TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF MUNICIPAL PERSONNEL IN

SOUTH AFRICA

by

ANNA-LOUISE RABIE

THESIS

Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the
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Promoter: Prof. Dr. W.A.J. Coetzee

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TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF MUNICIPAL PERSONNEL

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CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES, FIGURES AND APPENDICES

TABLES

FIGURES

APPENDICES

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF MUNICIPAL PERSONNEL IN

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SUMMARY

Promoter: Prof. Dr. W.A.J. Coetzee

Department: Public Administration

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University: University of Durban-Westville

This doctoral thesis essentially investigates what is currently done

by South African municipalities with regard to the training and development

of their personnel. The study was necessitated by the fact that personnel

plays an important role in the viability of any local authority. Therefore,

the quality of manpower should be above suspicion. Moreover, with the

advent of the expected implications of the new constitutional dispensation

it is imperative that attention shall be focused timeously on the

training and development of the human resources available to local

government and administration. The need for training and development

also dominates the arena in view of the continued extention of government

activities and the concomitant creation of new State institutions.

Thus, the above reasoning serves as *rationale* for the background

description of the right of existence of local authorities. The term,

local authorities, is, therefore, viewed as a collective noun for all
institutions engaged in governing and administering community life on
the local level, be it municipalities, village boards, health committees
or institutions for the peri-urban areas.

A discussion of municipal administration is also given as it justifies
a review of the location thereof within the spectrum of public
administration, given its distinctive environment and character.
Furthermore, an exposition of municipal personnel administration within
the context of municipal administration is imperative should one wish to
understand the delicate processes of provisioning, maintenance,
utilisation and above all, training and development of scarce manpower
resources.

Coupled with the description of the components of municipal personnel
administration, follows an explanation of the constituent parts of the
activities, training and development. The study revealed that training
is a process of which the groundwork is done by a related field, called
education. Education starts at birth and continues *ad infinitum*.
Education also provides the preparation-for-life foundation, whereby
training continues as the preparation-for-work process. As a prerequisite
for both processes to be successful, is an intellectual process, called
learning. The will to learn then also prepares the individual with a
willingness to develop at the hand of various ways and means.

Thereafter the need for and the objectives of training within the
institution is acknowledged and a description is given of how to identify

and describe these needs and objectives in order to meet the common objective of local authorities, *viz.* the improvement of the general well-being of the citizenry. A responsibility rests on the individual municipalities to provide, through training and development programmes, the opportunity for municipal officials and employees on all levels, to develop. It is to this end that municipalities should endeavour to provide suitable training and development facilities and to utilise it to its fullest extent. Whether the facilities utilised, refers to on-the-job - or off-the-job training, the methods should be applied only after its relevant advantages and disadvantages have been carefully weighed and if it meets the requirements of the specific circumstances of the municipality.

The study proves that in South Africa, there is not necessarily a shortage of available municipal manpower, but that a question-mark could be placed after the quality thereof in terms of training and development. It is, therefore, recommended that, in an endeavour to promote training and development activities, the following aspects, *inter alia*, deserve consideration:

(a)   the introduction at school level, of a course in environmental or public studies;

(b)   the establishment of a school of municipal government and administration in the Core City of each region specified in terms of the *Regional Services Councils Act*, 1985 (Act 109 of 1985);

(c)   that municipalities should devise a unique approach to training and development methods;

(d)   that training sessions should provide for the individual needs of the participants;

(e)   the publication of an annual report by the Local Training Board giving a detailed exposition of the nature and extent of training individually and collectively undertaken by leading South African municipalities;

(f)   the provision of specially designed and well-equipped technical training facilities; and

(g)   the establishment of resources centres or reading rooms to put periodicals, journals and relevant newspaper articles at the disposal of all the municipal employees.

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF MUNICIPAL PERSONNEL IN

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since the inception of mankind, people acknowledged an interdependence
of one another.[1)] It is this very realisation that caused people to
group themselves together in specific geographical areas. The
objectives for this grouping were, *inter alia,* the greater ability
to protect themselves against invasion by hostile groups, to form
socio-economic entities and to develop cultural and religious customs.
In this way, urbanised areas were created as people were now living
in close proximity to one another as opposed to being scattered over
the vast rural areas.

To reach the objectives for which people initially started to live
within reasonable distances from one another, necessitates the
introduction of behavioural guide-lines. This is because a certain
discipline is expected of people in their endeavour for peaceful
co-existence. It is essentially this need for discipline, order and
guidance that led to the establishment of governing institutions at
a scale and on a level perceivable by all citizens, irrespective of
their level of development.[2)]

With the gradual transmutation from rural to urbanised societies, the
demand for more extensive and more efficient governing institutions,
especially at the regional and the local levels of government, increased.[3]
These changes in the lives of the citizens, *inter alia*, caused their
environments to change and the latter in turn influenced the nature and
scope of the activities to be undertaken by the governing institutions.
This development again, augmented the need for sufficient and suitably
qualified personnel. As local government is a universal phenomenon,[4]
all countries in the Western world are in the invidious position that the
available manpower has to be trained and developed in such a manner, that,
despite financial and socio-economic difficulties, local government
services are rendered effectively and efficiently. Through training and
development the skilfulness of public officials, especially on the local
level, could be enhanced. Local authorities are significant, not only
as the provider and administrator of basic services, but also as the
promoter of community values.[5]

1.   *Definition of terms*

Owing to a multiplicity of connotations and definitions of terms to
be used in this thesis, some clarification at the introduction is
required.

Society

Before any study into the nature of a State can be undertaken, it is

necessary to determine the society in which it operates.

Society could be defined as the interaction of collectivities of people who within their distinctive collectivity share common beliefs, attitudes and modes of action.[6] Collectivities could refer to smaller and larger groups of people which could be a family, or a group for the promotion of interests or a voluntary group, like a recreation club or church.[7]

State

The term *State* is used, *inter alia,* to refer to the basic development and maintenance of a social order of a specific group(s) of people occupying an area of land within given territorial boundaries. Woodrow Wilson's definition, *"... a state is a people organized, for law within a definite territory"* serves as an acceptable basis for the purpose of this study.[8] Together with this it is accepted that a State has its own constitution, laws, a unique civil service and body(ies) of citizens: in other words, the combination of people, territory and government.

Public service

The Public Service refers to that group of personnel working in government institutions/departments on a permanent or temporary basis aimed at reaching specified national objectives and who is commonly known as public officials, public – or civil servants.[9] The latter term is borrowed

from Britain's administration in India defining the selection of people on the basis of merit. It also indicated that applicants were appointed on a non-political basis and were ensured of a permanent tenure of office and executing functions prescribed by law.[10] In order to maintain uniformity, the term Public Service also includes Civil Service.

Personnel[11]

Although *personnel* also refers to human beings, it is more specific, in that it bears upon employees active in an organisational structure which would include business, public undertakings and the armed forces.[12]

Government

In every State the sovereign power of securing law, order and peace is vested in a central body. This body is called the government which has legislative power to channel the people's activities in a predetermined direction. Strong maintains that the government is the instrument used to not only promulgate, but also enforce the legislation of a State. Therefore, any discussion on government should refer to the terms power and authority. *Power* is the right that government holds to make and enforce laws, whilst *authority* refers to the means of legitimate power whereby citizens could be forced into doing something even against their will.[13]

Local government

Within the confines of the authority and function delegated by a higher authority, local government refers to the governing of defined parts of a country, for example towns and cities. Owing to its close proximity to the electorate local government may be defined as the *"determination and implementation of decisions regarding local public programmes"*.[14] For purposes of uniformity, local government could also include municipal government.

Local authorities

To execute local public programmes statutory bodies, which are constituent parts of local government are created. These bodies derive their authority from a higher source and are bound by the terms and conditions by which they were created.[15] To prevent any misinterpretation the term local authority may also include the term *municipality*.[16]

Training

As one man learnt to overcome the obstacles of his environment and circumstances, he passed the knowledge on to his fellowman. This was done either through examples, words or signs and was a *deliberate* attempt to convey information and skills. If the message was successfully received, it is taken that learning took place and that the recipient had been subjected to training.[17] For purposes of this study, training

is regarded as the deliberate, definite attempts of a more learned

person to instruct, through formal or informal means, a less knowledgeable

person.

Development

Although development and training are concomitant phenomena, it is not

synonymous. Training can only have long-lasting benefits for both

employer and employee, if development has taken place as well. Development

is more *mind-oriented*[18] than training and refers to the increased levels

of maturity and ability to judge and deal with new, unknown circumstances.

It should be kept in mind that in this study the emphasis is on both

training and development and, therefore, the one cannot be divorced from

the other.

2.   STUDY AREA

The introduction of any new constitutional dispensation entails changes

and adaptation by the citizenry. South Africa is no exception to this

rule and, therefore, the introduction of a new constitution on 3 September

1984, requires adaptation by the citizenry over a broad spectrum of

community life. One component of this spectrum specifically relates to

municipal government and administration, which, before 3 September 1984,

was in the main the responsibility of White town - and city councils.
The promulgation of the *Republic of South Africa Constitution Act,*
1983 (Act 110 of 1983) which heralds the new political dispensation of
South Africa, *inter alia,* earmarked the establishment of *own* local affairs
committees for the Indian, Coloured and Black communities, which
necessitates a new approach to the government and administration of local
authorities. Consequently, it has become necessary to establish smooth-
running administrative infra-structures in an endeavour to provide a
multiplicity of municipal goods and services to the citizenry. Specific
need-orientated manpower training and development programmes are regarded
as the crux of the eventual successful, continued existence of service-
oriented local authorities. The afore-mentioned explanation serves as
rationale for the subject of study, *viz.* training and development of
municipal personnel in South Africa, which will be dealt with along the
following lines:

However, in order to discuss municipal administration as a specialist
field of public administration meaningfully, Chapter II is devoted to
a brief explanatory description of the concept public administration.
Furthermore, the term *public administration* has a dual meaning which
led to considerable theorising that tend to not only be confusing, but
also creates semasiological problems. In addition, the environment of
public administration needed clarification for meaningful discussion of
municipal administration as a specialist field of public administration.

Since 1682, thirty years after Jan van Riebeeck established a refreshment post at the southern most tip of Africa, an atmosphere of local government and administration prevailed in the Cape. The reason being that the citizens were adamant in their wish to watch over the affairs of their settlements and also because the necessity of orderly co-existence was realised. Thus, Chapter II further describes the establishment and right of existence of local authorities in South Africa.

Municipal administration is a collective noun for a number of functions which have to be executed when dealing with people. Once the framework for personnel administration is known, definite steps need to be taken to obtain and retain the services of capable and conscientious employees. Consequently, a discussion of how this objective could be reached follows in Chapter III. In order to obtain the best qualified employee, whether in terms of education or experience, for a position, the institution's recruitment and selection policies should provide for the effective screening of applicants. Closely linked to this objective, is the development of skills applied to improve the level of utilisation of personnel. These skills include the ability to liberate the will of subordinates to work, the versatility to use communication to obtain from and convey to colleagues required information, as well as the talent to lead the energy of others in reaching institutional objectives. For the continued efficient rendering of goods and services, a stable work force should be maintained, by, *inter alia*, keeping record of the movement and

quality of personnel and by remunerating personnel at an economically
and socially acceptable level.

Coupled with the above, is the necessity that personnel should be able
to keep pace with the continual changes taking place in life. This is
possible only through the development of man's own mind and through
training in the use of skills and abilities. To train personnel is,
however, not enough, for they should be motivated to participate in the
training of themselves, and through that, develop to maturity. Therefore,
Chapter IV explains the relationship between training and development
in the process of preparing man to deal with the vicissitudes of life.
In establishing this relationship, a third dimension, *viz.* education,
is added. Education, training and development are inseparable and are
linked by a mutually inclusive process, called learning. Learning,
which has distinctive principles and requires a specific climate for
occurrence, can only take place once the official is sufficiently
motivated and willing to be educated and trained. Having due regard for
the quest for modernisation on the nature and principles of training,
it has become commonplace to visualise the training process at the hand
of suitable systems and models.

Providing the opportunity to be educated and trained, is the responsibility
of the State as it aims to improve the general well-being of all its

citizens. Legislation has, over the years, been passed to explicitly deal with this preparation-for-life-activity, whether at the central, regional or local levels of government. Training can, furthermore, not be without direction or take place in a vacuum. Therefore, the objectives of training as direct results of underlying training needs, should be defined clearly. Accordingly, in Chapter V an attempt is made to justify the need for training by determining its root causes at the hand of systematic and orderly methods. Once the needs have been clarified, objectives can be set, thereby paving the way for properly designed and suitable training programmes.

Manpower is regarded as one of the most important resources of any municipality. Municipalities in South Africa are not really experiencing a manpower shortage, but a question-mark could be placed after the availability of suitably qualified personnel to undertake the specialised duties and administration. Therefore, in Chapter VI attention is given to the indispensable presence of enough facilities to undertake and initiate the training of manpower. People tend to be resistant to new, unknown situations and, consequently, the manner in which the newcomer will be introduced to his job would be of cardinal importance in achieving future job satisfaction. Once the official has been introduced to his new environment various training and development methods could be applied to improve his productivity and competency. Each of these methods has inherent advantages and disadvantages which should be weighed carefully before selection and application.

The thesis is concluded by Chapter VII which contains general
conclusions and recommendations which, hopefully, could be of value in
the training and development of municipal personnel.

The factual bases of this thesis have been obtained primarily from
books, official publications and correspondence. However, unpublished
thesis, periodical articles, Acts of Parliament, provincial ordinances
and municipal bylaws and regulations were referred to extensively.
Where information could not be obtained from other sources, high-ranking
State, provincial and municipal officials were interviewed.

3.   *REFERENCES AND FOOTNOTES*

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      1962), p. 308.

7.   Ibid., p. 309.

8.   See also Strong, C.F.: Modern political constitutions, eighth
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11.   Infra., p. 42.

12.   Oxford advanced learner's dictionary of current English,
      seventh impression (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1979).

13.   See also Strong, C.F.: op. cit., pp. 6 - 7.

14.   Humes, S. & E. Martin: op. cit., p. 34.

15.   Speed, J.: Municipal administration in South Africa
      (Durban: Natal Municipal Association, undated), p. 1.

16.   See also Cape of Good Hope: Municipal Ordinance, 1974 (Ord. 20
      of 1974), chapter 1; Council for the Co-Ordination of Local
      Government Affairs: Report and recommendations of the committee
      of enquiry into the establishment of criteria for viable local
      authorities, no. 4, April 1984. This report distinguishes between
      3 levels of autonomy of local authorities, viz. a non-viable
      community which has a relatively small number of people grouped
      together and living within the jurisdictional area of another
      controlling body's local government institution; a dependent local
      authority which can be autonomous to a specified degree and
      allocated restricted statutory decision-making responsibility,

whilst the third one is an <u>independent local authority</u> which is fully autonomous and is afforded extensive statutory responsibilities in differing degrees and which can render most services and provide most facilities required by the community.

17.   Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): <u>Training and development handbook</u> (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 1.

18.   Steyn, W.I. in Viljoen, A.J.: "Personeelopleiding en - ontwikkeling as 'n voorvereiste vir doeltreffende mannekragbenutting", <u>SAIPA, Journal of Public Administration</u>, vol. 10, no. 4, December 1975, p. 165.

CHAPTER II

MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION AS A SPECIALIST FIELD OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

1.   *INTRODUCTION*

Before a disease can be cured, it is necessary to determine its cause.

In the same way it is necessary to determine what is expected of the

available personnel within an institution, *viz.* to what extent can it

be trained and developed before recommending improvements. In order to

make any recommendation it is, therefore, necessary that the location

of municipal administration within the broad spectrum of public

administration should be described, as public administration is the valid

point of departure for any other level of administration in a country.

Public administration in itself is, however, so broad that some

explanatory clarification is required. In search of an acceptable and

clear definition the problem arises, that the theorist and practician

are confronted with a dual possible meaning, *viz.* P(p)ublic A(a)dministra=

tion, which can either refer to an academic study or a process of

administering public affairs.[1)] Clarity should, therefore, be obtained

regarding the usage of the terms in this discussion.

2.   *TERM PUBLIC*

An English dictionary describes the term public as: *"that it is open to*

be used or shared by all members of the community; devoted or directed

to the promotion of the general welfare".[2)]

An Afrikaans dictionary states: *"publiek - openbaar vir iedereen toeganklik of bestem".*[3]

In a Dutch dictionary it is explained as: *publiek - openlijk; in het openbaar; van die overheid uitgaande of tot haar dienst behoren".*[4]

It is indeed no easy task to define the term *public.* When an effort is made at equalising public with the government or State, clarity should prevail concerning aspects such as sovereignty, general welfare, the legal status of citizens and the underlying philosophy of these concepts and phenomena. A definition of public can also be sought in the opinions and ideas of the electorate as to what activities they regard as public.[5] The general layman's idea of the term *public* is that activities are undertaken in the open, without secrecy. This, however, is disputable as government does undertake activities not generally known to the public, the reasons being protection of state security and also the delicate nature of political negotiations between nations. On the contrary, the principles of democracy force the political office-bearer to continuous reporting to the electorate regarding governmental actions.

For purposes of this study, the term *public* will be used to refer to all activities undertaken by governmental institutions, whether a degree of secrecy is attached to these activities or not.

3. *TERM ADMINISTRATION*

It is difficult to define administration as authors and dictionaries each tend to give an exclusive meaning to it. The several nuances in

the usage of *administration* create a real terminological labyrinth for
the student in public administration. The English word *administration*
is derived from the classical Latin noun *administer,* meaning servant
or attendant. The verb *ad ministrare* can be used in two distinct senses,
viz.:

(a)   to help, assist or serve; and

(b)   to manage, direct or govern.

The increasing influence of government and governmental services on
the lives of individuals, seem to have given various shades of meanings
to administration. Dunsire,[6] for example, refers to at least fifteen
different meanings and connotations of the term. Three of these meanings
can specifically be mentioned for purposes of this thesis:

(i)   *government* and *direction* in the implementation of
        a given purpose or end: meaning execution;

(ii)   *direction* or *execution* in the interests of someone
        else: government acts in the interest of all
        citizens; and

(iii)   collective noun for the non-judicial machinery of civil
        offices: referring to the totality of government

departments including the political office-bearers (councillor

at the local government level) and public officials (municipal

personnel).

Cloete[7] describes *administration* as "... *a collection of processes*[8] *which should always and everywhere be performed where two or more persons work together to reach specific objectives such as the production of goods ... or the rendering of services...*".

According to L.D. White "... *The art of administration is the direction, co-ordination and control of many persons to achieve some purpose or objective*".[9] Both definitions indicate co-operative action.[10]

Although administration is taking place when people are co-operatively

working towards a common goal,[11] administration as an activity is not

a goal as such, but a means toward attaining a goal - for example, in

converting the Old Station site in Durban into an exhibition and shopping

mall, administration is not the goal. Administration will, however, be

necessary for arranging the building and renovating activities and will

have to continue whilst the building operations are in progress. The

goal is a showpiece of relaxed and exclusive shopping and tourism, and

not administration. Administration is the behind-the-scene, infra-

structural enabling activity. Despite diversified definitions regarding

administration, the following seems to be mutually accepted characteristics

of the term:

- deals with *rationality;*

- deals with *specific processes* and *functional activities;* and

- through *co-operative action* an effort is made to reach a *predetermined objective* whether in the *public or private sector.* [12]

4. DESCRIPTION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Due to semantic problems and the fluid boundaries of public administration, no adequate one-sentence definition exists. The student in public administration is often caught in a web of apparent anomalous arguments regarding the subject, because of unfixed definitions. When an one-sentence definition is, however, used it will rather lead to mental paralysis than understanding. [13] Public administration is an ancient activity as *"administration has been one of the essential human possessions since the memory of man runneth"*. [14] As the needs of the public increased, the demands on public administration became greater and likewise the meaning and contents of the activity changed to suit the new circumstances. In the ancient civilizations the citizenry merely asked protection against invasion by foreign forces and the securing of domestic law and order from their governments. [15] Today, however, the situation has changed noticeably and there is hardly any activity of human life not being guarded, guided or influenced by governmental regulations, laws or even indirect interference. In this regard Peters asserts that *"Government is increasingly a part of the daily life of the average citizen"*. [16]

There is no shortage of definitions or attempts in defining public administration. From the definitions supplied by Nigro and Nigro, [17]

public administration may be defined as co-operation between officials of public institutions on all tiers of government and becomes part of the political process by influencing the policy formulation process. Despite fundamental differences there are, however, a few similarities with institutions in the private sector. Gladden[18] views public administration as that part of social activity which not only confronts the citizen at any point, but is also responsible for running the show and getting things done.

According to the *Encyclopeadia Britannica,"public administration traditionally, comprises those activities involved in carrying out the policies and programmes of government".*[19] Public administration is also regarded as the conscious directing of activities of groups of people who permanently or temporarily share some political or non-political inspired goal.[20] For purposes of this study it can be stated that public administration is the conscious directing of the activities undertaken by members of governmental institutions in pursuit of an agreed objective, which will contribute to the satisfaction of specific community needs and the betterment of the general welfare of the citizenry.

5.   *ENVIRONMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION*

Public administration cannot be undertaken in a vacuum or without directing boundaries. The administrator must know what the scope and limits of his activities will be. The physical and human environment is never static and due to technological developments, a dynamic fluid entity, which urges governmental machinery to effect changes in order

to meet new requirements of the citizenry. It is essentially this constant ebb and flow of requirements which requires of a government to honour the predominant objective of public administration, namely, the effective rendering of services to improve the general well-being of all inhabitants.

The prefix *public* in the term public administration indicates that administration of this nature takes place in the public sector and is distinguishable from administration in the business or private sector. Any description or definition of the administration of the two sectors should, therefore, indicate how they differ or coincide. In 1916, Henri Fayol, with his historic *Administration Industrielle et Generale* publication, regarded administration in the public sector as one of the functions of government.[21] Fayol had two notions regarding administration namely, *principles* of good administration and *rules* of administrative doctrine. In analysing Fayol's principles, it is found that the term is flexible in its usage and he actually refers to pro= cesses which include amongst others, division of labour, discipline, remuneration, initiative, stability of tenure; whilst his rules of administrative doctrine refer to processes and activities such as organisation, command, co-ordination and control.[22] Fayol's principles prefigured Luther Gulick's *POSDCORB* which is an acronym for his *principles* of planning, organising, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting.[23] According to Cloete, there are six categories of enabling processes of thought and action, *viz.* determination of policy, organising, financing, provision and utilisation of personnel, determina= tion of work methods and procedures and finally, control.[24] In discussing

the substance of administration, both Cloete's processes and Gulick's principles coincide.[25]

Administration is also undertaken in the private sector, but more attention is, however, paid to *management* as the emphasis is placed on the utilisation of resources.[26]   Administration, again (in the business sector) is used to describe functional activities of a subordinate nature, *viz.* bookkeeping and recordkeeping.[27]   Nigro and Nigro refer to a *private-public partnership,* because, whether in a public or private setting, administration is co-operative group effort.[28]   Differences are also to be found in the peculiar characteristics of public administration. For example[29] -

-      public administration is unavoidable and as the individual is
        living in an administrative age he is affected bv government from
        before his birth till after his death;

-      citizens expect more of government administration than any other
        form of administration, in so much that the public wants to be
        convinced that it is being undertaken efficiently and effectively;

-      the top echelon comprises politicians and therefore, the
        consequences of (expected or otherwise) any unpopular decision
        taken cannot be ignored as it could mean loss of votes, because
        government *is* politics; and

- public administration can expect ultimate obedience and citizens can be forced to comply with governmental activities, e.g. in times of crises or potential dangerous situations, government *can* imprison people or nationalise industries.

Another distinctive characteristic of the milieu of public administration comprises politics. Public administration has as its main aim the provision of a good life to all citizens, whilst the private enterprise, although the contrary could be stated, remains mainly profit-orientated.[30] In 1887, Woodrow Wilson said "... *although politics set the tasks for administration, it should not be suffered to manipulate its offices*".[31] Though Wilson tried to build a frontier between politics and administration, Frank Goodnow, thirteen years later explained that politics and administration are interrelated and that it "... *consists largely or mainly in the discharge of the one or the other*".[32] As government institutions serve as instruments for the execution of the decisions taken by the legislative body in a country, it is inevitable that politics is an integral part of the process of government.

In the final analysis it can be observed that owing to factors such as the legislature, public opinion and concern for the individual, a public institution cannot be equated with one in the business sector.[33] Therefore a municipal council can also not be compared with the board of directors of a large company.[34] In the same vein Caiden observes that "... *public administration is different, or if it is not, it ought to be, because of its public quality, concern for societal goals, compulsory powers, and relative openness*".[35] With the above exposition of public administration in mind, the field of municipal administration can now be

discussed.

6.   *CONCEPT MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION*

On examination, it is clear that public administration is a comprehensive

term encompassing the diversity of administrative actions[36] undertaken

in conjunction with the nemerous functional actions of the different

types of public institutions.[37] In all Western countries more than

one tier of government is found[38] and each tier has its own distinctive

administration, e.g. state administration, regional/provincial administration

and municipal or local administration. According to Stanyer, local

government belongs

> *"... to that sector of the machinery of government*
> *that is normally called 'decentralization area*
> *administration' ... and ... means simply that*
> *there is a governmental body with a jurisdiction*
> *limited to only a part of the total territory of*
> *a country".*39)

Adlem maintains that the environment

> *"... word hoofsaaklik deur bepaalde plaaslike*
> *omgewingsfaktore op so 'n wyse beinvloed dat munisipale*
> *administrasie uitkristalliseer".*40)

The word *municipal* is an adjective used to refer to *"... of a town or city*

having self-government".[41] The word town, city or village are by nature

geographical expressions and refer to specific forms of social interaction

or habits of utilisation of land.[42] Furthermore, Botes defines a town

as *"a place of relative dense population characterised by frequent and*

meaningful interactions".[43] The term *municipal administration*, therefore,

refers to the specific type of administration found in municipal areas

enjoying local self-government. Due to the unique characteristics of each

local area, the frame of reference of municipal administration could

enjoy differences in emphasis from town to town. The uniqueness of

municipal administration, could according to Adlem and du Pisani be

attributed to certain factors. These factors are categorised to be the

external municipal environment,[44] the urban political process and internal

municipal environmental factors.[45]

The external municipal environment comprises the various environments

in which inhabitants live; whether it is constitutional -, socio-economic -,

cultural -, historical - or physical by nature. As municipal authorities

currently form the third tier of government preceded by the central and

provincial/regional authorities, it stands to reason that the former may

not be ignorant of statutory arrangements enforced by the latter.

Although this fact[46] could lead to some restrictions on the freedom of

movement of citizens and their elected representatives, all government

actions should still be in the eventual interest of the total population

in the whole country. For example, the principles of the political policy

of the central government should not be jeopardized by the political

policy of the local government. According to Barber, local authorities

are subordinate institutions instituted by statute.[47] Local authorities,

therefore, are representative of both the need for *political participation,*

as well as *administrative convenience,* especially to gather data and

recognising local differences.[48] An interaction between local authorities

and central government exists so that the former may enjoy a large degree

of administrative self-regulation, and at the same time provide central

government with essential data on community values with regard to,

inter alia, politics, cultural and social growth, industrial and commercial

development.

The urban political process has a predominant local atmosphere. Whilst
inhabitants in a more cosmopolitan society may have less racial and
residential prejudices or little interest in cultural customs, it may
be totally different in a smaller town or village. Although these emotions
may be influenced by, for example, job opportunities, wealth, or
educational facilities, no one community could merely be subjected to
socio-political changes. Every municipal area in South Africa has a
multiracial or multi-cultural society which lends a cosmopolitan aura to
the government and administration of that area. It is especially the
values resulting from this cross-cultural composition and the external
municipal. environment that generates the urban political process.[49]
Citizens of all races, creeds and denominations form various organisations,
such as ratepayers associations, recreation clubs and chambers of commerce
to express and satisfy, *inter alia,* their cultural, political and
commercial feelings and needs. Not all citizens are equally articulate
in expressing their needs and wants. The culmination of the urban
political process is the election of representatives to activate and
execute local government functions.[50]

In fulfilling the task of government and administration of the municipal
area, the councillors have to provide the frame of reference within which
municipal personnel could operate. This frame of reference provides the
internal municipal environment for officials to execute their daily tasks.

At this point it is necessary to indicate that local government could be
divided into rural and urban local government. Urban local government
on the one hand, refers to the government and administration of a proclaimed

municipal area ranging from a city or town to a borough or village board.[51]
Rural local government on the other hand, concerns itself with the
government and administration of the vast, scarcely populated areas between
municipal boundaries. To deal with the administration and government of
these areas, various boards have been established, the best known of which
are the divisional councils of the Cape Province established in 1855.[52]
This study, however, concentrates on urban local government and therefore
it is apt to explain the *raisons d'etre* of municipalities.

7.   *RIGHT OF EXISTENCE OF MUNICIPALITIES*

The aura of municipal government surrounds South Africa since thirty years
after the landing of Jan van Riebeeck at the Cape in 1652.[53] Owing to
the distinctive settlement history of South Africa, the Dutch and British
substantially influenced the *in loco* development of local government.[54]
It is essential, therefore, to briefly look at the history underlying the
creation and right of existence of municipal government and administration
in South Africa.

The term *municipality* is derived from the Latin word *municipium* meaning a
borough, free town or municipal town, whilst *municipal* stems from the
Latin *municipalis*, meaning belonging to a *municipium*.[55]

The *Encyclopeadia Britannica* defines a municipality as *"a political
subdivision of a state within which a municipal corporation has been
established to provide general local government for a specific population
concentration in a defined area"*.[56]

An Afrikaans dictionary defines municipality as *"1) Stad, dorp wat plaaslike selfbestuur het. 2) Besturende liggaam van so 'n plek wat deur belastingbetalers gekies word"*.[57]

An English dictionary provides the same description, *viz.* *"town, city or district possessing local self-government; governing body of such a place"*.[58]

There are as many answers as to "what a local government?", as there are authors on the subject.[59] Although *local government* refers to a distinctive level of government, *municipality* refers to the governing body of one specific urbanised geographical area with an own name and identity and which is different to any other urbanised geographical area irrespective of its size or level of development. In the words of Rogers, a municipality in the strict and proper sense, is the

> *"body corporate constituted by the incorporation of the inhabitants residing within a defined area upon which the Legislature has, either directly or indirectly through some intermediate agency (in South Africa, the provinces) conferred corporate status, rights and liabilities, including the right to administer through the agency of an elected council or other governing body, such matters of local concern as are expressly specified or necessarily implied from the nature and extent of the authority conferred"*.[60]

For purposes of this study, a municipality could be described as a legal *persona* or body corporate who could sue and be sued in its corporate name and who, through duly elected representatives decides the future growth and development of an area within specific boundaries. In this study no in-depth analysis will be undertaken into the essence, peculiarities or distinctiveness of local government and administration. In order to justify the effort, one should, however, briefly look at the *raisons d'être* of municipalities in South Africa.

Since the establishment of a refreshment post at the southern most tip of the African continent, it became evident that the Dutch East India Company was in no position to maintain a viable production unit, as well as to look after the diverse interests of the burghers.[61] Although there was no adherence to so-called town planning principles as are known today, the burghers realised that unorderly and undisciplined settlement and running of affairs would lead to chaos.[62] Owing to a distinctive atmosphere and location no one municipality is identical to another and therefore each municipality has to function and regulate to suit its own needs. Acknowledging physical and other differences, each town:[63]

> "1 - *is a unit of government with established boundaries; with elected leaders and limited authority and with taxing and regulatory powers.*
>
> 2 - *is an economic production unit, supplying goods and services for public consumption.*
>
> 3 - *is a catalyst for human interaction.*
>
> 4 - *can be defined as a social community, as it brings people together in the same place.*
>
> 5 - *has always served as a fond of knowledge[64] and the educator of man.*
>
> 6 - *can, finally, be defined as the cradle of civilisation and the cultural laboratory of man".*

Despite the apparent physical and developmental differences, three mutual or uniform characteristics are evident in all municipal areas. Firstly, all municipalities have to render distinctive functions whether of a cultural, administrative or economic nature. As municipal government could be regarded as the management of own affairs by the inhabitants of a locality,[65] citizens tried to secure income for the rendering of essential goods and services. Although these goods and services were in

the early days of the Cape more judicial by nature, it later was extended
to include police, civil and military matters.[66]   As the villages
developed into towns and later cities, the number and extent of services
required of local government institutions increased.   Nowadays the
extent of goods and services rendered by these institutions is impressive
and noteworthy and includes, *inter alia:*

"a)   *the physical protection of the community - civil
defence, city police;*

b)   *the physical environment of the community - roads,
planning, housing, slum clearance, parks and open
spaces whether mountain spots or beaches;*

c)   *personal and environmental community health
services: for example, district nursing, ante-
natal services and port health;*

d)   *community welfare services: for example, domiciliary
and residential services for the aged;*

e)   *the education of the community: extra-mural and
adult educational programmes, environmental awareness;*

f)   *cultural facilities for the community: libraries,
museums, art galleries;*

g)   *the disposal services: refuse collection, cleansing
and sewerage*".[67]

Secondly, due to the administrative and economic facilities provided by
municipalities, it causes its buildings to have a distinctive structure.
Although the architectural style of residential houses may differ
extensively, houses are at least placed in an orderly street pattern.
Many a South African town is still renown for its religious -, cultural -,
and market buildings.[68]

A third distinctive characteristic and reason for existence, is the manner
in which the buildings, depicting the various aspects of community life,
are arranged or grouped together. This in itself gives effect to the
group and aesthetical values and feelings of the citizen. A definite
distinction is made between residential -, industrial -, and commercial
areas. Although the habit to settle in specific areas could be a natural
tendency of people, it nevertheless has a practical basis as well, *viz*.
protection against diseases, prevention of air - and water pollution,
facilitation of the performance of services like night soil removal,
eradication of vermin and noxious weeds, as well as water - and electricity
supply.[69]

Despite valid justifications for the establishment of municipalities,
the latter could only be viable to the extent that the inhabitants are
willing and able to pay for the expected services that should in return
be rendered. For this reason, *"a small local tax for road and water
purposes"*[70] was first introduced in 1682. This tax paved the way for the
introduction of property taxes and levies in lieu of other goods and
services rendered by the municipality.[71]

Although municipal government and administration seem to be only of a
practical goods and services nature, the contribution of municipal
government to the satisfaction of the political feelings of the citizenry,
the total political milieu and political process of the country as a whole
could never be overlooked. Although municipalities form the first step

in the political stratification of citizens, it still remains that

relatively few citizens do in fact participate actively in local politics.[72]

It seems as if the taxpayer does not realise the impact of municipal

regulations on his life, or its contribution to a good life, despite the

fact that municipal government and administration with its open elections

are the cornerstones of democracy.[73] Alexis de Tocqueville aptly wrote:

> "... *municipal institutions constitute the strength of free nations. Town meetings are to liberty what primary schools are to science; they bring it within the people's reach, they teach men how to use and how to enjoy it. A nation may establish a free government, but without municipal institutions it cannot have the spirit of liberty*".[74]

With the above in mind, it is imperative that municipal government and

administration should not only keep pace with fluctuations on the economic

front, or the socio-cultural needs of the inhabitants, but also be

watchful for the ever-changing political expectations of the town in

itself, as well as the country *in toto*. South Africa saw the introduction

of a new constitution on 3 September 1984,[75] whereby a new political

dispensation for the White, Indian and Coloured population groups became

operative. A further measure highlighting the right of existence of local

authorities became evident as a result of this development, *viz.* the

devolution of more authority to local communities to determine and decide

their own socio-political and economic future.[76]

8.   *SUMMARY*

A distinctive type of administration depicts the processes of dealing

with the affairs of a State and is called *public administration*. Public

administration provides the legal framework within which each citizen can toil to improve his position in life, as it has the general well-being of the citizenry as basic objective. This type of administration further distinguishes itself from administration in a profit-oriented private sector, by being open to scrutiny to all and to enforce accountability from all involved in the application thereof. Whilst public administration carries an aura of remoteness, it becomes explicitly concrete in the form of municipal administration. Municipal administration, as a specialist field of public administration, honours the same objective as public administration and is the type of administration applied in urbanised areas where a number of people live and work closely together. The existence of municipalities is furthermore a direct result of citizen participation in the government and administration of their affairs.

No discussion on or assessment of the contribution of municipal government and administration to the improvement of the general well-being of the community is possible without an investigation into the human attributes available to municipal institutions. Given an accepted, well-planned policy, sufficient funds, a workable set of procedures, a well-planned organisational infra-structure and effective control measures, still would not guarantee an efficient and effective system of municipal government and administration. To give effect and viability to municipal institutions, a further essential component, *viz.* personnel, is needed. In the next chapter an effort would be made to describe the development, environment and components of municipal personnel administration.

9. *REFERENCES AND FOOTNOTES*

1. See also Waldo, D.: The study of public administration (New York: Random House, 1955), p. 3.

2. Shorter Oxford English dictionary, vol. II, M – Z, third edition (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1974).

3. Schoonees, P.C. et al.: Verklarende handwoordeboek van die Afrikaanse taal, sixth edition (Pretoria: Voortrekker Publishers, 1975).

4. Van Dale groot woordenboek der Nederlandse taal, vol. II, M – Z, nineth edition ('s-Gravenhage: Martinus Nijhoff, 1970).

5. See also Waldo, D.: op. cit., p. 8.

6. See also Dunsire, A.: Administration: The word and the science (London: Martin Robertson, 1975), pp. 2, 3, 17, 228 – 229.

7. Cloete, J.J.N.: Administration of health services, second edition (Pretoria: Van Schaik, 1978), p. 1.

8. The term collection of processes refers to the enabling processes of administration, viz. determination of policy, organising, provision and utilisation of personnel, financing, controlling and determination of work procedures.

9. White, L.D.: Introduction to the study of public administration, fourth edition (New York: The MacMillan Co., 1955), p. 2.

10. See also Waldo, D.: op. cit., p. 5 – according to Waldo public administration indirectly belongs to the genus named co-operative human action. It is, however, true that not all co-operation is necessarily voluntarily or willingly. The expression antagonistic co-operation is thus used to separate willing from unwilling co-operation.

11. Cloete, J.J.N.: Introduction to public administration, second edition (Pretoria: Van Schaik, 1984), p. 1.

12. Thornhill, C. & S.X. Hanekom: Taak van die leidinggewende beampte (Pretoria: Butterworth, 1979), p. 9.

13. See also Waldo, D.: op. cit., p. 2.

14. White, L.D.: op. cit., p. 1.

15. Society of Civil Servants: The development of the civil service (London: P.S. King & Sons, 1922), p. 1.

16. Peters, C.B.: The politics of bureaucracy: A comprehensive perspective (New York: Longman Group, 1978), p. 1. See also Corson, J.J. & J.P. Harris: Public administration in modern society (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963), pp. 1 - 2.

17. See also Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: Modern public administration, fourth edition (New York: Harper & Row, 1977), p. 18; Caiden, G.E.: The dynamics of public administration: Guidelines to current information in theory and practice (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1971), p. 13.

18. See also Gladden, E.N.: Central government administration, vol. 1 (London: Staples Press, 1972), p. 3.

19. Encyclopeadia Britannica, Macropeadia, fifteenth edition, vol. 15 (Chicago: Encyclopeadia Britannica, Inc., 1979), p. 183. See also Dunsire, A., op. cit., p. 167.

20. See also Dimock, M.E. & G.O. Dimock: Public administration, fourth edition (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969), p. 3; Trecker, H.B.: New understandings of administration (New York: Association Press, 1961), pp. 21 - 22.

21. See also Brodie, M.B.: Fayol on administration (London: Lyon, Grant & Green, 1967), p. 8. Fayol understood the term governmental to be the process of leading an undertaking to its objective using resources to best advantage. Fayol further states that administration occurs in any environment whether the public - or business sector, although "the problem of securing good administration was more acute in the higher reaches of government than in commerce or industry". Loc. cit.

22. Ibid., pp. 9 - 14.

23. Dunsire, A.: op. cit., p. 95.

24. See also Cloete, J.J.N.: op. cit., p. 2.

25. See also Roos, H.W.: The utilisation of resources in Transkei: A study in priority determination, unpublished D.Phil.-thesis (Port Elizabeth: University of Port Elizabeth, 1979), p. 18.

26. According to Parker and Subramaniam, public administration began with studies in politics, going downwards from the highest policy-making levels to the lowest executive rank, whilst business administration started off with Taylor's motion studies on the lowest level through problem areas of supervision and middle management to the top executives. Later the lines of study gradually emerged to amalgamate in theoretical and practical treatment. See also, Spann, R.N. & G.R. Curnow: Public policy and administration in Australia: A reader (Sydney: John Wiley & Sons, 1975), p. 29, as well as Frank Fischer, Letter to the Editor: Public Administration Review, vol. 39, no. 3, May/June 1979.

27. Thornhill, C. & S.X. Hanekom: op. cit., p. 9.

28. Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: op. cit., p. 16.

29. See also ibid., pp. 14 - 16; Caiden, G.E.: op. cit., pp. 6 - 9.

30. Through the media and the art of advertising any private enterprise could claim that community needs are their foremost objective. However, there still is a profit-margin, whether limited or broad, involved. According to Parker and Subramaniam the difference between public administration and business management is "... mainly attributed to the absence in one and the presence in the other of the profit motive". Span, R.N. & G.R. Curnow: op. cit., p. 29.

31. Dunsire, A.: op. cit., p. 89.

32. Loc. cit.

33. See also Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: op. cit., p. 15.

34. Conclusion arrived at after discussion with various town clerks in Natal during April 1985.

35. Caiden, G.E.: op. cit., p. 9.

36. Municipal administration covers a wide area consisting of diversified work processes. The work processes can be divided into 3 groups: the generic administrative processes; the functional work processes which is generally the responsibility of the lower echelon officials and the auxiliary processes, such as communication, decision-making and research.

37. Cloete, J.J.N.: Introduction ..., op. cit., p. 5.

38. See also Humes, S. & E. Martin: The structure of local government (The Hague: International Union of Local Authorities, 1969), p. 63. In India, Burma and Ethiopia as many as six tiers of government are found. Most countries, however, have at least three, for example South Africa, Iceland and Luxembourg.

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42. See also Stanyer, J.: op. cit., p. 35.

43. Botes, J.: "Challenges to local authorities in the modern community", SAIPA, Journal of Public Administration, vol. 11, no. 3, September 1976, p. 90.

44.   Infra., p. 29.

45.   Adlem, J. & A. du Pisani: op. cit., p. 101.

46.   Republic of South Africa: Republic of South Africa Constitution
        Act, 1983 (Act 110 of 1983), preamble.

47.   Barber, M.P.: Local government, fourth edition (Plymouth:
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48.   Ibid., p. 4.

49.   Adlem, J. & A. du Pisani: op. cit., p. 103.

50.   Ibid., p. 104.

51.   Natal: Municipal Ordinance, 1974 (Ord. 25 of 1974).

52.   Cape of Good Hope: Cape Colony Act, 1855 (Act 5 of 1855). Other
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        Committees of Management for Small Holding Areas of the Orange
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        English-Latin dictionary, third edition (London: Cassell, 1966),
        p. 144.

56.   Encyclopeadia Britannica, op. cit., vol. 7, p. 101.

57.   Odendaal, F.F. et al.: Verklarende handwoordeboek van die
        Afrikaanse taal, second edition (Johannesburg: Perskor, 1981),
        p. 717.

58.   Garmonsway, G.S. (ed.): The Penquin English dictionary,
        third edition (Middlesex: Penquin Books, 1979), p. 488.

59.   See also Blair, G.S.: Government at the grassroots, third edition
        (California: Palisades Publishers, 1981), p. 4; Matthews, B.S.:
        Local government (Chicago: Nelson-Hall Company, 1970), p. 13.

60.   Rogers, I. MacF.: Municipal councillor's handbook, third edition
        (Canada: Carswell Company, 1977), p. 1. Recent policy statements
        by the State President and political office-bearers indicate that
        by 1 July 1986, the Provincial Councils in South Africa will be

stripped of legislative authority and functions as executive
agencies (institutions) of the Central Government with regard
to the rendering of particular State services. In fact, during
September 1985, the Minister of Constitutional Development and
Planning requested the four Provincial Administrators to advise
him on their views concerning the rendering of services by, on
the one hand the Provincial Administrations and, on the other
hand, the Regional Services Councils.

61.   See also Green, L.P.: op. cit., chapter 1.

62.   For a detailed review of the development of local government,
        see Green, L.P. passim.

63.   Botes, J.: op. cit., p. 96.

64.   See also Green, L.P.: op. cit., p. 16. In 1836, the Colonial
        government regarded municipal government as an educational
        exercise and prerequisite for responsible parliamentary
        government.

65.   Golding, L.: Local government, fifth edition (London: Hodder &
        Stoughton, 1975), p. 9.

66.   Green, L.P.: op. cit., p. 3.

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        Butterworths, 1970), p. 13; See also Cloete, J.J.N.: Munisipale
        regering en administrasie in Suid-Afrika, third edition (Pretoria:
        Van Schaik, 1983), chapter II; Supra., p. 24. It is essentially
        these goods and services that provide the external municipal
        environment of municipal administration.

68.   Excellent examples are the so-called "Twee-toring Kerk" in
        Bloemfontein, Green Market Square in Cape Town and the Union
        Buildings in Pretoria.

69.   Cloete, J.J.N.: Munisipale ..., op. cit., pp. 2 - 3.

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72.   This is evident from the very low percentage polls during the
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        op. cit., p. 6.

73.   This was indeed true in the early history of the Cape of Good Hope,
        when, due to the changing climate of local affairs, the districts
        of Graaff-Reinet and Swellendam claimed independence by forming
        autonomous Republics in 1795.

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        See Appendix 2.

THE PLACE OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN

MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION

1.   *INTRODUCTION*

Municipal authorities are regarded as *constitutional cornerstones*[1]

in South Africa, as it affects the lives of citizens more directly and

intimately than any other governmental institution. This phenomenon

could be attributed to the fact that people in their daily activities

regard the central and provincial/regional governments, and even

governmental corporations and control boards, as being more remote and

out of easy reach. As people became more advanced in terms of their

needs and standards of living, a higher degree of self-determination

was demanded from the higher authorities. This led to an initial

decentralisation of functions and later a devolution of authority to

local authorities to determine the cause of events.[2]

Therefore, it should be the objective of every municipality to render

services and goods of such a nature that the result would contribute to

the enrichment of human life. To achieve this objective, municipalities

are dependent on an efficient and effective officialdom to perform

functions in pursuit of a better town or city. To complete the cycle

for acceptable municipal authorities, trained personnel with the

knowledge and expertise as to how a municipality should operate is required.

2. *LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR MUNICIPAL PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION*

In South Africa local government forms the lowest tier of government.

The *Republic of South Africa Constitution Act,* 1961, (Act 32 of 1961), section 84,

provides for the establishment of municipal authorities;

> *"(1) Subject to the provisions of this Act, ... a*
> *provincial council may make ordinances in relation*
> *to matters coming within the following classes of*
> *subjects, namely -*
> *(l)(i) municipal institutions, divisional councils*
> *and other local institutions of a similar nature...".* 3)

In order to meet this obligation, the provincial governments of the

four provinces constituting the Republic of South Africa, *viz.* the

Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal,

promulgated ordinances to give effect to the creation and continued

existence of municipalities. The *Municipal Ordinance,* 1974 (Ordinance

20 of 1974) of the Province of the Cape of Good Hope provides, *inter*

alia, for the establishment of new municipalities and affords existing

municipalities their framework of movement. 4)

Despite the delegation of authority with regards to municipal government

to the provincial level, the Constitution, nevertheless, explicitly

stipulates in section 30 that Parliament (is) *"the sovereign legislative*

authority in and over the Republic, (and) shall have full power to make

laws for the peace, order and good government of the Republic". 5) This

implies that should the local electorate continually be disillusioned

by the actions and decisions of local authorities, the central government

could be forced to intervene.[6)] Although municipalities enjoy

legislative and executive authority in order to govern and administer

a municipal personnel policy, such regulations and personnel codes

would be subject to the approval of a higher authority. To the same

extent, municipalities have to adhere to and honour the provisions of

acts promulgated by the central (national) government, as well as

ordinances passed by the provincial councils. Municipalities could,

therefore, find themselves in the unenviable position that their personnel

policy may be construed in such a manner to meet the specific requirements

of their town or city and yet not be implemented as it could be in conflict

with the purport of higher authority legislation. Despite the fact

that local government forms a tier of a politically constructed governmental

pattern, it's foremost objective is not primarily one of providing a

political platform for politically-minded citizens,[7)] but providing

"public services on a minute-to-minute, hour-to-hour, day-to-day and

year-to-year basis, often for 24 hours per day including Sundays and

Public holidays".[8)] A remark by McPherson, after a municipal career

spanning 48 years, leaves food for thought *"(P)arty politics are inevitable*

in the national government of the country, but where local government

is concerned the issues are seldom political ...".[9)] This follows that

although municipal personnel administration transpires in a politically

motivated milieu due to the multiplicity of acts of Parliament and provincial

ordinances which have to be adhered to, it is mainly directed at building

a functional relationship between officials themselves, officials and

councillors, and officials and the public.

According to Burger, a functional relationship *"(should) exist where people together perform tasks which have an end product or result as the combined objective"*.[10] Looking at the objectives of municipal administration and, indirectly, municipal personnel administration, it is realised that only through continual teamwork and thinking together, can it be realised. Due to the directing influence of the decisions of the higher authorities on the direction and intention of municipal personnel administration, a brief look at these acts and ordinances, is imperative.

2.1 *Acts of Parliament*

The South African experience of higher authority interference, especially by the Central Government, i.e. its interference in local government affairs, is in no way unique or unmatched. Throughout the world central governments reserve the right to mould and guide local governments into a pattern that renders the required services and at the same time contributes to the execution of the ruling political dogma.[11]

Although the term personnel[12] is taken to include any official in any tier of government, the provisions of the *Public Service Act, 1984* (Act 111 of 1984) are not applicable to officials serving local governments.[13] One would imagine that a personnel act such as the *Public Service Act, 1984*, should not only provide for the total complement of people in the service of the State, but that as far as public personnel matters are concerned it is all-embracing and thorough. A brief survey of labour

relating legislation does, however, show that rather a diversity of
other Acts have a direct influence on the administration of personnel
matters of local authorities. These Acts are, *inter alia,* the
Unemployment Insurance Act, 1966 (Act 30 of 1966);[14] and the *Workmens'*
Compensation Act, 1941 (Act 30 of 1941).[15] Moreover, some professions
require not only legal registration before practising, (e.g. compare
accountants, doctors, dentists and artisans) but also prescribe a period
of clerkship or apprenticeship. Although determination of these require=
ments fall outside the scope of municipal regulations, municipalities
have a legal obligation not to appoint persons who do not meet the
prescribed registration requirements.[16] In this regard the *Public*
Accountants and Auditors Act, (Act 51 of 1951), the *Medical, Dental and*
Supplementary Health Services Professions Act, 1974 (Act 56 of 1974) and
the *Apprentice Act,* 1944 (Act 37 of 1944) serve as examples.

Since the early 1950's, employee participation in management and determination
of the lines of actions of institutions increased and it became evident
that some legal framework had to be provided within which both employer
and employee could operate. The result was the *Labour Relations Act,*
1956 (Act 28 of 1956), whereby provision was made for the creation of
trade-unions as a forum for employees to air their views on a diversity
of matters. One such association which was created is the South African
Association for Municipal Employees (Non-Political).[17]

Despite the leverage that the existence of this Act gives municipal
employees, i.e. to negotiate and express grievances, it should remain

clear, that, like all other government officials, municipal officials are rendering indispensable community services and should, therefore, not succumb to political - or other negative pressure to strike.

In addition, some aspects of the conditions of service, as determined and designed by municipal authorities are subordinate to Acts of Parliament, *viz.*, *inter alia*, office hours, overtime payments, rest periods, the provision of rest rooms, work areas, lighting and training. In this connection specific reference is made to the *Shops and Offices Act,* 1964 (Act 75 of 1964) and the *Manpower Training Act,* 1981 (Act 56 of 1981). Although one is used to seeing non-White people working as, *inter alia,* refuse removers, gardeners, clerks and cleaners, Parliamentary legislation controls the movements of these people. In this regard, compare the provisions of the *Black Labour Act,* 1964 (Act 67 of 1964)[18]

2.2   *Provincial ordinances*[19]

Although provincial governments were introduced at the time of unionization in 1910 in order to maintain the specific governmental identity of the *provinces*[20] little disparity prevails in the various provincial ordinances which were introduced in an effort to deal with municipal personnel matters. Whether the ordinance is prefixed by the term *local* or the term *municipality,*[21] the issues dealt with in respect of personnel are in agreement, *viz., inter alia,* conditions of service, appointment of personnel and emoluments. To afford individual municipalities the highest degree of self-determination, the provincial ordinance provides only a framework or guide-line regarding the extent and nature of decisions to be taken.

The recent development where an Act was passed in Parliament classifying towns into certain categories and coupling such categories to the remuneration of town clerks, *viz.* the *Remuneration of Town Clerks Act,* 1984 (Act 115 of 1984), is seen as a direct interference of central government in the personnel matters of local authorities.[22]

However, with regard to specific positions, local government ordinances carry definite instructions. For example, the Cape *Municipal Ordinance,* 1974 (Ordinance 20 of 1974), for example, reads *"60(1) - Every council shall appoint a town clerk, a treasurer and such other employees as may be necessary; provided that the offices of town clerk and treasurer may be held by one person".*[23] Moreover, the Orange Free State *Local Government Ordinance,* 1962 (Ord 8 of 1962), contains similar provisions, *viz. "67(1) - A council shall appoint a town clerk, a treasurer and such other employees as it may determine ...".*[24]

In addition to the prescriptions regarding the appointment of specific categories of personnel, a number of other measures prevail where little, if any, differences are evident. These measures could be summarised as follows:[25]

- council may not request applicants to indicate the remuneration packages that they would like to receive, though the candidate may be called upon to indicate the salary notch at which he would be prepared to accept a position;

- a councillor may not be appointed as a paid official of council, unless a prescribed period has lapsed since his resignation as councillor;

- municipal officials may not actively participate in the electioneering of candidates during forthcoming municipal elections;

- full-time paid municipal officials may not perform any remunerative work for any employer other than the municipal council, unless prior council approval has been sought;

- municipal councils are allowed to establish pension funds on behalf of their officials and to make contributions to such funds. Councils may also, on behalf of their officials, establish medical aid and other schemes that could be beneficial to their well-being;

- in some cases, age restrictions are prescribed. On attainment of the age of 65 it is expected of officials to retire and they may only be re-appointed on approval of the Administrator;

- candidates for employment may not canvass the goodwill of any councillor;

- officials responsible for handling council funds, are expected to provide guarantees, though councils generally subscribe to honesty insurance policies without expecting of officials to pay the premiums;

- the fact that South Africa is a bilingual country, has contributed to stipulations on language proficiency in the Ordinances. It could be expected of officials to be proficient in both official languages.

Despite the importance of training and development, it is noticed that no comparable guide-lines on this aspect are found in the four municipal ordinances.

3. DEVELOPMENT OF MUNICIPAL PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

Both the Netherlands and the United Kingdom participated in the early government and administration of South Africa and the influence of especially the British system of local personnel administration on the system operative in South Africa should not be underestimated. The Dutch influence on municipal administration was secured with the introduc= tion of a landdrost and heemraden system which primarily had a legal base without differentiating between the administration of justice and the administration of other matters.[26] The heemraden system was based on the principle that citizens should actively participate in local government and administration.

Initially the British retained the landdrost and heemraden system in South Africa till 1827. As a result of the *Letters Patent* of 1827 and 1832, the judicial and other administrative duties were separated. On the judicial side, the colony was divided into local magisterial districts where the resident magistrate dealt, *inter alia,* with the execution of the laws and criminal cases. On the civil side, the colony was divided into local civil divisions, with a civil commissioner who undertook the non-judicial duties of the landdrost.[27]

In the beginning the duties were few enough for one person to deal with, but as the scope of services to be rendered increased and diversified,

so did the need for more personnel. As more and more towns were
established due to a change in public attitudes towards local self-
government, and the distance to the Cape grew bigger, every town
appointed its own personnel to execute the indispensable duties.[28]
Even as early as 1798, town councils administered its affairs primarily
in accordance with the unique characteristics and needs of the town
and the example set by Cape Town - the then heartland of government
decisions. In other words, although a formal umbrella ordinance was
promulgated many years later, i.e. in 1839, this measure only served
as confirmation of a historic and automatic process.[29] Up to 1910,
the systems of local government and administration which applied in
the Natal Colony (Natal *Municipal Ordinance*, 1847), the Transvaal
(Transvaal *Municipal Ordinance*, 1853) and the Orange Free State (Orange
Free State *Municipal Ordinance*, 1856) were primarily based on the Cape
model, which again was based on the following three principles:[30]

(i)   local government and administration was vested in the hands of
        an elected council;

(ii)   local authorities were controlled by higher authorities; and

(iii)   all goods and services rendered by the local authorities were
        paid for by the citizens.

Being a colony prior to 1910, South Africa's affairs of state were dealt
with by the mother country, Britain e.g. the signing of treaties and
the determination of foreign policy, with the result that the format
of municipal affairs was significantly different in those days than it

is today. In the time of De Mist (1802) the municipal council was, *inter alia,* also responsible for *"looking after the insane"*[31], whilst today it is the duty of a State department, *viz.* the Department of Health and Welfare. The councils were also in charge of *"securing food supplies"* and *"appoint(ing) town officials such as ... schoolmasters"*.[32] Therefore, the emphasis of municipal administration was one of being responsible for all activities of government and administration not dealt with by the colonial power. The above state of affairs and the lack of an intermediate tier between the municipal and central levels of government, could be some of the reasons for the distinctive *atmosphere* of municipal government and administration. In fact, officials of council were appointed to act on behalf of the central (colonial) government.[33]

Despite the initial emphasis on *judicial* administration during the early days of the Cape,[34] and the diverse spectrum of duties undertaken,[35] municipal councils could appoint and deal with their personnel in their own particular fashion. However, over the years the nature and extent of municipal administration have changed. Consequently, the approaches to the recruiting and appointment of personnel also changed. Whereas officials were initially appointed as extended righthands of the colonial governors it, nowadays, is accepted that the *"success of local representative government (is) attributed to the effective combination of the different qualities which are contributed by elected representatives and non-elected employees"*.[36]

The above assumption implies that councillors and officials have to complement one another with regard to, *inter alia,* the gathering of

information on community needs, decision-making and serving the public.[37)]
Due to a lack of time and expertise and working under considerable
pressure, councillors tend to rely on the contributions of officials to
achieve its objectives, with a resultant increase in the size, extent and
complexity of local government bureaucracies.[38)] Meeting the challenge
of objective achievement, as well as the demands for increased technological
sophistication, municipal councils are faced with the task of providing the
best equipped personnel complement.[39)]

It is essentially the increased awareness of the contribution of and reliance
on the officials in the efficient functioning of municipal government and
administration that led to the awareness of proper staffing of municipalities.
Countries differ with regard to physical characteristics, levels of local
representative government, as well as how the levels of authority of
municipalities are granted. These factors, as well as the realisation
that municipal staffing cannot be done on an *ad hoc* basis, led to the
formulation of essentially three major types of municipal personnel systems,
viz. (i) the separate system; (ii) the unified system and (iii) the single
municipal service.

3.1   *Separate system*

Under this system, municipalities have the prerogative to individually deal
with all aspects of personnel administration. Being the lowest tier of
government, the higher authorities (in this instance, provincial and central
government) do, however, impose some legal constraints on the extent of
authority.[40)] The restrictions are mainly directed at the conditions of
service of the chief executive and administrative official (town clerk)

and heads of departments.[41]

By implication, this system means that the municipality is a *closed unit* dealing with its personnel affairs in a manner deemed fit by the elected council.[42] This separate or individual system is, amongst others applied in South Africa, South West Africa/Namibia, United Kingdom, France, Yugoslavia and Brazil.[43]

3.1.1   *Advantages*

The municipality in dealing with its personnel affairs, may in view of the prevailing local circumstances, attract local inhabitants to join the municipal service. In that way people knowledgeable of local conditions, attitudes, needs and feelings are recruited, with the resultant advantages of staff being sufficiently sensitive for the betterment of the local general well-being.

The ability of a municipality to meet its objectives, is largely relative to its accrued income. Salaries and other personnel expenses are, therefore, also relative to the income capacity of the municipality. Being responsible for the provision and maintenance of sufficient personnel, each local authority may now, in terms of the *Remuneration of Town Clerks Act*, 1985 (Act 115 of 1985), offer salary packages without fear for excessive competition from other local authorities.[44] The municipality now has to face competition for employees and salary packages only from other locally-situated industries and businesses.

Another advantage of the separate system is that personnel are not liable

to transfers from one place to another. Apart from being a social and emotional disturbance, personnel subject to transfer, do not necessarily work with the same degree of dedication for the well-being of the community, than those knowing that they have no-where else to go.[45]

3.1.2 *Disadvantages*

The smaller municipalities may, as a result of their inability to pay competitive wage packages, loose personnel to the larger municipalities. The smaller municipalities would then have to make do with what ever calibre of personnel they have locally.[46]

A further disadvantage, coupled with the inability to offer competitive market-oriented wage packages, is the inability to maintain high and proper standards of personnel practices. This could lead to nepotism and victimisation in the appointment and promotion of personnel. Having to make do with what one could get, is often cited as the underlying reason for the lack of sense of direction, initiative, dynamic leadership and group feeling experienced in some smaller towns.[47]

3.2 *Unified system*

A second personnel system, the unified system, refers to the custom whereby all government officials, irrespective of their level of duty, are appointed by central government. In this way a single government work force is created. This system is found in countries such as Taiwan and Morrocco.[48]

3.2.1   *Advantages*

A unified system allows the central government to standardise and

centralise personnel practices such as recruitment, selection, placement

and most important of all, training and development. The system also allows

for the transfer and promotion of officials across tier boundaries for

their optimum utilisation. In addition, the unified system ensures

that even the smallest local town board or health committee could benefit

from the services of competent and trained officials. In this way, the

technical and administrative know-how of personnel could be shared by

every exponent of governmental activities.[49)]

3.2.2   *Disadvantages*

Should there be no guardian, in the form of a centrally-controlled

government service commission, the more competent officials will be

retained for central or higher levels of government. As a consequence

local government in particular, and especially the smaller town boards,

have to be satisfied with less qualified and competent officials.

Moreover, local authorities could only serve as training ground or stepping

stones for trainees. Since central government is usually situated in centra

where, *inter alia*, a wider scope of activities, more educational

institutions and a large variety of recreational facilities prevail,

officials may tend to move to these areas. Hence municipalities are

deprived of their trained personnel.[50)]

3.3   *Single municipal service*

In Ireland a system was introduced whereby all officials in municipal employment are grouped together in a single municipal service. Sri Lanka and Nigeria took this system one step further and established a local public service commission. Based on the principles of a central personnel authority, the local commission carries the responsibility for all personnel activities.

3.3.1   *Advantages*

A major advantage of a single municipal service is the creation of a country-wide municipal staff complement. Through uniform training programmes, a staff body with, *inter alia,* the necessary knowledge, leadership skills, enthusiasm and concern for local affairs could be created. Competition for staff could also be eliminated as officials could be transferred to wherever a need for their services exists.

3.3.2   *Disadvantages*

This system according to Cloete, could only be viable to the extent that a central control body, such as a local public service commission, could guide and lead the municipalities. In the absence of such a controlling body, nepotism may lead officials to prefer working for a municipality of specific size or in a particular locality, i.e. a province or town. Having to control these activities, another disadvantage comes to the fore, *viz.* infringement of the local autonomy of municipalities and the creation of a feeling that the wishes of central government override the

needs of individual local authorities.[51]

Irrespective of the system of municipal personnel administration applied, a number of activities, nevertheless, need to be performed. As Stahl indicated, personnel administration is *"the totality of concern with the human resources of organization"*.[52]

In the following subdivision, a brief look will be taken at the activities required to deal with the human resources of local authorities. [53]

4. COMPONENTS OF MUNICIPAL PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

The nature and extent of municipal administration are determined by the level of civilization reached by the inhabitants. A further factor determining the extent of municipal administration is the size of the population in relation to the area of jurisdiction of the municipality. As the inhabitants become wealthier, they can expect higher quality and more diverse functions other than the basic water - and electricity functions, because they can pay for these improved and expanded functions. Irrespective of the nature and extent of services to be rendered, municipalities have to render such services as requested by the inhabitants. This means that personnel have to be provided, utilised, maintained and trained. To satisfy this need, a number of activities, referred to as personnel administration, have to be carried out. Municipal personnel administration is an integral part of municipal administration [54] and is indispensable in the endeavours to reach the objective of municipal administration, *viz.* the improvement of the general well-being of inhabitants.

The activities constituting personnel administration, have been grouped into four broad components and will be discussed hereunder.

4.1 Provisioning of personnel

Because of the ever-increasing demands on local authorities to render more services, municipalities increase in size and complexity.[55] Irrespective whether the municipality is complex and large in size or whether it is so small that it only renders the basic municipal services, *people* are used to man these institutions. The statement that "... *the success of (any tier of) government cannot be separated from the quality of its employees*",[56] underlines the importance that should be attached to providing people to serve in municipal service. Provisioning of personnel includes a number of functional activities, briefly dealt with hereunder.

4.1.1 Creation and classification of positions

Stahl asserts that

> "(A)ny classification is the systematic arrangement of items into groups upon the basis of common or distinguishing factors, to the end that the mind may more readily grasp what would otherwise be an anarchy of detail".57)

For the same reason some classification is required for any large work force. In this regard reference could be made to the fact that by 31 December 1984, no less than 236 100 people were employed by local authorities country-wide,[58] each fulfilling a specific role and collectively rendering services of a diversified nature. Under such conditions individual treatment of the large variety of classified

positions would not be possible. Every municipality, therefore, needs some classification of its personnel in order to prevent inequality in terms of salary, conditions of service and promotions. The classification of positions provides the framework for, *inter alia*, establishing prerequisites for employment, compensation, the dealing with personnel matters generally as well as the optimum utilisation of personnel.

To determine the relative value of positions and to establish where these positions will fit into the hierarchy of positions, particular procedures and techniques are used. One of these is the formation of classes.

4.1.1.1 *Formation of classes*

A class comprises a number of positions which are *"sufficiently similar as to kind of work or subject matter, level of difficulty and responsibility and qualification requirements as to warrant similar treatment in personnel and pay administration"*.[59] The objective is that classes should be clearly distinguishable in terms of their quantitative and qualitative requirements. With definite classes in existence, it is expected to serve as a proper and clear guide-line for the allocation of analysed and described positions, although it is not to be accepted unconditionally.[60] The formation of classes also provide the basis for the organisational pattern of the municipality.

The number of classes and therefore, departments, will vary form municipality to municipality and is a matter of the particular classification policy. With the exception of a few of the larger municipalities, the

South African municipal administration does not adhere to the same rigid
classification plan of the Central Government, *viz.* an administrative,
technical, professional or occupational grouping of positions. Municipali=
ties tend to evaluate the post and then to group it into departments.[61]
Most municipalities have, for example, the following divisions or
departments,[62] *viz.* administrative, financial, electrical and civil
engineering, health and protection services. Some, depending on size
and income, also provide for separate departments of personnel, work study
and parks and recreation. A typical hierarchical structure of a South
African municipality of medium size, indicating the relationships between
the municipal council, its committees, town clerk and the municipal
departments is depicted in figure 1.
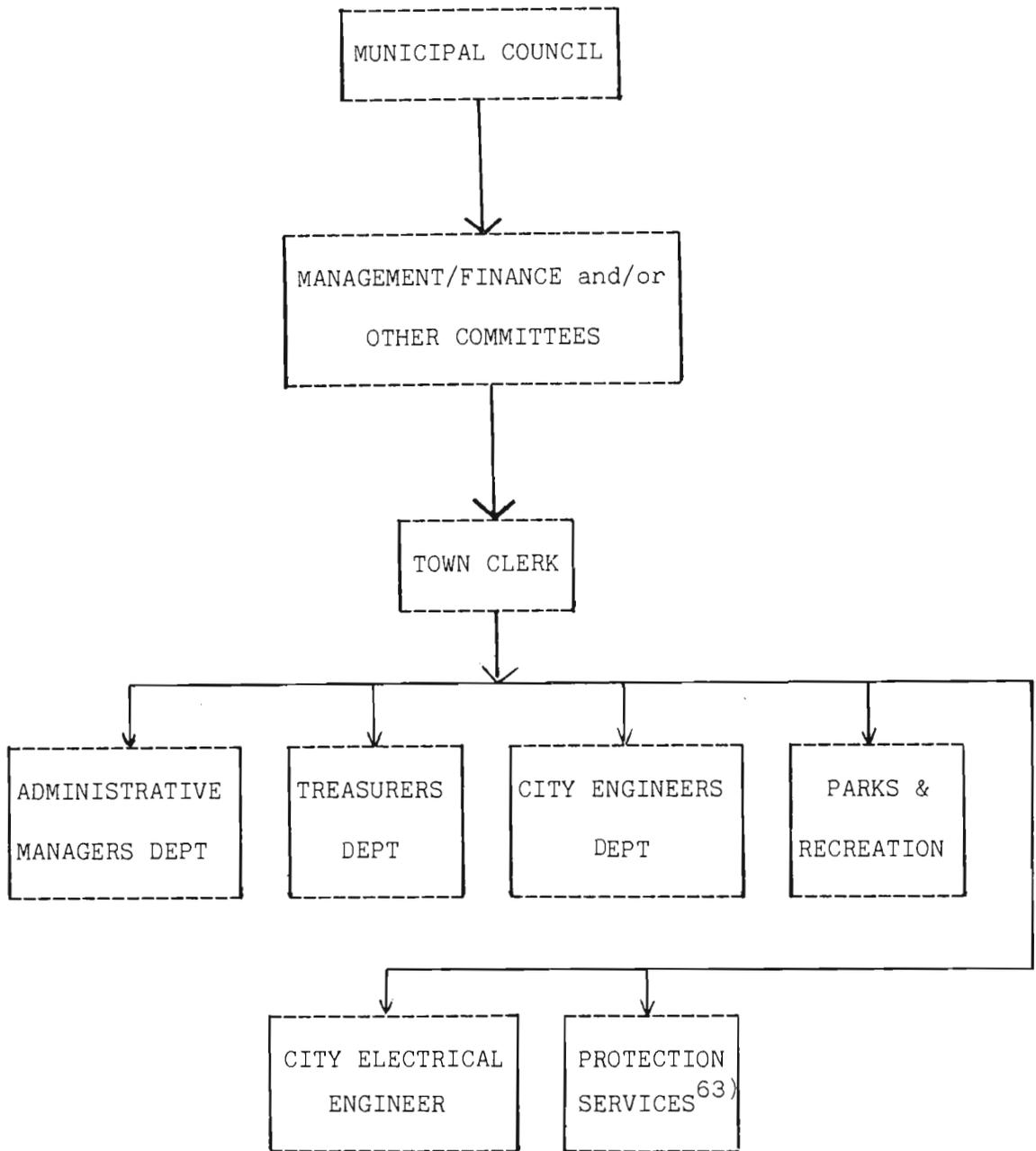
Figure 1.   *A TYPICAL HIERARCHICAL STRUCTURE OF A SOUTH AFRICAN*
            MUNICIPALITY OF MEDIUM SIZE, INDICATING THE
            RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE MUNICIPAL COUNCIL, ITS
            COMMITTEES, TOWN CLERK AND THE MUNICIPAL DEPARTMENTS.

Creation of classes should be handled with discretion and judgement as officials are forever comparing status and terms of employment.

4.1.1.2   *Task analysis and description*

The objective of task analysis is to establish individual positions within the determined classes which fall within the framework of physical and mental ability of an official. The *position*-concept should, however, not be tied to the concept of *employee.* According to Stahl, a position is "... *characterised by certain (sic) duties and responsibilities which call for the time and attention of some one individual*".[64] As long as positions remain the same in terms of duties and responsibilities, various occupants on their way through the organisational hierarchy could man it.[65] In analysing the tasks of each position, the contribution thereof in achieving the ultimate objective of the institution could be established. Furthermore, on the grounds of such contribution, the position's eventual location in the overall institutional position hierarchy could be determined.

Information is indispensable in the process of analysing posts. For example, questionnaires and interviews are used to obtain the required information. The information available from task analysis, could be systematised and consolidated to bring about task description.[66] The eventual task specification[67] can be established from the description, stating amongst others the requirements to be met by the prospective incumbent. This specification is also used for purposes of selection[68], training, transfer[69] and promotion of officials.

4.1.1.3   *Implementation of the classification plan*

Once a class has been set up and the physical, mental and educational

requirements for the post determined, the classification plan needs

implementation. Due to constant changes in all fields of life, the

original classification plan should periodically be re-evaluated to

determine whether it still answers the needs of time and place. Close

co-operation should at this point exist between line - and staff

functionaries to ensure that the position structure keeps abreast of

institutional growth. Periodic inspections could be undertaken by

technically competent analysts with a fair degree of social intelligence

in order to determine the continual applicability of the classification

plan. The method carries the advantage that the continuation of the

institution *in toto* is studied and the classification plan could

repeatedly be subjected to the criteria and regulations prevailing at

the original implementation.[70]

4.1.2   *Recruitment and selection*

Once it is known how many people has to be appointed, the task of

recruiting and selecting suitably qualified personnel could start in all

earnest. Selection is a process bound to influence the success of an

applicant's performance in his new job, as well as justifying

expenditure on the recruitment and appointment of such an applicant.

Therefore, only trained personnel with the necessary and correct

experience, understanding and mentality should undertake this costly

activity.[71]

Acceptance of the merit system as basis for personnel administration opens the way for introducing a career system for municipal officials.[72] Therefore, recruitment policies should be directed at attracting people of high quality to join the municipal service at a young age and to remain until attaining retirement age. The success in obtaining this, depends not only on the attractiveness of the remuneration and other benefits, but also on the quality of the recruitment campaign undertaken. The expected growth rate and increase of needs of the specific local authority, should encourage the introduction of a fixed recruitment policy, as no municipality could allow a curtailment in services to be rendered due to a personnel shortage. Mere reliance on *ad hoc* advertisements in local newspapers or word-of-mouth advertising, in search of suitable qualified people, is not enough. Recruiting is an ongoing process, the scope and intensity being influenced by the availability of people meeting the set physical and educational requirements.[73]

Well-known methods of recruiting include, *inter alia*, the following:[74]

- advertising in national newspapers, magazines, radio, television and cinemas;

- distribution of booklets on careers, fringe benefits, conditions of service to students and scholars;

- invitations to job-seekers to make all relevant information regarding their qualifications, interests, abilities, known to the personnel section;

- *open house* sessions held at schools, universities, town halls, sport clubs where various types of positions available in municipal service are portrayed; and

- personal examples, attitudes and behaviour of municipal officials
  could be utilised to persuade candidates to join the service.

Successful recruitment methods could lead to an overflow of applications.
Not all prospective candidates would necessarily be appointed, either
because their qualifications, skills and experience do not meet the set
requirements or due to lack of vacancies. From amongst the applications
received, suitable candidates are selected to be appointed.[75]

The size of the municipality, geographic conditions and population
distribution, the specific circumstances of operation, available local
manpower and technical requirements of the job, help to determine the
selection procedures to be used. These circumstances could cause a
deviation from otherwise strict selection criteria. Selection is also
influenced by movement of personnel already employed. When deciding on a
recruitment and selection policy, the municipal policy regarding
utilisation of existing personnel should be taken into account. In order
to aid in setting basic selection standards and to guide departmental
heads in using their discretion, a system of scrutinising eligible
candidates should be introduced. The procedure of scrutinising newcomers
for eventual appointment entails, *inter alia,* the following:[76]

- preliminary screening - whereby applicants are eliminated on
  grounds of completed application forms, physical appearance and
  conduct;
- checking references - valuable information could be obtained by
  referring to previous employers, educational institutions and
  even relatives;

- psychological testing - elimination of candidates not possessing

    the minimum qualifications, or skills or suffering from a

    personality disorder; these candidates should not, however, blindly

    be disregraded as unemployable as people under observation tend

    to react unnaturally;

- physical testing - elimination on ground of poor health or lacking

    strength to meet the physical requirements of the proposed job;

- interviewing - to determine verbally whether personality and

    motivational traits are more or less in correlation with institutional

    needs. At this stage, the applicant's and the employer's mind could

    be made up, although unwritten, important information is nevertheless,

    obtained;

- discretion - despite information gathered during the earlier

    stages, the final decision rests on discretion based on values

    honoured by the employer.

4.1.3   *Placement, probation and transfer*

4.1.3.1   *Placement*

Even if the *best*[77] candidate has been selected for a particular position,

it cannot be guaranteed that the work will be performed satisfactorily.

In municipalities more than one person could do the same kind of job, for

example, typists, clerks, nurses, builders, though there could be

differences in the nature of the work performed. When placing the

official care should be taken that the work environment and his personality

are as compatable as possible. It would not contribute to high morale and

productivity should some-one who is incapable of dealing with the public,

be required to do so. However, within the first few days after placement
the supervisor should detect any circumstancial unhappiness of the official,
in order to reconsider proper placement.[78]

4.1.3.2   *Probation*

Probationary periods are regarded as extentions of the selection process.[79]
A probation period serves as a tool to ensure that the selection, and
in fact, the placement processes are successful. The primary objective
of appointing an official on probation, is to ensure that work standards
will be met. Therefore, the process should be repeated every time an
official is promoted or transferred to another position with new and/or
added responsibilities.[80]   Barton and Chappell regard the probation
period as *"a sort of on-the-job testing"*,[81] and the supervisor should
realise the importance thereof to ensure the continued survivial of the
newly appointed official in the institution. Should any flaws in the
make-up of the official be detected during this period, the necessary
correcting steps should be taken to place the official in a more suitable
position, or to dismiss him to ensure that unnecessary false hope of
competency is not created.

4.1.3.3   *Transfer*

In any institution where the career system[82] is applied, officials are
often moved from one position to another. Depending on the success of
the initial placement and the probation period, officials could also be
transferred. Transfers are usually employed to facilitate the optimum
utilisation of available manpower. This implies that the official

may be transferred from one geographical area to another (town/province)
whether on promotion, demotion or retention of rank. Transfers,
especially geographically, could lead to a number of problems, i.e.,
domestically, socially and economically. Therefore, transfers should be
effected with care and not on an *ad hoc* basis. Officials are susceptible
to environmental changes and the aimed increase in productivity,
efficiency and growth, may not materialise should the exact consequences
not be explained beforehand to the official involved.[83]

4.1.4   *Termination of service*

Termination of services is also referred to as *separation*,[84] and
attention should, therefore, be paid to the breaking of ties between the
official and the municipality. To be dismissed due to incompetency,
misconduct and retrenchment could be a traumatic experience for any
official. However, officials may also wish to terminate their services
as a result of dissatisfaction with their job environment or purely
because another job looks more attractive. But, since the career personnel
system applies in the municipal services, it is hoped that officials will
only terminate their services on attainment of the pensionable age of 65.

There are, also, unpredictable reasons for the termination of service,
such as death, terminal diseases and failing physical and mental illness.[85]

The provision of manpower for any institution calls for a well-defined
planning and policy strategy. Should timeous provision not be made for all

possibilities, such as, *inter alia*, expansion or decrease in scope and nature of products, financial and economic recessions and political instability, the municipal council may find itself in a position where it would be unable to meet the required personnel demands.

4.2 *Utilisation of personnel*

Few organisational structures are as dependent on teamwork as local authorities, especially as all officials should work in the common interest of the municipal area. The optimum utilisation of personnel is not generated by the proper execution of the personnel provision functions alone. Administrative officials, by undertaking a number of activities, should have the ability to enhance the quality of performance of subordinates. In the following subdivisions specific attention is paid to each of these activities in an effort to obtain optimum utilisation of personnel.

4.2.1 *Motivating force*

Even if the process of appointing an employee, (which includes meeting of all the physical and educational qualifications of a position), was undertaken conscientiously, it cannot be assumed that the official will perform well at all times. Though *"work is the lifeblood of man's existence"*,[86] the official's qualitative and quantitative levels of production are influenced by the conditions under which he is expected to work.[87] Dimock and Dimock describe motivating force as releasing

"... stimuli which create drive, which in turn is reinforced by the offer of rewards of one kind or another".[88] With the objectives of increased well-being of all citizens and the most advantageous application of money in mind, municipalities should try to mobilise optimum human and technical energy in reaching its goals.[89]

Despite the complexity of the specific local authority, it is still the human element that brings the institution's image, creativity, flexibility and status to the fore. Due to the institutions financial impediments and the lack of resources, leading officials should make the work situation and the conditions under which services are to be rendered as attractive as possible.[90] This is so, largely because municipalities, unlike private enterprises, cannot motivate employees by offering substantial fringe benefits, individual treatment or by changing working conditions at every whim of dissatisfaction.[91]

Opportunities for the satisfaction of off-the-job needs[92] of municipal officials are of the utmost importance, as officials should be able to live out their lives to the full and be acceptable to the surrounding community. If the aim of *off-the-job-acceptance* has been reached, it serves as a great reward in itself and would contribute to acceptance of the work-situation and environment. Despite the modern-day strong emphasis on off-the-job motivation, many an official realises the necessity that the objective of the institution should also serve as their objective.[93] Such a situation should not, however, blindfold leading municipal officials for the importance of on-the-job satisfaction and the realisation that no

or low motivation would result, should the job be boring.[94]

4.2.2   *Communication*

Information plays a key role in the successful operation of an institution.
In order to motivate officials and create a feeling of co-operation,
officials need to be informed regarding their contribution to reach
personal, as well as institutional objectives.[95]   The process through
which this information is transmitted, is called communication.

Communication patterns could be classified as formal or informal; external
or internal; upwards, downwards or lateral.[96]   Communication could also
be conveyed by different media, *viz.* oral, written or even in a silent
manner.   Communication could also be formal or informal.   Formal and
informal communication networks are not easily separated and might often
supplement each other.[97]   When, according to a fixed hierarchical pattern,
a directive or order is sent from someone higher in the hierarchy to an
incumbent of a post at a lower level in the hierarchy, it is said to be
formal.[98]   Formal communication could include, for example printed
documents, procedure codes, letters or even formal oral discussions between
superior and subordinate. Incumbents of posts of equal ranking could also,
by holding meetings or in writing letters to each other, communicate
formally.[99]

The experienced leading official would, nevertheless, realise that far
more communication in the institution takes place informally than formally[100]

and would know how to utilise this situation in pursuit of institutional objectives.[101) In addition, it is also realised that as public opinion on the quality of municipal services is imperative for the successful execution of municipal policies, the public should be kept informed on their activities and intentions. External communication is facilitated through information programmes, news media, television and meetings with interest groups. Internal communication is a prerequisite for understanding the functional activities of the institution. Through internal communication, officials are informed of what they are supposed to do, how, when, with what and why.[102) Leading municipal officials are also provided with information of what they want to know, for example the abilities of personnel, *esprit de corps*, and information on what they should know, for example acceptable levels of performance.

4.2.3   *Leadership skills*

The culmination of the successful utilisation of leadership skills is the emergence of a highly motivated personnel force within the institution, through the effective application of communicating skills. Although the concept of leadership might not be clear,[103) it is an indispensable ingredient in human interaction.[104) With the requirements to be met by municipalities, leadership skills should be employed to fully exploit the latent potential of all officials in pursuit of institutional objectives. Although multiple definitions exists on leadership as a factor, influencing people remains the main theme of each description. In defining leadership, authors like Ghiselli and Brown, differentiate between *"real leaders and men in high-status positions"*.[105) For purposes of this study, however,

the term *leader* would be used to refer to *"the most influential"* participant in *"a process of human interaction, irrespective of position"*.[106] With this in mind, it becomes clear that leadership is not a static, isolated activity, but a dynamic *"behavioural process"*, taking place in dealings between people.[107] The need to influence people stems from the necessity to co-ordinate the activities of the large number of people in municipal employment. Dimock and Dimock describe leadership in administration *"... as supplying the energy, the signals and the example needed to sustain co-operative activity"*.[108]

According to the traits theory, leadership abilities are innate to the leader and are transferred from generation to generation. The traits theory further hypothesises that leaders tend to share common characteristics, *viz.* friendliness, intelligence, strong opinions and a well-built physical appearance.[109] Empirical research could, however, not validate these assumptions.[110] Through further research it was established that the specific circumstances requiring leadership abilities, could change and that different people show proficiency as leaders in different situations. These findings led to the acceptance of the *"situational theory"*,[111] which *"... purports that leadership is situational, that is, it depends on unique factors, variables and circumstances within the total environmental context"*.[112] In recent years a concept of *"third managerial dynamics"*[113] has emerged whereby emphasis is placed on interrelationships between individuals and groups, with psychological motivation and human values, especially human growth and satisfaction, as main elements. Traits should, therefore, not totally be discarded in dealing with leadership and rather

be regarded as one of many variables.[114] With the above knowledge in
mind, the question could be asked: What abilities are then required to
emerge as a leader in any given situation? The answer is impeded by the
continual changing of facts and circumstances, which lends a dynamic
atmosphere to the requirements of leadership.[115]

At first glance, it appears as if the leading official should be a gifted
person, with the ability to comprehend every situation and utilise it in
pursuit of institutional objectives. Each municipality has an own
distinguishing atmosphere portrayed by its objectives, rules and regulations,
which could call for different leadership abilities.[116] Being sensitive
for subordinate feelings and encouraging enthusiastic participation, the
leading official could stimulate support for his sense of accomplishment.[117]
Requirements set by the fast changing world, in which time tends to be a
pressurising force, result in a variety of problems being caused for leaders,
whether political leaders or administrative officials.[118] The strong
belief in individualism and the need for self-actualisation of officials
tend to override the necessity of and need for group participation and -
identification with institutional objectives.[119] A successful leadership
ability could lie in the extent to which institutional objectives could
be married to the personal objectives of officials. To obtain such a
situation, intelligence, creativity, imagination and innovative capacity
are of the foremost abilities required of a leading official.[120]

The skills and competency required of a leading official could be summarised
as having the analytical and judgement ability to utilise the potential of

all officials to the advantage of employee and employer. These abilities should be executed with a strong, but fair sense of determination and flexibility to accommodate as much individualism as deemed fit for the institution.

4.3   *Maintenance of personnel*[121]

Some general acceptable system should be developed to provide a framework within the provision and utilisation of officials could be undertaken. Every employer, whether it is the municipality or a private company, would like to keep his customers satisfied, by rendering the highest possible quality service at the lowest possible cost. This is, however, only possible if the available personnel, which should be suitably qualified to do the work, is, within the institution, utilised to its fullest. Once the work force is secured, it has to be maintained. This means that officials should be at ease with regards to, *inter alia,* tenure of office, leave, facilities and hours of duty. Should they be properly maintained, a relaxed, happy and motivated work force will exist.

A brief look now will be taken at the two important functions that secure the maintenance of a well-motivated work force, *viz.* the remuneration that they will receive in return for the services that they render on behalf of the employer and the records that are kept on their movement and performance.

4.3.1 *Remuneration*

Although position classification is regarded to be the framework for
salaries, the determination and allocation thereof call for distinctive
procedures and actions. On the one hand, the determination of the package
of remuneration is regarded as rather difficult, but on the other hand,
it is *the* essential aspect of municipal personnel adminstration as it
deals with rewarding people for selling their skills, knowledge and
experience to an institution. Although rewards could include *"direct
financial reimbursements and/or indirect non-financial rewards"*,[122)]
money eventually tends to be the most wanted and important factor.
Monetary rewards form the backbone of the eventual utilisation of personnel
and the importance thereof is likely to increase, as the days to work
simply as a labour of love seems to be long passed.[123)] Although the
fallacy exists that the overall spending ability of any government
institution is unlimited (and therefore also in terms of employee remuneration),
the issue *"... is greatly complicated ... by the need for economy and
reducing expenditure on government's side"*.[124)] The municipality is in the
invidious position of having to keep both municipal officials and members
of the public happy in terms of expenditure of tax money. An effective
compensation plan should, nevertheless, be comprehensive, simple and
methodical. The municipality's ability to pay is influenced by a number
of factors, some of which are, the economic and social conditions prevailing
in the area and the country as a whole.

The price of labour is not only influenced by the interplay of supply and
demand, but also the municipality's ability to pay. This could lead to a

remuneration structure not always corresponding with the present prevailing *"economic circumstances of the area and should therefore rather be related to the general level of income of its people".*[125] The economic conditions are again influenced by, amongst others, the *monopoly* in the rendering of specific services such as fire-fighting, health inspection and traffic control. To draw a parallel for salary purposes between these categories and an unparalleled group in the private sector is impossible, and it calls for costly studies of detailed duty sheets and duty descriptions to find a private equivalent in terms of responsibilities, hours of duty, conditions of service and tenure of office. *Despite* the *economic environment* specific services remain to be provided, for example, removal of waste and provisioning of water and electricity. A remuneration package should, therefore, be fixed to ensure sufficient personnel in those groups in times of an economic low-tide or during stages of positive growth.

With regard to the social conditions, it is realised that municipal officials should be in a position to compare favourably with their private counter= parts in terms of material belongings, prestige and pride, as unfavourable comparisons could contribute to an unbecoming image of the municipal service and a resultant loss of potential officials.[126] The quality of service rendered by the municipality is directly linked to the quality of staff, which again is linked to the comparability of remuneration between the two often competing public and private sectors.[127] This issue of remuneration should not, however, be exploited by the municipal officials to such an extent that a mass exodus of municipal officials to private employment is encouraged, as happened in France during the late fifties

and early sixties.[128] People work to earn a living at a level that will ensure acceptance by the community.[129] Determination of compensation policies also calls for securing a *living-wage* earning for officials, though this is a highly sensitive, subjective and ethical issue, as conceptions of a *living-wage* could differ between individuals.[130] To alleviate the difference between cost of living and actual income, and to answer some questions of *living-wage,* the municipality could in the short term resort to payment of allowances.[131] To solve this problem in the long run, would, however, mean continual studies of the cost-of-living index and salaries and to provide for timely corrections. Fringe benefits such as retirement and pension benefits, provision for leave, extra rewards for extra efforts, holiday bonusses, contribution to medical aid funds and subsidised canteens are ways of trying to deal with an otherwise unsatisfactory remuneration package. Each of the aforementioned additions to fixed income, carries its own importance in the eventual success of the total remuneration plan. .

4.3.2   *Personnel records*

Simultaneous with the aforementioned functions, proper records on the performance and movement of officials should be kept up to date. The reason being that the municipality would require knowledge regarding the extent of available personnel resources.[132] Records are defined as *"... any set of data of more than contemporary significance which is intended as evidence about facts or events".*[133] It is believed that records were introduced many years ago in an effort to obtain rational

procedures and information regarding personnel administration.[134]

Although recordkeeping could be regarded as an *"unrewarding project"*,[135] correctly completed records could be useful in providing facts for determining the results in executing the accepted policies and procedures of provision, utilisation and maintenance of personnel.[136] Other reasons for keeping personnel records are that information could be needed by other departments or mayors in answering questions in council meetings. Records also serve as means of communication in that, not only is information conveyed on the individual's performance, but also to help in identifying problem areas such as lack of training and development. Information on day-to-day personnel activities such as appointments and dismissals is easily obtainable and could be used in compiling reports on the extent of personnel transactions.[137] To be of value and use, records should provide relevant information, at least be up to date and accurately completed. Records which leading officials regard as useless should be destroyed and periodic evaluations should be undertaken to determine its usefulness, i.e. whether it is still worth its cost and if it is related to the reports which are to stem from it.

Personnel records and personal records[138] are the two main categories of records used in executing the personnel function. Personnel records are, amongst others, used to ensure standardised procedures in dealing with the establishment. The number and classification of positions should be available at short notice and standard practice is to have a visual representation thereof in the offices of leading officials.[139] Other

personnel records include the duty sheet which is used by the interviewer as it provides all the required information on the appointment requirements for a specific position. It is also used to determine training and development needs in the institution.[140]

Every official has a *personal file* which is kept in the personnel department.[141] These files contain complete records on the official's movement in the institution, such as his application form, health certificate, educational qualification certificates, leave forms and merit assessment forms. Application forms and health certificates are used to obtain basic information of an applicant. These forms should supply relevant information, such as the applicant's age, qualifications, experience and his general health history, which could be used for early elimination of unsuitable candidates. A rather important record is the personal record chart of each official. It provides quick information on date of appointment, ranks held, salary scales, salary notches and incremental dates, as well as leave records and training programmes attended. Normally the record charts are kept alphabetically in cabinets for easy reference.[142]

If the objectives of easy reference and quick(er) decision-making are to be attained, the keeping and evaluation of records should be the responsibility of suitably qualified functionaries and be properly filed and indexed.[143]

4.4   Training and development

As the training and development component of municipal personnel administration forms the pivot point of this thesis, it will be discussed in detail in chapters four, five and six.

5.   SUMMARY

Since the inception of a refreshment post at the southern most tip of Africa, a special kind of government and administration was created, *viz.* local government and administration. From the earliest times it was believed that the citizen should take the decisions that affect his life the most, namely that at the local level of government. Throughout the years local government and administration experienced significant turbulence. In fact, since unionization in 1910, uniformity in local government and administration was experienced at an increasing tempo. Though a number of acts and ordinances restrict, *inter alia*, the discretionary authority of municipal personnel, individual municipalities do, however, enjoy a considerable extent of freedom in own decision-making. However, no number or extent of legislation can prescribe the quality and quantity of personnel that are required to render indispensable goods and services to the community. For this reason special care should be taken in the application of the diverse number of functions comprising the concept *municipal personnel administration*. This term is used to refer to all activities and functions engaged in executing all matters pertaining to the work force. It is an umbrella term referring to personnel provisioning, utilisation and maintenance, as well as personnel training

and development. A fixed list of functions undertaken in these component parts of municipal personnel administration is not possible due to the constant growth of institutions requiring complex personnel administration.

It is a truism that employees would like to know what their ultimate career possibilities and financial gain would be when joining and staying with an institution. It is only after establishing this framework, that an institution could endeavour to recruit, select, appoint, pay, motivate, lead and train its personnel. The way in which these functions are executed, will largely determine the initiative, motivation, enthusiasm and willingness with which municipal officials will serve their clientele. Being individuals, people expect *special* treatment of their qualifications and qualities and will, therefore, always try to promote their own personal well-being first. To enable officials to improve themselves, the local authority should, in executing the personnel functions appropriately, amongst others, provide opportunities for training and leave sufficient room for development of the potential qualities of its personnel.

The following three chapters deal explicitly with the comprehensive role and contribution of training and development in and to the continued successful survival of the local authority. To this end, in Chapter IV some parallels will be drawn between training and development, indicating not only the areas in which they differ and concur, but also the ability and will to learn from the focal point of both these concepts.

6.   *REFERENCES AND FOOTNOTES*

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      <u>management systems in the Republic of South Africa</u> (Cape Town:
      Government Printer, 1982), P.C. 1/1982, p. 19.

2.   Wraith, R.: <u>Local administration in West Africa</u>, second edition
      (London: George Allen & Unwin, 1972), pp. 20 - 21. See appendices
      2, 3 & 4 for schematical presentations of the current and expected
      future structure of regional/local government in South Africa.

3.   Republic of South Africa: <u>Republic of South Africa Constitution</u>
      <u>Act</u>, 1961 (Act 32 of 1961). This Act is now known as the <u>Provincial</u>
      <u>Government Act</u>, 1961 (Act 32 of 1961). <u>Infra</u>., p. 124.

4.   See also Natal: <u>Local Authorities Ordinance</u>,1974 (Ord. 25 of 1974);
      Transvaal: <u>Local Government Ordinance</u>, 1939 (Ord. 17 of 1939);
      Orange Free State: <u>Local Government Ordinance</u>, 1962 (Ord. 8 of 1962).

5.   See <u>Republic of South Africa Constitution Act</u>, 1983 (Act 110 of 1983),
      section 30.

6.   See also Cloete, J.J.N.: <u>Munisipale regering en administrasie in</u>
      <u>Suid-Africa</u>,third edition (Pretoria: Van Schaik, 1983), p. 42.

7.   Gildenhuys, J.S.H.: <u>Vrede, vryheid en voorspoed: 'n Uitdaging vir</u>
      <u>munisipale owerhede</u> (Pretoria: HAUM, 1981), p. 5.

8.   Cloete, J.J.N.: <u>Provincial and municipal government and administration:</u>
      <u>Selected readings</u> (Pretoria: Van Schaik, 1978), p. 159.

9.   Adlem, J. & A. du Pisani: <u>Stedelike politiek en administrasie:</u>
      <u>'n Inleiding</u> (Pretoria: HAUM, 1982), p. 77. See also Cloete, J.J.N.:
      <u>Provincial and municipal...</u>, op. cit., pp. 89 - 93.

10.   <u>Ibid</u>., p. 158.

11.   See also Humes, S. & E. Martin: <u>The structure of local government</u>
      (The Hague: International Union of Local Authorities, 1969), part two.
      The term <u>dogma</u> refers to a system of doctrines put forward to be
      received on authority, see also Hayward, A.L. & J.J. Sparkes: <u>The</u>
      <u>concise English dictionary</u> (London: Omega Books, 1982), p. 335.

12.   <u>Supra</u>., p. 4.

13.   Republic of South Africa: <u>Public Service Act</u>, 1984 (Act 111 of 1984).

14.   Republic of South Africa: <u>Unemployment Insurance Act</u>, 1966 (Act 30 of
      1966), preamble. This Act provides for the creation of an unemploy=
      ment fund. On becoming unemployed, contributors receive an amount for
      a period as determined by the Act. <u>Infra</u>., p. 122.

15.   Republic of South Africa: <u>Workmens' Compensation Act</u>, 1941 (Act 30
       of 1941), preamble. Hereby provision is made for the remuneration
       of employees who sustain injuries whilst performing their tasks.

16.   Imagine the public outcry should a doctor whose name has been
       removed from the registration list, be appointed as the town or
       city district surgeon.

17.   Trade-unions should not be confused with professional institutes
       like, for example, the Institute of Town Clerks or Municipal
       Treasurers, which through conferences and custom-made training
       programmes, endeavour to promote a specific career.

18.   This Act regulates only the recruitment and employment of Black
       workers, whilst some of the other Acts, <u>viz</u>. Act 30 of 1941 and
       Act 30 of 1966 refer to all racial groups. See also Cloete, J.J.N.:
       <u>Munisipale regering ...</u>, <u>op. cit.</u>, pp. 139 - 141 and Cilliers, A.C.:
       "Subordinate legislation:- A contemporary view", <u>SAIPA, Journal of
       Public Administration</u>, vol. 11, no. 3, September 1976, pp. 101 - 111.

19.   As from 1 July 1986, it is expected that provincial councils in its
       current form will cease to exist. For the sake of continuity,
       clarity and completeness, the impact of provincial ordinances on
       local personnel administration should be briefly sketched.

20.   At the time of unionization, the then South Africa entailed two
       distinctive Boer Republics and two British colonies, each with
       very definite ideologies on government and administration.

21.   In Natal it reads <u>Local Authorities Ordinance</u>, whilst in the Cape
       Province it reads <u>Municipal Ordinance</u>.

22.   Republic of South Africa: <u>Remuneration of Town Clerks Act</u>, 1984
       (Act 115 of 1984). In terms of this Act all municipalities are
       divided into 15 groups which serve as guide-line for the remuneration
       of town clerks. As this Act (see preamble) tends to regulate the
       payment of the town clerk as chief executive and administrative
       official, it also places a ceiling on the payment of all other
       municipal officials. This Act, therefore, serves for the general
       determination of individual remuneration of town clerks that are
       presently receiving a special dispensation from their respective
       councils and to provide for items like personal telephones, a
       thirteenth cheque and other allowances. In exceptional cases, the
       Administrator may approve deviation from the Act. The groups are
       as follows:

Grade	Remuneration - R per annum
01	18 582
02	20 484
03	22 386
04	24 288
05	26 190
06	29 250
07	31 569
08	33 888
09	36 525
10	39 480
11	44 388
12	48 285
13	52 182
14	56 550
15	61 389

23. Cape of Good Hope: Municipal Ordinance, 1974 (Ord. 20 of 1974), chapter VII.

24. Orange Free State: Local Government Ordinance, 1962 (Ord. 8 of 1962), section 67.

25. Cloete, J.J.N.: Munisipale regering ..., op. cit., p. 143.

26. Green, L.P.: History of local government in South Africa (Cape Town: Juta, 1957), p. 3. The use of a heemraden system was introduced during the thirteenth century in the Netherlands to form a lower court and the Dutch landdrost in the area served as an agent of the higher authorities in respect of judicial law and order and defence matters. Infra., p. 49.

27. Ibid., p. 5.

28. Ibid., p. 28.

29. Ibid., p. 16.

30. Provision was, however, made for a gradual adaptation of local government and administration to peculiar local social, political, physical and aesthetical values and conditions. See also Cloete, J.J.N.: Central, provincial and municipal institutions of South Africa (Pretoria: Van Schaik, 1982, p. 242.

31. Green, L.P.: op. cit., p. 11.

32. Republic of South Africa: Official yearbook of the Republic of South Africa (Johannesburg: Chris van Rensburg Publications, 1984), pp. 3 - 10.

33. See also Green, L.P.: op. cit., p. 12.

34. Supra., p. 47.

35.   Green, L.P.: op. cit., p. 11.

36.   Humes, S. & E. Martin: op. cit., p. 149.

37.   Ibid.

38.   Ibid.

39.   Infra., p. 64.

40.   See for example Natal Local Authorities Ordinance, 1974
      (Ord. 25 of 1974).

41.   See Remuneration of Town Clerks Act, 1984 (Act 115 of 1984).

42.   Cloete, J.J.N.: Munisipale regering ..., op. cit., p. 136.

43.   Humes, S. & E. Martin: op. cit., p. 151.

44.   This has also been built into Remuneration of Town Clerks Act,
      1984 (Act 115 of 1984).

45.   Cloete, J.J.N.: Munisipale regering ..., op. cit., p. 137.

46.   This fact was substantiated during interviews with the town clerks
      of various smaller municipalities in Natal and the Orange Free
      State during April 1985. Infra., p. 120.

47.   Interview with the town clerks of Bergville, Richards Bay,
      Estcourt on 22 - 24 April, 1985.

48.   Humes, S. & E. Martin: op. cit., p. 150.

49.   Cloete, J.J.N.: Munisipale regering ..., op. cit., p. 138.

50.   See also ibid., and Humes, S. & E. Martin: op. cit., pp. 150 - 151.

51.   Cloete, J.J.N.: Munisipale regering ..., op. cit., p. 138.

52.   Stahl, O.G.: Public personnel administration, seventh edition
      (New York: Harper & Row, 1976), p. 16.

53.   See also Cloete, J.J.N.: Provincial and municipal ..., op. cit.,
      p. 212.

54.   Personnel, together with policy-making, organising, financing,
      procedures and control, form the generic administrative processes
      of municipal administration.

55.   Botes, J.: "Challenges to local authorities in the modern community",
      SAIPA, Journal of Public Administration, vol. 11, no. 3, September
      1976, passim.

56.   Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 109.

57.   Ibid., p. 82.

58.   Republic of South Africa: Central statistical service newsletter: 27 February 1985 (Pretoria: Government Printing Works, 1985).

59.   White, L.D.: Introduction to the study of public administration, fourth edition (New York: MacMillan Company, 1955), p. 354.

60.   Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 82.

61.   Interview with Mr Len de Wet, Town Clerk, Newcastle, on Wednesday, 1 August 1985.

62.   Though the size of the municipality and lack of suitably qualified personnel could force two or more divisions to be merged.

63.   See also Cloete, J.J.N.: Central, provincial ..., op. cit., p. 261.

64.   Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 77.

65.   White, L.D.: op. cit., p. 354.

66.   Task description refers to the organisational relationships, responsibilities and specific duties that constitute a given job or position, see ibid.

67.   Task specification is the classification of tasks in terms of similarity of duties and responsibilities, see also Cloete, J.J.N.: Personnel administration (Pretoria: Van Schaik, 1985), pp. 98 - 99.

68.   Infra., p. 61.

69.   Infra., p. 66.

70.   Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 82.

71.   See also Presthus, R.: Public administration, sixth edition (New York: Ronald Press, 1975), p. 237. Supra., p. 60. Infra.. p. 167.

72.   Fougerè, L.: Civil service systems: Texts and essays (Unesco, 1967), p. 261. Infra., p. 65.

73.   Cloete, J.J.N.: Personnel ..., op. cit., p. 114.

74.   For more information on the various recruitment methods that could be employed - see also Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 127; Presthus, R.: op. cit., chapter 12; Yoder, D. et al.: Handbook on personnel management and labor relations (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958), p. 73.3.

75.   See also White, L.D.: op. cit., pp. 307 - 308; Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 129.

76. Yoder, D., et al.: op. cit., chapter 8; White, L.D.: op. cit., chapter 23; Wanous, J.P.: Organizational entry (Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1980), chapter 2.

77. The best candidate is the one whose educational qualifications and experience match the minimum appointment requirements for any given position. Supra., p. 50.

78. Cloete, J.J.N.: Personnel ..., op. cit., p. 115.

79. Barton, R. & W.L. Chappell: Public administration: The work of government (Illinois: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1985), p. 104.

80. Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 161.

81. Barton, R. & W.L. Chappell: op. cit., p. 104

82. Career refers to the "progression of an individual in a field of work throughout the employeable years of his life". Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 57. Supra., p. 62.
Infra., p. 147.

83. Cloete, J.J.N.: Personnel ..., op. cit., p. 123; Barton, R. & W.L. Chappell: op. cit., p. 104. Though geographical transfers are not evident in South Africa, the new proposed regional services councils with extended aid to various local authorities could cause officials to be transferred. Supra., p. 60.

84. Ibid., p. 105.

85. Cloete, J.J.N.: Personnel ..., op. cit., pp. 256 - 262.

86. Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 183.

87. See also Ghiselli, E.E. & C.W. Brown: Personnel and industrial psychology, second edition (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1955), p. 271.

88. Dimock, M.E. & G.O. Dimock: Public Administration, fourth edition (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969), p. 370.

89. See also Hampton, D.R.: Contemporary management (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1977), p. 35.

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91. Ibid., p. 31.

92. These needs include, inter alia, good housing, acceptable social image.

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94. Sikula, A.F.: Personnel administration and human resources management (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1976), p. 78; Hampton, D.R.: op. cit., p. 51.

95.   With regard to the public sector, this would tantamount ultimately to the promotion of the general well-being of the community.

96.   See also Pfiffner, J.M. & F.P. Sherwood: Administrative organization (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1960), p. 307.

97.   Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: Modern public administration, fifth edition (New York: Harper & Row, 1980), p. 234.

98.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 102.

99.   Robbins, S.P.: The administrative process (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1976), p. 395.

100.   See also Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 102.

101.   Strauss, G. & L.R. Sayles: Personnel: The human problems of management, second edition (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1967), p. 223.

102.   Lorch, R.S.: Public administration (New York: West Publishing Co., 1978), p. 181.

103.   Confusion is caused by defining different aspects as the crux of leadership e.g. the person, the position or the functions to be undertaken - Ghiselli, E.E. & C.W. Brown: op. cit., p. 467.

104.   Ibid., p. 468; Lorch, R.S.: op. cit., p. 203.

105.   Ghiselli, E.E. & C.W. Brown: op. cit., p. 467.

106.   Lorch, R.S.: op. cit., p. 203.

107.   Hampton, D.R.: op. cit., p. 283.

108.   Dimock, M.E. & G.O. Dimock: op. cit., p. 296.

109.   See also Lorch, R.S.: op. cit., p. 203.

110.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 119.

111.   Ghiselli, E.E. & C.W. Brown: op. cit., p. 471.

112.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit. p. 122.

113.   Dimock, M.E. & G.O. Dimock: op. cit., p. 301.

114.   See also Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 122.

115.   See also Stahl, O.G.: The personnel job ..., op. cit., pp. 105 - 109.

- 88 -

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129. See also Kahn, H.R.: Salaries in the public services in England and Wales (London: George Allen & Unwin, 1962), chapter 20.

130. A minimum living-wage for a single person is sure to be inadequate for a family man.

131. In Belgium use is made of the interim payment of cost-of-living allowances; an extra month's salary or subsidies - Fougerè, L.: op. cit., p. 261. The United States of America make use of the payment of a family allowance when a person gets married or with the birth of a child - Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 98. In South Africa use is sometimes made of a so-called recruitment allowance.

132. Cloete, J.J.N.: Personnel ..., op. cit., p. 67.

133. Yoder, D. et al.: op. cit., p. 22.2.

134. See also Strauss, G. & L.R. Sayles,: op. cit., p. 7.

135. Yoder, D. et al.: op. cit., p. 22.2.

136. See also Cloete, J.J.N.: op. cit., p. 67.

137.   For more reasons see Yoder, D. et al.: op. cit., p. 22.3

138.   Personnel records refer to various formats used to execute the
        personnel functions, whilst the personal records are dealing
        with and carry information of every official individually.

139.   Personal observations in offices of leading municipal officials.

140.   Infra., p. 116.

141.   At the majority of municipalities that was visited, a personal
        file is held at the personnel section of either the Town Clerk's
        office or the Personnel/Administrative Officer's office.

142.   Personal observations in municipal offices. Nowadays especially
        the larger municipalities have all their personal and personnel
        files on computer.

143.   The days have passed too when less qualified or partially
        handicapped people were put in a small office to deal with records.

CHAPTER IV

TRAINING VERSUS DEVELOPMENT

1. INTRODUCTION

Since the early days of man's existence, "... *training became an essential ingredient in the march of civilization*".[1] Through the years acquired knowledge has been transferred from generation to generation. Although it appeared as if mankind had reached saturation point in producing something completely new, inventions, nevertheless, keep on appearing.[2] The only ways in which human beings would be able to keep pace with continual changes in life, are through development of his own mind and through training in the use of skills and abilities. Human beings form the pivot of institutional survival, which is closely linked to the institution's commitment to provide training and development opportunities.

2. TRAINING, EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

It is apt to clarify the terms training, education and development, before embarking on a discussion of training needs and facilities.

2.1   *Training*

Webster's third new international dictionary[3] defines the term training

as,

> "... the teaching, drill or discipline by which powers
> of mind or body are developed; and to train ... may
> suggest methodical, thorough instruction and guidance
> with a specific end in mind until rapid and successful
> execution of duties and tasks are assured".[4]

Furthermore, Adu regards training as,

> "... any form of instruction designed to improve an
> officer's capacity in his present job or to enable
> him to perform a more responsible job. Training
> also implies formal instruction in theory and
> practice to prepare a person for the performance of
> a specific task".[5]

Finally, Steyn views training as "(D)ie bewuste(like) vorming, oftewel

begeleiding, wat die werknemer deur die bemoeienis van die werkgewer

ontvang".[6]

From the above definitions it could be gathered that training is primarily

directed at the preparation of an individual to do a job corresponding with

his abilities.[7] This preparation could, *inter alia*, take the form of

"... *instruction, practical exercise and coaching ... for a specific*

vocation, profession or task".[8] Moreover, training is a dynamic, conti=

nuous process. Thus, due to the continual changes and developments in the

fields of economics, politics, industry and techonology, training programmes

should be reviewed periodically to ensure that it remains applicable and

viable.[9] In addition, through the training process, officials should be

physically and mentally prepared to accept and adapt to changes[10] in the

skills required to fit into the environment in which they operate.

2.2   *Development*

The objective of training employees is not only to make them more skilful

in doing a job, but also to provide a stimulus for self-development. Development is *"concerned with the growth of the whole man"*[11] and is defined as *"... gradual advance, or growth through progressive changes"*.[12] Owing to the stimulus provided by training, the extent of development would be detected in the ability of the individual to judge and deal with new and different situations by using his acquired knowledge.[13] Development is therefore more *mind*-oriented than training and the extent thereof could also become evident in the levels of maturity and growth reached by the individual.[14] Development is also regarded as *"the label given to educational procedures designed to teach conceptual instead of technical skills"*.[15] Although development is closely linked to training sessions, development should not be regarded as a matter of course.[16] Development would be brought about, only if the official has a desire to achieve more maturity and growth and if he possesses the ability to be developed.[17] As the lines of demarcation between the concepts *training* and *development* could at times be blurred,[18] *training* could for purposes of this thesis, be defined as steps taken by the employer to provide employees with the knowledge and skills required for daily task performance, whilst *development* is mainly the responsibility of the employee (with the help of his employer) to obtain a higher level of competency in those directions set by training.

2.3   *Education*

As training is regarded to be career-orientated with improved competency development in mind, it is accepted that the individual already has a certain foundation of knowledge to build on. This foundation is essentially the forum of education. Although training and education cannot be separated[19] as the one often flows into the other, a distinction should, nevertheless, for the sake of clarity, be made at this stage.[20] It should not be

inappropriate to mention the importance that a firm basis for training

and development ought to be laid by the school education system. Although

this thesis is not concerned with the ethical norms underlying the

prevailing educational system of the country, it would be incomplete

not to mention the educative role thereof. In this regard, McClellan speaks

of training and education as *"cousins and competitors"*.[21)] The term

education is derived from the Latin word *educare* which is essentially

concerned with the bringing up or leading upwards of children by adults

in *"... their own ascent to <u>adulthood</u> as the formal and ultimate or total

aims of education"*.[22)] In other words, the *"process whereby the mature

lead the immature to maturity"*.[23)] The success of the ultimate and optimum

training and development of municipal personnel, is, therefore, dependent

on the extent to which employees as children were, through education, made

aware of their environment and its contribution to man's existence and

survival.

Education can be described as the planned transfer of knowledge, insight,

behaviour patterns and values.[24)] Moreover, education is an ongoing process

which does not stop once the individual leaves an educational institution.

Education mainly takes place within the confines of a recognised or official

educational institution, such as a school, technical college, technikon or

university. Education could be general or career-orientated, but, the

aim remains to improve the intellectual ability of the individual. In

addition, in a wide frame of reference education aims to increase the

intellectual and cultural levels of the total population.[25)] Therefore,

education for purposes of this study is taken to mean the schooling process

of any individual from birth to death. In other words, it is the continual

adaption of the individual to his environment.

2.4   *CONCLUSION*

In conclusion, the relationship between training, development and education could be seen as (i) acknowledging the fact that training is narrow in scope and mostly concerned with the acquisition of skills; (ii) development though still job-related, is much broader in scope; whilst (iii) education involves the acquisition of knowledge of a general nature.[26] This relationship can, therefore be illustrated as follows:
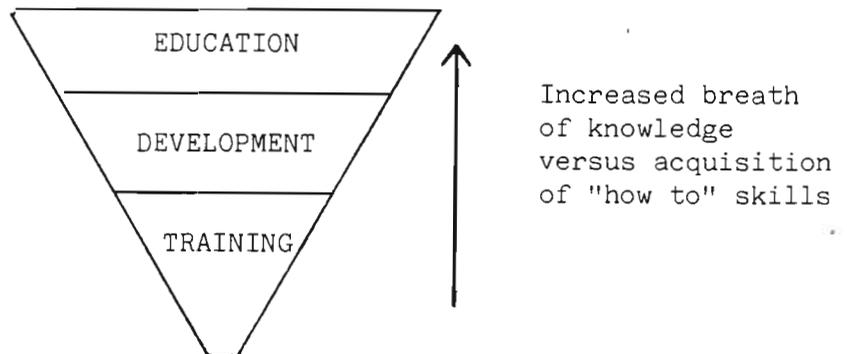
Figure 2.   *RELATIONS OF EDUCATION, DEVELOPMENT AND TRAINING*

3.   *WHAT IS LEARNING?*

From the above exposition it is clear that training and development generate an increased level of competency, not only with regards to a specific job, but also to personal maturity. To give effect to this intention, the individual has to be subjected to a process whereby a relatively permanent change in behaviour becomes evident. This process is usually referred to as learning.[27]

According to Folley, learning forms the crux of the training process and

"training exists to bring about learning".[28]   For purposes of this study,

it has been accepted that education, training and development are

inseparable and cannot be regarded as entitites on its own.[29]   If

learning is then the crux of training, the component parts can be illustrated

schematically as follows:
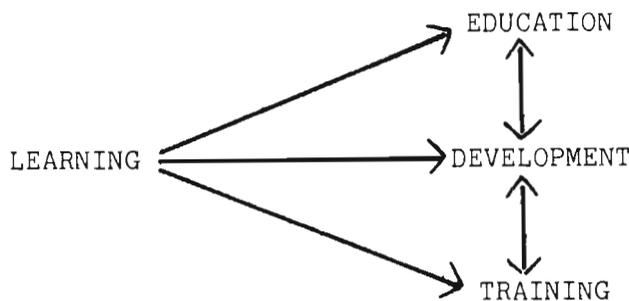
Figure 3.   *COMPONENT PARTS OF LEARNING*

Accordingly, learning is a generic prerequisite and mutually inclusive

activity for increasing the competence of any one individual. Petasis[30]

describes learning as a change in behaviour which could either be permanent

or semi-permanent. Gagne and Fleischmann view learning as *"... the internal*

neural process assumed to occur whenever a change in performance, not due to

growth or fatigue, exhibits itself".[31]   Beach defines learning as

"that human process by which skills, knowledge, habits and attitutes are

acquired and utilized in such a way that behavior is modified,"[32] whilst

Kimble maintains that learning *"is a relatively permanent change in*

behavioral potentiality that occurs as a result of reinforced practice".[33]

Learning cannot be observed directly, except under various controlled

circumstances.[34] However, in order to cause voluntary and rational changes in behaviour patterns, four levels of learning should apply.[35] The four levels of learning are: knowing- about; understanding; acceptance and ability to apply and can be illustrated as follows:[36]

Non-awareness   Knowing-about   Understanding
 of something   level   level

Continuum of knowledge

Point of awareness   Degree of under=   Mastery of subject
that something or   standing- just   involving concept
concept exists   enough to permit
                      a person to use
                      the thing or
                      concept
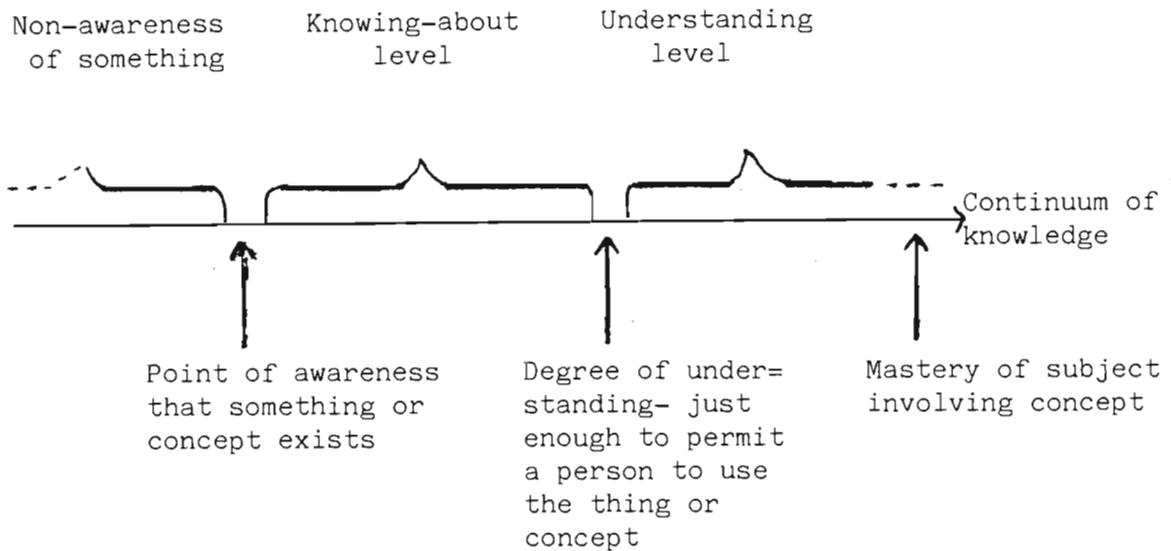
Figure 4.   *LEVELS OF LEARNING*

These four levels of learning remain in force, irrespective of the locality or level or extent of training programmes. For this reason, as well as the fact that various factors may influence or affect learning,[37] some conditions for or principles of effective learning have been devised.[38]

3.1   *Learning climate*

As learning cannot take place in a vacuum, a susceptible learning climate should be provided.[39] Trainers carry the responsibility to provide an atmosphere or climate conducive to learning. The required climate is one *"that encourages and assists the trainees to progress through each of the four levels of training"*.[40] Such a climate allows for the individuality

of the trainees to investigate situations, devise and apply solutions and

to learn from positive and negative achievements. In this climate no

unnecessary emotional harassment takes place. Trainees are at ease with

their behaviour and vulnerability and can openly, without fear for

punishment, learn at their own pace. Through this process, a more

effective willingness to be subjected to new information, could be

sustained.

In essence, the characteristics of a climate conducive to learning in

municipal environments could be summarised as follows:[41)]

> "1. Learning takes place in a group setting.
>
> 2. Openness and mutual acceptance exists between
>   the group members and members have a strong
>   attraction to the group.
>
> 3. The instructor is perceived by group members
>   as being supportive and genuinely interested
>   in their learning the concepts being taught,
>   as well as in them as people. The instructor
>   is enthusiastic about the concepts being taught
>   and shows eagerness for trainees to learn them.
>
> 4. The concepts covered are sequenced in logical
>   order and are covered at a pace that causes
>   the acceptance of new thinking patterns and
>   processes and the acquisition of new skills
>   and new forms of behaviors to occur gradually.
>
> 5. Trainees have a desire to know.
>
> 6. Learning is an active process. Trainees are
>   gaining insights and making generalizations
>   and conclusions for themselves".

To learn requires of the trainees to be motivated and eager to receive new

information. Should the atmosphere be one of anticipation to share new

information and to inspire the trainees to assimilate that information, much has been achieved in creating the correct breeding ground for training and development of municipal personnel.[42]

3.2   *Principles of learning*

3.2.1   *Will to learn*

Authors[43] agree that without a *will* to learn, no effective learning could take place. This *will* to learn could only be generated once the receiver or trainee is receptive to instruction,[44] in other words, willing to *except* and *respond* to stimuli.[45]

3.2.2   *Need to learn*

The need to learn stems from an individual's motivation to satisfy certain needs. Psychologists and administrators agree that employees are stimulated by inner needs and drives to achieve a goal.[46] Environment and conditions of life, do, however, influence the inner drive. Consequently, resultant behaviour patterns and practices of employees of municipal personnel administration should be recognised. Due to the influences exerted on motivation from either within the individual, or through external stimuli, motives to learn could be classified as intrinsic and extrinsic.[47] As learning could only be effective to the extent that trainees are motivated by a perception of a satisfied need, a brief look at the need hierarchy is necessary.

3.2.2.1   *Need hierarchy*

According to Maslow, a specific need hierarchy exists within each individual. This hierarchy can be illustrated as follows:[48]
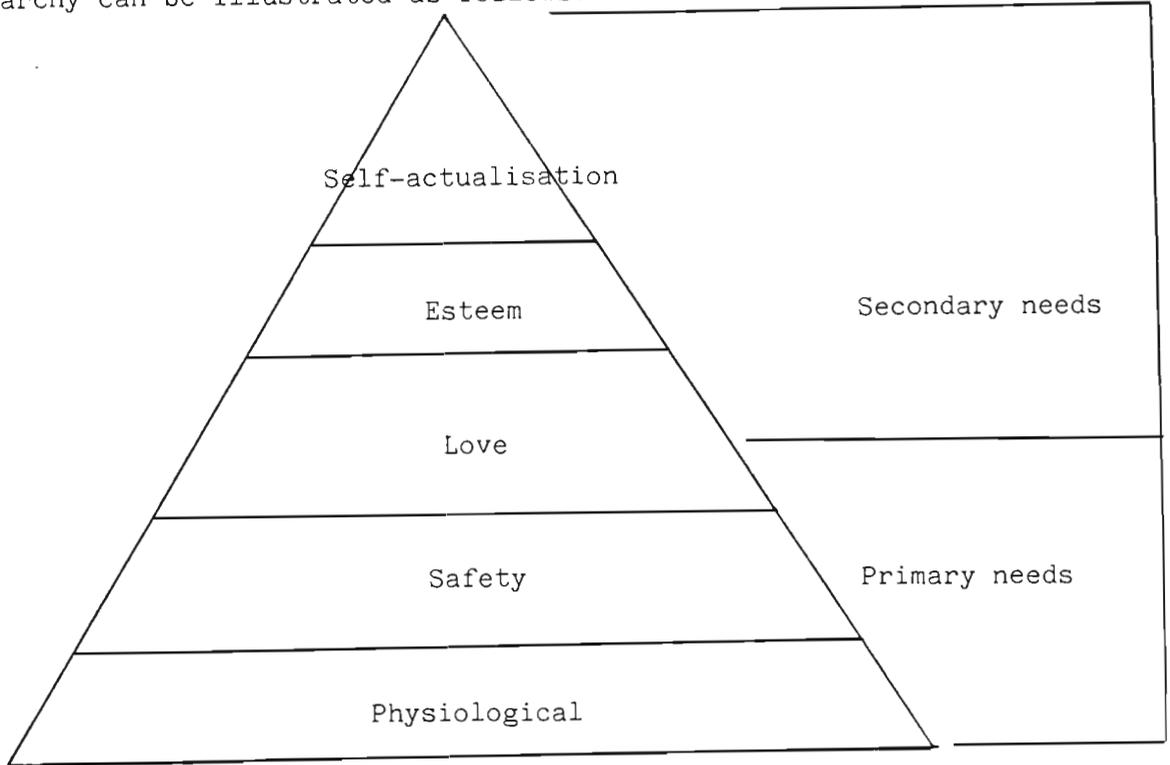
Figure 5.   *MASLOW'S NEED HIERARCHY*

As the primary needs in the hierarchy are satisfied, the satisfaction of the secondary needs receive preference and become the dominant motivating or driving force. Criticism against Maslow's theory hierarchy lies in the apparent ignorance of individualism in need preference and lack in supporting evidence that needs are activated in a consistent sequence.[49] With individuals more and more wanting to prove their individuality and administrative officials realising employees are not on a par with machinery, research had led to the development of a needs model,[50] indicating that at any given time man would attempt to meet multiple needs at different levels as is depicted in figure 6:[51]

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────┐
│        │        │        │          │
│        │        │   Self-│          │
│        │        │   actualisation    │  Other
│   Love │  Esteem│        │          │  needs
│        │        │        │          │
├────────┴────────┴────────┴──────────┤
│        Physiological and safety       │
└─────────────────────────────────────┘
```

Regarded as
intrinsic needs
of all individuals.
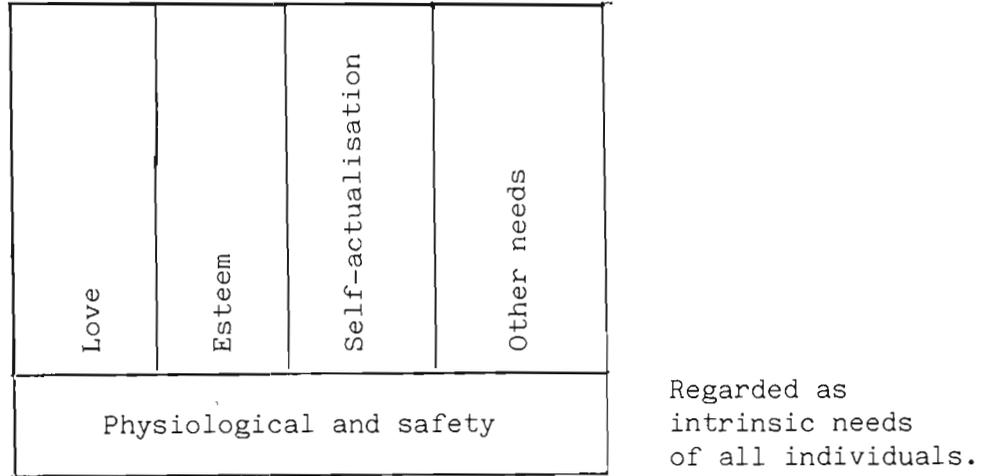
Figure 6.   *MULTIPLE NEED HIERARCHY*

3.2.3   *Motivation*

As learning could only take place within an individual once the underlying

motivation is present, due regard should be had for the satisfying of

needs set out in the individual's need hierarchy. One of the first things

a human being therefore learns, is how to satisfy basic physiological

needs like eating and washing. However, for the learning process to take

effect, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation should be present. It

stands to reason that should acceptable extrinsic incentives be present,

but the intrinsic will to respond is lacking, the chances for effective

learning to take place, are minimised.[52] Trainers have to acknowledge

the existence and interrelationship of needs, motivation and learning.

To the same extent that one expects some kind of reward once a need is

satisfied, e.g. not to feel hungry after you have eaten,[53] one expects

to be rewarded when something was learnt. Therefore, rewards, whether

positive or negative, play a role in the motivation to learn.

3.2.4   *Stimuli and response*

In addition to motivation, appropriate stimuli and response are required if learning is to take place.[54)]   This means that trainees should be stimulated by relevant and applicable information. For example, should one wish to train a trainee how to complete questionnaires, it would be nonsensical to hand him completed forms. Learning cannot come about only through listening to or watching somebody else works. It is only once the trainee is literally thrown in by the deep end and performing the task, that he learns anything substantially.[55)]   It should, however, be realised that learning a physical task, differs from learning a mental task with regards to practical opportunity. The nature and extent of appropriate stimuli would, therefore, be determined by the type of learning required. The training officer has to take cognisance of the fact that correct and incorrect examples of the teaching matter have to be presented. For example, when explaining to an official what type of bricks are acceptable in terms of the municipal building regulations, he should also have examples of the illegal or unacceptable bricks.[56)]   This, however, does not diminish the role of theory in the training process. Trainees should learn enough theory to understand the principles and reasons underlying their skill and art. This is also necessary to be able to cope in a satisfactory manner with the problems inherent to any work situation.

3.2.5   *Performance confirmation*

Motivation, correct simuli and practical responses are not enough to guarantee effective learning. The trainee needs to know how he is

progressing. For this reason some confirmation or response as to progress, is required. Confirmation is regarded as the *make or break* phase of learning. Behavioural scientists maintain that it is not necessarily the time between response and confirmation that is the determining factor in effective learning, but the *activity* taking place during that time.[57]

Research has further proven that the occurrence of learning increased as people are informed of their achievements.[58] Confirmation or feedback of response should not be only negative or positive. It could be detrimental to the motivation of the trainee if he is only corrected and never complemented or *vice versa*.[59] Some criterion has to be devised by the trainers whereby the trainee could measure his own standard of performance. Providing such a criterion measure, the trainee not only knows whether he is progressing or not, but also where he stands in relation to what remains to be learnt. It, therefore, is imperative for confirmation to be automatic, immediate and meaningful.[60]

3.3 *Principles of training*

3.3.1 *Prerequisites*

As training and learning go hand in hand[61] the trainer should not only be knowledgeable with regards to the principles and conditions of learning, but also realise the effect of the application of the principles of training on effective learning. Training is job-directed, in other words, it aims to improve and develop a higher level of competency with regards to a

specific task. The intention is to generate changed behaviour.[62] In

preparing trainees for improved competency, the principles of both learning

and training are interdependent and should not be examined or applied in

isolation. This is equally applicable to on-the-job and off-the-job

training sessions.[63]

Application of training principles is a prerequisite for successful training.

Successful and adequate training are further prerequisites, should trainees

be expected to take responsibility for the execution and consequences of

their work. One of the cornerstones of municipal administration is

adherence to the guide-lines of public accountability.[64] In other words,

the official should be able to justify and explain his actions. This

accountability could be exercised only to the extent that the official is

trained in his job *and* realises his contribution to the ultimate objective

of municipal administration: improvement of the general well-being of the

community.

3.3.2   *Motivation*

To the same extent that motivation is required to generate a will to learn,

motivation is indispensable for training. If trainees are to assimulate and

identify with training, they have to be interested in and willing to learn.[65]

Another principle of training, is that everybody involved in the process of

learning, should know what is expected of them. Trainers and trainees should

understand their respective responsibilities, and what is expected of them.

Personnel is the most valuable asset of any municiapal authority, and,

therefore, enough time, money and effort should be spent on the training and

development of this basic human resource.[66] Training and development of

personnel also refer to self-development. Although trainees should utilise
each training session for self-development, it remains the responsibility of
leading officials to determine time constraints and performance standards.
In addition, training should be directed at the individual and the collective
needs of trainees, to satify immediate and future requirements.

3.3.3   *Quality of the trainee*

A training principle which should not be underestimated is the quality of
the trainee.[67]   The approach used should be *"fully understood and
approved by"*[68] the supervisor or leading official. As was shown earlier,[69]
knowledge of results in itself serve as learning stimuli. The rate and
effectiveness of training are directly linked to the quality of knowledge
on performance fed back to the trainee.[70] Some trainees learn faster than
others and can assimilate a wider variety and spectrum of information at
one time, whilst others learn slower and only a little at a time. The pace
set at training sessions should suit the ability of individual trainees to
learn. Thus, the trainer, in planning the training session, should take
cognisance of the individual's inherent limits. When imparting results,
sensitivity and humanity should be dominating the attitude of the trainer.
In most divisions of municipal institutions, e.g. administrative, clerical
and technical, the highest quality and longest lasting training are obtained
where theory was accompanied by practical exercises according to fixed
standards under skilled supervision and coaching.[71]   A final principle of
training is the importance of training sessions to be *"planned, executed and
evaluated systematically"*, not losing sight of specific and general organisa=
tional needs.[72]

The principles of training enumerated above, indicate that a large pool of
diversified information should be classified and utilised by the trainers

in order to reach the whole person and not only certain skills. Training programmes should, therefore, provide fully for an effort to cooperatively and systematically improve the quality of life of the trainees. To this end a holistic or systems approach to training is required.

4.   *SYSTEMS APPROACH TO TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT*

Training is not an end in itself, but a means toward an end. To the same extent that training and development are regarded as inseparable activities,[73] training cannot be perceived as an isolated process. Training should be regarded as a *"deliberately designed process"*,[74] formulated exclusively to bring about desired improvements and changes, given the required appreciative learning climate. It is essentially this broader view of the essence of training and development and the fact that man is constantly in touch with systems, that led to the introduction of the systems approach.[75]

Blum describes the system approach as *"concerned with objective of the total system"*.[76] This statement is supported by the contention that human skills and activities could be divided into three broad categories, *viz.* technical -. conceptual - and interpersonal skills. Although the emphasis on the three types of skills may differ according to the grading or seniority of the trainee(s), all three are, nevertheless, stimulated during any training session.[77]

An explanatory Afrikaans dictionary defines the term *system* (stelsel) as, *"groep dele of dinge wat tot 'n geheel verbind is, wat saam 'n geordende, samehangende geheel vorm"*.[78] An English dictionary defines a system as a *"group of things or parts working together in a regular relation"*.[79]

Both these descriptions coincide with the definition provided by Beach, *viz.* that, *"a system is an organized whole, consisting of interrelating and interdependent parts."*[80] Although it would appear that there are as many systems approaches as there are authors, the main theme remains one of component parts, with stress on eventual feedback.[81] Mockler also refers to interrelatedness of various components when he defines a system *"as an orderly grouping of separate but interdependent components for the purpose of attaining some predetermined objective"*.[82]

Three distinct characteristics of the systems approach become evident from these definitions, *viz.*:

i)   some order and discipline in the arrangement of the components are required. The distribution may be hierarchical;

ii)   communication is unavoidable as the constituent parts are interdependent; and

iii)   the intention of the system is to reach the set objective. All activities, individually or as a group effort, should, therefore, be in pursuit of the predetermined objective.[83]

As the training and development programmes directed at municipal personnel endeavour to satisfy identified needs and objectives,[84] a typical systems approach may include the following components: looking at the job, the need for and objectives of training becomes known, criteria for the evaluation of

training are determined, training content decided, training methods and

material designed, the trainees and training programmes are integrated and

finally the lasting effects of training are evaluated. The extent and

nature of the systems may vary in complexity, depth or content, depending

on the eventual expected result. The following three illustrations of a

system serves to substantiate this point of view. In the final analysis,

all have determined the needs for training, designed programmes and

evaluated the trainees, yet the methods of achieving these objectives

differ considerably:
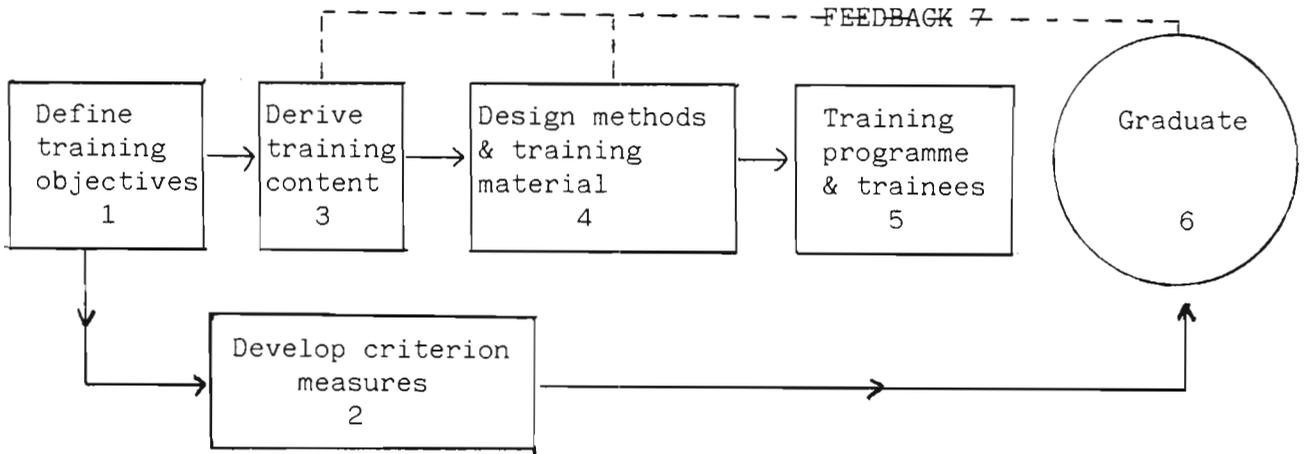
Figure 7.[85)]   *THE BLUM AND NAYLOR SYSTEM APPROACH TO TRAINING*
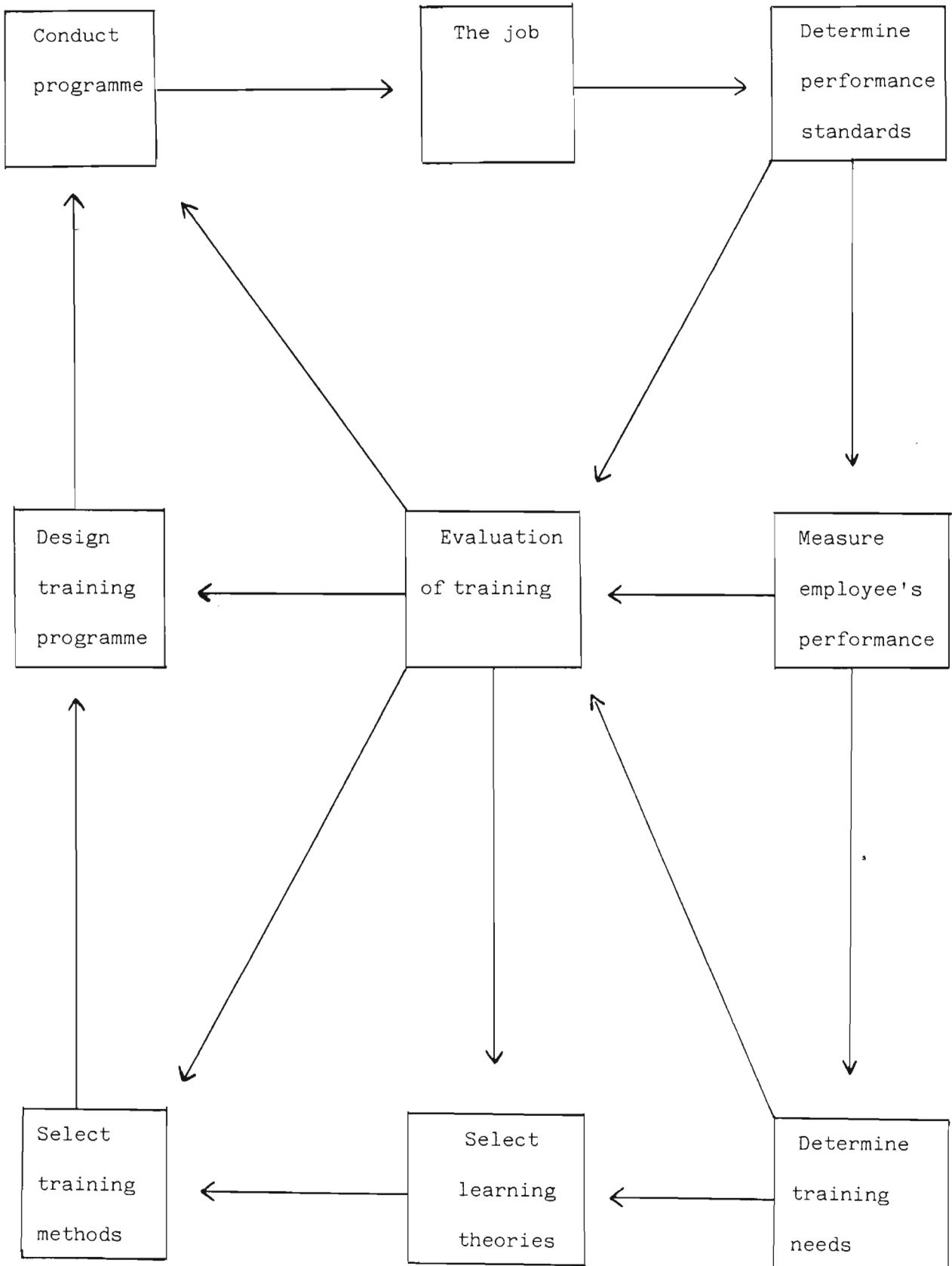
Figure 8.[86)]   *THE DUNN AND STEPHENS SYSTEM APPROACH TO TRAINING*

| Technological change | Policy change | Social change |

| Organizational goals and programs |

| Training and development needs identified by the work force planning process | Training and development needs identified by the strategic planning process | Training and development needs identified by the performance appraisal process |

| Training and development goals and objectives |

| Training and development goals and strategies |

| Training and development implementation process |

| Training and development evaluation process |

Figure 9.[87)]   *A SYSTEMS VIEW OF THE HUMAN-RESOURCE TRAINING*
                    AND DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

5.   *SUMMARY*

Although some individuals would possess some minimum educational and
tertiary qualifications when employed, employees, nevertheless, have
to be prepared for the specific task they are to fulfil. It is, further=
more, important to keep in mind that most officials will aspire to
higher positions in life. In order to provide them with the skills,
drives and competency obviated by a senior position, training and
development programmes have to be devised. These programmes, however,
should take cognisance of the inter-relationship between training and
development, as well as the essential prerequisite, *viz.* the will to
learn. Training and development programmes and projects can *not* take
place in a vacuum, but should follow a predetermined path. Irrespective
of whether the approach or more directed at development of human resources,
it should never loose sight of the objectives of the institution and its
environment. At the same time the condition of the learning process has
to be highlighted by the trainers, otherwise the lack of progress may be
attributed to the wrong reasons. The above is only possible once the
objectives of the training programmes have been established. As prerequisite
the need(s) for training and development should be known and, therefore,
the next chapter will endeavour to identify these underlying needs.

6.   *REFERENCES AND FOOTNOTES*

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17.   Loc. cit.

18.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 128.

19. Some experts do differentiate between training and education. See also Watson, C.E.: Management development through training (Massachusettes: Addison-Wesley, 1979), p. 4. Infra., p. 95; p. 105.

20. Ibid.

21. Rabie, A.: Steps for the improvement of manpower utilisation in the Transkeian Government Service, unpublished M.A.-dissertation (Port Elizabeth: University of Port Elizabeth, 1981), p. 133.

22. Gunter, C.F.G.: op. cit., p. 12.

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24. Department of Manpower; Compendium for training (Pretoria: Department of Manpower, 1984), p. 2.

25. Ibid.

26. Dunn, J.D. & E.C. Stephens: Management of personnel (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972), p. 181. Infra., p. 95.

27. Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 26.

28. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 34. Infra., p. 102.

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34. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 35.

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37. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 37.

38. Ibid., p. 36 and Beach, D.S.: op. cit., pp. 362 - 363.

39. Blum, M.L. & J.C. Naylor: Industrial psychology: Its theoretical and social foundations, revised edition (New York: Harper & Row, 1968), p. 249.

40. Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 30.

41. Ibid. & Infra., p. 103.

42. Infra.. p. 171.

43. See also Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 362 and Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 36.

44. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 362 & Infra., p. 102; p. 175.

45. Research done on rats and dogs found that they are motivated to respond to stimuli, rather than motivated to learn, whilst human beings, having verbal ability and rational concepts of their specific situations, may be motivated to learn - compare Craig, L.R. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 36 and Marx, M.H. (ed.): Learning processes (Canada: MacMillan Company, 1969), pp. 6 - 11. Infra., p. 175.

46. See also Dimock, M.E. & G.O. Dimock: Public administration, fourth edition (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969), p. 370.

47. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 362. Intrinsic motivation means that the work itself is satisfying to the individual, whilst extrinsic motivation refers to incentives such as praise from the supervisor, higher remuneration, prestige and better working conditions.

48. Ibid., & Infra., p. 118.

49. Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 76.

50. This assumption was made in support of F.W. Taylor's theories on behaviour.

51. Hampton, D.R.: Contemporary management (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1977), p. 35.

52. Beach D.S.: op. cit., p. 362.

53. See also Hergenhahn, B.R.: op. cit., chapter 7.

54. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 36.

55. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 363.

56. Compare ibid.

57. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 39.

58. Beach, D.S. op. cit., p. 363.

59. Watson, C.E.: op. cit, p. 30.

60. See also Marx, M.H. (ed.): op. cit., p. 132.

61. Supra., p. 95; p. 98.

62. Rabey, G.P.: Training. third editon (New Zealand: Paige Productions, 1980), p. 6.

63. Taylor, B. & G.L. Lippitt (ed.): Management development and training handbook (London: McGraw-Hill, 1975), p. 185.

64. The other cornerstones are: political supremacy, rule of law, efficiency and effectiveness and reasonableness and fairness. Public accountability means that the conduct of an official shall be above reproach so that he will be able to publicly account for his actions.

65. Supra., p. 97.

66. Infra., p. 119.

67. Infra., p. 128.

68. Rabey, G.P.: op. cit., p. 10.

69. Ibid.,

70. Blum, M.L. & J.C. Naylor: op. cit., p. 245.

71. Interview with Mr P. Hurter, Town Clerk of Ladysmith on Tuesday, 22 April 1985.

72. Rabey, G.P.: op. cit. p. 10.

73. Supra., p. 44.

74. Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 262.

75. Gagne, R.M. & E.A. Fleischman: op. cit., p. 461.

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83. See also ibid.

84.   Infra., p. 116.

85.   Blum, M.L. & J.C. Naylor: op. cit., p. 253.

86.   Dunn, J.D. & E.C. Stephen: op. cit., p. 182.

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       Concepts and practices (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1985),
       p. 342. For more information on the application of a systems
       approach to training, see Odiorne, G.S.: Training by objectives
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       differentiates between 8 kinds of training systems.

THE NEED FOR AND OBJECTIVES OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

OF MUNICIPAL PERSONNEL IN SOUTH AFRICA

1.   *INTRODUCTION*

For training to be evaluated meaningfully, it has to be purposeful. Training should endeavour to equip municipal personnel to perform their daily tasks and future job demands efficiently and effectively. For this reason training can *not* be undertaken on an *ad hoc* basis, but has to be planned and programmed. One is never to old to learn and it is in this vein that Stahl writes *"training is never fully accomplished; it is always in process".*[1] Training, therefore, is a lifelong process. It is sometimes overlooked that each official, irrespective of ranking, requires some degree of training in order to operate effectively and efficiently.[2] In addition, South Africa is currently highly pressurised in terms of changes in institutions and practices of government.[3] As one of the largest employers, the municipal service collectively, is a logical focal point of the need for change, because local government activities directly affect the lives of all the inhabitants. South Africa not only has a diverse society, but the municipal service, like the central government, has to serve diverse aims. The ability, or lack thereof, to deal with the turbulence *(sic)* in the South African society over a broad spectrum of activities, is dependent largely on the quality of personnel and the development and application of their full potentialities. Such objectives can be attained only through training and retraining.

2.   *WHY TRAINING?*[4]

Before questions such as the need for and objectives of training are

answered, consideration should be given to the question of why training

is at all necessary. Training is, of course, required whether it is in

preparation of the life of the human being or his particular job. The

daily lives of the citizenry are influenced by continual additions of,

inter alia, new commodities on the market and new inventions to make life

more relaxed and comfortable. In this regard, mention should be made of

microwave ovens and videos as well as the continual new approaches to

management which demand training, for example, robotics and computer

auditing. However, in the final analysis Spice and Kopperl's statement

on training should be pondered, *viz.:*

> *"We train people how to perform, we train them*
> *when to perform, we give them the tools they*
> *need, we provide incentives ... and they still*
> *don't do their jobs. Why?"*[5]

Training becomes imperative in the wake of the merciless pressure of

technology and the impact it has on the lives of citizens. One of the

prerequisites of living in the second half of the 1980s is computer

literacy. It is also fairly commonly known that computerisation did not

necessarily lead to a decrease in the required labour force, or that it

ousted lower-skilled workers from their jobs.[6]

Another answer to the need for training, could be the personal and social

value perceptions of people. People want to possess all the technological

inventions (luxuries and/or attachments) on the market. Through the retail

value of their skills, knowledge and experience, they obtain a marketable

level of economic viability and power. In trying to keep up with all these

developments and to give effect to their competitive social drives,[7]
people buy these luxuries. The same people now require a skill not
previously mastered to operate the new equipment. Although the training
required to, amongst others, master the art of TV-games, new kitchen
equipment or a IBM personal computer, may be basic and not job-directed,
but it nevertheless prepares the person to *think* computers, and, therefore,
contributes to broadening his base of general knowledge.

The above exposition is simplistic and general, but is experienced by all
people irrespective of the work they do, the schooling received or the
objectives of their lieves. Thus, *"people are the ultimate source of
renewal,"*[8] whether they are working or not. It appears as if employees
are pressurised to evoke and accept change, not only from within the job
environment, but also at home in their private lives. This two-dimensional
impact of change requires the employer to devise training programmes which
the official will find compatable with the two levels on which he has to
generate *and* accept change, *viz.* work life and home life. When training
is, therefore, offered in the job environment, the trainer carries some
responsibility to ensure that through training the trainee does not find
himself incapable of dealing with his home situation. Training, i.e. the
material taught, should be relevant to all spheres of the trainee's life.
If this equilibrium is maintained, *viz.* that both personal - and work life
training are more or less on a par, a substantial extent of success will be
obtained. Moreover, credit will be given to the belief that training and
development go hand in hand.[9]

Should training concentrate on broadening the base of the trainee's work
life only, he could find it difficult to cope with circumstances in his

personal life. People need to be able to relate new knowledge and information to their total life, as one cannot compartmentalise your life. Only in this way does training contribute to the development of the individual. Many of the social problems that South Africa experiences, stems from the migrant labour system, where Blacks were taken from their natural habitat to the cities and exposed to Western civilization. The natural habitat did not, however, develop at the same pace, and this has led to an unbalanced educational process, and resultant unbalanced training and development process, even in the work situation.[10]

Although this study is primarily concerned with training and development for an improved work life, mention should be made that this objective is only within reach once cognisance is taken of *"trained intelligence"*.[11] Intelligence is the general learning ability of the individual,[12] and refers to the ability of the individual to understand instructions, to reason, to decide and to make judgements on issues, covering all aspects of his life. A person may be clever and mentally alert, but without training, his intelligence level becomes irrelevant when dealing with life in general. As A.N. Whitehead puts it: *"In conditions of modern life, the rule is absolute. The race which does not value 'trained intelligence', is doomed."*[13] Trained intelligence prepares the individual to deal with his environment and to adapt to the vacissitudes of his work life and personal life. No wonder then that Piaget regarded intelligence as adaptation, in other words, adjusting to and dealing with the environment.[14]

In the final analysis, training becomes essential when it is realised that untrained human resources, in other words, officials, can make a limited contribution only toward the achievement of municipal objectives.[15]

Acknowledging the increased demand for skilled personnel, and knowing that, presently South Africa has a serious shortage of appropriately equipped personnel,[16] training at the local level of government can now be discussed, commencing with policy directives from Central Government.

3.   *TRAINING POLICY OF THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT*

A review of the estimates of income and expenditure of most institutions, be it large private companies or municipalities, substantiates the hypothesis that personnel is the largest single item in the budget.[17] This also supports the belief that officials are the institution's most valuable resources,[18] and being that special, care should be taken to train and develop them not only to become better equipped officials, but also better adjusted citizens. In this way officials would be less change resistant and even be creative and prepared to initiate change.

In order to understand the reasons for the need of training, it is necessary to give a brief overview of the training policy of the Central Government. The establishment of the *Council for the Co-ordination of Local Government Affairs* and the resultant *Local Government Training Act,* 1985 (Act 41 of 1985) are indicative of the seriousness with which the need for training and development on local level is viewed by the Government.[19]

The need for training at the local level of government should not, however, be evaluated in isolation, because the ultimate objective of the Government,

i.e. to increase the general well-being of the community, runs like a
golden threat through all the governmental services provided, irrespective
of the particular tier of government. The Government's national training
policy, therefore, forms the primary frame of reference for training at
the central and local levels of government and should be pursued
vigorously by public administrators.[20]

3.1 *National training policy*

It should be borne in mind that the national training policy differs from
the policy applicable to the local level of government primarily for the
following reasons: Although the nature of contact between local
government and the citizenry is more personal than that with central
government, local authorities do not, by virtue of its existence, carry
the responsibility of providing basic training to the citizenry. However,
local authorities should always endeavour to improve the quality of their
services rendered and, therefore, ensure that employees are adequately
trained for efficient work performance. The policy of local government
training is then more restricted to the improvement of performance levels
of municipal officials and employees.[21] The Central Government has an
added responsibility, i.e. despite improving performance levels of the
public servants, it has to provide training programmes across the board, be
it vocational -, special -, ordinary schools and tertiary institutions.
At the grass-roots, the training programmes on national level are more
educational than performance oriented. This is especially true because
national government has to curb illiteracy, unemployment and has the ultimate

responsibility of improving the general well-being of the citizenry.[22] Accordingly, the national training objectives of the Government which include the manpower training policy, can be summarised as follows:[23]

- maintenance of an acceptable economic growth rate,

- provision of adequate job opportunities,

- fair share in economic wealth in terms of social norms,

- geographical distribution of economic, social and cultural activities,

- economic stability fairly independent of external and political influences and in the final analysis,

- improvement in the total well-being of the community (whether social, political, economic)

The national manpower policy aims at the optimum utilisation of all the citizens who could make an economic contribution to the productivity of any given job environment. The policy reads *"die ontwikkeling van mannekrag impliseer die deurlopende opvoer, tot die hoogste moontlike vlak, van die werk vermoëns van die totale werkerskorps met behoorlike inagneming van individuele aanleg en belangstelling en die huidige en toekomstige behoeftes van die Suid-Afrikaanse ekonomie.*[24] This *development* does not imply the provision of job opportunities only, but explicitly includes the provision of training and guidance.

Furthermore, the national training policy is based on the beliefs and principles of the national manpower policy. The objectives of this training policy are:[25]

- the general training objective to develop the total manpower irrespective of race, colour, creed or sex, through continuous *education* to the highest level meeting their skills, talents and other personality traits;

- individual freedom to sell one self on the labour market should only be determined by the person's knowledge, competency and experience gained through free access to *education* and *training;*

- self responsibility should cause the individual to decide which existing training facilities to utilise. Although the individual has the right to be trained and retrained, he also has the responsibility to meet the entrance qualifications required for training;[26)]

- *all training* should be planned and in line with the country's overall technological, economic and social objectives;

- training should be an integral part of manpower planning and should serve as basis for the proper placement and utilisation of personnel; and

- training should be based on verified learning principles.

3.1.1   *Training policy and individual employers*

Although the individual employer has the freedom to devise his training programmes to meet his peculiar needs, the broad objectives of the

national training policy should be kept in mind.[27)] No particular

prescriptions are given except that training programmes should be planned,

goal-directed and in correlation with the given scholastic and educational

abilities of the individual trainee. The guide-line laid down by the

national training policy and, in effect, the *National Training Board*,[28)]

can be summarised as follows.[29)]

All institutions should use the national training policy as frame of

reference when planning training programmes. In other words, the

objectives of both the institution and the *National Training Board*[30)]

should be on a par, though the nature and scope may vary. Irrespective

of the place of training, whether it is on-the-job or off-the-job,

training should aim to increase the competency level of the trainee.

Training should also prepare the trainee for a more responsible job, in

other words, the trainee should be a more able person once training has

been completed. Training should not be given for the sake of training

per se, but should take cognisance of the training needs of *both* the

institution *AND* the individual worker. All candidates should have an

equal chance of receiving training. Training programmes should not

differ in content and quality only because different race groups will be

taught. Added to the quality of training programmes, is the quality of

trainers.

Training is not 'just anything' and should be provided by people with a

thorough background and experience as trainers. Training and development

should form part of the total manpower strategy of the institution. Training

programmes should be evaluated to establish whether it still meets the

requirements of time and place. This evaluation should take into account

the improvement and broadening of knowledge and skills and should be

visible in the form of applicable and positive attitudes towards increased

productivity of the institution. By implication, local authorities are

included in the reference to all institutions and, therefore, the local

training policy should be drafted with the above background in mind.

3.2   *Local training policy*

Although the new constitutional dispensation on the one hand devolve

more authority to local authorities, it does not, on the other hand

exempt local authorities from training its officials. In fact, the

Republic of South Africa Constitution Act, 1983 (Act 110 of 1983) section

14 and schedule 1 (6) affords authorities the added responsibility of

preparing the Coloured and Indian communities for taking over and

administering their own local affairs. As this is a new development,

training should be regarded as the cornerstone for the eventual successful

establishment, administration and continued existence of own local

authorities for own affairs.[31)]

Local authorities, through the relevant provincial ordinances and acts

of Parliament, are restricted in dealing with personnel administration

in a completely autonomous way.[32)] Although the day-to-day incidental

training at local government level and the individuality of specific

local training needs are neither defined by law nor influenced by a

higher authority, adherence to Central Government's intentions, is

necessary. The reason for this is the renewed importance of local

government and administration in terms of the new constitutional

dispensation. Central Government influence on local affairs, especially

with regard to the training and development of personnel, was manifested

with the promulgation of the *Local Government Training Act*, 1985

(Act 41 of 1985).

The passing by Parliament of the *Local Government Training Act*, 1985

(Act 41 of 1985) is viewed as an important milestone in the history of

local government. Accordingly the most important provisions on the

training and development of local government personnel are discussed

hereunder.

3.2.1   *Local Government Training Act*, 1985 (Act 41 of 1985)

The aim of this Act is evident from the preamble thereof, *viz.* "(T)o

provide for the promotion of the training of personnel for local

government bodies and for matters connected therewith."[33]   To reach

this objective, the Act provides in section 2 for the establishment of

a juristic person to be called the *Training Board for Local Government*

Bodies[34] and who will have certain powers and exercise specific functions.

The *Training Board* will consist of 16 people, chaired by the Director-

General of the Department of Constitutional Development and Planning.[35]

In terms of the legally prescribed membership of the *Training Board*,

all office-bearers are either senior officials in their respective

departments (Director or Director-General) or they have *"special*

knowledge of training regarding local government affairs."[36]   Members

hold office at the pleasure of the Minister of Constitutional Development

and Planning[37] for a period of four years, whereafter they may be reappointed.[38] Members other than public servants, may on recommendation of the Minister and after consultation with the Minister of Finance, be paid such remuneration and allowance as appropriated by Parliament. In addition to resignation, the Minister may revoke the appointment of any member should his estate be sequestrated, be detained as a mentally disable person or be absent from three consecutive meetings without leave, or on grounds of any other good reason.[39] This proviso lends the *Training Board* an aura of expertise, an image of high-poweredness and in essence, an image of genuine and serious board members, who really would like to get to grips with the training problems of local authorities. The *Training Board* meets at least twice a year,[40] whilst the executive committee may meet at *"such times and places (as) the chairman ... may determine."*[41]

The administrative work of the *Training Board* is undertaken by specially designated personnel of the Department of Constitutional Development and Planning.[42]

Without funds no work can be done and, therefore, provision has been made for the introduction of a *Local Government Bodies Training Fund.*[43] The training levy, payable by local government bodies is one way of securing an income. The sole purpose of this levy is one of *"raising money for the training fund".*[44] Other sources of revenue are:

> *"(c) moneys received by way of repayment of loans granted in terms of section 8,*
> *(d) interest received on such loans and interest derived from investments of moneys standing to the credit of the training fund, and*
> *(e) moneys accruing to the training fund from any other source."*[45]

The *Training Fund* will have its own bank account at the South African Reserve Bank, audited by the Auditor-General who has to table a full resport, detailing its financial and training activities in Parliament *"not later than six months after the end of the financial year"*.[46] In this way the *Training Board* is called to account and is it ensured that it continues to work constructively towards the attainment of its primary objective: the promotion of the training of personnel for local government bodies.[47]

Finally, how does the *Training Board* operate to achieve its objective? Money in the *Training Fund* could be allocated as:

> *"(a) grants-in-aid, donations or loans to any person who or institution, association or body, including a local government body, which provides training or will provide training;*
> *(b) bursaries, bursary loans or financial contributions to persons undergoing training or who will undergo training;*
> *(c) funds for the financing of (i) the compiling and collecting of training courses; (ii) general or combined recruiting actions for obtaining the services of employees for the local government sector."*[48]

The *Training Board* also, on such conditions as it may deem fit, approve training courses.[49] The conditions may relate to the contents, nature, duration and standard of a course.[50] The *Training Board*, furthermore, approves,

> *"the standard of education or practical experience required for admission to a training course; the qualifications and experience required of a person who provides training in terms of a training course and any other matter connected with the course".*[51]

Local authorities should regard this Act as an envisaged furtherance of and real aid to their own training initiative. It should also be remembered that this Act should in no way be seen as to overrule the objectives and aims of the *National Training Policy,* but should rather be regarded as a substantial parallel contribution to promote the training of personnel. Furthermore, the Act only diverts the importance of training to another level of Government. It does not intend to diminish the responsibility of local authorities with regard to training and should also not be blamed for any lack of initiative or motivation in terms of training in individual municipal areas.[52)]

The above is an exposition of what is currently envisaged by the Central Government, i.e. to inject some enthusiasm, stamina and impact in local government training. This thesis, is, however, more directed at determining how local government training is currently dealt with. Given the overriding need to be able to adapt to new constitutional changes and the cry for a better educated, trained and equipped citizenry, an investigation can now be made of why there is a need for training in local government administration.

4.   *NEED FOR TRAINING*

Man is one of the biggest initiators of change, and yet this very same man would shy away from implementing these changes. Psychologists maintain that people are afraid of the unknown and prefer to stay within well-known ways and means of achieving one's objectives in life.[53)]   The ability to change is imperative if one wishes to be successful in life, and it is essentially this ability to initiate *and* adapt to change that

forms the grass-roots of training and development.[54]

The need for training is highlighted when one realises that it is the tendency in South African municipalities to appoint 'freshers' or new= comers to the entry ranks, whilst senior positions are usually filled through promotion. Although it is fairly difficult to determine an ideal priority hierarchy on needs for training, it is assumed that this preparation for *"tomorrow's jobs"* ranks first.[55] Training and development should, therefore, be directed at preparing municipal officials for the higher ranking positions with its concomitant needs for responsibility and maturity. To satisfy this need, training should not be limited to the acquisition of more and new knowledge regarding skills, but to be of value, training should also endeavour to train the mind.[56] .

When an examination into the training needs of municipal officials is then undertaken, it should be on the following two bases,[57] *viz.*

1 - a preparation for the future ahead: *it est* to be *able* to carry the responsibilities of a more advanced post, whether the official remains with the initial employer or not; and

2 - realising the dual purpose of training and development; programmes should be geared to train *and* develop inherent skills and the mind, simultaneously.[58]

4.1 *Why do training needs exist at all?*

Although municipalities, in terms of the various municipal ordinances, are obliged to provide prescribed goods and services to their respective

communities, those very same ordinances do not prescribe levels of competency or quality of performance to be met by officials. Considering the extent of political change envisaged for South Africa and its gradual implementation, one would be shortsighted to regard political change as the *only* reason why there is a need for training. One would further assume that this need is one based on, amongst others, a change of attitude, one's Black counterpart and acceptance of new political porposals by Government. Although this need is an important point of departure for any successful operation of a local authority, it should not blind one for the realities of other equally important needs for training.[59]

Although there may be innumerable, diverse reasons why *specific* training needs exist,[60] some elementary, primary training to cope with demands of the job situation is, nevertheless, required by officials. For this reason training in the municipal service is amongst others necessitated by the following:[61]

- newcomers have to adapt to the required behaviour pattern set by the job situation;

- no primary, secondary or tertiary educational institution can provide all the skills and knowledge required for a particular job in a particular environment;

- due to the constant change of scope, nature and extent of municipal activities, training affords officials the ability to make the required adaptations;

- the theory and practice of nearly all positions such as, for example, accountants, doctors, nurses, typists, technicians are continually changing. Therefore, systematised training sessions are inevitable;

-   high morale and loyalty could be maintained through purposeful
    training, whereby the correct methods could be taught and
    necessary information be distributed;

-   training sessions tend to created amongst officials an atmosphere
    of acceptance of changes; and

-   a newcomer would, even without a formal training session, learn
    how to do the job or interpret procedures. Through proper
    training sessions, little room for misinterpretation and eventual
    poor performance will exist.

Owing to technological developments, the extent and nature of tasks and
equipment change which results in a need for training: for example,
once upon a time a typist was using an ordinary manual typewriter which
did not allow for high speed counts. Nowadays a typist has to be able
to use electronic typewriters (with memories), word processors and
dictaphones. Yet it often is accepted (and wrongly so) that if a typist
can type, she can type, irrespective of the change of machine or the
approach. At times when it seems as if all proven *older* ways of working
are obsolete, a manager or high ranking official still prefers a typist
who are fluent in plain, *old-fashioned* short-hand.[62] This situation is
indicative of the anomalies experienced in any job, and training programmes
should take cognisance thereof. There is a contunal appeal for more
time-saving, cost-saving and manpower-saving devices to obtain the same
and, preferably, a higher level of productivity in an institution.[63]
Added to this is the quest for higher levels of effectiveness and goal-
orientation in the rendering of services.

As officials enjoy the benefits of training programmes, they amongst
themselves, start competing for more knowledge.[64] Not only do officials

compete to attend training courses, but municipalities (like business

ventures) have to compete with private enterprises for the rendering

of goods and services. Not withstanding the fact that the nature of the

goods produced by municipalities are not easily matched by a private

enterpreneur, the competition is more levelled at the provision and

maintenance of personnel, negotiation of loans and getting the citizenry

to belief that the municipality serves them to the best of its ability.[65]

The afore-mentioned exposition on the need for training is relevant to all

levels of officials. In the light of especially the changing political

environment and the quest for higher productivity, it seems as if the

leading or managerial officials in the municipalities are under consider=

able pressure to keep abreast of the turn of events. Added to this is

the belief that municipalities should try to be as profitable as possible,

without harming the well-being of the citizenry.[66] To be able to

handle this volatile situation, management (leading official) development

and training are regarded as prerequisites for long-term successful

municipal government and administration. In addition, the leading

officials need additional training, because their environment is ever-

changing. Leading officials should be sensitive to what transpires in

the environment in which they live and work. The impact of changes should

be evaluated in order to change their managerial practices accordingly.

According to Watson, leading officials should take note of the following

environment changes, *viz.*[67]

-     *"technological changes – which influences the strategies, structures, styles and practices of the municipality and its leadership;*
-     *changes in the availability and sources of raw materials – which could lead the leading officials to become less consumer or marketing oriented and more procurement oriented;*

- *changes in public attitudes and demands - creating a more public oriented manager; and*
- *changes in officials' values, life styles and education levels - which call for different ways of leading and motivating officials".*

With tertiary education being within the reach of almost all school-leavers, there has been a remarkable increase in the student numbers for professional positions, like accountants, doctors and engineers.[68] Upon qualification, these students have a sound theoretical basis, but still lack administrative experience.[69] Yet, these professionally qualified personnel are career-oriented people and would expect to ascent through the organisational hierarchy occupying supervisory and leading positions. The higher the position, the more the generic administrative functions are performed and the less technical and functional the job becomes, as is depicted in figure 10.[70]

Grade	Working hours
Chief official	
	Functional activities / Generic Administrative Functions / Generic auxiliary functions
Operational or production workers	
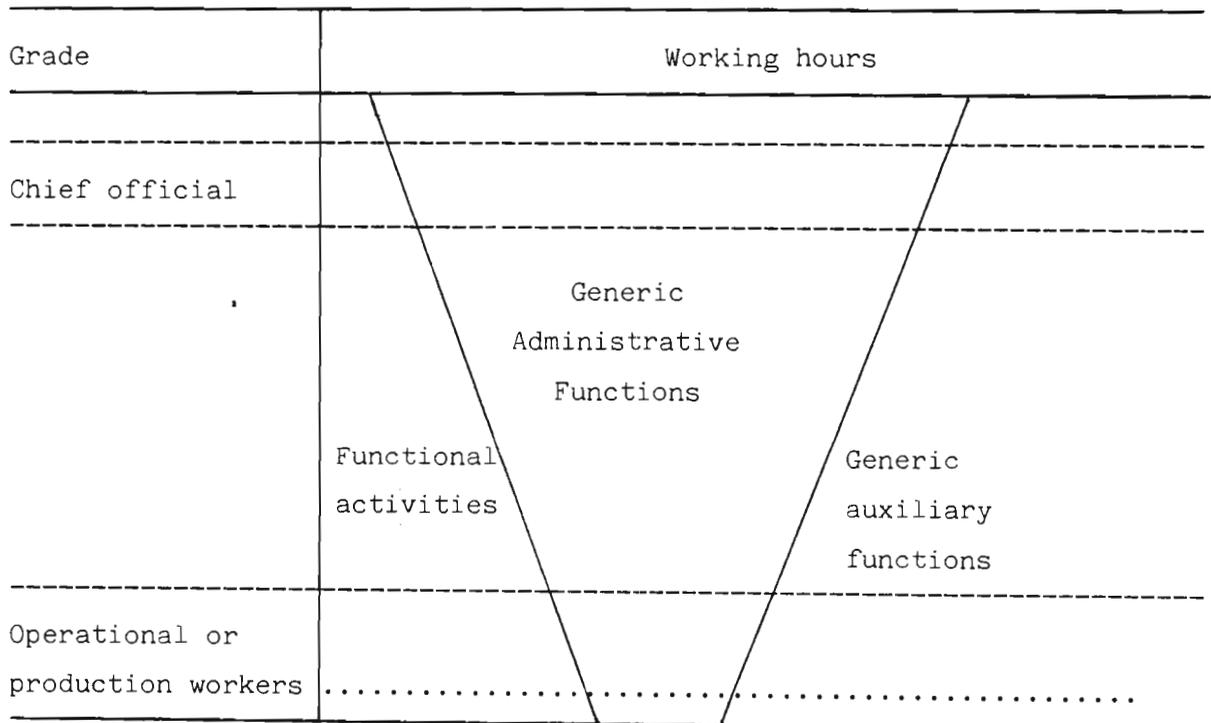
Figure 10.   *WORKING HOURS DEVOTED TO DIFFERENT FUNCTIONS*

This assumption calls for appropriate preparation of such officials and the only way to achieve this objective is through training. Changing form *doing* to *leading* (managing) is a difficult process, especially if one's initial training was geared only to improve some skill dexterity. Added to this, and in the light of the attitudenal demands that the new political dispensation and the creation of the regional services councils will make on the managerial environment,[71] it is expected that more supervisory and leading positions will be created. For these reasons, steps should be taken to develop and orientate young potential leading officials at an early stage of their careers. Reasons other than political that suggest a timeous identification and preparation of leading officials are:

- The apparent change in management philosophy, whereby it is realised that experience and age are not indicative of leading ability. In the United States of America there is, for example, a definite trend towards result-oriented management in private and public institutions. Leading officials are simply just not interested in a person's experience, but what he can produce, in other words, ability and competence are what is required to obtain results;[72]

- young graduates leaving university and newcomers to the labour market can more appropriately be managed by other younger generation workers, as the latter is more conversant with new equipment, technology and especially the particular work language than older workers.[73]

According to Barth[74] the boasting with years and years of experience

has more emotional value than result - and performance value, because

the years of experience possibly did not teach the person the 'new

tricks of the trade'. One such an example is computer literacy. Children

leaving school would soon all be able to operate, for example, a word

processor, whilst currently, a small percentage leading officials know

how to operate a typewriter, let alone a personal computer or word

processor. It is in this vein that the 'Manpower 2000' campaign was

initiated in an effort *"to create general awareness of the chronic skill

shortage"* and creating the atmosphere *"that everyone had a role to play

in overcoming it."*[75] This substantiates the fact the word processors, for

example, is something that every person should be able to operate and that

it is an active tool in administration and not just 'another typewriter'.

Through an evolutionary process it was also realised that professional

management is required by all relatively large public institutions or

municipalities. This awareness primarily arose from the dire need to

increase the productivity in these institutions. Underlying the quest

for increased productivity, is a need for training, which is funnelled

by *"advances in technology, work procedures, increased knowledge and skill

of the work force and capital investment in better plants and equipment."*[76]

As policy-makers are increasingly motivated by cost and labour savings

and increased profit levels, it is expected that adequately trained,

professional leading officials will be heading the various departments.[77]

It is a truism that an official gets appointed on the basis of his

knowledge and competency. From day one, the official has to ensure that

he does not become obsolete before retirement. In other words, he should

constantly endeavour to ward off any obsolescence in his leading abilities,

skills, knowledge and general awareness of his environment. Training

and development are the only ways of keeping this leading (managerial)

obsolescence which Mahler defined as *"the failure of a once capable*

manager to achieve results that are currently expected of him" at bay.[78]

To conclude this section, it appears that the need for training and

development is necessitated not only by the advances of technology,

economy or social stratifications, but also because it should serve as

a buffer against mental and skill obsolescence.

4.2   *Identification of training needs*

The above exposition on the needs for training and development does not

indicate whether there is a need for training specific skills and

knowledge or whether the training need is levelled at the area of work

environment.   This identification calls for a continued and systematic

appraisal of training needs, in the absence of which there is a *"danger*

of establishing or supporting a regular series of training programmes

in the belief, or at least the hope, that they will be beneficial."[79]

The identification of training needs should be the point of departure for

any training programme, otherwise one does not know what one would like to

achieve.[80]   Often this not-knowing-where-one-is-going-to, short-circuits

the process *"with the vain hope of providing training for a real, but*

unidentified need."[81]   This implied *ad hoc* approach to training is,

especially for local authorities, to costly and inefficient an approach.

In local authorities, with their scarce financial resources, training should

be to the point, alleviating training needs where it exist and in a manner

which is both cost-efficient and effective for the authority and the citizens. To meet these requirements, training needs should be determined in such a way that individual and collective needs are evident. It would perhaps be cost - and time-saving to identify training needs at the hand of a diagnostic model. In this way the real issues are addressed and no trial-and-error training programmes will be designed. One such diagnostic model was devised by Mager and Pipe and is illustrated as follows:[82)]

```
                          ┌──────────────┐
                          │  Describe    │
                          │ performance  │
                          │ discrepancy  │
                          └──────┬───────┘
                                 │
                                 ▼
┌────────┐      No       ┌──────────────┐
│ Ignore │◄──────────────│  Important   │
└────────┘               └──────┬───────┘
                                 │
                                Yes
                                 │
                                 ▼
                          ┌──────────────┐
            Yes           │    Skill     │
         ┌────────────────│ deficiency?  │
         │                └──────────────┘
         ▼                       No
   ┌──────────┐                                    ┌──────────────┐      Yes
No │ Used to  │                              ┌────►│ Performance  │─────────┐
◄──│  do it?  │                              │     │ punishing?   │         │
   └──────────┘                              │     └──────────────┘         ▼
         │                                   │                      ┌──────────────┐
┌─────────┐   Yes                            │                      │  Remove*     │
│Arrange* │    │                             │                      │ punishment   │
│foreman  │    ▼                             │                      └──────────────┘
│training │ ┌──────────┐                     │     ┌──────────────┐
└─────────┘ │  Used    │                     │     │    Non-      │
      No    │  often?  │                     ├────►│ performance  │     Yes
   ┌────────└──────────┘                     │     │ rewarding?   │──────────┐
   │                                         │     └──────────────┘          ▼
   ▼                                         │                        ┌──────────────┐
┌─────────┐                                  │                        │ Arrange*     │
│Arrange *│                                  │                        │ positive     │
│practice │                                  │                        │ consequence  │
└─────────┘                                  │                        └──────────────┘

                                             │     ┌──────────────┐
   ┌─────────┐                               ├────►│ Performance  │    No
   │Arrange* │◄──────────────────────        │     │ matters?     │──────────┐
   │feedback │                               │     └──────────────┘          ▼
   └─────────┘                               │                        ┌──────────────┐
                                             │                        │ Arrange*     │
┌────────┐                                   │                        │ consequence  │
│Change* │◄──┐                               │                        └──────────────┘
│ job    │   │                               │
└────────┘   │            ┌─────────────┐    └────►┌──────────────┐    Yes
       Yes   │            │ Simpler way?│          │  Obstacles?  │──────────┐
          ◄──┤◄───────────└─────────────┘          └──────────────┘          │
┌─────────┐  │                                            ┌──────────────────┘
│Arrange* │◄─┤                                            ▼
│on-job   │  │                                    ┌──────────────┐
│training │  │                                    │  Remove      │
└─────────┘  │                                    │  obstacles*  │
             │                                    └──────────────┘
┌─────────┐  │        ┌──────────────┐                   │
│Transfer*│◄─┘   No   │ Has          │                   ▼
│or       │◄──────────│ potential?   │──────────►┌──────────────┐
│terminate│          └──────────────┘            │  Select      │
└─────────┘                                       │  best        │
                                                  │ Solution(s)  │
                                                  └──────┬───────┘
                                                         ▼
                                                  ┌──────────────┐
                                                  │  Implement   │
                                                  │  Solutions   │
                                                  └──────────────┘
```

* Potential solution

Figure 11.   *A DIAGNOSTIC MODEL FOR THE IDENTIFICATION OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT NEEDS*

Johnson[83] maintains that training needs should be determined for the following reasons:

1 -   so that people will be more productive in their present positions;

2 -   for the best institutional results, it is imperative that all officials perform at their optimum levels; and

3 -   the belief goes that *"all good people, regardless of organisational level, can do a good job, want to do a good job and will do a good job - if they are given a chance"*[84] - because time, money and effort will go to waste if it is spent on irrelevant and surrogate training needs.

The identification of training needs should be an ongoing process, i.e. the continued applicability of existing training programmes should be monitored regularly. It is only through this constant observation of training needs that the trainer would be able to realise whether the needs are organisational-, skill- or attitude-directed. Knowing this, definite steps would be taken to classify the expressed training needs.

4.2.1   *Classification of training needs*

After training needs have been identified and assessed, it may be classified in more than one way. Table 1 depicts the Siegel and Myrtle classification.[85]

	Performance - based measures	Opinion and judgement based measures
Multi-individual	Efficiency/production records Management/functional audits Observation of performance Skill inventories Task analysis	Action research/organisation development designs Delphi/nominal group process Employee suggestions Questionnaires/surveys Problem-solving efforts
Individual	Assessment-centre results/ suggestions Critical incidents Observation of performance Performance-appraisal result Task analysis	Employee requests Interviews Self-assessments Supervisory/managerial recommendations

Table 1.   *THE SIEGEL AND MYRTLE CLASSIFICATION OF TRAINING NEEDS*

Training needs may also be classified as follows:[86]

Type one:
        Training needs for leading officials
        Training needs for non-leading officials

Type two:
        Training needs for involving skills
        Training needs for involving knowledge
        Training needs for involving attitudes

Type three:
        Apparent training needs
        Non-apparent training needs

Each position has performance standards that should be met and the extent to which these standards are *not* met will be indicative of the training needs. On the strength of this approach, Craig and Bittel classify training needs as those which:[87]

"an individual has;
a group has;
must be met immediately;
can be met in the future;
call for formal training activities;
call for informal training activities;
call for on-the-job instruction;
call for off-the-job instruction;
the institution can meet best within itself;
the institution can meet best through outside resources;
an individual can meet in concert with others;
an individual can meet only by himself".

In South Africa few newcomers join the municipal service fully equipped for the task ahead.[88] To aggravate this state of affairs the technology of positions and the municipal environment are continually changing. Having regard to this fact and in evaluating the reasons for training of municipal officials, the training need classification by Stahl would probably be suitable. According to Stahl training needs should be classified into three groups, though broad and sketchy, and should provide for all possible combinations of training needs, be it on the level of functional activity, specific occupational groups or leading officials, and even whether the needs are apparent or not. These three levels are:[89]

1 - *orientation* - whereby the newly appointed officials are exposed to the distinctive institutional environment, in other words, policy, operations, citizen approach, and the place of their specific duties in the total institution;

2 - *performance improvement* - a constant inculcation of new skills, knowledge and information, whereby improved performance levels are obtained; and

3 -   *extension* of employee capacity, i.e. preparing them for tasks
        with more responsibilities and teaching them the ability to guide
        other officials and allowing the institution to build a *"reservoir
        of talent"* for the highest positions in the echelon.

Each classification type has its advantages and disadvantages. The
institution will have to apply the type that suits its specific needs
best. In essence, the different types all wish to do the same, namely:-

-       to highlight the difference in training needs between leading
        officials and lower level functionaries as a result of the disparity
        in their operating environments. The needs of leading officials
        are primarily an attitudenal one, whilst that of lower level
        functionaries are normally skill and/or knowledge related;

-       to clearly distinguish between training needs based on skills,
        knowledge and attitudes. Skill training wants to improve proficiency,
        reduce accidents and utilise time and money efficiency, whilst
        knowledge training is directed at *"the improvement in an individual's
        knowledge in areas necessary or useful to him in performing a task."*[90]
        Attitude training, which involves the betterment of the individual's
        perception of his environment or his job situation, is primarily
        geared to help the individual to be less change resistant and
        prepared to assimilate other points of view.[91]

In the endeavour to determine training needs, a clear distinction should,
in the light of the above exposition, be made between training relating
to the organisational/job situation and training relating to the ability
of the individual to perform, in other words, human resources improvement.

As this thesis concentrates on the training and development of the human element, the methods to determine the need for training will now be discussed.

4.2.2 *Methods to determine training needs*[92]

Within the broad spectrum of training needs, it could be established what is required in terms of training, by the individual *per se*, or all individuals collectively, according to their respective functional activities and/or occupational groups. The existence of a training need is determined by using a simple formula, *viz.*

REQUIRED PERFORMANCE - ACTUAL PERFORMANCE = NEED[93]

Before this formula is applied, however, some indication is required that there is in fact some degree of disparity between *what is* and *what should*. This indication or evidence could be derived from:[94]

- new officials who need to learn the specific operating *(sic)* equipment of the municipality involved;

- internally transferred or promoted officials should know all aspects of their jobs;

- officials whose professional registration, requires them to do an internship or clerkship;

- high occurrence of accidents, injuries, losses and damage to persons, equipment and production;

- high staff turnover and absenteeism;

- decisions to implement new stagies, technology or expansion of current operations; and

- frequent industrial disputes, strikes and boycotts.

The methods applied to determine training needs are diversified and, irrespective of the nature thereof, have to answer the following questions:[95)]

-     where are you (the institution) now?
-     where do you want to go?
-     how are you going to get there?
-     what is inhibiting you?
-     what can/should training do?
  - for you?
  - how?
  - by when?

The size of the municipality, the number of officials, the money and time on hand and the attitude of the municipal council towards training, are factors influencing not only the determination of training needs, but also the creation and existence of a training section, whether independent or incorporated into another department in a specific municipality.[96)] The training officer, knowing that there are many ways of determining training needs, should not apply all of them in the municipality concerned. He should rather devise and apply methods that would best suit his specific circumstances, as it remains, in the final analysis, his aim to determine what additional *"skills, knowledge or understanding an individual or group needs to be more productive, effective and efficient".*[97)]

The diagnostic methods applied, would be determined by the approach of identifying training needs, in other words, whether it is *reactive* or *proactive.* Reactive refers to *"acting in response to something evident in the organization",* whilst proactive means *"to anticipate what needs the organization will have, to interpret the situation into which the organization is moving and train employees to cope in that situation."*[98)]

Most municipalities in South Africa that actively undertake training

programmes, such as Port Elizabeth, Newcastle, Durban, Pietermaritzburg,

Johannesburg, Cape Town, Bloemfontein, apply both approaches, depending

on the functional level and individual circumstances requiring

training.[99]

Some of the methods used in determining training needs are the following:

4.2.2.1   *Analysis*

Analysis is applied to determine whether any activity (job/operation),

equipment, problems, behaviour or the institution it self, needs updating.

Analysis of weaknesses in any of the above components of the institution

will indicate that corrective steps should be taken.

However, the analysis does not indicate what should be done to correct

what is unacceptable, in other words, it is primarily just an endeavour

to provide clues as to training needs. When analysing any field,

contributions could be obtained from the supervisor, the official doing

the work or handling the equipment and even the supplier of the equipment.

As Johnson says: *"among the best (analysis) we find our six faithful*

friends: what, why, who, when, where and how."[100] To be effective,

though, the analysing procedure should be simple, with only a few

essential steps and directed at bringing about a better understanding

between institution, man and machine.

4.2.2.2 *Performance appraisal*

Being a municipal institution, the career personnel system[101] is

followed. In order to implement this career system to its full

consequences, the behaviour and performance of people have to be

evaluated. In every institution their fixed standards apply to what

is expected of each official. The appraisal sets out to establish to

what extent the official's performance meets the set standards. There

is currently more than one interpretation and application of performance

appraisal in South African municipalities.[102] As this specific issue

falls outside the scope of this thesis, suffice it to say, that all

municipalities at regular three, six or twelve monthly intervals report,

according to prescribed *pro forma,* on the ability of the official to

meet the standard requirements of his position. In this manner, individual

and collective training and development needs are assessed.

4.2.2.3 *Brainstorming and buzzing*

Brainstorming and buzzing methods are applied amongst homogenous groups,

for example, finance clerks, housing clerks, building inspectors, traffic

wardens. Brainstorming requires of participants to come up with *ideas*

within a given time limit. No discussion is allowed at this stage,

as the objective is to think of problems as quickly as possible. After

expiry of the time limit additional explanatory discussion is allowed.

More or less the same applies during buzzing, which as a group-dynamic

technique, is applied to stimulate the thinking of the group in such a

way that they indicate their collective needs for training and to present

solutions to common problems.[103]

4.2.2.4   *Committees, conferences, surveys and tests*

Committees, conferences surveys and tests bring together a number of experts to investigate and examine pronounced problem areas and to provide corrective recommendations. Although the recommendations are more advisory than prescriptive, training needs are identified and corrective steps are highlighted. As the identification of training and development needs are lengthy, time-consuming and costly exercises, the above means have the advantage that it can be applied in constituent parts of the institution only. In this way, a thorough job can be made of correcting and the bringing in line of expected and actual performance and productions levels. Tests provide for quick, cheap and easy way of knowing exactly what the official does not know. Tests can expect a physical performance of the task, or request an oral or written response. Specific demarcated areas can be tested and being objective, the gaps in knowledge in performing the task and how it, in fact, should be done, equals training needs.[104]

Other methods of determining training needs, include card sorting, checklist, counselling, informal talks, interviews and incident patterns. All the methods which could be applied, could indicate both individual and group training needs, how far it is apart and/or how close it is together.[105]

The need to identify training needs is inseparable from knowing where the training is leading to, in other words, what is to be achieved by the officials, individually and collectively as an institution serving the community. For this reason some attention should now be directed to the setting of training objectives.

5.   *SETTING TRAINING OBJECTIVES*

Determining the needs for training makes one realise that training should
be planned and goal-directed, in other words, it should endeavour to
reach specified objectives. It is a truism that training aims to
equipping the trainee to be more competent and knowledgeable. However,
training is not the magic formula to correct grass-root weaknesses,
whether it is poor recruitment and selection practices, inefficient
management or a badly designed organisational structure.[106] Whether
training needs are determined proactively or reactively,[107] the result
should be a visible improvement in performance levels.

As and when the training needs are identified, the areas of training are
highlighted. The next step would, therefore, be to draft a programme of
action to satisfy these needs. This process, according to Petasis, is
called the *"setting of training objectives".*[108] Watson, again, regards
an objective as *"a statement that describes a desired, future condition",*[109]
that serves two purposes, *viz.* a way of channeling efforts toward definite
purposes and a basis whereby the effectiveness of these efforts can be
evaluated.[110] Training objectives can therefore be regarded as the
direct or indirect targets the trainer is aiming for.

What then are the characteristics of training objectives? Training
objectives should be clearly stated and be subjected to continual evaluation
to determine whether it still meets the requirements of time and place.
Another characteristic is that acceptable levels of achievement should be
known.[111] To these characteristics, Watson adds the importance of
objectives being written, despite it being a laborious and difficult task.[112]

In this way, real training needs are identified and no room is left for assumptions or wrong interpretations.

Whilst training is necessitated by the increased complexity of tasks, new tasks and techniques, increased producer competition and shortages of trained personnel, the objectives of training could be listed as efforts to obtain and prevent:[113]

- abuse and waste of equipment;
- improved worker relations;
- improved work methods and procedures;
- higher levels of personal initiative;
- less labour turnover;
- less industrial accidents;
- shortened training periods;
- less supervision;
- less maintenance costs; and

At the same time:

- increased morale;
- increased quality;
- increased communication; and
- improved market competitiveness of labour could serve as additional objectives of training.

Setting training objectives is a means of prescribing those training requirements that would lead to improvements in the training approach of the municipality and the training programmes emanating therefrom. Training objectives should be specific about what is to be learnt, as well as how it is intended to measure what has been learnt.[114] Training objectives should also form the backbone in the design of training courses and the causal effect thereof is one of greater involvement and commitment of both officials and the municipal council as the direction and intentions are freely communicated.[115]

In South Africa the objectives of training at municipal government level are closely related to the *raisons d'être* of local authorities, *viz.*

improvement of the general well-being of all citizens. Hanekom and Viljoen
regard the following as the most important objectives of training in any
local authority:[116)

1 -   Manpower planning - through training, available manpower could

       become more 'utilisable' and any practices of *under-* or *mis*utilisation

       can be curtailed. South African municipalities, especially the

       smaller, less viable ones, are faced with the harsh reality that

       irrespective of available manpower, a number of indispensable

       community services have to be rendered. Through planned training,

       expected manpower shortages could be limited. It is especially

       in the process of prevention of manpower shortages that the

       importance of timely training is underlined.

2 -   Higher standards of community services - in the wake of economic

       growth and prosperity, follows a flood of higher expectations of

       the community. This demand for more *and* better services is also

       influenced by political developments, and especially in the light

       of the new constitutional dispensation. It follows that the

       municipality could only render this increased quality (and quantity)

       services if there is a concomitant increase in standard and level

       of the training of officials.

3 -   Increased involvement in current affairs - added to the above, the

       new constitutional arrangements call for a drastic change of

       attitudes of all citizens with regards to daily life. The days

       have long gone by that one could turn a blind eye to, especially,

       political matters, as the latter seems to influence our well-being

more than anything else. As municipal officials have this dual
role of being citizens and officials, it is imperative that their
knowledge of and interest in current affairs be impeccable. This
state of affairs can be achieved only through proper training
programmes which do not overemphasise one aspect of current affairs,
for example, politics to the detriment of all other equally
important aspects, such as, housing, pedestrian crossings or
recreational facilities.

From the above exposition it is clear that training and development *per se*
become worthless, unless it is clear what is to be the outcome of such
endeavours. For this reason, each municipality would have to survey its
fields of activity and define exactly what it wants to achieve with
training and development of its staff complement, in other words, clearly
defined training and development objectives have to be set.

6.   *SUMMARY*

Man is continually in search of excellence, be it in his work or his
inventions. It is particularly this unstoppable search that causes him
to get to know it. Training is the link between getting to know something
old and something new; the link to explore a hitherto unknown commodity.
South Africa has in no way escaped this continual innovative drive and,
therefore, cannot, exonerate itself from the responsibility to train and
develop people in the *new* art of living and working.

Central Government, through its manpower training policies, tries to afford each citizen the right and access to training. Over and above being responsible for preparing all people for a good life, Central Government is also setting the pace of developments such as economic growth, socio-cultural awareness and constitutional change. Currently constitutional change in South Africa are being finalised and implemented piecemeal. Therefore, administrators of the Central Government and the sub-governmental institutions, such as local authorities, *have* to be fully aware of this impact and demands on the administrative infra-structures. Whilst one would err to regard political turbulences as the only reason for training and development of personnel, the importance of a thorough knowledge thereof, can never be overemphasised.

Owing to the close proximity of local authorities to the everyday activities of the ordinary citizen, an extra burden rests on the shoulders of local government officials and employees to be informed, knowledgeable and competent. A survey of the underlying needs for training is most extensive and covers reasons from modern fly-fishing equipment to new ways of solid waste disposal. It is only through properly surveyed and planned investigations that training objectives can be determined, thus completing the cycle of why, where, when, how and with what these objectives should be achieved. This is the only way in which training and development could come within the reach of every municipal employee. However, after having determined all the training needs and setting all the objectives, these objectives have to be implemented and attained. For this reason, the next chapter endeavours to ascertain which methods of training and development exist and how each municipality, in the light of its distinctive charac= teristics, could put it to its best use in order to meet the set training objectives and eliminate the expressed and implied needs of training.

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14. Borger, R. & A.E.M. Seaborne: <u>The psychology of learning</u> (Middlesex:
     Penquin Books, 1966), p. 95.

15. Yoder, D.: <u>Personnel management and industrial relations</u>, sixth
     edition (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1970), p. 329. <u>Supra</u>., p. 103.

16. Republic of South Africa; President's Council: <u>Local and regional</u>
     <u>management systems in the Republic of South Africa</u> (Cape Town:
     Government Printer, 1982), P.C. 1/1982, p. 99.

17. Republic of South Africa; Council for the Co-ordination of Local Government Affairs: Report and recommendations of the committee of enquiry into personnel for local authorities, no. 5, March 1984, p. 5. Supra., p. 52.

18. Opinion of Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 222 and supported by Mr. L. de Wet, Town Clerk, Newcastle, during an interview on 23 July 1985.

19. See also Department of Manpower: Compendium for Training (Pretoria: Department of Manpower, 1984), passim.

20. See also Rabey, G.P.: Training, third edition (New Zealand: Paige Productions, 1980), p. 8.

21. The Oxford advanced learner's dictionary of current English defines employee as referring to a person employed for wages, whilst official is taken to refer to a position of trust or authority. Hornby, A.S.: Oxford advanced learner's dictionary of current English new edition (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1979). For purposes of this study the terms employee and official are deemed to refer to any person holding public office, i.e. on Central, regional or local government level.

22. This fact was highlighted by the announcement that, of the number of unemployed being trained by the Department of Manpower, 70% was employed. This training programme was the direct result of the current economic recession and was mainly directed at artisans, plumbers and gardeners - S.A.B.C. news on the English service, 24 July 1985 at 07h00.

23. Department of Manpower: op. cit., p. 5. Infra., p. 124.

24. Ibid., p. 6.

25. Ibid., pp. 8 - 9. Individual training centra should keep these objectives in mind when planning individual training programmes.

26. Hereby implying that training follows after schooling and is job-directed.

27. This is especially because companies obtain considerable tax reductions on training programmes.

28. In terms of the Manpower Training Act, 1981 (Act 56 of 1981), section 3, the National Training Board consists of 2 members who shall be the chairman and vice-chairman respectively and who shall hold office as such on a full-time basis. The Minister of Manpower may also from time to time, in the light of specific circumstances appoint additional members.

29. Department of Manpower: op. cit., pp. 10 - 11.

30.   The objectives of the <u>National Training Board</u>, are <u>inter alia</u>,
        to do research on training, determine uniform training standards
        and collaborate with State departments on the execution of
        training duties, see also section 4 of the <u>Manpower Training Act</u>,
        1981 (Act 56 of 1981). <u>Supra</u>., p. 122.

31.   The intention of the Government is that each population group will
        govern and administer its own affairs, but would join hands when
        dealing with general or common interest matters. The authority
        for co-operation with regard to local affairs of a general nature
        has been delegated to the Department of Constitutional Development
        and Planning and it received further impetus with the promulgation of
        the <u>Promotion of Local Government Affairs Act</u>, 1983 (Act 91 of 1983),
        and the <u>Local Government Affairs Amendment Act</u>, 1985 (Act 110 of 1985).
        <u>Infra</u>., p. 205.
        <u>Supra</u>., p. 40.

32.   <u>Supra</u>., p. 43.

33.   In terms of the <u>Local Government Training Act</u>, 1985 (Act 41 of 1985),
        section 1.(v) "local government bodies mean a body, council or
        institution intended in section 84(1)(f) of the <u>Provincial Government
        Act</u>, 1961 (Act 32 of 1961) and includes -
        (a) a Coloured and Indian consultative local affairs and management
        committee:
        (b) an institution or body established under the <u>Coloured Land
        Areas Act</u>, 1979 (Act 1 of 1979), of the Coloured Persons
        Representative Council of the Republic of South Africa:
        (c) a regional services council; or
        (d) a body or institution declared under subsection (2) a local
        government body for the purposes of this Act". <u>Infra</u>., p. 128; p. 162.
        See also appendix 3.

34.   Hereinafter referred to as Training Board.

35.   <u>Ibid</u>., section 2 - it is commonly known that this department is the
        most important one in this 'transitional period' and the belief is
        held that if this department deals with something it enjoys a high
        priority in the eyes of Government and that it has impact.

36.   <u>Ibid</u>., section 2.2(h) - this section provides for people other than
        public officials to serve on the <u>Training Board</u>.

37.   <u>Ibid</u>., section 5 (b).

38.   <u>Ibid</u>., section 5 (a).

39.   <u>Ibid</u>., section 3 - the term 'good reason' has not been explained,
        but apparently means lack of interest and enthusiasm in local
        government training and matters pertaining thereto.

40.   <u>Ibid</u>., section 4

41.   <u>Ibid</u>., section 5 (4).

42. <u>Ibid</u>., section 6

43. <u>Ibid</u>., section 7 (1) Hereinafter referred to as the Training
    <u>Fund</u>. <u>Infra</u>., p. 205.

44. <u>Ibid</u>., section 10.

45. <u>Ibid</u>., section 7 (1).

46. <u>Ibid</u>., sections 12 and 13.

47. <u>Supra</u>., p. 126.

48. <u>Ibid</u>., section 8 (1).

49. <u>Ibid</u>., section 9 (1).

50. <u>Ibid</u>., section 9 (2).

51. <u>Ibid</u>.

52. Interview with Dr. C. Thornhill, Director: Division of Constitutional
    Planning in the Department of Constitutional Development and Planning
    on Thursday, 15 August 1985.

53. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): <u>Training and development handbook</u>
    (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 27.

54. Laffin, M. & K. Young: "The changing roles and responsibilities of
    local authority chief officers", <u>Public Administration</u>, vol. 63,
    no. 1, Spring 1985, p. 58.

55. Opinion voiced by a number of town clerks of Natal during a round
    tour of 45 municipalities during April 1985. <u>Supra</u>., p. 104.
    <u>Infra</u>., p. 163.

56. Rivero, J.: "Formation juridique at function administrative",
    Fougerè, L.: <u>Civil service systems: Texts and essays</u> (Unesco, 1967),
    p. 203.

57. These two bases were also used as point of departure for this
    thesis.

58. <u>Infra</u>., p. 133.

59. See also Gildenhuys, J.S.H.: <u>Vrede, vryheid en voorspoed: 'n</u>
    <u>Uitdaging vir munisipale owerhede</u> (Pretoria: HAUM, 1981), <u>passim</u>.

60. <u>Infra</u>., p. 137.

61. Cloete, J.J.N.: <u>Personnel administration</u> (Pretoria: Van Schaik,
    1985), pp. 157 - 159 and Wanous, J.P.: <u>Organizational entry</u>
    (Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1980), chapter 6.

62.   Interview on Friday, 16 August 1985, with a Director of a Durban-
        based employment agency who for professional reasons wishes to
        remain anonymous.

63.   This is evident from the observation that many towns in Natal have,
        rightly or wrongly, accepted the so-called "POP"-programmes of the
        National Productivity Institute, as the answer to the problem
        of trained manpower.

64.   Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 16.

65.   Discussion held with Mr D. White, Town Clerk of Pietermaritzburg
        on Tuesday, 10 April 1985.

66.   Cloete, J.J.N.: "Improvement of organisation and work methods to
        promote productivity with a view to developing the most attractive
        town or city with the least cost", Coetzee, W.A.J. (ed.): Pertinent
        issues of local government and administration in Natal (Durban:
        University of Durban-Westville, 1983), passim.

67.   Watson, C.E.: Management development through training (Massachusetts:
        Addison-Wesley, 1979), p. 5. Supra., p. 130.

68.   Republic of South Africa; House of Assembly: op. cit., pp. 34 - 35.

69.   Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 5.

70.   Cloete, J.J.N.: Personnel ..., op. cit., p. 4.

71.   Local Government in Southern Africa, March/April 1985, editorial
        comment, p. 2.

72.   Reddin, W.J.: Managerial effectiveness, International student
        edition (Tokyo: McGraw-Hill, 1970), chapter 23.

73.   Watson, C.E. op. cit., p. 7.

74.   Barth, A.D.: "Manpower 2000: A Review", Human Resources,
        A Leadership Publication 1985/86, pp. 70 - 71.

75.   Ibid.

76.   Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 8.

77.   Discussion held with town clerks of various towns in South Africa,
        attending a symposium on the orientation of municipal councillors
        and leading municipal officials in a new dispensation for local
        authorities, at the University of Durban-Westville, 9 - 11 April
        1985.

78.   Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 9, and Reddin, W.J.: op. cit.,
        pp. 160 - 163 and chapter 23.

79.   Rabey, G.P.: op. cit., p. 29. Supra., p. 131.

80.   Petasis, A.: _Practical training methods for Southern Africa_
        (Salisbury: The Rhodesian Institute of Management, 1977), p. 14.

81.   _Ibid_., and see also National Productivity Institute:
        Opleidingsbehoeftes in Transvaalse munisipale owerhede, 83-111-TIS-
        15-10/ES (Pretoria: January 1983).

82.   Siegel, G.B. & R.C. Myrtle: _op. cit_., p. 345.

83.   Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): _op. cit_., p. 16.

84.   _Ibid_.

85.   Siegel, G.B. & R.C. Myrtle: _op. cit_., p. 343.

86.   Rabey, G.P.: _op. cit_., p. 14. These types should not be viewed
        as non-interchangeable as needs may span over type boundaries.

87.   Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): _op. cit_., p. 17.

88.   _Infra_., p. 166.

89.   See also Stahl, O.G.: _The personnel job of government managers_
        (Illinois: International Personnel Management Association, 1971),
        pp. 87 - 88. _Infra_., p. 144; p. 166.

90.   Petasis, A.: _op. cit_., p. 15.

91.   _Ibid_., and Rabey, G.P.: _op. cit_., chapter 3.

92.   _Supra_., p. 142.

93.   _Ibid_., and Barling, J. (ed.): _Behaviour in organizations:
        South African perspectives_ (Johannesburg: McGraw-Hill, 1983),
        p. 237.

94.   See also _Ibid_., p. 236.

95.   Rabey, G.P.: _op. cit_., p. 21.

96.   Interview with Mr P. Hurter, Town Clerk of Ladysmith on Tuesday,
        22 April 1985.

97.   Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): _op. cit_., p. 27.

98.   Barling, J. (ed.): _op. cit_., p. 237. _Infra_., p. 149.

99.   Information on training activities received from the municipalities
        of Rustenburg, Port Elizabeth and Cape Town.

100.   Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): _op. cit_., p. 18.

101.   _Supra_., p. 65.

102. See also Cloete, J.J.N.: <u>Munisipale regering ...</u>, <u>op. cit.</u>, chapter 10.

103. See also Graig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): <u>op. cit.</u>, Chapter 2.

104. <u>Ibid</u>.

105. See also Taylor, B. & G.L. Lippitt (ed.): <u>Management training and development handbook</u> (Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill, 1975), p. 185.

106. Rabey, G.P.: <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 9.

107. <u>Supra</u>., p. 145.

108. Petasis, A.: <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 19.

109. Watson, C.E.: <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 99.

110. Watson further argues that a distinction should be made between the objectives that a training programme wants to reach on its <u>own</u>, and those objectives it <u>assists</u> in getting accomplished.

111. Petasis, A.: <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 19.

112. Mouton, J.S. & R.R. Blake: <u>Synergogy: A new strategy for education, training and development</u> (San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass Publishing Company, 1984), p. 42.

113. See also Allen, L.A.: <u>Management and organization</u>, International student edition (Tokyo: McGraw-Hill, 1958), pp. 148 - 154.

114. Mouton, J.S. & R.R. Blake: <u>op. cit.</u>, p. 44.

115. <u>Ibid</u>., p. 45.

116. See also Viljoen, A.: "Personeelopleiding en benutting as 'n voorvereiste vir doeltreffende mannekragbenutting", <u>SAIPA, Journal of Public Administration</u>, vol. 10, no. 4, December 1975 and Hanekom, S.X.: "Die seleksie en opleiding van opleidingspersoneel", <u>SAIPA, Journal of Public Administration</u>, vol. 7, no. 3, September 1972.

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT FACILITIES

AND THE UTILISATION THEREOF

1.   *INTRODUCTION*

With the aftermath of the new contstitutional dispensation in South

Africa, comes the realisation that local government is faced with a

lack of suitably trained personnel. Although the objectives of training

could be determined in the light of the expressed need for training,

it is no assurance that training will in effect, take place. Therefore,

it is important to note that whereas the *occurrence* of training is

linked to the availability of facilities the *success* of training is

dependent on how these facilities are utilised.[1)] John Poppleton's

contention that *"the world of change does not offer local government*

any exemption from its rules",[2)] underlines the necessity of local authori=

ties to, *inter alia,* also train and develop their personnel in an effort

to cope with modern-day challenges.

In addition, the new political dispensation provides for the creation of

'own' local authorities[3)] for the various population groups based on the

viability of the particular community and the extention of functions at

the local government level. Consequently, achievement of this objective

exerts more pressure on the local authorities to provide for expertise

and trained personnel.[4)] Although a *Local Government Training Board* and

– *Fund* have been established in terms of the *Local Government Training*

Act, 1985 (Act 41 of 1985)[5], this *Training Board* and *Training Fund* are, not as yet, fully operational and individual municipalities are, therefore, still left to their own devices for the training and development of their personnel.[6] Realising therefore, the need for training, as well as the importance of training-by-objectives, the facilities available in South Africa and its concomitant utilisation, can now be examined.

2. *RAISONS D'ETRE OF TRAINING FACILITIES*

In Chapter V a study was made of the needs and objectives of training and development at municipal government level. Taking cognisance of the diversified extent and nature of the services rendered by local authorities, it is clear that improvement of employee performance is no easy task. It is also the case that especially the smaller towns do not justify the employment of specialists for single fields of activity and, therefore, it could be expected of an official to undertake a function for which he is usually not fully equipped. This situation is universal and no amount of academic reasoning would ever change this practice. The fact remains that training and development have to facilitate a new level of performance, in other words, at the end of the day the ratio between input and output should be described as *improved performance.*[7]

The *Oxford English dictionary* defines *facility* as *"an aid which makes it easy to do things",* whilst *facilitate* is described as *"to make easy; to lessen the difficulty of ..."*[8] What then do local authorities do to overcome the difficulties experienced in training and development? It could be

assumed that one would like to ease the training and development burden
through the introduction and utilisation of the most cost-beneficial
facilities.

2.1   *Pre-entry and post-entry training*

It seems to be a world-wide trend to regard trained and well-equipped
personnel as a *"resource, the supply of which is critical to the survival
and future development of an organization or a nation".*[9]   This notion
is carried even further with the contention that the differences between
countries are not so much the result of strategic, minerals, economic
growth rates or internationally acceptable policies, but rather one of
their *people* being able to make the most of these commodities.[10]   With
this in mind and relating it to the objective of local government, *viz.*
the improvement of the general well-being of the community, it becomes
clear that training and development are in fact regarded to be the backbone
of the continued objective of serving the community.

As indicated before,[11] no one individual is, by virtue of either his
knowledge or experience, capable of an immediate productive contribution
to the institution.   Most officials have either the knowledge or the
experience, but very seldom a balanced proportion of both to exclude
them from training.   It is primarily as a result of this imbalance, that
in dealing with the training task, the training process is divided into
two sections, *viz.* pre-entry and post-entry training.

Pre-entry training is important in especially young countries faced with

a manpower problem, not so much because of low population figures, but

due to a lack of trained and educated personnel.[12) Currently, South

Africa has the added problem of constitutional changes which, *inter alia,*

also call for rapid extention of the government and administration of

local affairs to the Coloured, Indian and Black communities, whilst it

previously was the responsibility of mainly the White parent local

authorities. The newcomers to local government do not only have to be

trained in the usual run-of-the-mill matters in the municipality, but

also has to be taught at the outset how to create, implement and operate

the administrative infra-structures.[13)

Various facilities could be created to ease the need for trained personnel.

For example, experts could undertake preliminary investigations to

establish training priorities. In most of the smaller towns, and especially

the newly created local authorities, whether in the Republic of South

Africa or in the National States, there is a critical shortage of trained,

technical and maintenance personnel.[14) Although the proposed regional

services councils will, hopefully take care of these matters, it is still

imperative for each local authority to have at least one qualified

technician. In the National States, for example, technical institutions

could be established to provide this knowledge, as it would not only

reduce unemployment, but would really contribute to the easing of critical

staff shortages in these areas - thereby helping the community to help

itself.

In an effort to ease the shortage of trained personnel, there is a growing

tendency to provide prospective and current municipal officials with

bursaries and, in some cases, even with the retention of salaries, to study

full-time or part-time at higher educational institutions in courses especially needed in municipal service, for example, medicine, engineering, nursing, financing.[15] On completion, it is expected of the student to join the sponsoring municipality for a specific number of years.[16] It is essentially this method of easing the trained manpower shortage which Coetzee labels as *"educational training"*.[17] Educational training provides for the provision of suitably trained lower echelon officials who, after attending additional *future job* directed in-service training programmes, could be prepared for higher echelon positions.[18]

The necessity to provide training programmes also led to the establishment of public and/or municipal service training institutions in other African countries. A number of States, such as Egypt, Sudan, Upper-Volta and Liberia invested in pre-entry training centres and schools which have to be attended by prospective civil or municipal officials.[19] In South Africa job-related institutes, such as the Institute for Town Clerks and Municipal Treasurers and Accountants, offer courses which contribute to the resale value of the official, but is not yet compulsory for promotion or continued occupancy of a post. These Institutes are, however, more directed at post-entry training. It was found through research that it is mostly the socially accepted professional positions in the municipality, *viz.* doctors, accountants and engineers,[20] whose subordinates enjoy pre-entry training. Most other courses offered by the Institutes, Technikon RSA and the University of South Africa are read by existing personnel and is, therefore, regarded as post-entry training, although the training may not necessarily be job-oriented. Furthermore, research showed that pre-entry qualifications related more to fragmented *situational* training. For example, training prepares the employee in a general direction or a course

where legally prescribed training programmes have to be followed, whilst post-entry training is more specific, preparing the individual for the specific job he currently holds or is expected to hold·tomorrow. With the exception of occupations with legally prescribed apprenticeship or clerkship training, municipal officials are not expected to be in possession of any specific post matric qualifications.[21)]

For purposes of this thesis, post-entry training is divided into two main groupings, *viz.* induction courses and in-service training, which again is divided into on-the-job and off-the-job training. The main reasoning behind this distinction, is the truism that theoretical knowledge is not (yet) sufficient to provide competent officials and, therefore, post-entry or in-service training programmes are necessary.[22)] A further distinction between induction - and in-service training programmes is required, because the same officials, in addition to not having the immediate functional knowledge of the institution, may know nothing about the lines of action of the institution, other than the knowledge gathered through hear-say or advertisements. The objectives of post-entry training, are, therefore, *inter alia,* to:[23)]

- teach the official the functional activities of his-job;
- make the institution's needs and objectives known to him;
- provide him with greater knowledge of responsibilities and job contents to advance to supervisory positions; and
- bring about insight and concern for the interaction between public and private needs.

With due regard to these objectives, induction - and in-service training are explained hereunder.

2.1.1 *Induction training*

As discussed earlier,[24] municipal institutions pay much attention to the recruitment and selection of personnel. Considerable care is also taken with the placement of the newly appointed official. No wonder then that whilst selection is *"usually regarded as a negative process, i.e. rejection of candidates for a position, placement is (considered) a positive process",*[25] whereby positions are filled with suitably qualified applicants and individuals are *"matched"*[26] with the requirements of the institution.[27] This fusion process of matching was described by Bakke in 1953, as the institution's *socialization* of the newcomer and the newcomer's *personalizing* with the institution.[28] This could be obtained if the candidate has a clear and accurate knowledge of what he is supposed to do, possesses the minimum required skills and knows what levels of performance would be acceptable. Once placed, steps[29] should be taken to ensure that, by meeting the individual's needs and interests, the newcomer will make the municipal service his career.[30]

Induction entails three stages,[31] *viz*. pre-announcement -, announcement - and continuation.

2.1.1.1 *Pre-announcement stage*

First favourable impressions of the institution are important in formulating the newcomer's eventual ideas of the municipal service. In Britain, for

example, the newcomer, before he actually reports for duty, is presented with a booklet,[32] giving descriptions on the history, tradition, goals and regulations of the public/municipal service and wishing him *"good luck in ... (a) career in the service of the public"*.[33] Another way of introducing the newcomer to his new environment, is by writing a letter, stating the expected date of commencement of duty, the time and place of arrival, as well as who shall be there to meet him. An impression of interest in the newcomer is created and could contribute to decrease first-day nervousness and create a feeling of interest by the employer in the new employee.

2.1.1.2 Announcement stage

During the announcement stage, the newcomer should be acquainted with his total duty sheet and what is expected of him in terms of responsibility and performance. Should this be neglected, he could in future, refuse to undertake a duty, simply, because he was not originally introduced to it.[34] The announcement stage should be aimed at making the newcomer feel at home, comfortable and is met by a friendly, sympathetic and warm atmosphere. It should be remembered that a newcomer is also a person and should be honoured and respected for his individualism. If the newcomer's assimilation in the job environment is not smooth and swift, he could feel a nuisance, perform poorly and even resign.[35] Although the feeling of *being wanted* should preferably be created, the newcomer should not be smothered with questions on his life and objectives. In

making a newcomer part of the section or department, a clear distinction
and balance between interest and inquisitiveness should be made and kept,[36]
otherwise he could be scared off.

This *getting-to-know* stage should be the responsibility of the immediate
supervisor. As this is a rather personal, delicate, formative process,
it calls for a vigilant, understanding person, properly trained in
dealing with newcomers. It is the supervisor who should prepare other
officials for the newcomer's arrival, explaining his job and non-com=
petitiveness[37] and pave the way for his acceptance. The supervisor should
also see to it that the newcomer is introduced to everybody with whom he
is to work within that department, from the town clerk to the office
maintenance personnel. More important perhaps of any of the afore-
mentioned requirements, the newcomer *must* know from whom he is to take
instructions, to whom he should report and with whom he could discuss
problem areas, in other words, the correct channels of communication
should be explained.[38]

2.1.1.3   *Continuation stage*

As soon as the initial introductory stage is completed, all available
reading matter concerning the individual's job should be given to him,
so that he at least knows where each task originates from. At the
same time he is introduced to the various forms in use and the sequence
of work flow in his office within the broad spectrum of the department.
The supervisor should, however, guard against giving too much information
at one meeting or confusing the newcomer. A possible solution to this

problem could be the introduction of units where induction is undertaken by specially trained staff,[39] as Adu states: *"... the normal technique resorted to here, is that of directed experience under the close super= vision of an experienced officer".*[40] Having a definite induction unit, could also, on the one hand, limit the possibility of leaving the particular function in the hands of people not suitably qualified, who might scare the newcomer off and, on the other hand, contribute in reaching the objectives for induction as stated by Yoder,[41] *viz.:*

(a)   establish favourable job impression and attitude;

(b)   create the feeling of belonging;

(c)   establish a basis for teamwork;

(d)   reduce labour turnover, especially amongst new appointees;

(e)   saving time and trouble for the supervisor and colleagues in terms of getting to know how the various tasks and activities get together; and

(f)   decrease grievances mainly based on ignorance of the job environment.

Induction should not be mistaken as quasi-training[42] programmes and should be restricted to introducing the job to the newcomer, acquainting him with the job terminology and indicating how the numerous activities

fit together in reaching the ultimate objective of local government.[43]
In the final analysis the foundations laid during induction will
contribute to the willingness and motivation of the official to do his
best in pursuit of institutional objectives, in other words the extent
to which he could be trained and developed.

2.1.2   *In-service training*[44]

Having been exposed to the induction programmes, the newcomer is only
introduced to his new work environment and has received little, if any,
functional, job-directed training. It is essentially this gap between
*"settling down in one's new job and reaching one's optimum production
levels"*, that is bridged by in-service training.[45] As indicated
earlier,[46] training is dependent on the official's will to learn.
Whilst learning can take place under a diversity of circumstances, it is
fairly difficult to say where *"casual chance training lets off and (where)
planned, purposeful training begins"*.[47] For this reason in-service
training has to be thoroughly planned, programmed and offered at fixed
times and at fixed intervals.

In-service training gets a further impetus when it is realised that the
ultimate aim of local authorities is to have officials who are *"capable
of efficiently satisfying the community needs for the various population
groups"*.[48] Whilst this requirement is expressed in the light of the
new constitutional directives, it emphasises the belief that in-service
training, as far as attitudes and personal relationships[49] are concerned,
is an ongoing, process. Over the years, numerous in-service training

methods have been devised.[50)] A careful selection should, however,

be made of those methods which best suit the environment of municipal

administration. Moreover, these methods should be refined further to

suit the requirements of a particular municipality. It is in this vein

that Rabey maintains that *"the method must be geared to the situation".*[51)]

The reason for this, being, *inter alia,* the different *political* arenas

in which municipalities operate; the particular atmosphere and circumstances

prevailing in the particular areas; the primary objectives of the particular

municipality and finally, due regard being had to the fact that the

majority of municipal personnel are generalists in the work environment.

Consequently, a number of training methods are directed at skill improvement

in an endeavour to produce the needed specialists at municipal government

level.

In the light of the above exposition, training methods suitable for

municipalities can now be discussed.

3.   *TRAINING METHODS*

A student in training methods may find himself in a terminological

labyrinth, as there are as many methods as there are authors on the subject,

each trying to identify an individualism in dealing with the issue. Petasis,

in his book *Practical training methods for Southern Africa,* wishes to

distinguish between *teaching modes* and *teaching aids* when he deals with

the ways that could be employed to train officials.[52)] Most authors do

not draw this distinction, but prefer to differentiate between methods

which would best suit off-the-job and on-the-job training programmes,[53)]

or else distinguish between teaching methods and teaching strategies.[54)]

Beach, for example, classify the methods as:[55]

1.   on-the-job;

2.   vestibule;

3.   classroom methods:
       (a)   lecture;
       (b)   conference;
       (c)   case-study;
       (d)   role-playing;
       (e)   programmed instruction;
       (f)   computer-assisted instruction;

4.   other methods:
       (a)   demonstration;
       (b)   simulation of games.

Sikula[56] again, classify training methods as depicted in figure 12:
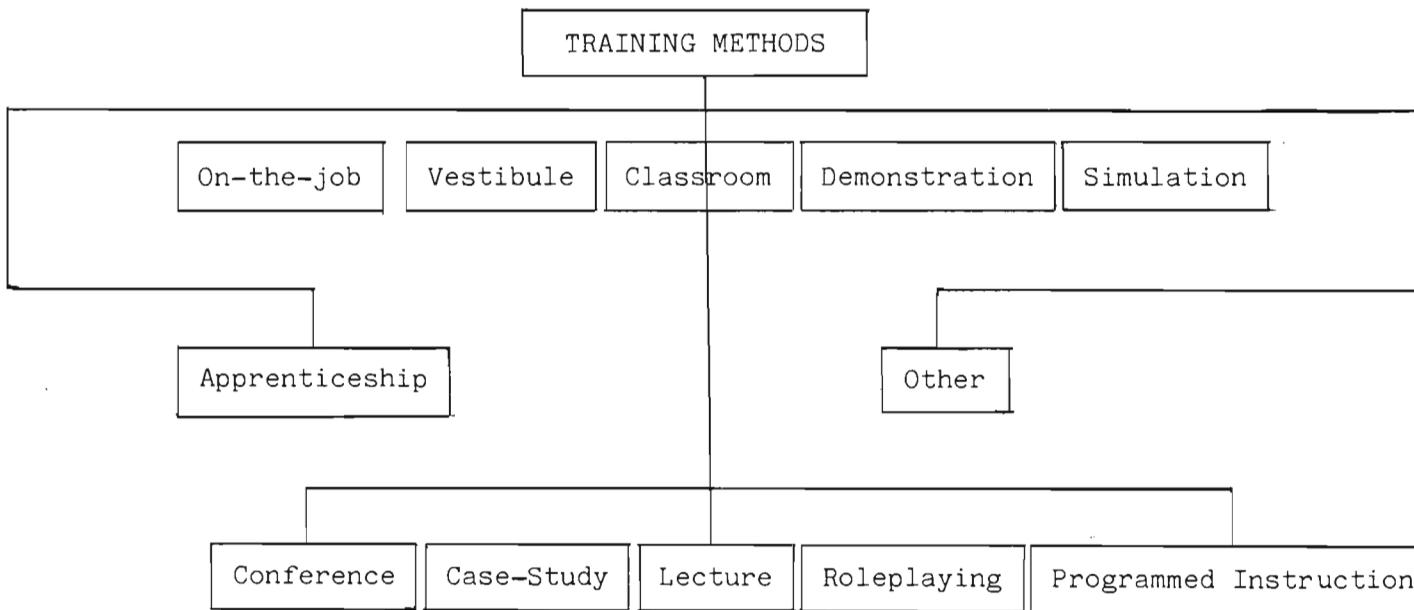
Figure 12.   *SIKULA'S CLASSIFICATION OF TRAINING METHODS*

In addition to these classifications, Siegel and Myrtle have developed a
"way of visualising the wide variety of methods" by classifying the
methods by form of instruction.[57] The first group of methods is regarded
as *informal presentations,* which include teaching strategies, such as
lectures, seminars and recently, video tapes, tele-conferencing and
computer-assisted instruction. The second group is based on current
principles of adult learning.[58] These methods are based on the
assumptions that (i) the trainee, in terms of self-concept, through
training, moves away from being a dependent personality to being a self-
directing being; and (ii) that experience and readiness to learn are
important resources for learning. The third group of teaching methods
is *instructional techniques* which refer to on-the-job strategies,
apprenticeships and internships. These methods are regarded as being the
oldest of all training and development strategies, and as a result, time
has caused it to take on a developmental orientation.[59]

Having regard to all these methods and reviewing the South African situation,
a specific training pattern with given methods and strategies is not clear.[60]
Despite the lack of an explicit training method classification, it would
appear as if the classification provided by Beach[61] is widely applied in
those South African municipalities which are in fact, actively involved
in systematic and planned training and development projects.

Before a closer examination of suitable training methods is embarked
upon, it should once again be stressed that the specific *circumstances*
of the municipality are of the utmost importance in the selection of
a group of training methods.[62] For example, it would be non-sensical
for the municipality of Bergville to introduce an apprentice training

course if the one mechanic could easily attend a refresher course at
Estcourt or if the Ladysmith municipality could provide a relief mechanic
during a crisis.[63]   Added to this, the *cost* of a training method in terms
of acquisition *and* application, should be a definite consideration in
the decision. Other criteria that influence the decision on which
training methods are most suitable, are:

-       the kinds of (new) behaviour one wishes to provoke;

-       trainee diversity, such as ethonolinguistic difference, cultural
        values, and physical ability; and

-       the extent of incorporation and utilisation of the known learning
        principles.[64]

In summary, the correct selection of the most suitable training methods,
is essential in order to gain maximum advantage from training and
development.

3.1   *On-the-job training*

The term *on-the-job* training is self-explanatory, meaning that an official
is trained in the real work situation.[65]   On-the-job training does not
expect of the trainee to leave his work place, tools or equipment and he
is shown and instructed in a familiar atmosphère how to use the *utensils*
of his occupation or trade.[66]   In this way guidance is usually given by
a more knowledgeable person who need not be the supervisor, but any other
worker more experienced in the use of the information for instruction.[67]
Petasis maintains that on-the-job training is used primarily to train

non-managerial staff and new recruits[68], but one could differ from this
narrow view, as it has been observed that, irrespective of ranking, all
newcomers to a particular position, need to be shown the know-how needed
for the newly acquired post. Most training is of the on-the-job variety.[69]
Whether formal and systematic or informal and haphazard, a person still
learns his job simply by watching others doing it and later on copying
these observed behaviours.[70]

3.1.1   *Advantages*

As the official need not be taken away from his desk, the most obvious
advantages of on-the-job training is that it is cheap, fairly simple and
it *"eliminates the problem of transfer of learning since the effects of
training can be demonstrated on the job"*.[71] A further advantage of this
training method is that it is most appropriate for teaching knowledge and
skills which can be acquired in a relatively short time span or if a
few officials have to be trained simultaneously for uniform positions.
The most obvious advantage lies in it's most obvious application, *viz.*
the training of unskilled and semi-skilled workers, manual and clerical
positions, and that it *"permits the trainee to learn on the actual
equipment and in the environment of his job"*.[72] On-the-job training is,
therefore, easily accessible to everybody and brings training and
development within the reach of especially the economic weaker, unskilled
and semi-skilled worker who may not be able to pay for training in the
labour market.

3.1.2   *Disadvantages*

The major disadvantages of on-the-job training could perhaps be obscured

by its main advantage - easy and cheap and accessible. The reason being

that this kind of training is given by a more experienced worker, albeit

an equal ranker or a supervisor. It has been observed and scientifically

verified that often it is this method that teaches the worker how *not*

to do the job, in other words, the trainee learns the way the supervisor

does the job. However, this way could be full of short-cuts, bad habits

and danger zones.[73] The more experienced one gets in doing a job, the

more one tends to become over-confident. This is when the instructing-

agent (be it a supervisor or a more experienced colleague) should realise

that it takes as specific skill to transfer knowledge and *how-to-do*

to a novice.[74]

A second disadvantage is that the supervisor's eagerness to get the

newcomer productive could cause him to *"slight the principles and theory*

(of even the simplist task) in favour of immediate production".[75] A

third disadvantage lies in the fact that on-the-job training could be

untidy, disorganised and haphazard,[76] and finally, being new to the

environment, the trainee may not be used to the customary noises, music,

laughter and chatter and as a result of this, could, during the training

process, easily loose concentration in the task.[77]

According to Milkovich and Glueck, a disadvantage of on-the-job training

may not necessarily be a disadvantage, should the risk involved be

realised. In the aforementioned eagerness of productivity, the newcomer

may experience a degree of nervousness. In his eagerness to produce

he may break or damage machinery, misfile information, approve invalid

building plans, render low quality service and leave citizens dissatisfied

and dismayed with their town's municipal service.[78] These are calculable

risks and in an effort to eliminate or, at least, reduce the negative

results thereof, the municipal training officer could apply the job

instruction training (JIT) methods.[79] In this way an atmosphere of

increased productivity and no or little negative results could rapidly

be created.

3.1.3   *On-the-job training versus off-the-job training*

As is the case with on-the-job training, the term *off-the-job* training

means exactly what it says, *viz.* away from the job.[80] Off-the-job

training refers to all those methods where the official is physically

removed from his work environment, yet it is expected of him to remain

in contact mentally. It is when off-the-job methods are applied, that the

relatedness and advantages of on-the-job training become clear. As off-

the-job training takes place away form the task,[81] but not necessarily

the institution, it could happen that irrelevant information is given to

the trainee. This is not as a result of any problem experienced by the

trainer; it is mainly as a result of the fact that the trainer is, in the

majority of cases, not the supervisor of that specific task. Together

with this problem, is the lack of actual reinforcement in the actual job

situation.[82] The ideal situation during all training sessions is that the

trainee should be able to return to his task immediately on receipt of

knowledge and apply it. In this way errors can be corrected immediately

and continual reinforcement as a result of incorrect applications are non-existent. It is especially this *ideal* situation which gave rise to the creation of related apprenticeship instruction (RAI),[83] where on-the-job and off-the-job training lead to the advantage of the institution. The related apprenticeship instruction method is usually applied for clerkships (accountants), internships (doctors) and apprenticeships (technical personnel), i.e. positions which call for a reasonable amount of hand dexterity and/or manual work. However, it is, in effect indirectly extended to all fields of work, as every official needs a period of acquaintanceship in his job before optimum utilisation and performance levels are reached.[84]

In the light of this, it is clear that on-the-job training is an all-embracing method as it is the *only* method that can be applied indiscrimi= nately to all grades, all types of jobs and all individuals.

3.2   *Vestibule training*

One dictionary defines the term 'vestibule' as being a lobby or entrance hall to a building,[85] whilst another adds "... *a small hall or lobby from which doors open into the various inner rooms*".[86] Naturally this is what vestibule training sets out to do, i.e. to introduce the official to the institution *through various doors*. For example, as a training method, the vestibule technique comprises a school or workshop to introduce new workers into the work situation by means of a few weeks of practice on a specific job.[87] Vestibule training is, therefore, a simulation,[88] in other words, it is an attempt to duplicate, as closely as possible, the eventual work place of the official.[89] This type of training is known to

the layman as a training method of pilots and submarine operators, but
it could just as effectively be used to train municipal machine operators,
bus inspectors, artisans, abattoir operators, typists and even clerks.

3.2.1   *Advantages*

As a simulation, vestibule training represents the same equipment,
machinery and conditions under which the official would in real life, do
his job, and as a result, the official is less nervous and accident-prone
when he returns to the real work situation.[90]   In this way the negative
effects of transfer from training environment to operating environment are
greatly reduced. In addition, when semi-skilled and clerical personnel
have to be trained, the classroom setting could be used, thereby reducing
cost and effort. Vestibule training has the further advantage, that
both theory and practice receive attention during training sessions and
training is done by well-trained instructors.[91] This form of training
is also most suitable when a number of people who eventually would all
do the same kind of work, has to be trained simultaneously.[92]

3.2.2   *Disadvantages*

A serious disadvantage of vestibule training is that exact duplication
of a job environment is a costly process.[93] In addition, as a large
number of people could be taught at the same time, care should be taken
not to overlook individual weaknesses and the ability to understand.
Should this happen, the individual will still learn to do wrong, as is
the case with on-the-job training. [94] A further disadvantage, though

it has positive qualities as well, is that whilst the main emphasis is on learning, production may suffer.[95]

3.2.3 *On-the-job training versus vestibule training*

Vestibule training has much in common with the customary on-the-job training methods, in that it also deals with the real tools, equipment and circumstances to be encountered in the actual work environment. The one advantage of vestibule training, which is also the main difference between the two methods, is, however, that the vestibule training method removes the official from the actual work situation and this helps to 'calm the nerves' and to eliminate the distraction caused by the unfamiliarity of the new environment.[96] The other difference is that theory, which is inherent in most skilled and semi-skilled positions, are more easily learnt by using the vestibule method than the on-the-job training method.[97]

From the above it is clear that most authors regard vestibule and on-the-job training as synonyms and that the main difference is to be found only in the venue of training.[98] From information on training methods obtained from 22 participating municipalities, *no* mention was made of vestibule training. This causes one to wonder whether the method is not applied as a result of municipalities not knowing about it; whether it is regarded as unapplicable, or whether it is regarded to be similar to on-the-job training and, therefore, does not justify identification as a separate training method.

3.3   *Classroom methods*

Sikula refers to classroom methods of training as *"conventional teaching methodologies, because certain aspects of all jobs are more easily learned in the classroom than on the job".*[99] Classroom methods of training are primarily used to instill certain values, concepts, attitudes, theories and decision-making skills in the trainees.[100] It is, furthermore, felt that specific aspects of all positions could be learnt best in a classroom setting.[101] Knowing that through classroom methods a considerable depth of knowledge on any given job could be obtained, and in the light of the fact that most South African municipalities use these methods in their training programmes, it could now be discussed in more detail.[102]

3.3.1   *Lectures*

The lecture is the oldest form of instruction to convey new knowledge to trainees,[103] and the method mostly used in South African municipalities.[104] Sikula defines a lecture as *"a discourse delivered aloud for instructional purposes".*[105] The lecture is further accepted as the standard mode of instruction at universities, technikons and other educational institutions.[106] Although lectures are used so often and indiscriminately, it, nevertheless, remains an art to use this method as *"an effective means to teach some-one something he did not know previously".*[107] The lecturer should not only have a thorough knowledge of the lectured material, but he should also have the flair and the skill to grasp and keep the attention of trainees by presenting the new information in an interesting and knowledgeable manner.

As a mode of training, the lecture is suitable when a fair to large number of trainees have to be trained.[108] Watson maintains that lecturing is the appropriate way of training high ranking officials and increases *"where the level of intelligence is generally higher and the audience is more accustomed to verbal presentations of concepts and facts"*.[109] Conversely, Milkovich and Glueck, feel that lecturing should neither be used in addressing audiences with a relatively low intelligence nor when training objectives involve the application of skills or conveyance of information related to changing attitudes and behaviour on the job.[110]

Although the lecture is so widely used, the method is not without its advantages and disadvantages. Trainers should take special care when opting for this method, i.e. they should not adopt this method because it is the *"easy way out"* and *"everybody lectures"*, but rather select it after all the advantages and disadvantages have been taken into consideration.

3.3.1.1 Advantages

Little can be debated on the economy of this method, because considerable amounts of information can, during one lecture, be conveyed to a large number of people and this causes the cost per trainee to be low.[111] Another advantage is that the lecturer could control the learning situation as he can ensure that only relevant and/or specific information is conveyed, thus acquainting people, during a short period of time, with new concepts and facts. In this way, the general knowledge of officials is also increased[112] and they could learn more from the actual

lecture, rather than to consult relevant literature and in this way, sacrifice valuable time. The lecture is especially advantageous when, due to financial constraints, the institution cannot afford to buy reading material, films and other aids to stimulate the learning process.[113]

3.3.1.2 *Disadvantages*

A review of literature on lectures indicates increased criticism against this method as a mode of instruction. In fact, the disadvantages far exceed the advantages.[114] The disadvantages could be divided into two main categories, each with other derived or indirect disadvantages. The first field of criticism is the passiveness of trainees.[115] As one-way communication is most often the normal format of lecturing, creative thinking is not stimulated in any way and too much emphasis is placed on the accumulation of information. For this reason, feedback is virtually non-existent and in this way, little, if any, application of knowledge is stressed.[116] The recipients of information sit quietly in a large hall, not doing any work nor practising to master a skill and, therefore, it is felt that the principle of 'learning by doing' is, in fact, violated.[117] This passiveness could, according to Nigro and Nigro, be found in the group-relatedness of the lecture method.[118]

The lecture as a means of conveying information as quickly and cheaply as possible, do not provide for the individual ability of each trainee. In addition, little effort is made to recognise each trainee's interests and motives for attending the training course.[119] This disadvantage leads to the second field of criticism, *viz.* the lecturer.

Lecturers and trainees, by virtue of their respective positions, differ in terms of knowledge on the lecture material and, therefore, their approaches to the lecture could be in conflict.[120] Whilst the lecture does not necessarily expect any preparation from the trainee, preparation and presentation is, in fact, *"the sine qua non of all good instruction"*.[121] The disadvantage then, is the tendency of lecturers to be dogmatic and *"to teach principles or rules of conduct which the listener is expected to accept without questioning"*.[122] Some lecturers may also refuse question times and problems could, in this way, remain unsolved. The down-fall of any lecture remains, however, the constant criticism that lectures are boring.[123] This could be attributed to the truism that lecturing requires a fair degree of speaking ability,[124] and, therefore special care should be taken in the selection of a lecturer.

In an effort to eliminate the disadvantages and still retain the essence of lecturing, it could, as a training method, be combined with other styles of teaching, such as a combined lecture-discussion. The lecturer could also employ other measures, such as formal reading assignments, films, presentations and the use of video's and overhead projectors[125] to make the lecture more interesting and less cirticism-prone as a method of training.

3.3.2   *Conference*[126]

Louis Lerda defines a conference as a:[127]

> *"pooling of experiences and opinions among a group of people who have all had experience related to the problem, or among people who are capable of analysing the problem from information provided by the conference leader".*

This implies that although there is always a conference chairman or leader, the conference aims to be a mutual exchange of information.[128] Conferences are gatherings of people seeking to develop knowledge and understanding through *active* oral participation.[129] Through this active oral participation and interaction between members, learning is brought about. In addition, conferences tend to emphasise small group discussions, organised subject matter and active participant involvement.[130]

According to Beach, there are three kinds of conferences - *viz.* the directed conference[131], the consultative conference and the problem-solving conference.[132] It is primarily the directed conference which is used in the training of municipal officials. Attending officials have to, through assigned readings, prepare for discussions as the success of any conference is dependent on the active participation of all those attending. But to be orderly and generate such active participation, the conference *"should be well-planned, not a free wheeling session, that turns into a conversational boat ride on uncharted seas to an unknown port".*[133] It is with this objective in mind, that the conference leader should take

special care in preparing and conducting the conference, as he is the

one to stimulate the thought processes of the trainees and, through

positive guidance, restrict them to the point under discussion.[134]

3.3.2.1   *Advantages*

As conferences aim to be participative methods of training, trainees

get to know one another through the expression of ideas and the sharing

of experiences.[135]   In this way one becomes more sensitive to the

problems, fears and emotions experienced by one's colleague. By

allowing questions and thereby creating a two-way communication process,

misinformation and misunderstanding are corrected and trainees are

provided the opportunity to improve their verbal skills. As directed

conferences are usually restricted to 20 trainees, [136] this method

teaches them to effectively work together as a team and to produce useful

solutions to true, identified problems.[137]

3.3.2.2   *Disadvantages*

The major disadvantage of the conference method is that it requires much

time to plan and organise; that it is limited to a small group; and that

irrelevant issues always tend to prevail.[138]   In addition to these

apparent disadvantages, is the non-apparent disadvantage of the novice

instructor. Care should be taken that the conference chairman is well

versed in the application of this method to ensure that the discussions

remain relevant and to prevent the development of a lecturing atmosphere.[139]

It could easily happen that the most outspoken trainee may dominate the

scene, thereby distracting from the idea to get the more shy participant to participate in discussion.[140]

3.3.3   *Case-study method*

According to Watson, a case-study is *"a description or history of a real, or imaginary, yet realistic situation"*.[141]   To provide a student with examples whilst he is learning, is by no means a new approach. Since the earliest times (Aesop 620-560 BC) real life experiences or *"truths"* were used in training students.[142]   The case-study method provides the student with the opportunity to use his own knowledge to provide solutions to a stated problem. Pigors refers to this method as case methods and distinguishes between the Harvard method, the Henley Syndicate method and the Wharton School method.[143]

Case-studies which are used extensively and are popular in marketing, labour relations and production management training,[144] could be used in one of two ways, It can either be used in addition to formal theory explanations, or it can be expected of students to provide oral discussions and/or written analyses on the issue without prior explanation of underlying theories.[145]

3.3.3.1   *Advantages*

Because case-studies are done in a conference atmosphere, it is excellent for *"developing analytical thinking and fostering problem-solving ability"*.[146]   Narrowmindedness is reduced, because trainees often have to defend their opinions in the wake of their colleague's

criticism.[147] As the participants are dealing with concrete situations,
and individual thinking is generated, trainees soon realise that there
is no defininte right or wrong solutions and, therefore, develop maturity
in that they do not feel rejected, but receive the opportunity to develop
*"habits of mind that are particularly relevant to real-life tasks and
action"*.[148] Properly administered case-studies have the added value
that through analysis and discussion, it discourages *"black-and-white,
simplistic and dogmatic thinking"*.[149] All these positive aspects are
primarily brought about, because case-studies, by bringing realism into
the classroom, allow a sharing of experience, exposure to questions and
an ability to accept, without repercussion, critical comments from other
trainees. These advantages are indispensable in the preparation of
especially middle level administrators and municipal heads of departments.[150]
Case-study methods may also include business games, "buzz-groups" and incident
studies,[151] but these are not usually applied in the South African
municipalities.

3.3.3.2 *Disadvantages*

Pigors maintains that even the best case-studies have disadvantages,
because no case, however realistic it may be, can be identical to real
life.[152] As workability of the solution is not a critical factor,[153]
trainees may be biased and selective in their approach. Case-studies
are, furthermore, difficult and time-consuming.[154] Not all trainees
are able to accept any form of uncertainty and the absense of *"one
correct answer"* may cause some frustration[155] and, eventual hypocritical
participation. The biggest disadvantage could be the fact that case-
studies represent a slow way of training, and is, therefore, time-consuming

and limited to a small superior group of employees. In addition, few new ideas and concepts are taught during any one session and consequently, the case-study method could cause boredom and lead to superficial levels of training.[156]

3.3.4   *Role playing*[157]

Whilst a case-study is a discussion of a case, role playing is the actual playing of the case as close to reality as possible. Two or more trainees are assigned parts to play in front of the rest of the class.[158] A typical case represents a human relations problem between a supervisor and a subordinate. The oral or written description of the situation is given to the players and some time is allowed to prepare themselves, although there are no lines to memorise or to rehearse. The 'audience' then critically watch the performance and make notes of what has happened. Thereafter a discussion under the guidance of a leader takes place. Sometimes the case is repeated so that all participants get a chance of playing a role.

3.3.4.1   *Advantages*

Being a practical method, trainees receive the opportunity to actually put into practice all the theory they learnt from textbooks, lectures and conferences. This situation has the value that *"role playing experience soon demonstrates the gap between 'thinking' and 'doing'"*,[159] in other words, learning by doing is emphasised. Trainees also become aware of how their behaviour affects others and this helps them to accept other points of view when roles are reversed and to improve levels of interaction.[160]

A further advantage is that knowledge of results is immediate and thereby the interest and involvement of trainees are high.[161] Added to this, is the fact that mistakes are functional and do not cost the institution anything, therefore, it is an inexpensive mode of training.

3.3.4.2   *Disadvantages*

The disadvantages of role playing centre mainly around the concept of understanding. For example, it takes quite some time to teach one concept and it requires the direction of a highly competent instructor. Should the players not grasp the technique, they may be silly and regard is as childish play-acting. If not interpreted correctly, role playing could be hurtful to sensitive people.[162] As role playing is a simulation of reality, trainees may not approach this method with the necessary seriousness. Thus it becomes difficult to grasp the principles underlying the success of role play, *viz.* involvement, a feeling of comfort and a climate of mutual trust.[163]

The investigation into the training methods applied by South African municipalities, revealed that the methods discussed in this chapter prevail most prominent.[164] However, there are other equally suitable methods, but their application may not be cost-beneficial, as it can only train limited numbers of trainees at any one time. Furthermore, these methods entail specialised and expensive equipment and require the services of specialist instructors.

Although the classification of training methods according to Beach[165] has been adopted as suitable for the South African municipal training arena,

classroom methods, such as programmed instruction and computer-assisted instruction, are included under *other methods*, mainly because it appears as if these methods are not actively applied as yet.[166]

3.3.5   *Other methods*

As there are so many exponents of training and development, it is virtually impossible to duscuss all devised training methods within the confines of this thesis. Currently, the methods described above form the crux of training and development activities prevailing at South African municipalities. The following methods could, however, also be used to a greater or lesser extent.

3.3.5.1   *Programmed instruction*[167]

The contention of Hawley that:[168]

> *"programmed instruction can preserve many of the advantages of a human tutor and, by use of the printed page, being economical and easily administered presentation of information,"*

indicates that this method of training, integrates man and machine in the process of transmitting information to a trainee. Programmed instruction can be carried out through a book, manual or teaching machine.[169] The features of this training method are:[170]

1 -   students learn at their own pace;

2 -   instructors are not the crux of learning;

3 -   the material involved is dissected into small parts;

4 -   each step is the logical response to the previous step;

5 -   trainees get immediate knowledge of results; and

6 -   the trainee actively participates in each step in the programme.

The immediateness of the reinforcement increases the effect of the learning process and contributes to the effectiveness of the method. Therefore, the so-called Stimulus-Response-Reinforcement-Feedback network is an integral part of this method.[171] In addition, the effect of programmed instruction depends to a *"large extent on the fact that the material demands active responses from the learner"*.[172] For this reason, programmed instruction involves breaking information down into meaningful subunits and then arranging the segments in an orderly way, thus forming a logical and sequential learning package.[173]

As man and machine are integrated in this method, Pressey thought of programmed instruction as a means to relieve the teacher from routine tasks and thereby paving the way for automated teaching.[174] This can be achieved by using slides, films, tangible rewards in conjuction with orally lectured material. On the strength of this idea, three methods of programmed instruction have been devised, *viz.* the Pressey method, the Skinner method and the Crowder method.[175] In this regard compare figure 13.

PRESSEY METHOD

SKINNER METHOD

CROWDER METHOD
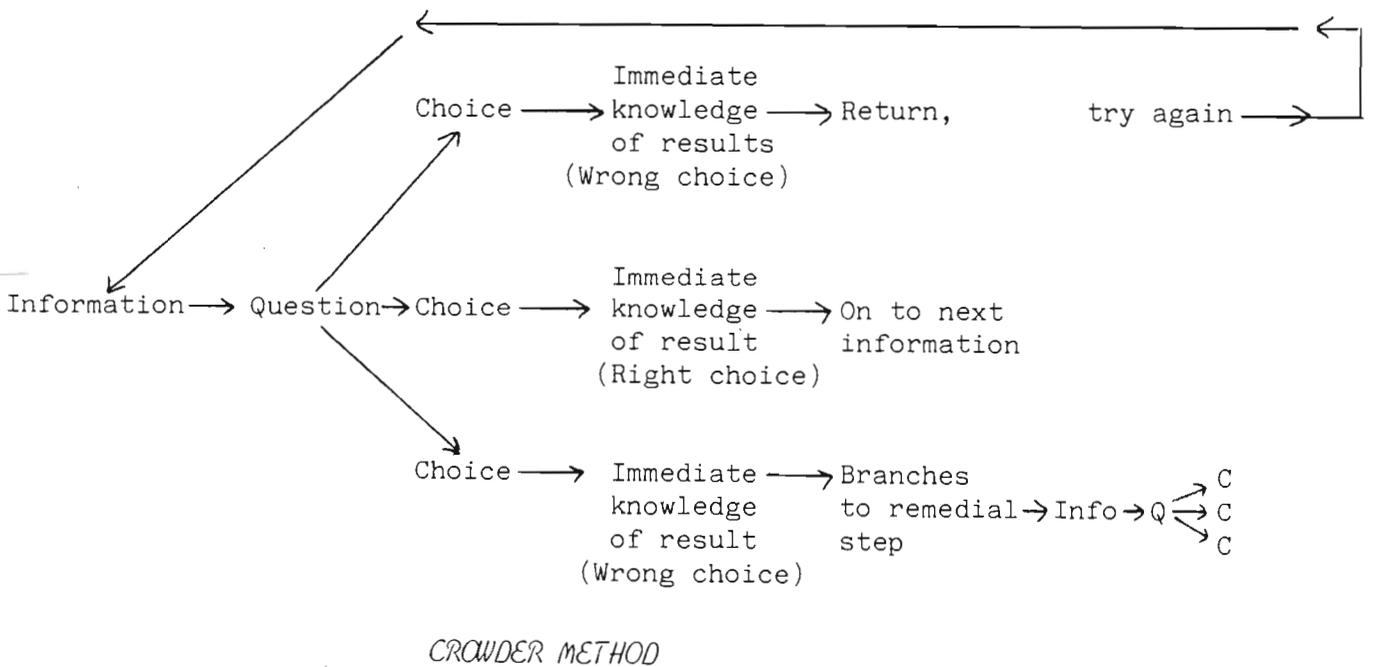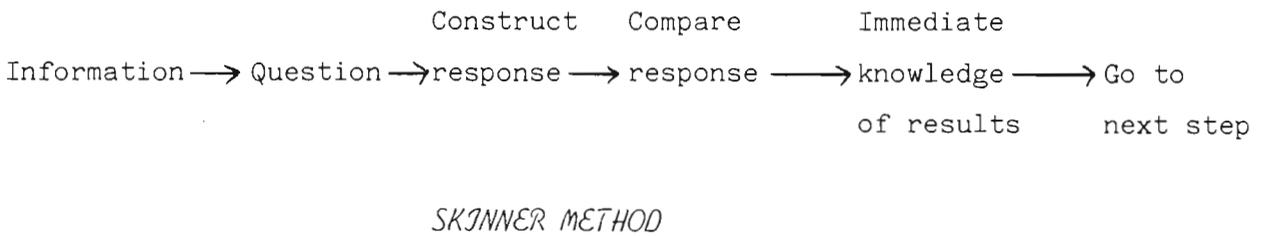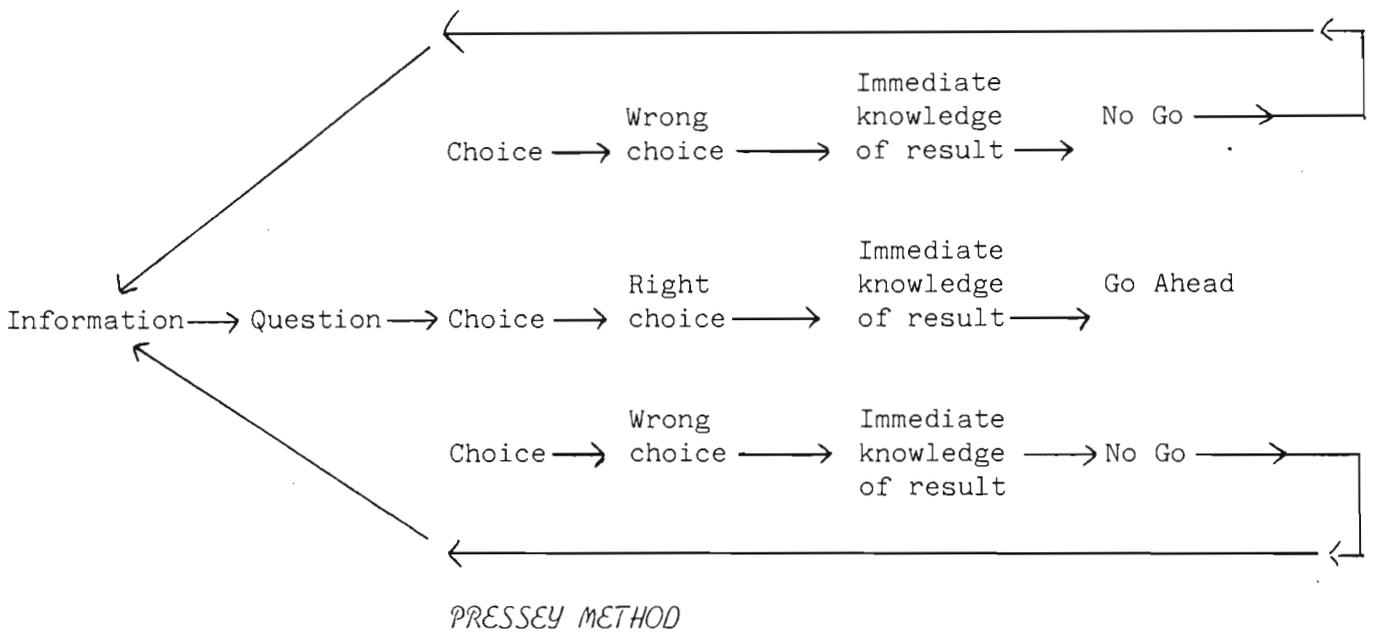
Figure 13.   METHODS OF PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

Whilst the first two methods require that the trainee correctly respond
to each step of the programme before proceeding to the next one, the
latter model does not require errorless performance. The choice made
by the student controls and determines the material to be seen next.[176]
It is this distinction that causes the Skinner and Pressey methods to be
referred to as *constructed response* or *linear* programming and the Crowder
method as the *intrinsic* or *branching* method.

Although this method does allow for programmes to be devised on the basis
of individual ability of each trainee, the cost of creating such a
single programme is very high.[177] The use of programmed instruction
is primarily restricted to the teaching of factual knowledge, for
example, language and job routines. However, it is not used to develop
problem-solving skills and philosophical concepts.[178]

3.3.5.2   *Computer-assisted instruction*

The computer-assisted instruction method of training is based on the same
principles as expounded in programmed instruction, in other words, as
one respond correctly to a stimulus, the next part of information becomes
available.[179] As this method of training is an expensive and slow way
of training trainees, it is primarily used as an aid for learning well
structured material, such as grammar and reading. This method, could,
however, be used in addition to other methods, such as lectures and
conferences, to develop problem-solving skills and to improve productivity.[180]

3.3.5.3   *In-basket method*

The in-basket method derives it's name from the nature of the exercise. It is a combination of a case-study and a role play and is a simulation.[181] There is only one role player and he is confronted with, for example, memoranda, notes, letters, problems and policy statements in his *in-basket*. After having obtained some background history on the institution, he scans through the in-basket for the first time. Then, within a specified period of time, he is required to arrange the problems in order of priority and to provide answers. In this way the trainees get an opportunity to think and to act promptly. The whole action is critically observed by an instructor, who afterwards provide corrective and supportive guidance.[182]

By applying this method, matters such as policy-making, decision-making, use of time, establishment of priorities, delegation and coordination are dealt with under pressure and in a short space of time. At the same time, the trainees are made aware of where time is wasted, they learn about themselves and their behaviour. In this way, i.e. through self-realisation, , the trainee is motivated to improve himself.[183] This method of training is especially suitable for training middle-level and top-level public administrators.

3.3.5.4   *Demonstrations*

A demonstration does what the term means, *viz.* to show some-one how to do something. A demonstration could be combined with a lecture, because it primarily teaches know-how. Therefore, the principles and theory of any subject have to be taught by some other method.[184]

3.3.5.5   *Games*

Games are built on models representing the complex interactions of all factors influencing, for example, municipal administration. The models are formed into equations which in turn are used by the instructor to evaluate the outcome of, for example, student decisions.[185] Decisions are then fed into the model and the resultant feedback is used as the basis for another series of decisions. Through this interactive process the trainees develop a feel for the realities of business and are able to increase the effectiveness of their decisions. Games allow for quick trial-and-error learning in a low risk environment.[186]

3.3.5.6   *Buzz groups*[187]

The intention of buzz groups and activities are to study, analyse, discuss and solve problems and wishes to provide the trainees with experiential learning. As an informal training method, buzz groups wish to develop a variety of approaches to solving a problem. Trainees are given the problem and requested to present ideas in search for solutions. No discussion of ideas takes place at this stage, but after the time lapse, further expansion of ideas and opinions may take place, though no new ideas may be added.

3.3.5.7   *Incident process*[188]

The incident process method is a variant of traditional case-studies. The instructor gives the class a *bare-bone* description of a critical incident from a case-study. Questions are then invited from the trainees, who seek

more information as they proceed in finding a solution to the problem.
The instructor does not expand on information, he merely provides answers
to the direct questions put to him. The incident process sets out to
achieve the objectives, *viz.* to teach management concepts and contingent
principles and to teach problem-analysis and problem-solving skills.[189]

3.3.5.8   *Reading*

As a training method, reading could be used supplementary to any of the
above-mentioned training methods.[190]   Reading is regarded an indispensable
method to increase *knowledge,* improve *skills* and to change *attitudes* and,
therefore, it is seen as a way of learning, changing and *developing.*[191]
Whether reading is assigned or not, the importance thereof can never be
overemphasised. Assigned reading could include all instructional and
policy documents, handbooks, procedure manuals or institutional bulletins
and newsletters.[192]   Reading could also be regarded as a preamble to
training, thereby strengthening the background and general knowledge of
the trainee.[193]

In addition to these training methods, other methods have been labelled
development methods and will be reviewed briefly, here under.

3.3.5   *DEVELOPMENT METHODS*

Rhea and Bruskotter[194]   regard development methods as the

> *"instructional process that utilizes a systematic
> and organized procedure by which managerial
> personnel learn abstract concepts and theoretical
> knowledge for long-run general educational purposes".*

Whilst the arena of training and development of municipal personnel does not expliticly differentiate between training and development methods and also because the discussed training methods all contain elements of eventual development, the differentiation may be regarded as purely academic. It, nevertheless, for purposes of this thesis is necessary to highlight these methods in view of the fact that its primary objective is development and preparation of the employee for a more responsible position.

3.3.6.1   *Understudies*

An understudy, according to Sikula, is a person *"prepared to perform the work or fill the position of another".*[195] This preparedness, whilst normally meaning *willing* to do it, implies a *readiness* brought about through experience and maturity. The intention of an understudy is not only a manpower planning one, *viz.* that a fully qualified person will be available to take over, but it also provides the lesser qualified person with an opportunity to develop. In municipal administration, practical application of the understudy concept finds expression in the appointment of assistant or deputy town clerks or treasurers.

As the understudy is an in-service, [196] on-the-job training method the trainee frequently has to supervise a committee or task force in order to experiment and to establish a certain leadership style and philosophy.[197] The understudy is delegated specific assignments and duties in an effort to accustom him with the responsibilities and expectations of the higher position. Delegation should therefore be of a high degree as it serves as a developmental tool.[198] Whilst the understudy method could lead to in-breeding and favouritism, it has the advantage of allowing long-term

manpower planning on a systematic and coordinated basis.[199]

3.3.6.2   *Job rotation*

The idea behind job rotation is to allow the trainee experience in all spheres of activity, in that it allows him to gain conceptual experience by seeing the total institution, its personnel procedures, roles and policies at work.[200]

Being a job experience technique, which could be formal or informal, it assigns the trainee to selected (higher) positions for a period of time. The trainee then carries full responsibility for all the functions pertaining to that one position. In this way, the trainee can exhibit his abilities and shortcomings and top management gets the opportunity to determine training and development needs. Whilst this method sets out to, *inter alia*, broaden experience, promote co-operation and to indicate and stimulate new ways of doing a job, it also is an inexpensive way of detecting incorrigible behaviour patterns.[201]

Development methods also include methods such as coaching-counselling and sensitivity training. Coaching is a procedure by which a superior teaches job knowledge and skills to a subordinate, whilst counselling involves a discussion between an official and an organisational superior on matters pertaining to, *inter alia*, the former's personal hopes, fears, emotions and aspirations.[202] Sensitivity training, whilst there is no academic/theoretical consensus on what it actually means, could, on a very general basis, be regarded as a phrase, descriptive

of any training or development technique that attempts to increase or improve human sensitivity and awareness.[203]

The two methods discussed, *viz.* understudy and job rotation, are apparently the two explicit development methods applied in South African municipalities.[204] From research done amongst 45 municipalities, it was found that only 12 have a explicit training policy. Most councils do, however, support the training drive, but cite lack of funds and expertise as the main reasons for the absence of such an explicit policy. It was, furthermore, evident that those who do actively engaged in training concentrate primarily on management training in the form of productivity courses, labour relations courses and management communication, - motivation, - functions and principles, - problem-solving and - teamwork courses which vary from a few weeks to hour-long discussions. There is no parity though, with regard to the type of management and other training courses followed. Some municipalities such as Newcastle and East London have a preference for commercially designed and marketed courses such as the Louis Allen Managerial courses, whilst municipalities such as Port Elizabeth and Johannesburg prefer to devise its own training material.[205]

Many of the training and development methods discussed, are trial-and-error processes, but, trial and error have meaning only once the incorrected is corrected.[206] Good training methods provide some kind of feedback that allows for the assessment of performance and in that way stimulates the trainee.[207] Irrespective of the method applied, the ultimate objective should remain one of improving the competency of the trainee by training him at the hand of a method that best suits his individual ability to learn.

4.   *TRAINING AIDS*[208]

The best devised training and development methods will not generate the

expected results in the absence of befitting training aids. In other

words, a well prepared lecture would not have the desired effect if offered

in a dark, stuffy room, as opposed to it being delivered in an acoustic-

controlled, lighted and ventilated room. Training aids could, therefore,

be regarded as the back-up system of training methods.

Petasis prefer to choose and evaluate the applicability of training aids

on grounds of the *"impact they have on the various senses"*.[209] This

implies that the eyes and ears play an important role in the reinforcement

of the training process. Although many kinds of aids are available, it is not

necessary to have them all. What is important though, is that the training

aids required by the training methods to be used, are available in a

working order and accessible to all trainees. The adopted training methods

vary in accordance with the desired type of training.[210]

Added to this, one should remember that the physical atmosphere and

environment in which training is to be conducted *"will have a strong

impact on the learning that occurs and, hence, its overall success"*.[211]

As this thesis cannot provide for the invidual aid requirements of each of

the multiplicity of training methods, the review will be restricted to

those aids most frequently required and suitable under most circumstances.

The location, setting and layout of the training area, whether a hall,

classroom or workship, should be conveniently placed for the majority of trainees. This is so, mainly, because the cost of travelling could not be met by the trainees and, secondly because the idea is to get down to business as quickly as possible.[212] These provisions are essentially important when off-the-job training sessions are applied as some trainees may use the slightest inconvenience to withdraw from the training session. Once the locality has been determined, the actual place in which training will take place has to be prepared. Such an area should be clean, free of noise, distractions and irritations, and should be light, comfortable and conducive to learning.[213] Its proximity to toilets, rest rooms, canteens and recreational facilities is also important. After the training venue as been prepared and furnished with the required tables, chairs, aircondi= tioning and stationary, the actual training aids should be added. These aids as classified in table 2, include chalkboards, flannel boards, models, audiovisual equipment such as dia-graphs, opague - and overhead projectors, slides, films exhibits, tape recorders and a public address system.[214]

Audio

Tape recorder
Radio
Record player
Cassette
Dictaphone
Microphone
Public address system
Recorder

Manufacturing

Electron machines
Transparency makers
Visual makers
Laminators
Printing machines
Photostat machines
Guillotines

Visual

Projector
Slides
Flannel Board
Epidiascope
Episcope
Dia-scope
Overhead projector
Chalk board
Magnetic board
Flip chart
Charts
Computer
Video

Furniture

Lecterns
Tables
Chairs
Desks

Table 2. *PETASIS'S CLASSIFICATION OF TRAINING AIDS*

A review of the training aids available to South African municipalities, indicate that in the majority of cases, separate physical training facilities exist, either by way of a specially built complex or a room in the municipal complex reserved for training only.[215]   In addition, the larger municipalities, such as Port Elizabeth, Durban and Johannesburg have video equipment, computers, recorder and editing facilities and are in a position to produce permanent training films and videos.[216]

Whilst all the municipalities actively involved in training have at least the bare essentials, such as the venues, tables and overhead projectors, the tendency does exist to send municipal officials to the closest large city to join in their training sessions. The smaller municipalities in all four provinces may send officials to cities like Pretoria, Johannesburg, Rustenburg, Bloemfontein, Kroonstad, Port Elizabeth, Durban, Pietermaritzburg and Cape Town to attend courses, though these courses need not specially be designed to meet the individual or collective needs of each small town.[217]

For purposes of this study, the training budget of   local authorities is regarded as an aid in the provision of training. The reason being that

money is the point of departure in an effort to acquire other training

aids, be it trainers, equipment or facilites. Realising that, currently,

there are 540 local authorities and that with the formation of new local

authorities in a new dispensation for the different race groups the

creation of a further 380 can be expected, it is clear that sufficient

money is a must in the quest for trained personnel.[218]

The role of money as an aid in training is further highlighted by the

truism that a vast number of local authorities are not in a position to

embark on a training project as they have no money to budget therefor.[219]

One has to realise that the ability to budget for training is determined

primarily by the surplus (*sic*) on the budget after provision has been made

for the rendering of essential goods and services, such as water, electricity,

waste removal and clinics. Having regard to the fact that of the existing

540 local authorities, 146 have a population of between 50 and 1000, and

161 have a population of less than 500, it is clear that there is barely

enough funds to render essential services, let alone providing training

programmes.[220] It is essentially in the light of this reality on the one

hand, and the dire need for training on the other hand, that caused the

Government to provide R250 000,00 in the 1985/86 financial year for the

launching of the statutory *Local Government Training Fund*.[221] By this

action it intends enabling all local authorities to acquire the basic

training aids and facilities. Despite this stimulus, training remains

an expensive function. For example during the 1984/85 financial year the

Port Elizabeth City Council spent no less than R243 730,00 on training.[222]

From the above exposition it is clear that sufficient funds forms the pivot

of a municipality's ability to provide training. The very existence of training methods is directly linked to the availability of funds. One could always make do with a smaller room, less lighting, modest equipment and outdated photocopiers, but should funds be unavailable to provide even these bare essentials, the municipality has no hope to provide even basic training programmes.

5.   *SUMMARY*

In the light of the new constitutional dispensation and the resultant devolution of power to local authorities, substantial pressure is exerted on these authorities to cope with the expected developments. To cope in this sense, does not only mean the ability to work harder and produce more, but it also requires a mental readjustment of attitudes and feelings. This 'ideal' situation could only be brought about through the meticulous application of training and development methods. Through these methods, it will be endeavoured to provide municipal officials with the skill and competency required to meet constitutional - and socio-economic demands.

Whether methods such as lectures, conferences, programmed-instruction and in-basket techniques are used individually or in combination, the objective should still be to extend the level of knowledge of the official. Training and development methods should further be selected on the basis of suitability for the explicit environment and circumstances of the individual municipality. Whilst in-service training programmes are

directed at employed individuals and is a visible investment in long-term service, pre-entry programmes provide the municipality with the opportunity to appoint outsiders with new ideas.

Although training and development programmes are introduced with the objective of improving competency needs, it should not be regarded as the panacea in preparing municipal officials to give their utmost. The success of training and development methods will, however, be witnessed in the evaluation process of personnel and also in determining to what extent stated training needs were solved by the application of these training programmes. Training and development remain important activities and municipal councils should ensure that these activities are carried out on a proper basis by providing the needed funds and concomitant facilities.

REFERENCES AND FOOTNOTES

1. Here reference is made to planned, organised training whether
    formal or informal and does not provide for incidental training.

2. Poppleton, J.: "Training for local government: A priority",
    Municipal Administration and Engineering, vol. 42, no. 488, April
    1976, p. 45.

3. See appendix 2.

4. Republic of South Africa; Department of Constitutional Development
    and Planning: Second and third tier reform in South Africa, notes
    to the Press, May 1985.

5. Hereinafter referred to as Training Board and Training Fund.
    Supra., p. 126.

6. Interview with Dr C. Thornhill, Director: Division of Constitution
    Planning in the Department of Constitutional Development and
    Planning on Thursday, 14 August 1985.

7. For this reason, the introduction of regional services councils
    have been envisaged. See also Regional Services Councils Act,
    1985 (Act 109 of 1985). As the scope and duties of this Board
    fall outside the ambit of this thesis. However, these Councils
    are in no way involved in training and development of personnel,
    but is purely involved in the organisation of the rendering of
    functional services to individual municipalities at a more
    cost-beneficial rate.

8. Hornby, A.S.: Oxford advanced learner's dictionary of current English,
    new edition (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1979).

9. Taylor, B. & G.L. Lippit (ed.): Management training and development
    handbook (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975), p. ix.

10. Ibid.,

11. Supra., p. 130.

12. See also Stahl, O.G.: Public personnel administration, seventh
    edition (New York: Harper & Row, 1976), p. 482.

13. As these matters fall outside the scope of this thesis, it is for
    purposes of this study, accepted as given and, therefore, this study
    busies itself only with training and development of personnel with
    regards to personnel matters.

14. Discussions with a number of town clerks at a symposium on the
    orientation of municipal councillors and leading municipal officials
    in a new dispensation for local government held at the University of
    Durban-Westville on 9 - 11 April 1985.

15. <u>Ibid</u>.

16. See also Letter received from the Municipality of Rustenburg, ref. 5/5/3 dated 23 July, 1985. The period of return service varies from municipality to municipality and is also influenced by the amount of money involved.

17. Coetzee, W.A.J.: "Personnel provisioning and utilisation at local government level in Natal: White, Indian, Coloured and Black towns and cities", Coetzee, W.A.J. (ed.): <u>Pertinent issues of local government and administration in Natal</u> (Durban: University of Durban-Westville, 1983), p. 112.

18. <u>Ibid</u>. The only provision being that training courses should be in line with what is required by the eventual employer, be it State or private enterprise.

19. Cloete, J.J.N.: <u>Swart Afrika: Politieke en administratiewe tendense</u> (Pretoria: Africa Institute, 1975), p. 15.

20. Positions where professional institutes legally, prescribe specific rules and regulations.

21. Conclusion arrived at after a round tour of some 45 municipalities in South Africa.

22. See also Coetzee, W.A.J.: <u>op. cit</u>., pp. 110 - 113. <u>Supra</u>., p. 142.

23. See also Fougere, L.: <u>Civil service systems: Texts and essays</u> (Unesco, 1967), p. 212 and Cloete, J.J.N.: <u>Personnel administration</u> (Pretoria: Van Schaik, 1985), pp. 159 - 160. <u>Supra</u>., p. 142.

24. <u>Supra</u>., p. 61.

25. Yoder, D. <u>et al</u>.: <u>Handbook on personnel management and labor relations</u> (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1958), p. 8.2.

26. Also referred to as induction - the process whereby a newcomer is accepted and introduced in the institution. See also Yoder, D. <u>et al</u>.: <u>op. cit</u>., p. 8.55.

27. Wanous, J.P.: <u>Organisational entry</u> (Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1980), p. 167.

28. <u>Ibid</u>., p. 168.

29. These steps include, <u>inter alia</u>, training and development, preparation for promotion.

30. See also Milkovich, G.T. & W.F. Glueck: <u>Personnel/Human resource management: A diagnostic approach</u>, fourth edition (Plano: Business Publications, 1985), pp. 347 - 348. Milkovich and Glueck regard induction to be so important that they distinguish between orientation, training and development.

31.   Cloete, J.J.N.: Personnel ..., op. cit., p. 161.

32.   Rabey, G.P.: Training, third edition (New Zealand: Paige
       Productions, 1981), p. 31.

33.   Fougere, L.: op. cit., p. 248.

34.   See also Strauss, G. & L.R. Sayles: Personnel: The human problems
       of management, second edition (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1967),
       p. 202.

35.   See also Cloete, J.J.N.: Introduction to public administration,
       second edition (Pretoria: Van Schaik, 1984), p. 149.

36.   See also Strauss, G. & L.R. Sayles: op. cit., p. 203.

37.   The arrival of a newcomer is often seen as competition and potential
       rivalry for jobs, especially amongst less qualified and less
       secured staff members. See also Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro:
       Modern public administration, fourth edition (New York: Harper &
       Row, 1977), chapter 18 and Schneier, C.E. & R.W. Beatty: Personnel
       administration today: Readings and commentary (Massachusetts:
       Addison-Wesley, 1978), p. 542.

38.   See also Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., chapter 11.

39.   See also Yoder, D. et al.: op. cit., p. 8.56.

40.   Adu, A.L.: The civil service in new African states (London: George
       Allen & Unwin, 1965), p. 97.

41.   Yoder, D. et al.: op. cit., p. 8.55.

42.   Rabie, A.: Steps for the improvement of manpower utilisation in the
       Transkeian government service, unpublished M.A.-dissertation
       (Port Elizabeth: University of Port Elizabeth, 1981), p. 118.

43.   See also Cloete, J.J.N.: Personnel ..., op. cit., p. 143.

44.   Infra., p. 199.

45.   See also Milkovich, G.T. & W.F. Glueck: op. cit., p. 333.

46.   Infra., p. 98.

47.   Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 242.

48.   Republic of South Africa; Council for the Co-ordination of Local
       Government Affairs: Report and recommendations of the committee of
       enquiry into personnel for local authorities, no. 5, March 1984.
       p. 13.

49.   See also Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 232 and Coetzee, W.A.J.: op. cit.,
       passim.

50. For an exposition of these methods, see also Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): Training and development handbook (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), passim and Watson, C.E.: Management development through training (Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1979), passim.

51. Rabey, G.P.: op. cit., p. 31. Infra., p. 174.

52. Petasis, A.: Practical training methods for Southern Africa (Salisbury: Rhodesian Institute of Management, 1979), p. 35.

53. Milkovich, G.T. & W.F. Glueck: op. cit., p. 344.

54. Campbell, J.P. et al.: Managerial behaviour, performance and effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970), pp. 235 - 247.

55. Beach, D.S.: Personnel: The management of people at work, fourth edition (New York: Macmillan Company, 1980), p. 266. Infra., p. 174.

56. Sikula, A.F.: Personnel administration and human resources management (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1976), p. 251.

57. Siegel, G.B. & R.C. Myrtle: Public personnel administration: Concepts and practices (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1985), p. 353.

58. In stead of regarding learning as the transmission of information as explained in chapter IV, these current methods emphasise the active involvement of the learner in the education process.

59. Siegel, G.B. & R.C. Myrtle: op. cit., pp. 354 - 355; Watson, C.E.: op. cit., chapter 5; Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): passim. See appendix 5 for a visual presentation of training and development methods and its relevance to behavioural and learning outcomes.

60. Letters received from a number of municipalities: Krugersdorp ref. BD/4/8 dated 15 August 1985; Bloemfontein ref. 6/5/1/1 dated 30 July 1985; Krugersdorp ref. BD5/16 dated 12 July 1985; and the Annual report of the City of Johannesburg, 1984.

61. Infra., p. 191. Supra., p. 173.

62. Supra., p. 172.

63. Interview with Mr Breytenbach, Town Clerk of Bergville on 23 April 1985. In the area of Tugela Basin Development Association could lend a helping hand or else it is hoped that the envisaged Regional Services Council will attend to the matter.

64. Supra., p. 98.
    See also Milkovich, G.T.& W.F. Glueck: op. cit., p. 228. During informal discussions on 9 April 1985, this view was explicitly expressed by the Town Clerks of Durban, Pietermaritzburg, Newcastle and a former mayor of Westville.

65. Milkovich, G.T. & W.F. Glueck; op. cit., p. 341.

66. See also Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 35.

67. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 366.

65. Milkovich, G.T. & W.F. Glueck: op. cit., p. 341.

66. See also Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 35.

67. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 366.

68. Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 35.

69. Discussion with various town clerks verified this contention.

70. Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 243.

71. Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 35.

72. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 367.

73. Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 35.

74. Infra., p. 180.

75. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 367.

76. Interview with Mr L. de Wet, Town Clerk of Newcastle on Thursday, 5 September 1985.

77. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 114.
    Infra.. p. 181.

78. Infra., p. 180.

79. Milkovich, G.R. & W.F. Glueck: op. cit., p. 342.
    See also appendix 6.

80. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 401.

81. This does not imply that the trainee necessarily leaves the institution, although off-the-job training may be offered externally, in other words, away from the physical environment of the total institution.

82. Milkovich, G.R. & W.F. Glueck: op. cit., p. 341.

83. See also Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., pp. 401 - 402.

84. Apprenticeships are prescribed essentially in those positions where the field is extensive in both theoretical and practical application - see also Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: The new public personnel administration, second edition (Illinois: F.E. Peacock Publishers, 1981), pp. 375 - 378.

85. Hornby, A.S.: op. cit., p. 973.

86. Hayward, A.L. & J.J. Sparkes: The concise English dictionary (London: Omega Books, 1982), p. 1248.

87.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 244.

88.   Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 35. A simulation is a situation or
       event that appears to be real, but is, in fact, an imitation of
       reality.

89.   Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 367.

90.   Supra., p. 178.

91.   Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 368.

92.   Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 35.

93.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit ., p. 244.

94.   Supra., p. 177.

95.   Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 367.

96.   Supra., p. 177.

97.   Beach D.S.: op. cit., p. 368.

98.   See also Sikula, A.F.: p. 244; Milkovich, G.T. & G.F. Glueck:
       op. cit., p. 343; Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 368.

99.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 247.

100.   Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 368.

101.   Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 36.

102.   Letter received from the Personnel Board of the City of Johannesburg,
       ref. 12/5/1 dated 2 August, 1985 and letter received from the
       City of Port Elizabeth, ref. JP/RR/GS dated 29 July 1985.

103.   Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 247.

104.   Conclusion arrived at after research done at 22 municipalities
       actively involved in training.

105.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 247.

106.   Own experience as lecturer.

107.   See also Bligh, D.A.: What's the use of lectures? (Exeter:
       D.A. & B. Bligh, 1978), passim.

108.   Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 36.

109.   Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 157.

110.   See also Milkovich, G.T. & W.F. Glueck: op. cit., p. 346.

111. See also Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., op. 247,
      Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 156; Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 368.

112. Supra., p. 118.

113. Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: op. cit., p. 369; Watson, C.E.: op. cit.,
      p. 156.

114. See also Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: op. cit., pp. 368 - 369;
      Bligh, D.A.: op. cit., 122 - 133.

115. Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 247.

116. Ibid., p. 248.

117. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 368.

118. Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: op. cit., p. 369.

119. Ibid.

120. Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 156.

121. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 144.

122. Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: op. cit., p. 370.

123. Bligh, D.A.: op. cit., p. 80.

124. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 143.

125. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 368.

126. Also called the round-table discussions as participants sit
      around a round table facing each other.

127. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 155.

128. Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 248.

129. Beach D.S.: op. cit., p. 368.

130. Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 248.

131. Also called guided or instructional conferencing.

132. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 369. The problem-solving conference
      is frequently used by all types of institutions and businessmen
      to try and solve problems.

133. Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 161.

134. Ibid. See also Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit.,
      chapter 9.

135. Ibid., p. 159.

136.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 248.

137.   Watson, C.E. op. cit., p. 137;   Petersen, R.B. & L. Tracy:
       Systematic management of human resources (Massachusetts:
       Addison-Wesley, 1979), p. 231.

138.   Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 369.

139.   Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 162.

140.   Craig. R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 159.

141.   Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 165.

142.   Ibid.

143.   This dinstinction is purely academic. See also Craig, R.L. & L.R.
       Bittel (ed.): op. cit., chapter 10.

144.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 249.

145.   Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 370.

146.   Ibid.

147.   Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 153.

148.   Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: op. cit., p. 371.

149.   Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 173.

150.   Interview with Mr L. de Wet, Town Clerk of Newcastle on Thursday,
       5 September 1985.

151.   Infra., p. 197.

152.   Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 183.

153.   Petersen, R.B. & L. Tracy: op. cit., p. 231.

154.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 248.

155.   Watson, C.E. op. cit., p. 173.

156.   See also ibid., p. 173 and Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 248.

157.   Role playing is defined as "a method of human interaction that
       involves realistic behavior in imaginary situations". Craig, R.L.
       & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 206.

158.   Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 370.

159.   See also Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., Chapter 10.

160.   Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 371.

161. Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 249.

162. Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 183.

163. Petersen, R.B. & L. Tracy: op. cit., p. 232.

164. Conclusion derived at after information on training methods have been obtained from 22 municipalities, representing cities such as Durban, Pietermaritzburg, Johannesburg, Port Elizabeth and Bloemfontein.

165. Supra., p. 174.

166. The larger municipalities such as Johannesburg and Cape Town are moving towards implementing these methods on a permanent basis, but it appears, as if, currently, it is only applied on an experi= mental basis for training select items and groups and not as a general training method.

167. Also called a teaching machine.

168. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 225.

169. Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 249.

170. See also Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 371.

171. Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 97.

172. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 227.

173. Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 249.

174. Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 95.

175. Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., pp 227 - 229.

176. Ibid., p. 228.

177. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 371.

178. Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 99.

179. See also Petasis, A.: op. cit., chapter 6.

180. Beach, D.S.: op. cit., p. 371.

181. Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 185.

182. Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 39.

183. Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 186.

184. Beach, D.S. op. cit., p. 372.

185. Computers programmed with equations could be used for this purpose.

186.   Petersen, R.B. & L. Tracy: op. cit., p. 231.

187.   Supra., p. 189.

188.   Supra., p. 189.

189.   Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 174.

190.   Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 243.

191.   See also Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., chapter 15.

192.   Stahl, O.G.: op. cit., p. 243.

193.   Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 30.

194.   Rhea, R.E. & J.R. Bruskotter: "Management development: Uniform
       opportunities in diversified operations", Personnel, vol. 46,
       no.3, 1969, pp. 48 - 55.

195.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 252.

196.   Supra., p. 171.

197.   Core, G.J.: "the management internship", Academy of Management
       Journal, vol. 11, no. 2, 1968, p. 164.

198.   Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 42.

199.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 253.

200.   Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 42.

201.   Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 388.

202.   Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 41. Note, any organisational supervisor
       and not necessarily the immediate supervisor.

203.   Sikula, A.F.: op. cit., p. 258. Sensitivity training generally,
       comprises of 3 types of activities, viz. T-grouping, exercises
       and theory sessions.

204.   Conclusion arrived at after obtaining training and development
       information from 22 municipalities.

205.   Information received from the municipalities of Krugersdorp ref.
       BD/4/8 dated 15 August 1985; Bloemfontein ref. 6/5/1/1 dated
       30 July 1985; East London ref. 6/3/15/8 dated 29 July 1985; and
       interview with Mr L. de Wet, Town Clerk of Newcastle on 5 September
       1985. Courses such as the Louis Allen Management Course is
       American based training modules teaching prescribed leadership styles
       and personality traits for dealing with specific problems, whether
       decision-making, organising, controlling, financing or staffing.

206.	Petersen, R.B. & L. Tracy: op. cit., p. 234.

207.	Ibid.

208.	Also known as equipment.

209.	Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 45.

210.	Craig, R.L. & L.R. Bittel (ed.): op. cit., p. 411.

211.	Watson, C.E.: op. cit., p. 131.

212.	Ibid.

213.	See also Nigro, F.A. & L.G. Nigro: op. cit., p. 378.

214.	Petasis, A.: op. cit., p. 52.

215.	Letter received from the Personnel Board of the City of Johannesburg ref. 12/5/1, dated 21 August 1985, indicating that special training facilities have been created at their Wemmer training complex, whilst Newcastle uses a separate room at the swimming pool complex.

216.	In this regard Durban has budgeted the amount of R5 000 for the 1984/85 financial year to spend on the acquisition of capital training assets only. Letter 1/6/1/1 dated 16 July 1985.

217.	Since 1981, Durban has trained 200 personnel of smaller municipalities in specific programmes.

218.	Supra., p. 125.
	De Wet, L.: Productivity in local government, Paper read at a conference on productivity of the National Productivity Institute, held in Durban on 6 September 1985.

219.	Ladysmith (Natal) could only afford to budget R3 000 for training in the 1984/85 financial year in a total budget of R20 million, whilst Colenso had no funds available for training in a R1,3 million budget.

220.	De Wet, L.: op. cit., p. 8.

221.	Supra., p. 127.

222.	Letter received from the Municipality of Port Elizabeth ref JP/RR/GS, dated 29 July 1985. See also Coetzee, W.A.J.: op. cit., p. 110.

CHAPTER VII

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1.   *General conclusions*

The purpose of this study was to investigate what is being done to

improve the training and development of municipal personnel in South

Africa.   In the wake of the many approaches to this issue, the approach

followed in this thesis was to examine the training needs prevailing

in all the categories of municipal positions and to highlight the most

suitable training methods for specific local government circumstances.

Furthermore, to this end, an enquiry was undertaken into the underlying

needs for and objectives of training; what is being done to train and

develop available municipal personnel and how, through the careful

selection of the most suitable training and development methods, even those

municipalities lacking funds to appoint a training specialist can also

actively become involved in training and development programmes.

Public administration has as basic objective the improvement of the

general well-being of the total citizenry. As public administration

refers to the specific type of administration performed in government

oriented institutions, it differs, in application and interpretation

from the type of administration applied in private enterprises.

Therefore, *in Chapter II the composition of public administration and*

its distinctive environment are explained. To the layman public

administration becomes a reality in the form of a related, specialist

field of activity, *viz.* municipal administration. Municipal

administration is the closest form of contact between, on the one hand

the citizen and on the other hand, the policies, structures and procedures

of local government and administration. Municipal administration

originated primarily from the search for protection and friendship that,

for example, since 1652 caused people in South Africa to live in close

proximity to one another. As the years went by, the promise of employment,

improved facilities and opportunities became the obvious reasons why

municipalities were established. Whilst trying to make a living and

improving their well-being, the inhabitants became increasingly aware

of the necessity to determine a framework and guide-lines for action

in order to obtain the services of a group of people to render goods and

services on their behalf.

In order to reconcile the potential of manpower with the expectations

of municipal government and administration, it is necessary to know how

the existance of and the need for personnel administration fit into the

spectrum of municipal administration. Consequently, *an analysis of the*

distinctive area of personnel administration as a specialised field

of study, the interdependence of the study area and the subject as a

whole, is portrayed in Chapter III. It was further explained that as

a sub-governmental institution, the nature and extent of autonomy of

local authorities over personnel matters, are in identified instances,

restricted by acts of Parliament and provincial ordinances. The eventual

continued survival and viability of the municipality are dependent on the

extent to which the career -, financial - and other needs of officials

are met. Therefore, a position structure and compensation policy should

be determined, which, simultaneously would draw the interest of the best qualified personnel and create an acceptable image of municipal positions and promotion potential. In order to have easy access to manpower potential in terms of appointments and promotions, the maintenance of personnel records should receive high priority. Records should be kept in an office accessible to the officer responsible for the safe keeping thereof. Specific attention was also given to the means used to recruit personnel whose physical and mental abilities suit the position best. Research indicated that as a result of financial restrictions, some smaller municipalities lack recruitment and selection policies and procedures. It appeared as though candidates were selected and appointed on a *first come first serve* basis, without checking whether appointment requirements for a specific position were met. This situation is further aggravated by the fact that as municipalities sometimes fail in promoting career prospects they have to do with who ever is prepared to accept a mediocre remuneration.

The discussion of the personnel functions continues in Chapter IV where specific attention is paid to the theories and principles underlying training and development of municipal officials and employees. In this chapter training is regarded as the generic factor that enables people to initiate, adapt to and accept changes in the environment in which they live and work. Training is also regarded as being job-directed and is an extention of a process, called education, which starts at infancy and continues *ad infinitum*. The realisation that education is an ongoing, life-long process replaces the contention that education is restricted to formalised instruction

sessions in school-like environments. Education is recognised as the *preparation-for-life* process, whilst training is regarded to be the *preparation-for-work* process. Generic in both and a prerequisite for effective education and training is an intellectual ability, *viz.* learning. It was found that should there be no will to learn, learning could, in effect, not take place. It is essentially the responsibility of the education - and training instructors to provide an atmosphere *conducive* to learning and one which is laden with the correct principles and approaches required by the learning process. Research has shown that whilst the academic distinction between education and training was not always fully understood, the presence of the will to learn was accepted as the principle prerequisite for effective and efficient training of personnel. Development is the outcome of both education and training and refers to the ability to deal with the vicissitudes of life in a mature and controlled manner. Whereas promotion and career expansion are specifically linked to the maturity of the individual, education and training should be regarded as the prerequisite stimuli for development.

Municipal personnel should not view their employment as *just another job.* Manning a municipal office could be regarded as a noble task and all endeavour should be made to promote the well-being of the total population. The extent to which this ideal could be realised, depends on the extent to which municipal officials *is* trained to do their job. *The need for and objectives of training are determined in Chapter V.* The necessity of bringing training within the reach of the total community is evident from the *National Training Policy* and is manifested on the local level in the *Training Board for Local Government Bodies.* South Africa, being in the fortunate position to have a large number of

universities, technikons and other educational institutions in municipal areas, should do much more to utilise the inestimable source of knowledge provided by these institutions towards expanding the knowledge of municipal personnel. Although it was found that the University of South Africa and the Technikon RSA offer municipal designed correspondence courses, thereby bringing training within the reach of everybody, these training programmes could be marketed more forcefully.

The provision of educational and training opportunities should motivate municipal personnel to work in the common interest of the citizenry. Therefore, positive steps should be taken to direct the activities of municipal personnel in a predetermined direction. *In Chapter VI a discussion is held on the availability and utilisation of training and development facilities.* In discussing the selection and application of training and development facilities, it is important to know what kind of training is involved. Distinction is made between induction -, pre-entry - and post-entry training. Entering a new job environment could be a nerve-racking experience and, therefore, pains should be taken in introducing the newcomer to his job, colleagues and supervisors. It appears as if this area ranks low on the list of priorities at the initial appointment stage. The majority of large municipalities regarded one or two lectures and a short tour of the municipal building as ample measures for the introduction of the newcomer to his new job, whilst the smaller municipalities regard an informal discussion over tea as sufficient. Induction training is a prerequisite for eventual maintenance of a well-trained personnel force, irrespective of whether they have received formalised pre-entry training or whether they will be subjected to post-entry training at a future date.

Research has indicated that post-entry training dominates the arena of municipal training, as pre-entry training is restricted primarily to and required for those positions legally committed thereto. Though post-entry training is divisible into on-the-job and off-the-job categories, it was found that with the exception of some categories of technical positions, the majority of training takes place on the job. In addition, allowing an official to attend a training session off-the-job, should be done on a cost-benefit basis. It was found that some courses are attended just because the socialising was inviting or it was a *few days away from home.* Furthermore, a selection was made of the commonly applied methods of training, such as lectures, conferences, case studies and the major advantages and disadvantages of each are highlighted. Through research it appeared as if those responsible for training tend to describe these methods as soft-options and the easiest to apply. For this reason a number of seemingly unfamiliar methods are also introduced, such as incident process, in-basket techniques and buzz-groups. Care should be taken that the selection of a training method is not influenced by its being familiar or cheap against less known methods that are equally cheap and possibly more effective in its long-term results. It was, furthermore, realised that hardly any municipality made a definite distinction between training methods and development methods. Whilst the eventual result of training, irrespective of the method, does have development qualities, there are circumstances where the need is explicitly for development methods to be applied. The selection, application and evaluation of a training and/or development method and its results should be viewed in the light of the expressed training and development objectives of any particular municipality. Adherence to this principle

is imperative and stems from the tendency of smaller municipalities to follow training examples set by larger - or neighbouring municipalities, thereby totally disregarding the peculiarities of own personnel abilities, financial stringencies and community needs.

2.   Recommendations

During the past three years, development in the field of training and development of municipal personnel has taken place at an exceptionally fast pace. Although the Central Government has committed itself to the extensive task of training and development of local government personnel by providing a legal framework for such activities, this study reveals that much could also be done by individual local authorities and other public institutions, to improve the level of training and development of municipal personnel. Accordingly the following recommendations are made:

Recommendation one

As a first policy directive schools should, through public studies, introduce municipal and environmental programmes relating to, inter alia, development, assets and future needs of South Africa, and especially the National States.

It is necessary to realise that eventual happiness and success in life depend on the quality of upbringing since childhood. In developing countries such as South Africa and the National States, schools could, through public studies, introduce the country to the children in terms of, amongst other, development, assets and future needs. Whilst this is, to a limited extent, the case in South African schools, the programmes should specifically be extended to schools in the National States. Individual schools could also introduce the children to their specific municipal environment during a weekly *environmental period* presented to the school as a whole. Already at this stage, children should become aware of the importance of each individual's contribution to the growth and development of the country. After this foundation has been laid, children have to prepare themselves to do a job and earn a living. For those who would seek appointment in a central or local government institution, training in public/municipal administration and public affairs is imperative. The role of schools in preparing prospective public/ municipal officials and employees for public office should not be under= estimated.

Recommendation two

As a second policy directive steps should be taken by municipal authorities to introduce local government and administration theory and practice (not party politics) to the citizenry through the medium of brochures, public lectures and/or workshops.

The execution of municipal activities should not be seen as routine tasks which provide job opportunities to the unemployed. The dynamics

of municipal administration should be used in pursuit of civilization and, therefore, steps should be taken to introduce local government and administration theory and practice (not party politics) to the citizenry through the medium of brochures, public lectures and/or workshops.

Recommendation three

The organisational structure of especially the medium and large size municipalities should provide for a training division.

Training and development is such an indispensable component in ensuring a well-equipped municipal personnel force, that it cannot be dealt with on an *ad hoc* basis. To this end, it is necessary that training and development be dealt with in an independent manner by establishing a specific department for this purpose. If the training and development functions are regarded as part of an auxiliary department, no guarantees exist that it will be dealt with in a professional manner or that it will receive the priority rating that it requires. For this reason, especially the medium and large size municipalities should provide for an independent training division.

Recommendation four

A municipal training college or a school of municipal government and administration should be established in the Core City of each specified region demarcated in terms of the provisions of the Regional Services Councils Act, 1985 (Act 109 of 1985).

As an extention to an earlier recommendation and as expounded by earlier researchers, attention should be paid to the establishment of a municipal training college or a school of municipal government and administration. On completion of the prescribed courses, recognised diplomas or certificates should be issued. Although the *Local Government Training Act,* 1985 (Act 41 of 1985) provides for a *Local Training Board,* to co-ordinate anticipated future training and development requirements of local authorities, the provisions appear not to go far enough. This Act, when implemented fully, still does not force local authorities, and especially local personnel, to participate in training and development programmes. Whilst attendance of the college could cause practical problems, it is not altogether unfeasible should employees know it is a prerequisite for employment in the same way as doctors need a year internship before practicing medicine. Should attendance be impossible, correspondence courses, subject to attendance of prescribed short courses, could be offered. The fact remains that graduation form this municipal course should be imperative for career promotion, especially to senior positions.

Recommendation five

A think-tank consisting of academics, local civic leaders, leading State, regional and municipal officials, as well as other interested parties should be created in each Core City to determine and adapt training programmes for efficient and effective rendering of municipal services.

It is recommended that a think-tank consisting of academics, local civic leaders, leading State, regional and municipal officials, as well as other interested parties should be created in each Core City to determine and adapt training programmes for efficient and effective rendering of municipal services. At this juncture it could be stressed that the determination of training needs should be done in a scientific manner and properly trained instructors should determine the methods of training and development. Although cost is a factor, the cost of training should be weighed against the cost of the absence of training. Training for the sake of training should conversely be avoided at all costs as the end results would be window-dressing and not addressing the real training and development problems.

Recommendation six

Municipalities should devise a unique approach to training and development methods.

When municipalities decide on training and development methods, the approach should be irrespective of how the academic classification of training methods may differ or coincide with the training needs of individual municipalities. This is the only way to ensure reasonable return on costs spent on training and in this way it could also be ensured that the training policy at the same time becomes the *growth* policy of the municipality.

Recommendation seven

Training sessions should provide for the individual needs of the participants.

The new constitutional dispensation creates a whole new forum for inter-group relations and cultural awareness amongst races. Training sessions should take note of cultural and other differences of participants and be amended to cater therefor. However, under no circumstances should race groups be separated during training sessions for uniform positions as this could cause friction and frustration.

Recommendation eight

As a control measure an annual report should be published by the Local Training Board indicating the nature and extent of training individually and collectively undertaken by leading South African municipalities.

Training and development information should receive more attention in the annual reports of municipal councils. On scrutinising the available literature on current training and development activities, it became evident that in many local authorities these matters received the minimum of attention, if any. In the same vein it was found that in correspondence with and on visits to municipalities, some were very secretive, whilst others did not even bother to reply to requests. In order to provoke orderly future planning and to derive any benefit from academic research into training and development, information has to be freely available to researchers. It therefore, is recommended that as a control measure and in addition to the Parliamentary report issued by the *Local Training Board*, an annual publication be published on the nature and extent of training, individually and collectively, undertaken by leading South African municipalities.

Recommendation nine

Sufficient funds should be provided for the training task, the allocation of which should regularly be evaluated in terms of the attainment of set objectives.

Although the *Local Government Training Fund* will receive substantial amounts for the promotion of training activities on local level, individual municipalities still carry the basic responsibility for undertaking training programmes. For this reason, the annual estimates of income and expenditure of each and every municipality, irrespective of

size, should be revised and adapted regularly to provide for essential
increases.

Recommendation ten

*The Municipal Council should regularly revise the conditions
of service of personnel in the light of changes and offers
in the rest of the public sector, as well as the private
sector, in an effort to curb personnel losses.*

As personnel is one of the costliest items on the budget of any institution,
every step possible should be taken to retain it. In addition, a
substantial amount of money is annually spent on the training and
development of the personnel force. In the light of the ever-changing
socio-economic conditions in the country, people tend to sell their
skills to the highest bidder. For this reason, municipalities run the
risk of losing their trained personnel. The importance of the continual
revision of conditions of service of municipal personnel in order to
ensure that their remuneration package still meets the requirements
of time and place cannot be overemphasised.

Recommendation eleven

Specially designed and well-equipped technical training facilities should be provided at all the municipalities irrespective of size.

Although computer-assisted training will within a few years be the order of the day, nothing stops the smaller, less affluent local authorities from providing other basic training facilities such as overhead projectors and to utilise the advantages of other training methods, rather than to acquire expensive physical equipment. Municipalities should not be blinded by computers, and use the absence thereof as an excuse to refrain from training. Smaller municipalities have to accept that they cannot compare themselves with the larger municipalities and, therefore, they should try to make the best of what they have.

Recommendation twelve

Resources centres or reading rooms should be provided to put periodicals, journals and relevant newspaper articles at the disposal of all the municipal employees.

In this way information is within easy reach of the individual and no costs have to be incurred to extend one's knowledge. This recommendation has exceptional value in the light of continual community outcries for higher quality people to administer public affairs at the lowest possible cost.

Collectively, these recommendations should not be regarded as a panacea for solving the practical and other problems pertaining to the training and development of local government personnel. It, nevertheless, is hoped that the recommendations would cause some municipalities to enthusiastically embark on uniquely designed training programmes however small, thereby affording each member of staff to enjoy the benefits of training and development.

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State President
- Elected by electoral college
- Same term of office as Parliament
- Chairman of Cabinet
- Not member of any House

Cabinet
- Can be appointed by State President from all three groups
- Executive authority regarding general affairs

Ministers' Councils
- One for each group
- Members enjoy majority support in Houses
- Executive authority regarding own affairs

Electoral College
- 88 members:
  - 50 designated by House of Assembly
  - 25 by House of Representatives
  - 13 by House of Delegates
- Elects the State President

President's Council
- 60 members:
  - 20 designated by House of Assembly
  - 10 by House of Representatives
  - 5 by House of Delegates
  - 25 appointed by State President (of which 10 nominated by opposition parties in Houses)
- Advises State President on matters of public interest
- Ruling in case of disagreements among Houses

Parliament
- Consists of three Houses, each elected by the voters in the group concerned
- Five year term
- Legislative power regarding general affairs
- General affairs approved by each of the three Houses

House of Assembly
- 178 members
- Legislative power regarding own affairs

House of Representatives
- 85 members
- Legislative power regarding own affairs

House of Delegates
- 45 members
- Legislative power regarding own affairs

Joint Standing Committees
- Consist of members of all three Houses
- Promote consensus among Houses regarding general affairs

APPENDIX 2

PROPOSED STRUCTURES FOR LOCAL GOVERNMENT

GENERAL MATTERS

OWN MATTERS

CENTRAL LEVEL

MIDDLE LEVEL

LOCAL GOVERNMENT LEVEL

PARLIAMENT

OWN HOUSE

DEPARTMENT OF CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND PLANNING

ADMINISTRATION FOR OWN AFFAIRS

PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION

REGIONAL OFFICE FOR OWN AFFAIRS

REGIONAL SERVICES COUNCIL (RSC)

LOCAL AUTHORITIES

MANAGEMENT BODIES

REPRESENTATIVE BODIES

NVC's | FARMERS | FARM WORKERS

(Non-viable communities)

APPENDIX 3

CURRENT STRUCTURES FOR PROVINCIAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT
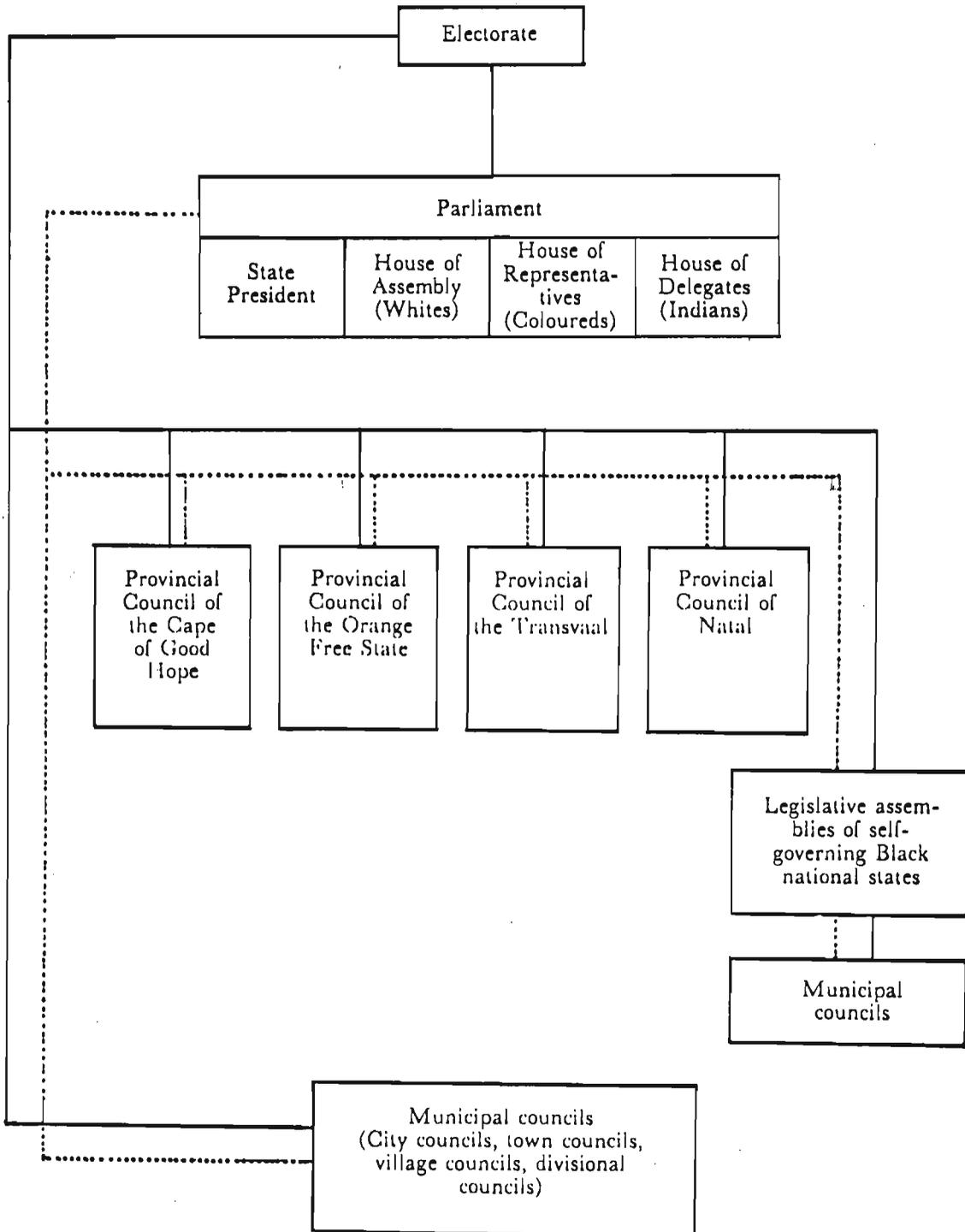
———— = Control with elections

...... = Legislation and other directives

PROPOSED STRUCTURES FOR PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

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                        ┌─────────────────┐
                    ┌─ ►│   PARLIAMENT    │
                    │   └─────────────────┘
                    │            │
                    │   ┌─────────────────┐
                    │   │ STATE PRESIDENT │
                    │   ├─────────────────┤
                    │◄─►│    CABINET      │
                    │   └─────────────────┘
    ACCOUNTABILITY  │            │
                    │            │
┌──────────────┐    │   ┌─────────────────────┐
│    OTHER     │    │   │ AFFECTED GENERAL    │        CO-ORDINATE
│   GENERAL    │    │   │   DEPARTMENTS       │──────► IMPLEMENTATION
│ DEPARTMENTS  │    │   └─────────────────────┘        OF NATIONAL POLICY
└──────────────┘    │            │
        │           │                                      ┌──────────┐
        │           │                                      │PROVINCIAL│
        ▼           │   ┌─────────────────┐                │ ADVISORY │
 IMPLEMENTATION     ├──►│  ADMINISTRATOR  │◄──ADVICE ──────│  BOARDS  │
 OF FUNCTIONS       │   ├─────────────────┤                └──────────┘
                    └──►│EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE│
                        └─────────────────┘
        │
        │                                     ┌──────────────┐
        ▼                                     │ DEPARTMENTAL │
┌──────────────┐                              │   REGIONAL   │
│ DEPARTMENTAL │                              │   OFFICES    │
│  REGIONAL    │                              └──────────────┘
│  OFFICES     │                                     │
└──────────────┘                                     │
                                                      │
 IMPLEMENTATION      ┌──────────────────────────┐   OWN AFFAIRS
 OF FUNCTIONS        │   PROVINCIAL SECRETARY    │   FUNCTIONS
 THROUGH             ├──────────────────────────┤   TRANSFERRED
 STATUTORY           │ PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION │──►TO OWN
 REGULATIONS         └──────────────────────────┘   ADMINISTRATIONS
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RSC's (Regional Services Councils)	RDAC's (Regional Development Advisory Committees)	HOSPITALS, CLINICS AND HEALTH SERVICES	CULTURE, MUSEUMS AND LIBRARY SERVICES	ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION AND NATURE CONSERVATION	TRAFFIC, ROADS AND TRANSPORT

POSSIBLE GENERAL FUNCTIONAL AREAS

Training and development methods : their relevance to selected behavioral and learning outcomes

	Performance Objectives					Learning Properties		
	New or Changed Job Assignments	Skill Development	Attitude Development	Knowledge Development	"Future" Development	Active Learner Involvement	Feedback on Results	Practice and Reinforcement
Informational strategies								
Conferences and discussions			X	X	X	X		
Correspondence courses	X	X				some	some	some
Lectures				X	X			
Organizational development			X		X	X	X	
Programmed instruction	X	X	X	X		X	X	X
Reading lists			X	X	X			
Sensitivity training								
Simulation methods								
Case studies	rare	rare	some	X	X	X	X	
In-basket exercises	rare	rare	X	X	X	X	X	some
Management games	rare	rare	X	X	X	X	X	X
Role plays	some	rare	X	X	X	X	X	X
Simulations	some	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
On-the-job methods								
Apprenticeships		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Committee assignments			X	X	X	X	some	
Internships			X	X	X	X	X	X
Job instruction	X	X	some	rare		X	some	X
Job rotation	X	X	some	some	some	X	some	X
Supervisory coaching/counseling	X	X	some	rare	some	X	X	some

Siegel, G.B. & R.C. Myrtle: Public personnel administration: Concepts and practices (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1985), p. 356.

APPENDIX 5

APPENDIX 6

Job Instruction Training (JIT) Methods

First, here's what you must do to get ready to teach a job:

1. Decide what the learner must be taught in order to do the job efficiently, safely, economically, and intelligently.
2. Have the right tools, equipment, supplies, and material ready.
3. Have the workplace properly arranged, just as the worker will be expected to keep it.

Then, you should instruct the learner by the following four basic steps:

Step I - Preparation (of the learner)

1. Put the learner at ease.
2. Find out what is already known about the job.
3. Get the learner interested and desirous of learning the job.

Step II - Presentation (of the operations and knowledge)

1. Tell, show, illustrate, and question in order to put over the new knowledge and operations.
2. Instruct slowly, clearly, completely, and patiently, one point at a time.
3. Check, question, and repeat.
4. Make sure the learner really knows.

Step III - Performance try-out

1. Test by having the learner perform the job.
2. Ask questions beginning with why, how, when or where.
3. Observe performance, correct errors, and repeat instructions if necessary.
4. Continue until you know the learner knows.

Step IV - Follow-up

1. Check frequently to be sure instructions are being followed.
2. Taper off extra supervision and close follow-up until the learner is qualified to work with normal supervision.

Remember - If the learner hasn't learned, the teacher hasn't taught.

Milkovich, G.T. & W. F. Glueck: Personnel / Human resources management: A diagnostic approach (Plano : Business Publications, 1985), p. 342.