.Admin kwalifikasie oor opleiding in die Staatsdiens.

Ek sal dit hoog op prys stel as u moontlik die 5 tot 10 minute kan vind om die vrae te beantwoord en so gou as moontlik aan my te besorg, verkieslik deur middel van 'n faks.

U bydrae om die vraelys in te vul is noodsaaklik vir die suksesvolle afhandeling van die studieprojek (al is u **Waarnemend**).

As u reeds die vraelys ingevul en aangestuur het, ignoreer asseblief hierdie versoek.

Totale anonimiteit van respondente word gewaarborg.

Baie dankie vir u vriendelike samewerking.

Agtend die uwe.

  
I.W. Ferreira.  
Port Elizabethse Technikon.

Dear Sir/Madam

**RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE**

Recently you received a questionnaire on orientation training (induction) of government officials.

The questionnaire is in respect of studies for a D.Admin qualification about training in the Government Service.

It will be most appreciated if you would be able to find the 5 or 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire and to return it as soon as possible to me, preferably by fax.


Your contribution to complete the questionnaire is essential for the successful finalising of the study project (even if you are **Acting**).

If you had already completed the questionnaire and returned it to me, please ignore this request.

Total anonymity of respondents is guaranteed.

Thank you for your friendly co-operation.

Respectfully yours.

  
I.W. Ferreira.  
Port Elizabeth Technikon.

24 February 1995.

To Dr M.S. Bayat and Dr H.F. Wissink

**PROGRESS WITH D.ADMIN QUESTIONNAIRE AND PROBLEMS WITH VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY**

1. August 1994

Submitted draft questionnaire to both co-supervisor (Dr H.F. Wissink) and supervisor (Dr M.S. Bayat) for perusal.

2. September 1994 to January 1995

Submitted and resubmitted corrected and improved questionnaire to the statistician (Mr C. Bosma), the co-supervisor and the supervisor. Arranged and attended a meeting with Mr Bosma and the co-supervisor to discuss the questionnaire.

3. February 1995

I showed the questionnaire to and had a discussion on 3 February 1995 with a prospective respondent, Mr D. Bezuidenhout, Acting Chief Director, Provincial Administration, East Cape Region, Port Elizabeth. His response was that he regarded the questions as "interesting" and that he would have no objection to the completion of the questionnaire.

I also consulted with Professor Potgieter, Department of Research Planning, University of Port Elizabeth about the questionnaire. Submitted improved questionnaire to co-supervisor. Discussed questionnaire with both co-supervisor and Mr Bosma. Submitted improved questionnaire to both co-supervisor and Mr Bosma. On the advice of the co-supervisor, Miss A. Greyling, research assistant of the faculty of Political Science at Stellenbosch University under Professor H. Kotze, was contacted and contracted to revise the questionnaire.

Mr Bosma subsequently advised me to consider the inclusion of a clinical psychologist in the deliberations to ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire from a psychological point of view. The services of Mr Norman Kemp, head of department of the department of Management, of the faculty of Management of the Port Elizabeth Technikon, who is a registered clinical psychologist, was then procured to assist in the evaluation of the questionnaire.

A meeting took place on 23 February 1995 at 10:40 in the Small Seminar Room, room 040, at the College Campus of the Port Elizabeth Technikon, between the co-supervisor (Dr H.F. Wissink) Mr Norman Kemp, Mr C. Bosma and myself for the purpose of discussing the questionnaire. At the meeting it was suggested that the major defect of the questionnaire was

the possibility of the respondents not being honest when answering the questionnaire. Should that be the case, the validity of the questionnaire would be in doubt, which would render the research worthless. This aspect was debated, and the standpoint was taken that the questionnaire was intrinsically an attitude questionnaire, and dealing with unpredictable and subjective individuals. It would therefore be difficult, if at all possible, to design an attitude questionnaire that would in all respects be 100% reliable. Another objection was that certain of the questions may suggest to the respondent a prejudiced mindset in the mind of the researcher, which may also contribute to a situation of non-co-operation. The question was also raised that the original hypothesis of the researcher coupled to the already written 5 chapters of theory, may not be able to be correlated with the findings of the questionnaire.

A final suggestion was that a number of possible measuring instruments should be assessed to ensure that the eventual instrument used will ensure optimum validity and reliability. A particular instrument mentioned by Mr Kemp in this regard was the "F"-scale, a scale used by psychologists on a professional level to measure attitudes. Another aspect mentioned by Mr Bosma was the question of an item analysis being done, a statistical technique that could ensure optimal reliability of the test results.

In the light of the above standpoints, it was decided that the researcher once more revise each of the 44 questions in order to have them phrased as subtle as possible in an attempt to ensure truthful co-operation from the respondents. The researcher was also advised by Mr Kemp to contact Professor L. Kampher, Head of Department of the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology of the University of Port Elizabeth, who had done attitude surveys in the private sector, for advice regarding the questionnaire. The meeting ended at 11:00.

At 15:30 on the same day as the meeting with Mr Kemp, 23 February 1995, a meeting was arranged and attended with Professor Kampher regarding the questionnaire. Professor Kampher informed me of a controlling mechanism, a social desirability scale, known as the Crown-Marlow scale, to detect untruthful responses from respondents in attitude surveys. Professor Campher suggested that a pilot study be embarked upon with a small number of selected individuals that would respond to the questions in conditions simulated as closely as possible to the actual environment of the actual respondents. This pilot survey would then be provisionally analysed by the statistician, who would use a technique such as the social desirability scale to filter out questions that may cause respondents to answer untruthfully.

He also emphasised that **attitude** would be one of two possible dimensions in the questionnaire, the other dimension being **behaviour**, that would have to be measured. The question of

the inclusion of behaviour measurement in the research would have to be decided upon in consultation with the supervisors. It is, however, possible that **behaviour** findings may not correlate with the findings on **attitude** of the target population for the survey.

In the light of the obstacles to the finalising of the questionnaire it is now intended to wait for the input of Miss Greyling from the university of Stellenbosch, incorporate the changes, if any, suggested by her, incorporate the measures as expounded in the literature listed at the end of this letter, produce a revised questionnaire, having a pilot study done, having it statistically analysed in terms of the social desirability scale to filter out questions that may elicit an untruthful response, and then, hopefully, have an instrument available that could be used to arrive at scientifically justifiable results.

Your comments and advice in the above regard would be most appreciated.



Naas Ferreira

#### LIST OF APPLICABLE LITERATURE

de Wet, J.J. et al. 1981. Navorsingsmetodes in die Opvoedkunde. Durban: Butterworths.

Hughes, J.H. 1987. The Philosophy of Social Research. New York: Longman.

Manheim, J.B. and Rich, R.C. 1981. Empirical Political Analysis. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

Nagel, S. (ed). 1994. African Development and Public Policy. London: Macmillan.

Welch, S. and Comer, J. 1988. Quantitative Methods for Public Administration. Chicago: Dorsey.

Zimbardo, P. and Ebbesen, E.B. 1969. Influencing Attitudes and Changing Behaviour. Reading: Addison-Wesley.



30 March 1995

Dear Dr/Sir/Madam

**PERSONNEL RELATIONS SURVEY AT THE PORT ELIZABETH TECHNIKON**

I am currently engaged in a research project that is aiming to improve personnel relations in state funded and state subsidised institutions. As the question of personnel relations is viewed as a major contributor to employee effectiveness, the aim with the research project is to identify possible obstacles to harmonious team work and **esprit de corps** among staff members. As part of a pilot study that will serve as a precursor to a national study which will encompass all central and provincial state funded and state subsidised institutions, your response to a number of questions regarding orientation procedures in public institutions will be most appreciated.

The attached self-administered questionnaire has been designed to measure relations in the workplace between races, gender and towards the handicapped.

The questionnaire has been prepared to require the minimum time to complete, while the answers given will play an important role in the successful continuance and completion of the research project.

All information will be treated in the strictest confidence and it will not be possible to identify any individual or groups of individuals on the strength of the results included in the final report.

Thank you for agreeing to complete the questionnaire. Experiments have shown that the average time taken to complete the questionnaire is between 5 and 10 minutes. I trust that this request will not inconvenience you unnecessarily.

Please return the completed questionnaire at your earliest convenience to me via the internal mail system.

Any comments on the questionnaire itself will be appreciated.

Due to time constraints, an early return will be highly esteemed.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully.



I.W. Ferreira.  
Senior Lecturer  
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND LAW  
FACULTY OF COMMERCE AND PUBLIC MANAGEMENT

TELEFOON EN FAKSNOMMERS

ANNEXURE 6

041-5043800 (tel); 041-5043820 (faks)

---

---

---

Geagte Dr/Mnr/Dame

**HOUDINGSOPNAME IN DIE STAATSDIENS.**

Die kwessie van menseverhoudings word as 'n primêre bydraende faktor tot effektiewe dienslewering in die staatsdiens gesien. 'n Navorsingsprojek wat ten doel het om vlakke van dienslewering van staatsamptenare te verhoog, word tans deur my onderneem. Die doel met die navorsingsprojek is om moontlike struikelblokke in die pad van harmonieuse spanwerk en groepsgees onderling tussen staatsamptenare te identifiseer. Die data aldus ingewin sal as basis vir die ontwikkeling en voorstel van 'n normatiewe model vir bepaalde aspekte van opleiding en ontwikkeling met spesifieke verwysing na oriënteringsopleiding dien. Die toetsmeganisme is in die vorm van 'n vraelys wat ontwerp is om houdings teenoor en tussen verskillende rasse en geslagsgroepe sowel as gestremdes in die staatsdiens te meet. Die resultate van so 'n houdingsopname sal die strukturering van onder andere opleiding vir oriëntering bepaal wat eventueel in die normatiewe model gereflekteer sal word.

Die navorsingsprojek word vir akademiese doeleindes onderneem en word gesamentlik deur die Port Elizabethse Technikon en die Universiteit van Durban-Westville finansiëel gesteun. Die projek word deur die volgende navorsingsadviseurs bestuur:

- Dr H.F. Wissink, Departementshoof, Departement Publieke Administrasie en Regte, Fakulteit Handel en Openbare Bestuur, Port Elizabethse Technikon, Posbus X6011, PORT ELIZABETH, 6000, telefoon (041)-5043814 en faksnommer (041)-5043820.
- Dr M.S. Bayat, Senior Lektor, Departement Publieke Administrasie, Fakulteit Handel en Administrasie, Universiteit van Durban-Westville, Privaatsak X54001, DURBAN, 4000, telefoon (031)8202576 en faksnommer (031)8202808.

Die teikenpopulasie vir die invul van die vraelys bestaan uit persone wat poste op die hoofdirekteurevlak en die direkteurevlak in beide die sentrale en provinsiale owerheidsdienste beklee. Diesodanige individue sal **nie geïdentifiseer word nie** en slegs die bepaalde posbenamings sal

in aanmerking geneem word vir insluiting in 'n seleksieproses. Die betrokke poste op die twee posvlakke binne individuele departemente in elkeen van die twee regeringsvlakke sal op 'n ewekansige steekproefbasis gekies word as synde verteenwoordigend van 'n bepaalde persentasie van die teikenposte vir die invul van die vraelys te wees. Dit word in die vooruitsig gestel dat die individue wat die betrokke poste op daardie tydstip beklee, die vraelys sal invul. Daar sal egter onder geen omstandighede na spesifieke individue ten opsigte van die invul van die vraelys verwys kan word nie. Slegs die-vir-die-navorsing-anonieme bekleërs van die poste wat deur die steekproefproses geselekteer word, sal gevra word om die vraelys in te vul.

Alhoewel die vraelys op so 'n wyse voorberei is dat dit die minimum tyd in beslag sal neem om in te vul, moet dit benadruk word dat die vroegtydige terugstuur van die vraelys essensieel vir die suksesvolle afhandeling van die navorsingsprojek is. Die antwoorde sal 'n belangrike rol in die uiteindelijke ontwerp en struktuur van die beoogde normatiewe model speel.

Toetse het getoon dat die gemiddelde tydsduur om die vraelys in te vul tussen 5 en 10 minute beloop. Dit word vertrou dat die versoek u en die respondente nie onnodig sal verontrief nie.

Alle inligting sal met die grootste vertroulikheid gehanteer word en dit word weereens beklemtoon dat dit nie moontlik sal wees om enige individu of groepe individue ingevolge die resultate in die finale verslag ingesluit, te identifiseer nie. Binne hierdie konteks word anonimiteit aan die respondent gewaarborg.

Onder die omstandighede sal dit hoog op prys gestel word as u my, vir die doel van die navorsingsprojek, van slegs die hoofdirekteurs- en direkteursposbenamings, soos in die organisatoriese struktuur van u instelling gereflekteer, kan voorsien sodat die nodige ewekansige steekproefprosedure in werking gestel kan word.

U samewerking en bystand met die hantering van die vraelys word hoog op prys gestel. Die finale verslag sal na afhandeling vir u insae beskikbaar wees.

Nogmaals baie dankie.

Die uwe.



I.W. Ferreira.

Senior Lektor, Departement Publieke Administrasie en Regte  
Fakulteit Handel en Openbare Bestuur  
Port Elizabethse Technikon

TELEPHONE AND FAX NUMBERS

ANNEXURE 7

Work - 041-5043800 (tel); 041-5043820 (fax)  
Home - 041-713681

P.O. Box 12637  
Centrahil  
6006  
1 February 1995

---

Dear Dr/Sir/Madam

**ATTITUDE SURVEY IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE**

I am currently engaged in a research project that is aiming to improve levels of service rendering performance of officials in the government service. As the question of human relations is viewed as a major contributor to employee effectiveness, the aim with the research project is to identify possible obstacles to harmonious team work and **esprit de corps** among government service personnel. Thereafter a normative model for certain aspects of training and development for all levels of government service personnel will be developed and proposed.

The attached questionnaire has been designed to measure attitudes towards and between different races and sexes as well as handicapped persons in the government service.

Although the questionnaire has been prepared in such a way as to require the minimum time to complete, it must be emphasised that the timeous return of the completed questionnaire is essential to the successful completion of the research project. The answers given will play an important role in the eventual design and structure of the envisaged normative model.

All information will be treated in the strictest confidence and it will not be possible to identify any individual or groups of individuals on the strength of the results included in the final report.

Thank you for agreeing to complete the questionnaire. Experiments have shown that the average time taken to complete the questionnaire is between 5 and 10 minutes. I trust that this request will not inconvenience you unnecessarily.

Please return the completed questionnaire at your earliest convenience to me as per the attached stamped, addressed envelope.

Thank you again.

Yours faithfully.

  
I.W. Ferreira.

TELEFOON EN FAKSNOMMERS

Werk - 041-5043800 (tel); 041-5043820 (faks)  
Huis - 041-713681

**ANNEXURE 8**  
Posbus 12637  
Centrahil  
6006  
1 Februarie 1995

---



---



---

Geagte Dr/Mnr/Dame

**HOUDINGSOPNAME IN THE STAATSDIENS.**

Ek is tans besig met 'n navorsingsprojek wat ten doel het om vlakke van dienslewering van staatsamptenare te verhoog. Aangesien die kwessie van menseverhoudings as 'n primêre bydraende faktor tot werknemereffektiwiteit gesien word, is die doel met die navorsingsprojek om moontlike struikelblokke in die pad van harmonieuse spanwerk en groepsgees onderling tussen staatsamptenare te identifiseer. Daarna sal 'n normatiewe model vir bepaalde aspekte van opleiding en ontwikkeling vir alle vlakke van staatsdienspersoneel ontwikkel en voorgestel word.

Die aangehegte vraelys is ontwerp om houdings teenoor en tussen verskillende rasse en geslagsgroepe sowel as gestremdes in die staatsdiens te meet.

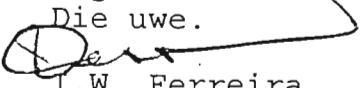
Alhoewel die vraelys op so 'n wyse voorberei is dat dit die minimum tyd in beslag sal neem om in te vul, moet dit benadruk word dat die tydigte terugstuur van die vraelys essensieel vir die suksesvolle afhandeling van die navorsingsprojek is. Die antwoorde sal 'n belangrike rol in die uiteindelijke ontwerp en struktuur van die beoogde normatiewe model speel.

Alle inligting sal met die grootste vertroulikheid gehanteer word en dit sal nie moontlik wees om enige individu of groepe individue ingevolge die resultate in die finale verslag ingesluit, te identifiseer nie.

Baie dankie dat u ingewillig het om die vraelys in te vul. Toetse het getoon dat die gemiddelde tydsduur om die vraelys in te vul tussen 5 en 10 minute beloop. Ek vertrou dat hierdie versoek u nie onnodig sal verontrief nie.

Stuur asseblief die voltooide vraelys so gou as moontlik in die aangehegte ge-adresseerde en geseëlde koevert aan my terug.

Nogmaals baie dankie.  
Die uwe.

  
I.W. Ferreira.

P O R T   E L I Z A B E T H   T E C H N I K O N

TELEPHONE AND FAX NUMBERS

Work - tel - 041-5043893; fax - 041-5043920  
Home - tel - 041-713681; fax - 041-343519

P.O.Box 12637  
Centrahil  
6006  
1 July 1995

The Director-General  
Department  
of \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Dear Dr/Sir/Madam

TRAINING SURVEY IN DIE PUBLIC SERVICE

The attached questionnaire is part of a D.Admin study project. The target population is a sample of the posts of Chief Director and higher, and directors' posts in the different government departments, including your department, as well as similar posts in the nine provinces. The nature and extent of the project is explained in more detail in the covering letter to the questionnaire.

I will appreciate it if you would possible be able to arrange that a sample of approximately 30% of your senior personnel, in the abovementioned posts, complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire has been designed to take a maximum time of ten minutes to complete. No names have to be given and **complete anonymity is guaranteed.**

As I envisage to visit your office personally during the month of July to collect the completed questionnaires, it would not be necessary to return the vorms by post.

Thank you for your assistance in this regard.

Yours faithfully



I.W. Ferreira  
Senior Lektor: Departement van Publieke Administrasie en Regte  
Port Elizabethse Technikon.

## ANNEXURE 10

## P O R T   E L I Z A B E T H S E   T E C H N I K O N

## TELEFOON EN FAKSNOMMERS

Werk - tel - 041-5043893; faks - 041-5043920

Huis - tel - 041-713681; faks - 041-343519

Posbus 12637

Centrahil

6006

1 Julie 1995

Die Direkteur-Generaal  
 Departement  
 van \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

Geagte Dr/Mnr/Dame

**OPLEIDINGSOPNAME IN DIE STAATSDIENS**

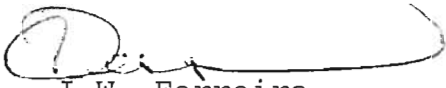
Die aangehegte vraelys is deel van 'n D.Admin studieprojek. Die teikenpopulasie is 'n monster van die poste van Hoofdirekteur en hoër en direkteursposte in die verskillende staatsdepartemente, insluitende u departement, asook soortgelyk poste in die nege provinsies. Die aard en omvang van die projek word meer breedvoerig in die dekkingsbrief tot die vraelys beskryf.

Ek sal dit hoog op prys stel as u moontlik kan reël dat 'n monster van ongeveer 30% van u senior personeel, in die bogenoemde posvlakke, die vraelys kan invul. Die vraelys is ontwerp om 'n maksimum van 10 minute van die respondent se tyd in beslag te neem. Geen name hoef verstrekk te word nie en volkome anonimiteit word gewaarborg.

Aangesien ek beoog om gedurende die loop van Juliemaand 'n persoonlike besoek by u kantoor af te lê om die vraelyste te kom kollekteer, is dit nie nodig om die vorms terug te pos nie.

Baie dankie vir u bystand in hierdie verband.

Die uwe.



I.W. Ferreira

Senior Lektor: Departement van Publieke Administrasie en Regte  
Port Elizabethse Technikon.



## RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

## SECTION A. BIOGRAPHICAL DETAILS

POST LEVEL	X		GOVERNMENT LEVEL	X	
CHIEF DIRECTOR AND HIGHER			CENTRAL		
DIRECTOR			PROVINCIAL		

## CENTRAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENT WHERE EMPLOYED (OPTIONAL)

DEPARTMENT	X		DEPARTMENT	X	
AGRICULTURE			ARTS, CULTURE, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY		
CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT			CORRECTIONAL SERVICES		
EDUCATION			ENVIRONMENTAL AFFAIRS AND TOURISM		
FINANCE			FOREIGN AFFAIRS		
HEALTH			HOME AFFAIRS		
HOUSING			JUSTICE		
LABOUR			LAND AFFAIRS		
MINERAL AND ENERGY AFFAIRS			PUBLIC WORKS		
SPORT AND RECREATION			STATE EXPENDITURE		
TRADE AND INDUSTRY			TRANSPORT		
WATER AFFAIRS AND FORESTRY			WELFARE		
NATIONAL INTELLIGENCE SERVICE			OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT		
PUBLIC SERVICE COMMISSION			NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE		
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE			CENTRAL ECONOMIC ADVISORY SERVICE		
CENTRAL STATISTICAL SERVICE			OFFICE OF THE EXECUTIVE DEPUTY PRESIDENT OF THE LARGEST MAJORITY PARTY		
OFFICE OF THE EXECUTIVE PRESIDENT OF THE LARGEST MINORITY PARTY			OFFICE FOR PUBLIC ENTERPRISES		
SOUTH AFRICAN COMMUNICATION SERVICES			OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY)		

AGE GROUP (IN YEARS) (Please mark the applicable block with an "X").											
20 - 30				31 - 40				41 - 50			
51 - 60				61 - 70				71 +			

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT DEPARTMENTS

PROVINCE	X	
EASTERN CAPE		
EASTERN TRANSVAAL		
GAUTENG		
KWAZULU-NATAL		
NORTH WEST		
NORTHERN CAPE		
NORTHERN TRANSVAAL		
ORANGE FREE STATE		
WESTERN CAPE		

MOTHER TONGUE	X		MOTHER TONGUE	X		MOTHER TONGUE	X	
ENGLISH			ISIZULU			SISWATI		
AFRIKAANS			SESOTHO			TSIVENDA		
ISINDEBELE			SESOTHO SA LEBOA			XITSONGA		
ISIXHOSA			SETSWANA			OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY)		

GENDER	X	
MALE		
FEMALE		

**SECTION B. QUESTIONNAIRE**

For the purposes of this questionnaire the term "black" includes the terms Africans, Coloureds and Asians.

Please mark the appropriate block with an "X".

STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	<b>LEGEND:</b> 1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree
1. There should be different orientation programs for new and existing officials.						
2. Orientation programs should be coordinated from the central personnel authority (the Public Service Commission).						
3. Orientation programs should contain information about the history of the institution.						
4. Orientation programs should be managed autonomously by each department.						
5. Different orientation programs should be presented to different population groups.						
6. Senior officials in each department should take part in presenting orientation programs.						

Please mark the appropriate block with an "X".

STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	<b>LEGEND:</b> 1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree
7. Orientation training should take place immediately after commencement of service.						
8. Demonstrating is a justified response for government officials to air their grievances.						
9. Orientation training for new appointees should take place after a few weeks of service.						
10. Existing officials should undergo regular orientation training.						
11. Affirmative action with respect to disabled persons is necessary when filling government posts.						
12. A code of ethics for government officials should form part of orientation training programs.						
13. Orientation programs can contribute to better morale and group spirit among employees.						

Please mark the appropriate block with an "X".

STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	LEGEND:
14. Orientation programs should make provision for the fact that blacks are being economically exploited in this country.						1 = Strongly disagree
15. The appointment of an experienced official to facilitate the integration of new officials into the institution (the "mentor system") is necessary for successful orientation.						2 = Disagree
16. Affirmative action with respect to gender is necessary when filling government posts.						3 = Undecided
17. Every government official should be fluent in the use of English.						4 = Agree
18. Orientation programs should at least be conducted over periods of one week.						5 = Strongly agree
19. Orientation training should take place away from the normal workplace.						

Please mark the appropriate block with an "X".

STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	LEGEND:
20. Accepting a post in a subordinate position to a person of another population group should not cause relationship problems in the workplace.						1 = Strongly disagree
21. The ergonomic environment (ease of work) of the new appointee on commencement of service is important to ensure a positive attitude from the beginning.						2 = Disagree
22. Accepting a post in a subordinate position to a person of another gender should not cause relationship problems in the workplace.						3 = Undecided
23. Orientation programs should include information about continued education and training.						4 = Agree
24. The Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) will be as successful as was originally anticipated.						5 = Strongly agree

Please mark the appropriate block with an "X".

STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	LEGEND:
25. Orientation training should include information about staff appraisal systems in the workplace.						1 = Strongly disagree
26. Government officials without applicable qualifications and experience should be encouraged to take early retirement.						2 = Disagree
27. Orientation training should include information about career planning and advancement in the workplace.						3 = Undecided
28. Affirmative action with respect to previously disadvantaged population groups is necessary when filling government posts.						4 = Agree
29. Orientation programs help to instill feelings of security, pride and confidence in the new appointee.						5 = Strongly agree

Please mark the appropriate block with an "X".

STATEMENTS	1	2	3	4	5	LEGEND:
30. Orientation training should form an integral part of general training programs in departments.						1 = Strongly disagree
31. Orientation training for senior government officials should include training for a positive attitude towards the RDP.						2 = Disagree
32. Different types of misconduct and disciplinary procedures should form part of orientation programs.						3 = Undecided
33. The influence of Western philosophies contributed to a better quality of life for the indigenous peoples of South Africa.						4 = Agree
34. There should be a standard in respect of socially unacceptable mannerisms (such as exaggerated convulsions and twitches) in the government service.						5 = Strongly agree
35. Information about the established grievance procedure should form part of orientation programs.						

Please mark the appropriate block with an "X".

STATEMENTS		1	2	3	4	5	<b>LEGEND:</b>  1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree
36.	Orientation programs should emphasise the mission and strategic position of the institution.						
37.	There should be a standard of physical appearance in the government service in respect of a dress code.						
38.	Orientation programs should contain information about the role and place of the public official within the political, executive, administrative and functional environments.						
39.	Gender discrimination still exists in the government service.						

Please mark the appropriate block with an "X".

STATEMENTS		1	2	3	4	5	<b>LEGEND:</b>  1 = Strongly disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Undecided 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly agree
40.	Females are better suited to secretarial work than males.						
41.	Orientation training should include training in how to deal with the public.						
42.	Policy implementation by the government in accordance with African customs and traditions will bring about prosperity for the peoples of South Africa.						
43.	Females that meet the necessary requirements should in all respects be treated on an equal basis as males when senior managers in the government service are selected.						
44.	Orientation programs should be presented to all officials during regular intervals throughout their careers.						
45.	Disabled individuals that meet the requirements should in all respects be treated on an equal basis as other candidates when senior managers in the government service are selected.						

## NAVORSINGSVRAELYS

## AFDELING A

## BIOGRAFIESE BESONDERHEDE

POSVLAK	X		OWERHEIDSVLAK	X	
HOOFDIREKTEUR EN HOËR			SENTRALE REGERINGSVLAK		
DIREKTEUR			PROVINSIALE REGERINGSVLAK		

## SENTRALE STAATSDEPARTEMENT WAAR WERKSAAM (OPSIONEEL)

DEPARTEMENT	X		DEPARTEMENT	X	
LANDBOU			KUNS, KULTUUR, WETENSKAP EN TEGNOLOGIE		
STAATKUNDIGE ONTWIKKELING			KORREKTIEWE DIENSTE		
ONDERWYS			OMGEWINGSAKE EN TOERISME		
FINANSIES			BUITELANDSE SAKE		
GESONDHEID			BINNELANDSE SAKE		
BEHUISING			JUSTISIE		
ARBEID			GRONDSAKE		
MINERAAL EN ENERGIESAKE			OPENBARE WERKE		
SPORT EN ONTSPANNING			OWERHEIDSBESTEDING		
HANDEL EN NYWERHEID			VERVOER		
WATERWESE EN BOSBOU			WELSYN		
NASIONALE INTELLIGENSIEDIENS			KANTOOR VAN DIE STAATSPRESIDENT		
STAATSDIENSKOMMISSIE			VERDEDIGING		
SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS			SENTRALE EKONOMIESE ADVIESDIENS		
SENTRALE STATISTIEKDIENS			KANTOOR VAN DIE UITVOERENDE ADJUNKPRESIDENT VAN DIE GROOTSTE MEERDERHEIDSPARTY		
KANTOOR VAN DIE UITVOERENDE PRESIDENT VAN DIE GROOTSTE MINDERHEIDSPARTY			KANTOOR VIR STAATSHANDELSONDERNEMINGS		
SUID-AFRIKAANSE KOMMUNIKASIEDIENSTE			ANDER (SPESIFISEER ASSEBLIEF)		

OUDERDOMSGROEP (IN JARE) (merk asseblief die toepaslike blokkie met 'n "X").					
20 - 30			31 - 40		41 - 50
51 - 60			61 - 70		71 +

PROVINSIES

PROVINSIE	X	
OOSKAAP		
MPUMALANGA		
GAUTENG		
KWAZULU-NATAL		
NOORDWES		
NOORDKAAP		
NOORDELIKE PROVINSIE		
VRYSTAAT		
WESKAAP		

MOEDERTAAL	X		MOEDERTAAL	X		MOEDERTAAL	X	
AFRIKAANS			ISIZULU			SISWATI		
ENGELS			SESOTHO			TSIVENDA		
ISINDEBELE			SESOTHO SA LEBOA			XITSONGA		
ISIXHOSA			SETSWANA			OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY)		

GESLAG	X	
MANLIK		
VROULIK		



**AFDELING B VRAELYS**

Vir die doeleindes van hierdie vraelys sluit die term "swart" die terms swartmense, kleurlinge en asiatische in.

Merk asseblief die toepaslike blokkie met 'n "X".

STELLINGS	1	2	3	4	5	GIDS:
1. Daar behoort verskillende oriënteringsprogramme vir nuwe en bestaande beamptes te wees.						<b>1 = Verskil geheel-en-al</b> <b>2 = Verskil</b> <b>3 = Nie seker nie</b> <b>4 = Stem saam</b> <b>5 = Stem volkome saam</b>
2. Oriënteringsprogramme moet vanaf die sentrale personeelgesag (die Staatsdienskommissie) geko-ordineer word.						
3. Oriënteringsprogramme behoort inligting oor die geskiedenis van die instelling te bevat.						
4. Oriënteringsprogramme behoort outonoom deur elke departement bestuur te word.						
5. Verskillende oriënteringsprogramme behoort vir verskillende bevolkingsgroepe aangebied te word.						
6. Senior beamptes in elke departement behoort deel te neem aan die aanbieding van oriënteringsprogramme.						

Merk asseblief die toepaslike blokkie met 'n "X".

STELLINGS	1	2	3	4	5	GIDS:
7. Oriënteringsopleiding behoort onmiddellik na diensaanvaarding plaas te vind.						<b>1 = Verskil geheel-en-al</b> <b>2 = Verskil</b> <b>3 = Nie seker nie</b> <b>4 = Stem saam</b> <b>5 = Stem volkome saam</b>
8. Betogings is 'n geregverdigde responsmeganisme vir staatsampnare om hul griewe te lug.						
9. Oriënteringsopleiding vir nuwe aanstellings behoort eers na 'n aantal weke diens 'n aanvang te neem.						
10. Bestaande beamptes behoort gereeld oriënteringsopleiding te ondergaan.						
11. Regstellende aksie met betrekking tot gestremde persone is nodig wanneer regeringsdiensposte gevul word.						
12. 'n Gedragskode vir regeringsdiensampnare behoort deel van oriënteringsopleiding te wees.						
13. Oriënteringsprogramme kan tot beter moraal en groepsgees onder werknemers bydra.						

Merk asseblief die toepaslike blokkie met 'n "X".

STELLINGS	1	2	3	4	5	GIDS:
14. Oriënteringsprogramme behoort vir die feit voorsiening te maak dat swartmense in hierdie land onder ekonomiese eksploitasie ly.						<b>1 = Verskil geheel-en-al</b> <b>2 = Verskil</b> <b>3 = Nie seker nie</b> <b>4 = Stem saam</b> <b>5 = Stem volkome saam</b>
15. Die aanstelling van 'n ervare beampte om die integrering van nuwe beamptes in die instelling te fasiliteer (die sogenaamde "mentor"-stelsel) is nodig vir suksesvolle oriëntering.						
16. Regstellende aksie met betrekking tot geslag is nodig wanneer staatsdiensposte gevul word.						
17. Elke staatsamptenaar moet Engels vlot kan gebruik.						
18. Oriënteringsprogramme behoort minstens oor 'n tydperk van een week aangebied te word.						
19. Oriënteringsopleiding behoort weg van die normale werkplek te geskied.						

Merk asseblief die toepaslike blokkie met 'n "X".

STELLINGS	1	2	3	4	5	GIDS:
20. Aanvaarding van 'n pos in ondergeskikte 'n posisie tot 'n persoon van 'n ander bevolkingsgroep behoort nie verhoudingsprobleme te veroorsaak nie.						<b>1 = Verskil geheel-en-al</b> <b>2 = Verskil</b> <b>3 = Nie seker nie</b> <b>4 = Stem saam</b> <b>5 = Stem volkome saam</b>
21. Die ergonomiese omgewing waarin die nuwe aanstelling hom direk na aanstelling bevind is belangrik om 'n positiewe houding teenoor die werk van die begin af te verseker.						
22. Aanvaarding van 'n pos in 'n ondergeskikte posisie tot 'n persoon van 'n ander geslag behoort nie verhoudingsprobleme te veroorsaak nie.						
23. Oriënteringsprogramme behoort inligting oor voortgesette onderrig en opleiding in te sluit.						
24. Die Heropbou- en Ontwikkelingsprogram (HOP) sal so suksesvol wees as wat aanvanklik beplan was.						

Merk asseblief die toepaslike blokkie met 'n "X"

STELLINGS		1	2	3	4	5	GIDS:
25.	Oriënteringsopleiding behoort inligting oor personeel evalueringstelsels in die werkplek in te sluit.						<b>1 = Verskil geheel-en-al</b> <b>2 = Verskil</b> <b>3 = Nie seker nie</b> <b>4 = Stem saam</b> <b>5 = Stem volkome saam</b>
26.	Staatsamptenare sonder toepaslike kwalifikasies en ondervinding behoort aangemoedig te word om vroeg af te tree.						
27.	Oriënteringsopleiding behoort inligting oor loopbaanbeplanning- en vordering in die werkplek te bevat.						
28.	Regstellende aksie ten opsigte van agtergeblewe groepe is nodig wanneer regeringsdiensposte gevul word.						
29.	Oriënteringsprogramme dra by daartoe om gevoelens van sekuriteit, trots en vertroue in die nuwe aanstelling te kweek.						

Merk asseblief die toepaslike blokkie met 'n "X".

STELLINGS		1	2	3	4	5	GIDS:
30.	Oriënteringsprogramme behoort 'n integrerende deel van algemene opleidingsprogramme in departemente te vorm.						<b>1 = Verskil geheel-en-al</b> <b>2 = Verskil</b> <b>3 = Nie seker nie</b> <b>4 = Stem saam</b> <b>5 = Stem volkome saam</b>
31.	Oriënteringsprogramme vir senior staatsamptenare behoort opleiding vir 'n positiewe houding teenoor die HOP in te sluit.						
32.	Verskillende tipes wangedrag- en dissiplinêre prosedures behoort deel te wees van oriënteringsprogramme.						
33.	Die invloed van Westerse filosofieë het bygedra tot 'n beter lewenskwaliteit vir die inheemse mense van Suid-Afrika.						
34.	Daar behoort 'n standaard ten opsigte van sosiaal onaanvaarbare maniertjies (soos oordrewe stuiptrekkings en bewegings) in die staatsdiens te wees.						
35.	Inligting oor die gevestigde grieweprosedure behoort deel van oriënteringsprogramme te wees.						

Merk asseblief die toepaslike blokkie met 'n "X".

STELLINGS		1	2	3	4	5	GIDS:  1 = Verskil geheel-en-al  2 = Verskil  3 = Nie seker nie  4 = Stem saam  5 = Stem volkome saam
36.	Oriënteringsprogramme behoort die missie en strategiese posisie van die instelling te beklemtoon.						
37.	Daar behoort 'n standaard vir fisiese voorkoms in die staatsdiens te wees.						
38.	Oriënteringsprogramme behoort inligting oor die rol en plek van die openbare amptenaar binne die politieke, uitvoerende, administratiewe en funksionele omgewings te bevat.						
39.	Geslagsdiskriminasie bestaan nog steeds in die staatsdiens.						

Merk asseblief die toepaslike blokkie met 'n "X".

STELLINGS		1	2	3	4	5	GIDS:  1 = Verskil geheel-en-al  2 = Verskil  3 = Nie seker nie  4 = Stem saam  5 = Stem volkome saam
40.	Dames is beter as mans vir sekretariële werk toegerus.						
41.	Oriënteringsopleiding behoort opleiding in hantering met die publiek te bevat.						
42.	Beleidsimplementering deur die regering in ooreenstemming met Afrikagewoontes en tradisies sal welvaart vir die mense van Suid-Afrika teweegbring.						
43.	Dames wat die nodige vereistes nakom behoort in alle opsigte op 'n gelyke basis as mans behandel te word wanneer senior bestuurders in die staatsdiens gekeur word.						
44.	Oriënteringsprogramme behoort gereëld vir alle beamptes gedurende hul loopbane aangebied te word.						
45.	Gestremde individue wat die vereistes nakom behoort in alle opsigte op 'n gelyke basis as ander kandidate behandel te word wanneer senior bestuurders in die staatsdiens gekeur word.						

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adamson, H. 1972. **Starting Work**. London: The Industrial Society.
- Adlem, W.L.J. and Botes, P.S. 1977. **Die Publieke Administrasie in Ontwikkelende en Ontwikkelde Lande**. Public Administration notes, study guide 1 for PBL303-K and PBA303-3. UNISA. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- African National Congress. 1994. **Reconstruction and Development Programme**. Johannesburg: African National Congress.
- Allen, L.A. 1958. **Management and Organization**. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Allport, G.W. 1954. **The Nature of Prejudice**. Massachusetts. Addison-Wesley.
- American Society: **Training and Development Training and Development Handbook**. 1971. New York: The Society.
- Amptenare vermaan oor HOP. 1994. Reporter. **Die Burger**, 11 July, p.2. col. 1.
- Andrews, A. 1987. **Die Personeelfunksie**. Pretoria: Haum.
- Anthony, P.A. & Nicholson, E.A. 1977. **Management of Human Resources. A Systems Approach to Personnel Management**. Ohio: Columbus.
- Applbaum, R.L. and Anatol, K.W.E. 1974. **Strategies for Persuasive Communication**. Columbus: Merrill.
- Argyris, C. 1964. **Integrating the Individual and The Organization**. New York: Wiley.
- Backer W. 1973. **Motivating Black Workers**. Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill.
- Bakke, E.W. 1955. **The Fusion Process**. New Haven: Yale University; Labor and Management Center.
- Ban, C. 1995. **How do Public Managers Manage? Bureaucratic Constraints, Organisational Culture, and the Potential for Reform**. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Banks, O. 1960. **The Attitudes of Steel Workers to Technical Change**. Liverpool: Liverpool University Press.
- Barber, J.W. (ed.) 1968. **Industrial Training Handbook**. London: A.S. Barnes & Company.

Barling, J., Fullagar, C. Q. Bluen, S. (eds). 1986. **Behaviour in Organizations. South African Perspectives Research.** (2 ed) Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill.

Bayat, M.S. 1994. Teaching public administration: a challenge for curriculum development. **Public Administration: concepts, theory and practice.** Ed. Bayat, S.M. and Meyer, I.H. Halfway House: Southern. pp. 3-19.

Bayat, M.S. 1991. "Perspectives for Public Administration in Post Apartheid South Africa", **Acta Academica**, V.23. Nr. 3. Bloemfontein. University of the Orange Free State.

Bayat, M.S. and Meyer, I. (Eds). 1994. **Public Administration: Concepts, Theory and Practice.** Halfway House: Southern.

Bayat, M.S. and Wissink, H.F. 1994. Education, training and practice strategies for civil service reform. **Public Administration: concepts, theory and practice.** Ed. Bayat, S.M. and Meyer, I.H. Halfway House: Southern. pp. 271-287.

Bayat, M.S. 1990. "Public Administration: Principles and Norms for the Future. **Administratio Publica**, Association of Teachers in Public Administration, V.2. Nr. 2. Stellenbosch. University of Stellenbosch.

Beach, D.S. 1975. **Personnel: the Management of People at Work.** New York: Mcmillan.

Bebb, M. 1970. **Effective Induction Training.** Johannesburg: N.D.M.F.

Bebb, V.R.M. 1970. **The Psychology of Learner-Controlled Instruction.** Braamfontein: I.P.M.

Beekman, J.F. 1982. Representative Bureaucracy and the Public Service. **Publico.** V. 2. No. 1. pp. 14-15.

Belbin, E.M. 1972. **Problems in Adult Retraining.** London: Heinemann.

Belbin, R.M. 1965. **Training Methods for Older Workers.** Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Bennis, W.G. 1966. **Changing Organizations.** New York: McGraw-Hill. Berelson, B. (ed.) 1964. **The Behavioral Sciences Today.** New York: Harper and Row.

Beveridge, A. 1963. **Apprenticeship Now.** London: Chapman and Hall.

Bienvenu, B. 1969. **New Priorities in Training.** Connecticut: A.M.A.

- Bishop, M.H. 1969. *Dynamic Supervision*. New York:
- Bergh, O.M. 1981. Opleiding en Benutting van Swart Amptenare: Opleidingsfasiliteite, Programme, Kursusse. (Human Sciences Research Council Report).
- Berry, M.F. 1995. Affirmative Action. Emerge: Black America's news magazine. Vol. 6. No. 7. pp. 29-48.
- Béteille, A. 1993. Affirmative Action: the International Experience. Development and Democracy. (Vol. nr. not stated). May 1993. Johannesburg: Issued by the Development Strategy and Policy Unit of the Urban Foundation. pp. 7-8.
- Bittel, L. 1968. *What every Supervisor Should Know*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Blake, R.R. et al. 1966. *Corporate Darwinism*. Texas: Gulf Publishing Company.
- Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. 1964. *The Managerial Grid*. Texas: Gulf Publishing Company.
- Blauner, R. 1964. *Alienation and Freedom*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- Blauner, R. 1960. *Work Satisfaction and Industrial Trends in modern Society.* In *Labour and Trade Unionism*.
- Blood, J.W. (ed.) 1964. *The Personnel Job in a Changing World*. New York: A.M.A.
- Bloom, L. 1971. *The Social Psychology of Race Relations*. London: George Allen & Unwin Ltd.
- Bobbitt, H.R. (Jr.), Breinholt, R.H., Doktor, R.H., McNaul, J.P. 1978. *Organizational Behaviour*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Bolt, C. 1971. *Victorian Attitudes to Race*. Norfolk: Routledge and Kegan Paul Limited.
- Bostico, M. 1964. *Modern Personnel Management*. London: Business Publishers Limited.
- Botes, P.S. et al. 1992. *Public Administration and Management*. Pretoria: Haum.
- Bone, R.C. 1969. Malaysia. In Grolier Encyclopedia International, Vol. 11, pp. 262-267. New York: Grolier.
- Bosma, C. 1995. Discussion on statistical analysis September 1995. Port Elizabeth Technikon.
- Bosman, D.B. et al. 1962. *Tweetalige Woordeboek, Afrikaans-Engels*. Elsiesrivier: Nasionale Boekhandel.

- Bosman, D.B. et al. 1962. **Tweetalige Woordeboek, Engels-Afrikaans**. Elsiesrivier: Nasionale Boekhandel.
- Botes, P.S. 1970. 'n Kritiese beskouing van die bydrae van die Staatsdienskommissie tot oriënterings-en inlywingsopleiding (ongepubliseerde M.Admin verhandeling). Pretoria: Universiteit.
- Bozeman, B. (Ed). 1993. **Public Management: State of the Art**. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Brech, E.F.L. (ed.) 1965. **The Principles and Practice of Management**. London: Longmans.
- Brissenden, P.F. and Frankel, E. 1922. **Labour Turnover in Industry**. New York: Macmillan.
- Brown, J.A.C. 1963. **The Social Psychology of Industry**. Middlesex: Penguin Books.
- Brown, J.A.C. 1964. **Techniques of Persuasion: from Propaganda to Brainwashing**. Middlesex: Penguin.
- Brynard, D.J. 1992. The Changing Public Sector: a New Approach to Public Management. Administratio Publica. Vol. 4. No. 1. pp. 44-58.
- Caiden, G.E. 1982. **Public Administration**. Pacific Palisades: Palisades Publishers.
- Calhoon, R.P. and Kirkpatrick, C.A. 1956. **Influencing Employee Behavior**. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Camp, R.R., Blanchard, P.N. and Huszczo, G.E. 1986. **Toward a More Organizationally Effective Training Strategy & Practice**. Englewood Cliffs: Reston.
- Call for arrest of food scam fraudsters. 1995. Reporter. Eastern Province Herald, 10 August 1995, p. 2. c. 7.
- Campbell, A. 1971. **White Attitudes Towards Black People**. Michigan: Ann Arbor.
- Campbell, J.P. et al. 1970. **Management Behavior, Performance and Effectiveness**. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Carter, M. 1966. **Into Work**. Middlesex: Penguin Books.
- Carter, M.B. et al (eds) 1965. **Management: Challenge and Response**. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston Inc.
- Carsters, M. and Ngutshane, E. 1994. Modalities of administrative reform: a South African perspective. Public Administration: concepts, theory and practice. Ed. Bayat, S.M. and Meyer, I.H. Halfway House: Southern. pp. 249-269.



- Central Training Council, Department of Employee Productivity. 1969. **Training and Development of Managers. Further Proposals.** London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1969.
- Chruden, H.J. and Sherman, A.W. 1984. **Managing Human Resources.** Cincinnati: South-Western.
- Cloete, J.J.N. 1993. **Democracy: Prospects for South Africa.** Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Cloete, J.J.N. 1975. **Personeeladministrasie.** Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Cloete, J.J.N. 1976. **Inleiding tot die Publieke Administrasie.** Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Cloete, J.J.N. 1986. **Introduction to Public Administration.** Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Cloete, F. 1993. Turning Around the Ship of State. DSA in Depth. Ed. Van Zyl Slabbert. Vol. not stated. Nr. not stated. pp. 6 - 7.
- Cochrane, C. B. 1981. **The Training of Public Administrators in the KwaZulu Government Service.** (M.P.A.) University of Pretoria.
- Coetzee, J. March 1993. Bill of Fundamental Rights: A Perspective. RSA Policy Review. V.6. Nr. 2. pp. 1 - 17.
- Copi, I.M. 1969. Philosophy. In Grolier Encyclopedia International, vol. 14, pp. 286-287. New York: Grolier.
- Cuming, M.W. 1986. **The Theory and Practice of Personnel Management.** London: Heinemann.
- Cushman, F. 1940. **Training Procedure.** New York: John Wiley.
- Davis, J.H. 1969. **Group Performance.** Reading: Addison-Wesley.
- De Crespigny, A. & Cronin, J. (ed) 1975. **Ideologies of Politics.** Cape Town: Oxford Univ. Press.
- Dessler, G. 1981. **Personnel Management.** Reston: Prentice-Hall.
- Deverell, C.S. 1968. **Personnel Management - Human Relations in Industry.** London: Gee Company.
- Drucker, P.F. 1966. **The Practice of Management.** London : Mercury Books, 1966.

- Dubrin, A.J. 1990. **Essentials of Management**. Cincinnati : South-Western.
- Dunsire, A. 1975. **Administration: The Word and the Science**. London: Martin Robertson.
- Easton, D. 1979. **A Systems Analysis of Political Life**. London: University of Chicago Press.
- Department of Education and Training. 1986. **Induction course**. Port Elizabeth: Regional Office.
- Duckitt, J. and Foster, D. 1991. Introduction to the special issue: race, social attitudes and prejudice. South African Journal of Psychology. V. 21. Nr. 4. pp. 199 - 202.
- Ecker, H.P. et al. 1970. **Handbook for Supervisors**. New Jersey: Brentice-Hall.
- Editor. 1995. Affirmative Action: the Policy. Die Staatsamptenaar. No. 2.
- Epstein, B. and Cook, J. 1987. The Change Cycle. IPM Journal. V.6. Nr. 4. pp. 4 - 6.
- Erasmus, K. 1994. Systems Theory and Public Administration in South Africa. Public Administration: concepts, theory and practice. Ed. Bayat, S.M. and Meyer, I.H. Halfway House: Southern. pp. 83-101.
- Ferguson, T. and Cunnison, J. 1951. **The Young Wage-Earner**. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ferreira, I.W. 1995. **Submission to the Constitutional Assembly, Theme Committee 6 on the Government Service, regarding constitutional proposals**. Cape Town: Constitutional Assembly.
- Ferreira, I.W. 1995. **Discussion on orientation training for newly appointed officials during February/March 1962**. Interview on 8 August. East London: Department of Labour.
- Finnigan, J. 1970. **Industrial Training Management**. London: Business Books Ltd.
- Fishbein, M.A. 1967. "Attitude and the Prediction of Behavior." **Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement**. Fishbein, M.A. (ed.) New York: Wiley.
- Fisher, V.E. and Hanna, J.V. 1931. **The Dissatisfied Worker**. New York: Macmillan.
- FitzGerald, J.E. and A.F. 1973. **Fundamentals of Systems Analysis**. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

- FitzGerald, P. 1993. One Golden Precept. DSA in Depth. Ed. Van Zyl Slabbert. Vol. not stated. Nr. not stated. pp. 16 - 17.
- FitzGerald, P., McLennan, A. and Munslow, B. 1995. Sustainable development: turning vision into reality. Managing Sustainable Development in South Africa. Ed. by FitzGerald, P., McLennan, A. and Munslow, B. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Ford, G.S. 1964. Building a Winning Employee Team. New York: A.M.A.
- Foster, D. 1991. 'Race' and racism in South African Society. South African Journal of Psychology. V. 21. Nr. 4. pp. 203 - 210.
- Fox W. et al. 1991. Public Management. Kenwyn: Juta.
- Fox, J.B. and Scott, J.F. 1943. Absenteeism: Management's Problem. Boston: Harvard University Press.
- France, F. 1994. Telephonic conversation with the Senior Project Co-ordinator, Accreditation and Logistics, (Eastern Cape Region), Independent Electoral Commission on the question of sabotage of organisational arrangements of the IEC during the election period by existing government officials.
- Frank, E. and Moffat, A. Using Staff Training Techniques. London: The Industrial Society.
- Frazer, J.M. 1966. Employment Interviewing. London: McDonald Evans Ltd.
- French, W. 1974. The Personnel Management Process. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Freud, S. 1922. Group Psychology and the Analysis of the Ego. New York: Boni and Liveright.
- Freysen, C. Public Administration: Paradigmatic Status. In South African Public Administration. Ed. by J.S.H. Gildenhuys. Pinetown: Owen Burgess.
- Friedmann, G. 1964. Industrial Society. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe.
- Fryer, D.H. et al. 1956. Developing People in Industry. New York: Harper.
- Galenson, W. and Lipset, S.W. (eds.) New York: John Wiley.
- Gardner, J.W. 1963. Self Renewal. New-York: Harper & Row.

- Gellerman, S.W. 1960. **The Uses of Psychology in Management**. London: Collier-Macmillan.
- Gildenhuys, J.S.H. 1991. **Ethics and the Public Sector**. Kenwyn: Juta.
- Gildenhuys, et. al. 1991. **Public Macro Organisation**. Kenwyn: Juta.
- Gladden, E.N. 1964. **The Essentials of Public Administration**. London: Staples Press.
- Glueck, W.F. 1974. **Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach**. Dallas: Business Publications.
- Golembiewski, R.T. 1977. **Public Administration as a Developing Discipline; Part 1: Perspectives on Past and Present**. New York: Marcel Dekker.
- Gorton, R.A. 1983. **School Administration and Supervision**. Wisconsin: WM. C. Brown.
- Govender, P. 1994. Beijing conference report: 1994 country report on the status of South African women.
- Grant, J.V. and Smith, G. 1969. **Personnel Administration and Industrial Relations**. London: Longmans.
- Grewal, H. 1988. **The Race Discrimination Handbook**. London: Sphere Books Ltd.
- Habbe, S. 1963. **College Graduates Assess Their Company Training**. New York: Conference Board.
- Hacon, R.J. 1965. **Conflict and Human Relations Training**. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Haire, M. (ed.) 1959. **Modern Organization Theory**. New York: Wiley.
- Halachmi, A. et al. (Editors). **The Enduring Challenges in Public Management: Surviving and Excelling in a Changing World**. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Halsey, G.D. 1953. **Supervising People**. New York: Harper Brothers.
- Hanekom, S. X. & Thornhill, C. 1986. **The Functions of the Public Administrator**. Durban: Butterworths.
- Hanekom, S. X. & Thornhill, C. 1993. **Public Administration in Contemporary Society: A South African Perspective**. Revised Edition. Halfway House: Southern.
- Harwell, E.M. 1969. **Personnel Management and Training**. New York: Chain Store Publishing Company.

- Heaven, P.C.L. 1982. **Houdings**. Pretoria: H & R Academica.
- Hegarty, E.J. 1960. **How to Build Job Enthusiasm**. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Herman, S.M. 1968. **The People Specialists**. New York: Alfred A. Knopf.
- Herzberg, F. 1968. **Work and the Nature of Man**. London: Staples Press.
- Holden, R.N. 1986. **Modern Police Management**. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Hoyle, A.R. 1974. A view of development Administration as an open system. International Review of Administrative Sciences. V. 39. Nr. 4. pp. 361 - 368.
- Hughes, J. 1987. **The Philosophy of Social Research**. New York: Longman.
- Hult, K.M. and Walcott, C. 1990. **Governing Public Organizations**. Belmont. Wadsworth.
- Humphrey, J. and Angus, B. 1989. **Profit from Dynamic People Management**. Kenwyn: Juta.
- International Labour Office. 1966. Apartheid in Labour Matters. Geneva: International Labour Office.
- Irwin, R.D. Karlins, M. and Abelson, H.I. 1970. **Persuasion: How Opinions and Attitudes are Changed**. New York: Springer.
- Ivancevich, J.M. and Glueck, W.G. 1989. **Foundations of Personnel: Human Resource Management**. Boston: Irwin.
- Joyce, P. 1990. **The Rise and Fall of Apartheid**. Cape Town: Struik.
- Julius, M.J. 1975. **Personnel Management**. (8 ed). Illinois: McGraw-Hill.
- Kastner, J.H.C. 1981. Reconciling people and jobs: in search of greater psychological validity for public personnel administration. Die Staatsamptenaar. V. 61. Nr. 6. pp. 13 - 17.
- Kiesler, C.A. et. al. 1969. **Attitude Change: A Critical Analysis of Theoretical Approaches**. New York: Wiley.
- Klingner, Donald E. and Nalbandian, John. 1985. **Public Personnel Management: Contexts and Strategies**. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.

- Laird, D. 1985. **Approaches to Training and Development**. 2nd ed. Reading: Addison-Wesley.
- Landman, W.A. 1988. **Basic Concepts in Research Methodology**. Pretoria: Serva.
- Latib, S. 1993. Bending the Bureaucrats. DSA in Depth. Ed. Van Zyl Slabbert. Vol. not stated. Nr. not stated. pp. 14 - 15.
- Leedy, Paul D. 1985. **Practical Research: Planning and Design**. Third Edition. New York: Macmillan.
- Lemke, E. & Wiersma, W. 1976. **Principles of Psychological Measurement**. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Lepawski, A. 1952. **Administration: The Art of Organizing and Management**. New York: Knopf.
- Lorch, R. S. 1978. **Public Administration**. St.Paul: West.
- Louw, L. 1993. How to Beat the System. DSA in Depth. Ed. Van Zyl Slabbert. Vol. not stated. Nr. not stated. pp. 20 - 22.
- Lungu, G.F. P. 1993. Not Fat but Muscle. DSA in Depth. Ed. Van Zyl Slabbert. Vol. not stated. Nr. not stated. pp. 12 - 13.
- Lynch, J.L. 1968. **Making Manpower Effective**. London: Business Books.
- Marais, D. Public Administration: Paradigmatic Status. **In South African Public Administration**. Ed. by J.S.H. Gildenhuys. Pinetown: Owen Burgess.
- Marks, W.R. 1970. **Induction - Acclimatizing People to Work**. London: Lawrence Bros.
- Massie, J. L. & Douglas, J. 1981. **Managing: A Contemporary Introduction**. (13 ed). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Mbatha, V. J. 1984. **Personnel Management and Personnel Systems** (unpublished assignment) Ulundi:KwaZulu.
- McCurdy, H.E. 1977. **Public Administration: A Synthesis**. Menlo Park: Cummings.
- McLennan, A. 1994. Gender equality in South African public administration. Public Administration: concepts, theory and practice. Ed. Bayat, S.M. and Meyer, I.H. Halfway House: Southern. pp. 138-150.

- McLennan, A. 1993. The Toyi-Toying Civil Servant. DSA in Depth. Ed. Van Zyl Slabbert. Vol. not stated. Nr. not stated. pp. 23 - 25.
- McLennan, A. and FitzGerald, P. 1990-1992. **Mount Grace Resolutions (Papers): The New Public Administration Initiative and the Mount Grace Consultation**. Johannesburg: University of the Witwatersrand.
- Milcovich, G.T. and Boudreau, J.W. 1988. **Personnel/Human Resource Management**. Piano: Business Publications. v. 39, no. 4, pp. 361 -368.
- Miller, G.R. and Burgoon, M. 1973. **New Techniques of Persuasion**. New York: Harper and Row.
- Mintzberg, H. 1983. **Structures in Fives: Designing Effective Organizations**. Englewood Cliffs. Prentice-Hall.
- Moerdyk, A. and Fone, J. 1987. Resistance to change - its origins and management. IPM Journal. V.6. Nr. 8. pp. 14 - 17.
- Momberg, J.P. 1976. Die Ontwikkeling van 'n Opleiding-en Ontwikkelingstelsel vir Swart Werkers. (Proefskrif voorgelê ter vervulling van 'n deel van die vereistes vir die graad Doctor Commerci). Bloemfontein: Universiteit van die Oranje-Vrystaat.
- Moolman, J.H. Ed. 1976. Black Homelands in South Africa. Historical Perspective - the Process of Occupation. Pretoria: Africa Institute of South Africa.
- Moore, R. [s.a.]. Providing Orientation: an Effective Programme. Drake Business Review. Vol. 4. Nr. 3. pp. 12-13.
- Moore, P. 1985. **Public Personnel Management. A Contingency Approach**. Massachusetts: Lexington Books, D.C. Heath & Co.
- Mullins, L.J. 1993. **Management and Organisational Behaviour**. London: Pitman.
- Myburgh, A. 1994. An Introduction to Affirmative Action in the Workplace. **An Affirmative Action Seminar presented by Goldberg, De Villiers and Myburgh (Pty) Ltd** in Port Elizabeth and East London on 16 February and in Umtata on 17 February 1994.
- Ncholo, P. 1993. A Totally New Ball Game. DSA in Depth. Ed. Van Zyl Slabbert. Vol. not stated. Nr. not stated. pp. 8 - 9.
- Nigro, F.A. & Nigro, L. G. 1984. **Modern Public Administration**. (6th ed). New York: Harper International.

Nortje, J. and Bekker, J.C.O. 1990. Verhoudinge tussen munisipale overhede en die private sektor: uitdagings vir gemeenskapsontwikkeling vir die jare negentig. SAIPA. Vol. 25. No. 2. pp. 73-85.

Oltmans, W. 1989. **Apartheid: USA 1988**. Johannesburg: Perskor.

Oosthuizen, W.J.J. 1982. **Ontwikkeling van Opleidingsprogramme vir Swartes vir die behartiging van van Munisipale Regering en Administrasie met verwysing na die gebied van die Oos-Kaap-Administrasieraad**. (Proefskrif voorgelê ter gedeeltelike vervulling van die vereistes vir die graad Magister in Publieke Administrasie in die Fakulteit Lettere en Wysbegeerte aan die Universiteit van Port Elizabeth. Port Elizabeth: Universiteit van Port Elizabeth.

Opler, M.E. 1969. Caste. In **Grolier Encyclopedia International, Vol. 4, pp. 146**. New York: Grolier.

Pep Report. 1975. **Summary of the Pep Report on Racial Discrimination in England**. London: National Committee on Commonwealth Immigrants.

Petty, R.E. and Cacioppo, J.T. 1986. **Communication and Persuasion: Central and Peripheral Routes to Attitude Change**. New York: Springer-Verlag.

Pfiffner, J.M. & Sherwood, F.P. 1960. **Administrative Organization**. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Phillips, J.J. 1991. **Handbook of Training Evaluation and Measurement Methods**. Houston: Gulf.

Picard, L.A. 1994. Affirmative action in South Africa: the transition to a non-racial public service. **Public Administration: concepts, theory and practice**. Ed. Bayat, S.M. and Meyer, I.H. Halfway House: Southern. pp. 138-150.

Pigors, P. and Myers, C.A. 1969. **Personnel Administration**. A Point of View and a Method. (6 ed>. Tokyo: McGraw-Hill.

Popenoe, D. 1980. **Sociology**. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.

Public servants must re-apply for their jobs. Greybe, D. 1995. **Business Day**, 31 July 1995, pp. 1-2.

Public Service Staff Code. 1986. **Self Training Guide for the Assistant Personnel Officer**. Pretoria: Public Service Training Institute.



- Puthucheary, M. Affirmative Action: The International Experience. Development and Democracy. Johannesburg: Issued by the Development Strategy and Policy Unit of the Urban Foundation. (no vol. nr. or nr.) May 1993. pp. 1-15.
- Redding, S. 1969. Negro in the United States. In Grolier Encyclopedia International, Vol. 12, pp. 519-525. New York: Grolier.
- Reich, M. 1981. Racial Inequality. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Reynders Report. 1984. In-service Training in the Republic of South Africa 1980/1981. Report 2/1984. (National Manpower Commission.)
- Reynolds, A. 1989. How Adults Learn. Publico. V.9. Nr. 4. pp. 20 - 21.
- Roode, C.D. 1971. Inleiding tot die Sosiologie. Kaapstad: Balkema.
- Rosnow, R.L. and Robinson, E.J. 1967. Experiments in Persuasion. New York: Academic Press.
- Rossi, P.H. 1983. Evaluation: A Systematic Approach. Beverley Hills: Sage.
- Ryan, B. 1969. Ceylon. In Grolier Encyclopedia International, Vol. 4, pp. 226. New York: Grolier.
- Sabotasie met stemme. 1994. Reporter. Die Burger, 5 May, p.1. col.1.
- Sachs, A. 1992. Advancing Human Rights in South Africa. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.
- Sacht, J. et al. 1990. A Generic Competency Model for Human Resource Practitioners. Board Paper of the South African Board for Personnel Practitioners. HR Performance Management Department. Escom. Human Resources Group. Johannesburg: Escom.
- Samarasinghe, S. Affirmative Action: The International Experience. Development and Democracy. Johannesburg: Issued by the Development Strategy and Policy Unit of the Urban Foundation. (no vol. nr. or nr.) May 1993. pp. 1-15.
- Schweitzer, A. 1950. The Decay and the Restoration of Civilization. London: Adam & Charles Black.
- Schwella, E. 1993. Bureaucrats Hard to Budge. DSA in Depth. Ed. Van Zyl Slabbert. Vol. not stated. Nr. not stated. pp. 18 - 19.

Schwella, E. 1985. Public Administration or Public Management? SAIPA. vol. 20. no. 1.

Sentrale Statistiekdiens. Suid-Afrikaanse Statistieke 1986. 1986. Pretoria: Staatsdrukker.

Serfontein, J.H.P. 1978. Brotherhood of Power. London: Rex Collins.

Skweyiya, Z. 1995. Skweyiya response on Public Service posts advertisement. Statement on 31 July. Pretoria: Public Service Commission.

Smith, A.H. and O'Loughlin, J.L.N. 1962. Odhams Dictionary of the English Language. London: Odhams.

Soltau, R.H. 1952. An Introduction to Politics. Aberdeen: Longmans.

Stahl, O.G. 1983. Public Personnel Administration. (8th ed). New York: Harper & Row.

Starling, G. 1977. Managing the Public Sector. Homewood: The Dorsey Press.

Stillman, R.J. 1976. Public Administration: Concepts and Cases. Boston: Houghton & Mifflin.

South Africa. Central Statistical Services. 1991. Population Census: Occupation by Development Region, Statistical Region and District. No. 03-01-08(1991). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. Central Statistical Services. 1991. Population Census: Economic Characteristics of the Population. No. 03-01-23(1991). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. Department of National Education. 1989. Political and Related Terminology. Nasop 08-501 (89/08). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. Department of National Education. 1989. Political and Related Terminology. Nasop 08-501 (89/08). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. Central Statistical Services. 1993. Labour Statistics. No. 1. Annually. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. 1993. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Bill. (As recommended by the Joint Committee on Constitutional Affairs). Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. 1983. Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, no 110, 1983. Pretoria: Government Printer.

- South Africa. 1959. Staatsdiensregulasies. (Government Notice 2047 of 11 December 1959). Pretoria: Government Printer.
- South Africa. 1995. Draft White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, Government Gazette no. 16414, 15 May. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- South Africa. 1957. Public Service Act, no 54 of 1957. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- South Africa. 1964. Department of Justice. Codified Instructions: Public Service. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- South Africa. 1994. Public Service Act, proclamation 103 of 1994. Pretoria: Government Printer.
- Sperotto, S. F. 1985. Improving Productivity by Managing Employee Performance. I.P.M. Manpower Journal. Vol. 3. no. 10, February.
- St. John, Walter D. 1980. The Complete Employee Orientation Program. Personnel Journal. Vol. 58, Nr. 5. pp. 373-378.
- Steyn, W.I. 1973. Personeelopleiding deur die groot werkgewer: 'n studie van die Teorie en Praktyk van Personeelopleiding in die Suid-Afrikaanse Staatsdiens. (Ongepubliseerde proefskrif aangebied ter voldoening aan die vereistes vir die graad Doctor Commercii (Ekonomie/Geld- en Bankwese/Bedryfseconomie). Potchefstroom: Potchefstroomse Universiteit vir Christelike Hoër Onderwys.
- Summers, D.B. 1977. Understanding the Process by Which People Enter Work Groups. Personnel Journal. V.56. Nr.8. pp. 394-397 & 416.
- Tanaka, Hiroshi. 1980. The Japanese Method of Preparing Today's Graduate to Become Tomorrow's Manager. Personnel Journal. Vol. 59, Nr. 2. pp. 109-112.
- Technikon SA. 1985. Induction of New Employees. Industrial Psychology notes, study guide 2 for ISY23XE. Chapter 8. Johannesburg: Technikon SA.
- Thompson, S. E. 1980. New Employee Orientation: the Standard Manual of Successful Programs. Stamford: Bureau of Law and Business.
- Toffler A. 1971. Future Shock. Aylesbury: Hazell Watson & Viney Ltd.
- Tough warning to whites. Dickson, P. 1995. Eastern Province Herald, 3 August 1995, p. 2. col. 3.

- Tracey, W.R. 1984. **Designing Training and Development Systems**. New York: Amacom.
- United States, Internal Revenue Service. 1988. **Manager 's guide for New Employee Orientations**.
- Van der Merwe, R. 1978. **Induction, the New Man and his Job**. Port Elizabeth: University of Port Elizabeth.
- Venter, J. 1994. **Guidelines for Affirmative Action**. Publication of the National Productivity Institute. Pretoria: NIPS.
- Washington, D.C. : Department of the Treasury, Internal Revenue Service.
- Wilson, G.D. 1973. **The Psychology of Conservatism**. London: Academic Press.
- Weiner, M. Affirmative Action: The International Experience. Development and Democracy. Johannesburg: Issued by the Development Strategy and Policy Unit of the Urban Foundation. (no vol. nr. or nr.) May 1993. pp. 1-15.
- Welman, M. 1995. **Telephonic discussion on training and orientation in the government service and subsequent faxed management course outline**. Conversation on 22 August. Pretoria: South African Management and Development Institute.
- Wirsing, R.G. (ed.) 1981. **Protection of Ethnic Minorities**. New York: Pergamon.
- Wissink, H.F. 1992. **An Investigation into the Application of Information Technology in Local Government**. (Unpublished dissertation presented for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Public Administration at the University of Stellenbosch). Stellenbosch: University of Stellenbosch.
- Wissink, H.F. and Hilliard, V.G. 1995. Avoiding the pitfalls of affirmative action. **Eastern Province Herald**, 7 July 1995. P. 6. C. 3.
- Wissink, H.F. 1992. **The New Public Administration Initiative**. Speech delivered during the official annual prize-giving function of the Public Administration Students' Representative Association (PASRA) of the Port Elizabeth Technikon. Port Elizabeth.
- Wissink, H.F. 1991. Policy Analysis. Public Management. Ed. Fox, W. et al. Kenwyn: Juta. pp. 204-218.
- Yinger, J.M. 1969. Ethnocentrism. In Grolier Encyclopedia International, Vol. 6, pp. 542. New York: Grolier.

Youst, D.B. and Lipsett, L. 1989. New-Job Immersion Without Drowning. Training and Development Journal. Vol.43. Nr. 2. pp. 73-75.

Yoder, D. 1958. **Handbook of Personnel Management and Labor Relations**. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Zimbardo, P. and Ebbesen, E.B. 1969. **Influencing Attitudes and Changing Behaviour**. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.