THE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SCHEME (TDS) AS AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGY: A CASE STUDY APPROACH: THE CITY OF DURBAN

BY

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MINI - DISSERTATION

Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Magister in Public Administrationis in the Department of Public Administration in the Faculty of Commerce and Administration at the University of Durban-Westville.

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DEDICATED TO COLIN, JIRUSHLAN AND MOLLY

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November 1995

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that except as acknowledged previously, this research is entirely my own work, that all sources used or quoted have been acknowledged and that this mini-dissertation has not previously been submitted for a degree or diploma at another tertiary educational institution.

Nirmala Naicker

November 1995

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SYNOPSIS

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Every organisation needs to have well-trained and experienced people to perform the activities that have to be done. If current or potential job occupants can meet this requirement, training is not important. When this is not the case it is necessary to raise the skill levels and increase the versatility and adaptability of employees * (Robbins 1982: 198).

Organisations can only reap the benefits of effective training and development by determining their training needs at the organisational, individual and strategic levels.

While needs analysis determine the general need for and function of the training, the methods used will give the training and development programme its distinctive shape. The most popular training methods used by organisations can be classified as either on-the-job or off-the-job training.

^{*} Direct quotations are indented and darkened throughout the course of this research.

Training and development within the context of Affirmative Action must aim at creating equal employment opportunity and not as reverse discrimination. In order to overcome barriers to equal employment opportunity, organisations need to review their employment policies in terms of recruitment, selection and promotion, while restructuring of their training programmes is imperative to equip all employees with the requisite skills, knowledge and abilities.

In South Africa, the current composition of the public service is in no way a true reflection of that of the South African population (Wessels 1992: 49). There is a very low representation of Black people in middle and upper levels of management in Local government in South Africa. In addition, Black employees are moving very slowly up the ranks into those positions. The imbalance in the distribution of jobs will have to be dealt with through training and development programmes so that ultimately all will benefit from equal opportunity.

The Training and Development Scheme initiated by Dr Norman Levy of the Centre for Community and Labour Studies at the University of Durban-Westville addresses the issues pertaining to inequities in employment. It is an Affirmative Action based programme which primarily aims to increase the core of black professionals in Local and Provincial Government in the new climate of transition.

Through its placements of internal trainees (existing employees in Local and Provincial governments) and external trainees (graduates), mentorship programmes and development management training, the Training and Development Scheme aims to increase the pool of skills, knowledge and abilities among disadvantaged sections of the population.

There is a dire need for Affirmative Action programmes in South Africa. This study focuses on both the theoretical and practical aspects of training and development as a dimension of Affirmative Action.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the final analysis certain recommendations were made:

These include:

- Formal criteria for the recruitment of internal trainees should be instituted by the Durban City Council;
- Mentors and trainees should have regular meetings;
- The Steering Committee should be represented by all stakeholders;
- The facilitators of the mentoring programme should be involved in the selection and evaluation of mentors from the Durban City Council;
- A trainee mentor workshop should be held at the beginning of the Training and Development cycle;
- Provision for termination of contract;
- Mentors and lecturing staff should have regular workshops with a view to establishing a link between work experience and theory during the development management training course;
- Internal mentors should send reports on trainees to the Centre for Community and Labour Studies. Such reports should also be made available to trainees when requested;
- The Facilitation Committee should represent both internal and external trainees;

- Mentors should also be selected from other tertiary institutions which have graduate trainees on the Training and Development Scheme;
- A trainee orientation course on the functioning of the Durban City Council as a local authority should be organised for external trainees and mentors before the commencement of a Training and Development cycle;
- Internal mentors should receive renumeration for mentoring;
- The Training and Development Scheme should be continued not only in Kwazulu

 Natal, but also extended to local and provincial authorities and tertiary institutions
 in the other eight provinces;
- Affirmative Action should be legislated in South Africa.

CHAPTER 1

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND ORGANISING OF CHAPTERS

The trouble with the school of experience is that the course is so long that the graduates are too old to go to work.

Henry Ford (in Robbins 1982: 198)

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Training and development is an activity which has become necessary because of the dynamic nature of the environment in which organisations operate as well as the changes that occur in its human resources.

An organisation may also initiate training in order to add skills, abilities and knowledge to employees, which may be required as technology changes, job scope changes, as products or services the organisation offers changes or to achieve equity in employment practices. As Rabie (1987: 136) aptly states: The only ways in which human beings are able to keep pace with continual changes in life, are through development of their own minds 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.

Creating employment equity in organisations is one aspect of Affirmative Action.

Affirmative Action must be viewed as a means of overcoming barriers to equal employment opportunity rather than as a means of preferentially advancing the interests of some groups at the expense of others.

South Africa is presently highly pressurised in terms of changes in institutions and practices of government. As one of the largest employers, local authorities are a focal point of the need for change because Local government activities directly affect the lives of all the inhabitants. Furthermore, the labour profiles of local authorities in South Africa have been tarnished by the legend of apartheid. Such institutions of government have been characterised by a lack of equity and representativeness in employment practices.

Training and development as a strategy to address the inequities in the race and gender profile of the Durban City Council as a local authority has become imperative in the wake of democracy and representativeness under the new South African dispensation.

Effective training depends on the proper identification of training needs and it must be a continuous planned activity which is related to the corporate strategy. Within an Affirmative Action framework trainees need bridging training, mentorship training, skills and job competency training and awareness training aimed at changing the attitude of previously advantaged personnel (Schwella in Bayat and Meyer 1994: 276).

It is against this background that the study of the Training and Development Scheme as an Affirmative Action strategy has been undertaken.

1.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The broad research goal of this study was determined through the following objectives:

- (i) To understand and evaluate the concepts "training" and "development" in the public sector;
- (ii) To determine to what extent theory is integrated with training and work experience in the Training and Development Scheme;
- (iii) To determine the efficacy of administrative arrangements in the implementation of the Training and Development Scheme;
- (iv) To draw conclusions and make recommendations that may contribute to effective training and development for Affirmative Action.

The research intends to answer the following questions:

- (i) What criteria should be used to determine effective training and development in public institutions?
- (ii) What levels of needs analysis are required for training and development?
- (iii) What methods of training and development should be used to develop skills, knowledge and abilities?
- (iv) What principles should be applied in a training and development programme for Affirmative Action?

The research consists of the following:

Theory search and case analysis.

1.2.1 THEORY SEARCH AND CASE ANALYSIS

A literary study of available texts comprising relevant books, journals, dissertations, magazines, official publications, papers and reports that have a bearing on training and development and in particular on Affirmative Action were consulted to complete this study.

Personal visits were made to the Centre for Community and Labour Studies at the University of Durban-Westville as well as the Durban City Council.

1.3 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

The chapters in this study are organised as follows:

CHAPTER 1: DEMARCATION OF STUDY FIELD AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter demarcates the field of study and outlines the research methodology. It includes a formulation of research objectives and study goals, as well as an overview of the proposed study.

CHAPTER 2: NEED FOR AND BENEFITS OF EFFECTIVE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

The identification of training needs is an essential process since without it one really does not know what one is trying to achieve. Training plays a large part in determining the efficiency and effectiveness of an organisation.

This chapter focuses on the inter-relationship between training and development, the aims of training and development, levels of needs analysis and the benefits and guidelines for effective training and development.

CHAPTER 3: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT METHODS

Training and development methods are tools which the trainer uses in conducting training and development programmes. Methods should be suited to the subject of the training, the trainees, the capabilities of the trainer, and to other considerations such as time and budget. The trainer should have more than one tool in his kit, and be able to choose the appropriate one for the job at hand (Smith in Byers 1974: 155).

This chapter focuses on a wide variety of employee training and development methods, suggesting where and how they are best used, and to point out some advantages and limitations of each method.

CHAPTER 4: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT: AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

STRATEGY

According to Williams and Norris (in Wessels 1992: 46) Affirmative Action means taking positive steps to recruit, employ, and advance qualified members of historically disadvantaged groups. It does not, however, mean preferential

treatment, reverse discrimination, or use of a quota system unrelated to a person's

qualifications or job competence.

The inherent inequalities of South African society challenges the success of formal

and non-formal training institutions in their training programmes for equal

opportunities.

This chapter focuses on the objectives of an Affirmative Action strategy,

international models of Affirmative action, issues to be addressed by an Affirmative

Action programme, training to manage diversity, the role of tertiary institutions and

finally guidelines that would support the successful implementation of Affirmative

Action.

CHAPTER 5: DURBAN CITY COUNCIL

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

councillors, officials and employees to be informed, knowledgeable and competent

(Rabie 1987: 144). The extent to which this can be accomplished depends on the

extent to which officials are trained to do their jobs and trained to handle the

dynamic environment in which they operate.

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This chapter focuses on the Durban City Council. The chapter begins with a discussion of the reasons for the existence of local authorities and the process of Local government transition. Issues relating to the Durban City Council's organisational structure, Affirmative Action policy, internal labour market and training and development policy are also discussed.

CHAPTER 6: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SCHEME AS AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGY

The Training and Development scheme, an innovative Affirmative Action project, aims to develop a pool of employable Black trainees who have the potential to move into management in local and provincial authorities.

The Training and Development Scheme uses two tracks - the development of existing employees and the insertion of graduates into the Council service.

This chapter focuses on the planning, co-ordination, monitoring and evaluation of the Training and Development Scheme as an Affirmative Action programme.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 7 contains general conclusions and recommendations arising from the case study.

1.4 **DEFINITION AND TERMINOLOGY**

It is important for purposes of this discussion to provide definitions of significant concepts.

1.4.1 TRAINING

Statt (1991: 154) defines training as:

An area of personnel management concerned with making the best use of the human resources in an organisation by providing them with an appropriate instruction to acquire the necessary skills for their jobs.

Bennett (1992: 60) defines training as:

Instruction on how to use knowledge as opposed to education, which concerns the intrinsic value of knowledge itself. Training is utilitarian and instrumental and has direct practical objectives.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1990: 1295) defines training as:

The act or process of teaching or learning a skill, discipline etc.

1.4.2 DEVELOPMENT

Development is defined by Fox and Meyer (1994: 36) as:

The process of improving the quality of human lives. Three equally important aspects of development are: raising peoples living levels i.e.: their income and consumption levels of food, medical services, education etc., through "relevant" economic growth processes, creating conditions conducive to the growth of people's self-esteem through the establishment of social, political and economic systems and institutions which promote human dignity and respect and increasing peoples freedom to choose by enlarging the range of choice variables eg: increasing varieties of consumer goods and services.

Calhoon (1967: 129) defines development as:

A continuing process which proceeds or should proceed throughout a man's career

with an organisation development concerned with more general growth.

Development according to the Concise Oxford Dictionary (1990: 318) is defined as:

1. The act or an instance of developing, the process of being developed;

2a. a stage of growth or advancement;

a thing that has developed especially an event or circumstance; 2b.

3. a full grown state.

1.4.3 **MENTOR**

Bennett (1992: 30) describes a mentor as:

A senior manager who promotes the career development of a favoured subordinate

through providing the latter with advise, resources, privileged information,

introductions to influential people and help and assistance when things go wrong.

Shafritz (1985: 263) defines a mentor as:

Wise counselor.

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Shafritz (1985: 263) also gives a brief history of the origin of the word mentor:

Mentor comes from Homer's "The Odyssey". When Odysseus sets off for war at

Troy, he left his house and wife in the care of a friend Mentor. When things get

rough at home for Odysseus' family, Athene, the goddess of Wisdom assumed the

shape of Mentor and provided Telemachus, the son of Odysseus with some helpful

advise about how to deal with the problems of his most unusual adolescence.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1990: 742) defines a mentor as:

An experienced and trusted adviser.

1.4.4 INTERNSHIP

Rosenberg (1983: 264) defines internship as:

An extensive period of training during which selected employees are given a

complete introduction to their jobs and an opportunity to apply the theories and

methods they learned earlier at school.

Shafritz (1985: 209) defines internship as:

Any variety of formal training programs for new employees or students that allows

them to learn on the job by working closely with professionals in their field.

1.4.5 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Shafritz (1985: 100) defines Affirmative Action as:

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In a formal legal sense, Affirmative Action now refers to specific efforts to recruit, hire and promote disadvantaged groups for the purpose of eliminating the present effects of past discrimination.

Rosenberg (1983: 18) defines it as:

Positive steps taken by firms or other organisations to remedy imbalances in their employment of members of minority groups.

The Oxford Dictionary (1990:20) defines Affirmative Action as:

Action favouring those who often suffer from discrimination.

CHAPTER 2

NEED FOR AND BENEFITS OF EFFECTIVE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

2.1 <u>INTRODUCTION</u>

Since human resources form the pivot of institutional viability and survival, it is imperative that in the light of changing conditions in it's environment, any institution should be committed to providing training and development opportunities for its employees.

Training and development has to be planned to improve and add new skills, knowledge and attitudes to the existing competence level of an organisation's labour pool. Local authorities are not only faced with diverse communities, but also have to serve a multitude of functions. The ability to fulfil these functions depends on the quality of personnel and the development and application of their full potentialities which can only be achieved through training and development.

In this chapter attention is focused on the following:

- Inter-Relationship Between Training and Development.
- Aims of Training and Development.
- Reasons to Conduct Needs Analysis.
- Levels of Needs Analysis.
- Benefits of Effective Training.
- Guidelines for Effective Training.

2.2 INTER-RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

According to Kroon (1995: 315) training is more task orientated than development and often of a short term nature, while development is more related to the expansion of potential with a long term perspective.

Rabie's (1987: 137) view is that while training is directed at the preparation of an individual to do a job corresponding with his abilities, development is more mind orientated and becomes evident in the levels of maturity and growth reached by the individual.

Considering the above two view points, it is clear that both training and development generate an increased level of competency. While training and development are job related and concerned with the acquisition of skills, development is much broader in scope when compared to training. Human resource development not only includes training in technical skills, but also the identification and development of management potential. Training not only makes employees more skilful in performing a task, but also provides motivation for self development. As a result of the motivation provided by training, the extent of development is detected in the ability of the individual to judge and deal with new and unique situations by utilising his acquired knowledge.

It can therefore be stated that training and development are inseparable and cannot be regarded as distinct entities on their own.

Ghosh and Kumar (1991: 162) view human resources development as encompassing many mechanisms and processes that aim at development of employees and their relationships in and with the organisation. They regard training as one of the mechanisms used to facilitate human resource development. According to Ghosh et.al (1991: 163) training can contribute directly or indirectly to the following dimensions of development:

- (i) development of the individual as a person to continuously recognise, develop and use his potential.
- (ii) development of the individual in relation to his present job or role.
- (iii) development of the individual in relation to his future expected job(s) or role(s).
- (iv) development of superior subordinate relationships.
- (v) development of teams and team work.
- (vi) development of inter-team collaboration.
- (vii) development of the health of the organisation as a whole to promote enabling capabilities of employees.

It can therefore be accepted that development is closely linked to training sessions whereby the employee with the help of the employer takes the responsibility to obtain a higher level of competency in those directions set by training. Training therefore culminates in development.

In view of the artificiality of forcing a destination between training and development, the American Society of Training and Development (in Bellis 1991: 6) defines the inter-related training and development field as:

The human resource practice area whose focus is identifying, assessing and - through planned learning - helping develop the key competencies which enable people to perform current or future jobs.

2.3 AIMS OF TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

The essential feature of any training and development programme is that trainees are provided with the right sequence of experience and are helped to understand and learn from that experience (Armstrong 1991: 415). Such a planned experience must be preceded by clearly identifiable aims of training and development for an organisation.

According to Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk (1995: 462) some of the aims of training and development would include the following:

- (i) To equip the workforce, including disable persons, with the skills, values and attitude required to support the development of the economy in the formal and informal sectors;
- (ii) To optimise the training capacity of employees by means of bridging training, the teaching of reading, writing, numeracy, job and learning skills as well as further training.

Heneman, Schwab, Fossum and Dyer (1983: 348) regard the following as some of the more immediate goals of particular training programmes:

- (i) To orientate new employees to the organisation and their jobs;
- (ii) To improve employees performance levels on their present jobs;
- (iii) To enable employees to maintain performance levels as their present jobs change;
- (iv) To prepare employees for new jobs.

According to Armstrong (1991:415) the fundamental aim of training is to help the organisation achieve its purpose by adding value to its key resource - the people it employs. By investing in personnel to develop their abilities, the current and future manpower needs of the organisation are satisfied. Armstrong (1991: 415) mentions the particular objectives of training as follows:

- (i) Develop the competence of employees and improve their performance;
- (ii) Help people grow within the organisation in order that, as far as possible, its future needs for human resources can be met from within;
- (iii) Reduce the learning time for employees starting in new jobs on appointment, transfer or promotion, and ensure that they become fully competent as quickly and economically as possible.

When embarking on a training programme, the organisation must clearly state what it expects to attain. The goals must not be unrealistic. They must be substantial and attainable aims. According to Ghosh et.al (1991:151) these can include:

- (i) Build a strong foundation of knowledge upon which to base additionally, specialised knowledge for
 - a. personal advancement,
 - b. protect expansion,
 - c. company growth,
 - d. acceptance of new methods, equipment and processes,
- (ii) Provide an in-plant source of qualified personnel for promotion and expansion:

- (iii) Develop a total capability in every job satisfaction;
- (iv) Lead the competition and industry in training;

It can therefore be stated that the overriding aim of any training and development programme is to help employees acquire capabilities to perform tasks required for their current or future roles, develop their capabilities to be able to explore and use their potential for personal or organisational advancement and develop an organisational culture conducive to teamwork.

2.4 REASONS TO CONDUCT NEEDS ANALYSIS

Needs analysis is done for a number of purposes. Van Wart, Cayer and Cook (1993: 67) state that it is important to analyse the needs of the individual employees, the units, the divisions and the strategic outlook of the organisation. Needs analysis does more than identify the gap between the desired performance and the actual performance. It also serves as a basis for personnel development systems, provides alternatives or auxiliary actions to training and furnishes legal defences against liability claims.

Van Wart et.al (1993:70) indicate the following reasons for needs analysis:

- i) Identification of discrepancies. Needs analysis identifies the discrepancy between the desired level of performance and the actual level of performance.
- ii) Change analysis. Change analysis, usually a by-product of needs analysis, is important to training because the continuous and dynamic changes occurring in the organisation represent a major challenge. When the organisation is changing, the organisation has special and immediate needs.

- tiii) The transformation of a personnel classification system into a personnel development system. If a personnel system does not assist employees in determining what skills they lack and how they can acquire them, employees are unlikely to develop and assume responsibilities at higher level positions. If the system does not analyse functions by task and skill frequency, it cannot develop highly targeted programmes. However, when personnel training is integrated into the design and data gathering of the system, the system becomes more comprehensive and human resource development oriented.
- iv) Provision of alternative solutions to problems. The alternatives might be options not related to training, such as staff changes, recruitment or a combination of several other options which would involve a variety of training strategies.
- v) Research Base. A needs analysis also forms a substantial research base for programme development and evaluation. A sound needs assessment will determine general needs, establish training content, ascertain appropriate teaching strategies and specific audience.
- vi) Provision of an external legal defence and internal support for a training programme. Employees ignorance of legally required operating procedures does not exclude the organisation from responsibility for employees behaviour. If an organisation can prove that skills or information were systematically taught, liabilities can be eliminated or reduced.

Both internally and externally, a needs analysis provides information to select the appropriate instructional methods.

2.5 LEVELS OF NEEDS ANALYSIS

Needs analysis must take place on three levels in an organisation: individual, organisational and strategic levels.

2.5.1 NEEDS ANALYSIS AT THE INDIVIDUAL LEVEL

Methods for deciding who needs and receives training vary among organisations and even within organisations.

Training units are usually key actors in selecting who needs and will get training. Training units are often responsible for performance testing, either through written or skills testing. This testing can be a part of the job assignment or skill enhancement process that leads to additional training (Van Wart et.al 1983: 72).

By estimating the skill and knowledge levels of employees, it can be ensured that training is neither too simple nor too complex. Individual analysis must also pay attention to pre-requisite basic skills as well as existing job related skills, since training based only on job related skills and knowledge would be unbeneficial, if trainees have to apply pre-requisite basic skills which they do not possess.

Furthermore if the individual analysis reveals a wide range of employee skills and knowledge, then this kind of variance must be recognised and planned for before training is implemented so that all trainees can have an appropriate and satisfying learning experience (Fisher, Schoenfeldt and Shaw 1990: 325).

Training departments normally enforce or observe mandated training to teach methods and procedures or instill organisational culture (Van Wart et.al 1993: 72).

Training departments interact with supervisors and targeted employees to coach, counsel, inform and encourage. Supervisors can make training decisions a part of the performance appraisal system, since performance appraisal is itself a type of needs analysis and deficiency check.

The preparation of employee development plans by employees is an important part of the assessment and development process. In the development plan, employees can specify strategies to improve skills, abilities and knowledge. The assumption behind development plans is that everybody can and should try to improve current capabilities and do not remain at one skill level.

Supervisors can plan a departmental training timetable that includes most or all of the employees in the unit. Cross-training employees helps the supervisor to ensure that various employees know a job or set of skills. A supervisor noticing that certain deficiencies exist in a department can decide that it is necessary to implement a training programme.

Employees can also assess their own needs. In an endeavour to improve their job related skills, knowledge and ability, they can seek out training opportunities.

Van Wart <u>et.al</u> (1993:75) mention the following problems associated with needs analysis done exclusively by employees:

- (i) The training and development of the employee may be excessively employee orientated,
- (ii) Employees are often unaware of the options available to them.

Van Wart et.al (1993: 76) assert that the dangers of not allowing employees to define their needs and design their training would include the following:

- (i) Employees who are not responsible for the training assigned to them are likely, over time, to shirk responsibility for the learning intended to take place;
- (ii) Employees chosen for training without understanding the advantages are often unmotivated;
- (iii) Employees unhappy with being sent for training may display their disinterest, with little or no learning taking place;
- (iv) Employees with negative attitudes may affect the attitude of the larger group as well.

2.5.2 <u>NEEDS ANALYSIS AT THE ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL:</u>

Two primary approaches are used for organisational needs analysis: The comprehensive approach and the performance gap approach (Van Wart et.al 1993:76).

(i) The comprehensive approach

The comprehensive approach generates extensive data through an analysis of organisational needs. The comprehensive approach is made up of the following phases (Van Wart et.al 1993:77):

- a) Planning
- b) Exploratory
- c) Task/Skill inventory
- d) Task/Skill analysis
- e) Programme Design
- f) Implementation of new or revised programmes

Strengths of the approach

- The comprehensive approach encourages the use of a multiple use data base which can be continually updated. For example, the task/ skill analysis phase provides information about the key tasks for training, job descriptions, and other human resource functions and work measures;
- The comprehensive approach is beneficial when coupled with on-the-job training methods and performance appraisal systems;
- Multiple use data supports planning systems for employee development by defining what skills are necessary for jobs so that development opportunities are clear;
- The comprehensive approach is most effective when working with tangible skills and simple interpersonal and conceptual tasks;

Finally, this approach which systematically surveys the system and incumbents of the system to identify and address discrepancies between desired behaviour and actual behaviour, is frequently more legally defensible (Van Wart et.al 1993: 82).

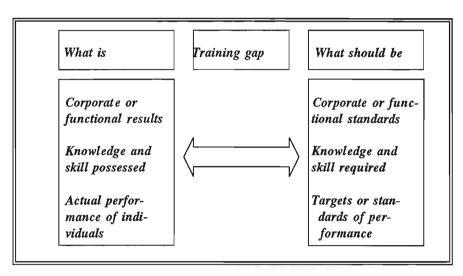
Weaknesses of the approach

- It is expensive and time consuming;
- When jobs change frequently in an organisation, the comprehensive approach is weak at responding speedily and can be overwhelmed when changes are systematic;
- When the analysis involves multiple organisations, a comprehensive approach can be impossible to implement;
- The approach is weak at assessing non-conventional management systems, where managers roles constantly change (Van Wart et.al 1993: 83).

(ii) Performance Gap Approach

The performance gap approach, as reflected in Figure 2.1, focuses on the problem rather than the system.

FIGURE 2.1 PERFORMANCE GAP APPROACH



(Armstrong 1991: 429)

The thrust of this approach is on problem solving rather than system analysis. Everytime individual problems are identified, the entire system is not analysed in the performance gap approach. The following phases comprise this approach (Van Wart et.al 1993: 84):

- a) Perceived problem
- b) Pre-analysis
- c) Data-Collection
- d) Analysis of Needs
- e) Results of Needs Assessment

Strengths of the Approach

Since the approach is not comprehensive in technical terms, it is less expensive, less time consuming and more flexible than the comprehensive approach;

- The identification of a problem does not necessarily warrant an extensive job analysis or task/skills inventory;
- It looks at global issues involved in a problem, some having nothing to do with training, to find equitable solutions;
- The performance gap approach can be better targeted for specific problems and fast solutions;
- It is a practical approach when a set of jobs or an organisation is changing rapidly (Van Wart et.al 1993: 89).

Weaknesses of the approach

- It does not build a systematic data base that is useful for training and other functions of human resource management. For example, extensive task/skill analysis are important information tanks that are logical and systematic and make training programmes easier to set up;
- This approach does not extensively research the details of the job or job families and may therefore not give trainers much knowledge when designing the programme and training;
- The performance gap approach is not suitable for analysing highly technical and routine jobs with rapid turnover.

2.5.3 NEEDS ANALYSIS AT THE STRATEGIC LEVEL

This level of analysis concentrates on future needs, especially when these needs represent a significant departure from past trends.

Three areas can be considered in strategic planning: Changing organisational priorities, personnel forecasting and organisational attitudes.

(i) Changing organisational priorities

New technologies and the inclusion of new actors in the administrative process are some of the factors necessitating a change in the organisation's priorities.

Organisational change might also occur when a department is divided into two units or when two units are combined into one, when a new departmental head wants to do things differently or because of considerable environmental change.

The above examples emphasize the need for the training function to be proactive in determining future needs and planning for these needs (Van Wart et.al 1993:92).

(ii) Personnel forecasting

Demand forecasting looks at the number of people needed by the organisation and the skills they must possess, while supply forecasting looks at the number of people available and the skills of those people who are available (Van Wart et.al 1993: 93).

(iii) Organisational attitudes

An assessment of overall employee attitudes can help to detect areas in the organisation requiring training, identify areas in which resistance to change and training are possible and indicate when solutions other than training may be needed.

According to Van Wart et.al (1993:94) an assessment of organisational attitude can be a good starting point in reorganising the training and development plan for an organisation.

In view of the above three levels of needs analysis, it can be stated that conducting a needs analysis requires great consideration and effort since the success of any training and development programme is affected by the thoroughness of the needs analysis process.

2.6 BENEFITS OF EFFECTIVE TRAINING

Training is a vital and necessary activity in all organisations. It plays an important role in determining the effectiveness and efficiency of an organisation.

Some of the tangible benefits of training include:

(i) Improved performance on present job: Training applies not only to new employees but also to experienced people. It can help employees increase their level of performance on their present job assignments (Beach 1985: 244). As an employee responds to continued training, he can progressively increase his value to the organisation and thus prepare himself for promotion.

- (ii) Attitude formation: Employees from all walks of life are appointed to organisations. Their attitudes are shaped by the environments from which they come, which does not always fit in with the organisational activities. Training can help to mould employee attitudes which are in line with the ethical principles of the organisation, thereby fostering loyalty, support and co-operation.
- (iii) Benefits to employees: As employees acquire new knowledge and job skills they increase their market value and earning power (Beach 1985: 245). By developing his ability to adjust to major changes in job content and work relationships, the employee becomes versatile and flexible in his work situation and has a better understanding of the reasons for change.
- (iv) Reduced learning time and cost: Formal training helps employees to learn their jobs quickly and effectively, thereby increasing productivity. Since employees learn to work rapidly and make fewer mistakes, they are able to generate a greater volume of work and financial benefits to the organisation (Ghosh et.al 1991:157).
- (v) Aid in solving operational problems: Dissatisfaction, complaints, absenteeism and turnover can be tremendously reduced when employees are so well trained that they can experience the direct satisfaction associated with a sense of accomplishment and knowledge that they are developing their inherent capabilities (Pigors and Myers 1969: 397). Training can also help to solve other operational problems like poor customer service, low morale, excessive wastage and poor work methods.

- (vi) An organisation with a reputation for good training tends to attract better applicants (Ghosh et.al 1991: 157), as well as provide an incentive for existing employees to remain in its service. Furthermore by retaining staff, new abilities replace obsolescent expertise.
- (vii) Technological innovations are driving up the educational and training levels of the workforce. Work is becoming more capital and knowledge intensive. According to Van Wart et.al (1993: 286) employees in recent times have to change jobs because jobs are being lost to technology and economic trends and new jobs are being created in organisations and society. The "retooling" of jobs requires constant learning by the individuals and constant training by organisations to keep abreast of technological developments.
- (viii) It is not possible for schools and tertiary institutions to train candidates fully for appointment to specific posts or fields of work. Therefore this creates a need for training to avoid disorderly and haphazard learning on the job. Without formal training, no definite objectives will be achieved.

Ghosh et.al (1991: 157) mention some of the other benefits of training and development as including:

- The standard of quality of work required by the organisation is likely to be achieved and maintained if employees are well trained;
- Staff members who are helped by efficient training to learn their jobs rapidly, are more likely to achieve a high level of job satisfaction soon after joining the organisation and thereby tend to remain longer;

Training increases staff versatility by widening their range of expertise to include related jobs. A flexible workforce enables an organisation to operate efficiently when staff members are absent;

The aforementioned benefits of effective training highlights the fundamental need to invest in people to enable them to perform better and to empower them to make the best use of their natural abilities (Armstrong 1991: 415).

2.7 GUIDELINES FOR EFFECTIVE TRAINING

Effective training is a learning experience activity - a planned business activity in response to identified needs - and is an attempt to further the goals of the organisation while simultaneously providing the opportunity for individual employees to learn and grow in the business (Camp in Gerber et.al 1995: 461).

In an endeavour to ensure that the training and development programme of an organisation is effective, cognisance should be taken of the following issues:

2.7.1 <u>Developing acceptance of change</u>. According to Calhoon (1949: 159) educating employees to the need for versatility, changed methods, continued learning and job assignment change needs strong emphasis during training. Training is the ideal opportunity to prepare for change, when the employee is open minded. While it is important to develop an acceptance of change, it is important that trainees are realistic about change. In this regard Friedman (1990: 18) makes the following statement:

Employees typically go through stages as they try to apply on the job what they've learned in training. Immediately after training, many are optimistic that they can quickly turn things around. Then, reality strikes as they bump up against resistance and other organisational barriers. Unfortunately, the final stage may involve pessimism about ever being able to make the new skills work in the present culture.

Trainees should have realistic expectations about what can be applied on the job.

2.7.2 Organisational objectives. The effective achievement of the objectives of the organisation should be the ultimate aim of any training and development strategy. It is important not only to analyse the short term and long term objectives of the organisation, but also trends which would possibly affect these objectives. The formulation of objectives guide the selection of programme content and training methods, as well as serve as criteria against which a programme can be evaluated once it is over.

According to Heneman <u>et.al</u> (1983: 357) objectives can take any of the following forms:

- * Knowledge objectives refer to the material participants are expected to know when the program is over;
- * Attitudinal objectives state the beliefs and convictions that participants are expected to hold as a result of the program;

- * Skill objectives describe the kinds of behaviours participants should be able to demonstrate under learning conditions;
- * Job behaviour objectives indicate the desired responses of participants once they are back on the job;
- * Organisational results objectives state changes in profitability, sales, service, efficiency, costs, employee turnover, and the like that should result from the program.

Petasis (1977:19) states that if learning is defined as change in behaviour then it becomes imperative to state what exactly this change should be. Once the end result is clearly stated, it is possible to proceed with the evaluation of the results of the training.

In further stressing the need to clarify objectives, Molander and Winterton (1994: 81) state that:

Minimally, there should be a clear statement as to what the trainee will be able to do following the training, in what circumstances and to what measurable extent. There is no good reason why this information should not be given to the trainee before the start of the training activity. There is a good chance that the knowledge will improve the motivation and application of the trainees when they are able to put the various elements of the training into perspective.

2.7.3 Evaluation

Hamlin (in Armstrong 1991: 506) defines the process of evaluating training as:

Any attempt to obtain information (feedback) on the effects of a training programme, and to assess the value of the training in the light of that information.

Evaluation leads to control which means deciding whether or not the training was worthwhile and what improvements are required to make it even more cost effective.

Unless training and development programmes are evaluated, there is no possibility of determining their exact benefits. Training and development should only be undertaken if criteria for their evaluation have been built into the programme.

According to Van Wart <u>et.al</u> (1993: 249) there are at least four major purposes of evaluation:

- To measure end results to determine overall success of a programme;
- To measure and track results of processes in order to make improvements;
- To study unquantified or non-measurable results;
- To investigate side effects.

Gerber et.al (1995: 524) state that evaluation can only be effective if:

It is based on clear and specified objectives which are predetermined,
 qualified and quantified;

- It is continuous and based on uniform, objective methods and standards;
- It is reliable and valid. An evaluation measure can only be reliable if its measurement is exactly the same every time it is used, while a test is valid only if it measures what it intended to measure.

According to Hamblin (in Molander et.al 1994: 84) there are five levels at which evaluation can take place:

* Reactions: At the end of the training experience learners are asked their opinions of the training programme. This information is usually obtained by means of a questionnaire. The administration of the programme should also be examined since these issues are important in determining whether the training programme was of the required standard.

Gerber et.al (1995: 525) state that the major drawback of this form of assessment method is that firstly, the enthusiasm of trainees cannot necessarily be taken as evidence of improved ability and performance in the workplace. Secondly, trainees are usually unable to assess the methods used objectively and therefore their responses cannot be relied upon.

* Learning: The extent to which trainees assimilated the material presented in the training programme is measured in a quantifiable way. The skills, knowledge and attitudes of the trainees have to be tested to determine the degree of learning.

* Job behaviour: This is one of the most useful and practical levels in which to collect information. Evaluation attempts to measure the extent to which trainees have applied their learning on the job, by assessing the amount of transfer of learning that has taken place from an off-the-job training course to the job itself. If training is carried out on-the-job there should be little difference between learning and job behaviour.

According to the IPM Fact Sheet No 47 (in Gerber et.al 1995: 526) behaviour measurement can only be considered accurate if the training needs analysis and training objectives were described in terms of desired onthe-job behaviour. It is then possible to measure the difference between the trainee's undesirable pre-training behaviour and his or her new post-training behaviour. Performance appraisal before and after training therefore has to be done and the following persons or groups could be involved: the trainee, his or her superiors, subordinates and peers, or other people familiar with his or her performance.

* Organisation: At this level of evaluation, the focus of attention is on whether the training, however effective, is relevant to the departmental goals of the organisation. The measurement may be in terms of improved output, morale or productivity. The question answered by this type of evaluation is not simply what behavioural changes have taken place, but what good the changes have been for the department in which the employee works. It is therefore important that the training takes into account the strategic plans for the group from which the trainees are drawn, if it is to have an impact.

* Ultimate Value: This is a measure of how the organisation as a whole has benefitted from the training in terms of greater profitability, survival or growth. Evaluation at this level is related to the criteria by which the organisation judges its success or failure.

Hamblin (in Armstrong 1991: 508) points out in the following example that the five levels are linked in a chain, but the chain can be snapped at any link:

A trainee can react favourably to a course - he can 'enjoy it' - but learn nothing. He can learn something, but he cannot, or will not, or is not allowed to, apply it. He applies it, but it does no good within his own area. It does some good in his function, but does not further the objectives of the organisation.

Evaluation is therefore an integral part of training and development, since without evaluation, it may not be known whether or why a particular training effort was effective.

2.7.4 Feedback

Trainees need to receive feedback or knowledge of results on how they are performing. Feedback is critical for both learning and motivation (Fisher et.al 1990: 328). If feedback is not provided, trainees may learn the technique incorrectly or lose the motivation to learn. It is also necessary if goals for maintaining or improving performance have been set. Fisher et.al (1990:329) provide the following suggestion:

The trainer should plan to give plenty of feedback and encouragement early in the training program. At first, the trainer should praise any improvement at all. Gradually, as trainees' skills increase, the trainer should raise the performance level required to receive positive feedback. Later in the program, the trainer should teach trainees how to evaluate their own performance, and trainees should move toward reliance on self-generated feedback rather than feedback from others. This increases the likelihood that trainees will be able to continue to perform correctly when back on the job.

Levitz (1995: 15) stresses the importance of criticising the manner in which the job is done and not the person: If you have something to say, say it straight out without being either too pleasant or too blunt. In accepting that criticism is going to hurt but that it is still necessary, it would be recommendable to use tact in various doses.

Levitz (1995:15) recommends that the person being criticised should be entitled to express his or her point of view. This is also feedback and helps to learn different perceptions.

2.7.5 Gaining Organisational Support

According to Van Wart <u>et.al</u> (1993: 96) gaining commitment for training programmes involves the art of building enthusiasm for a programme more than the science of designing one, because it is concerned with peoples attitudes and perceptions.

Gaining commitment according to Van Wart et.al (1993: 96) requires the following:

- Trainees must be seen as highly competent in their own areas as well as extremely knowledgeable about the organisation;
- Training units must have carefully planned and executed marketing strategies;
- Training advocates must be politically smart; to ignore the reality that certain key players need to be influenced is to relegate training to a minor role in the organisation;
- Involvement of all parts of the organisation in this cross-organisational activity. Employees, supervisors and managers need training and they play a pivotal role in mandating, encouraging and modelling proper behaviours and attitudes about the profound role of training in the life of the organisation;
- Professionalisation of the curriculum through the use of interconnected sequences and explicit recognition for training programmes.

It should be noted that a training programme does not simply receive support because it is well designed, well implemented or because it addresses a real training need. Without commitment from a variety of groups, a training programme is bound to fail.

2.7.6 Recommendations by the National Training Board

The National Training Board in South Africa (in Gerber et.al 1995: 466) has made some of the following principle recommendations:

- (i) Articulation: Training must make it feasible for learners who have met the requirements to move from component to component within the training system. Some kind of levelling field must be established between formal and non-formal education.
- (ii) Progression: Training must ensure that the framework of qualifications makes it possible for individuals to progress through the levels of national qualifications with various combinations of components of the training system. The implication is that no learning is lost because a life time learning process is essential for the survival of individuals and organisations. This principle enables an individual to apply the learning acquired to the learning needed in order to move through the levels of national qualification.
- (iii) Recognition: Through a process of assessment, previous learning activities and experience must be recognised. This principle asserts that every person who enters a learning situation has already learnt something. It is therefore necessary to measure and recognise these earlier learning activities.
- (iv) Coherence, flexibility and credibility. The principles and standards within the training framework must be valid at a national level and versatile enough to satisfy the needs of organisations, clients and the learners

themselves. This is necessary in view of the fact that many training systems are designed piecemeal with more emphasis on academic value than on their usefulness to organisations, with the result that the qualifications have no practical value. The converse also holds water. The training system can only enjoy credibility if it can satisfy international standards.

2.8 SUMMARY

Training and development should not be viewed in isolation since both contribute towards enhancing an employee's repertoire.

Training succeeds when the trainees need it, when they know they need it and when they believe it will work. The implication is that training only succeeds if it is a direct response to a specific problem.

Needs analysis at the individual, organisational and strategic levels are of cardinal importance in planning a training and development programme.

A needs analysis not only identifies areas in which training and development is required, but also assists in the selection of appropriate instructional methods.

An effective training and development programme, has tangible benefits for the organisation, the employees and society.

To ensure that appropriate training and development programmes reach the targeted employees, consideration should be given to, inter-alia, developing an acceptance of change, organisational objectives, feedback and evaluation.

It can therefore be stated that training decisions are based on facts and not feelings.

CHAPTER 3

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT METHODS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Training is an investment. If the learners apply back at work what they acquired during their learning, there will be a return on the investment. If they do not, then the training time was merely spent rather than invested.

It is important to address the question as to how and where the training should take place. Traditionally, training techniques have been classified as belonging to "on-the-job" or "off-the-job". Those who administer training programmes have a great choice of methods for imparting learning in trainees. The particular method selected is determined by many considerations like cost, time availability, the number of persons to be trained and depth of knowledge required.

According to Smith (in Byers 1974: 145) your employee is singular, he is one in number, and he is the only one of his kind. He is born, lives and dies individually. If he changes his behaviour, he does it as an individual. Training him to change, then, should take into account the employee's oneness, as well as the fact that he may be a member of a group. If you wish to train him to improve his skill in the performance of his particular job, you will certainly have to spend some time with him in a one-to-one relationship. Many skills can, of course, be developed in group training, but such methods must supplement, rather than substitute for, individual training.

Sometimes it becomes necessary to use more than one training and development method for a particular programme.

This chapter examines the following issues:

- Factors that Determine which Training and Development Methods should be Used.
- Training and Development Methods.

3.2 <u>FACTORS THAT DETERMINE WHICH TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT</u> METHODS SHOULD BE USED:

According to Nel (in Gerber et.al 1995: 508) the following factors provide guidelines in assisting decision makers to select appropriate training and development methods:

- i) Development objectives should be selected in a way that they suggest learning objectives and the best means to train and develop employees.
- ii) Responses of learners and feedback. In designing and deciding the methodology for the course, cognisance must be taken of whether instructors are allowed to rectify errors or reinforce the learning that has taken place, and the extent to which managers or employees in the training situation can measure their own responses. The ideal training and development method gives the instructor the opportunity to observe the development of an employee and correct him or her by giving immediate feedback on performance.
- iii) The instructors knowledge and level of skill. The instructors level of competence is revealed in feedback to management on successes that are attributable to good teaching. When the success of the training and development programme is being assessed, management should be careful not to disregard those results which are not due to the instructors teaching.

Instructors who use methods with which they are not familiar can spoil the learning experience and cause unpleasant consequences for the learners. It is extremely important to employ competent instructors.

- iv) The availability of time. The time available for a specific training and development programme often determines the method to be used, because some methods may require more time, while others can be completed quickly. Management games and case studies, for example, demand more time to be effectively used than brainstorming and conferences.
- Adaptability of methods. Not all methods can be effectively used for different types of learning. For example, programmed instruction can be used in a variety of activities. When selecting methods, cognisance must be taken of the fact that some methods are easier to use and are more readily adaptable with small groups of learners.
- vi) Costs: The following four important elements need to be considered:
- Payment for the instructors and the costs of facilities need to be considered, as well as tuition fees for learners who attend external off-the-job courses.
- Costs should be measured against the effectiveness of course strategies: if the gains expected of a particular strategy do not offset additional costs incurred by the use of that strategy, a less costly instructional method should be sought, even though it may be slightly less effective. There also needs to be corresponding savings in time, human resources and facilities to justify expensive teaching methods.

- When training and development programmes contain a variety of methods, particularly sophisticated ones, they can be very costly even too costly to implement.
- Certain training aids may be too expensive to use, even if they are considered essential support for particular teaching methods. For instance, closed-circuit television is prohibitively expensive and its use is only justified where large groups of learners are continually involved. The cost usually rules it out for a once-off exercise.

Apart from the above factors, Van Wart et.al (1993: 108) suggest the following additional factors as also playing an important role in determining training and development methods:

- i) Number of trainees: If only one person is being trained, training can be individualised and non-trainees can be used as coaches or mentors. Individual training is used in counselling, on-the-job training and programmed instruction. With more than one trainee, trainers must consider three factors: audience availability, cost and teaching strategies.
- ii) Training frequency: The frequency with which a programme is conducted has an impact on its cost. If the programme is conducted only once or twice, the time and energy spent in design and training costs are relatively great. One shot programmes often highlight topical treatments that bring new ideas and diversity to the training menu.
- iii) Training location: Depending on the size of the training group and the type of training required, on-the-job or off-the-job training methods or a combination of

both may be used. For example field trips, which can be off site and on site add an extra dimension to a training programme. Off-the-job training is suitable for managers seeking out specific training and development opportunities.

iv) Organisational range: When considering the training and development method, cognisance must be taken of the range at which training and development programmes are targeted. These can include the individual, unit, organisation, multiple organisations or multiple sectors.

If the selection of training and development methods are carefully considered by instructors and used as guidelines when developing training and development programmes, the benefits derived from the use of different methods could be extremely beneficial to both learners and the organisation. On the other hand, if a mistake is made in the selection and use of training methods it could have serious consequences, not only for the learners and their morale, but also in terms of lost profit and a tarnished image of the instructor and the training department.

In the light of the widescale application of Affirmative Action policies amongst public organisations in South Africa, it is imperative that training and development methods are meticulously applied not only to increase the labour capacity of the disadvantaged but also to assist in the changing of attitudes needed for a post-apartheid South Africa.

3.3 TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT METHODS

Training methods can be broadly classified into 2 categories: on-the-job training and off-the-job training.

3.3.1 On-the-job training

On-the-job training means that trainees receive training in their work environment. The training is usually directly related to the job. On-the-job training methods usually fit the needs of a particular employee and orientated to suit the trainee's background, knowledge and skills (Gerber et.al 1995: 509).

3.3.1.1 Internship

Internship as an on-the-job training method entails training selected students according to academic training programmes while they are employed in different sections of a department to increase their experience and improve their skills. Internship provides trainees with the opportunity to gain experience in practical situations by applying their theoretical knowledge, which cannot be simulated in the classroom.

Newcomer (in Bayat and Meyer 1994: 66) and Bayat et.al (1994: 66) view internship as benefitting interns in numerous ways. These include:

- The intern is exposed to a variety of organisational operations, enabling him or her to make a sound decision concerning career pathing;
- By having access to high level managers, interns learn to handle intricate situations and solve problems. In addition their skills and knowledge is improved;

- The internship will boost the repertoire of the intern when applying for jobs, since experience always counts as a bonus factor;
- Interns can sharpen their communication skills and gain invaluable knowledge by working closely with middle level and lower level managers;
- Interns may participate in training and development programmes sponsored by host organisations and may also pioneer new training and development activities;
 - Interaction between interns not only helps to detect weaknesses, but also serves as a motivational factor in generating creative and unique ideas.

In addition to the above benefits, internship offers the opportunity to gain a foot in the door with desirable and selective employers, thereby enhancing an impressive resume (Scott 1992:59). First hand experience is an ideal way of determining whether interns are suited to the job as well as to the organisational culture.

From a managerial point of view, the most significant benefit of hiring a former intern is that the student understands the position (Scott 1992:60).

From a retention standpoint, graduates who actually have experienced the job they choose are not only making an informed decision, but also are much more likely to remain with the organisation - a key concern for organisations that are seeking to staff their future technical and management ranks from campus talent (Scott 1992:60).

It is therefore important that interns gain exposure to the whole organisation - not just the department in which they work. The most effective internship programme should incorporate opportunities for interns to gain broad exposure to the entire company giving them a global view of their career possibilities and to give management a sense of the individual and collective quality of the intern pool.

Value of internships within the context of a new South Africa

According to Mokgoro (in Bayat et.al 1994:65) Affirmative Action is a remedy for a non-representative civil service. A democratic civil service will have to provide services to historically disadvantaged communities. The expansion of services will obviously require more personnel, especially blacks. However, the constraining factor is the lack of financial resources. This limitation can be partly overcome by organisations participating in internship programmes which can thereby serve as a mechanism for achieving a more representative workforce (Bayat et.al 1994: 65).

During the apartheid era, social equity, accountability, representativeness and ethical values were rare entities in the South African civil service. This is because democracy was never practised, thereby resulting in the absence of inter-personal skills training within a democratic framework. It is therefore necessary to devise creative techniques to supplement formal training in the wake of diversity and change facing many organisations. Internship development is an effective mechanism for transcending formal education currently offered by tertiary institutions (Bayat et.al 1994: 66). Furthermore, it will foster equity and equality in employment practices as well as social development.

Public administration in South Africa is currently in a state of sterility and turbulence. The prevalence of such a dilemma requires a new culture of thinking to make possible the management of public affairs free from corruption and maladministration (Bayat et.al 1994:66). In view of this situation, internships can make a major contribution towards facilitating change in this area. Interns can gain invaluable exposure to interpersonal, qualitative, analytical and synthesising skills, thereby fostering a new thinking ethos as required for a new administrative philosophy. The value of internships in this context is supported by Bayat et.al (1994: 63).

3.3.1.2 Mentorship

Mentoring to some is a new and highly effective means of identifying and developing high flyers, to others it is a means of speeding and facilitating the induction of young people in general. It can also be seen as an effective door into middle and senior management for women subject to unfair discrimination. Finally, to some it is viewed as a dangerous process that can amplify favouritism and exclusive networks within the corporation (Parsloe 1992: 71).

Despite the widely differing interpretations of mentoring, it is an activity inextricably linked with the movement towards competence-based vocational qualifications.

(i) Aims of mentoring

According to Clutterbuck (in Armstrong 1991: 550) mentoring can aim to:

- establish a core of broadly trained generalist managers at or just below middle management level;
- speed up and improve the induction of specific types of recruits and reduce wastage during the early period of employment;
- help top management to assess the abilities of both individual young managers and the rising generation of managers as a whole;
- provide equal opportunities for disadvantaged groups of employees.

Mentoring complements on-the-job learning as a means of assisting the job holder to acquire particular skills and knowledge necessary to perform the job satisfactorily. Mentoring is also aimed at complementing formal training by providing those who benefit from it with individual guidance from experienced managers who are wise in the ways of the organisation (Armstrong 1991: 550).

(ii) Job description of a good mentor

Specific skills and attributes are necessary for an individual to perform effectively as a mentor. Some of the hallmarks of a good mentor include the following:

a) Strong Interpersonal skills

A good mentor is the animated talker in the midst of a group, not an isolated figure off on the sidelines engrossed in his own thoughts. Since the mentor role demands close relationships, a mentor must enjoy working with people more than work. He must be a good communicator who encourages a two way exchange of information, listens to career concerns and responds appropriately, establishes an environment for open interaction, schedules uninterrupted time to meet with the mentoree and acts as a sounding board for ideas and concerns (Geiger 1992:66).

b) Knowledge of the organisation

The most helpful mentor is one who has intimate knowledge of the vision and long range goals of the organisation. To access this information, the mentor must have an open line to both the formal and informal communication channels within the organisation (Murray and Owen 1991: 108). The mentor will only be able to adequately assess the feasibility of the mentoree's aspirations if he knows where the organisation is heading, where the opportunities are based on projected growth and goals of the organisation. Basically, the mentor should have an extensive network of sources, sufficiently senior to be in touch with the corporate structure, sharing the organisation's values and able to give the mentoree access to resources and information (Murray et.al 1991: 108).

c) <u>Exemplary supervisory skills</u>

A competent mentor should have the following management skills (Murray et.al 1991: 108):

- Planning performance helping others to set objectives, create action plans, estimate resource requirements, schedule time;
- Appraising performance observing another performance, evaluating it and determining the appropriate type of feedback;
- Giving feedback and coaching providing feedback that clearly reinforces desired performance or coaches to clarify performance goals and development needs, reinforce effective on-the-job performance or recommends specific behaviours that need improvement;
- Modeling serves as a role model to demonstrate successful professional behaviours
 leads by example;
- Delegating determining appropriate tasks to be delegated to a person capable of performing those tasks, negotiating agreement on the tasks to be performed, time for completion, authorities to be consulted and resources to be used.

From the above skills it can be ascertained that basic supervisory competence is one of the prerequisites for sound mentoring.

d) <u>Technical competence</u>

When assigning a mentor to a mentoree, cognisance must be taken of the skill deficiencies of the mentoree. The mentor who should be skilled in more than one function of the organisation, can offer the mentoree a rich experience from his broad background.

e) Status and prestige

The status and prestige of the mentor is important if the relationship between mentor and mentoree is visible and aims to groom people for increased responsibility (Murray et.al 1991:110). According to Murray et.al (1991:110) there are two reasons why mentors should be prestigious. Firstly, only a high status mentor will know the organisation well enough to guide someone else. Secondly, a fundamental principle of behaviour modeling is that people are likely to emulate someone who is perceived as having prestige. Normally people imitate the actions of a person regarded as a good example. A mentor held in high esteem contributes towards efficient development of the mentoree.

f) Personal Power

A good mentor should be a charismatic leader who attracts the mentoree. He should display positive regard and respect for others. His personal power also encompasses his sought after opinions (Murray et.al 1991:11). According to Geiger (1992: 66) a mentor should be an advocate who:

- intervenes on the mentorees behalf and represents his or her concerns on specific issues to higher level managers;
- arranges for the mentoree to participate in highly visible activities within the organisation and outside of it.

g) <u>Broker</u>

In Geiger's (1992: 66) opinion a mentor should be like a broker who assists his client in the following ways:

- expands the mentoree's network of professional contacts;
- helps bring together mentorees who might mutually benefit from helping each other;
- helps link the mentoree with appropriate educational and employment opportunities;
- helps the mentoree identify resources required for career progression.
- identifies resources to help the mentoree with specific problems and follows up to ensure effectiveness of resources.

h) Willingness to be responsible for someone else's growth

A good mentor is someone who initiates coaching contacts with others. According to Murray et.al (1991:111) the practices of many organisations do not encourage self-responsibility of employees for development. Responsibility for someone else's growth is an awesome task which requires eagerness and willingness on the part of a prospective mentor. A mentor who is secure about his or her competence will most likely be generous with time spent in helping others to grow. Mentors who are regarded as star makers enjoy boosted repertoires (Murray et.al 1991: 111).

Both the mentor and mentoree can share the credit and recognition earned. Good mentors will neither claim the mentoree's work as their own nor attribute their own work to the mentoree (Murray et.al 1991:111).

i) Patience in risky situations

The mentor should offer encouragement and support to his mentoree to take risks. Failure should be viewed positively. By allowing the mentoree to explore and pursue ideas, even though they may not be the optimum pathway, the mentor is creating opportunities for the mentoree to prove himself or herself in risky situations (Parsloe 1992: 72). The mentor should also consider the pace of development since mentors who jump in too quickly may be pushing their mentoree's development (Murray et.al 1991:112).

The job profile of a high quality mentor encapsulates competence, experience and clear role definition. It also crucially depends upon a right balance of personal qualities. Good mentors provide potential leaders with the wisdom, support and self confidence to learn the ropes.

j) <u>Catalyst</u>

A catalyst is the outside force that inspires action (Kaye and Jacobson 1987:25). The mentor as a catalyst says, does or demonstrates something that becomes the spark to ignite others initiative. The mentor helps the mentoree see in a new light a vision of the organisation and his or her future and look at unanticipated possibilities that they can make happen rather than concentrating only on what they expect to happen.

(iii) PHASES OF THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP

Kram (in Holley and Jennings 1987: 294) outlines the phases in the mentoring relationship as follows:

FIGURE 3.1 PHASES OF THE MENTORING RELATIONSHIP

Phase	Definition	Turning Points
Initiation	A period of six months to a year during which time the relationship gets started and begins to have importance for both managers.	Fantasies become concrete expectations. Expectations are met, senior manager provides coaching, challenging work, visibility, junior manager provides technical assistance, respect, and desire to be coached. There are opportunities for interaction around work tasks.
Cultivation	A period of two to five years during which time the range of career and psychosocial functions provided expand to a maximum.	Both individuals continue to benefit from the relationship. Opportunities for meaningful and more frequent interaction increase. Emotional bond deepens and intimacy increases.
Separation	A period of six months to two years after a significant change in the structural role relationship and/or in the emotional experience of the relationship.	Junior manager no longer wants guidance but rather the opportunity to work more autonomously. Senior manager faces midlife crisis and is less available to provide mentoring functions. Job rotation or promotion limits opportunities for continued interactional; career and psychosocial functions can no longer be provided. Blocked opportunity creates resentment and hostility that disrupts positive interaction.
Redefinition	An indefinite period after the separation phase, during which time the relationship is ended or takes on significantly different characteristics, making it a more peerlike friendship.	Stresses of separation diminish, and new relationships are formed. The mentor relationship is no longer needed in its previous form. Resentment and anger diminish, gratitude and appreciation increase. Peer status is achieved.

(Kram in Holley and Jennings 1987: 294)

During the initiation phase the mentor/mentoree relationship is characterised by the need for having a focus on the relationship, in addition to developing mutual respect for each other's abilities. Mutual respect would encompass the mentor's willingness to permit them to become involved in challenging and stimulating assignments, respect for the mentoree's desire to learn as well as each participant demonstrating respect for the professional and personal integrity of each member (Cunningham and Eberle 1993: 60).

The relationship deepens during the cultivation phase since there is now greater emotional commitment and meaningful interaction.

During the separation phase, the mentoree displays greater independence and desire for autonomy. This could affect positive interaction between the two parties. This phase spells the culmination of the mentor/mentoree relationship.

A post-mentor role emerges during the redefinition phase, signifying the development of a peer like friendship.

It is important that while it is the mentor's responsibility to provide structure and direction in the relationship, an inexperienced mentoree should avoid running the risk of allowing himself/herself to be directed and moulded in a manner about which he may later become resentful. The following statement by a mentoree illustrates this (Cunningham et.al 1993: 61):

I've spent many years in government and have worked under some great bosses. I advanced because they knew I could always get the job done. I was resourceful and could always locate the information and resources I needed. Yet, I often wonder if I have neglected taking charge of my own career. It seems as though I am here because of what others thought I was good at and not necessarily because of my own interests or career ambition....

It is therefore important to recognise the relationship as interactive rather than purely evaluative in nature. The implication is that the mentoree should be afforded equal opportunity to challenge and stimulate the preconceived ideas and roles of the mentor.

Finally, a safe and supportive environment will be conducive to open interaction, affirmation during times of crisis and reassurance.

(iv) FACTORS NECESSARY FOR THE SUCCESS OF MENTORING

It is important to take cognisance of various factors which would determine the success of mentoring.

a) Training and development to raise awareness and understanding of mentoring and its role in career development:

The training and development of mentors is not necessarily a straight forward or linear task (Little 1995:51). To be able to supervise work experience effectively and efficiently, mentors have to be trained and developed from being competent professionals through to becoming competent mentors. The mentor must be able to tutor, give feedback, do career planning and assist the mentoree in specific activities. It is possible for example, that a mentor lacks a critical skill, like the ability to plan a career path but is excellent in other ways. Strategies like orientation programmes can be used to build the missing skills.

b) Taking the coaching and feedback role seriously:

The mentor must be able to direct the mentoree to relevant activities and projects. He or she must be able to say what is going well and where more practice is needed. The mentor must be able to differentiate competent from not yet competent behaviours of the mentoree. This would require assessing the observed performance against some agreed standard (Murray et.al 1991: 57).

Feedback encourages people to control their own work and work for self administered approval (Odlorne in Murray et.al 1991:57). For feedback to be effective it must be based on objective appraisal, include positive reinforcement of desired behaviours and provide modeling of or instructions on those behaviours to be improved.

The mentoree can also influence the quality of the mentor coaching and feedback by asking the mentor for assistance in specific tasks. For example, if the mentoree is to make a major presentation to a prospective client, the mentoree may ask the mentor to listen to a practice session and give some pointers on how to handle potentially troublesome parts of the talk. The mentoree may also ask the mentor to sit in on the presentation and give feedback at a later time. This committed interaction initiated by the mentoree will be taken seriously by both mentor and mentoree, thereby contributing to the success of mentoring (Murray et.al 1991: 57).

c) Adequate time to work with mentoree:

Sometimes mentors become so busy with their own work, that they give the mentoree interaction low priority. When there is a time crunch the first meeting cancelled is the one with the mentoree. (Murray et.al 1991:58). This attitude can be countered if the mentors time with the mentoree is linked to performance appraisal and if the co-ordinator of training and development tracks meeting times and frequencies. The mentoring programme must help the mentor make time with the mentoree a high priority. With regular feedback, mentors can learn to use their time creatively to meet regular work demands and the needs of the mentoree. Murray et.al (1991: 58) suggests that, depending on the nature of the formal agreement, face to face meetings with the mentoree may be on a monthly basis with telephonic contact in between. The mentor who finds it difficult to keep appointments must remember that the mentoree is taking the initiative to complete extra work assignments, while the mentor has the easier, less time consuming role.

By delegating meaningful work to the mentoree, the mentor can turn the mentoree into his or her own time-saving resource. This strategy serves a two fold purpose. It gives the mentor more free time, while developing the mentoree's work skills. Delegated tasks that are a challenge offer a substantive learning experience for the mentoree (Hicks in Murray et.al 1991:59).

d) Perceived reward, benefit or payoff:

Lack of rewards for the mentor is a commonly cited obstacle to structuring the mentoring process. Most often visible gain spurs people on to make significant time and energy investment in a function that primarily benefits others. Some mentors will be amply rewarded by the knowledge that they are contributing to the growth and development of another person. Other mentors need concrete rewards to sustain their mentorship. Therefore, people tend to repeat those activities that result in some reward. It is important that rewards for mentors are built into the mentorship programme.

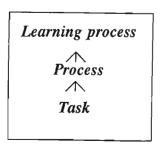
Furthermore, mentoring should be professionally recognised in the mentors performance appraisal. Promotions or financial advancement can also be a direct outcome of effort spent in mentoring. Non-financial, yet visible and powerful payoffs could include featured recognition in publications, certificates and attendance at special educational programmes.

e) Letting the mentoree take the risks necessary for learning:

When the mentor has a strong vested interest in the mentoree's success, the mentor may be tempted to take on some of the tasks of the mentoree. If a project is highly visible, the mentor may want the mentoree to look good for the mentor's sake and overstep the first line between guidance and doing work for the mentoree (Murray et.al 1991:60). Even though most learning situations have an element of

risk, experience is the best teacher. It is only through guided learning that the mentor can increase the likelihood of success for the mentoree and enhance the mentoree's self esteem. The mentor has to guide and advise, rather than perform the task for the mentoree. It is important to empower learners to make their own decisions, set their own goals and assist them to solve their own problems. In Figure 3.2 Carter and Lewis (1994:62) looked at the following ways or levels at which it is possible for the mentor to intervene in the learning process.

FIGURE 3.2 LEVELS OF INTERVENTION IN THE LEARNING PROCESS



(Carter and Lewis 1994: 62)

Task: If the learner has a very specific problem it is possible to intervene and solve that problem for them. Using his specialist knowledge, the mentor acts as a consultant and provides a solution.

Process: The mentor can teach the mentoree the process by which they can solve similar problems. The mentor develops skills to enable the learner to learn or develop correct solution finding procedure.

Learning to learn: At this level the mentor is a learning process manager who encourages the learner to teach himself or herself how to find solutions. This is the most useful and powerful level of intervention.

f) Mentor / Mentoree relationship:

Mentoring relationships go beyond normal professional working relationships. They engage the mentor and learner in a deeper and more personal way and their focus is not merely on the task on hand (Carter et.al 1994: 51).

Successful relationships must satisfy the following three core conditions (Carter et.al 1994: 52):

- i) Rapport this is the state achieved when the mentor is able to lock in to the information being provided by the other person. It involves noticing and recognising verbal and non-verbal information, understanding and appreciating the other persons point of view.
- ii) Positive regard this is being able to accept without judgement or interpretation, the other person, their personality and opinions. Accepting people for what they are is important.
- iii) Congruence this is characterised by openness, spontaneity and sincerity.

 It happens when there is consistency between our words and our behaviour.

Carter et.al (1994:53) stress the importance of being constructive, positive and honest in the way the mentor gives feedback. Feedback should focus on the behaviour not the person, observations rather than inferences, description rather than judgement and the specific rather than the general.

The level of mutual respect is also an important success criterion. According to Cunningham et.al (1993:60) mentorees place substantial value on this criterion, primarily as it relates to the mentor's willingness to permit them to become involved in challenging and stimulating work assignments. Each participant should demonstrate respect for the professional and personal integrity of each member. This view is reflected in the following statement by a mentor (Cunningham et.al 1993:50).

I had realised for quite some time that S. had the ability to reach the Director level. However, her home life was very stressful, and eventually it affected her job performance. Because I believed in her, I spent a lot of time supporting and counselling her. Eventually, things improved at home and on the job. However, after things settled down, S. began to make job-related requests and related to me in a manner which was presumptuous in nature. This placed me in a difficult spot as my peers began to drop hints that I was giving S. some kind of special treatment. I felt my own integrity as a professional was at stake.

Mutual respect for the mentor's and mentoree's shared responsibility is vital. Since the relationship is an interactive one rather than evaluative in nature, the mentoree exercises an equal responsibility in challenging and stimulating preconceived ideas and positions of the mentor. While it is the mentor's primary responsibility to render guidance and advise in the relationship, the mentoree is responsible for working hard and diligently when tasks are assigned.

g) Feelings towards the mentoree:

Occasionally, a mentor may identify so strongly with a mentoree that he or she becomes jealous and possessive. This could result in the mentor undermining the interaction between natural boss and the mentoree. A divisive situation could emanate if a mentor competes for the attention and time of the mentoree, emphasising the priority of their relationship over the mentoree's regular work duties (Murray et.al 1991:60). The whole situation can deteriorate if the mentoree has to make comparisons between mentor and the boss and the boss losses.

Murray et.al (1991:60) suggest a few techniques to keep the mentor's perspective in line. Firstly, a negotiated agreement between the mentor, mentoree and natural boss must outline the work expected of the mentoree.

Secondly, the duration of the relationship must be stated. The mentor will then be aware of the finite nature of the formal relationship.

Finally, communication channels between the three parties must be kept open, so that if possessiveness surfaces, the mentor may be reminded of the purpose of the relationship.

A subordinate who openly expresses the desire to learn, grow and advance in the organisation may be a threat to a manager at the next higher level. This may cause managers to throw obstacles in the subordinates path. Such a pitfall can be avoided in a facilitated mentoring programme by matching the mentoree with a mentor who is at least two levels higher (Murray et.al 1991:60).

h) Understanding mentoree needs:

Any mentoree has some general needs which he shares with others of similar background and situation. He also has his own personal and unique agenda and values, perceived limitations and aspirations. Recognising the needs of a person adapting to change and responding appropriately, is the mentor's challenge (Shea 1992: 34). The mentor has to provide genuine confidence - building insights and experiences. By allowing and encouraging a person to talk through his negative feelings, he or she would be able to put those feelings behind him or her.

In managing change, it is imperative that the mentoree is provided with a variety of healthy coping mechanisms to deal with the stress of change. Shea (1992: 34) refers to context shifting whereby the mentor encourages the mentoree to build a vision of what his or her world would be like if he or she successfully accomplished the desired change. In doing so, the mentoree will begin to do things which move him or her towards set goals. Helping the mentoree to shift his or her mental context from today's problems to tomorrows's success can be very productive.

Helping a mentoree grow as a person is not always straightforward or simple. A mentoree is living his or her own life, has a variety of demands from a variety of sources and is changing daily in a multitude of ways. The mentor needs to pick up subtle concerns the mentoree begins to articulate, notice some small or gradual changes which seem significant and read verbal and non-verbal signals coming from the mentoree (Shea 1992:39). Signals can be clues and cues that help is needed and even help to bring the problem to the surface of the mentoree's awareness or to define an emerging difficulty (Shea 1992: 39).

(v) <u>NEED FOR MENTORING</u>

Major social and economic trends have motivated administrators to increase the amount of structure in their mentoring processes. Murray et.al (1991:19) view some of the following needs as necessitating facilitated mentoring:

a) Need for leadership:

Nearly all leaders are highly proficient in learning from experience. Most are able to identify a small number of mentors and key experiences that powerfully shaped their philosophies, personalities, aspirations and operating styles (Bennis and Nanus in Murray et.al 1991:19).

Mentoring for leadership requires guidance from experienced managers who are wise in the ways of the organisation and have a working knowledge of the general theory of leadership at a greater depth and width than at the level on which he is expected to teach (Adair 1970: 74).

Adair (1970:72) believes that in nurturing leadership growth one may use the best fertilisers, but unless there is light and room for growth, little will be achieved. Leadership training in functions like delegating and co-ordinating requires practical and theoretical exposure.

b) Expanding awareness of performance technology:

The strategies of performance technology can be applied to the analysis and design of a facilitated mentoring programme that is targeted to fill the gap between the skill requirements for a function and its tasks, and the current skills of the job incumbent (Murray et.al 1991:22). Performance technology also provides the means for assessing the impact of the mentoring experience on the competence of the mentoree and the results of the organisation. One of the efficacies of performance technology is increased cost - effectiveness of human resource development.

c) Need to meet Affirmative Action goals:

Ordinary training and development programmes are inadequate to meet Affirmative Action goals. Targeted programmes like mentoring are more viable for mentoring the disadvantaged, especially women and minority groups, for management positions.

d) Awareness of the needs of an increasingly diverse work force:

Employees must pursue professional development and take personal responsibility for their own growth if they wish to maintain required skills. Because not many people have the requisite skills and objectivity to evaluate accurately their own development needs, employers must provide the environment and some of the resources that support this growth. With the application of Affirmative Action policies, many of those newly employed will have less ability than current employees to accurately assess their skills relevant to job requirements, especially beyond entry level positions.

Furthermore, there are significant differences in workers in multi-cultural work environments. In designing performance improvement programmes, it would be problematic to make generalisations about groups. It is important to be sensitive to the differences of people within traditional cultural classifications. Attention should also be given to individual needs and wants.

(vi) BENEFITS OF MENTORING

Effective mentoring will benefit both mentor and mentoree in the course of time. Some of the benefits include, inter alia:

a) Enhanced self esteem:

Being asked by a less experienced person to be his or her mentor suggests that the person is respected, admired and noticed in the organisation. Managers who notice others being requested to function as mentors may be stimulated to sharpen their own skills and images.

b) Revitalised interest in work:

To the open minded mentor, a mentoree can be a breath of fresh air (Murray et.al 1991:53). A mentoree can stimulate the mentor's thinking in new ways about subjects the mentor considered stale.

According to Robinson (in Murray et.al 1991: 54) managers of management development have clearer ideas about what they are learning from the experience of interacting with their mentorees over a period of time. According to a mentor, (Cunningham et.al 1993: 62) mentoring provides you with a good sense of who you have and where in the organisation these people can be most effective. This statement suggests that mentors perceive their managerial function as being inextricable with organisational effectiveness and success.

c) Close relationship with the mentoree:

Since the mentor acts as a sounding board for ideas and concerns and schedules uninterrupted time to meet with the mentoree, closeness can develop in a facilitated mentoring programme. By imparting a greater sense of purpose and serving as a role model to demonstrate successful professional behaviours, the mentor communicates with the mentoree on an emotional level, thereby fostering a closer affiliation between mentor and mentoree. Herein lies the emotional support and guidance of a safe and supportive atmosphere which benefits the mentoree.

d) Learning from experiences:

When a mentoree learns from his or her own experiences, he or she is able to learn new strategies and techniques for application to a wide variety of situations and encouraged to look beyond symptoms and uncover causes. People who have not learned how to learn from experience are less able to see patterns. They tend to rely too heavily on cause and effect thinking (Kaye et.al 1987: 25). Simply learning from experience provides individuals with the skills they will need in order to deal with recurring situations. Learning how to learn from experience means learning how to think and taking action based on one's own experiences, thoughts and feelings.

e) Development of skills:

The mentor - mentoree relationship provides the mentoree with specific insights, experiences and awareness required to perform and develop in the here and now (Cunningham et.al 1993: 63). Mentorees focus on obtaining concrete skills and competencies and acquiring work assignments which would accelerate their work assignments. This is illustrated in a statement by a mentoree in Cunningham et.al (1993: 63).

The greatest thing my supervisor did for me was to arrange a special assignment for me in another ministry. There is no way I would be here today if he had not put me into a situation where I developed certain skills I didn't even know I had.

f) Professional assistance on work projects:

In many facilitated programmes, the mentoree completes projects under the mentor's guidance and is thus an added resource for the mentor. Mentors can improve group performance by being able to keep high flyers on their team.

Halatin (in Murray et.al 1991: 55) summarises the major benefits to the mentor in the following way:

The supervisor or employee who is a mentor enjoys the intrinsic satisfaction of helping another work towards his or her goals. It is a special moment for the mentor when a subordinate achieves something towards which he or she has worked. The mentor is also able to experience a feeling of self importance from the respect given by the subordinate, the interest shown in the mentor's stories of past successes, and the treatment of his or her advice by the employee as action guidelines and principles. The respect and appreciation for past efforts by the mentor can lead to a lasting relationship between the two individuals. Through the mentoring relationship itself, mentors can gain information about the organisation and operations.

Subordinates are natural resources, often willing and eager to share their knowledge. The additional contribution to the organisation and its members made as a mentor can also be important to the mentor at evaluation time. Noted will be his or her contribution to the creation of a team spirit within the organisation.

3.3.1.3 **JOB ROTATION**

This is a method whereby trainees receive training and gain experience under close supervision. According to Skinner and Ivancevich (in Gerber et.al 1995: 510) job rotation means that managers are transferred from job to job on a systematic basis. Job assignments can last from two weeks to six months. By rotating through various jobs, learners become generalists with

a wide experience of the organisation to enable them to make high level decisions later in their careers. Job rotation cultivates in learners new approaches to establish new procedures and make changes in their existing jobs. Since trainees are moved into new jobs for short periods of time, they need to be extensively briefed as to what is expected of them and their progress must be carefully checked (Gerber et.al 1995: 510). This method enables trainees to acquire specific practical experience quickly, instead of having to wait for opportunities to present themselves over a period of time through transfers and promotions.

Wall (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick in Hamner and Schmidt 1983: 188) suggests that job rotation can be effective if managers are given instruction in how to coach and give feedback to the trainer and if training goals are set for each job assignment. The success of job rotation also depends on the job assignments being actually different so that the trainee learns more than he would by spending all his time on the job for which he was actually selected. While this method is regarded as essential in many organisations, it is expensive and may fail if supervisors are unprepared or have no interest in or time for training.

According to Smith (in Byers 1974: 153) bureaucracies, job classifications, the merit system, legislation, among others - often hamper an effective rotation system in the public sector. A successful system requires procedures for reassigning an individual from one type of work or department to another. It is complicated by factors such as differing levels of ability among trainees being rotated, the length of time an individual should spend in a given assignment and the difficulty of setting up situations mutually satisfactory to the many people involved.

According to Campbell et.al (in Hamner et.al 1983: 186) there are a number of variations in using the method of job rotation. Firstly, the trainee may be rotated through a series of non-supervisory work situations so as to acquaint him with the range of activities actually undertaken by the organisation. Although such an approach allows the trainee to learn the production end of things, many of the training positions may not offer enough of a challenge to the management trainee and may bear little relationship to the skills eventually required in the management position. Secondly, the trainee may be rotated among actual managerial positions so that he becomes proficient in the actual work he is going to manage. Thirdly, the trainee may be rotated among assistant to or acting managerial positions which aims to use actual job experience for training in administrative and supervisory skills, but with some of the risk removed. However, there is a risk that the trainee will be less involved and committed and that much of the content of the job to be learnt will be withheld from him.

3.3.1.4 **JOB INSTRUCTION**

This method teaches trainees to do a specific job and compells them to learn in a standard fashion (Gerber et.al 1995: 511). Job instruction training is particularly applicable to lower level workers since it is a quick method of expanding manual

and psychomotor skills. While it is used chiefly to impart motor skills and is especially suitable for jobs requiring routine and repetitive operations, the principles on which it is based apply equally to jobs of greater complexity and higher responsibility. The trainer must first decide what the employees are to be taught and has to ensure that the right tools, supplies and workplace are properly arranged. According to the Institute of Personnel Management Fact Sheet No 141 (in Gerber et.al 1995: 511) once this is done, trainees are instructed by means of the following four steps:

- Preparing the workers. The trainer puts the workers at ease, explains what the job is and finds out what the workers already know about it. He or she gets workers interested in learning the job.
- Presentation of the operation. The trainer now describes, demonstrates and illustrates the new operation. He or she questions the learners to be sure that they have grasped the facts. Only one step should be given at a time, and key points should be stressed. The operation should be summarised in a second practical demonstration.
- Performance try-out. The learners are asked to perform the task while the trainer asks them the why, how, when and where of the job. Instruction continues until the instructor can see that the trainees have mastered the job.

Follow-up. Trainees now work on their own but their work is checked to ensure that they follow instructions. The learners work under close supervision until they are qualified to work under normal supervision.

The job instruction training method uses the principles of distributed learning, rewards, feedback, transfer of learning to the job and individual differences.

3.3.1.5 UNDERSTUDY

This method has certain aspects common to mentoring and job rotation. According to Gerber et.al (1995: 511) understudy is the temporary assignment of a manager to a more senior manager in order to broaden his or her managerial viewpoints by exposing him or her to various aspects of managerial practice. During a short period of time, the subordinate manager closely observes the activities of the senior manager and helps him or her to perform duties and at the same time is given an opportunity to be mentored.

The understudy method provides a trainee with a broader perspective because the work he or she does during training is normally carried out by the senior manager. By giving junior managers understudy assignments, the organisation is provided with a pool of potential managers who have been carefully observed and evaluated. If the trainees were successful as understudies, they could be promoted at a later date to a higher level of authority in the organisation.

The motivation to learn is high because learning by doing is the focal point of emphasis. Furthermore, it is a more feasible and speedy method of preparing designated junior managers for increased management responsibility.

3.3.1.6 APPRENTICESHIP

This method is used to train workers in trades under the guidance of a skilled artisan. According to the Institute of Personnel Management Fact Sheet No 137 (in Gerber et.al 1995: 512) apprenticeships are characterised in South Africa by the following:

- Programmes are usually jointly planned by employers, apprentices and trainers.
- Programmes combine on-the-job experience with related technical instruction, which is usually provided by a local technical college.
- Training is directly related to human resources needs (in relation to skills and numbers).
 - Apprentices are carefully selected. Different industries require different school qualifications, the minimum usually being standard 7 or 8 or equivalent. Standard 9 is the minimum for apprencticeship as an aircraft electrician, radar technician and other advanced trades. Only those candidates are accepted who show aptitude and manual skill in the area in which they want to qualify. The minimum age to start an apprenticeship is 16 years.

- All apprentices are paid on a graduated scale which is related to their progress in learning the work.
- On-the-job work and training experience are carefully planned and supervised by skilled personnel.
- Related and supplementary technical training is provided by professional vocational teachers.
- Work experience and related technical college instruction are co-ordinated in order to ensure maximum benefit from the programme.
- The progress of the apprentice in on-the-job training and technical college studies is reviewed periodically by a joint management and technical college committee, in order to ensure acceptable performance.
- Upon completion of training, apprentices are given certificates of qualification. They are usually employed by the organisation where they were trained, which eliminates the need for job hunting and placement services.
- Training boards will be closely involved in the training of apprentices in future.

3.3.1.7 **JUNIOR BOARDS**

A more short term and less comprehensive method involves having the trainees form committees, which are given real organisational problems to tackle and solve. Problems may be selected from a number of functional areas and the trainees may be required to do a considerable amount of information gathering before suggesting a solution. The solutions given are actually utilised by the organisation (Campbell et.al in Hamner et.al 1983: 186).

The members of junior boards, mostly promising middle and junior managers, usually rotate to ensure the continuity of the board's work in the organisation. This is an effective development method only if the problems assigned to the junior board are inherent throughout the organisation and cut across all departmental lines. It is important to note that junior boards are not granted authority to take decisions but merely to investigate and analyse problems and propose solutions to top management.

3.3.2 OFF-THE-JOB TRAINING

Off-the-job training is usually done in a classroom situation. It can be on the premises of the organisation but away from the learner's place of work or it can be totally removed from the organisation. These methods may also be described as classroom or simulation methods since they simulate real life situations.

3.3.2.1 **VESTIBULE**

It is a term used to designate training in a classroom for semi skilled production and clerical jobs (Beach 1985: 251). It is an appropriate training method when a large number of employees must be trained at the same time for the same kind of work. An attempt is made to duplicate as close as possible the actual material, equipment and conditions found in a real workplace. Theory can more easily be presented in a vestibule school than on-the-job since the learning conditions are carefully controlled. According to the Institute of Personnel Management Fact Sheet No 137 (in Gerber et.al 1995: 518) vestibule training is appropriate when the job to be learnt involves the operation of one machine or repetitive processes or is performed in an area too full of distractions to permit effective learning.

An advantage of this style of training is that it affords the trainee the opportunity to obtain practical experience without being exposed to the tensions of the actual working situation. The problem with the application of knowledge in the working situation is thus cancelled out, because recruits use the actual equipment and follow the relevant methods and procedures.

3.3.2.2 **LECTURE**

Lecture methods are a good choice for presenting a great deal of information efficiently, stressing underlying principles and highlighting the internal organisation of the material presented. However, they tend to lack participation, feedback and direct connection to the work environment (Van Wart et.al 1993: 162).

There are five major lecture methods: Standard lectures, team teaching, guest speakers, panels and student presentations.

(i) STANDARD LECTURES

In the standard lecture format, the trainer talks while the audience listens. Main ideas can easily be stressed and summarised. Ideally, trainees hearing a lecture should have good listening skills and a fairly consistent range of abilities and experiences. The trainer must have strong basic lecturing skills and the power to hold the trainees attention. This means that the trainer must have credibility in the content area and a good mastery of presentation skills to ensure interesting delivery (Van Wart et.al 1993: 162).

The needs analysis which reveals discrepancies in the knowledge and abilities of the participants, guides the trainer in preparing the lecture. Van Wart et.al (1993: 164) have listed the following pros and cons of standard lectures:

Pros

- * Are good with medium to large groups
- * Are cost effective
- * Are familiar to everyone
- * Effectively convey general information
- * Efficiently present a large amount of material rapidly and in an organised fashion
- * Are easily integrated with other methods
- * Are easy to preplan
- * Help cognitive learners

Cons

- * Do not deal with individual differences
- * Are highly passive for learners
- * Do not utilize learners expertise or experience
- * Can easily become boring to many listeners
- * Are not good for specific job skills
- * Appeal to few of participants' sensory channels
- * Are limited in transfer of learning to work place
- * Make it difficult for trainer to judge participants' progress

(ii) TEAM TEACHING

Several formats for team teaching are possible (Van Wart et.al 1993: 164). Different instructors may present different topics or two instructors may teach different aspects of the same subject. However, if the topic is highly technical, different experts can add complementary expertise to the presentation. Van Wart et.al (1993: 165) have indicated some of the following pros and cons of team teaching:

Pros

- * Is more dynamic and more interesting to participants than the standard lecture: other strengths similar to standard lecture
- * Is helpful for breaking up long training sessions
- * Brings more expertise and alternate perspectives to the training
- * Is excellent for training new instructors

Cons

- * Takes more time to co-ordinate than a standard lecture
- * Uses too many resources for many "bread and butter" training topics
- * Does not deal with individual differences
- * Does not utilize learner expertise
- * Makes it difficult for trainers to judge participants' progress

(iii) GUEST SPEAKERS

Guest speakers can be the primary means of conveying the desired learning objectives, but they are frequently used to augment a standard lecture format and other teaching methods. Two types of programmes use guest speakers as a primary training method (Van Wart et.al 1993: 166): One format is short so that all guest speakers can be asked to participate in the entire programme. This format is usually used for all or part of an orientation programme, with department heads introducing their areas.

The second format is longer, not requiring presenter overlap but uses a full time training co-ordinator to arrange the programme, coach the speakers to avoid repetition and monitor and modify the programme. Some of the following pros and cons of guest speakers have been suggested by Van Wart et.al (1993: 166):

Pros

- * Have similar advantages to standard lecture
- * Provide a break from the regular lecturer
- * May provide an alternative viewpoint
- * May provide special subject-matter expertise

Cons

- * Can take a lot of preparation time for trainer
- * May not know audience and may misdirect comments or level of presentation
- * May not stay within time limits
- * May cancel or appear late, necessitating alternate plans by trainer

(iv) PANELS

There are two major types of panels: sequential and moderated (Van Wart et.al 1993: 167). Sequential panels use two or more speakers who speak in succession. Speakers prepare the content of their talks in advance and may or may not modify their remarks based on what other speakers say. The panel format ensures a high degree of human interaction by introducing a variety of expert opinions after the group has discussed the basic issues.

The moderated panel is based on discussion rather than reporting. The interaction of speakers is far more extensive and the facilitator is more able to steer the conversation and keep the discussion on track than in the sequential format.

According to Van Wart <u>et.al</u> (1993: 167) a well moderated panel requires panelists to probe complex issues and provide succinct answers.

Another variant of the traditional panel is to have two small panels, one composed of invited subject matter experts and the other composed of participants who pose questions. This format requires panels to be kept small, the preparation of questions in advance by the interviewing panel and the provision of brief answers by the subject matter experts.

Some of the pros and cons of panels include the following (Van Wart et.al 1993: 167):

Pros

- * Are more dynamic than the standard lecture
- * Reveal different perspectives on a topic
- * Are best with audiences who are relatively knowledgeable about a topic prior to the panel
- * Rarely involve fees for high-prestige panellists
- * Can be organised into a more academic style sequential format or a more news-style moderator format, depending on the circumstances

Cons

- * Take a lot of time to arrange
- * Can get off track
- * Are not as good at covering the basics of a topic
- * Rarely present material in the well-organised fashion of a standard lecture

(v) <u>STUDENT PRESENTATIONS</u>

According to Van Wart <u>et.al</u> (1993: 169) three rules are critical for student presentations involving a few of the students in deciding what material is to be presented and in the actual presentation.

Firstly, the guidelines for the trainees must be clear and in writing. Secondly, the time for the presentation must be limited and without exception. Although the time limitation may be a difficult aspect, the discipline involved in meeting a time limit is also an important aspect of learning. Thirdly, the trainer must stress that the presentations are an important aspect of the programme. Some of the pros and cons of student presentations include the following (Van Wart et.al 1993: 169):

Pros

- * Give participants good practice in making presentations
- * Allow participants to set goals
- * Require participants to manipulate the material
- * Bring enthusiasm and variety to the learning situation
- * Can help trainees learn to work together and be less intimidated in making presentations

Cons

- * Can be rambling and boring
- * Can give inaccurate or misleading information
- * May be inferior to other lecture techniques in presenting general principles and in organisation of material

- * Can take a prohibitive amount of time in a class of limited duration
- * Are difficult for trainees who do not like talking to a group
- * May be only tangentially related to the overall training subject

From a discussion of the pros and cons of the different lecture methods, it can be stated that the lecture method must be used sparingly and with due regard for its shortcomings. The lecture method can be gainfully considered for the presentation of new material or when summarising material developed by another instruction method (Campbell et.al in Hamner et.al 1983: 178).

3.3.2.3 CONFERENCE

This method emphasises small group discussion whereby the leader provides guidance and feedback rather than instruction (Campbell et.al in Hamner et.al 1983: 178). The conference method usually aims to develop problem solving and decision making capabilities, present new and complex material and modify attitudes. The learner actively participates by means of verbal discussion with other group members. Feedback to the participant regarding his performance and attitude is an important aspect of the conference method. It may be provided by the leader, other participants or a trained observer.

Learning is facilitated through building upon the ideas contributed by the conferees. The very success of a conference is dependent upon contributions by the learners. They are not forced to submit passively to the instructors viewpoints. The conference is ideally suited to tearing apart problems and issues and examining them from different viewpoints. According to Beach

(1985: 252) it is an excellent procedure for reducing dogmatism and modifying attitudes. Since the trainees participated in developing solutions and reaching conclusions, the conferees are usually willing to accept these conclusions.

Criticisms of the conference method as a training technique center around its inability to cover adequate content in a reasonable length of time, the frequent lack of organisation and an emphasis on demonstrating verbosity rather than learning.

Thus, the success of this method depends strongly on the conference leader, who must be sure that those present have an opportunity to participate, that divergent views are presented, feedback is not unduly negative and that discussions proceed towards the stated objectives. Some organisations change conference leaders so that more than one person can learn from the experience of conference leadership (Holley et.al 1987: 297).

3.3.2.4 CASE STUDIES

In case studies, conditions and problems in a simulated organisation setting are described on paper to the trainee. Trainees are expected to identify reasons for the problems and offer solutions to them. Trainees usually work through the steps of problem identification and analysis, development of alternative solutions and selection of the most appropriate solution. Thereafter the solution and its justification are presented to the group where it is discussed and defended (Holley et.al 1987: 296).

Case studies can be used in either of two ways (Beach 1985: 253). Firstly, they can be used after the presentation of formal theory. In this way students must apply their theory and knowledge to specific situations. Secondly, cases may be assigned to students for written analysis and/or oral class discussions without prior explanation of the theory, whereby they are expected to derive useful generalisations and principles.

The case method provides trainees with an opportunity to test their ideas against the views of others and to learn how to approach more effectively than before the problems of administration in their own organisation. He evaluates solutions not only in terms of his own job, but also in terms of other jobs in the organisation as a whole. The trainee develops skills in analysing problems and applying principles within the framework of the policies of his own organisation in order to get realistic, workable and effective solutions.

For the training to be effective, the discussion leader must know when to lead and when to be just another member of the group, letting the group find its way without much direction from him.

It is important to establish a free, open, informal atmosphere of inquiry during the discussion period. The case study method becomes a real human relations laboratory in which members may learn much about interpersonal behaviour (Smith in Byers 1974: 167).

In analysing the case, the group looks at relevant factors like procedures, rules and methods. The conferees should learn to apply the same habits of critical analysis and probing curiosity to both their activities in the discussion group and to their work situations.

Advocates of the case study method point out that discovery is more meaningful and that general principles generated by the trainees themselves are learnt better and remembered longer.

The case study method of instruction provides for learning by doing. Good cases are usually based upon real experiences and problem situations. Therefore student interest tends to be high. Narrow-mindedness is reduced because the trainees soon learn that others have studied the identical problem and come up with different patterns of analysis and solution. The case method is ideal for integrating the knowledge obtained from a number of foundation disciplines (Holley et.al 1987: 253).

Advocates of this method believe that working through cases helps trainees develop or improve several skills like enhanced abilities to execute logical and systematic analysis.

The case method focuses on an analysis of the typical situation, thereby causing the trainees to apply their problem solving skills. It also focuses on true to life organisational problems which allows the trainees to discuss it without the fear of political consequences.

Some of the limitations of the case method include the following (Holley <u>et.al</u> 1987: 254):

It is difficult to write or find a case statement which is completely realistic;

- The amount of detail that the reader must wade through before getting down to the real issue or issues in a case report frequently tires, bores or confuses him;
- If trainees are to learn anything from a case, they must apply the principles they have learned to everyday situations in their jobs. There is a tendency to become engrossed in the case they are studying and it takes a skilled leader to get the group to relate it to the problems and the practicalities of their regular work;
- Requires participants who are relatively sophisticated, are willing to do the preparation, have strong language skills and are well motivated;
- The inability of the method to teach general principles and the general lack of guided instruction concerning the inferences the trainees draw from discussion of the case.

3.3.2.5 ROLE-PLAYING

This method is primarily used to give trainees an opportunity to learn human relations skills through practice and to develop insight into their behaviour and its effects upon others. Trainees physically act out a specific role, applying the theory instead of merely thinking passively about it. In role-playing there are no rehearsals, because situations must be spontaneously acted out. A realistic representation should be allowed to develop, especially when the topic deals with human relations (Gerber et.al 1995: 515).

The success of role-playing depends on the ability of the role players to actually adopt the roles specified in the case problem and to react to the actions of the other players just as they would if they were in the work situation. It makes learners aware of their attitudes towards others and creates opportunities to improve the learners ability to deal with human relation issues. It is imperative that the learner has a positive attitude towards change otherwise the exercise will not be successful.

According to Smith (in Byers 1974: 161) role-playing involves the following steps:

- (i) How to set up a role playing exercise identify a significant and important problem to the training group. The problem can be selected in advance of the training session or may develop spontaneously from the groups discussions;
- (ii) Set the stage for action the situation that is the subject of the role playing exercise is described;
- (iii) Brief the role players this may be done orally or in writing, giving the role players a picture of the situation and ensuring that each one understands the role he is to play as well as the role of the other person. None of the role players should be told how to act or what to say, but simply instruct them to play their roles as they think a person in that role in real life would act and speak;

- (iv) Stage the action the actors start to talk and act out their roles;
- (v) Stop the action the leader must be ready to halt the action at the appropriate moment. This could be when:
- the discussion between the players begins to lag, to become repetitive, to wander to extraneous issues, or when they reach an impasse;
- one or the other player begins to become emotionally upset or distressed, or so involved in the role that he begins to reveal deep-seated attitudes or emotions in a way which may embarrass himself or others;
- one or the other player withdraws from the role and starts talking "himself";
- enough interaction has occurred so that the group can analyse the problem it has identified;
- it becomes fairly obvious what would happen if the action were to continue;
- the players reach a conclusion, a solution, or an agreement of some sort.

It is better to stop the action too soon rather than too late. More learning takes place in the evaluation stage which follows; ordinarily the leader should not allow the role enactment to run beyond a few minutes.

- (vi) Evaluate the action here the role players and observers analyse the human relations implications after the enactment and use their learning to solve similar problems in the real world. The leader's responsibility is as follows:
 - Give the role players a chance to talk first. Each should be allowed and encouraged to tell the other and the group how he felt in the role, the extent to which he was able to think and feel like the person whose role he played, why he said and did what he did. Permitting the players to be defensive if they wish protects them from feelings of insecurity which they might otherwise have.
 - Guide analysis toward the problem and away from evaluation of the acting ability of the players or the realism of their performance;
 - Have the players and group focus on what they learned about their own behaviour as a result of the exercise;
 - Have the trainees understand and accept the attitudes and feelings of others;
 - Lead the group to examine alternative modes of behaviour with which they might wish to experiment, either in future role-playing exercises, or in their own dealings with others on a real life level.

Apart from being a most inexpensive method, role-playing permits trainees to experiment with various kinds of behaviour in a laboratory setting, to make mistakes, to learn from their mistakes and to avoid the hurts that are usually felt when one experiments in real life situations.

3.3.2.6. INCIDENT PROCESS

This method provides the trainees with only a sketchy outline of a particular process. The trainees are required to ask the trainer questions to get additional information necessary to resolve the problem presented in the incident. When the trainees have adequate information or when they can think of no more questions, they develop a solution based on the information given and their analysis of it. At the conclusion the trainer tells the trainees all the information that would have been available if all the right questions had been asked. Finally, the solution based on all the information is compared with the trainees solutions and appropriate learning principles are discussed.

According to Holley <u>et.al</u> (1987:297) the role of the trainer at this stage is critical because trainees tend to become more concerned with finding the solution to the incident than with focusing on the principles to be learned from the exercise.

3.3.2.7. PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION

According to Pressey, Skinner and Associates (Smith in Byers 1974: 151) the most efficient and permanent learning takes place when a student goes through a series of small steps ... travels at his own pace ... makes an active

response at each step and receives immediate confirmation of the correctness of his response. Programmed instruction material based on these principles is intended to change the behaviour of the trainee.

Before writing the material, the programmer must determine what the trainee should be able to do at the end of the training. Thus, the programme is designed to meet behavioural objectives.

The trainee is led step by step, using a workbook or some mechanical device. Each step sometimes called a frame, contains a specific amount of information or a question to which he makes an active response such as writing an answer in a blank space (Smith in Byers 1974: 151). After his response at each step, the trainee learns whether his answer is correct or not. Learning is reinforced if the learner is informed that he has made a correct response. If the response was incorrect, the trainee may be told why and instructed to go back to the step once more, selecting a different answer. Working his way through the programme in this manner, the trainee at the end should be able to fulfil the behavioural objectives of the programme.

According to Smith (in Byers 1974: 151) any programmed instruction should meet the following two criteria:

(i) Efficiency - It should be simple to administer, and should increase productivity, resulting in lower training costs per hour per trainee.

(ii) Effectiveness - It should change the behaviour of the trainee. His performance is the best measure of the program's effectiveness.

When using programmed learning materials, consideration must be given to cost and the effectiveness of the method in reaching specific objectives. A high degree of learner motivation is necessary for fast and effective learning. Programmed instruction provides knowledge rather than skills. This method is useful for learning concepts, especially in relation to human interaction.

The advantages that have been claimed for programmed instruction are that it recognises individual differences by allowing each individual to set his own pace, requires that the learner be active, provides immediate knowledge of results and forces the individuals doing teaching to break down the topic into meaningful elements and then present these elements in a sequence conducive to optimal learning. The programme also has a great deal of operating feasibility.

3.3.2.8 BUZZ GROUPS

This method involves many people in discussion in small groups. Thus it encourages participation and discussion of ideas which otherwise might not emerge.

Smith (in Byers 1974: 159) lists some of the following elements essential for successful and effective discussion in buzz groups:

- (i) Specific objectives what do you hope to accomplish by this method?
- (ii) Well-defined issues, problems or propositions for discussion; these must be clear to the discussants.
- (iii) Facilities suitable to small group discussion without distraction.
- (iv) Leaders who can keep the discussion on the track and can draw group members into discussion without dominating or allowing others to do so.
- (v) A pulling together of the fruits of the discussion from the groups.
- (vi) A leader who can bring the discussion to some conclusions on the questions,

 What have we learned from these discussions and where do we go from

 here?

A buzz group can allow an individual to retain anonymity in his group, since the buzz group's spokesman will express a group view, not an individual one (Rae 1983: 55). This anonymity is the key factor of buzz groups since they are especially valuable at the start of a course when views are less likely to come out into the open than later in the course when the individuals are no longer strangers.

If the duties of the chairman and recorder are rotated, many individuals get practice in leadership, speaking before groups, and dealing with interpersonal relationships among group members. Thus, buzz groups provide training for sizeable numbers.

3.3.2.9 *IN-BASKET*

This method consists of presenting the trainee with a description of a managerial role he is to assume and an In-basket containing items like customer complaints, statements and requests for advice. The In-basket items resemble a realistic operating situation with a variety of problems of varying complexity (Campbell et.al in Hamner et.al 1983: 185). The trainee is expected to work through the In-basket, making decisions and giving advice whenever necessary. The crux of the training is in the follow up discussions, which allow the trainer and trainees to evaluate and interpret what each trainee did.

The simulation exercise is designed to develop decision making, problemsolving and organising ability by placing the trainee at the desk of the manager and determine how well the trainee performs in this situation.

However, no attention is paid to learning new facts, human relations attitudes or interpersonal skills.

A variant of the In-basket technique is the Kepner-Tregoe approach, in which four trainees operate together as members of an organisation (Holley et.al 1987: 297). Each trainee has an In-basket of work. The four In-baskets are intended to stimulate an interrelated set of organisational problems typical of those faced by any management group. The trainees interact to obtain relevant information as quickly as possible. The critique session is the heart of the training. The main objective is still to teach problem solving and decision making skills.

3.3.2.10 **GAMES**

Business games attempt to represent the economic functioning of an organisation (Campbell et.al in Hamner et.al 1983: 184). The game consists of a set of specified relationships or rules. These relationships describe how variation in the inputs to a firm (equipment, people, capital) coupled with variation in certain mediating factors (wage rates, amount spent on research and development) influences the organisation's output.

The trainees play the game by making decisions. The objective is to teach general decision making skills or to convey information as to how an organisation operates. In either case, the trainee eventually needs to understand the interrelationships between the various units in an organisation and the effects of a decision in one department on other departments.

Campbell <u>et.al</u> (in Hamner <u>et.al</u> 1983: 184) list some of the following criticisms of games:

- Games do not allow for the novel approach and may teach an overdependence on certain kinds of decisions unless they are a balanced representation of the real world;
- If the game is too realistic, trainees may play with such enthusiasm that the training objectives fall into oblivion;
- Participants may also spend too much time trying to uncover gimmicks in the model which can be exploited.

Holley et.al (1987: 296) advocate that the realism of the game is diminished because of the fixed set of relationships programmed into the game. Furthermore, members within each competing group may let the more aggressive members make most of decisions, thereby reducing some member's training experience.

Some of the advantages of games include the following (Holley et.al 1987: 297):

- games allow considerable transfer of training to the job because they can mirror real life in organisations;
- games are intrinsically motivating and create considerable involvement and interest;
- if a group makes a mistake that costs their hypothetical organisation a few million rands, they do not lose their jobs in real life. They will however learn to exercise caution when making decisions in real life situations.

3.3.2.11 <u>COMPUTER ASSISTED INSTRUCTION</u>

This method is an extension of programmed instruction and takes advantage of the speed, memory and data manipulation of computers. The learner's response determines the level of difficulty of the next frame, which can be selected and displayed almost immediately (Gerber et.al 1995: 519).

Some of the advantages of this method include the following (Molander and Winterton 1994: 83):

- It not only provides for interaction between the material and the learner which is time saving, but also offers the opportunity for instant feedback which reinforces learning;
- Computer assisted instruction prevents passive learning and allows for some control of the learning process by the learner;
- There is limited dependence on an instructor;
- This method can be effectively combined with video and audiotape materials, providing considerable flexibility in directing the learner through various phases of learning;
- Realistic work environments can be imitated on the computer.

Some of the disadvantages include the great deal of time required for preparation and high costs if the number of trainees are small in number.

3.3.3 ON-THE-JOB TRAINING VERSUS OFF-THE-JOB TRAINING.

On-the-job training methods usually fit the needs of a particular employee and suits his or her background, knowledge and skills. Trainees learn by doing, they learn continuously and over a long period. Trainees are extensively influenced by their immediate superior.

According to Ferrell and Hirt (in Gerber et.al 1995: 510) on-the-job methods allow workers to learn by actually performing the tasks of the job. New employees work under the guidance of an experienced employee who can offer advice and suggestions for performing the job efficiently and effectively.

Off-the-job training methods allow trainees to view their jobs and their organisations from a fresh perspective. It positively influences their perception of their job and how it fits into the activities of the organisation. Furthermore, trainees have the opportunity to learn new theories and practices which may not be available in the work situation.

Some of the major disadvantages of off-the-job training methods include the following (Gerber et.al 1995: 514):

- Training is usually given to mixed groups and is not tailored to a particular trainee's needs;
- Learning by doing is very limited, as the activities are removed from the actual job situation;
- Off-the-job training is usually over a short period of time, as work pressures do not allow for lengthy periods away from work;
- Attempts are made to teach trainees over a short period of time to change their behaviour and there is limited or no follow-up.

The above shortcomings can be overcome by on-the-job-training since it is appropriate for knowledge and skills that can be taught in a short time, while the trainee can learn on the actual equipment and in the environment of the job.

In an attempt to show the overriding advantages of on-the-job training compared to off-the-job training, Molander et.al (1994:81) refer to the following general principle of learning theory:

The further removed from the workplace, the greater the problem of transference. This means the all-important carry-over of knowledge from the learning point to the work point. The further the distance, the less likely is the trainee to see the relevance to the work and the more likely is the training to be abstract and too generalised to make for easy practical application.

Training removed from the job environment has a tendency to become knowledge based rather than skills based. It is not possible to develop skills merely by talking about them. Furthermore, it is not easy to involve the trainee's line manager in the training process.

Training away from the workplace also tends to be more difficult to manage administratively.

In the light of the above discussion, it is clear that the most effective and economical training is that which takes place close to the job.

3.4 SUMMARY

A variety of training and development methods can be used. It is important to decide which method or methods best meet the needs of the individual, organisation or task.

Cognisance needs to be taken of factors like cost, number of trainees and frequency of training when deciding on the most suitable training method.

Virtually every employee gets some on-the-job training in his or her organisation. This is why on-the-job training is the most popular, the most widely accepted and the most necessary method of training employees in the skills essential for acceptable job performance (Dessler 1981: 194).

Petrini (1990: 15) highlights the importance of selecting the appropriate training and development method in the following lines:

When all is said and done in a training course, what was said and done doesn't do any good if trainees don't use it when they get back to the job. The world's most informative seminar can use state-of-the-art technology to teach employees a new way to make widgets (or count 'em, or sell 'em, or tell people about 'em) but it's all for naught if trainees continue to use the old methods.

It is therefore imperative that the trainer has more than one tool in his kit and be able to choose the appropriate tool or tools for the job at hand.

CHAPTER 4

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT : AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Since 1948, apartheid in South Africa has enforced the practice of the policy of divide and rule. Institutions of government were created on racial lines, lacked transparency, accountability and administrative efficiency.

The present non-racial and democratic government will have to strive towards redressing past discriminatory legislation and backlogs in education and training. Therefore education and training for the future non-racial and non-sexist democratic society will have to be linked to Affirmative Action. Training and development as an Affirmative Action strategy can be used to empower the disadvantaged, while ensuring that appointments are based on meritocracy.

Nelson Mandela in his opening statement to the ANC Conference on Affirmative Action in Port Elizabeth in October 1991 (in Human 1993: 3) argued that the primary aims of affirmative action must be to redress the imbalances created by apartheid ... We are not ... asking for handouts for anyone. Nor are we saying that just as a white skin was a passport to privilege in the past, so a black skin should be the basis of privilege in the future. Nor is it our aim to do away with qualifications. What we are against is not the upholding of standards as such but the sustaining of barriers to the attainment of standards, the special measures that we envisage to overcome the legacy of past discrimination, are not intended to ensure the advancement of unqualified persons, but to see to it that those who have

been denied access to qualifications in the past can become qualified now, and that those who have been qualified all along but overlooked because of past discrimination, are at last given their due ... The first point to be made is that affirmative action must be rooted in principles of justice and equity.

Affirmative Action must be seen as a temporary intervention designed to achieve equal employment opportunity and without unduly tramelling the career aspirations or expectations of current organisational members (Human 1993:3). The implication of Human's statement is that Affirmative Action should not be viewed as reverse discrimination where groups previously discriminated against are accorded preferential treatment with regard to recruitment, selection, promotion and development. An obsession with numbers and quotas according to sex and race can easily be regarded as tokenism, which may have an adverse influence on the country in the long term (Gerber et.al 1995: 185).

Rather a broad approach to Affirmative Action should create opportunities through which people, irrespective of race, colour or creed can make technological, managerial and leadership skills available to fulfil the needs of the country.

Joubert (in Gerber et.al 1995: 186) supports this view in the following statement:

If we see Affirmative Action merely as the replacement of white labour with black labour to redress inequality and injustices we have no chance of improving South Africa' competitiveness. If, however, we assess South Africa's skills profile in the context of leading developing and even developed countries of the world and determine what must be done at an international, national, company and individual level to improve our skills base, we will be on the road to improvement and success.

This chapter focuses on the following aspects:

- Reconstruction and Development Programme.
- Objectives of an Affirmative Action Strategy.
- Affirmative Action: An International Perspective.
- Issues to be Addressed for an Affirmative Action Programme.
- Training and Development Within an Affirmative Action Framework.
- Guidelines for the Successful Implementation of Affirmative Action.
- Application of Affirmative Action in South Africa.

4.2 RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994:7) is a policy framework for integrated and coherent socio-economic progress. It seeks to mobilise our people and our country's resources towards the final eradication of the results of apartheid. Its goals is to build a democratic, non-racial and non-sexist future.

There is provision in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994:33) inter alia, for Affirmative Action:

(i) The GNU aims not only to address disparities created by apartheid, but also to establish a proactive programme which will serve to eradicate racism, gender inequality and other forms of inequality. Such a programme will be implemented within the framework of the Constitution and the need to empower the disadvantaged communities. The Public Service that develops should be broadly representative of the South African community. All levels of government will be expected to implement this policy. While it is the duty

of the State to create a representative Public Service, implementation will be effected in co-operation with the employee organisation representatives within the public sector. This will require fair and equitable conditions of employment to regulate conduct at the workplace.

- (ii) Special programmes based on accelerated development and on a review of the criteria for recruitment and promotion will be designed to address the under-representation of specific categories of persons at different levels of the Public Service. This process will be supplemented by the promotion of the Public Service as a career amongst the under-represented groups.
- (iii) All employee organisations in the Public Service have expressed strong support for these Constitutional demands. Affirmative Action will only be effective if the present rules governing qualifications for positions and for salary notches are reviewed. The present rules, which require formal qualifications and penalise applicants who have not previously had access to the Public Service, have the effect of perpetuating discrimination. The measures pertaining to personnel practices and salary recognition, will have to be reviewed to accommodate those who have not had access to the Public Service. There are at present very many capable women in the Public Service. Very few are in senior positions. Their positions must be addressed by means of special programmes and a review of previous promotion practices.
- (iv) An all-embracing, integrated framework for Affirmative Action is also being established to assist both public and private sector organisations. This approach will extend beyond employment opportunities, into many other aspects of socio-economic life, including geographical inequalities.

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (1994:34) also focuses on the need for training in the transformation process:

- (i) The training and retraining of public sector employees is central in the transformation process. The Public Service Commission is restructuring the Training Institute, focusing on research and development, training and international comparative programmes. Modules will be developed to meet the needs of both the Public Service and the wider society. Critical to this will be the introduction of educational programmes in project management, and the introduction of administrative and human rights law issues, to enhance RDP implementation and management. This will entail widening the availability of institute training facilities to extend into civil society, and also extending the skills taught so that they become transferable between the Government and civil society. Accreditation of Institute training programmes will occur within the context of the National Qualifications Framework.
- (ii) The Training Board for Local Government Bodies has an equally important role to play in respect of the training and retraining of local government and councillors.
- (iii) It is important that there be co-operation between national and provincial governments on training, to avoid unnecessary, duplicated expenditure on consultants to conduct civil service training at provincial level.

4.3 OBJECTIVES OF AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGY

Without defining general objectives of Affirmative Action, there is little chance of extending Affirmative action policies beyond the rectification of existing wage and work disparities (Levy in Cloete and Mokgoro 1995: 76).

According to Human (1993: 47) the detailed contents of Affirmative Action strategies would involve the formulation of objectives to eradicate problem areas identified during an assessment of the organisation's current status in relation to employment equity and the formulation of objectives to achieve a more representative workforce.

Human (1993: 47) mentions some of the following broad objectives of an Affirmative Action strategy:

- a continuing strategic commitment to Affirmative Action as a means of creating employment equity;
- a continuing and active commitment by top management to the implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of the Affirmative Action strategy;
- the development and utilisation of meaningful workforce, succession, and career planning systems;
- the measurement and appraisal of line management in relation to Affirmative Action objectives;

- a critical analysis of current selection, recruitment, and promotion procedures, and the development of procedures which more aggressively address problems relating to under-representation;
- the training of managers in people management skills and in managing diversity;
- the development of a code of conduct in relation to behaviours relating to race and gender; this would include a policy on sexual harassment and a set of disciplinary procedures for dealing with recalcitrant employees;
- a critical analysis of current training and development policies and procedures and the development of objectives to ensure that these are consistent with, and linked to, other Affirmative Action objectives;
- a critical analysis of the human resources function and the development of a mission and strategy to support line managers in all aspects of the management of human resources and their related Affirmative Action components;
- a critical analysis of current social responsibility programmes with a view to linking some of these to efforts to expand the qualified labour force by working with schools and communities;
- monitoring and evaluation;
- the maintenance of records and reports in relation to Affirmative Action;
- details of the roles and responsibilities of employees at various levels;

- procedures for communicating strategy, roles, and responsibilities, and monitoring and evaluation procedures;
- the eradication of other discriminatory policies, procedures and practices which impact negatively on the recruitment, development, promotion, and retention of blacks and women;
- the development of policies and practices which facilitate the employment of women (and perhaps some men) - for example, improved maternity and paternity leave, more flexible working arrangements, and job sharing.

4.4 AFFIRMATIVE ACTION: AN INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE

The Affirmative Action models used in India, Sri Lanka, Malaysia, Namibia and the United States of America will be outlined:

4.4.1 INDIA

At the time of independence in India, there were two main programmes developed. One was Affirmative Action or positive discrimination, while the other was a programme of land reform (Charlton and Van Niekerk 1994: 40).

The Affirmative Action programme was successful in that it focused on the most disadvantaged sections of society and bridged the gaps in elementary and secondary education (Charlton et.al 1994: 40).

A shortcoming of the Indian model is that the government which had total control over positive discrimination, introduced a programme of coercive Affirmative Action across the board. According to Thompson (in Charlton et.al 1994: 40) in India it was advantageous to be socially or educationally backward since millions benefit from the programme. Thompson (in Charlton et.al 1994: 40) suggests a more focused approach, instead of entire groups benefitting which is open to abuse.

In view of the mistakes of the model used in India, Charlton et.al (1994: 40) has put forward the following recommendations:

- Positive discrimination should not be used as an instrument for creating a balance of power since it becomes self-defeating;
- There has to be distinct inequalities between groups which the programme should address. If there are minor disparities, Affirmative Action leads only to a power struggle;
- Because of the law of decreasing resources, any Affirmative Action programme must be politically and economically driven;

4.4.2 SRI LANKA

The Affirmative Action programme in Sri Lanka successfully impacted on the overall state of health, education and quality of life in rural communities (Charlton et.al 1994:4).

This shows that even a third world country with limited resources can improve the quality of life.

The Sri Lankan experience highlights the importance of adapting policies adequately to local circumstances.

4.4.3 MALAYSIA

Malaysia made significant moves in implementing Affirmative Action when the minority Chinese government and the Malay majority, envisaging a coalition government, set up a comprehensive plan to implement Affirmative Action while still maintaining economic standards (Charlton et.al 1994: 42). High rates of economic growth contributed largely to the success of Affirmative Action since there were adequate distribution of resources.

The point of contention is the extent to which Affirmative Action fostered economic growth and how much political stability was essential for economic growth (Charlton et.al 1994: 42).

However, without political and economical stability Affirmative Action will be hindered.

4.4.4 NAMIBIA

The Namibian model requires employers to give preferential treatment to suitably qualified persons in designated groups.

The model requires the following (Charlton et.al 1994: 42):

the appointment of a senior member of staff in each company to oversee Affirmative Action programmes;

- action to eliminate or revise practices which tend to discriminate against persons in the designated groups;
- the setting up of numerical goals that the employer hopes to achieve;
- the establishment of procedures to monitor the attainment of these goals.

According to Swanepoel (in Gerber et.al 1995: 198) the challenge facing Namibian (and South African) employers is therefore not so much to merely design and implement Affirmative Action programmes, but more to formulate and implement comprehensive and sophisticated total employment strategies which can facilitate empowerment.

The Namibian model is more comprehensive in that it requires a more sophisticated internal mechanism of monitoring and control.

4.4.5 UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The Civil Rights Act Title VIII (Schmidt and Noe in Gerber et.al 1995: 194) spells out equal opportunities as follows:

It shall be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to fail or refuse to hire or discharge any individual, or otherwise to discriminate against any individual with respect to his compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment, because of such individual's race, colour, religion, sex or national origin....

Affirmative Action as an anti-discriminatory measure is compulsory by law. The counter-productive results of Affirmative Action in the United States of America include the following (Savell in Gerber et.al 1995: 193).

- The least privileged black people are even worse off with Affirmative Action than before, while the more privileged black people rapidly increase their economic status;
- Reverse discrimination takes place because the demand for qualified black people is higher than the demand for qualified white people. In 1980, graduated black couples earned more than graduated white couples.

Reynolds (in Gerber et.al 1995: 193) argues that window dressing, whereby incompetent candidates are merely employed to show numbers indicative of support for Affirmative Action, is encouraged by legislation, thus hampering effective Affirmative Action.

Historically, in the United States of America, the development of black people was conceptualised simply in terms of putting knowledge and skills into black people and then expecting them to function in a white world which remains fundamentally unchanged (Human 1993: 28).

4.5 ISSUES TO BE ADDRESSED FOR AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PROGRAMME

No one Affirmative Action strategy is common to all organisations. Some general principles exist, but the activities required to support these general principles will vary from organisation to organisation. The following issues require some consideration:

(i) <u>AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AUDIT</u>

According to Human (1993: 17) the audit assesses the organisation's current status in relation to Affirmative Action. The assessment involves an investigation into the workforce composition, policies, practices, attitudes and perceptions.

a) WORKFORCE COMPOSITION PROFILE

The first step in collecting and analysing workforce statistics is to determine the workforce profile regarding job title, salary, race and sex (Human 1993: 20). This analysis will provide greater clarity on representation of the different races and sexes in higher level positions and the extent to which equal pay for equal work is practised.

In the second step, the information collected during the workforce profile is divided into broad job groupings. This process indicates the extent to which disadvantaged groups fall at the bottom of the hierarchy, are concentrated in specific departments and the disparity in salaries (Human 1993: 20).

The availability profile compares the job group profile with the representation of qualified disadvantaged groups in the external labour pool (Human 1993: 21). The availability profile helps organisations to determine the extent to which certain groups are under - represented and in which jobs, as well as developing more effective internal and external recruitment and development strategies within an Affirmative Action framework.

The fourth step is the job transaction profile which traces the progress of disadvantaged groups within the organisation. This analysis helps to identify barriers to appointment and development of the disadvantaged (Human 1993:21).

b) HUMAN RESOURCE POLICIES AND PRACTICES

According to Human (1993: 23) the following questions should be answered when reviewing policies and procedures:

- Is this policy really job-related? In other words, is it based on the actual requirements of the job?
- Is the policy valid? In other words, do the qualifications we are asking for have a direct relationship with performance on the job? Are there other "qualifications", competencies, background factors, or experience which could be equally valid if we accepted them?
- Is this policy arbitrary, or is it used consistently and fairly? Do we admit exceptions? If so, under what circumstances?
- Is this policy a business necessity?
- Does this policy conform to human rights and employment standards legislation? Is it likely to conform in the future?
- Does this policy adversely affect women and blacks? If so, how?

The above questions help to determine the extent to which prejudices, hidden agendas and dogmatic conventionalities run through policies and practices.

c) ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS

According to Human (1993: 24) the assessment of attitudes and perceptions should be able to:

- provide an indication of the perceptions and attitudes of employees to current people development policies and practices in general and Affirmative Action in particular;
- provide a constructive, yet critical, analysis of current people development policies and procedures in general and Affirmative Action in particular based on existing employee attitudes and supplemented by the investigation into workforce composition and an analysis of actual policies and procedures;
- provide an indication of the perceptions and attitudes of employees towards other factors impacting on people development in general and Affirmative Action in particular;
- provide recommendations concerning an Affirmative Action/people development strategy or recommendations concerning the adaptation of current strategy.

An investigation into the workforce composition, policies and procedures and the audit of attitudes and perceptions directs the organisation to areas it needs to address in order to achieve a greater level of employment equity.

(ii) AFFIRMATIVE ACTION PERCENTAGES

According to Kruger (1994: 21) many employers are applying Affirmative Action programmes because they believe it's an easy way to keep the new black government off their backs. Kruger (1994: 21) believes that Affirmative Action is not about percentages, but about equipping black people with the motivation, ideals and skills to reach positions of trust and authority.

Under the quota system there is ... preference for the under qualified over the qualified, or of the less qualified over the better qualified to meet the numerical requirement (Nigro and Nigro in Andrews 1992: 39).

Making the right percentages without proper training would merely reflect tokenism. Organisations need to discard outdated training methods and prepare their employees through modern accelerated learning techniques which capitalise on an individual's innate strengths and inculcate in them and achiever mindset.

By playing percentages (Kruger 1994: 21) in promoting Affirmative Action in the workplace, it could lead to labour unrest and financial ruin for the organisation. Levy (in Cloete et.al 1995: 81) believes that quotas are an inappropriate means of implementing Affirmative Action, especially in a human resource development context since it could lead to promotion without adequate training or to tokenism.

(iii) <u>ACCESS</u>

Access to managerial positions needs to be broadened by considering black graduate recruits from universities and technikons, people with experience in non-governmental organisations and those who have practical work experience but no formal certification (Levy in Cloete et.al 1995: 84).

External appointments should be open to all, irrespective of race or gender and job advertisements and screening processes should be without reference to implicit or explicit statements which exclude one or more groups of potential applicants.

Internal recruitment and development policies enhance Affirmative Action strategies since they emphasise training and development and the deployment of appropriate existing personnel in the organisational structures which were previously not accessible to everyone (Levy in Cloete et.al 1995: 87).

Levy (in Cloete et.al 1995: 87) asserts that screening processes should not be based on race selection. Since tests are culturally biased, they should be used as only one component of the screening process. The school room approach of pass or fail is inappropriate in any employment situation, especially if the organisation is committed to Affirmative Action. Formal testing should rather be used as a guideline for developmental action and an instrument for assessing future progress rather than as an end in itself.

Levy (in Cloete et.al 1995: 87) suggests the incorporation of correctional factors into the interpretation of test scores to address variations in language and cultural comprehension of test questions and extra time afforded for disadvantaged persons.

It is often argued that Affirmative Action which widened rather than narrowed the inequality gap, led to tokenism and lowering of standards. This argument is frequently put forward as a justification for retaining current entrance criteria to jobs. Human (1993: 31) counteracts this argument in the following statement:

A lowering or changing of entrance criteria (such as years of experience and educational qualifications) with respect to a particular position in order to allow blacks and women to compete, will only lead to tokenism if it can be proved that level of entry qualification has predictive validity with respect to performance on the job - in other words, that in order to do the job to the required standard the job incumbent must have a certain educational qualification and/or number of years experience.

Instead of arguing for the retention of existing criteria, Human (1993: 32) believes that we should insist on a shift in attitude in relation to selection and recognising the role of managerial expectations in performance. Equity can only be achieved if the present status quo is challenged and restructured.

A reassessment of recruitment and screening policies would ensure that they are free of cultural and gender prejudices and development orientated with an emphasis on capacity building. Recognition must be given to prior learning and life experiences.

(iv) MERIT

Levy (in Cloete et.al 1995: 84) believes that merit should encompass ability and potential to do the job. Technical expertise, leadership qualities, capacity to co-ordinate, plan and control are just as important as formal qualifications.

A broadened vision of merit should emphasize criteria which values prior learning, commitment and potential for the work at hand, rather than stressing the attaining of formal qualifications which often has been a prerequisite before merit can be even assessed (Levy in Cloete et.al 1995: 85).

In South Africa, where the majority constitute the disadvantaged, the concept of meritocracy will have to be expanded to include other job specific capabilities like ability to plan, prior learning and commitment. Formal qualifications should be considered important only if it is an absolute pre-requisite for the job.

Merit is a critical issue in Affirmative Action. It serves as a means to counter the argument that Affirmative Action is simply patronage or tokenism and promotes people under-qualified for the job.

Affirmative Action should aim at the employment of people who have the necessary skills, knowledge and ability to do the job.

Wooldridge (1992: 2) believes that without the maintenance of merit standards, Affirmative Action can only result in tokenism. Maphai (in Wooldridge 1992:3) notes that an unqualified person is not a subject of Affirmative Action.

In view of past discrimination, existing criteria for determining standards of merit must be critically evaluated. Merit standards based on, for example, a tertiary qualification where the necessary skills may be obtained through other means are unjust in so far as they do not take into account sectors of the population who did not enjoy access to basic education (Wooldridge 1992:4).

Affirmative Action programmes should make provision for grants, loans or bursaries if the requisite skills can only be obtained by means of a university education.

(v) CHOOSING APPROPRIATE MODELS OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

Consideration should be given to the impact of various approaches to Affirmative Action. Five models of Affirmative Action will be outlined.

(a) The traditional white macho model:

Under the apartheid regime, white males were seen as crucial for the continued success of an organisation. Training courses were essentially meant for developing the skills of these personnel in the light of this perception. The disadvantaged especially women and blacks were not considered, even regarded as a necessary irritation, to be tolerated, pacified from time to time, and constantly bossed (Charlton et.al 1994: 89).

Even under the new democratic and non discriminatory dispensation these perceptions still prevail.

(b) The ostrich model:

This approach is usually adopted by organisations for short term survival when they find themselves in a serious predicament.

Charlton et.al (1994: 90) aptly describes it as follows:

In essence they have taken a leaf out of the ostrich's behaviour and have perfected the art of burying their heads in the sand, hoping like hell that this Affirmative Action thing will go away.

Such organisations use defence mechanisms like denial or according responsibility or blame on some outside forces.

(c) The give them a chance, black advancement, or deficiency model:

This approach perceives the need to train blacks in order to improve performance. Issues like organisational attitudes and culture are not investigated. This deficiency model neglects to consider any change in white organisational life, since it believes that poor education and limitations imposed by culture are the main obstacles to black advancement thereby creating a need for black training (Charlton et.al 1994: 90).

(d) The managing diversity model:

This approach stresses the need to take into account diverse cultures and traditions in an attempt to improve organisational life and efficiency. Managing diversity can prove problematic as discussed in the following statement by Charlton et.al (1994: 91):

The most important of these reasons is that apartheid has created or reinforced an "us" and "them" syndrome, where black culture is looked down upon as inappropriate to the business world. We have also seen a proliferation of "black advancement" programmes which claim that blacks as a group have certain deficiencies which will need to be overcome before they can function effectively in the business world. These activities have reinforced the stereotype concerning black underperformance and have also reinforced our tendency to judge people on the basis of stereotypes instead of on the basis of individual capability. Whilst any sensible manager may do well to have a good understanding of the various cultures of which South Africa is composed as well as a healthy respect for these cultures, this should not preclude him judging each of the areas of strength and weakness on an individual basis. To move too quickly to the less threatening process of managing diversity leaves some fundamental issues untapped and unaddressed. While awareness of different cultures can generate a change of attitude it should not preclude judging individual strengths and weaknesses.

Charlton <u>et.al</u> (1994: 92) is of the view that it is important not only to respect heterogeneity but also homogeneity, since neglect of such fundamentals can lead to negative expectations and underperformance.

(e) The psychology success model:

This model aims to overcome the shortcomings of the deficiency model. It is based on the assumption that development is both manageable and learnable as an ongoing process of building analytic and practical capability and self confidence (Charlton et.al 1994: 92). Employees are provided with individualised but challenging goals and requires an environment which provides constructive ongoing support and feedback to enhance self-confidence and job-performance (Human 1993: 28).

The development process depends on the individual's motivation to develop, the extent to which he or she is allowed to develop and the expectations held by others of them.

The implication is that training and development should not only be geared towards potential managers, but also existing managers.

Charlton <u>et.al</u> (1994: 92) recommends that in adopting any particular approach cognisance must be taken of the following:

- obtaining top management commitment to Affirmative Action and leadership competence to provide an environment and culture where people can develop;
- creating an environment that rewards initiative, creativity and competence;
- overcoming the lack of people management skills and accountability of white managers;
- replacing negative expectations of blacks by themselves and by white managers with positive ones.

(vi) ORGANISATION CULTURE

Organisation culture refers to the importance that is attached to the development of people and the values and beliefs that reinforce or discourage people development (Charlton et.al 1994: 38).

According to Charlton et.al (1994: 38) development should be characterised by:

- the determination of individual development needs;
- the compilation of individual development plans based on the competencies required for effective job performance and on the overall workforce plan;
- attendance at relevant off-the-job training and development courses which meet individual training needs;
- line managers playing a key role in on-the-job coaching and development of staff.

According to Charlton <u>et.al</u> (1994:16) people development can only enjoy the support of organisation culture, if the organisation reflects the following:

- positive expectations of individuals;
- open, honest, and constructive feedback on performance;
- open and effective two-way channels of communication;
- a system of evaluation of performance which is based on the results that are
 achieved in terms of both short- and long-term objectives;
- no discrimination based on race or gender;
- the development of people is a key area for managers and performance in this area is measured and rewarded in a meaningful way;

- managers understand the process of development and their role in this process;
- managers have the necessary skills to perform this role effectively;
- on-the-job coaching is an effective and, in fact, the primary means of people development.

(vii) MONITORING AND EVALUATION

According to Human (1993: 69) monitoring and evaluation of Affirmative Action are crucial since it:

- confirms continued organisational commitment to Affirmative Action.
- facilitates assessment of individual employees in this area.
- facilitates assessment of organisational progress in relation to Affirmative Action.
- highlights areas where changes in strategic direction are required or where more work is necessary.

Affirmative Action plans should be regularly reviewed in an endeavour to study the strategy and make recommendations for improvements.

To facilitate monitoring and evaluation, organisations should develop systems for recording all activities relating to Affirmative Action.

(viii) COMMUNICATION

It is important to create a common language throughout the organisation with regard to Affirmative Action and what it means to the organisation (Innes, Kentridge and Perold 1993: 98). This can be achieved by a communication strategy which uses formal and informal communication structures in the organisation. This could take the form of articles published in the organisation's monthly magazine or workshops.

By creating a common understanding, organisations can ensure that their mission statement is carried out and acted upon. Acceptance of change can only come through common understanding (Innes et.al 1993: 98).

Human (1993: 50) believes that by positively communicating the Affirmative Action programme of the organisation, it helps to overcome negative expectations of the disadvantaged, gives the organisation an opportunity to be seen as truly equal opportunity employers and finally pulls us together towards a better future.

Human (1993: 51) suggests the compilation of a code of conduct which could serve some of the following purposes:

- description of kinds of behaviours deemed acceptable to the organisation:
- outline the benefits of co-operation to the individual and to the positive mission of the organisation;
- consequences of non-conformity with the code of conduct;
- disciplinary procedures for dealing with employees who actively resist Affirmative Action;

dismantling a destructive element of organisational culture which is the attitude of managers towards the disadvantaged.

4.6 <u>TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT WITHIN AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION</u> FRAMEWORK

According to Bayat <u>et.al</u> (1994: 135) restructured training policies and programmes should not only make the civil service more accessible to those previously excluded, but also retrain and resocialise those already in the civil service within the context of a **new public service** attitude and ethos.

4.6.1 IMPORTANCE OF TRAINING

According to Levy (in Cloete et.al 1995: 83), training is a crucial aspect of Affirmative Action for the following reasons:

- It would ensure that Affirmative Action programmes are effective by guaranteeing that beneficiaries are adequately qualified. This is linked to the merit principle encompassing ability and potential to do the job;
- Training within the arena of human resource development can lead to a more democratic, productive and accountable work environment. By determining training needs at the individual, organisational and strategic levels, human resource development programmes can build internal capacity;
- Training the environment by means of democratic work procedures and training programmes is a crucial aspect of any Affirmative Action policy.

 This would foster social commitment to Affirmative Action and a new work ethos.

4.6.2 TRAINING TO MANAGE DIVERSITY

According to Human (1993: 71) managing diversity is part and parcel of the process of managing people, a process which, in turn, is vital to the success of Affirmative Action.

According to Thomas (1993: 58) managing diversity means creating an environment that enables all participants to pursue organisational goals. It is not an approach which seeks to value differences by assimilating the differences into the culture and to change personal bias. Rather managing diversity requires a change in organisational bias by determining how differences like lifestyle and age affect working relationships.

Thomas (1993: 58) recommends the following guidelines for effective diversity training:

- Training should not focus on getting individuals to assimilate into the corporate culture, rather focus on traits in the corporate culture which could be changed so that all individuals could be treated equally.
- Training to confront stereotypes should include emphasis on developing skills needed to bring awareness of stereotypes back to the workplace.

 Although awareness of stereotypes and prejudice is a necessary part of diversity work, it is important to tell people how to apply that awareness to their jobs.

According to Human (1993: 73) people management provides the opportunity not only to deal with people on an individual level but also to avoid the harmful effects of stereotyping and prejudice caused by a lack of knowledge of individual strengths and weaknesses.

Human (1993: 78) asserts that the first step in managing diversity is in managing our own prejudices and stereotypes. Therefore training in this aspect requires the development of sensitivity to one's own strengths and limitations with a view to correctly interpreting the attitudes and actions of others.

Skills training in managing diversity should encompass adult-to adult communication (Human 1993: 79). Some of the benefits of adult to adult communication include:

- The creation of a working environment in which feedback and people management conversations take place in motivating and enriching ways;
- The reduction of the negative impact of stereotypes and negative expectations;
- Improvement in self confidence and self esteem;
- The establishment of a more productive, respectful and dignified work environment.

4.6.3 ROLE OF UNIVERSITIES AND TECHNIKONS

Knowledge of a particular subject is inadequate. Skills in applying the knowledge are just as important to ensure that the acquired knowledge can be applied in the work situation (Mare in Bayat et.al 1994: 227).

It is of cardinal importance that courses should focus on context, comparative structures and processes of change and transition (Lennan and Wooldridge in Cloete et.al 1995: 98) in public administration. According to Lennan et.al (in Cloete et.al 1995: 98) some of the shortcomings in university and technikon training include the following:

- No relation between theory and practice is established. Degrees provide the students with only an academic background of technical procedures and ideal ethics;
- Students are not taught to deal with the manifold problems left behind by the apartheid legacy to enable them to develop a perspective of transition and change;
- Courses are descriptive and historical in nature;
- No provision is made for civil society organisations to participate in course development programmes;

In the light of the above shortcomings, it is imperative that under a culture of Affirmative Action in South Africa, universities move beyond the generic value-free approach to one that is value-oriented, normative and based on community needs and expectations.

Lennan et.al (in Cloete et.al 1995: 98) recommend a focus on management, organisational development, policy development and the building of analytical skills and effective capacity for future needs.

The implication is that in order to deal with the new demands of society and the work environment, attention must be devoted to incorporating a wide range of theories and philosophies in subjects being studied. Furthermore, a more interactive and active teaching methodology is necessary for the development of appropriate critical and problem-solving skills.

4.7 <u>GUIDELINES FOR THE SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF</u> AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

The success of an Affirmative Action programme is determined by a number of factors which varies from organisation to organisation.

Consideration should be given to the following:

- (i) The promotion of equality should not be regarded as the only form of Affirmative Action. Consideration should also be given to motivation and context in development (Human 1993: 12). Aspects like the setting of achievable goals, moderate risk taking, providing constructive feedback and support are also significant in implementing Affirmative Action. Furthermore, attitude changes are a complex process that all people within the organisation must undergo i.e. top management, trainers and trainees.
- (ii) A quota system according to which disadvantaged groups who may be incompetent are placed in jobs must be avoided, since this could lead to tokenism, impede the availability and utilisation of competent people and hamper organisational success.

In South Africa since a large part of the Black population is illiterate, quotas cannot be established according to the composition of society. If quotas are considered, they must be determined according to the availability of appropriate labour skills (Gerber et.al 1995: 190).

(iii) Affirmative Action should take place at the selection and recruitment stage.

All employees should be developed and promoted according to workforce, succession and career plans which take backlogs into account (Human 1993: 13). Culture-free recruitment and selection procedures are vital for appointing the right people to the right jobs.

Selection criteria should be job related, while recruitment can take place at any level in the organisation as long as the individual is competent to do the job.

- (iv) Negative stereotypes and expectations should be managed and monitored through training and performance objectives (Human 1993: 13).
- (v) Responsibility for Affirmative Action should not be relegated to the Human Resources Department. Successful Affirmative Action depends on the line manager's willingness to recruit, develop and promote formerly excluded groups the Human Resources department cannot do this. The proper role of Human Resource departments in Affirmative Action is to support line managements ownership of the people development process by providing, inter alia, appropriate systems and advice (Human in Gerber et.al 1995: 204).

- (vi) Human resources planning and Affirmative Action go hand in hand.

 According to Gerber et.al (1995: 207) any organisation striving to implement Affirmative Action will have to make it part of its strategic planning. It is obvious that the organisation will have to be well informed about Affirmative Action before organisational strategy is formulated, followed by human resources strategy.
- (vii) Continuous monitoring and evaluation of Affirmative Action plans must be undertaken to ensure targets are being achieved, while correcting any mistakes.
- (viii) The establishment of incentive measures by the state to encourage the implementation of Affirmative Action is crucial. Gerber et.al (1995: 206) suggest incentives like tax rebates for organisations that apply Affirmative action.
- (ix) The process of Affirmative Action should be a long term project with training and development as a first priority. According to Bayat et.al (1994: 268) creating now educational and training opportunities that is available to all is a way of increasing competition within a general pool without reverse discrimination.
- (x) According to Gerber et.al (1995: 192) it is necessary to identify factors that will either foster or impede the plans for Affirmative Action. Measures must be developed to solve problems and implement Affirmative Action to everyone's advantage.
- (xi) In creating and maintaining standards, development should not be perceived in terms of race or sex. According to Human (1993: 15) development within an Affirmative Action framework should be characterised by:

- the determination of individual development needs;
- the drawing-up of individual development plans based on the competencies required for effective job performance and on the overall workforce plan;
- attendance at relevant off-the-job training and development courses which meet individual training needs;
- line managers playing a key role in on-the-job coaching and development of staff.

Since there is no universal, custom made Affirmative Action programme, each programme is structured according to the unique organisational and national requirements of a country.

4.8 APPLICATION OF AFFIRMATIVE ACTION IN SOUTH AFRICA

The Institute of Personnel Management (Charlton et.al 1994: 43) believes that Affirmative Action should be practised in South Africa along the following lines:

- * South Africa needs to develop a constitutional framework which protects the rights of individuals as rapidly as possible. Affirmative Action legislation should include all groups who have been discriminated against, not simply blacks and women. Nevertheless, it will be important not to water down the critical need for the advancement of blacks in companies.
- * The dilemma facing South Africa is how to rev up the economy to support the political transformation and meet expectations created as a result of the sociopolitical change without crippling the already overburdened tax base.

- * The majority of the South African population falls into the unskilled category.

 Effective race relations depends on a strong economic foundation and participation.

 A paradigm shift needs to occur so that Affirmative Action is viewed as an investment rather than a sacrifice. Ensuring that we reflect marketplace diversity is a powerful motivating force for Affirmative Action.
- * If expectations, uncertainty, fears, hatred, rage, conflict, and other symptoms of society in transformation are not addressed, we cannot establish the strong communication base necessary for Affirmative Action.
- * The success of Affirmative Action in South Africa requires innovative approaches.

 These should be based on negative (eg quotas) and positive (eg tax incentives) reinforcement mechanisms.
- * South African organisations need to go beyond the traditional descriptions of Affirmative Action to include broader dimensions such as economic empowerment, social investment, education, and welfare.
- * A long-term perspective needs to be maintained and appropriate structures established. South Africa needs to be aware of the costs of maintaining these structures. We should introduce legislation with teeth where government is the facilitator of empowerment.
- * It is not only up to legislation and to the organisation to facilitate change. Change should also come from within individuals. A self-help approach should be encouraged. We also need to celebrate new role models so that successes can be communicated. Usually it is only the failures which are highly visible.

In view of the above recommendations, it is imperative that a structured programme of Affirmative Action should be an all-encompassing approach which addresses all issues which may directly or indirectly affect the successful implementation of Affirmative Action in South Africa.

4.9 SUMMARY

Successful Affirmative Action requires a detailed and integrated approach. The entire organisation must be engaged in Affirmative action and consultation about it (Gerber et.al 1995: 207).

It is imperative that Affirmative Action acts as a means of overcoming the barriers to equal employment opportunity rather than as reverse discrimination.

In overcoming South Africa's problems, Affirmative Action, which includes the promotion of equality, skills development and job creation should be applied as a co-ordinated but only temporary process until the disparities caused by unequal opportunities are eroded.

Finally, while addressing the obstacles to effective equal opportunities, distortions which undermine creativity, productivity and equity in the future must be avoided. In other words, token style Affirmative Action or window dressing should not enjoy any support.

CHAPTER 5

DURBAN CITY COUNCIL

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Local Government is a third tier of government that is closest to the people. People living in a community or area have needs which they cannot satisfy themselves. There is a need for a local authority to render essential services to people staying in a particular area since it is practically impossible for a central government to perform all governmental functions.

Local government should afford inhabitants the opportunity to manage affairs which are unique to their particular area, influence their everyday lives and function in a manner that is conducive to the personal satisfaction and advantage of the people it serves.

The close proximity of local authorities to the everyday activities of the inhabitants necessitates personnel who are efficient and effective. The extent to which this can be realised depends on how well personnel are trained to do their jobs and trained to deal with the continual changes in the environment.

This chapter provides a discussion of the following aspects:

- Reasons for the Existence of Local Authorities.
- Local Government Transition.
- Organisational Structure of the Durban City Council.
- Durban City Council and Affirmative Action.
- Internal Labour Market of the Durban City Council.
- Training and Development.

5.2 REASONS FOR THE EXISTENCE OF LOCAL AUTHORITIES

Local authorities exercise the oldest form of organised government. Ancient history shows that our Western civilisation and democracy developed in local committees in which every citizen participated. Benson (1969:9) describes the advantages of local authorities as follows:

- (i) A guarantee of freedom through checks on centralized powers;
- (ii) An opportunity for broad political participation of the citizens;
- (iii) An opportunity for adaptation of governmental policies to the needs of the areas.

A significant basic characteristic of a local authority is its specific locality where communal services are provided. It is this commonness of interests that constitute the substance of local government and the need for its existence.

The necessity for local authorities can therefore be attributed to the following (Hill 1974: 210):

- local authorities have the flexibility in dealing with local problems in different areas.

 This adaptable nature is important because each town and city has unique characteristics;
- local authorities are familiar with the environment in which they operate and can appreciate the peculiarities of the area in a way which would be different for an outsider because of its emphasis on the freedom of the locality to decide and to act;
- they kindle a sense of interest in its activities because it is not remote from the citizens. They are willing to participate directly in its endeavours as it is that part of the government of a nation which deals with such matters that concern the inhabitants of a particular district or place and which it is thought desirable should be administered by local authorities subordinate to the central authority;

they provide citizens with the opportunity to train as leaders in the art of government because it is just, it safeguards and enhances the citizen's rights and it is an important setting for political education.

5.3 **LOCAL GOVERNMENT TRANSITION**

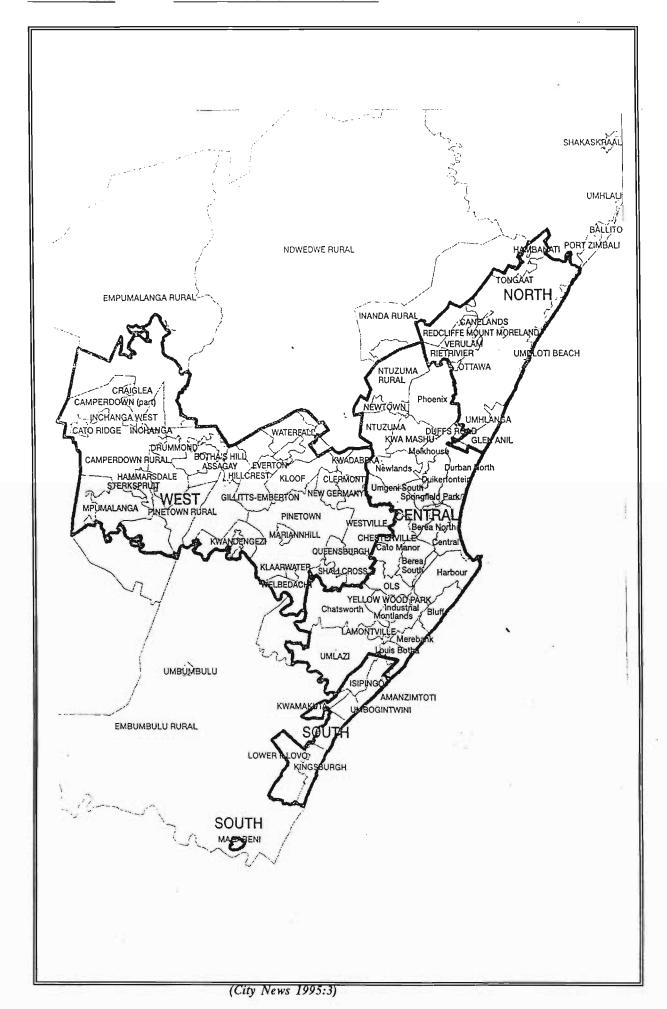
In South Africa, constitutional changes of fundamental proportions have necessitated the restructuring of local government. According to the Local Government Transition Act of 1993, the transition towards a democratic local government will take place in two phases (Kroukamp 1994: 48):

- The pre-interim phase: This phase commenced with promulgation of the Local Government Transition Bill in January 1994 and ends with the first municipal elections.
- The interim phase: This phase commences immediately after the first municipal elections and runs for 3-5 years.

The reconstruction of local government in the greater Durban area entailed the establishment of a Metropolitan Transitional Council for the Greater Durban Metropolitan area during the pre-interim phase.

On 1 June 1995, the 49 local authorities making up the sprawling Durban Metropolitan area ceased to exist officially. Presently, the daily affairs of more than three million people are the responsibility of the Transitional Metropolitan Council and the four substructure councils - Central, North, South and West (City Beat 1995: 1).

The Durban City Council which is the Central substructure council, is responsible for the area as shown in Figure 5.1 (City News 1995: 3).



The Transitional Metropolitan Council oversees region wide services which overlap with substructure boundaries like mass transport and the bulk provision of water and electricity. The substructure councils are responsible for localised functions like road maintenance and refuse removal.

According to the Mayor's Minute (1993/94:32) the position statement of the City Council includes the following:

- The City Council is committed to the restructuring of local government on a non-racial and democratic basis within the context of a unitary and democratically governed South Africa.
- The City Council as core city of a metropolitan area, comprising a large and diverse population with significant disparities in income and living standards, has an important role to play in facilitating appropriate and co-ordinated development throughout the area in consultation with all appropriate parties.
- The City Council further believes that it can play a major role in facilitating the process of local government transition within the metropolitan area and in so doing contribute towards the establishment of a climate conducive to economic growth and social development.

In view of the above position statement of the City Council, the process of restructuring must not only be seen within a political framework, but also in terms of human resource development and equitable employment practices within the Durban City Council.

5.4 ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE DURBAN CITY COUNCIL

The organisational structure of the Durban City Council (City Finder 1995: 42-43) which is operative up to this point in time is illustrated in Figure 5.2.

The Durban City Council is headed by the Chief Executive Town Clerk. There are nine service units, namely, community services, markets and informal business, city services, culture and recreation, corporate services, water and waste, physical environment, transport and electricity. Each of the nine service units is headed by an Executive Director. Each service unit in turn comprises of several departments headed by directors. These departments implement council policy and perform the various services provided by the local authority.

In terms of the Durban City Council's organisational structure (Mayor's Minute 1993/94: 48-51) each of the service units perform the following functions:

- (i) The Corporate Services Unit aims to optimise the use of the city's resources and pro-actively co-ordinate corporate activities, facilitate implementation of Council's resolutions and policies, provide corporate advice, guidance and direction, formulate corporate strategic plans, safeguard the council's resources and provide statutory requirements. Its departments include city administration, communications and public relations, corporate human resources, growth and development facilitation, legal services, real estate, treasury and urban strategy.
- (ii) The Community Services Unit's primary aim is the social well being of the community. It is responsible for all aspects of public and community health, the planning and development of housing projects including low cost site and service schemes, upgrading of squatter settlements to informal housing settlements and in the process to control and supervise squatting within the City, environmental health, fire prevention, city police services, cemeteries and crematoria.

This services unit recently assumed responsibility for the protection services branch under a new directorate and relinquished control of the Durban Exhibition Centre to the Physical Environment Unit.

- (iii) The Markets and Informal Business Unit administers Durban's Fresh Produce

 Markets, flea market operations and facilitates small business opportunities.
- (iv) The City Services Unit provides services to all the other service units in the council.

 It's functions include architectural services, computer, electrical, electronic, mapping and surveying and printing services.
- (v) The Culture and Recreation Unit administers Durban's libraries, museums, art gallery, sports facilities and beaches.
- (vi) The Water and Waste Service Unit manages the provision of water and sewer services and disposal of solid waste. Plans for the provision of a clinical waste service and construction of an incinerator are shortly to be implemented.
- (vii) The Physical Environment Service Unit is concerned with the development and maintenance of the city's infrastructure including drainage and coastal engineering, parks, roads, transport and traffic, urban development, town planning and development control. Recently added under its wing of maintenance is the Exhibition and Convention Centre.
- (viii) The Public Transport Service Unit deals with routine matters geared towards maintaining an effective transport system for the city and its surrounding areas.
- (ix) The Electricity Service Unit has three distribution regions, namely, north, south and central. The Electricity for all project is continuing to reach the informal and rural areas at an accelerated pace. Assistance from the Development Bank of South Africa has allowed this project to expand and fit into the national Reconstruction and Development Programme.

The nine service units within the Durban City Council all play a pivotal role in providing essential goods and services without which community life is impossible.

5.5 **DURBAN CITY COUNCIL AND AFFIRMATIVE ACTION**

In May 1994, the Durban City Council and trade unions recognised by the council concluded an Employment Practices Policy (Mayor's Minute 1993/94: 33).

The purpose of such an agreement is the following (Employment Practices Policy 1994:2):

- To ensure that the council pursues non-discriminatory employment practices and to promote Affirmative Action policy.
- To ensure that with due regard to the principle of fair labour practice, the council pursues employment practices designed to produce an employment profile reflective of the population demographics within which the council operates.
- To ensure that employment practices and progress in respect of the second point above are jointly monitored and regulated by the council and the signatory unions on a regular basis.

According to the Employment Practices Policy (1994: 4) Affirmative Action to be applied in the Durban City Council shall mean:

(i) a short to medium strategy to address imbalances in the employment profile in the work place;

- (ii) practices that ensure that persons hitherto prejudiced by past policies are not excluded from employment or promotional opportunities;
- (iii) practices which actively enable employees to acquire the new skills needed to enter all levels of employment, including the decision-making posts from which they have been excluded;
- (iv) programmes of action which address the defacto preponderance of advantaged groups already in intermediate and of the council's service;
- (v) human resource management policies which actively direct appropriate staff towards upward mobility, unrestricted by any considerations other than citizenship and suitability for the job;
- (vi) practices that ensure equal opportunity and treatment in recruitment and selection for those seeking employment, and for equal opportunity and treatment in selection, planning, job appraisal, promotion and all other staff development policies which enhance the career opportunities, of those already in employment;
- (vii) procedures which reject patronage, nepotism, favouritism, gender discrimination and sexual harassment;
- (viii) procedures in which colour is irrelevant, which proactively foster attributes of accountability, openness, competency, efficiency, non-sexism and equity in all areas of local government service;
- (ix) programmes to re-orientate all parties affected by this policy in relation to unacceptable discriminatory attitudes based on race, gender, disability or any other stereotyping.

The policy statement concerning Affirmative Action at a local government level has been comprehensively addressed by the Employment Practices Policy. It must be noted that changing the workforce profile cannot be accomplished overnight. Structured training and development programmes based on Affirmative Action have to be implemented at operational, tactical as well as strategic levels to ensure a more representative internal labour force within the Durban City Council in the long run. Furthermore, the success of these programmes would largely depend on commitment to change and diversity within the Durban City Council.

5.6 INTERNAL LABOUR MARKET OF THE DURBAN CITY COUNCIL

The Durban City Council's internal labour market is divided into 3 categories, termed strategic, tactical and operational. These categories correspond to specific administrative, technical and executive competencies.

The strategic personnel comprise of the Town Clerk, executive directors and directors from each of the nine service units. The tactical personnel refers to middle management while operational personnel include clerical staff and labourers.

Table 5.1 is a profile of the internal labour market compiled by the Centre for Community and Labour Studies (1993:2).

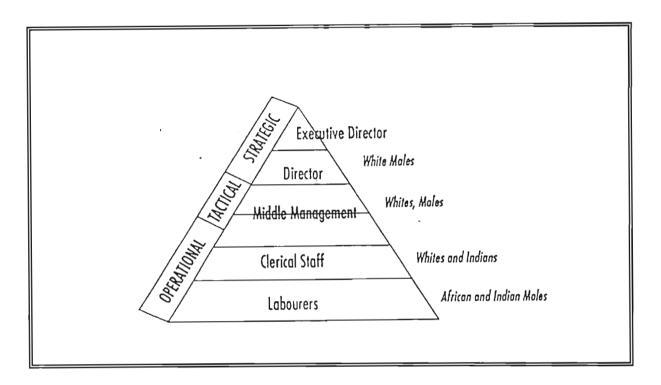
TABLE 5.1 Service Unit	PROFILE OF INTERNAL LABOUR MARKET OF THE DURBAN CITY COUNCIL						
	Lab.	Cler.	Other	Middle Manage- ment	Senior Manage- ment	Total	%
Culture and Recreation	345	29	0	304	28	706	6.24
Markets and Informal Bus.	21	64	0	9	4	98	0.87
Physical Environment	2324	105	920	17	31	3397	30
Water and waste	1334	40	0	38	31	1443	12,74
Transport	132	1199	0	34	14	1379	12,18
City Services	218	321	0	233	34	806	7,12
Electricity	1123	220	0	146	17	1506	13.3
Corporat e	49	409	0	56	39	553	4,89
Community Services	333	176	799	103	24	1435	12,67
Total	5879	2563	1719	940	222	11323	100
% of Total Workforce	51,92	22,64	15,18	8,3	1,96	100	0

(Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1993: 2)

The above statistics indicate that the occupational category of senior management comprises of the smallest number of employees within the council's total workforce. Labourers constitute the largest occupational category in the operational division.

The race and gender profile of the strategic, tactical and operational categories is indicated in Figure 5.3 (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1993:1).

FIGURE 5.3 RACE AND GENDER PROFILE IN THE STRATEGIC, TACTICAL AND OPERATIONAL CATEGORIES



(Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1993: 1)

According to the Centre for Community and Labour Studies, the race and gender profile of the Durban City Council reflects the following (1993: 4-13):

- The race and gender profile of senior management reveals that white males are in the majority. As part of the tactical staff, middle management posts are mainly occupied by whites, while women occupy a relatively small number of middle management posts.
- Except for the Transport Service Unit, which is dominated by Africans, most of the clerical posts in the other eight service units are filled by Whites and Indians.

- In Water and Waste, Community and City Services, female representation is in the majority while males are in the majority in the other six service units.
- The racial and gender composition in the labouring category indicates that African and Indian males occupy almost all of the labouring posts.

The profile of the internal labour market of the Durban City Council reflects both racial and gender imbalances with white males pre-dominating over strategic and tactical decision making. As a local authority committed to restructuring, development and democracy, correcting the racial and gender imbalances in its labour profile would constitute an overriding aim in its mission statement.

5.7 TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

The Corporate Services Unit provides a number of training courses which are subscribed to by most of the service units. According to a report by the Centre for Community and Labour Studies (1993: 21) most service units identified training needs through middle and senior managers, employees, heads of departments, director's assessments and strategic planning.

Generic training programmes for the council's personnel include management and supervisory training. Other courses offered include secretarial skills, industrial relations, leadership and team building, conflict handling, interviewing skills and assertive communication skills (Mayor's Minute 1993/94: 65).

Most of the in-house training programmes held between 1991 to 1993 were concentrated mainly in the clerical and managerial areas. The main courses offered were middle management and computer courses. However, none of the service units during this period offered in-house training courses for unskilled workers who are predominantly blacks (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1993: 17).

With regard to courses contracted out between 1991 to 1993, the common trend was that training in the service units catered mainly for clerical and managerial employees, while there was little concentration on courses contracted out for the operating core. Courses contracted out focused on the use of information technology, computer literacy, technical subjects, industrial relations and Affirmative Action (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1993: 14).

To give effect to the spirit of Affirmative Action, the Durban City Council pioneered the Training and Development Scheme in partnership with the Centre for Community and Labour Studies. Such an Affirmative Action programme has not only facilitated enhanced work exposure for internal trainees (employees) but also serves as an internship programme for external trainees (graduates).

Self development is also encouraged amongst employees for job enrichment and financial assistance is offered by the Council to employees who wish to participate in the Assisted Education Scheme.

The Centre for Community and Labour Studies has made some of the following conclusions regarding training at the Durban City Council (1993:21):

- Relative to the size of staff establishments in the service units, training is not given a high priority;
- The courses contracted out cater mainly for clerical and managerial staff;
- Training budgets are not overtly calculated according to any needs analysis, although they are sometimes quite substantial and possibly under used;

- English is the primary language medium for training. Courses last an average of five days, which is a resource and cost problem. The duration and frequency of many of the courses needs to be increased according to needs and affordability;
- Training needs are not informed by a systematic process. Employees views was seldom listed as one of the mechanisms adopted for identifying training needs. This process was left to the managers, head of departments, directors and the results of job appraisal only where this was in place;
- The majority of units identify future training needs via employee, manager, head of department and director assessments, and, at times job appraisal rather than by systematic needs assessments and Human Resource Development policies.

Based on the above conclusions reached by the Centre for Community and Labour Studies, it is imperative in the light of change and diversity facing the Durban City Council, that training and development is structured, systematic, holistic and cost effective so that issues revolving around Affirmative Action can be adequately addressed.

5.8 **SUMMARY**

The Durban City Council, as a local authority, is committed to applying Affirmative Action. The imbalances in it's race and gender profile has to be addressed. It is imperative that the training and development programme of the Durban City Council is thoroughly planned, co-ordinated and implemented so that Affirmative Action as a strategy to counter the inequities in employment practices is realised.

According to Gortner (in Rabie 1987: 144) ... the success of government cannot be separated from the quality of its employees. Training and development must be able to equip local authority personnel to perform their routine tasks efficiently and effectively. When identifying training needs, cognisance should be taken of the institution's racial and gender profile since the major consequence of apartheid in South Africa has been the institutionalisation of unfair employment practices.

CHAPTER 6

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SCHEME AS AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION STRATEGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Any Affirmative Action programme as part of a holistic human resource development strategy must be viewed as an attempt to redress the disempowering consequences of apartheid in South Africa (Levy in Cloete et.al 1995: 77). In the public sector, Affirmative Action must not only address the inequalities in public sector employment, but also ensure a more representative public service that is more efficient, accountable and user-friendly than before.

In this chapter the Training and Development Scheme as an Affirmative Action Strategy is examined with regard to the following issues:

- Historical Background of the Training and Development Scheme.
- Aims of the Training and Development Scheme.
- Financing.
- Selection of Trainees.
- Placement of Trainees.
- Conditions of Service for External Trainees.
- Mentoring.
- Training and Development Programme.
- Evaluation of Trainees.
- Problem Solving.
- Steering Committee.
- Monitoring and Evaluation of the Training and Development Scheme.
- Race and Gender Profile of Trainees at the Durban City Council.

6.2 <u>HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT</u> SCHEME

The Training and Development Scheme, initially known as the Training and Placement Scheme is an Affirmative Action based programme, addressing racial and gender inequalities in local and provincial government. Dr Norman Levy, of the Centre for Community and Labour Studies has played a pivotal role in initiating and sustaining the scheme in its third year of operation.

The pilot project was launched in March 1993 by the Centre for Community and Labour Studies, members of the Department of Public Administration at the University of Durban-Westville and the Durban City Council. Presently it is being run in conjunction with the Pinetown Municipality and the Kwazulu Natal Administration. Initially the programme recruited only graduate participants from the University of Durban-Westville. In an attempt to foster greater inclusivity, the programme has been extended to graduate participants from other tertiary institutions in Kwazulu Natal, especially M.L. Sultan Technikon, Mangosuthu Technikon and the Universities of Natal and Zululand respectively. The Training and Development Scheme has further afforded employees in council service an opportunity to develop their skills by enabling selected employees to participate in the Training and Development Scheme. Both internal trainees and graduate participants receive additional training by attending sessions at least once a week at the University of Durban-Westville.

The innovativeness and ingenuity of the scheme can be seen in the link it has established between the world of local and provincial government and the world of university.

The Training and Development Scheme consists of a twelve month period of internship in the embryonic substructures of local government and the Kwazulu Natal Province. At the conclusion of the internship, graduate participants could have their training extended, be appointed to posts in the council or secure posts outside the Durban City Council.

The case study will focus on the Durban City Council who were the pioneers of the Training and Development Scheme. The Human Resources Division of the Corporate Services in the Durban City Council serves as a link to the Council in matters pertaining to the Training and Development Scheme. The Council has a Training and Development Co-ordinator who has to globally manage the project at council level. Trainees are provided with work placement within any nine of the service units in the Durban City Council. The service units comprise of culture and recreation, markets and informal business, physical environment, water and waste, transport, city services, electricity, corporate and finally community services.

6.3 AIMS OF THE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SCHEME

As an Affirmative Action based programme, the Training and Development Scheme primarily aims to develop a class of employable Black (African, Indian and Coloured) trainees who have the potential to move into managerial posts. In view of the apartheid era, black professionals in local and provincial Government were rarely employed. The Training and Development Scheme is an initiative to increase the number of Black people in middle and upper management as well as to hasten

the movement of Black employees up the occupational ladder, into managerial posts. To sustain such a process, the Training and Development Scheme has employed a dual system - the appointment of trainees into local and provincial administrations and the development of existing employees in such administrations.

The second aim is to assist graduates who have the theoretical qualifications like their degrees and diplomas, but cannot secure employment because they either do not have the practical experience or have very limited job related skills. The Training and Development Scheme is programmed to bridge the gap between employment and the university degree, by enabling the disadvantaged to develop themselves in an employment situation while still maintaining links to a university (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1994: 3).

There is a critical demand for black managerial and professional human resources. The programme aims thirdly, to increase enrolment. When it was initially launched in 1993/94 the scheme recruited 20 University of Durban-Westville graduates who were provided with work training within the Durban City Council. In addition, 11 employees from Durban City Council gained additional work exposure. The 1995/1996 programme increased the enrolment to 68, compared to the 1994/1995 programme which had an enrolment of 40 (Centre of Community and Labour Studies 1995: 1). To correct the imbalance in black employment, the Training and Development Programme has targeted to increase enrolment by 66% for the 1995/1996 operation of the cycle.

The pilot project was pioneered by only one local government authority, which was the Durban City Council. Furthermore, graduate participants were selected exclusively from Durban-Westville. In its third year of operation, the Training and Development programme, aims, fourthly, to broaden its horizons in terms of choosing graduate participants from tertiary institutions other than Durban-Westville as well as involving other local government authorities and the Kwazulu Natal Provincial Administration.

The fifth aim relates to the aspect of transparency and accountability. Under the apartheid era, local government authorities were insulated bodies exempt from public scrutiny, work ethics and investigation. It is therefore envisaged that such a scheme will foster a culture of accountability and openness in local government via inter-sectoral co-ordination, planning and facilitating.

The sixth aim of the training and development programme is to provide certification for mentors in local and provincial government as well as external mentors appointed by the Training and Development Scheme to monitor the progress of the participants. Such certificates are awarded at the culmination of mentoring programmes to be attended by all mentors. The programme also aims to offer development management courses to personnel at management level. This includes specialist, certificated and non-certificated programmes designed to fulfil particular training needs like change management and organisational design.

The seventh aim is the desire to enhance the understanding of the functions, structures and ethos of provincial and local government management from a democratic and developmental perspective. It is hoped that the dynamic course presentation, interactive methodology, syndicate group discussions, case studies, plenary sessions and exposure to external visiting lecturers would open new gateways and conjure interest in public sector organisation and management.

Finally, the scheme aims to train for management skills with a development orientation. In view of transition, change and development affecting all public administration departments, the scheme considers managers as acting as catalysts in fostering a new climate of change and development. This requires managerial skills in managing development and change as well as the ability to maintain a link between the internal environment and dynamic external environment.

6.4 FINANCING

The Training and Development Scheme was initially financed by the Durban City Council using funds loaned to it by the Development Bank of Southern Africa. Funds are used for the payment of monthly stipends to external trainees, payments to mentors at the University of Durban-Westville for training sessions, administrative costs incurred for purposes relating to the scheme as well as for evaluations which are conducted during the duration of each cycle.

Funding has also been secured from the Open Society Foundation, Kagiso Trust and Liberty Life.

6.5 **SELECTION OF TRAINEES**

The Centre for Community and Labour Studies and the Durban City Council decides on the number of trainees to be accepted for each cycle of the Training and Development Scheme as well as the proportion of graduate trainees from the University of Durban-Westville and employees from the Durban City Council to be accepted for enrolment. The availability of funds and the manageability of trainees are the two major factors which determine the number of trainees to be accepted for each cycle of the programme.

Since one of the primary aims of the programme is to increase enrolment to meet the dire shortage of black managerial and professional personnel in local and provincial government, there has been a significant increase by 16 in the number of trainees for the 1995/1996 cycle (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1995:1) compared to last years intake of 27 trainees from the University of Durban-Westville and the Durban City Council. It has also been a policy of the programme to try to maintain a balance between graduate trainees and employees of local and provincial government since the scheme not only aims to facilitate a link between the university degree and employment but also to thrust the internal labour force of local authorities.

6.5.1 <u>SELECTION OF TRAINEES FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-</u> WESTVILLE

The process of selection commences with the advertisement of trainee positions in the Training and Development Scheme at the university campus. Apart from personal visits during lecture periods to inform students of the Training and Development Scheme, brochures are also disseminated with a view to more comprehensively highlighting the fundamental requirements of the Training and Development Scheme as an Affirmative Action strategy.

Applications are invited from the public administration, social work, engineering, law, sociology, accounting and public policy faculties. Graduate applicants from other tertiary institutions are usually from the personnel management, labour relations and computer studies departments.

Prospective graduate trainees are invited to fill in application forms and provide a curriculum vitae. Upon completion, such forms are submitted to the Director of the Training and Development Scheme. These forms are then forwarded to external mentors who complete rating forms.

Nine criteria are adopted by the course selection team in the selection of participants for the Training and Development Scheme.

The criteria include inter-alia:

- (i) Academic performance: The applicants potential in special areas has to be determined eg. accounting, engineering, social work. Cognisance is also taken of overall intellectual growth during his or her academic years.
- (ii) Previous work experience and skills: Work experience outside the degree is favoured especially in local government, community, trade unions and labour relations. The acquisition of skills simultaneously with the development of an academic discipline such as financial management would count in favour of the applicant. Furthermore, work references or recommendations are also preferred.
- (iii) Leadership qualities: The applicant's involvement in church, community, sports or school work would provide evidence of his ability to spur others on, plan, interact and resolve problems. Since leadership is an important management characteristic, it is expected that the applicant would show strong abilities in this regard.
- (iv) Career potential: The applicant must show evidence of balance between work and leadership activities, the potential to direct, communicate and impart skills. He should also be able to problematise a situation and face challenge.
- (v) Communication: He or she has to show evidence of sound articulation, ability to write coherently and maintain a good rapport with people. These communication skills are ascertained during the course of the interview as well as by referring to the applicant's work references.

- (vi) Social concerns: This is determined by questioning his or her knowledge of activities in his or her community, trade unions, dynamics of local government as well as his or her views on social change and urban development.
- (vii) Physical disability: The physical disability, if any, is to be considered in terms of the work to be performed and to ascertain to what extent the disability would interfere with the applicant's ability to perform the job adequately. However, this criterion is a non-rated indicator.
- (viii) Gender: All applicants are treated on the same basis for selection. If applicants meet the minimum level, then he/she may be short-listed for the preliminary selections. Finally, other aspects such as gender proportionality are considered.
- (ix) Disadvantagement: This criterion considers deprivation in terms of access to educational opportunities, educational disruption, quality of education and social economic disadvantagement.

The selection criteria are comprehensive and vary in ratings. Academic performance has a rating of 1 to 5 while previous work experience and skills, leadership qualities, career potential, communication skills, social concerns and disadvantagement are rated 1 to 10. In the case of the gender criterion, females earn an additional point since the aim of the scheme is to gain a degree of parity in gender composition within council service. Physical disability is a non-rated indicator. *

Upon completion of the rating forms, the selection panel comprising the Director of the Training and Development Scheme and external mentors choose applicants on the basis of merit and potential. Thereafter, interviews are held for those who have been shortlisted between November and January of the following year.

^{*} A selection criteria form is provided in the appendices of this study.

6.5.2 SELECTION OF TRAINEES FROM THE DURBAN CITY COUNCIL

The selection procedures differ somewhat for internal trainees from the Durban City Council. The Durban City Council wishes to increase its core of African personnel. Frequently, more Africans compared to the other race groups are selected for the training and development programme, provided they show evidence of merit and potential. Furthermore, whenever possible, females are enrolled.

The Durban City Council has tended to use the programme for two purposes. Firstly, to strengthen the potential of its employees in line for advancement in council service. Secondly, they have utilised the programme to strengthen new employees in council service who need further training.

The Training and Development Scheme at the Durban City Council is co-ordinated by the Corporate Services Unit. Each of the nine service units submit data on the number of training posts available in each of the respective units. The Director of Corporate Services together with the Executive Directors of Human Resources in the different service units would then decide on the number of trainees to be placed in each service unit in proportion to the accepted quota of internal and external trainees to be placed at the Durban City Council for the new cycle of the programme.

The Training and Development Scheme is advertised by each of the Human Resource departments in the nine service units. The process of selection is decentralised. Applications are invited from first line supervisors and clerical staff.

Application forms are submitted to the Human Resource Director of the different service units who then commissions the Human Resource Officer to interview internals. Those who have been shortlisted are then interviewed by a panel comprising of representatives from the Durban City Council and the Centre for Community and Labour Studies.

After the final core of internal trainees have been selected, they are expected to attend an orientation course held by the Corporate Service Unit. The crux of the orientation course is to align their expectations with the rudimentaries of the Training and Development Scheme.

Since it is an Affirmative Action programme, a greater proportion of Africans have been selected over the last three years of the cycle.

6.6 PLACEMENT OF TRAINEES

External trainees are placed in various departments or sections of the Durban City Council, usually in posts concomitant with their university study.

Once the Centre for Community and Labour Studies has finalised its core of external trainees, it determines which trainees are suitable for each of the service units. This is determined in accordance with the trainees preferences and skills.

The Centre for Community and Labour Studies then submits the application forms of all external trainees to the Corporate Service Unit which is responsible for coordinating the Training and Development Scheme at the Durban City Council. The Corporate Service Unit then forwards the application forms to the respective service

units, based on the choice of the appropriate service unit made initially by the Centre for Community and Labour Studies. The Human Resources Director of each service unit would commission appropriate personnel in his service unit to plan interviews with external trainees who have been recommended for his particular service unit. Such interviews are usually conducted together with representatives from the Corporate Services and the Centre for Community and Labour Studies.

During the interview the external trainee is rated according to a scale of 1-5 for each of the following criteria:

- Consistency;
- Communication;
- Adaptability;
- Potential;
- Confidence;
- Life skills;
- Overall impression

Some trainees maybe interviewed by more than one service unit, if Corporate Services feels that they show potential in different areas of more than one service unit. Each of the service units would then select their trainees from the pool that have been interviewed.

According to an evaluation report (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1994: 19) the placement of specialist graduate trainees such as lawyers and engineers proved to be more effective than generalist graduate trainees with say a degree in Public Administration. Specialist graduate trainees are advantaged in that they have already acquired skills specific to a particular job, while generalist graduate trainees lack both general and specific skills. On-the-job training for external trainees varies

from being allocated projects that take them through various departments in a service unit to actually occupying a vacant position. It is endeavoured that trainees should not be given low level manual tasks. Ideally, it is expected that once an external trainee is placed in a service unit he will remain there for the duration of the training and development cycle.

To develop employees for management posts is a long term process requiring development in a wide range of capabilities associated with management. Since it is impractical to place graduates without substantial work experience in management positions, it is envisaged that on-the-job training would gear them towards management.

Internal trainees remain in their original service units, but gain exposure to other departments within that service unit. Internal trainees do have the advantage of having already acquired general skills required in their jobs and information about the environment in which they operate.

However, they require sufficient opportunity to develop skills in specific areas, exposure to the overall functioning of the Durban City Council as well as to methods and means of increasing personal and departmental productivity. As trainees, it is hoped that development in these areas would be achieved through work exposure as well as through off-the-job training.

Through the Training and Development Scheme many internal trainees are able to gain an understanding of the mechanics of other sections, broaden their skills as well as establish contact with other staff members, thereby extending their interpersonal skills.

6.7 CONDITIONS OF SERVICE FOR EXTERNAL TRAINEES

Since external trainees are not employees (temporary or otherwise) of the City Council, they are therefore not subjected to the conditions of service applicable to employees in council service. However, to give effect to the aim of providing exposure to the routine of daily work, trainees are provided with the following guidelines (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1994:1-4).

- Signing on/off:

Each service unit in the council has a system for daily registration in order to record trainees attendance at work.

- Approved absence (vacation leave):

Trainees are allowed a maximum of 15 working days leave for the purpose of vacation. Vacation leave can be taken throughout the duration of the scheme, but it is preferred that such leave is taken when the tertiary institution is on vacation. Otherwise the time taken for vacation leave must be approved by the University of Durban-Westville and Durban City Council mentors. If any conflict arises over time for vacation leave, then the Director for Human Resources of the relevant service unit will make the final decision.

At least 7 days prior to the date on which the leave is to be taken, the trainee is expected to complete a leave application form which has to be signed by his/her Durban City Council and University of Durban-Westville mentors. The form is retained by the Durban City Council mentor in the trainee's file.

Emergency leave eg. bereavement and study leave are debited against the vacation leave.

If a trainee requires more than 15 days 'vacation leave' in the year, then a written approval is required from the University of Durban-Westville and Durban City Council mentors and the Director of the Centre for Community and Labour Studies in consultation with the Director of Corporate Human Resources who can exercise his right to adjust the trainee's stipend as he deems fit.

Approved Absence (sick leave):

Trainees are allowed a maximum of 12 days sick leave throughout the duration of the scheme. In the event of a single absence lasting longer than 3 days then a medical certificate has to accompany a sick leave application form.

The sick leave application form has to be completed by the trainee when he/she returns to work and retained by the Durban City Council mentor in the trainee's file.

If a trainee requires more than 12 days "sick leave" in the year, then a written approval is required from the University of Durban-Westville and Durban City Council mentors and the Director of the Centre for Community and Labour Studies in consultation with the Director of Corporate Human Resources who retains the right to adjust the trainee's stipend as he deems fit.

Lunch/Tea breaks:

The trainee's lunch and tea breaks should coincide with those taken by employees in the relevant service unit. Trainees are allowed to adjust these times, provided prior approval is granted by his/her mentor or supervisor.

Overtime:

A trainee is expected to assist his/her department with urgent or increased workload. If this arises, the Durban City Council mentor has the discretionary power in consultation with his/her Director of Human Resources to grant time off in lieu thereof.

Stipends and Course material:

Each trainee (except those in permanent employment) will be paid a stipend of R2000 per month for the duration of the course as well as receive course material.

When Varsity is on leave:

When trainees are not required to attend Friday lectures at the University of Durban-Westville or complete assignment course work, they are expected to remain at work, unless they are on approved vacation leave.

Attendance at Conferences/Seminars:

A trainee may attend a course/seminar/conference upon the recommendation of his or her mentor, but no cost is incurred by the Durban City Council since it is not permitted to pay for non-employees to attend courses. If a mentor feels that his or her trainee would benefit from attending a course which involves costs, then the mentor and the scheme co-ordinator can request the Centre for Community and Labour Studies to fund the course.

Movement from one service unit to another:

It is preferred that once a trainee has been placed in a particular service unit, he or she will remain in that service unit for the duration of the course. Only under exceptional circumstances and with the approval of all stakeholders concerned will transfer to another service unit be contemplated.

Attendance at Training and Development Scheme Course Lectures:

Attendance at these course lectures is a prerequisite for the payment of the stipend and award of the final certification. Trainees are required to attend such courses even if they might be on leave from the Durban City Council.

Performance / Disciplinary Problems:

If a trainee's performance is below acceptable standards or if he/she commits an offence which would be disciplinable for existing staff in terms of the Conditions of Service for Public Servants, then the matter must be thoroughly investigated by the service unit concerned. The Durban City Council and University of Durban-Westville mentors, the Durban City Council/Training and Development Scheme co-ordinator, and the Director of the Training and Development Scheme must be informed of the misdemeanour and invited to any hearing that may be held. Thereafer appropriate action will be decided upon.

Protective Clothing:

If trainees are performing tasks which require special or protected clothing, then they must be provided with such clothing as would normally be distributed to employees.

Progress Report:

The supervisor or manager of a department under whose guidance the trainee is placed has to complete a progress report on his/her trainee or trainees. Copies of the reports are retained by the trainee's Durban City Council mentor in the trainee's file.

Problem Solving

If a trainee experiences any difficulties in his or her working environment, these should be discussed with his or her mentor who will handle the issue and inform the scheme co-ordinator accordingly. If the mentor feels that a specific problem requires external input, then the mentor should contact the scheme co-ordinator, who if necessary, will contact the Director of the Scheme for additional input.

The attention of candidates, who are accepted into the training and development scheme, is drawn to the above stipulations. Trainees bind themselves in a contract which is signed at the beginning of the cycle. *

6.8 Mentoring

Each trainee has two mentors. The internal mentor is from the Durban City Council while the external mentor is from the University of Durban-Westville.

6.8.1 Internal Mentoring

Managers are normally appointed as mentors. Trainees in a particular service unit usually have mentors from the same service unit. Managers can volunteer as mentors or Human Resource Directors can recommend managers from their service units as mentors. Human Resource Directors base their recommendations on the technical, administrative and interpersonal skills of managers as well as their willingness to serve as mentors. However, they do not receive any additional renumeration for mentorship. Each mentor has one trainee under his guidance.

Before the start of training, the mentor and trainee are required to complete a development action plan. * The purpose of the development action plan is to determine areas of development, methods of development as well as time to be allocated for development in specific areas. The development action plan is periodically discussed between mentor and trainee during the duration of the training and development programme to ensure that trainees are receiving adequate and appropriate work experience.

- * A contract is provided in the appendices of this study.
- * A development action plan is provided in the appendices of this study.

6.8.2 External Mentoring

All external mentors are lecturers from the University of Durban-Westville. Most lecturers upon recommendation by the head of department accept to serve as mentors. Unlike the internal mentor/trainee relationship where the ratio is 1:1, external mentors usually have more than 1 trainee under their guidance. It is recommended that an external mentor should mentor trainees from the same service unit for purposes of better co-ordination and easy access to trainees if they are based in the service unit.

External mentors are expected to visit their trainees at least once a month.

During each session mentors complete a mentor report. * The purpose of these meetings is essentially eliciting information about their work experiences, provide guidance and to resolve problems.

6.8.3 Mentorship programmes

During the training and development cycle, internal and external mentors are required to attend mentorship programmes. These programmes are facilitated by Olive consultancy. The programme is facilitated from the perspective of it being a development process through open exploration and experiential learning. Some of the learning techniques used include, interalia, plenary discussions, discussions based on source materials, scenarios and questionnaires.

^{*} A mentor report to be completed by external mentors is provided in the appendices of this study.

Certificates of proficiency are awarded to mentors after the completion of the training and development programme.

The facilitators of the mentorship programme are also involved in coordinating the trainee - mentor meeting aimed at resolving peculiar problems and improving future mentor-mentoree relationships.

6.9 TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Each trainee receives on-the-job training for four and a half days a week.

On-the-job training includes organised work experiences as well as mentoring by internal and external mentors.

Every Friday, trainees are required to attend lectures at the University of Durban-Westville to complement workplace activity. Six modules are included in the theoretical aspect of the course work. A brief outline of each module is given below:

- (i) The Reorientation of Professional Management: This module aims to instill political sensitivity and create an awareness of gender issues. The development of communication skills, accountability, productivity, strategic and conflict resolution approaches are also focused upon.
- (ii) Change Management: An analysis is made of organisational changes and management reactions, financing by local authorities and the public sector, decentralisation, systems of resource planning and the interrelationship of jobs, rules and structures.

- (iii) Human Resource Planning: This module focuses on the Affirmative Action plans, identifying training needs, planning the development of human resources, leadership, team building, communication and decision making.
- (iv) Urban Administration and Development: The content of this module includes issues on development, transport, housing, urban development projects and community based initiatives.
- (v) Development Administration: Public Management, urban change and development are reviewed.
- (vi) The Legal framework of Local and Provincial Government: The restructuring, theoretical framework and ethos of local and provincial government in the new South Africa is considered from a legal perspective.

The management training course is taught by professionals from the Departments of Public Administration, the Graduate School of Business, Industrial Psychology, Legal Studies and the Centre for Community and Labour Studies. Lecturers are also recruited from the public and private sectors.

Apart from formal lectures, workshops are held approximately every six weeks in which external contributers involved in the New Public Administration Initiative, business and public sectors, facilitate discussions and provide an additional dimension to the course.

Interactive methodology is used as a means of developing trainee presentation and facilitation skills.

Off-the-job training also includes syndicate group discussions between graduate trainees and internal trainees from local and provincial authorities. The purpose of such meetings is to reconcile the different backgrounds of internal and external trainees, through participative and experiential learning.

The case study approach and plenary sessions are also employed as a training method to develop the capacity to solve problems, evaluate and think critically.

All trainees are also required to complete two major supervised projects concurrently with their placement.

All trainees upon satisfactory performance in on-the-job training, submission of assignments and projects and attendance at lectures are awarded Certificates in Development Management.

Optional training is also offered in the computer technology field. This course is primarily aimed at developing basic skills in computer technology. Trainees who are not conversant with grass roots basic information technology, usually enrol for this course. Trainees attend a 3 month course and after successfully completing their training they are awarded a Certificate in Basic Information Skills.

The co-ordination of the day to day administrative operations of the scheme is managed by an administrator from the Centre for Community and Labour Studies.

6.10 EVALUATION OF TRAINEES

Trainees are evaluated in a number of ways. They receive an assessment for two major assignments which are submitted in July and January of each given cycle. Trainee evaluation is also based on the reports submitted monthly by external mentors to the Centre for Community Labour and Studies. External mentors meet with their respective trainees at least once a month, during which time these reports are completed.

The purpose of such reports include the following:

- determine the relevance of the programme;
- determine trainee development in terms of communication, interpersonal skills, work discipline and management of projects;
- assess the trainees development capacity.

Internal mentors complete a trainee progress evaluation form for each of their trainees on a monthly basis. *

Trainees are also given an opportunity to engage in self evaluation by completing questionnaires at the end of the training programme. These questionnaires also help the co-ordinators of the Training and Development Scheme to evaluate the overall success of the programme based on the trainees responses in the questionnaires.

^{*} A trainee progress evaluation form is provided in the appendices of this study.

6.11 **PROBLEM SOLVING**

An essential factor in the success of a mentoring programme is the development of a relationship of mutual trust between mentor and trainee. In the initial stages of a programme a trainee will have nothing other than the mentors word on which to base his/her trust. As time progresses, however, he or she will have the opportunity to experience the supportive actions of the mentor.

Problems experienced by trainees are first subjected to internal arbitration, failing which tripartite meetings are held between trainee, internal mentor and external mentor. It is important that difficulties are resolved intra-departmentally if at all possible, as the process of resolution would form an important skills development experience for the trainee.

If a deadlock is reached, then the Director of the Training and Development Scheme is usually summoned. In cases where the mentor-trainee relationship breaks down, the trainees are usually assigned new internal mentors. However, such cases rarely occur. Trainees are also afforded the opportunity to voice their dissatisfaction or personal problems at special meetings convened at least twice a year for trainees and mentors. Since trainees felt that not all issues could be resolved through these processes, they formed a Facilitation Committee to take up common problems.

6.12 STEERING COMMITTEE

The Steering Committee comprises of three representatives from the Durban City Council, one representative from the Centre for Community and Labour Studies and a representative from the Department of Public Administration at the University of Durban-Westville.

The Steering Committee does not perform an executive function. It is chiefly responsible for considering policy matters like selection criteria for trainees and effective forms of mentorship.

6.13 MONITORING AND EVALUATION OF THE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SCHEME

The Training and Development Scheme is monitored on an ongoing basis by the Steering Committee, administrator of the Training and Development Scheme, facilitators of the mentoring programme, mentors, the Facilitation Committee and the various local and provincial authorities concerned. The Training and Development Scheme was initially evaluated by external consultants. In its second year of operation it was evaluated by the Centre of Community and Labour Studies.

The following findings are based on an evaluation report of the 1993/94 cycle (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1994:3-42):

- Both internal and external trainees viewed the scheme as an opportunity to broaden their understanding of local authorities as well as their learning experiences in a working environment;
- A frequent criticism from mentors was that insufficient attention had been paid to matching the capabilities of trainees with the requirements of the service units;

- Despite the positive comments about learnings, many trainees indicated that their skills and abilities had not been sufficiently used and that they were not doing work that led them towards middle-management;
- The work experience took different forms. Some external trainees were allocated projects that took them through various departments within the service unit, while others effectively took over a position, sometimes an actual vacancy and benefitted from having to deal with a wide range of tasks;
- Trainees did not have much access to managers or managerial work;
- Trainees found their relationship with their external and internal mentors very helpful;
- Generally, the external trainees tended to be more positive than the internal trainees about the mentor trainee relationship. It was stated that perhaps the internal trainees relationship with the internal mentor was often confined by the existing patterns of relationships;
- The role of internal mentors were mainly that of organising work experiences and guiding trainees;
- Some trainees complained that certain internal mentors were too busy to play their role properly while others were not highly motivated;
- While some external mentors demonstrated personal commitment, empathy and enthusiasm, others did not. In a few cases mentors were difficult to meet;

- Most trainees complained that the brief time which external mentors spent with them was dominated by the mentor form which had to be completed during the session. As a result, the opportunity to enable trainees to reflect on their work experience and to develop a deeper understanding of that experience was seldom exploited;
- Many trainees felt that theory and practice were not related in the training sessions. As a result, the sessions did not exploit the opportunity for reflecting on work experiences;
- Most of the trainees felt that the visiting lecturers provided valuable input because they were able to relate theory to a wide range of relevant experience;
- Many trainees agreed that they had adequate opportunities to meet as trainees and to learn from each others experiences since both internal and external trainees had different backgrounds and learning experiences to share;
- Mentors, especially those from the University of Durban-Westville believed that the Training and Development Scheme impacted positively on their careers. Many external mentors, were exposed to the functional operations of the Durban City Council for the first time, a learning experience which they viewed favourably;
- The appointment of the Durban City Council mentors lacked co-ordination, since some had been instructed to act as mentors, while not all wished to be mentors and often did not know what was expected of them;

- Co-ordination of the scheme was generally criticised especially the lack of meetings between internal mentors, external mentors and trainees since this often resulted in misconceived expectations;
- The restructuring of the Durban City Council has encouraged a higher degree of autonomy amongst the nine service units, thereby making co-ordinated action on Affirmative Action more difficult;
- Communication problems were also created by the fact that three different organisations, namely the University of Durban-Westville, the Durban City Council and the Centre for Community and Labour Studies, are involved in a common programme;
- In the initial placement, many trainees experienced difficulties, because of a lack of preparedness;
- Mentors frequently criticised the insufficient attention paid to matching the actual capabilities of trainees with the requirements of service units into which they were placed;
- The issue of employment was very high amongst the concerns of trainees.

 Most had no certainty about their future.
 - The following findings are based on an evaluation report of the 1994/95 cycle (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1995: 2-40):
- The overall work experience was beneficial, rewarding, appropriate and challenging. However, many trainees also felt that the work experience was interesting and not of a low level;

- The work experience exposed them to an understanding of decision making, communication skills, planning, project management, leadership skills, people handling skills, work discipline and to tolerate other people's opinions;
- Trainees believed that the work experience was positive, helpful and a learning experience;
- Most trainees did not strongly agree that they would have coped just as well without a mentor in the workplace;
- Most trainees felt that their internal mentors did help them to deal with conflict in the workplace, be upfront with their problems, assertive and build their confidence. Many trainees also found that their internal mentor experience enabled them to develop good relations with their workmates, plan strategically, enable them to set goals and work as a team, express their feelings and manage time;
- Many trainees did not see the external mentor experience as exactly the same as the internal mentor experience;
- The external mentor enabled many trainees to confront problems in the workplace, saw them regularly, intervened to their benefit, was objective in his or her advice and was not too personal;

- Trainees felt that the following modules were most useful and relevant in the workplace:
- i) Organisation;
- ii) Human Resource management;
- iii) Public Administration;
- iv) Orientation and Democratic Management of Local Government;
- v) Urban Administration Development;
- Many trainees felt that the Human Resource Management module should be given most attention;
- Trainees were positive in that the course material helped them to think strategically, organise and manage projects, organise time, understand how local authorities function, become more development minded, improve their leadership qualities, improve their people handling skills, understand what management and organisation systems is all about and to appreciate the basics of labour law and the legal framework of local government;
- Trainees felt that the visiting lecturers programme should be continued, since it provided an opportunity for deeper treatment of themes. However, it was also ascertained that the visiting lecturers programmes should be increased and the topics should be more varied;
- The Centre for Community and Labour Studies communicated adequately with trainees:
- There was sufficient feedback on assignments;

- The syndicate groups operated regularly and enabled trainees to develop their abilities to analyse, present arguments clearly, interact with others and discuss problems more frankly;
- The syndicate groups were not time consuming, neither did it interrupt the flow of information;
- Report backs to plenary assisted their presentation skills and received adequate time.

6.14 <u>RACE AND GENDER PROFILE OF TRAINEES AT THE DURBAN CITY</u> COUNCIL

A report by the Centre for Community and Labour Studies (1995:1-2) included the following race and gender profile of external trainees in receipt of stipends from the Durban City Council in the various service units from 1993-1996.

TABLE 6.1: PROFILE OF TDS TRAINEES IN RECEIPT OF STIPENDS AT DURBAN CITY COUNCIL MARCH 1993 - MARCH 1996

Population Group African	1993/4 1994/5 1995/6	9 [45%] 12 [67%] 22 [82%]	Gender	
			Male 6 [30%] 4 [22%] 6 [22%]	Female 3 [15%] 8 [44%] 16[59%]
Total	1994/5/6	43 [66%]	16 [25%]	27[41%]
Indian	1993/4 1194/5 1995/6	10 [50%] 5 [28%] 4 [15%]	4 [20%] 2 [4%] 1 [4%]	6 [30%] 3 [17%] 3 [11%]
Total	1994/5/6	19 [29%]	7 [11%]	12 [18%]
Coloured	1993/4 1994/5 1995/6	1 [5%] 1 [6%] 1 [4%]	0 [0%] 0 [0%] 0 [0%]	1 [5%] 1 [6%] 1 [4%]
Total	1994/5/6	3 [5%]	0 [0%]	3 [5%]
GRAND TOTAL	1994/5/6	65 [100%]	23 [35%]	42 [65%]

(Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1995: 1)

TARIR 62. NUMBER OF TRAINEES IN RECEIPT OF STIPENDS FROM DURBAN CITY COUNCIL IN SERVICE UNITS 1993-1996 SERVICE UNIT NUMBER OF NUMBER OF NUMBER OF TOTAL NO. TRAINEES IN TRAINEES IN TRAINEES IN OF TRAINEES 1993/4 1994/5 1995/6 1 [5%] 3 (17%) 3 [11%] 7 [11%] 1. City Services 4 [22%] 4 [15%] 12 [18%] 2. Community Services 4 [20%] 15 [23%] 3. Corporate Services 7 [35%] 3 [17%] 5 [19%] 4. Culture and Recreation 0 [0%] 3 [11%] 4 [6%] 1 [5%] 9 [14%] 5. Electricity Services 3 [15%] 4 [22%] 2 [7%] 6. Markets 0[0%] 1 [6%] 2 [7%] 3 [5%]

1 [6%]

1 [6%]

1 [6%]

18 [28%]

4 [15%]

1 [4%]

3 [11%]

27 [41%]

7 [11%]

2 [3%]

6 [9%]

65 [100%]

(Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1995:2)

7. Physical Environment

9. Water and Waste

8. Transport

TOTAL

2 [10%]

0 [0%]

2 [10%]

20 [31%]

From the profile it can be ascertained that the number of African trainees selected each year has increased. There has also been more female trainees compared to male trainees from 1993 - 1996.

The 1995/96 cycle has the highest number of trainees in receipt of stipends (41%) compared to the previous two cycles.

A report by the Centre for Community and Labour Studies (1995: 9-10) included the following race and gender profile of internal trainees from the Durban City Council in the various service units from 1993-1996.

TABLE 6.3: PROFILE OF DURBAN CITY COUNCIL EMPLOYEES ON TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SCHEME MARCH 1993 -MARCH 1996

Population Group African	1993/4 1994/5	7 [64%] 6 [67%]	Gender	
			Male 7 [64%] 6 [67%] 4 [25%]	Female 0 [0%] 0 [0%] 2 [13%]
Total	1995/6 1993/4/5	6 [38%] 19 [53%]	17 [47%]	2 [6%]
Indian	1993/4 1994/5 1995/6	3 [27%] 2 [22%] 7 [44%]	2 [18%] 2 [22%] 7 [44%]	1 [9%] 0 [0%] 0 [0%]
Total	1993/4/5	12 [33%]	11 [30%]	1 [3%]
Coloured	1993/4 1994/5 1995/6	1 [9%] 1 [11%] 1 [6%]	1 [9%] 1 [11%] 0 [0%]	0 [0%] 0 [0%] 1 [6%]
Total	1993/4/5	3 [8%]	2 [5%]	1 [3%]
White	1993/4 1994/5 1995/6	0 [0%] 0 [0%] 2 [12%]	0 [0%] 0 [0%] 1 [6%]	0 [0%] 0 [0%] 1 [6%]
Total	1993/4/5	2 [6%]	1 [3%]	1 [3%]
GRAND TOTAL	1993/4/5	36 [100%]	31 [86%]	5 [14%]

(Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1995:9)

TABLE 6.4: NUMBER OF DURBAN CITY COUNCIL EMPLOYEES ON TDS IN SERVICE UNITS 1993 - 1996						
SERVICE UNIT	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEE S IN 1993/4	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEE S IN 1994/5	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEE S IN 1995/6	TOTAL NO. OF EMPLOYEE S		
1. City Services	1 [9%]	0 {0%]	1 [6%]	2 [5%]		
2. Community Services	2 [18%]	1 [11%]	6 [38%]	9 [25%]		
3. Corporate Services	0 [0%]	0 [0%]	1 [6%]	1 [3%]		
4. Culture and Recreation	1 [9%]	2 [22%]	1 [6%]	4 [11%]		
5. Electricity Services	1 [9%]	3 [33%]	2 [13%]	6[17%]		
6. Markets	0[0%]	0 [0%]	4 [25%]	4 [11%]		
7. Physical Environment	3 [27%]	0 [0%]	0 [0%]	3 [8%]		
8. Transport	2 [18%]	2 [22%]	0 [0%]	4 [11%]		
9. Water and Waste	1 [9%]	1 [11%]	1 [6%]	3 [8%]		
TOTAL	11 [31%]	9 [25%]	16 [44%]	36 [100%]		

(Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1995: 10)

From the profile it can be ascertained that the number of African trainees selected each year has not significantly increased. There has also been more male trainees compared to female trainees from 1993-1996.

The 1995/96 cycle has the highest number of trainees from the Durban City Council (44%) compared to the Durban City Council trainees from the previous two cycles.

The 1995/96 cycle has more female trainees than male trainees at the Durban City Council. Twenty out of the twenty four female trainees at the Durban City Council are in receipt of stipends.

The 1995/96 cycle has the highest enrolment of trainees (43) compared to the 1993/94 cycle which had 31 trainees and the 1994/95 cycle which had 27 trainees at the Durban City Council. This is consistent with the aim of the Training and Development Scheme to increase the programme's enrolment to meet the pressing demands of local and provincial government for black managerial and professional personnel (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1995:1).

In 1994, the Durban City Council employed 60% of the graduate trainees and in 1995, the Durban City Council placed the entire cohort of graduate trainees assigned to it in employment (Centre for Community and Labour Studies 1995:1).

6.15 **SUMMARY**

The Training and Development Scheme as an Affirmative Action programme has been designed to address racial and gender disparities in employment practices, with particular focus on local and provincial authorities. It is unique in that it is an internship programme for graduates as well as a development programme for employees in council service.

The programme uses a multitude of training and development methods, both on-thejob and off-the-job training tools.

The Training and Development Scheme cannot change the racial profile of local government on its own. In view of the enormity of the task, the Training and Development Scheme should rather be seen as part of a macro process of Affirmative Action aimed at recruiting more experienced people, previously discriminated against, into senior levels of local and provincial government. With the incoming democratic councils this process will be accelerated.

Being an innovative programme, only in its third year of operation, problems with regard to co-ordination and implementation are not unusual. However, in the course of time, practice will make perfect.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapters a theoretical basis for training and development as an Affirmative Action strategy was researched.

In this chapter certain conclusions of the study will be drawn, and certain recommendations will be made.

An outline of the research methodology and organisation of chapters was provided in chapter one.

Chapter two focused on the inter-relationship between training and development, the aims of training and development, levels of needs analysis as well as the benefits and guidelines for effective training and development.

In chapter three, various training and development methods were discussed. The advantages and limitations of the various methods were also examined.

Chapter four examined training and development as an Affirmative Action strategy in the light of the Reconstruction and Development Programme, objectives of an Affirmative Action strategy and international models of Affirmative Action. An effort was also made to outline the major issues which require consideration for an Affirmative Action programme.

In chapter five, an attempt was made to discuss the reasons for the existence of local authorities and the process of local government transition. An insight was also provided into the Durban City Council with regard to its organisational structure, internal labour market, Affirmative Action policy and training and development.

Chapter six focused on the Training and Development Scheme as an Affirmative Action programme. The planning, co-ordination, monitoring and evaluation of the scheme was researched.

The conclusions drawn from the study are summarily listed below:

- i) There has been an inadequate number of female trainees from the Durban City Council enrolled for the Training and Development Scheme over the last three cycles of the programme. For the 1993/4/5 cycle there were only 5 females out of a total of 36 trainees from the Durban City Council.
- ii) Although the Training and Development Scheme did not guarantee employment to interns, the employment of interns at the Durban City Council revealed favourable numbers. At the end of the 1993/94 cycle, 60% of interns were employed by the Durban City Council, while at the end of the 1994/95 cycle, the Durban City Council employed all intern placements.
- iii) There has been no uniform criteria applied by both the Durban City Council and the Centre for Community and Labour Studies in the selection of trainees. In its rating the Centre of Community and Labour Studies, awarded a plus one for females.

- iv) In terms of work experience, internal and external trainees do not necessarily receive the same work exposure because of differing needs for technical, administrative and interpersonal skills.
- v) Mentors, especially those who are mentoring for the first time, are not given any formal orientation before the start of the training and development cycle.
- (vi) The external mentors are only from the University of Durban-Westville.
- vii) Internal mentors, unlike the external mentors, do not receive a renumeration for mentoring.
- viii) Trainees have to be proactive and use their initiative if they want a holistic development. They must determine areas in which they need development within a particular service unit and can rotate within the different departments. In this regard, internal mentors complete a development action plan for each trainee.
- ix) The Centre for Community and Labour Studies, only receives evaluation reports from external mentors and not from internal mentors.
- x) No workshops are held for trainees and mentors at the beginning of the cycle to provide guidelines on the mentoring experience.
- xi) Mentors are not subject to any form of individual evaluation.
- xii) The Centre for Community and Labour Studies and the managers from the Durban City Council do not apply uniform criteria when selecting their external and internal mentors respectively.

xiii) The Training and Development Scheme was viewed more favourably in the second cycle than in the first cycle.

7.2 **RECOMMENDATIONS**

The following recommendations are made for consideration:

RECOMMENDATION ONE

FORMAL CRITERIA FOR THE RECRUITMENT OF INTERNAL TRAINEES
SHOULD BE INSTITUTED BY THE DURBAN CITY COUNCIL

The Centre for Community and Labour Studies and the Durban City Council should establish uniform selection criteria for trainees. This would facilitate a more adequate representation of especially female trainees from the Durban City Council on the Training and Development Scheme.

RECOMMENDATION TWO

MENTORS AND TRAINEES SHOULD HAVE REGULAR MEETINGS TO DISCUSS THE LEARNING PROGRAMME

Both external and internal mentors should outline a learning programme with each trainee at the beginning of each cycle. The learning programme should be consistently reviewed by all three parties.

RECOMMENDATION THREE

THE STEERING COMMITTEE SHOULD BE REPRESENTED BY ALL STAKEHOLDERS

Apart from representatives from the Durban City Council, Department of Public Administration and the Centre of Community and Labour Studies, it is recommended that the internal and external mentors as well as both groups of trainees are also represented on this committee. The involvement of all stakeholders in this committee will give it a more holistic outlook in monitoring and reviewing the scheme on a continual basis.

RECOMMENDATION FOUR

THE FACILITATORS OF THE MENTORING PROGRAMME SHOULD BE INVOLVED IN THE SELECTION AND EVALUATION OF MENTORS FROM THE DURBAN CITY COUNCIL

The facilitators of the mentoring programme should organise a mentoring workshop on selecting potential mentors before managers choose their core of mentors for each cycle. The facilitators and managers should also work closely together in evaluating mentors, based on formally developed criteria. Managers could request trainees to complete questionnaires on their particular mentors. These evaluation reports would assist in the selection of future mentors. The facilitators of the mentoring programmes should not only provide feedback to the Centre for Community and Labour Studies, but also to the managers of the service units where there are mentors.

RECOMMENDATION FIVE

A TRAINEE-MENTOR WORKSHOP SHOULD BE HELD AT THE BEGINNING OF THE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT CYCLE

Such a workshop would facilitate the clarification of roles, the purposed structure of the relationship and clarification of expectations and objectives of the mentoring relationships.

RECOMMENDATION SIX

PROVISION FOR TERMINATION OF CONTRACT

The contract which external trainees sign should provide for the conditions under which trainees could terminate their contracts if they wish to do so.

RECOMMENDATION SEVEN

MENTORS AND LECTURING STAFF SHOULD HAVE REGULAR WORKSHOPS
WITH A VIEW TO ESTABLISHING A LINK BETWEEN THEORY AND WORK
EXPERIENCE DURING THE DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT TRAINING
COURSE

It is important that trainees are exposed to the world of theory that is not insulated from their practical work experiences. Contact between mentors and lecturing staff can help to fuse theory with practical work.

RECOMMENDATION EIGHT

INTERNAL MENTORS SHOULD SEND REPORTS ON TRAINEES TO THE CENTRE FOR COMMUNITY AND LABOUR STUDIES. SUCH REPORTS SHOULD ALSO BE MADE AVAILABLE TO TRAINEES WHEN REQUESTED

Since each trainee has two mentors, it is imperative that both groups of mentors provide feedback on trainees. The report of internal mentors on the trainees performance in the work situation can be used as a continuous assessment which would form one component in determining the award of the Certificate in Development Management. The reports should not be regarded as confidential, since they are suppose to be a fair reflection on the trainee's progress. Trainees should be entitled to peruse any report made on them. This would serve as a means of avoiding unfair reports.

RECOMMENDATION NINE

THE FACILITATION COMMITTEE SHOULD REPRESENT BOTH INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL TRAINEES

To achieve a sense of cohesian between internal and external trainees, it is important that this committee represents both groups of trainees in resolving problems peculiar to the Training and Development Scheme. While one may argue that internal trainees are full time employees of the Council and have recourse to a union, it should be borne in mind that as trainees they may experience problems identical to external trainees in the Training and Development Scheme.

RECOMMENDATION TEN

MENTORS SHOULD ALSO BE SELECTED FROM OTHER TERTIARY
INSTITUTIONS WHICH HAVE GRADUATE TRAINEES ON THE TRAINING
AND DEVELOPMENT SCHEME

To make the mentoring programme more inclusive mentors should also be selected from other tertiary institutions. This would help to make the external mentoring more manageable in the light of the increased enrolment for the 1995/6 cycle.

RECOMMENDATION ELEVEN

A TRAINEE ORIENTATION COURSE ON THE FUNCTIONING OF THE DURBAN CITY COUNCIL AS A LOCAL AUTHORITY SHOULD BE ORGANISED FOR EXTERNAL TRAINEES AND MENTORS BEFORE THE COMMENCEMENT OF A TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT CYCLE

Since graduates often do not have adequate knowledge of the organisational structure, policies and procedures of local authorities, it is important that they are familiarised with such issues. In this regard orientation courses can also be extended to external mentors.

RECOMMENDATION TWELVE

INTERNAL MENTORS SHOULD RECEIVE RENUMERATION FOR MENTORING

Mentors, irrespective whether they are internal or external mentors, are important resources to be developed and rewarded. Uniform procedures and policies should be established for internal and external mentors. In this regard, internal mentors like their counterparts should be in receipt of renumeration. Mentoring should also be considered as a criterion for promotion, as a means of stimulating effective and dedicated mentoring.

RECOMMENDATION THIRTEEN

THE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SCHEME SHOULD BE CONTINUED NOT ONLY IN KWAZULU NATAL, BUT ALSO EXTENDED TO LOCAL AND PROVINCIAL AUTHORITIES AND TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN THE OTHER EIGHT PROVINCES

The Training and Development Scheme is an unique Affirmative Action programme for the public sector. In view of the fact that this scheme addresses the inequities in employment in the public sector, it would be of great benefit to other local and provincial authorities outside Kwazulu Natal to replicate this scheme.

RECOMMENDATION FOURTEEN

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION SHOULD BE LEGISLATED IN SOUTH AFRICA

Legislating Affirmative action would act as an institutional back-up to the process of managing Affirmative Action. Institutionally backed procedures can regard patronage, nepotism, favouritism, race and gender discrimination as unacceptable practices. Legislation can also provide grants to organisations which show proof of equity in employment practices.

Finally, this chapter mentioned the various aspects covered in the different chapters.

Training and development as an Affirmative Action strategy is a new phenomenon in South Africa. Training and Development within the context of Affirmative Action is gaining momentum, in the wake of a post-apartheid South Africa now characterised by democracy, equal opportunities and fairness.

Training and development programmes aimed at addressing the inequities in employment practices during the apartheid era are becoming a necessity and not a matter of choice.

In conclusion, training and development as an Affirmative Action strategy requires extensive research to ensure that an appropriate model, in keeping with South Africa's peculiar needs, is developed.

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APPENDICES



IKAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SCHERE (1DS)

SELECTION CRITERIA

NAME OF APPLICANT:	Rating 1 Low - High
NAME OF ASSESSOR:	
Academic Performance: Overall academic strength; intellectual development over the duration of the degree; subject areas in which the applicant shows greatest ability and / or potential [e.g. Labour Relations, Accounting, Property Law; special awards]	1 - 5
Previous work experience and skills: Work activities outside the degree, especially in Local Government, community, trade unions and labour relations; special skills attained concurrently with the development of an academic discipline, e.g. computer, communications, economic and social surveys, financial management, labour / personnel relations. Quality of work references, recommendations, potential for work in these spheres.	1 - 10
Leadership Qualities: Potential management qualities capacity to motivate others, plan, communicate and resolve problems. Activities in community, church, school and student work.	1- 10
Career Potential: Good combination of work and leadership activities; evidence of a sense of direction; potential to lead, communicate and transfer skills. Capacity to problematise a situation, accept challenges and deal with people.	1 -10
Communication Skills: References articulatenes, written communication skills and rapport with people.	1 -10
Social Concerns: Environment and community mindedness, awareness of urban development needs; evidence of activity in community, church, service organisations or trade unions. Awareness of local government dynamics and ideas on social transformation.	1 - 10
Gender: All applicants to be treated on the same basis for selection. A common level is to be looked for and provided applicants meEt this minimum level he/she may short-listed for the preliminary selections. Other considerations such as gender proportionality viz a viz the total, will be considered finally	+ 1
Disadvantagement: Access to educational opportunities; social and economic disadvantagement; quality of schooling; educational disruption; school changes and consequent educational hardship.	1 - 1
NOTE (Non rated indicators)	

Physical Disability: the disability would have to interfere seriously with the applicants ability

AGREEMENT

entered into between

CENTRE FOR COMMUNITY AND LABOUR STUDIES (herein referred to as CCLS)

and

(herein referred to as the TRAINEE)

IMPORTANT NOTE

The document records the terms and stipulations of the TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT SCHEME (TDS) which is run by CCLS in conjuction with the SCHOOL OF PUBLIC POLICY AND DEVELOPMENT MANAGEMENT, University of Durban-Westville. In order to preserve the well being and esteem of the scheme it is necessary that attention of the trainees be drawn to the following terms and stipulations of the programme:

PREAMBLE

The trainee undertakes diligently to carry out the requirements of the three (3) components of the TDS namely:

- i) internship with the DURBAN CITY COUNCIL (referred to as the Council / DCC) or KwaZulu Nata Provincial Administration.
- ii) mentorship and
- iii) the development management training course.

1.

ATTENDANCE

Attendance is compulsory in the workplace, prescribed mentorship sessions and the training course. Th trainee shall attend:

- 1.1 the Council/Provincial Administration for four and a half days per week viz. Mondays, Tuesday Wednesday, Thursday and Friday mornings.
- the seminars and workshops conducted at the University of Durban-Westville or such other plac as advised every Friday afternoon from 1:00 4:00 pm and such other times as advised.
- 1.3 seminars at the University of Durban-Westville or elsewhere as adviced on seven (7) Saturday (from 10:00 am 4:00 pm) spread over the duration of the scheme as indicated in the TD Year Planner for 1995/6.
 - 1.4 field trips or such other visits connected with the scheme the dates of which will be confirme in due course.

ASSIGNMENTS

Trainees will complete two (2) assignments and such other tasks as required which must be submitted timeously on the dates prescribed. Failure to either

- i) submit the assignment or
- ii) submit the assignment timeously or
- iii) attain an average percentage of 50% on all assignments

will jeopardise receipt of the Award of the Certificate in Development Management at the completion of the course.

3.

COURSE MATERIALS

TDS provides a course-file, containing the materials on which the seminars and workshops are based. The trainee agrees to pay for any additional files or copies thereof and to acknowledge the source of the material in the event of its citation in any text written for purposes outside the TDS programme.

4.

MENTORSHIP

The trainee shall be provided with a mentorship programme which shall be conducted by an external and an internal mentor. The internal mentor will be a person nominated by the Loca Authority/Provincial Administration from its senior personnel whereas an external mentor will be appointed by CCLS in consultation with the School of Public Policy and Development Management University of Durban-Westville.

The trainee shall meet, set goals, confer and attend mentoring sessions as required by the mentoring programme.

REPORTS

Trainees shall submit study reports and "practitioner's exercises" based on the course material including a report on the field trips.

6.

STIPEND

The trainee will be paid a monthly stipend in the amount of R2000.00 paid into his/her bank accoun by electronic transfer commencing end of March 1995 and ending on the 28 February 1996. Paymen of the stipend is subject to the satisfactory attendance and performance of the trainee in all the components of the programme including the workplace, compliance with terms and conditions of the contract.

7.

DURATION

The duration of the programme is for a period of twelve (12) months commencing 1 March 1995 and ending on 28 February 1996. The trainee is aware and fully understands that there is NO guarantee, undertaking or obligation of the Local Authority / Provincial Administration to employ him/her at the end of the programme whereby the stipend hitherto paid to the trainee will cease to be paid and there will be no further obligation on the CCLS to pay such stipend or to seek employment for the trainee.

ADHERENCE TO THE LOCAL AUTHORITY / PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION'S TERMS AND CONDITIONS OF TDS INTERNSHIP PROGRAMME

The trainee undertakes to abide by the terms and conditions of the Local Authority / Provincial Administration as outlined in the appendix to this agreement.

9.

UNDERTAKINGS

- 9.1 In case of any misunderstanding emanating from the scheme between the trainee and the Local Authority / Provincial Administration or CCLS, the trainee agrees to resolve such disputes by negotiation with the Director of the TDS and such other persons relevant to the dispute or misunderstanding.
- 9.2 The trainee undertakes not to publish or cause to be published any information relating to the scheme without the prior knowledge and consent of the Director of the scheme.
- 9.3 The trainee undertakes to comply with all the requirements of the TDS and is aware that breach of any term or condition of the agreement may result in one or more of the following:
- 9.3.1 Termination of the contract:
- 9.3.2 Non payment of the stipend;
- 9.3.3 Denial or cancellation of the certificate;
- 9.3.4 Legal action against the trainee/s concerned;
- 9.3.5 Any other appropriate disciplinary action which the Centre may deem necessary under the circumstances.

..

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The Centre undertakes to discharge all its obligations under the TDS and the trainee confirms that s/he has read this document carefully and has obtained all necessary explanations of language and terms used, and is satisfied that s/he fully understands this agreement, which is entered into freely and without pressure.

-1.			
SIGNED		5	
_	Trainee		Director of Project
Dated at Durban this			day of March 1995.

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Name of ou	tside Mentor:	Job designation of	Mentor :	
DEVELOPMENT AREAS AGREED UPON	OBJECTIVES/OUTPUTS AGREED UPON	ACTIVITIES AGREED UPON THAT WILL MAKE THE FULFILMENT OF THE OBJECTIVE/OUTPUT POSSIBLE	FOLLOW-UP DATES FOR ACTIVITIES	DEADLINE FOR ACTIVITIES
		Courses:		
		Videos:		
•				
		Books: Articles:		
		ATCICIES.		
		On-the-job Activities:	-	
			-	
		Other:		

------ ANCILON FURN (U.A.F.

EXTERNAL MENTOR REPORT

NAME OF INTERN	N: phone no's :[Work & Home] fax:
NAME OF UDW M	ENTOR:
NAME OF WORK	PLACE MENTOR:
SERVICE UNIT/DI	EPARTMENT/DIVISION:
OLLOW UP [Issues	s/problems/training/workplace relations]
	-
8	
EW DEVEL	OPMENTS [Negative/positive eg. woibilities/conflict/frustration etc.]

-				
<u> </u>				
NING [What is	provided/what is	needed/what cou	rses?]	
.· 41				
*	-			
	- 945 - 194			-
			54 Se 1425	
E CUCIED EXECU-			0.7	
L SET [what g	oals have been set?	/progress/result	s?]	
		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		

TRAINEE PROGRESS EVALUATION

		5	DATE :	
deta		aluation of var	d under my supervis	
DETA	ILS OF TRAINEE			
Name	:			
Serv	ice Unit :			
Depa	rtment :			
DEPA	RTMENT DETAILS			
Depa	rtment/Section :	<u> </u>		·
From		·	No. of Days	
Dire	ct Supervisor :	<u> </u>		
Desi	gnation of Supervis	sor :		
Depa	rtmental Manager :			·
EVAL	UATION OF TRAINEE			
1.	General Impression	ns :	· .	
	·			
			·	
		• ;		
	-			

2.	Technical/Practical Evaluation: (Please indicate all activities he/she has been trained
	in)
	Rating scale 1 = Poor 2 = Unsatisfactory 3 = Average 4 = Satisfactory 5 = Excellent
	Rating
i.	Comment:
ii.	Comment :
iii.	Comment :
iv.	Comment :
v.	Comment:
vi.	
VI.	Comment:
vii.	·
A T T •	Comment:
	V 22

			•	Rating
	vii.	•		
	V11.	Comment	:	
N			<u> </u>	
5.	viii.	Comment	:	
			•	
	ix.	Comment	:	
	x.			
		Comment	:	
	xi.			
	х1.	Comment	:	
			•	
	xii.	Comment	:	

(Examples: Receiving/Despatch of Correspondence; Compilation of Agenda; Compilation of Minutes; Setting up a Meeting etc.

N.B. The rating must include his/her understanding of different activities, as well as knowledge after practical period.

	3.	General			
			•	•	Rating
	i.	Insight			
7	ii.	Planning			
ð	iii.	Organising			
	iv.	Judgement	:		
	v.	Initiating			
	vi.	Communication (v	erbal) ritten)		
	vii.	Relations with:	Colleagues Superiors Subordinates		
	viii.	Problem Solving			
	ix.	Decision Making		ie.	
	х.	Attitude		•	

3. Gen	eral (cont'd)	· YS
		Rating
xi.	Conduct	
xii.	Reliability	
xiii.	Handling Difficult Situations	
xiv.	Enthusiasm	
Please	indicate your opinion :	
His/he	r strengths :	
Hie/he	r development needs .	
1112/116	r development needs :	

4.	Does	the trainee have the ability to : (Please motivate)
4.	Docs.	the crained have one abirty of t (rieds mostvace,
	i.	Work with others ?
	ii.	Handle conflict situations ?
	iii.	Learn new concepts, procedures, regulations?
,	iv.	Able to sell ideas/views to others ?
	v.	Have Supervisory/Management potential ?
	vi.	Influence others ?
	vii.	Persuade others ?
		91
5.	Would ment	d you wish to have the trainee back in your Depart-
i		
		•
		· _
Sign	ature	Date ·

: , ;