

**LEADERSHIP VERSUS ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE WITHIN THE
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS**

By

DHANALUTCHMEE NAIDOO

DISSERTATION

**Submitted in part fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Public
Administration in the Department of Public Administration in the Faculty of
Commerce and Administration at the University of Kwa-Zulu Natal**

Promoter: Dr. P. Pillay

Date Submitted: July 2005



DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my late grandfather, Mr. Ganas Pillay,
who provided my early childhood inspiration and
taught me the power of patience in overcoming hurdles.
I sincerely thank him for teaching me to believe in myself.

May you always be my guiding light!

096587

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank the following people who have greatly assisted in the completion of this study:

My tutor, Dr. Solosh Pillay, for her guidance and constructive criticism

My parents, for teaching me the value of a good education

A special thanks to my mother, who like, my maternal grandfather, taught me the power of perseverance, and the courage to believe that anything is possible with God beside you

My dear brother, Rajen Murugan, who gave up his family time, to assist me in accomplishing this study. He tutored, mentored, proof read and provided critique in a constructive manner. To Rajen and his wife, Shaamla, and their daughters, Prevani and Prashini, I am eternally grateful for lovingly accommodating my constant intrusions.

Angela Thomas for her patience and expertise in the layout and correction of this document.

My sisters, Surrie, Poovie and Amy, for their constant motivation

My dear friends, Chris Ntsele and Karien Van der Vyver for their constant encouragement and friendship, which saw me through tough times

My dearest children, Dharini and Thiashni Naidoo for their sacrifice and willingness to give up their school holidays, so that this study could be completed

My dear husband, Rajan Naidoo for being there when things did not go as planned and for accommodating all my frustrations!

To all those who I may inadvertently have missed out, I thank you.

ABSTRACT

The process of leading and managing the worldwide network of Embassies and High Commissions within the South African Department of Foreign Affairs is extremely challenging. It requires knowledge of globalisation and the utilisation of information technology. This knowledge would enable leaders to respond more rapidly and across geographic boundaries, thereby enhancing efficiency within the Department of Foreign Affairs. The speed, accuracy and efficiency of the staff will, however, depend increasingly on leadership as a guided process, which brings out the best in subordinates, exposing their creative talents, skills and qualities that will enhance the image of South Africa, internationally.

In this study, an overview of public administration will be given, as the Department of Foreign Affairs is a public institution and is governed by the normative guidelines of public administration.

The theories of leadership will be outlined and evaluated. These theories date from the 1950's up to contemporary studies in leadership, which illustrates the changing patterns of leading with changing times and the utilisation of technology in task accomplishment.

An overall structure of the Department of Foreign Affairs is outlined, tracing South Africa's foreign policy from the apartheid era to post 1994. The study also demonstrates the effects of changed government policy and its impact on the functioning and makeup of the Department.

Theories of organisational performance and quality management, as well as the principles of "Batho Pele" are outlined, and their relevance to the functioning of the Department of Foreign Affairs, is given impetus.

In this study, research was conducted among sixty officials of different ranks at ten different South African Missions across the world. The results of the survey indicate the dire need for leaders who understand the importance of leadership, and how their leadership styles impact on organisational efficiency and service delivery.

A range of recommendations are proposed for diplomatic leaders to personally take responsibility for creating an environment where routine jobs become more meaningful, where the human spirit becomes liberated, and where people are transformed from positions of *working to live to living to work!*

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that except where acknowledged, this research is, in its entirety, my own work. All sources used or quoted have been acknowledged and this dissertation has not been previously submitted for a degree or diploma at another tertiary educational institution.

Dhanalutchmee Naidoo

July 2005

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1 DEMARCATION OF STUDY FIELD

1.1	Introduction.....	1
1.2	What is Leadership	3
1.3	Organisational Performance.....	3
1.4	Need for the Study.....	4
1.5	Guiding Assumptions.....	4
1.6	Nature of Study.....	4
1.7	Overview of Chapters	4
1.7.1	Chapter One – Demarcation of Study Field.....	5
1.7.2	Chapter Two – Public Administration: An Overview.....	5
1.7.3	Chapter Three – Leadership: A Conceptual Framework.....	5
1.7.4	Chapter Four – The Department of Foreign Affairs & Organisational Performance	5
1.7.5	Chapter Five – Research Methodology	5
1.7.6	Chapter Six – Analysis and Presentation of Data	6
1.7.7	Chapter Seven – Conclusions and Recommendations.....	6
1.8	Definition and Terminology.....	6
1.9	List of Abbreviations.....	7

CHAPTER 2 PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION – AN OVERVIEW

2.1	Introduction.....	8
2.2	Distinctiveness of Public Administration.....	9
2.3	Public Administration Approaches	9
2.3.1	The Multidisciplinary Approach	10
2.3.2	The Traditional / Generic Process Approach.....	10
2.3.3	Systems / Innovative Approach	10
2.3.4	Contingency or Situation Approach.....	10
2.3.5	Theory Z	10
2.3.6	Management of Excellence.....	10
2.3.7	Strategic Management Approac	11
2.3.8	Quantitative Approach.....	11

2.3.9 Social Responsibility and Management of Ethics.....	11
2.3.10 Japanese Management Approach	11
2.3.11 Innovation and Change.....	11
2.3.12 The Traditional Approach.....	12
2.3.12.1 The Generic Administrative Functions	14
2.3.12.1.1 Policy Making	14
2.3.12.1.2 Organising.....	14
2.3.12.1.3 Determining Work Procedures	14
2.3.12.1.4 Financing.....	15
2.3.12.1.5 Staffing.....	15
2.3.12.1.6 Controlling.....	16
2.3.12.2 Auxillary Functions and Instrumental Activities.....	16
2.3.12.3 Functional Activities.....	18
2.3.12.4 Criticism of the Traditional Approach	18
2.3.13 The Innovative Approach	19
2.3.13.1 Public Management Environment.....	21
2.3.13.1.1 General Environment.....	21
2.3.13.1.2 Specific Environment	22
2.3.14 An Adaptation of the Cloete-Schwella Approach.....	23
2.4 Normative Guidelines of Public Administration.....	25
2.4.1 Democracy.....	25
2.4.2 Ethical Norms.....	25
2.4.3 Human Rights.....	27
2.4.4 Public Accountability and Transparency.....	27
2.4.5 Efficiency and Effectiveness.....	27
2.4.6 Response to Public Demands.....	28
2.5 Chapter Summary.....	28

CHAPTER 3 LEADERSHIP – A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction.....	30
3.2 Defining Leadership	30
3.3 The Components of Leadership.....	31
3.3.1 Power and Authority in Leadership	32
3.3.2 Sources of Power	33
3.3.2.1 Reward or Utility Power.....	33

3.3.2.2	Coercive Power	34
3.3.2.3	Legitimate Power	34
3.3.2.4	Referent Power	35
3.3.2.5	Expert Power	35
3.3.3	Evaluation of the Sources of Power in Leadership	35
3.3.4	Power Tools for Leadership	35
3.3.4.1	Persuasion	36
3.3.4.2	Patience	36
3.3.4.3	Gentleness	36
3.3.4.4	“Teachable-ness”	36
3.3.4.5	Acceptance	36
3.3.4.6	Compassionate confrontation	36
3.3.4.7	Consistency	37
3.3.4.8	Integrity	37
3.4	Leadership and Management	37
3.4.1	Differences between Leadership and Management	38
3.5	Theories of Leadership	39
3.5.1	Trait Based Theories	40
3.5.2	Behavioural Theories	41
3.5.2.1	The Iowa Studies	41
3.5.2.1.1	Autocratic Style	42
3.5.2.1.2	Democratic Style	42
3.5.2.1.3	Laissez-faire style	42
3.5.2.2	Ohio State Studies	43
3.5.2.2.1	Considerate Style	43
3.5.2.2.2	Initiating Structure Style	44
3.5.2.3	The Michigan Studies	46
3.5.2.3.1	Employee-centred Leadership	46
3.5.2.3.2	Production-centred Leadership	46
3.5.2.4	The Behavioural Theory – An Evaluation	47
3.5.3	Contingency Leadership	47
3.5.3.1	Fiedler’s Contingency Theory	47
3.5.3.1.1	Leader-member relations	49
3.5.3.1.2	Task Structure	49
3.5.3.1.3	Leader position power	50

3.5.3.1.4 Fiedler's Contingency Theory – An Evaluation	51
3.5.3.2 The Path-Goal Theory of Robert House.....	52
3.5.3.2.1 Supportive leadership	53
3.5.3.2.2 Directive Leadership	53
3.5.3.2.3 Participative Leadership	53
3.5.3.2.4 Achievement-oriented leadership	53
3.5.3.2.5 Situational Factors.....	54
3.5.3.2.5.1 Subordinate Characteristics	54
3.5.3.2.5.1.1 Ability.....	54
3.5.3.2.5.1.2 Locus of Control.....	54
3.5.3.2.5.1.3 Needs and Motives.....	54
3.5.3.2.5.2 Environmental Forces.....	55
3.5.3.2.5.2.1 Tasks.....	55
3.5.3.2.5.2.2 Work group	55
3.5.3.2.5.2.3 Formal authority system	55
3.5.3.2.6 Hypotheses of Path-Goal Theory.....	56
3.5.3.2.7 House's Path – Goal Theory – An Evaluation.....	57
3.5.4 Styles of Leadership.....	58
3.5.4.1 The Leadership-style Continuum advocated by Tannenbaum & Schmidt.....	59
3.5.4.1.1 Forces in the Leader	60
3.5.4.1.2 Forces in the Subordinates.....	60
3.5.4.1.3 Forces in the situation	61
3.5.4.1.4 The Leadership-style Continuum – An Evaluation	61
3.5.4.2 The Leadership Grid advocated by Blake & Mouton.....	61
3.5.4.2.1 The Authority Compliance Leader (9.1)	63
3.5.4.2.2 The Country Club Leader (1.9)	63
3.5.4.2.3 The Impoverished Leader (1:1).....	63
3.5.4.2.4 The Middle-of-the-Road Leader (5.5).....	63
3.5.4.2.5 The Team Leader (9.9)	64
3.5.4.2.6 The Theory of Blake & Mouton – An Evaluation	64
3.5.4.3 The Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey & Blanchard.....	64
3.5.4.3.1 Task Behaviour.....	65
3.5.4.3.2 Relationship Behaviour	65
3.5.4.3.2.1 Job maturity	65
3.5.4.3.2.2 Psychological maturity.....	66

3.5.4.3.3 The Maturity Continuum	66
3.5.4.3.4 Developmental Level.....	67
3.5.4.3.5 Choosing the Appropriate Leadership Style	67
3.5.4.3.6 The Leadership Matrix	68
3.5.4.3.7 The Theory of Heresy & Blanchard – An Evaluation	70
3.6 Contemporary Leadership	71
3.6.1 Transactional Leader.....	71
3.6.2 Charismatic Leadership.....	72
3.6.3 Transformational Leadership.....	72
3.6.4 Female Leadership.....	74
3.6.5 Dynamic Leadership.....	74
3.6.6 Attribution Theory.....	75
3.6.7 Contemporary Leadership- An Evaluation.....	75
3.7 Chapter Summary	76

CHAPTER 4 THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE

4.1 Introduction.....	78
4.2 South Africa's Foreign Policy prior to 1994	78
4.3 South Africa's Foreign Policy since 1994.....	79
4.3.1 The Vision and Mission of the New Department of Foreign Affairs.....	80
4.4 Organisational Performance.....	81
4.4.1 Theories of Organisational Performance	81
4.4.1.1 The Peters and Waterman Study	81
4.4.1.2 Relevance of the Peters and Waterman Study	82
4.5 Batho Pele	83
4.5.1 The Service Delivery Principles of Batho Pele	83
4.5.2 The Department of Foreign Affairs Embraces the New Improved Service Delivery.....	85
4.6 Affirmative Action within the Department of Foreign Affairs	87
4.6.1 The Department of Foreign Affairs Tackles Employment Equity	88
4.7 The Rapid Increase in South Africa's International and Global Status	91
4.8 The Tenets of South Africa's Foreign Policy	92
4.8.1 South Africa's Foreign Policy Objective.....	93
4.8.1.1 Security	93

4.8.1.2 Stability	94
4.8.1.3 Sustainable Development	95
4.8.1.4 Co-operation.....	95
4.9 Heller's Study of European Excellence.....	96
4.9.1 Relevance of Heller's Study of European Excellence	97
4.10 South Africa Adopts the New Economic Programme for Africa's Development (NEPAD).....	97
4.10.1 The Role of the Department of Foreign Affairs in NEPAD.....	98
4.11 South Africa's Regional and Multilateral Interests.....	98
4.11.1 Africa.....	99
4.11.2 Asia and Middle East.....	99
4.11.3 Americas & Europe	100
4.12 The Goldsmith & Clutterbuck Study.....	100
4.12.1 Relevance of the Goldsmith and Clutterbuck Study.....	101
4.13 Total Quality Management.....	102
4.13.1 The Department of Foreign Affairs Embraces TQM.....	102
4.13.2 The Lessons of TQM for the Department of Foreign Affairs	102
4.14 Information Communication Technology and the Department of Foreign Affairs	103
4.14.1 Information will be the Key to Success	104
4.15 Chapter Summary.....	104

CHAPTER 5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction.....	105
5.2 The Objectives of the Present Study included the following:.....	105
5.3 The Sampling Technique and Description of the Sample.....	106
5.4 Selection of Sample of Mission/Embassy/High Commission	107
5.4.1 Selection of Missions	107
5.4.2 Selection of Foreign Service Officers	107
5.5 Data Collection Techniques	107
5.5.1 Procedure	108
5.6 The Research Instrument	108
5.6.1 The Questionnaire comprised three sections:	108
5.6.1.1 Section A: Biographical Data	108
5.6.1.2 Section B: Task Performance.....	109

5.6.1.3	Section C: Group Maintenance Leadership	109
5.6.1.4	Section D: General Leadership	109
5.7	The Interview	109
5.7.1	Interviewing the Head of Management	110
5.8	Response Rate	110
5.9	Limitations	110
5.10	The Findings of the Study	111
5.10.1	Section A – Biographical Details	111
5.10.2	Designation of Respondents	111
5.10.3	Gender of Respondents	112
5.10.4	Highest Level of Qualification	112
5.10.5	Work Experience	113
5.10.6	Size of Diplomatic Staff at the Mission/Business Unit	113
5.10.7	Work Tenure at Present Mission	114
5.11	Section B – General Questions	114
5.11.1	Vision of the Department of Foreign Affairs	114
5.11.2	Mission Statement of the Department of Foreign Affairs	115
5.11.3	The objectives of the Department of Foreign Affairs in terms of the following:	116
5.11.3.1	Long term Goals	116
5.11.3.2	Medium term Goals	116
5.11.3.3	Short term Goals	116
5.11.4	Leadership as applicable to your Mission/Business Unit	116
5.11.5	Offering Praises and Celebrating Successes	117
5.11.6	Suggesting Changes to the ITC Network	118
5.11.7	Freedom to Execute Duties	118
5.11.8	Information as a Resource in the Department of Foreign Affairs	119
5.11.9	Drafting of Business Plan	120
5.12	Section C – Group Dynamics	121
5.12.1	Managing Conflict	121
5.12.2	Redressing Grievances	122
5.12.3	Managers' Concern about Future Benefits of Subordinates	123
5.12.4	Capacity and Skills to achieve Objectives	125
5.12.5	Enforcing the Principles of Batho Pele	125
5.12.6	Promoting the interest of Africa	126
5.12.7	Posting Officials with Appropriate Competencies	127

5.12.8 Completing Tasks within Timeframes	128
5.12.9 Describing Supervisors' Leadership Style	129
5.12.10 Competence in Key Positions	130
5.12.11 Supervisor displaying Appropriate Leader Behaviour	131
5.12.12 Competence in Use of Information Technology	132
5.12.13 Mission staffs' Understanding of the Business Environment	133
5.13 Chapter Summary	133

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

6.1 Introduction	135
6.2 The Department of Foreign Affairs in an Era of Competition	135
6.3 Elements still Stuck in the Apartheid Past	136
6.3.1 Empowerment over Control	137
6.3.2 Collaboration over Competition	138
6.3.3 Relationship over Things	139
6.3.4 Diversity over Uniformity	140
6.4 Leading in the New Era	140
6.4.1 The Transformational Approach	140
6.4.2 Adapting to Change	141
6.5 Leading is Interdependent	142
6.6 Observing Integrity within the Diplomatic Service	142
6.7 Concluding Remarks	143

BIBLIOGRAPHY	145
---------------------------	------------

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1	Model: Public Administration	13
Figure 2.2	Shwella's Public Management Model.....	20
Figure 2.3	The Cloete-Schwella Model.....	24
Figure 3.1	Four Leadership Styles from The Ohio State Studies	45
Figure 3.2	Major Variables in Fiedler's Contingency Theory.....	48
Figure 3.3	Fiedler's Situation Analysis and Appropriate Style	50
Figure 3.4	Relationship of Variables in the Path-Goal Theory.....	53
Figure 3.5	Leader Roles in the Path-Goal Model.....	56
Figure 3.6	Path-Goal Situations and Preferred Leader Behaviours.....	57
Figure 3.7	Leadership-Style Continuum of Tannenbaum and Schmidt	59
Figure 3.8	The Leadership Grid of Blake and Mouton.....	62
Figure 3.9	Maturity Continuum	66
Figure 3.10	Development Level.....	67
Figure 3.11	Relationship Behaviour and Task Behaviour	69
Figure 4.1	The Organisational Structure of the Department of Foreign Affairs	87
Figure 5.1	Designation of Officials.....	111
Figure 5.2	Highest Level of Qualification.....	112
Figure 5.3	Work Experience.....	113
Figure 5.4	Size of Diplomatic Staff at the Mission / Business Unit	113
Figure 5.5	Work Tenure at Present Mission.....	114
Figure 5.6	Offering Praises and Celebrating Successes	117
Figure 5.7	Freedom to Execute Duties.....	118
Figure 5.8	Drafting of Business Plan.....	120

Figure 5.9	Manager's Concern about Future Benefits to Subordinates	123
Figure 5.10	Promoting the Interest of Africa.....	126
Figure 5.11	Posting Officials with Appropriate Competencies.....	127
Figure 5.12	Completing Tasks within Timeframes.....	128
Figure 5.13	Competence in Key Positions.....	130
Figure 5.14	Supervisor Displaying Appropriate Leader Behaviour.....	131
Figure 5.15	Missions' Staff Undertaking of the Business Environment.....	133

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1	Meeting Targets in Addressing Affirmative Action within the Department of Foreign Affairs.....	89
Table 4.2	Meeting Targets in Addressing Affirmative Action and Gender Equity at Senior Management Level within the Department of Foreign Affairs.....	90
Table 5.1	Gender of Respondents.....	112

CHAPTER 1

DEMARCATIION OF STUDY FIELD

Introduction

The Department of Foreign Affairs is responsible for the development, promotion and execution of South Africa's foreign policy.

The Head of a South African Mission is a representative of the Head of State and therefore, the country. The Head of Mission represents South Africa in the full scope of international relations and serves as the spokesperson of the Head of State and Government. In fulfilling this mandate, the Department of Foreign Affairs, and its one hundred and twenty Missions across the globe are guided by the Vision, Mission Statement and Values, as well as the country's foreign policy objectives, which, according to the Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2000/2001:10) are as follows:

The Vision of the Department of Foreign Affairs is that: *"South Africa shall strive for peace, stability, democracy and development in an African continent, which is non-sexist, prosperous and united; contributing towards a world that is just and equitable"*.

The Mission Statement of the Department of Foreign Affairs: *"The Department of Foreign Affairs is committed to promoting South Africa's national values, The African Renaissance and the creation of a better world for all"*.

The Values of the Department of Foreign Affairs are *"loyalty, dedication, ubuntu, equity and professional integrity"*.

South Africa's foreign policy objectives are *security, stability, sustainable development and co-operation*.

Since the emergence of South Africa from apartheid isolation, radical structural changes have taken place within the Department of Foreign Affairs. The post 1994 era saw Pretoria become

the key global player in the political arena. This resulted in an increase of South African Diplomatic Missions abroad as well as the increased presence of Foreign Missions within the borders of the country.

As the tasks of the Department of Foreign Affairs gained momentum, this necessitated an improved organisational structure to cater for increased capacity in this dynamic environment. The Department of Foreign Affairs rose to challenges by improving its communication network and investing significantly in its human capital.

To carefully guide the human resource capacity of handling this increased work-load, the process of leading and managing becomes a high priority. The success, therefore, of the Department of Foreign Affairs, will depend increasingly on leadership as a shared and collaborative process, drawing on the talents, skills and qualities of all those involved within the diplomatic corps.

The aim of this study is to reflect the importance of effective and efficient leaders who, through their style of leadership, will guide their staff towards excellent service delivery within the Department of Foreign Affairs. To this effect, theories of public administration, leadership and organisational performance were used to address the objectives of this study, which are:

- To define leadership within the context of the Department of Foreign Affairs.
- To gauge appropriate leadership styles of senior managers in ensuring the achievement of the Department's vision, mission and strategic objectives.
- To assess the management structures, policies and processes, and determine how these allow for the optimum utilisation of resources that promote efficiency.
- To investigate the role of leadership in promoting organisational performance and the enhancement of service delivery in accordance with prescribed policy.
- To investigate the impact of leader behaviour on the motivation and morale of subordinates, toward the attainment of optimal organisational performance.

1.2 What is Leadership?

The topic of leadership has been written about and researched more than any other in the area of organisational behaviour. There are many ways of looking at leadership.

It has been variously defined as:

- The individual in the group given the task of directing and co-ordinating task-relevant group activities or who, in the absence of a designated leader, carries the primary responsibility for performing these functions in the group (Daniel 1993:102).
- Interpersonal influence exercised in situations and directed through the communication process towards the attainment of specified goals (Tannenbaum & Schmidt 1973:151).
- Leadership is a process whereby one person exerts social influence over the members of a group. A leader, then, is a person with power over others. One who, exercises this power for the purpose of influencing others' behaviour (House 1974:162).

1.3 Organisational Performance

The post apartheid South Africa brought about an increased work-load to the Department of Foreign Affairs. This necessitated an improved organisational structure and adjustments to the human resource component for the increased capacity in this dynamic milieu.

The successful accomplishment of the Department of Foreign Affairs' strategic plan and its objectives will, however, depend substantially on visionary leadership. The importance of leadership in organisational performance and service delivery is one of the most important factors in the success of any organisation. Being an integrating activity, leadership permeates every facet of the operations of an organisation. Leadership is, therefore, considered the cornerstone of organisational effectiveness, which also makes a significant contribution to the economic and social needs of society.

1.4 Need for the Study

As the number of Missions increased worldwide, the Department of Foreign Affairs faced challenges of playing an increasingly major role in international politics. To achieve the objectives of this increased responsibility within the international community, an efficient organisational structure, with motivated staff, guided by resourceful and visionary leaders, was necessary.

Therefore, a study of leadership is relevant in increasing the effectiveness of the Department of Foreign Affairs, as an organisation, as well as, the quality of life for those who work within it.

1.5 Guiding Assumptions

- Leadership impacts on organisational performance within the Department of Foreign Affairs.
- Leadership styles promote the vision, mission and strategic objectives of the Department of Foreign Affairs.
- Leader behaviour influences motivation and morale of subordinates.
- Leadership and organisational performance enhance service delivery within the Department of Foreign Affairs.

1.6 Nature of Study

The nature of study is primarily exploratory-descriptive. It determines how leader behaviour and leadership styles impact on the morale and motivation of staff, and ultimately on service delivery and organisational performance.

1.7 Overview of Chapters

The following is a brief overview of all the chapters in this study.

1.7.1 Chapter One – Demarcation of Study Field

This chapter demarcates the field of study and outlines the research approach. It briefly outlines the need and the nature of the study.

1.7.2 Chapter Two – Public Administration: An Overview

This chapter highlights the distinctiveness of public administration, the public administration approaches and the normative guidelines of public administration, with an introduction to the principles of *Batho Pele*

1.7.3 Chapter Three – Leadership: A Conceptual Framework

This chapter explores the definition of leadership, components of leadership, power-tools of leadership, the differences between leadership and management as well as the theories of leadership.

1.7.4 Chapter Four – The Department of Foreign Affairs and Organisational Performance

This chapter introduces South Africa's foreign policy before and after 1994, South Africa's new international global status, the vision and the mission statement of the Department of Foreign Affairs, the tenets and the objectives of South Africa's foreign policy, the theories of organisational performance and their relevance to the Department as well as the new service delivery of "*Batho Pele*".

1.7.5 Chapter Five – Research Methodology

This chapter discusses the research design, the methodology used and the different types of statistical analyses. The objectives as well as the limitations of the study are outlined. This was done by administering questionnaires specifically designed for the purpose, and by interviewing members of the diplomatic service, thereby gauging their perceptions of personnel management and organisational efficiency.

Participation in the research was voluntary, confidentiality of all information and, the anonymity of all participants was assured.

1.7.6 Chapter Six – Analysis and Presentation of Data

This chapter contains the findings arising from the empirical evidence, which was contextualised within the broader framework of the study. The analyses of the data under the relevant themes give an integrated and holistic overview of the study as a whole.

1.7.7 Chapter Seven – Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter contains general conclusions and recommendations arising from the empirical research.

1.8 Definition and Terminology

Embassy: An Embassy refers to the diplomatic building or office of the Ambassador and his/her staff.

High Commission: A High Commission is an embassy of one Commonwealth country in another.

Ambassador: An Ambassador is an accredited diplomat of the highest rank charged by the sending State with the duty of acting as the representative of the Head of State.

High Commissioner: A High Commissioner is a senior diplomat who is assigned ambassadorial status from one country to another. This title refers to an ambassador in one of the Commonwealth countries.

Diplomatic Corps: The diplomatic corps refers to a body of diplomats representing a country in another State.

1.9 List of Abbreviations

NEPAD	New Economic Programme for Africa's Development
OAU	Organisation for African Unity
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
WHO	World Health Organisation
NAM	Non-Aligned Movement
AU	African Union
SADC	Southern African Development Community
IMF	International Monetary Fund
NPT	Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty
EU	European Union
DRC	Democratic Republic of Congo
TQM	Total Quality Management
ICT	Information Communication Technology

CHAPTER 2

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION – AN OVERVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), section 40, makes provision for three levels of government. These government levels are:

- National Government
- Provincial Government and
- Local Government

The objective at each of the above-mentioned spheres of government is the provision of services aimed at improving the quality of life of all citizens within the country. This activity of implementing government policies is called public administration, which is also referred to as public management.

National government is responsible for an orderly society and has the power to make laws for the country in accordance with the Constitution. Parliament is comprised of the National Assembly and the National Council of Provinces. The following departments fall under National government:

- Law and order
- Defence
- Intelligence
- Regional and local government and traditional authorities
- Finance
- Status of Women
- The Department of Foreign Affairs, which is the focus of this study.

The aim of this chapter is to illustrate the locus of the Department of Foreign Affairs within the structure of government and the broader scope of public administration. As the Department of Foreign Affairs is the demarcated area of study, examples from the said Department will be used throughout this study.

This chapter will endeavour to highlight the distinctiveness of public administration, the public administration approaches and the normative guidelines of public administration, with an introduction to *Batho Pele*.

2.2 Distinctiveness of Public Administration

Public administration is a distinct field of activity and as such, is a part of the political life of society (Cloete 1998:91). At this point it becomes imperative that a definition of public administration be provided for clarification.

Public administration is, according to Cloete (1993:56), *“essentially the study of various processes and specific functional activities by government institutions that must function within a particular environment in order to improve the general welfare of society by providing services to it”*.

According to Van der Waldt & Du Toit (1999:13), *“public administration is concerned with handling public matters and the management of public institutions in such a way that resources are efficiently utilised to promote the general welfare of the public”*.

It should be noted that *“general welfare”* is an intangible criterion where each society has to determine what its general welfare is, and then take steps to achieve or maintain that general welfare (Van der Waldt & Du Toit 1999:13).

It can, therefore, be deduced that public administration involves a holistic approach to the delivery of goods and services for the benefit of the community or the country it serves.

2.3 Public Administration Approaches

Public Administration is a science of human behaviour and interaction. Given the complexity of the subject, it becomes inevitable that there will be differences of opinion. These differences of opinion, give rise to many theories or approaches of Public Administration, which are:

2.3.1 The Multidisciplinary Approach

According to Van der Waldt & Du Toit (1999:60), the study of Public Administration as a discipline draws on other related disciplines, such as political science, economics, ethnology and sociology, to address complex public issues. This approach emphasizes that public administration should not be studied in isolation.

2.3.2 Traditional/Generic Process Approach

This approach assumes that all activities and processes within public administration is evaluated in terms of the generic administrative processes of policy making, organising, controlling, financing, determining work methods and procedures and staffing (Cloete 1994:4).

2.3.3 Systems/Innovative Approach

Schwella (1991:2) advocates, that the basis of this approach is that any entity or institution is seen as a system. The institution is an open system, which continually interacts with the environment.

2.3.4 Contingency or Situation Approach

The premise to this approach is that the application of management principles depends on the particular situation confronting management at a given moment. In each case, management will decide whether to use principles from the behavioural, functional or quantitative school, or even a combination of them (Kroon 1995:45).

2.3.5 Theory Z

This approach sought to integrate the best management principles of American and Japanese businesses into one approach, the theory Z approach (Kroon 1995:45).

2.3.6 Management by Excellence

This approach (Smit & Cronje 1992:20) emphasizes a set of basic characteristics an institution should pursue in order to function with excellence. These characteristics refer to precision in

rendering services, sustained contact and involvement with clients (community), motivation, creativity, development and quality.

2.3.7 Strategic Management Approach

This approach is a consequence to the systems approach. The institution is directed towards adapting to the changing environment. Koteen (1989:17) proposes strategic planning for increased organisational effectiveness and efficiency.

2.3.8 Quantitative Approach

In this approach management is viewed as a rational process, which can be studied and developed through the use of quantitative symbols. By developing models for solving the problems of each management function, problem areas can be clearly defined (Smit & Cronje 1992:20).

2.3.9 Social Responsibility and Management by Ethics

Strategic management draws attention to social responsibility and management ethics at the same time (Smit & Cronje 1992:20). This approach expects public managers to constantly direct their conduct towards interest groups in the community and the environment as a whole.

2.3.10 Japanese Management Style

Japan is characterised by a unique approach to management based on its distinctive culture. This management style makes provision for lifelong employment; decision-making based on consensus, collective responsibility, slow evaluation and promotion, informal control and concern for the individual as a whole. This approach creates a climate for participative management (Van der Waldt & Du Toit 1999:68-69).

2.3.11 Innovation and Change

This approach makes it essential for institutions to pay attention to the management of innovation and change, due to a rapidly changing world environment (Smit & Cronje 1992:20).

According to Van der Waldt & Du Toit (1999:69), the different approaches have resulted in new perspectives on public management. Each approach makes a contribution to gaining a better understanding of the tasks and functions of the manager within the public institution.

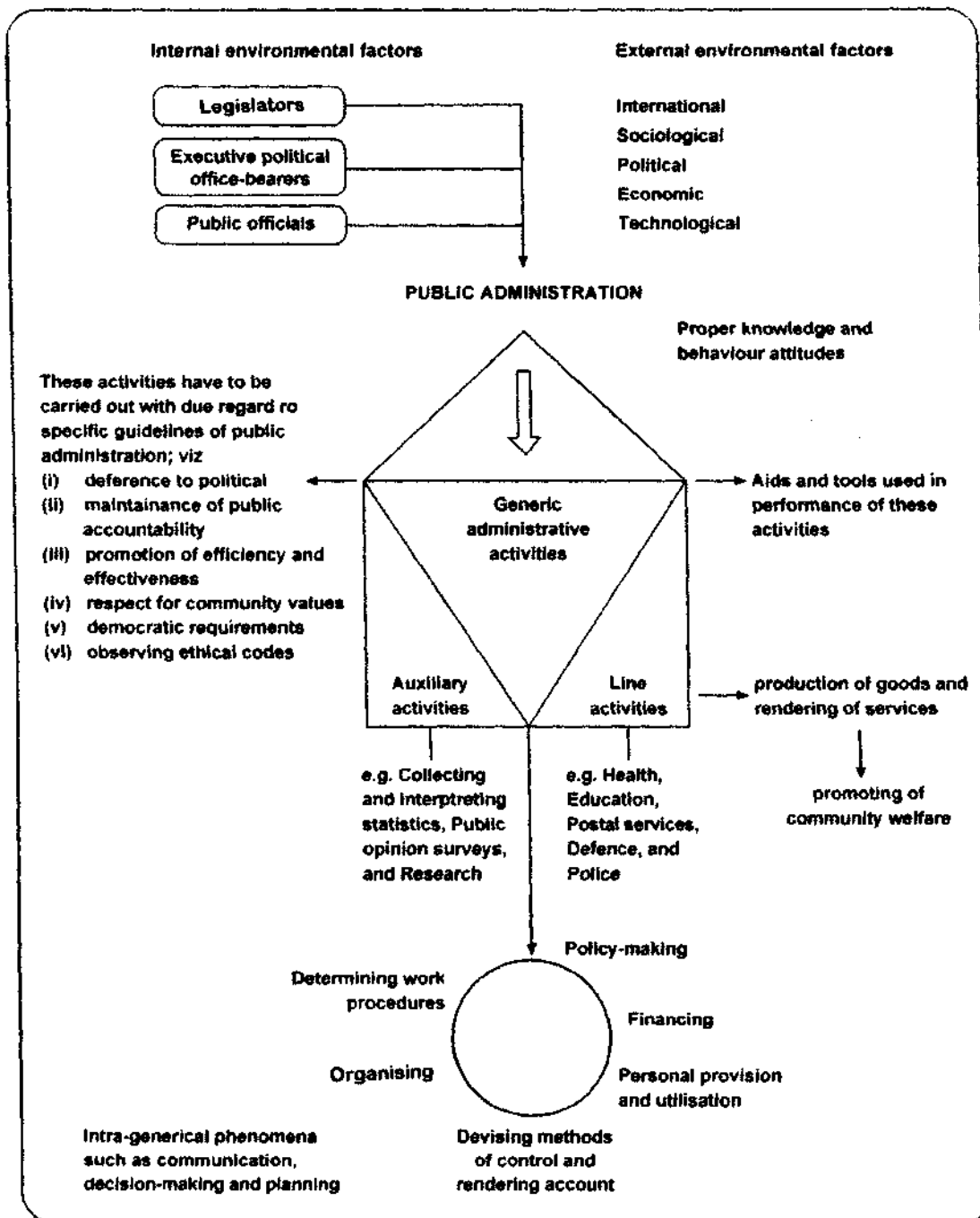
For the purposes of this study, however, attention will be given to the following two schools of thought governing public administration in South Africa, and they are:

- The Traditional Approach advocated by J.J.N. Cloete and
- The Innovative Approach advocated by E. Schwella.

2.3.12 The Traditional Approach

This approach to public administration is the oldest and is also referred to as the *closed system approach* and was later named the *generic functions model*. According to Cloete (1981:2-4), public administration consists of processes and actions necessary for the setting of objectives and its achievement thereof. This view advocates that public administration constitutes six main functions, namely policy-making, organising, determining work procedures, financing, staffing and control. These generic processes are interdependent, overlap and are inextricably linked with the functional activities of public institutions to achieve its objectives. The auxiliary and instrumental aspects also play an integral part, which wraps up this approach successfully. These aspects are illustrated in figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1 Model: Public Administration



Source: Giddens (1997:146)

2.3.12.1 The Generic Administrative Functions

The generic administrative functions as advocated by Cloete comprise the following:

2.3.12.1.1 Policy Making

Policy-making is "...the umbrella process in terms of which a series of functions is carried out to decide on a plan of action to achieve certain objectives. Examples of these functions are identifying problems, investigation, gathering information and making decisions." Policy-making steers the particular government organisation towards the achievement of its objectives (Du Toit & Van der Walldt 1997:14). The following factors influence policy making within the Department of Foreign Affairs:

- The state of the national economy
- International relations
- War, depression, political crises and national disasters
- The economic and industrial development of the country
- The policies of political office bearers and
- The personal views of political executive office bearers (Cloete 1994:98).

2.3.12.1.2 Organising

Organising is "the process through which activities are grouped together logically into distinct areas and assigned to managers. It is the division of work, resulting in 'departments', which is a logical grouping of activities" (Andrews 1988:8). The process of organising leads to the establishment of a specific organisational structure, such as the various government departments. Each department is then responsible for a particular functional area such as the Department of Foreign Affairs, wherein the grouping of certain activities (diplomatic and administrative) takes place within the specific structures (Pillay 2000:35).

2.3.12.1.3 Determining Work Procedures

Work procedures are used extensively in organisations to obviate 'trial-and-error' and by providing staff members with tried and tested ways of executing their duties. Specific work

methods and procedures will result in efficient and effective work performance, which will be done in the shortest time, using minimum labour and performed at the lowest cost (Pillay 2000:37). The Administrative Code is the procedure manual for all administrative functions within the Department of Foreign Affairs.

2.3.12.1.4 Financing

This process consists of three basic activities, namely obtaining, spending and controlling public finances within an organisation. At the national level, provision is made for funds to be obtained, amounts to be spent and the control of all State expenditure (Du Toit & Van der Walldt 1997:14-15).

According to Botes (1994:201-202), the process of financing consists of four phases, which are as follows:

- 1) The Preparatory Phase: During this phase, each State department has to prepare a budget for the following financial year. This is based on the projected costs of services which the department expects to be required to provide;
- 2) The Approval Phase: This phase involves the tabling and debating of the budget in Parliament before it is approved as an Act of Parliament;
- 3) The Execution Phase: this is where the budgeted funds are allocated to the various departments and spent on the items budgeted for; and
- 4) The Control Phase: This phase involves the recording, internal and external auditing of all State expenditure in order to ensure that funds have been spent responsibly and for the purposes intended.

The allocation of funds to the Department of Foreign Affairs follows this procedure, but cognisance is, however, taken of exchange rates during all the phases of budgeting. This is due to the daily fluctuation of exchange rates on international markets.

2.3.12.1.5 Staffing

The staffing function provides an organisation with an adequate personnel complement so as to ensure that the organisational objectives are achieved. This process involves the performance of several functions for making personnel available in suitable positions and

developing them further. According to Cheminais, Bayat, Van der Waldt & Fox (1998:50) the staffing activities include:

- Human resource planning;
- Post determination;
- Post classification;
- Recruiting;
- Selection;
- Placement; and
- Personnel utilisation.

In the case of the Department of Foreign Affairs, all of the above activities occur every four years, whilst staff members are already in the employ of the Department. This is done for postings to the Embassies and High Commissions abroad.

2.3.12.1.6 Controlling

Control is needed to ensure that public sector activities and functions are carried out both efficiently and effectively, and that they are aimed at achieving the objectives of government policy. Control measures have a deterrent effect on public officials who are exposed to numerous temptations in the handling of public funds (Cheminais, et.al. 1998:50).

Legislation and regulations are established with a view to exercising effective control. The offices of the Auditor-General and the Public Protector exercise control over public sector activities. Within each government department, control is maintained via internal audits, reports and inspections (Du Toit & Van der Waldt 1997:15).

The internal audit directorate within the Department of Foreign Affairs is the control measure. This business unit investigates cases of fraud and dishonesty at the various missions abroad.

2.3.12.2 Auxiliary Functions and Instrumental Activities

These are enabling functions, which help in the provision of the necessary support services so that improved and efficient services are rendered to the community (Cloete 1986:2).

The types of activities included are:

- Research;
- Public relations;
- The provision of legal services;
- Notification functions; and
- The construction and maintenance of information systems such as data collection, processing and retrieval.

It is necessary that continuous research be done within the Department of Foreign Affairs, so as to gauge where, when and with whom South Africa shall initiate, resume or conclude diplomatic relations. The public relations function is also essential to ensure that South Africa remains on the world political stage and that political isolation is never experienced again (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2002/2003:60). Computer technology, the provision of legal services and notification functions are required to ensure that efficient services are rendered by the Department and conducted within prescribed rules and regulations.

The instrumental activities are performed in conjunction with both the administrative and functional activities (Cloete 1991:223). On a personal level, these activities include:

- Decision making
- Communicating
- Conducting meetings and
- Negotiation.

On an impersonal level, they are:

- The provision of office space
- Furniture
- Equipment

- Transport and
- Stationery.

It is important that all of the auxiliary and instrumental activities stated above be carried out at each of the one hundred and twenty South African missions across the globe, as well as the Head Office based in Pretoria. This is imperative for the objectives of the Department of Foreign Affairs to be realised.

2.3.12.3 Functional Activities

Gildenhuys & Knipe (2000:50-51), state that functional activities or line functions are those activities that substantially and directly contribute to the attainment of government objectives. Line functions are concerned therefore with the direct delivery of services to the public. The line function of the Department of Foreign Affairs is the development of diplomatic ties and contacts with foreign countries to secure the external political and economic security of the South African State. In the world of public administration, however, staff functions always compliment and support line functions.

To achieve the goals of the Department of Foreign Affairs, it is necessary for all the generic administrative, line and auxiliary functions to be performed.

2.3.12.4 Criticisms of the Traditional Approach

The increasing complexity of public affairs has given rise to new schools of thought, thereby resulting in adjustments to the traditional approach. It was found that Cloete's generic process approach reduced the actual complexity and scope of the public managers' work (Schwella 1992:4).

Although Cloete's administrative process model still has a very strong influence on the theory and practice of public administration in South Africa at present, there have been several criticisms of this approach. Schwella (1992:4-11) discusses these in terms of reductionism, reification and relevance.

- Reductionism

One criticism is that the generic administrative process model reduces the complex phenomenon of public administration to the administrative processes. The administrative processes are then further reduced to the six generic functions of policy-making, organising, financing, staffing, determining work methods and procedures, and control. The logical conclusion is that the complex phenomenon of public administration is reduced to these six mentioned administrative functions (Schwella 1992:4-11).

- Reification

This occurs when intellectual or abstract ideas are confused with reality. Many public administration academics were exposed to the regulating practices of government where they had worked as public officials themselves. As a result, practices in the South African civil services were reified to the status of theory in Public Administration (Schwella 1992:4-11).

- Relevance

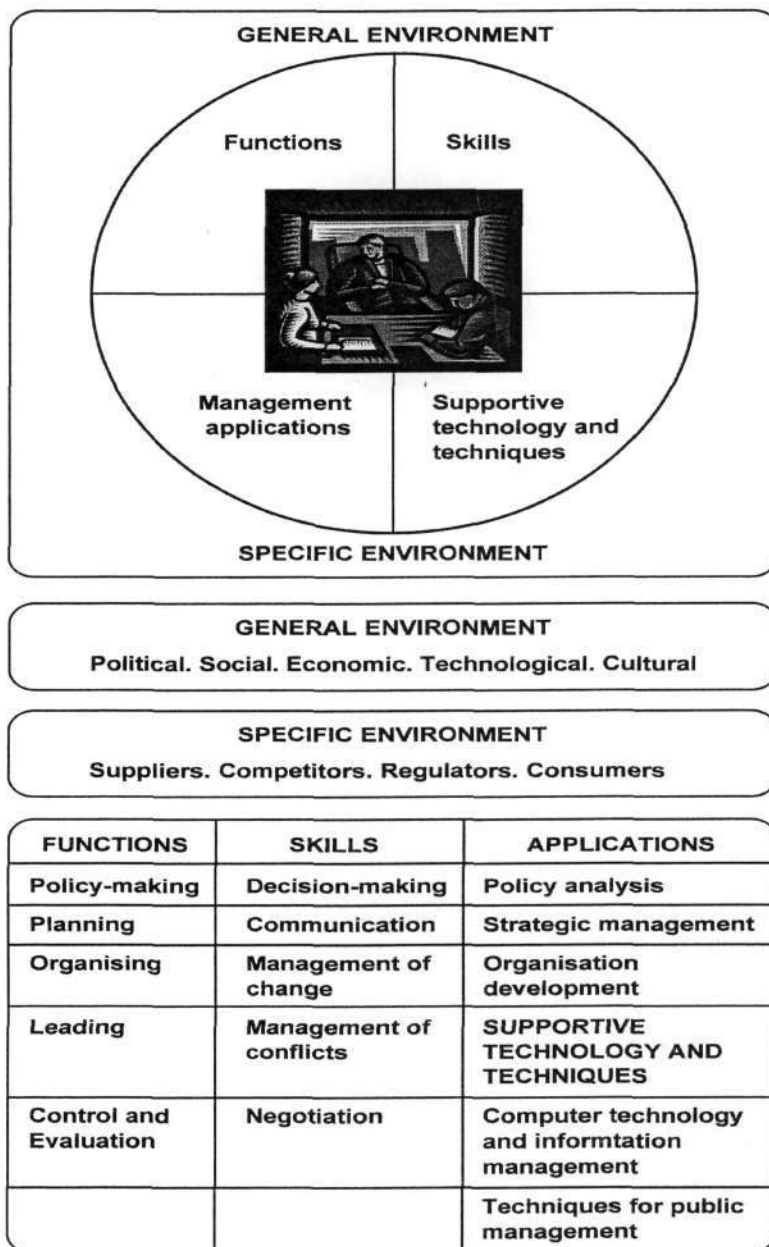
This criticism points to the very nature of the generic administrative process, which inhibits the critical and relevant theorising about the relationship between the public administration system and the society in which it operates. Cloete's administrative model does not take into account the ever-changing and turbulent environment (political, economic, social, cultural and technological) of a society and the way in which this environment influences administrative activities (Schwella 1992:4-11).

2.3.13 The Innovative Approach

This is a more recent approach and is also known as the *open-system approach*. According to Schwella (1991:2) this view advocates that the public manager functions within a general and specific *environment*, where he/she also needs to know public management functions and management skills. These include policy making, planning, organising, leadership, motivation, control, evaluation, decision making, communication, change management, conflict management, negotiation, policy analysis, strategic management, organisational development, computer technology, information management and administrative technology. The environment of public administration is the whole world and most of the challenges faced by government emanate from the environment within which it functions.

Hodge, Anthony & Gales (1996:12) contend that organisations consist of parts that function together as an integrated whole in order to reach organisational objectives. From this, it can be deduced that an organisation functions in a complex environment, and as such, cannot be closed. Public managers must, therefore, be sensitive to the dynamic and rapidly changing environment within their organisations. This is illustrated in figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 Schwella's Public Management Model



Source: Fox, Schwella & Wissink 1991:4

2.3.13.1 Public Management Environment

The public management environment consists of general and specific components. The general component includes the political, economic, social, cultural and technological aspects of the environment. The specific environment includes the suppliers, regulators, competitors and consumers. According to Fox, Schwella & Wissink (1991:5), the environment forms an integral part of all public management decisions and applications.

2.3.13.1.1 General Environment

The general environment refers to all those factors external to an organisation that influences the management of that organisation. As espoused by Schwella (1991:18), the components of the general environment can be identified as follows:

- **Political Environment**

The political system has a major impact on the organisations within the society, which managers should take cognisance of. Political ideas, philosophy and political ideology form the basis of the political environment. Public organisations are therefore, influenced by the national power structures and processes such as political parties, pressure and interest groups, political policy, government laws, acts and regulations as well as political and executive authorities.

- **Economic Environment**

The economic system is the way in which the society creates and distributes wealth. Economic ideas, philosophy and ideology provide the basis of national economic structures and processes. National economic structures include the structure of the economy, patterns of economic growth, inflation trends, rates of exchange, balance of payment trends and trends in savings and investment. Climatic conditions and geography have to also be considered since they influence the availability of land, water, mineral, and energy resources as well as the international competitiveness of the national economy.

- **Social Environment**

The social environment necessitates the provision of basic services in order to improve the quality of life of the community. For management purposes, the social environment includes trends in population demographics, urbanisation, housing, education and training, and human development.

- **Cultural Environment**

The cultural environment is the basic beliefs, attitudes, role definitions and interaction of the particular society. The family, religious and educational institutions transmit cultural patterns from one generation to the next. They also redefine and build upon cultural values.

- **Technological Environment**

The technological environment impacts on efficiency, effectiveness, speed, accuracy and precision. It refers to the use of machinery and processes for the distribution of goods and services. Public managers need to consider the importance of the technological environment, which influences their functioning within public organisations.

2.3.13.1.2 Specific Environment

According to Schwella (1991:20-22), the specific environment is that part of the environment which directly influences the availability of resources to the organisation. As such, these environmental components are observable and directly experienced by the organisation. They include:

- **Regulators**

Regulators mediate, control or regulate the relationships between the organisation and its suppliers, consumers and competitors.

These institutions perform specific functions in accordance with the needs of society or the economy.

- Suppliers

Suppliers produce, mobilise and allocate various resources to particular organisations. These financial resources are mobilised by means of taxes, levies or service charges and are then allocated to public organisations in accordance with political and policy priorities.

- Consumers

Consumers constitute the users of the products or services of the particular public organisation, such as the provision of water and electricity.

- Competitors

The competitor component consists of those societal institutions, which compete for scarce resources with the particular public organisation concerned.

The innovative approach of Schwella incorporates Cloete's generic administrative processes as well. This results in a combination of both approaches, hence an adaptation of the Cloete-Schwella Approach.

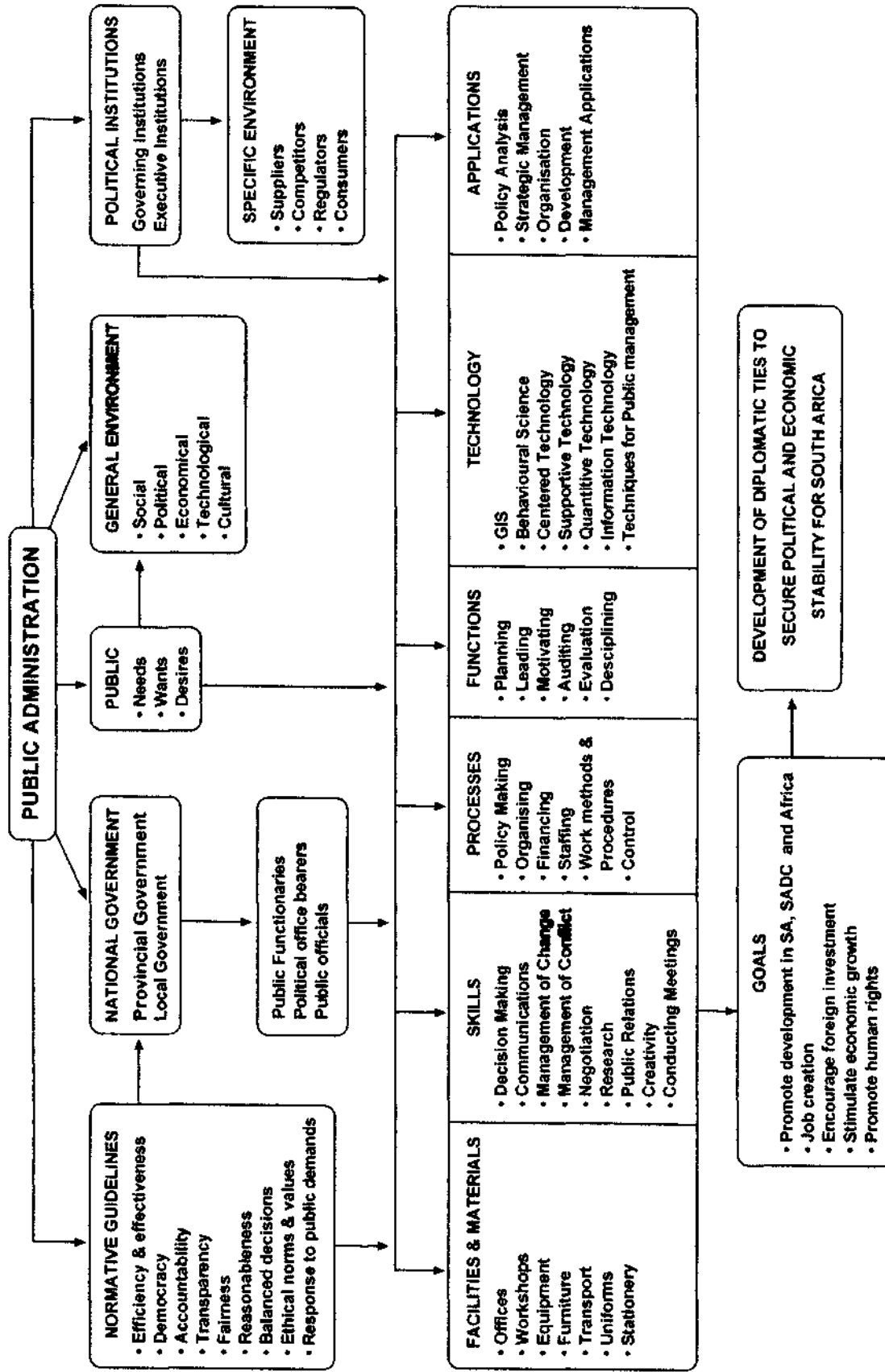
2.3.14 An Adaptation of the Cloete-Schwella Approach

Cloete stresses the following key generic administrative processes in public administration, which are: policy making, organising, financing, staffing, work methods and procedures and control.

Schwella stresses the importance of the environment (general and specific) in public administration. The general environment includes the political, economic, cultural, technological and social. The specific environment comprises the regulators, suppliers, consumers and competitors.

An adaptation of both models of public administration/management is illustrated in figure 2.3.

Figure 2.3 The Cloete-Schwella Model



Source: Pillay (2000:52)

2.4 Normative Guidelines of Public Administration

According to Cloete (1988:22-24), the reputation and success of any sphere of government depends on the conduct of public functionaries. It therefore becomes necessary to lay down certain normative guidelines, which serve as a framework within which officials can perform their duties.

The normative foundations, which should guide public officials in the performance of their duties are:

- Democratic requirements;
- Moral and ethical norms;
- Human rights;
- Public accountability and transparency;
- Efficiency and effectiveness; and
- Response to public demands.

2.4.1 Democracy

Democracy entails the behaviour of public officials, which must ensure the accomplishment of objectives whereby the rights and freedom of the public are not infringed. All people must be served equally and impartially. In a democracy, political officials accept responsibility for the actions of public managers and public managers in turn must accept responsibility for the actions of their subordinates. The actions of public officials must be fair and reasonable and no public funds must be wasted as a result of inefficient work (Van der Waldt & Du Toit 1999:110).

2.4.2 Ethical Norms

Cheminais, et.al (1998:74), contend that, in the rendering of services to the community, the conduct of public officials must always be in the interest of the public. High demands such as accountable-behaviour and reliability are placed on public managers who have to render

services. The public trusts officials to render services and use public funds effectively, efficiently and responsibly. The personal conduct of public functionaries is essential to promote a more professional ethos and a commitment to serve the people.

Kester, Painter & Barnes (1997:20) state that public officials must adhere to the following acceptable standards, when serving the public interest and executing public goals:

- Friendliness;
- Diligence;
- Respect for humanity;
- Humaneness; and
- Patience.

The introduction of the principles of *Batho Pele* meaning “people first”, would enable public functionaries to promote continuous improvement in the quantity, quality and equity of service provision (Cheminais, et.al. 1998:385).

The principles for public service delivery outlined in the White Paper on Service Delivery (October 1997) include:

- 1) Consultation with the public as the client;
- 2) Service standards;
- 3) Access to service;
- 4) Courtesy;
- 5) Information;
- 6) Openness and transparency;
- 7) Redress or responsiveness; and
- 8) Value for money (Cheminais, et.al. 1998:385-6).

2.4.3 Human Rights

Section 10 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) provides that everyone has inherent dignity and as such, has the right to have their dignity respected, and protected. The principles of *Batho Pele* will be discussed in greater detail in chapter 4.

2.4.4 Public Accountability and Transparency

It is generally accepted that every political office bearer and every public official, should display a sense of responsibility when performing their official duties (Cloete 1991:62).

Public officials are implementers of public policies. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 Of 1996) makes specific provision for public administration to be accountable.

Public institutions, therefore, play a vital role in bringing services closer to the people. Hanekom & Thornhill (1983:184) identify public accountability as one of the prominent characteristics of twenty first century public administration. Public administration cannot expect to command the respect of the population if it is carried out behind closed doors. Like justice, administration must not only be carried out, it must be seen to be carried out (Bayat & Meyer 1994:120). Transparency, therefore, is a principle that the democratically elected Government has taken great strides to implement in order to achieve clean administration. This is stated clearly in section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996).

2.4.5 Efficiency and Effectiveness

Cloete (1998:110-111) states that, a public institution exists for and on behalf of the community. The services and activities of public institutions should always be judged on the basis of their necessity since public resources are scarce. It is inevitable that the needs of the community will always be greater than the resources, which are available to satisfy those needs. Effectiveness in the public sector refers to the extent to which a need has to be satisfied as indicated in the original programme of action. Efficiency means satisfying the

most essential needs of the community to the greatest possible extent (Cheminais, et. al. 1998:73). Priorities, therefore, need to be set and resources must be used sensibly in order to obtain optimal results.

2.4.6 Response to Public Demands

The responsiveness of public institutions to individual problems, needs and values, as well as those of specific groups, should be secured. South Africa's historical development has resulted in imbalances among the various components of the total population. Recent changes have resulted in higher aspirations among those who have been previously disadvantaged. This has created certain expectations and demands, especially in the socio-economic field such as housing, education and urban infrastructure. It is important for officials to provide a satisfactory response to these needs and demands (Bayat & Meyer 1994:38).

It is crucial that public functionaries adhere to and respect the above mentioned guidelines in order to maintain confidence in government, promote professionalism and enhance service delivery to the public.

2.5 Chapter Summary

In accordance with Section 40 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act 108 of 1996), the Government of the country constitutes three spheres, which are the national, provincial and local levels of government. All three levels are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated and as such have a common objective, which is to provide services to the people of the country. National Government is responsible for the country as a whole. The Department of Foreign Affairs falls under National Government.

In this chapter, the various public management/administration approaches were outlined. Two approaches, however, were given emphasis and they are the traditional approach advocated by Cloete and the innovative approach advocated by Schwella. Cloete classifies the activities of public administration into four main groups, which are the generic administrative and managerial, auxiliary, instrumental and functional activities. Schwella

emphasises the importance of the environment for the theory and practice of public administration.

A Cloete-Schwella approach has been proposed where the two approaches have been combined. This new approach highlights key aspects of both the traditional and innovative approaches. This new proposed model may be effective in ensuring that services are provided efficiently at every level of government, considering the fluid and dynamic environment within which public administration functions.

A set of normative guidelines as well as the principles of *Batho Pele*, outlined, which endeavours to ensure that all public functionaries work within this paradigm. It is only through the adherence of these guidelines, that the aims to promote continuous improved service to all South Africans will be achieved.

CHAPTER 3

LEADERSHIP – A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

In a world that is becoming more complex through accelerated development, the process of globalisation and the application of information technology, organisations have to respond much quicker to challenges. According to Gates (1999:1), it has become necessary for organisations to “*operate at the speed of thought*” in order to gain a competitive edge on the international stage. These challenges require quantum leap change, rather than adaptive change, especially from organisations such as the South African Department of Foreign Affairs, which operates in a highly dynamic environment.

Different approaches of leading are needed to ensure the ongoing survival and future success of organisations. To meet challenges and survive in a new world order, a new breed of leadership is required. The appropriate leadership styles of management will, therefore, give an organisation the edge when operating in a globally diverse environment.

This chapter will explore the definition of leadership, components of leadership, power-tools of leadership, the differences between leadership and management as well as the theories of leadership.

3.2 Defining Leadership

There are many ways of looking at leadership and there are many interpretations of its meaning.

In simple terms, leadership might be interpreted as ‘*getting others to follow*’ (French & Raven 1990:499), or ‘*to get people to work together effectively as a team and to make a significant contribution to the achievement of objectives*’ (Cheminais, et.al. 1998:158), or it could mean ‘*the use of authority in decision-making*’ (Levine 2000:90). Leadership may also be viewed in terms of the role of leaders and their ability to achieve effective performance from others.

Crow & Hartman (1995:34) assert that leadership is a dynamic process, which is related to motivation, interpersonal behaviour and the process of *communication*. Leadership is important in attempting to reduce employee dissatisfaction and, therefore, good leadership involves the effective process of *delegation*. The leader-follower relationship is reciprocal, and effective leadership is a two-way process, which influences both individual and *organisational performance*.

Buchanan & Huczynski (1997:594) see leadership as '*the creation of a vision about a desired future state which seeks to enmesh all members of an organisation in its net*'.

Although leadership is difficult to generalise, it is essentially a '*relationship through which one person influences the behaviour or actions of other people*' (Mullins 2002:253). This means that the process of leading and the activities of groups with effective teambuilding cannot be separated. Leaders need to focus on people and organisations moving forward. This is done, by increasing the competency of staff and the co-operation of teams, so as to enhance organisational performance.

Following these broad definitions of leadership, it can be deduced that *leadership* is the process of directing the behaviour of others towards the accomplishment of the organisation's goals. It involves taking the lead in formulating plans and reaching goals. In other words, leadership is responsible for translating plans into reality. Leadership is an activity that infuses energy into an organisation, which then activates its members and resources to get things moving and keep them in motion.

It can be deduced that authority, power and influence are the main components of leadership. Effective communication in directing the team will, therefore, lead to the achievement of organisational objectives.

3.3 The Components of Leadership

Leadership comprises various components, and for the purposes of this study, the following five components will be discussed. These leadership components are authority, power, influence, acceptance of responsibility and accountability.

According to Brevis, Ngambi, Vrba & Naicker, (2002:279), *authority* is the right of a leader to give orders and to demand action from subordinates. *Power* refers to the ability of a leader to influence the behaviour of others without necessarily using this authority and, *influence* is the ability to apply authority and power in such a way that followers take action.

The other two components of leadership comprise the acceptance of *responsibility* and *accountability*. Leaders bear the responsibility for performing a task according to policy, and it is their duty to account for their actions.

For the sake of good leadership and the effective management of organisations, the delicate balance among the leadership components should be maintained (French & Raven 1990:515).

3.3.1 Power and Authority in Leadership

Every leader possesses a certain degree of power over others. Power is the capacity to act and the courage and strength to accomplish something. It is the vital energy required to make choices and decisions. It represents the capacity to cultivate higher and more effective leadership habits (Hellriegel & Slocum 1998:79).

Covey (1991:23) describes leaders with power, as having vision and discipline and whose lives are functional products of personal decisions rather than external conditions. These leaders make things happen; they are proactive; and they choose their responses to situations based upon timeless principles and universal standards. They take responsibility for their thoughts and actions.

Coupled with power is the element of authority. Every leader, no matter to which managerial level he belongs, is responsible for ensuring that subordinates work together to achieve the organisation's objectives. Without authority, a leader is unable to manage, initiate or sustain the leadership process. Authority, therefore, revolves around obtaining the right to perform certain actions, to decide who does what, to compel the execution of tasks, and to punish those who fail to do what is expected of them (Bardenhorst 1997:69).

According to Palmer, Van der Walt, De Klerk & Pitout (1997:127), authority is awarded to a leader in various ways. The difference between authority and power is important because there are many people who have authority (which has been awarded) but no power (which must be earned) to exercise leadership effectively. Power, therefore forms the basis of leadership.

3.3.2 Sources of Power

Power is central to the leadership process. Mullins (2002:257) asserts that leaders are not always associated with a specific position, yet they have the ability to influence people towards the attainment of organisational goals. The ability to influence people is based on five main sources of power which are identified as:

- Reward or utility power;
- Coercive power;
- Legitimate power;
- Referent power; and
- Expert power.

3.3.2.1 Reward or Utility Power

Subordinates follow because of the benefits that come to them if they do. The follower has something the leader wants (e.g. time, money, energy, personal resources, interest, talent, support) and the leader has something followers want (e.g. information, money, promotions, inclusion, camaraderie, security, opportunity).

The relationship between leader and subordinate is characterised by subordinates believing that the leader can and will do something for them if they maintain their part of the bargain by doing something for the leader. Much of what happens in the normal operation of organisations is fuelled by reward or utility power (French & Raven 1990:315).

Most organisations are held together by reward or utility power. Covey (1991:103), maintains that this power is based on a sense of equity and fairness. As long as followers feel they are receiving fairly for what they are giving, the relationship will be maintained. It gives them access to what the leader controls, through position, expertness or charisma. According to French & Raven (1990:316) relationships based on reward or utility power, often lead to individualism rather than teamwork. An example of reward/utility power is when a staff member works voluntary overtime with the promise of a promotion by his supervisor.

3.3.2.2 Coercive Power

At this level, followers follow out of fear. They are afraid of what might happen to them if they do not do what they are asked to do. The leader creates fear in followers that either something bad is going to happen to them or something good will be taken away from them if they do not comply. It is, therefore, out of fear of potentially adverse consequences, that they *'get along by going along'* or by giving *'lip service loyalty'* (Grobler 1996:89). The followers' commitment in coercive power is superficial and has the potential to quickly turn to sabotage and destruction when *'no one is looking'* or when the threat is no longer present. An example of this would be withholding pay rises, promotion or privileges; the withdrawal of friendship or support; formal reprimands or possibly dismissal. Mullins (2002:257) contends that coercive power imposes a psychological and emotional burden to both leaders and followers. It encourages suspicion, deceit and dishonesty.

3.3.2.3 Legitimate Power

According to Covey (1991:14), legitimate power is based on the power some leaders have over followers. Followers tend to believe in them and in what they are trying to accomplish.

The leaders are trusted and honoured because followers want to believe in them and their cause. This type of following may not be described as blind faith or mindless obedience but is knowledgeable, wholehearted, uninhibited commitment. Leaders who activate the principles of legitimate power may find that they are more careful of what they ask of others but have more confidence in doing so. As the leaders' understanding of the relationship

between power and leadership increases, their ability to lead others and to have influence with others, without forcing them grows.

3.3.2.4 Referent Power

This refers to personal power and is a somewhat abstract concept. In this situation subordinates follow their leader simply because they like, respect or identify with him or her. In other words, the leader's personal characteristics make him/her attractive. Such leaders are said to have charisma. A leader may for example, not be in a position to reward or punish certain subordinates, but may still exercise power over the subordinates because he commands their respect (Smit & Cronje 1992:336).

3.3.2.5 Expert Power

According to Mullins (2002:258), expert power is the extent to which the follower believes that the leader is an expert in a specific field, is competent, and has special abilities. Expert power is based on credibility and a clear evidence of knowledge or expertise in a given area. Expert power is usually limited to narrow, well-defined areas of specialization.

3.3.3 Evaluation of the Sources of Power in Leadership

From the abovementioned sources of power, it can be deduced that leaders may have more than one source of power. These sources of power are based on the perceptions of followers, and may not be based on an objective evaluation of the leader's ability or strength. These power sources may be interrelated and the same leader may exercise different types of power, within particular circumstances or at different times.

3.3.4 Power Tools for Leadership

Effective leadership requires certain basic tools, which great leaders over time have manifested and have. With such tools great leaders have proven to be immensely successful. Covey (1991:107), suggests the following power tools that will increase a leader's honour and power with others. These power tools are as follows:

3.3.4.1 Persuasion

- To share reasons and rationale for decisions;
- Makes a strong case for position while maintaining genuine respect for followers' ideas and perspective;
- Commit to remain in the communication process until mutually beneficial and satisfying outcomes are reached.

3.3.4.2 Patience

- Patience with the process and the person;
- Maintain a long-term perspective, and stay committed to organisational goals in the face of short-term obstacles and resistance.

3.3.4.3 Gentleness

- Refrain from harshness, and forcefulness, when dealing with vulnerabilities, disclosures and feelings that followers might express.

3.3.4.4 “Teachable-ness”

- To assume that the leader does not have all the answers and insights; and
- Value the different viewpoints and experiences of followers.

3.3.4.5 Acceptance

- To withhold judgement;
- To give the benefit of doubt.

3.3.4.6 Compassionate confrontation

- Acknowledge error and mistakes and the need for followers to make “course corrections” in a context of care, concern and warmth, and make it safe for followers to “risk” without victimisation.

3.3.4.7 Consistency

- Leadership style should not be a manipulative technique, which is brought into play when leaders don't get their way, or when faced with a crisis or challenge.

3.3.4.8 Integrity

- To honestly match words and feelings with thoughts and actions, with no desire other than for the good of all;
- Not take advantage, manipulate and control followers.

Notable leaders of distinction such as Mahatma Gandhi and Nelson Mandela have shown these qualities with great success in leadership. The Mahatma's profile fits comfortably with the power tools where he states:

"I claim to be no more than an average man with less than average ability. I am not a visionary. I claim to be a practical idealist. Nor can I claim any special merit for what I have been able to achieve with laborious research. I have not the shadow of a doubt that any man or woman can achieve what I have, if he or she would make the same effort and cultivate the same hope and faith as indicated" (Gandhi 1927:29).

3.4 Leadership and Management

Kotter (2001:85) proposes that management and leadership are different but complementary. In a changing world, one cannot function without the other. Managers, on the one hand, promote stability whilst leaders press for change, and only organisations that embrace both sides of that contradiction can thrive in turbulent times.

Leadership is different from management but not for reasons most people think. Leadership is not something that is mystical and mysterious (Kotter 2001:85). Instead, leadership and management are two distinctive and complementary systems of action. Each has its own function and characteristic activities. Both are necessary for success in an increasingly complex and dynamic work environment.

It should be noted that not everyone is good at both leading and managing. Some people have the capacity to become excellent managers but not strong leaders. Others have great leadership potential but, for a variety of reasons, have great difficulty becoming strong managers. Smart organisations and companies value both kinds of people and work hard to make them a part of a team (Drucker 1999:90).

3.4.1 Differences between Leadership and Management

The terms, leadership and management are often used interchangeably, but as indicated, a clear distinction exists between the two.

According to Nel, et.al (2001:350) the following differences of leadership and management are highlighted:

- Leadership focuses on vision, strategic development, and initiative, whereas management deals with the implementation of that vision. Managers are more concerned with short-term problems within the organisation, whereas leaders take a much broader perspective and concern themselves with the environment, both internal and external to the organisation.
- Leaders have a long-term perspective and anticipate the future needs of the organisation. It is often said that *leaders do the right thing while managers do things right* (Nel, et.al 2001: 350).
- Leadership in an organisation is not restricted to people in specific positions with the ability to influence and inspire others to attain a goal.
- Leadership must be present at all levels so as to enhance innovation and teamwork within an organisation. Managers as well, will become more effective if their leadership skills are developed and utilised.

Management is about coping with complexity. Its practices and procedures are largely a response to the emergence of global organisations. Without good management, complex enterprises, as the Department of Foreign Affairs, will tend to become chaotic in ways that

may threaten its very existence. Good management brings a degree of order and consistency to key dimensions like quality and profitability (Kotter 2001:84).

Leadership, by contrast, is about coping with change. The reason that change has become so important in recent years is that the business world has become more competitive and more dynamic. Major changes are more and more necessary to survive and compete effectively in this new global environment. Therefore more change always demands more innovative leadership (Kotter 2001:86).

As this study involves leader behaviour and its contribution to organisational efficiency, it becomes necessary to analyse the various theories of leadership and its application to the changing environment.

3.5 Theories of Leadership

Due to its complex and variable nature, there are many ways of analysing leadership. In analysing the concepts of leadership, and searching for the traits or behaviours that make good leaders, various leadership models have been researched, developed and tested in an effort to pinpoint the most important modes of behaviour manifested in good leaders (Mullins 2002:258). Research has produced many approaches, perspectives, theories and models of leadership.

For the purposes of this study, the following approaches or theories of leadership will be examined:

- Trait Based Theories;
- The Behavioural Theories;
- The Contingency Theories; and
- Contemporary Leadership Theories.

3.5.1 Trait Based Theories

Prior to the 1950's, researchers sought to understand leadership by comparing leaders with followers, and effective leaders with ineffective leaders. This search for features of leaders, or leader traits was prompted by the belief that some leaders possessed distinguishing traits that set them apart from other people. This theory assumes that leaders are born and not made. The trait based theory focuses on the man or woman in the job and not on the job itself. It suggests that attention be given to the selection of leaders rather than training for leadership development (Robbins 1995:60).

Studies have been conducted to identify common characteristics of leaders, but no universal set of characteristics has been confirmed. Research, however, underlines the fact that leaders are different to other people in that they possess outstanding characteristics. According to Burns (1998:64) chief among these traits is intelligence. It appears that people who hold leadership positions tend to be somewhat more intelligent. Other traits that can be linked to successful leaders are task persistence, self-confidence, tolerance of interpersonal stress and the ability to influence others' behaviour.

Robinson (1999:20-21) identifies the following characteristics of leaders:

- Leaders have the ability to create a vision and to excite people to try and achieve the impossible.
- Great leaders have an external energy and an inner strength that see them through tough times.
- Leaders have a mental agility that enables them to make effective decisions much faster than most other people.
- Leaders allow their team members to grow, and to carry out tasks without interruption. They delegate power to others.
- Leaders have the ability to tap into people's souls. They are emotionally - intelligent, and enhance people's confidence by understanding and dealing appropriately with their emotions and concerns. This reflects the ability to adapt to the needs of different situations and people.

There are, however, limitations of the traits theory in that there is bound to be some subjective judgement in determining who is regarded as a “good” or “successful” leader. Although this school of thought still has merits, it has proven not to be completely popular among other theorists for various reasons.

3.5.2 Behavioural Theories

As interest in the trait approach to leadership declined, researchers focused their attention on leaders’ actions rather than on their attributes. These studies of leader behaviour tried to identify specific styles of leader conduct and attempted to discover whether leader behaviour was associated with employee attitudes and performance (French & Raven 1990:68). The behavioural theory drew attention to the kinds of behaviour of people in leadership situations.

One way of understanding leadership was to compare the behaviour of effective and ineffective leaders and to see how successful leaders behave. Thus the focus shifts from trying to determine what effective leaders *are*, to trying to determine what effective leaders *do* (Bennis 1989:98).

According to Robbins & De Cenzo (1997:58), three widely known studies of classic behavioural theories of leadership were conducted at the University of Iowa (The Iowa Studies); Ohio State University (Ohio State Studies); and The University of Michigan (The Michigan Studies).

3.5.2.1 The Iowa Studies

One of the first studies of leadership behaviour was done by Kurt Lewin and his associates at the University of Iowa. In their studies, the researchers explored three leadership behaviours or styles, which are:

- Autocratic;
- Democratic; and
- Laissez-faire

3.5.2.1.1 Autocratic Style

According to Robbins & De Cenzo (1997:67), an autocratic style of leadership describes a leader who typically tends to centralise authority, dictate work methods, make unilateral decisions and limits employee participation. Groups with autocratic leaders perform highly as long as the leader is present to supervise them. Groups tend to be displeased with close, autocratic leadership styles, and feelings of hostility frequently arise.

3.5.2.1.2 Democratic Style

The democratic style of leadership describes a leader who tends to involve employees in decision making, delegates authority, encourages participation in deciding work methods and goals, and uses feedback as an opportunity to coach employees. The democratic style can further be classified in two ways, namely consultative and participative (Daft 1999:108).

A democratic-consultative leader seeks input and hears the concerns and issues of employees but makes the final decision himself. In this capacity, the democratic-consultative leader uses input as an information-seeking exercise. A democratic-participative leader often allows employees to have a "say" in what is decided (Daft 1999:108).

In addition, group members perform well even when the leader is absent. The participative techniques and majority rule decision - making used by the democratic leader, train and involve group members so that they perform well with or without the leader present (Robbins & De Cenzo 1997:272).

3.5.2.1.3 Laissez-faire style

French & Raven (1990:79) contend that the laissez-faire leader generally gives his or her employees complete freedom to make decisions and to complete their work in whatever way they see fit. The behaviour a laissez-faire leader might exhibit will include the provision of necessary materials and answering questions.

Lewin and associates wondered which one of the three leadership styles was most effective. On the basis of their studies involving groups of children, they concluded that the laissez-faire style was ineffective on every performance criterion when compared with both

democratic and autocratic styles. Quantity of work done was equal in groups with democratic and autocratic leaders, but work quality and group satisfaction was higher in democratic groups. The results suggest that a democratic leadership style contributes to both good quantity as well as a high quality of work (Daft 1999:276).

3.5.2.2 Ohio State Studies

According to Adair (1983:11), researchers at Ohio State University asked subordinates to describe the behaviour of their supervisors. Based on the responses, the researchers identified two leadership styles:

- Considerate Style; and
- Initiating Structure.

3.5.2.2.1 Considerate Style

A considerate leadership style is concerned with subordinates' well-being, status and comfort. Considerate leaders seek to create a friendly and pleasant working climate. They assume that subordinates do their jobs. Considerate leaders seek acceptance by treating subordinates with respect and dignity. They tend to downplay both their formal position and the use of coercive power (Bennis 1989:120).

Typical behaviours of considerate leaders include:

- Expressing appreciation when subordinates do a good job;
- Not demanding more than subordinates can do;
- Helping subordinates with their personal problems; and
- Rewarding subordinates for jobs well done.

The considerate leadership style is often readily accepted by subordinates and is, therefore, highly effective.

Advocates of this theory contend that considerate leader behaviour generates goodwill and leads to high job satisfaction on the part of subordinates. These positive attitudes lead to closer co-operation between leaders and subordinates, motivate subordinates, create productive work groups, and result in low turnover and grievance rates (Hellriegel & Slocum 1998:196).

3.5.2.2.2 Initiating Structure Style

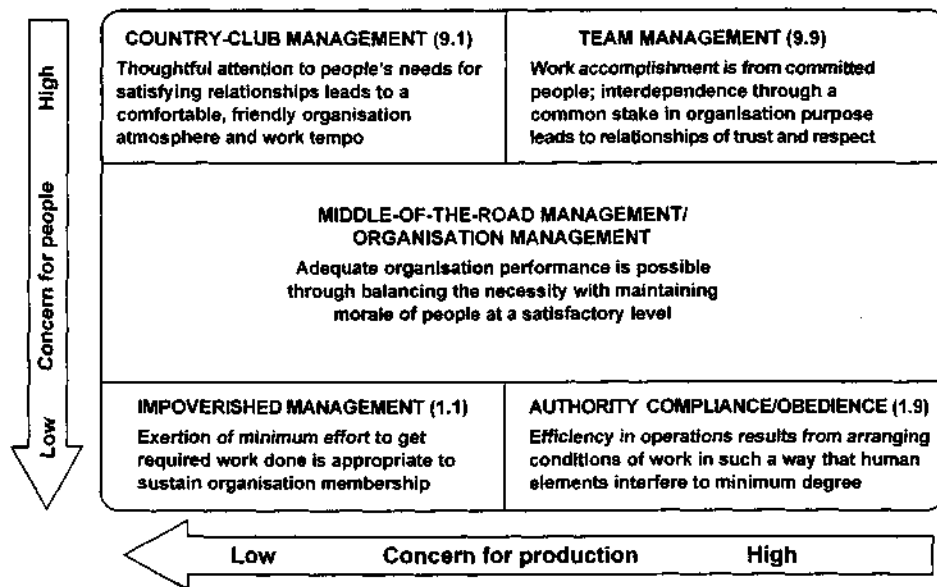
An initiating-structure leadership style is concerned with actively planning, organising, controlling and co-ordinating the activities of subordinates (Adair 1983:14).

Typical behaviour of initiating-structure leaders include:

- Assigning subordinates to particular tasks;
- Establishing standards of job performance;
- Informing subordinates of job requirements;
- Scheduling work to be done by subordinates; and
- Encouraging the use of uniform procedures.

The above resulted in a two-dimensional model where the dimensions of initiating structure and consideration are independent of one another (in the factor analysis these two dimensions were at 90 degrees to one another) (Brevis, Ngambi, Vrba & Naicker (2002:287). This leadership grid is represented in figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 Four Leadership styles from the Ohio State studies



Source: Brevis, Ngambi, Vrba & Naicker (2002:288)

As might be expected, employee turnover rates were lowest and employee satisfaction was highest under leaders rated high in consideration and low in initiating-structure.

Conversely, leaders who were rated high in initiating-structure and low in consideration had high employee grievance and turnover rates (Robbins & De Cenzo 1997:63).

However, later research suggests that effective leaders exhibit both consideration and initiating-structure behaviour. This result also suggests that employee reaction to initiating-structure depends on their perception of how considerate their managers are. If managers were considerate, initiating-structure was also viewed as effective. If managers were inconsiderate, subordinates viewed initiating-structure as “watching over employees’ shoulders” (Daft 1999:281).

3.5.2.3 The Michigan Studies

According to Davis (1996:127), leadership studies were undertaken at the University of Michigan's Survey Research Centre, at about the same time as those being done at Ohio State. These studies had similar research objectives, which were to allocate behavioural characteristics of leaders that appeared to be related to measures of performance effectiveness.

The Michigan group also came up with two dimensions of leadership behaviour that they labelled *employee oriented* and *production oriented*.

3.5.2.3.1 Employee-centred Leadership

This leader emphasises the employees' personal needs and the development of interpersonal relationships. The leader uses the group rather than individual decision making, encourages subordinates to set and achieve high performance goals and attempts to treat their followers in a sensitive, considerate manner (Grobler 1996:268).

3.5.2.3.2 Production-centred Leadership

This leadership emphasises tasks and the methods used to accomplish them. The leader sets high work standards, organises tasks carefully, prescribes work methods to be followed and closely supervises the subordinates' work (Grobler 1996:271).

Studies at the University of Michigan took a different approach by directly comparing the behaviour of effective and ineffective supervisors. The effectiveness of leaders was determined by productivity of the subordinate group.

The conclusions arrived at by the Michigan researchers, strongly favoured the leaders who were employee oriented in their behaviour. Employee-oriented leaders were associated with higher group productivity and higher job satisfaction. Production-orientated leaders tended to be associated with low group productivity and lower job satisfaction (Robbins & De Cenzo 1997:190).

3.5.2.4 The Behavioural Theory – An Evaluation

The behavioural approach to leadership style was fairly popular in the mid 1960's, at which time there was a growing recognition that leadership could not be explained solely in terms of leader behaviour, and that features of the context in which leadership occurred, such as subordinate and task attributes also needed to be examined in order to gain a more complete and accurate understanding of leadership.

Most management theorists agree that no one leadership style is best for all situations. Effective style depends upon characteristics of the leader, the followers and the leader's interpersonal relationship with followers, and the nature and environment of the task (Nicholas 2001:505).

3.5.3 Contingency Leadership

Despite the limitations of the behavioural approach, situational factors too are important in considering the characteristics of leadership. Recent studies focus on the interactions between the variables involved in a leadership situation and patterns of leadership behaviour and provide another set of theories – the contingency theories (Mullins 2002:271).

The following contingency theories will receive much attention in this study:

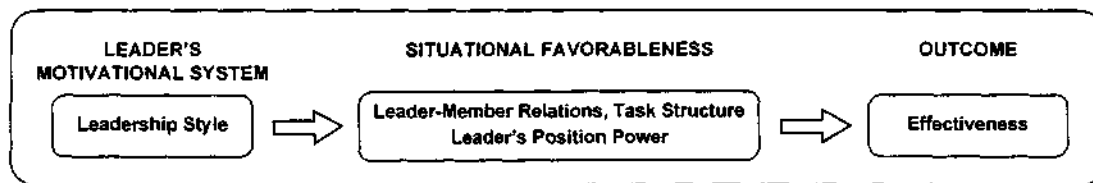
- The Contingency Theory – as advocated by Fred Fiedler; and
- The Path-Goal Theory – as advocated by Robert House.

3.5.3.1 The Contingency Theory of Fiedler

According to Hellriegel and Slocum (1998:208), the first contingency model was developed by Fred Fiedler and his associates in 1967. The underlying assumption of Fiedler's contingency model of leadership effectiveness is that group performance is a function of a

combination of a leader's style and several relevant features of the situation. That is, each leadership style is most effective when it is used in the right situation. Figure 3.2 illustrates the major variables of Fiedler's contingency theory.

Figure 3.2 Major Variables in Fiedler's Contingency Theory



Source: Hellriegel and Slocum (1998:209)

Fiedler's theory challenges the manager to:

- Understand his or her own leadership style;
- Diagnose the situation;
- Achieve a good match between the demands of the situation and the leadership style by changing the situation to match the leader's style (Hellriegel and Slocum: 1998:210).

Fiedler's theory argues that there are two basic leader orientations:

- The first is *relationship oriented*, which is a more lenient or people-oriented style;
- The second is *task-oriented* leadership, which is characterised by an emphasis on task accomplishment (Robbins & De Cenzo 1997:67).

Fiedler's model defines leadership effectiveness in terms of group performance. Fiedler also argues that *an understanding of the situation* and *an awareness of the leader's style* are the basic ingredients in a successful model of leadership. An effective work-group environment can, therefore be produced by matching the manager to the situation (Gardener 1995:257).

According to Robbins & De Cenzo (1997:196), Fiedler identified three variables in the work situation that help determine which leadership style will be effective. In order of relative importance they are:

- Leader-member relations;
- Task structure; and
- Position power

3.5.3.1.1 Leader-member Relations

These reflect the extent to which a leader is accepted and generates positive emotional reactions, or is rejected by his subordinates. This is the most important influence on a leader's effectiveness. A situation in which leader-member relations are relatively good is potentially much easier to manage than a situation in which such relations are strained and the manager has to rely much on formal authority.

On the other hand, a manager who is disliked is not trusted and appears to lack clout in the organisation. Such a manager may have to rely on legitimate and coercive power to get subordinates to perform (Robbins & De Cenzo, 1997:198).

3.5.3.1.2 Task Structure

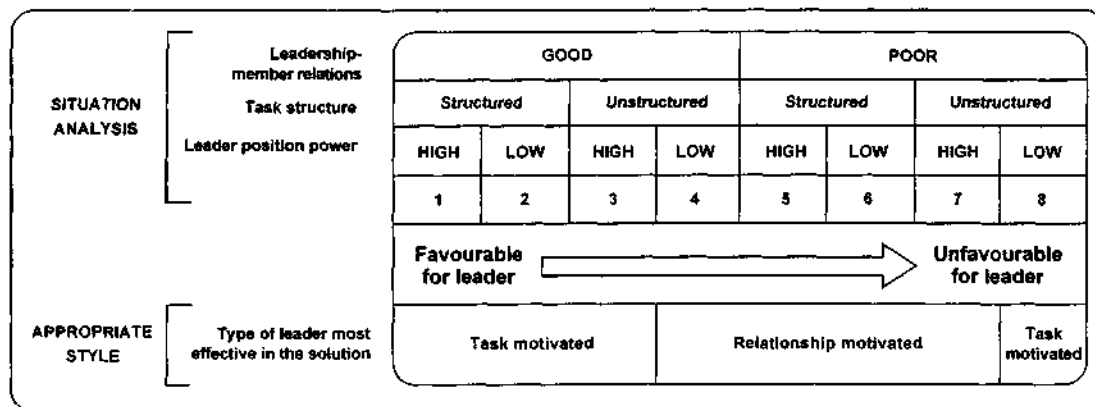
According to Hassard (1996:24) this is the degree to which the job at hand can be clearly specified. Such structure is evident in rules, job description and policies. When tasks are relatively structured, there is little ambiguity about how they should be approached. In addition, goals are clear, performance measures are understood, and multiple solutions or approaches to a problem are unlikely to exist.

With low task structure, a complex and non-routine task presents a manager and subordinates with alternatives for getting the job done. There are no clear guidelines that can be routinely applied to each new task. Under these conditions, subordinates can easily disagree with or question a manager's methods and instructions (Robbins & De Cenzo 1997:201).

3.5.3.1.3 Leader Position Power

This is the extent to which the leader has legitimate, coercive and reward power. High position power simplifies a manager's ability to influence subordinates, whereas low position power makes the manager's task more difficult (Gardener 1995:261).

Figure 3.3 Fiedler's Situation Analysis and Appropriate Style



Source: Daniel (1993:104)

Fiedler's contingency model of leadership is illustrated in figure 3.3. The three basic contingency variables are shown on the vertical axis. The eight numbered blocks represent combinations of the three variables and are arranged from the most favourable (block 1) to the least favourable (block 8) situation for the leader. A leader will have the most control and influence in block 1 situations. Here the leader is accepted and has high position power, and the subordinates perform relatively structured tasks. A leader will have somewhat less control and influence in a block 2 situation. The leader is accepted and has little position power, and the tasks are structured. In block 8 situations, a leader's control and influence are very limited. The leader is not accepted and has little position power, and subordinates perform unstructured tasks (Steers 1989:245).

As suggested in figure 3.3, task oriented leaders perform most effectively in the most favourable situations when the group atmosphere is good, the leader's position power is high

and tasks are structured. In such cases the leader is well respected, performs a job that gives him or her freedom to reward or punish subordinates (Daniel 1993:104).

A leader who is effective in one situation may be ineffective in another. Leaders, therefore, need to recognise this and understand the limitations that a situation may place on them.

In the least favourable situation (block 8), tasks are unstructured, the group is lacking and the leader's position is low. In such cases, the only hope for achieving any results appears to be task-oriented leadership. Relationship-oriented leaders are most effective in moderately favourable situations (blocks 4, 5, and 7). Blocks 4 and 5 describe situations in which tasks are structured but the leader is disliked, or the group's willingness and creativity to accomplish the tasks (Robbins & De Cenzo 1997:69).

3.5.3.1.4 Fiedler's Contingency Theory – An Evaluation

Fiedler suggests that leaders should attempt to engineer facets of their work setting in order to enhance their personal effectiveness rather than try to change their leadership style. He contends that personal style is fairly difficult to change, even for an individual who strongly desires to do so. Therefore, it can sometimes be easier to change the situational attributes to fit one's own style. This may mean deliberately trying to change the situational favourableness by enhancing relations with subordinates, or changing the amount of structure in a task, or gaining more formal power with the goal of achieving a more conducive work setting based on personal leadership style (Hassard 1996:24).

Fiedler's model has some limitations as well. First, the contingency variables are complex and difficult to access. Measuring actual leader-member relations, task structure, and position power must necessarily be subjective. Second, little attention is paid to the characteristics of subordinates. Whether subordinates are highly skilled professionals or unskilled labourers could make a major difference in the leadership style selected (Lawrence 1991:39). Third, the model contains an assumption that the leader has the intellectual ability and professional training to competently direct the group's efforts. If the leader lacks professional training or is not too smart, subordinates are not likely to respect the leader or trust the leader's

judgement. Even though it remains controversial, Fiedler's contingency model is an interesting approach to leadership and one that many find appealing.

3.5.3.2 The Path-Goal Theory of Robert House

Currently one of the respected approaches to leadership is the *path-goal theory*. Developed by Robert House, path-goal theory is a contingency model of leadership that extracts key elements from Ohio leadership research and the expectancy theory of motivation.

The essence of the theory is that it is the leader's job to assist his or her followers in attaining their goals, which are compatible with the overall objectives of the organisation.

The term path-goal is derived from the belief that effective leaders clarify the path to help their followers get from where they are to the achievement of their work goals and make the journey along the path easier by reducing roadblocks and pitfalls (Gordon 1993:64).

According to the path-goal theory, a leader's behaviour is acceptable to employees to the point that they view it as an immediate source of satisfaction or a means of future satisfaction.

According to House (1974:164), a leader's behaviour is motivational to the degree that it:

- Makes employee need-satisfaction contingent on effective performance; and
- Provides the coaching, guidance, support, and rewards that are necessary for effective performance.

To test these statements, four leadership behaviours were identified and are as follows:

3.5.3.2.1 Supportive leadership

This leadership behaviour shows concern for subordinates' well-being and personal needs. Leadership behaviour is open, friendly, and approachable, and the leader creates a team climate and treats subordinates as equals. Supportive leadership is similar to the consideration or people-oriented leadership (Grobler 1996:55).

3.5.3.2.2 Directive Leadership

This leadership behaviour tells subordinates exactly what they are supposed to do. Leader behaviour includes planning, making schedules, setting performance goals and behaviour standards, and stressing adherence to rules and regulations. Directive leadership behaviour is similar to the initiating structure or task-oriented leadership style (Gordon 1993:54).

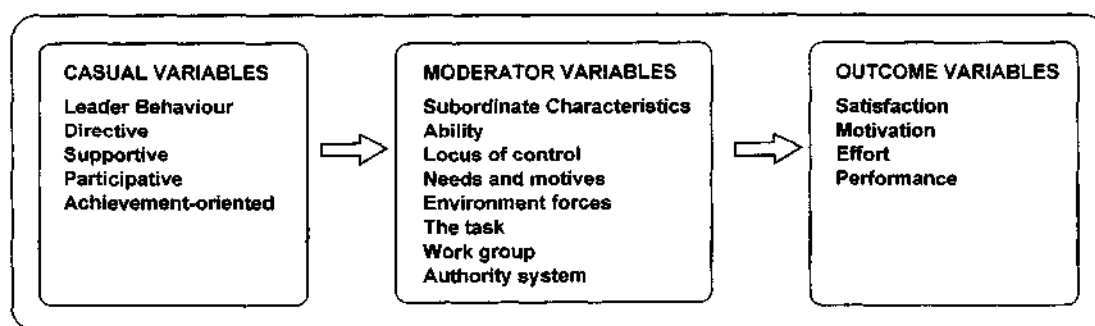
3.5.3.2.3 Participative Leadership

The leader consults with subordinates about decisions. Leader behaviour includes asking for opinions and suggestions, encouraging participation in decision making, and meeting with subordinates in their workplaces (Grobler 1996:57).

3.5.3.2.4 Achievement-oriented leadership

Sets clear and challenging goals for subordinates. Leader behaviour stresses high-quality performance and improvement on current performance. Achievement-oriented leaders also show confidence in subordinates and assist them in learning how to achieve high goals (Grobler 1996:59).

Figure 3.4 Relationships of Variables in the Path-Goal Theory



Source: House (1974:165)

3.5.3.2.5 Situational Factors

Each type of leader behaviour works well in some situations but not in other situations. House (1974: 165) postulates two situational factors that *moderate* the relationship between *leader behaviour* and *subordinate behaviour*, namely:

- Subordinate characteristics; and
- Environmental forces.

3.5.3.2.5.1 Subordinate Characteristics

House (1974:169) identified three subordinate characteristics, which are ability, locus of control and needs and motives.

3.5.3.2.5.1.1 Ability

Subordinates who feel they have low task ability should appreciate directive leadership, whilst subordinates who feel capable of performing the task will find directive leadership unnecessary and irritating.

3.5.3.2.5.1.2 Locus of Control

Individuals with an internal locus of control believe that outcomes are a function of their own efforts and are more satisfied with participative leadership. Individuals with an external locus of control believe outcomes are a function of luck or chance and thus not under their control. Such “*externals*” feel more comfortable with directive leadership (Robbins & De Cenzo 1997:75).

3.5.3.2.5.1.3 Needs and Motives

Robbins & De Cenzo (1997:79) further contends that subordinates with a high need for esteem and affiliation would be more satisfied by a supportive leader. People with a high need for security will be more satisfied with a directive leader. Subordinates with a high need for autonomy, responsibility and self-actualisation, will probably be best motivated by a

supportive leader. Senior managers with a high need for achievement should be more satisfied with achievement-oriented leaders.

3.5.3.2.5.2 Environmental Forces

According to Robbins & De Cenzo (1997:84), these forces consist of three broad aspects of situational factors, which are tasks, work group and formal authority system.

3.5.3.2.5.2.1 Tasks

Highly structured tasks need supportive and participative leadership, to increase subordinate satisfaction. On the other hand, subordinates should be more satisfied with directive leadership on unstructured tasks because this can assist in clarifying ambiguous tasks.

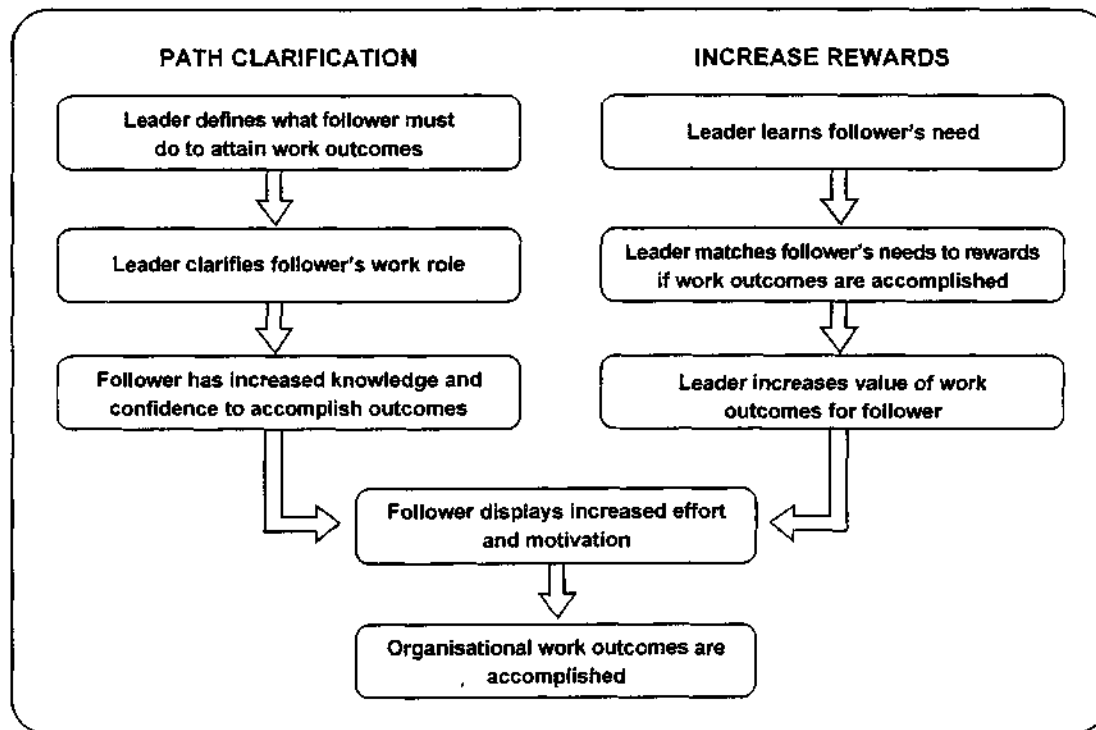
3.5.3.2.5.2.2 Work group

When goals and the paths to achieve those goals are clear, then directive leadership would seem unnecessary.

3.5.3.2.5.2.3 Formal authority system

With tasks that are self-evident due to mechanisation, standards and procedures (such as the typing of manuscripts) directive leadership may lead to subordinate dissatisfaction. In stressful situations directives and supportive leadership may increase the satisfaction of followers. Where uncertainty is present, participatory leadership may be used to elicit ideas in order to reach a decision. Once the final decision is made, the leader may again resort to directive leadership.

Figure 3.5 Leader Roles in the Path-Goal Model



Source: Sergovanni (1992:230)

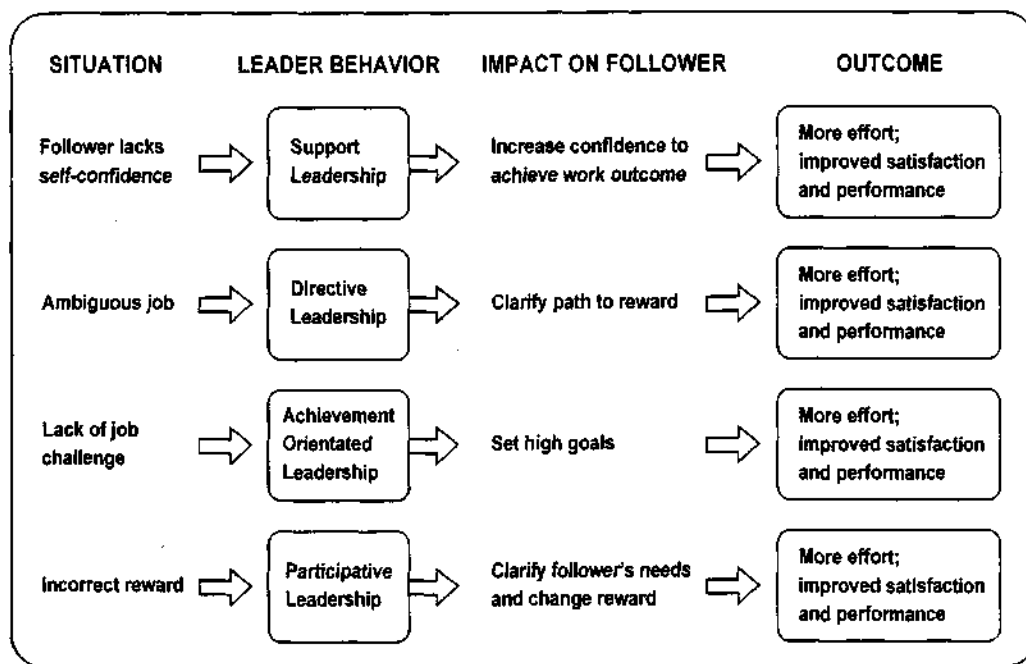
3.5.3.2.6 Hypotheses of Path-Goal Theory

According to Sadler (1989:35), the following are some examples of hypotheses that have evolved from path-goal theory:

- Directive leadership leads to greater satisfaction when tasks are ambiguous or stressful than when they are highly structured and well laid out.
- Supportive leadership results in high employee performance and satisfaction when subordinates are performing structured tasks.
- Directive leadership is likely to be perceived as redundant among subordinates with considerable experience.
- The more clear and bureaucratic the formal authority relationship, the more leaders should exhibit supportive behaviour and de-emphasise directive behaviour.

- Directive leadership leads to higher employee satisfaction when there is substantive conflict within a work group.
- Subordinates with an internal locus of control (those who believe they control their own destiny) will be more satisfied with a participative style.
- Achievement-oriented leadership will increase subordinate's expectancies in that effort will lead to high performance when tasks are ambiguously structured.

Figure 3.6 Path-Goal Situations and Preferred Leader Behaviours



Source: Nanus 1992:59

3.5.3.2.7 House's Path – Goal Theory – An Evaluation

Although House's path-goal theory is fairly new, its effectiveness is still debatable. From the above, it can be deduced that employees performing routine and simple tasks have reported higher job satisfaction when managers provided supportive rather than directive leadership (Robbins & De Cenzo 1997:87).

Employees performing non-routine and complex tasks have reported higher productivity when their manager provided directive leadership, but they had not necessarily reported higher job satisfaction (Nanus 1992:61).

3.5.4 Styles of Leadership

Leadership is a social activity. It involves the responsibility of the organisation and the direction of work and that of workers. Consequently, the success of a leader is determined largely by his or her style to influence the behaviour of others.

The leader-group relationship, according to Milner (1989:243) is one of the more significant aspects of a manager's role. Basically organisations are formed to take advantage of the many skills and talents that collective and co-operate work can provide, and it is the leader's duty to ensure that these benefits are realised. To this end the leader needs to develop a sensitivity to group processes, and one way to do so is to acquire diagnostic skills for analysing group behaviour.

Diagnostic skills include identifying and interpreting individual, organisational, and environmental factors that affect behaviour. The leader is then better prepared to assess the positive or negative aspects of a situation and make decisions about what should be done (Nanus 1992:79).

The classic leadership studies (trait and behavioural approaches) and the contingency theories of leadership all have a direct implication for what style the leader uses in managing human resources.

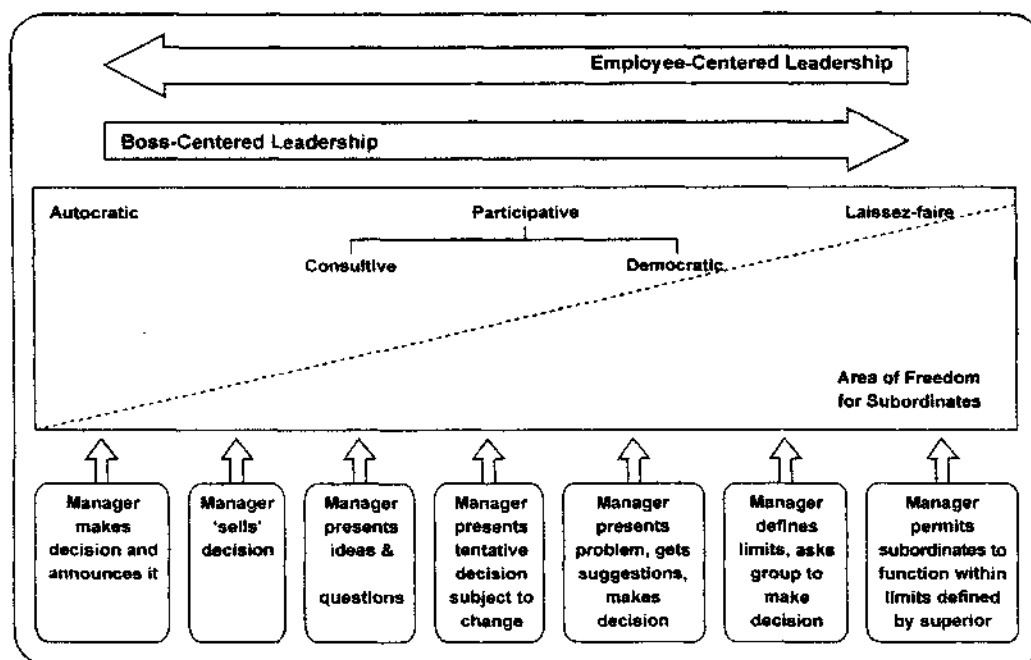
In analysing this topic, the following three theories will be discussed:

- The Leadership-Style Continuum advocated by Tannenbaum & Schmidt;
- The Managerial Grid Style advocated by Blake & Mouton; and
- The Situational Leadership Style advocated by Hersey & Blanchard.

3.5.4.1 The Leadership-style Continuum advocated by Tannenbaum & Schmidt

Tannenbaum & Schmidt (1973:153) advocate a leadership continuum which, illustrates the situational and varying nature of leadership. The continuum contains a variety of leadership styles, from highly leader-centred (autocratic) to highly subordinate-centred (democratic). Figure 3.7 illustrates this continuum.

Figure 3.7 Leadership-Style Continuum of Tannenbaum and Schmidt



Source: Tannenbaum & Schmidt (1973:155)

The continuum illustrates that leadership varies according to the distribution of influence among the leader and his or her subordinates. The leadership style changes from left to right, from leader-centred to subordinate-centred, as the leader exercises less control (authority) and allows subordinates more influence and freedom to take decisions on their own. Leadership behaviour and the leadership style used by a leader will, therefore, depend on

how much authority he or she delegates to subordinates (Tannenbaum & Schmidt 1973:154).

According to Gerber (1998:167), three types of forces determine which style is practical and desirable, and they are:

- Forces in the leader;
- Forces in the subordinates; and
- Forces in the situation.

3.5.4.1.1 Forces in the Leader

A leader's behaviour is influenced by his or her personality, their background, knowledge, and experience. Other internal forces are:

- The leader's value system;
- The leader's confidence in subordinates;
- The leader's own leadership philosophy; and
- The leader's feeling of security in an uncertain situation, especially when he or she is operating towards the right of the continuum.

3.5.4.1.2 Forces in the Subordinates

Before a leader can decide how to guide subordinates, he or she must consider the forces affecting these subordinates. Each subordinate is affected by personality variables and expectations of how the leader will act towards him or her.

A leader can allow subordinates more freedom and involvement in decision-making if they:

- Have a relatively high need for independence;
- Are prepared to accept responsibility for decision-making;
- Are interested in the problem and feel that it is important;

- Understand the goals of the organisation and can identify with them;
- Have the knowledge and experience required to deal with the problem; and
- Understand that they are expected to share in decision-making (Gerber 1998:173).

3.5.4.1.3 Forces in the situation

Apart from the forces present in the leader and the subordinates, the general situation may also affect a leader's behaviour. Important factors include:

- The type of organisation, and the people's values and tradition;
- Group effectiveness, including previous experience, group cohesion, mutual acceptance, and commonality of purpose;
- The complexity of the problem; and
- Time pressure, which may result in others not being involved in decision-making (Gerber 1998:175).

3.5.4.1.4 The Leadership-style Continuum – An Evaluation

Although the leadership continuum is a logical concept with practical application value, it does have some shortcomings. The most important of which is the lack of instructions on exactly how a situation is to be diagnosed. It is not clear how leadership behaviour must be judged. Little empirical research has been conducted about the leadership continuum (Mullins 2002:269).

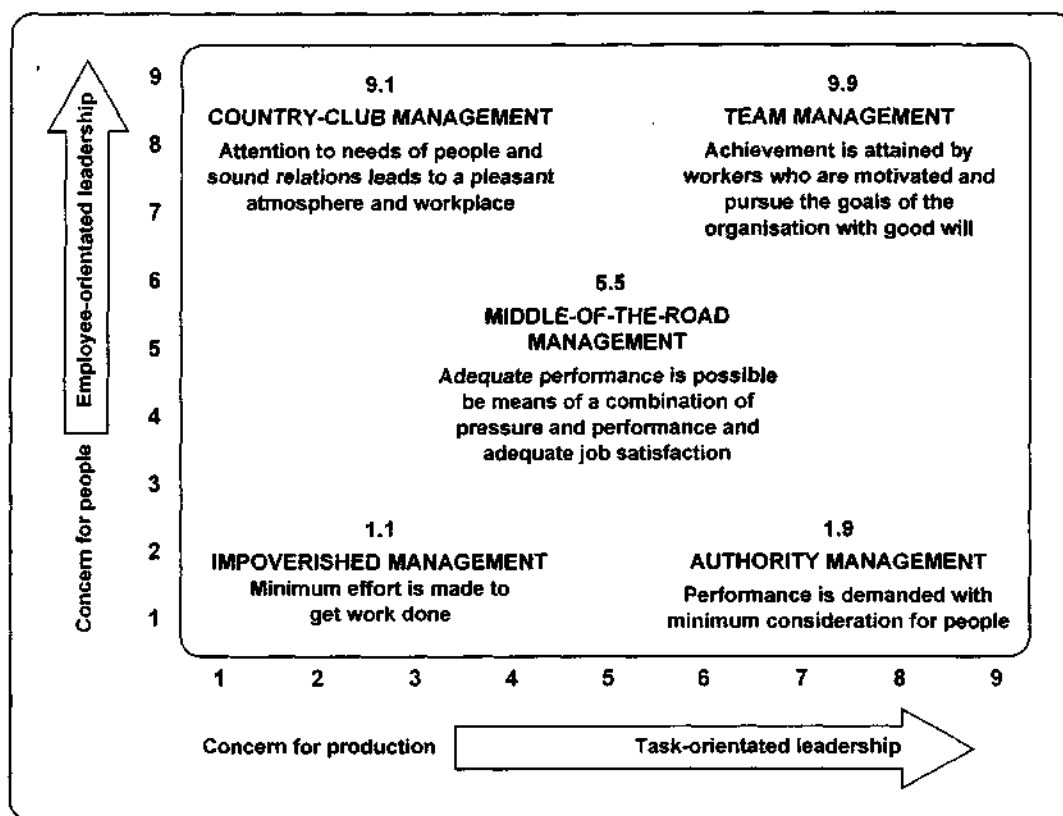
3.5.4.2 The Leadership Grid advocated by Blake & Mouton

The leadership grid of Blake & Mouton provides a basis to compare different leadership styles in terms of two dimensions, namely, concern for production and concern for people, which essentially represent the Ohio State dimension of consideration and initiating structure and the Michigan dimensions of employee orientation and production orientation.

The grid does not show the results produced but rather the dominating factors in a leader's thinking in regard to getting results (Milner 1989:248).

- Concern for production is the extent to which the leader emphasises production, profit, deadlines, task completion, and results. This is represented on the horizontal axis of the grid.
- Concern for people is the extent to which the leader emphasises the needs and expectations of employees, and fosters employee-satisfaction. This is represented on the vertical axis of the grid (Milner 1989:250).

Figure 3.8 The Leadership Grid of Blake & Mouton



Source: Blake & Mouton (1985:16)

According to Blake & Mouton (1985:15), both dimensions of leadership behaviour are presented on the grid, in a nine point scales from low (point 1) through average (point 5) to high (point 9). The different scale points do not allocate absolute values to leadership behaviour, but merely indicate varying degrees of concern for people and for production.

According to Nel, et.al (2002:356-7), the following leadership styles are identified:

3.5.4.2.1 The Authority Compliance Leader (9.1)

This shows maximum concern for production (scale point 9) and minimum concern for people (scale point 1). Production is achieved by means of formal authority and subordinates were controlled by enforcing submissiveness. Decisions are made unilaterally and communication is usually one way.

3.5.4.2.2 The Country Club Leader (1.9)

This is a democratic leader who will show minimum concern for production (scale point 1) and maximum concern for people (scale point 9). To this leader, cultivating and maintaining sound interpersonal relationships with colleagues and subordinates will therefore be most important. This leader maintains that the job will be done automatically if interpersonal relationships are sound. Communication is aimed at maintaining a pleasant working atmosphere, and conflict is avoided at all costs.

3.5.4.2.3 The Impoverished Leader (1:1)

This leader has a laissez-faire approach. This person shows little concern for production and little concern for people (both at scale point 10). A laissez-faire leader does the absolute minimum required, in both the job and in interpersonal relationships, to stay on as a member of the organisation. The impoverished leader avoids commitment to decisions. This style is often associated with managers who are close to retirement or managers who have emotionally withdrawn from the organisation.

3.5.4.2.4 The Middle-of-the-Road Leader (5.5)

This type of leader tries to maintain a balance between production, and interpersonal relationships. Blake and Mouton (1985:12) describe this style as *"the go-along-to-get-along"*

assumptions which are revealed in conformity to the status quo. Such leaders try half-heartedly to pay attention to both aspects (both at scale point 5) but do not succeed. They assume that it is impossible to integrate the needs of employees with organisational goals.

3.5.4.2.5 The Team Leader (9.9)

This leader integrates concern for production and the concern for people at a higher level (both at scale point 9). This style emphasises teamwork, is goal-orientated, and strives for excellent results through participative management, involvement with people, and conflict management. The 9.9 rating provides the ideal that leaders should strive for.

By knowing the styles of other leaders and their own leadership style, leaders will be better equipped to appraise themselves and others more objectively, communicate better, understand where differences originate, assist and lead another in being more productive. Blake & Mouton (1985:6) describe their usefulness of their approach as follows:

“Learning grid management not only makes people aware of the assumptions under which they operate but also helps them to learn and to embrace scientifically verified principles for effectiveness in production under circumstances that promise mentally healthy behaviour.”

3.5.4.2.6 The Theory of Blake & Mouton – An Evaluation

From the findings of Blake & Mouton it can be deduced that managers perform best using a 9.9 style. Little substantive evidence, however, is provided in order to support the conclusion that a 9.9 style is most effective in all situations. The grid also offers no answers to the question of what makes an effective leader but provides only a framework for conceptualising leadership style. The managerial grid and its accompanying theory does nevertheless, constitute a useful instrument to enable leaders to identify their own assumptions about people and the job to be done (Nel, et.al. 2002:359).

3.5.4.3 The Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey & Blanchard

Hersey & Blanchard (1993:78) used the two-dimensional Ohio State Model as the foundation for their theory. Their basic postulate is that leadership style should vary as the

situation varies. There is no best or ideal leadership style which, leads to effective outcomes in all situations, as some have argued (Locke 1991:267).

According to this theory, a leader may have the capacity to undertake all four leadership styles, but if his/her diagnostic ability is poor and he/she uses the wrong style for a particular situation he/she will be ineffective. Alternatively, if an individual cannot use a particular style, or does not know how to compensate for that lack, and the situation requires that style, he/she will be ineffective (Davis 1996:54).

The following concepts are important to this model:

3.5.4.3.1 Task Behaviour

According to Hersey & Blanchard (1993:148) this implies the degree to which leaders are likely to organise and spell out the tasks for group members by indication of who should do what, where, when and how. Task behaviour is also characterised by a leader instituting well-defined organisational patterns, channels of communication and procedures for the execution of tasks.

3.5.4.3.2 Relationship behaviour

This implies the degree to which leaders are likely to maintain interpersonal relationships between themselves and group members by providing open channels of communication, socio-emotional support, psychological stroking and facilitating subordinate's behaviour. Hersey & Blanchard (1993:166) incorporate the maturity of followers as a situational variable into the model. There are two types of maturity of particular importance, namely:

3.5.4.3.2.1 Job maturity

It is the ability to do something. It has to do with knowledge and skill. Individuals with a high job maturity in a particular situation, have the *knowledge ability* and *experience* to perform certain tasks without direction from others (Gerber 1998:174).

3.5.4.3.2.2 Psychological maturity

It is the *willingness* or motivation to do something. It has to do with *confidence* and *commitment*. Individuals, who have high psychological maturity in a particular area, have self-confidence and good feelings about themselves in that aspect of the job (Gerber 1998:174).

3.5.4.3.3 The Maturity Continuum

Maturity is limited to the context of task-relevant subordinate behaviours and is defined as the “*level of achievement motivation, willingness and ability to take responsibility, and task-relevant education and experience of an individual or group.*” Immature subordinates or groups are not motivated to achieve task goals, are unwilling to take responsibility, and do not have task-relevant experience and/or education. Thus they are ineffective and unproductive. A mature subordinate or group is highly motivated to achieve task goals, it is willing and able to take responsibility, has task-relevant experience and or education, and it is highly efficient and productive (Finch 1993:75).

The theory suggests that, for an immature individual or group, high task and low relationship behaviour is appropriate. If an individual or group is unproductive, it is argued that providing socio-emotional support will reinforce that ineffective behaviour. What is required is a leader who provides structure – tells people what to do and how to do it, structures formal channels of communication and sets goals (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:216).

Figure 3.9 Maturity Continuum

Maturity Level	M1	M2	M3	M4
Ability/ Willingness	Unable/ Unwilling	Unable/ Willing	Able/ Unwilling	Able/ Willing
	LOW Immature	MODERATE Maturity of Followers		HIGH Mature

Source: Hersey & Blanchard (1993:175)

3.5.4.3.4. Developmental Level

In later versions, the maturity scale is changed to “*developmental level*” and the M1 and the M4 above can be exchanged with D1 and D4. Hersey & Blanchard postulate that as “*maturity or developmental level*” increases, there should be a shift in leadership style along the progression from telling, through selling, participating to delegating. This shift in styles is put into a one-to-one correspondence with the four developmental levels as shown in figure 3.10 (Finch 1993:78).

Figure 3.10 Development Level

Developmental Level	D1	D2	D3	D4
Ability/Willingness	Unable/Unwilling	Unable/Willing	Able/Unwilling	Able/Willing
Leadership Style	Telling S1	Selling S2	Participating S3	Delegating S4

Source: Grobler (1996:48)

3.5.4.3.5 Choosing the Appropriate Leadership Style

The appropriate leadership style includes the right combination of task behaviour (direction) and relationship behaviour (support). Grobler (1996:63) sums up as follows:

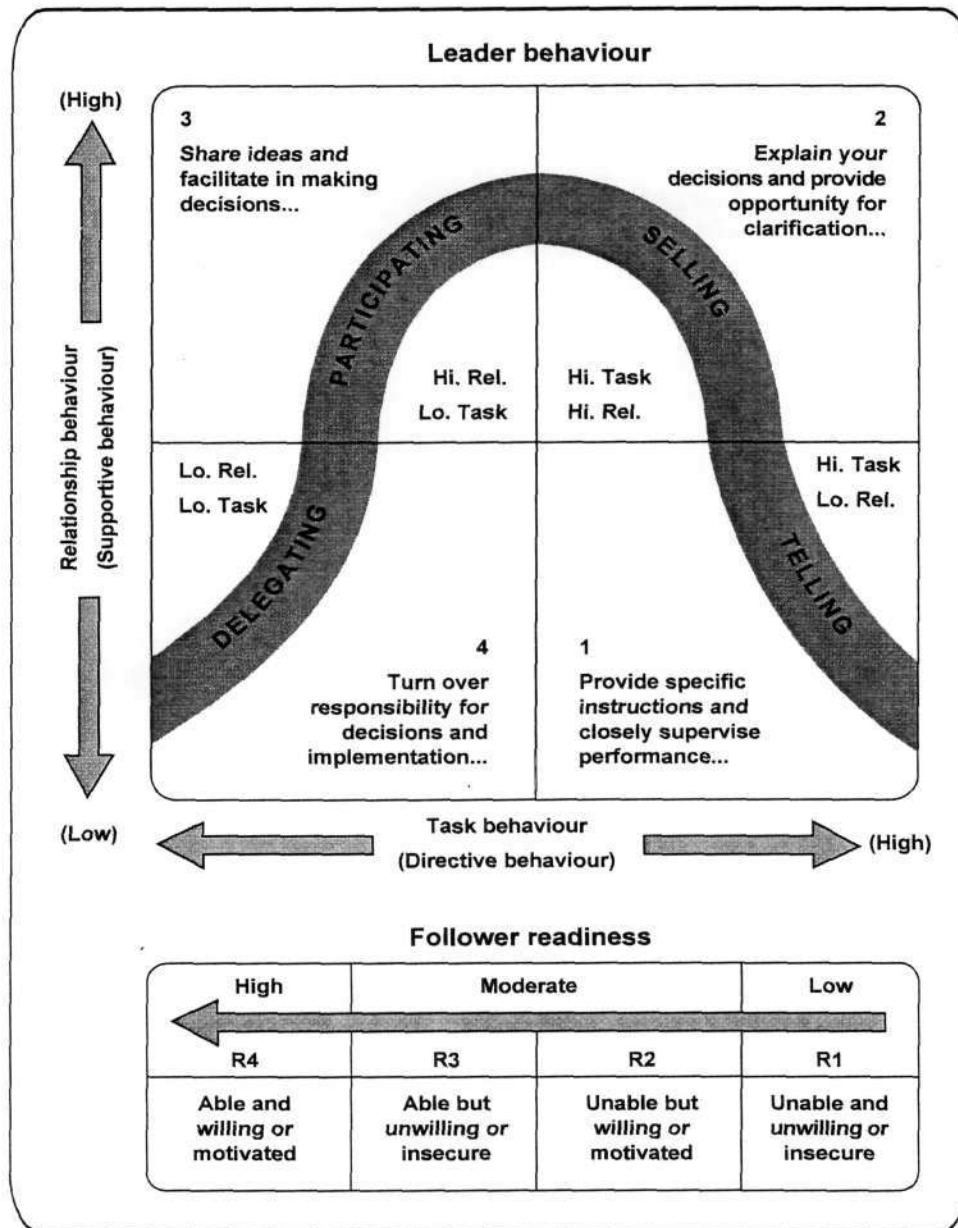
- Telling (S1) is for low maturity. People who are both unable and unwilling (D1) to take responsibility to do something are not competent or confident.
- Selling (S2) is for low to moderate maturity. People who are unable but willing (D2) to take responsibility are confident but lack the skills at this point.

- Participating (S3) is for moderate to high maturity. People at this maturity level are able but unwilling, (D3) to do what the leader wants. Their unwillingness can be a function of insecurity but could also be due to a lack of motivation.
- Delegating (S4) is for high maturity. People at this maturity level are both able and willing or confident to take responsibility.

3.5.4.3.6 The Leadership Matrix

The four leadership styles are now fitted into a 2X2 matrix formed by the horizontal axis as relationship behaviour. This format is now smoothed into a bell-shaped curve to illustrate graphically the connection between maturity or development and leadership style (Hersey & Blanchard 1993:179). This is represented in figure 3.11.

Figure 3.11 Relationship Behaviour and Task Behaviour



Source: Hersey & Blanchard (1993:179)

3.5.4.3.7 The Theory of Hersey & Blanchard – An Evaluation

Hersey & Blanchard (1993:98) argue that in the case of an immature group, the leadership style most likely to be effective is high-task and low relationship. As the subordinate responds to this leader style by beginning to work effectively, it is critical that the leader reinforce this behaviour. One way is to praise and provide other meaningful organisational rewards where feasible. Another way to reward such behaviour is to delegate more job responsibility and initiate mutual participation in aspects of the decision-making process (Cronje 1997:126). At this stage such involvement is usually in the area of how to accomplish tasks. Such behaviour tends to develop feelings of mutual trust and respect, because by delegating and allowing participation, they demonstrate leader trust and respect for subordinates; the leader believes them to be competent and responsible (Griffin 1991:122).

This theory raises other issues such as the question of leader flexibility. Are most people able to change from one style to another? Most students of leadership assume that leader style is largely a function of personality and is fairly stable. However, the behaviour associated with the tasks and relationship styles can be learned. The individual who has a dominant task style, for example, can learn other behaviours as he consults, allows for participation, and delegation (Nicholls 1995:136).

According to Griffin (1991:120), situational leadership is a contingency theory that focuses on the followers. Regardless of what the leader does, effectiveness depends on the action of the followers. This important dimension has been overlooked or under-emphasised in most leadership theories. Successful leadership is achieved by selecting the right leadership style, which is contingent on the follower's level of readiness.

Many leaders may be fairly rigid and are not flexible enough to adapt to the demands of the situation. There may be leaders who are predominantly task or relationship-oriented and find it difficult to change styles to suit the circumstances (Charlton 1992:47). Research on leadership, however, is ongoing, thereby giving rise to theories on contemporary leadership.

3.6 Contemporary Leadership

Research on leadership behaviour is moving in many directions. New lines of enquiry are, therefore, being opened in an effort to construct the ultimate leadership model. For the purposes of this study, the following contemporary leadership models will be outlined:

- Transactional leadership
- Charismatic leadership
- Transformational leadership
- Female leadership
- Dynamic engagement
- Attribution theory (Brevis et.al. 2002:292).

3.6.1 Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is the traditional management function of leading, based on legitimate authority within the structure of an organisation. The emphasis is on the clarification of goals and objectives, work task and outcomes, as well as organisational rewards and punishments (Mullins 2002:279). It is based on a relationship of mutual dependence and an exchange process of: "I will give you this, if you do that".

According to Brevis, et.al (2002:292), transactional leaders conform to organisational norms and values. Their style is characterised by the evaluation and correction of performance, policies and procedures. The leader directs and controls and this type of leadership displays greater central authority. The transactional leadership lasts as long as the needs of both the leader and follower are satisfied and by the continuing exchange process. It is not a relationship that binds the leader and follower together. This type of leadership, in a changing environment as in South African, may be counterproductive.

3.6.2 Charismatic Leadership

Charismatic leaders have the capacity to motivate people to do more than what is normally expected of them. They motivate subordinates to transcend their expected performance and have exceptional impact on their organisations. Charismatic leaders create an atmosphere of change and have an emotional impact on subordinates (Brevis, et.al. 2002:293). Bill Gates is an example of a charismatic leader.

3.6.3 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders are similar to charismatic leaders, but are distinguished by their special ability to bring about innovation and change. They have the ability to make the necessary successful changes in the organisation's vision and mission, in its goals, strategies, structures, culture, and reward system (Hunt 1992:250). Transformational leadership is most appropriate in a dynamic environment as the Department of Foreign Affairs and on a wider scope, South Africa, as a country.

According to Van der Walddt & Du Toit (1999:402), transformational leadership refers to public managers setting the pace and direction as agents of change and transformation within the institution.

Various environmental factors have made it necessary for South African organisations, especially the Department of Foreign Affairs to adapt or renew its basic structures, systems, organisational culture, and management practices. These factors include international competition, emphasis on information technology, socio-political and socio-economic changes.

Considering South Africa's political history, transformation can be a difficult and long term process. Meaningful change can only be instituted if credible and capable leaders guide the process of change. Strategic leadership is, therefore, required for systematic, planned and controlled change (Hunt 1992:255). Transformational leaders help to define the vision of an organisation and influence others to believe that the vision can become a reality. They act as coaches, role models and inspirational figures to create conditions under which employees

and all other stakeholders enthusiastically contribute towards organisational goal achievement. Transformational leadership is a process of engendering higher levels of motivation and commitment among followers (Mullins 2002:279).

According to Bass (1994:301), the transformational leader motivates followers to do more than originally expected and the extent of transformation is measured in terms of the leader's effect on followers. Bass proposed a theory of transformational leadership, which argues that the leader transforms and motivates followers by:

- Generating a greater awareness of the importance/ purpose of the organisation and the task outcomes;
- Inducing followers to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the organisation or team; and
- Activating their higher-level needs.

According to Nel, et.al (2002:364) the following are characteristics of transformational leaders:

- They have credibility and the ability to foster trust by acting fairly and honestly in all relationships;
- They have a sense of mission and purpose;
- They possess the ability to communicate a vision;
- They have the ability to perform at high levels;
- They are result orientated;
- They have the ability to inspire others and possess emotional intelligence;
- They have the ability to participate fully with people at all levels;
- They possess the strength to resist peer pressure and have confidence to stand up for what is right;
- They have the ability to detect positive qualities in others;

- They possess the willingness to share responsibility

According to Brevis, et.al (2002:294), successful transformational leaders are usually identified in terms of providing a strong vision and sense of mission. They have the ability to arouse strong emotions in followers and a sense of identification with the leader. Some examples in history of people referred to as transformational leaders, include Sir Winston Churchill, President John F. Kennedy and Dr. Martin Luther King Junior. Closer home, South Africa's former Presidents, Nelson Mandela and F.W. De Klerk are also considered transformational leaders, as they did the groundbreaking work to set South Africa on its course towards becoming a democratic society. President Thabo Mbeki, can also be considered a transformational leader, with his initiation of the New Economic Programme for Africa's Development (NEPAD) programme for Africa.

3.6.4 Female Leadership

As women move into higher positions, they bring a different leadership style to organisations. Their style is very effective in today's turbulent corporate environment (Daft 1999:392). Although women, like their male counterparts also possess assertiveness, initiative, and aggressiveness, they tend to engage in leadership behaviour that can be more interactive. An interactive leader is concerned with consensus building, is open and inclusive, encourages participation by others and is more caring than the leadership styles of men. However, interactive leadership is not only confined to women. Anyone can develop these qualities, which are especially desirable as they are consistent with recent trends towards participation and empowerment (Daft 1999:293).

3.6.5 Dynamic Engagement

This is a new line of enquiry into leadership behaviour. In this case, according to Stoner (1992:487), the researchers have simply revisited the basics of leadership by trying to single out the five fundamental practices and ten behaviours that leaders use to get "extraordinary things" done. They asked leaders to describe themselves when they were at their best, and they asked employees to list the characteristics they admired most in leaders.

The following are the practices and behaviours of exceptional leaders:

- They challenge the process by searching for opportunities and take risks;
- They inspire a shared vision by enlisting others;
- They enable others to act by fostering collaboration and strengthening others;
- They model the way by setting the example and planning small wins; and
- They encourage and recognise individual contribution and celebrate accomplishments.

Nelson Mandela is a leader who practices dynamic encouragement and who gets “extraordinary things” done.

3.6.6 Attribution Theory

This is another contemporary perspective on leadership. Attribution Theory postulates that leaders seek proof or reason why subordinates act in a certain way, and then modify their behaviour to guide their followers (Stoner 1992:495).

3.6.7 Contemporary Leadership – An Evaluation

The contemporary perspectives on leadership, is both desirable and necessary in present day business and will increasingly become more important. Organisations must be capable of fast, radical change and those that aspire to be the best must be able to lead change rather than just follow it (Mullins 2002:279).

A variety of contemporary models have been proposed. Even though a perfect theory might never become a reality, each of the models, nonetheless, provides an insight into how managers can influence subordinates and obtain their enthusiastic cooperation towards attaining the organisation's goals.

3.7 Chapter Summary

The chapter covered the definitions of leadership by authorities on the topic and briefly discussed the components of leadership. Power tools as outlined by Stephen Covey were presented and the differences between leadership and management were given.

Careful examination discloses that the concept of “task” and “people” permeate most of the theories. The task dimension is called just that by Fiedler, but is referred to as “initiating structure” by the Ohio State group, “directive leadership” by path-goal supporters, “production orientation” by the Michigan researchers and “concern for production” by Blake & Mouton.

The people dimension gets similar treatment under such names as “consideration”, “employee oriented”, “supportive” or “relationship-oriented” leadership.

The early task-people approaches such as the Ohio and Michigan studies offer us little substance. The strongest statement one can make based on these theories is that leaders who rate high in people orientation should end up with satisfied employees. The research is too shallow to make predictions regarding employee productivity or the effect of a task orientation on productivity and satisfaction.

The most important contribution of the Fiedler model may be that it initiated a more rigorous search to identify contingency variables in leadership. While this model is no longer at the cutting edge of leadership theories, several of the situational variables that Fiedler originally identified continue to surface in more recent contingency theories.

Hersey & Balanchard’s situational leadership theory was straightforward, intuitively appealing and important for its explicit recognition that the subordinates ability and motivation are critical to the leader’s success.

House’s path-goal model provided a framework for explaining and predicting leadership effectiveness that developed a solid, empirical foundation. It recognised that leader success is dependent on adjusting their style to the environment that the leader was placed in, as well as the individual characteristics of followers. The path-goal theory’s recognition of individual

characteristics was also consistent with Hersey & Blanchard's focus on the experience and ability of followers.

In the transforming South Africa, theories of contemporary leadership became an interesting area of study. As this type of leadership had an empowering effect on others, it also became essential to the needs of South Africa, and more especially the needs of the Department of Foreign Affairs where it made its mark of excellence as a fledgling democracy.

CHAPTER 4

ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE WITHIN THE DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS

4.1 Introduction

The Department of Foreign Affairs is responsible for the application and execution of all aspects of South Africa's foreign policy as entrusted to the Minister of Foreign Affairs by the President.

The post 1994 era saw Pretoria become the key global player in the political arena, which resulted in an increase of South African diplomatic missions abroad, as well as the increased presence of foreign missions within the country.

This increased workload had forced the Department of Foreign Affairs, to increase its capacity and improve on its organisational structure. It is only through visionary leadership, that the mammoth task at hand would come to fruition.

This chapter will introduce South Africa's foreign policy before and after 1994, South Africa's new international global status, the vision and the mission statement of the Department of Foreign Affairs, the tenets and the objectives of the foreign policy, the theories of organisational performance and their relevance to the Department, the new service delivery of "*Batho Pele*", total quality management, South Africa's regional and multilateral interests and human resource adjustments within Foreign Affairs to accommodate the new policy.

4.2 South Africa's Foreign Policy prior to 1994

Prior to 1994, South Africa's foreign policy was primarily to justify to the international community, the states policy of "apartheid." This policy had ostracized South Africa from world politics. It therefore, became the apartheid government's hope that intensified trade

relations would lead to better political relations with the rest of the world (Thomas 1981:233).

As early as the 1950's, South Africa endeavoured to develop economic relations and extend technical aid as part of a policy of "peaceful coexistence" with African States. The majority of the States, however, remained aloof (Mbeki 1999:80).

Except for Malawi, no African Nation had established diplomatic relations with South Africa. On the African Continent, South Africa's internal politics remained an insurmountable obstacle to diplomatic ties (Breytenbach 1978:127). Furthermore, South Africa's involvement in Angola, Mozambique and Namibia unified Africa in a call for isolation. The concentrated opposition of African States, including their political and moral pressure on the Western Nations played a significant part in increasing South Africa's diplomatic and ideological isolation (Thomas 1981:75).

Guided largely by the Organisation for African Unity (OAU) policy, African States, whatever, their political and ideological differences, voted as a bloc in the United Nations (UN) on the issue of South Africa. Every effort was made to have South Africa withdrawn from the British Commonwealth and be excluded from the Economic Commission for Africa and the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). South Africa was also suspended from the World Health Organisation (WHO) (Thomas 1981:250). The apartheid government's increasing isolation left them no choice but to negotiate for a new political dispensation, which gave birth to a new democracy.

4.3 South Africa's Foreign Policy since 1994

The election of a democratic, non-racial government heralded a new beginning for South Africa. The country was openly welcomed into the international community. It became inevitable that the role and responsibility of the Department of Foreign Affairs increased significantly since 1994. New and demanding objectives were set in the post 1994 era. To meet these strategic objectives and goals, the Department of Foreign Affairs had to review its capacity for the enhancement of service delivery, since this Department became an increasingly important player in the political arena. As Huddleston (1992:14) states: "*the*

heart of any government agency, or any organisation for that matter, is its personnel. How effectively it accomplishes its mission is heavily determined by the skill, determination, and morale of its employees." To meet the new -found challenges, the Department of Foreign Affairs immediately embarked on a programme of restructuring and realignment aimed at improving the performance culture and thereby enhancing efficiency and effectiveness (Department of Foreign Affairs – Strategic Planning Document 2003:73).

According to the Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2000/2001:49), a significant implication of the democratic process that took place during the 1990's, was the readmission of South Africa into the community of nations. The re-admission of South Africa into international politics held many important challenges. It demanded that the country consolidate international support through the establishment of diplomatic relations and by securing membership to continental and international institutions. Essentially, this period was used to establish South Africa's foreign presence in the multilateral system and have it located firmly in Africa and amongst the countries of the world.

After the first democratic elections in 1994, South Africa emerged from a position of complete isolation to a key role-player in international politics and a leader on the African Continent. As South Africa's profile in the region, on the continent and in the rest of the world grew phenomenally, the responsibilities on Government and the Department of Foreign Affairs in particular had multiplied (Department of Foreign Affairs – Strategic Planning Document 2003:9).

4.3.1 The Vision and Mission of the New Department of Foreign Affairs

The ANC government had created a new vision and mission that radically differed from its predecessors. The Department of Foreign Affairs' vision is quoted as follows: *"Our vision is an African Continent, which is prosperous, peaceful, democratic, non-racial, non-sexist and united, and which contributes to a world that is just and equitable."*

The mission statement of the Department of Foreign Affairs is quoted as, *"We are committed to promoting South Africa's national interests and values, the African Renaissance and the creation of a better world for all"* (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2000/2001:10).

4.4 Organisational Performance

The challenges of the transition were immense. No South African government department in the new era was called upon to expand and increase its capacity at such a rapid rate as the Department of Foreign Affairs. This situation created a need for relevant skills at rapidly mushrooming missions across the globe (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2001/2002:7). Besides the necessary skills required for the functioning of the many missions, the need to portray an image reflecting service excellence had become an all encompassing force, hence the need for the study of organisational performance.

4.4.1 Theories of Organisational Performance

According to Dunderdale (1994:23), organisational effectiveness depends on how human design matches the structure of organised behaviour. In this regard, the following models will be explored and its relevance to the Department of Foreign Affairs investigated. It should also be noted that the theories will not follow consecutively, but will be discussed aptly together with aspects of the Department of Foreign Affairs.

- The Peters and Waterman Study.
- Heller's Study of European Excellence.
- The Goldsmith and Clutterbuck Study.

4.4.1.1 The Peters and Waterman Study

Peters & Waterman (1982:09) undertook a study of organisations which had outstandingly successful performance. From this study some basic attributes of excellence were identified, which appear to have accounted for the success of this study. These attributes include:

- A bias for action – by being action-oriented, people get things done.
- Stay close to the customer – by listening and learning from clients, staff members are in a position to provide quality service and reliability.

- Autonomy and entrepreneurship – organisations use innovation and risk-taking as an expected way of doing things.
- Productivity through people – staff members are treated as the source of quality and productivity.
- Hands-on and value driven - basic philosophies are well defined and top management keeps in touch with the '*front lines*'.
- Simultaneous loose-tight properties – these successful organisations have strong central control over the few important core values.

4.4.1.2 Relevance of the Peters & Waterman Study

From the model, it can be deduced that all the attributes of the study are applicable to the Department of Foreign Affairs. The Ambassador at each mission has to be "*hands on*" in service delivery. He/she will have to be in touch with the *front lines* politically and inform the South African Government of developments on a daily basis. This in turn will enable the President to decide on what actions to take within specified time frames.

This study also encourages adequate training and development of staff so that quality productivity is enhanced through the staff of the Department of Foreign Affairs. It also encourages the Department to be innovative in order to be at the cutting edge of world decisions. This means that information technology should be utilised for maximum benefit and *operate at the speed of thought*. The study also encourages the Department to stay focused on customer needs, as it is also the basic requirement of public administration. It also goes a step further by encouraging continuous research so that the changing needs of customers are gauged.

The Peters & Waterman Study also aptly ties in with the vision of the new Department of Foreign Affairs, representing a major shift from the apartheid ideology. The Department places greater emphasis on productivity through people and service excellence as a means of bridging the divide between themselves and the rest of the world. This model also links up very closely to the philosophy of "*Batho Pele*" or service delivery.

4.5 Batho Pele

The South African public service faces many challenges in its efforts to become a truly representative, competent and democratic organisation, instrumental in bringing about reconciliation, reconstruction and development (Van der Waldt & Du Toit 1999:385).

To fulfil this role effectively, the public service is being transformed to implement government policies according to the policy framework contained in the White Paper on Transformation of the Public Service (1995).

Batho Pele is a Sotho term meaning “people first.” This principle endeavours to introduce a fresh approach to service delivery. It involves creating a framework for the delivery of public services that treats citizens more like customers and enables citizens to hold the responsible public officials accountable for the delivery and the quality of public services. It introduces public servants to more customer-focused ways of executing functions and holds them accountable for the services rendered (Van der Waldt & Du Toit 1999:378).

4.5.1 The Service Delivery Principles of Batho Pele

According to the White Paper on Service Delivery (1997), the “*Batho Pele*” policy framework consists of eight *service delivery principles* and they are:

- **Consultation**

Citizens should be consulted about the level, and quality of public services they receive, and wherever possible, should be given a choice about services offered.

- **Services Standard**

Citizens should be informed about the level and quality of public services they can expect. Standards for the level and quality of public services, including the introduction of new services, should be published. Standards must be precise and measurable, so that users can judge whether or not they are receiving what was promised.

- Access

All citizens should have equal access to all the public services to which they are entitled.

- Courtesy

Citizens should be treated with courtesy and consideration. This should go beyond the polite smile, please and thank you, although it is required. It should be made clear that courtesy and regard for individual dignity are one of the fundamental duties of public officials. The public can demand that public officials treat members of the public as customers who are entitled to receive the highest standard of service.

- Information

Information is one of the most powerful tools at the public's disposal for exercising its right to good service delivery. Government institutions must provide full, accurate and up-to-date information about their activities. Information should be provided in a variety of media and in the official languages to meet the different needs of different customers.

- Openness and transparency

Citizens should be told how national and provincial departments are run, how much it costs and who is in charge.

- Redress

This is the capacity and willingness to take action when things go wrong. If the promised standard of service is not delivered, citizens should be offered apologies or full explanations, as well as a speedy and effective remedy. When complaints are made, citizens should receive a sympathetic and positive response.

- Value for Money

Public services should be provided economically and efficiently to give citizens the best possible value for money.

Government departments, in general have been urged to embrace these principles in an attempt to enhance service delivery at all levels. The Department of Foreign Affairs, in subscribing to these principles will undoubtedly improve the image of South Africa within the international community.

4.5.2 The Department of Foreign Affairs Embraces the New Improved Service Delivery

The Department of Foreign Affairs is committed to performing strategic partnerships with all business units, line managers, employees and role players of the Department in order to render professional, effective and efficient service in support of the objectives of the Department of Foreign Affairs as well as the principles of *Batho Pele* as laid down by government (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2002/2003:10).

The aim of improving both the nature and quality of services provided by the Department is of utmost importance. According to the Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document (2003:34), this attempt to improve service delivery will be done through the following different phases:

1. The first phase is sought to review, revise, amend and upgrade the human resource policies, systems, and procedures to reflect the new reality of transformation. Included in this phase will be efforts to define and quantify the capacity needs of the Department, both in terms of human capital and knowledge requirements so as to drive and sustain the Department's strategic plan. These initiatives have already been undertaken in addition to the normal services rendered by the human resources component.
2. The second phase is focused on providing direct assistance to business units with regard to creating an enabling environment for performance. This involves assistance with business plans, performance agreements, role delineation and other works improvement initiatives.

During this phase, it is also the intention of the department to ensure full compliance with the Skills Development Act.

3. The efforts of the third phase will focus more on the training and development of employees and continued support for transformation.

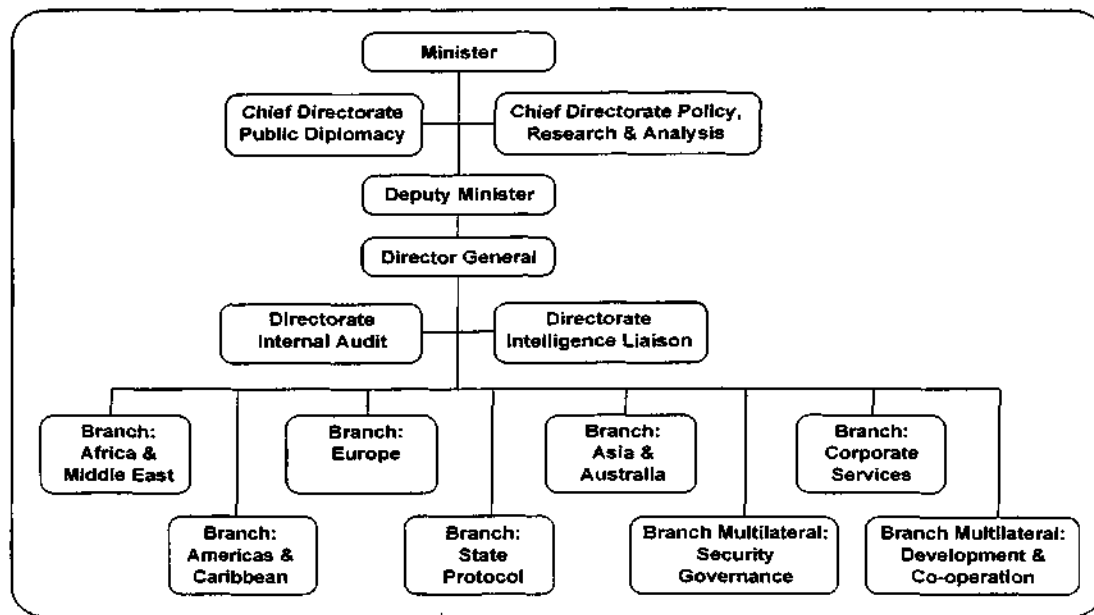
Organisational development within the Department of Foreign Affairs is aimed at improving performance effectiveness, facilitating change, developing the tools, systems and capacity to promote performance. The Department has thus far tackled employment equity, affirmative action, gender equity and has also set in place a highly efficient and sophisticated computer network system that enhanced efficiency immensely (Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document 2003:35).

From the above, it can be deduced that the Department of Foreign Affairs is committed to embracing service delivery and the principles of *Batho Pele*, within which, all public servants are expected to operate. It should also be understood that all public servants and officials of government are there to serve the public in a positive way.

This re-emphasizes the basic principle of government in a democracy, which is optimum service delivery in a cost effective way so as to realise its ultimate goal of creating a good quality of life for every citizen.

In order to accommodate the revised policy of transformation, whilst embracing the guidelines on service delivery and gender equity, the Department of Foreign Affairs had to amend its organisational structure, which is illustrated in figure 4.1. The old structure did not have branches with the relevant branch managers, and this posed problems of efficiency.

Figure 4.1 The Organisational Structure of the Department of Foreign Affairs



Source: Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document (2003:73)

4.6 Affirmative Action within the Department of Foreign Affairs

The racial imbalances of the past had to be addressed and the Department was reconstituted so as to be aligned with the policies of the Government and the new constitution. Among the challenges in this regard are the integration of the various administrations and the realisation of a foreign service that is representative of the country and its demographic profile (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2002/2003: 27).

The introduction of the policy of Affirmative Action brought to the Department of Foreign Affairs a diverse group of employees when compared to the Department prior to the 1994 era. This marked a shift from the Euro-centric culture which was entrenched within the Department and the associated style of leadership to one of a diverse, heterogeneous group of leaders, reflecting African culture and its associated style of leadership.

4.6.1 The Department of Foreign Affairs Addresses Employment Equity

The Department of Foreign Affairs undertook a program of realignment and restructuring to improve the effectiveness of its service at all levels. This program included an in-depth analysis of all the systems and processes, and the review of current policies and procedures to achieve a balanced establishment, in line with the Employment Equity Act requirements both at head office and at the missions abroad (Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document 2003:74).

The Department of Foreign Affairs has addressed affirmative action and employment equity with a definite strategic plan. A fully representative staff compliment reflective of the country's demographics by the target date of March 2005, is envisaged. This refers to employees below senior management level (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2002/2003:29).

Table 4.1: Meeting Targets in Addressing Affirmative Action within the Department of Foreign Affairs

	Progress 2002/03				Medium-term targets (if any)	
	1/04/2002	Target set for 31/03/2003	Actual number at 31/03/2003	Variance	March 2004	March 2005
African	751	896	749	147	1041	1186
Male	388	459	380	79	530	601
Female	363	437	369	68	511	585
Asian	57	68	57	11	79	90
Male	30	35	29	6	40	45
Female	27	33	28	5	39	45
Coloured	68	90	69	21	112	134
Male	39	48	41	7	57	66
Female	29	42	28	14	55	68
White	627	645	602	43	649	653
Male	241	255	255	0	255	255
Female	386	390	347	43	394	398
Employees with a disability	19	20	20	0	20	20
Total	1522	1719	1497	222	1901	2083

Source: Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2002/2003:81)

At senior management (director level upwards), the Department has also embarked on a strategic plan to address gender equity and affirmative action by March 2005.

Table 4.2: Meeting Targets in Addressing Affirmative Action and Gender Equity at Senior Management Level within the Department of Foreign Affairs.

	Progress 2002/03				Medium-term targets	
	1/04/2002	Target set for 31/03/2003	Actual number at 31/03/2003	Variance	March 2004	March 2005
African	95	110	100	10	124	138
Male	69	76	74	2	83	90
Female	26	34	26	8	41	48
Asian	16	18	16	2	19	19
Male	14	15	14	1	15	15
Female	2	3	2	1	4	4
Coloured	9	12	6	6	14	16
Male	6	7	4	3	8	9
Female	3	5	2	3	6	7
White	45	56	50	6	56	56
Male	33	43	38	5	43	43
Female	12	13	12	1	13	13
Employees with a disability	1	0	1	(1)	0	0
Total	166	196	173	23	213	229

Source: Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2002/2003:79)

It is evident that the Department of Foreign Affairs was determined to address the racial imbalances, whilst improving the performance culture and thereby enhancing efficiency and effectiveness. This programme was initiated at all Embassies and High Commissions across the globe (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2002/2003:74).

4.7 The Rapid Increase in South Africa's International and Global Status

The Republic's global status and international role had increased rapidly in a short space of time. To indicate South Africa's acceptance in the international political arena, and to further indicate South Africa's leadership roles in pursuit of its foreign policy objectives, the following achievements are noteworthy:

- South Africa was Chair of the Non-Aligned Movement (NAM) from 1998 to 2001 and of the Commonwealth from 2000 to 2001.
- Host of the World Conference on HIV/Aids in 2000, the Non-Aligned Movement Conference in 1999 and the UN World Conference against Racism in 2001.
- Helped in the establishment of the African Union (AU) and hosted the AU Summit in 2002.
- As an important partner in regional development, South Africa is a key role player in Southern African Development Community (SADC).
- Promoting peace and stability in countries such as Angola, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Lesotho, Zimbabwe, Sierra Leone, Ethiopia/Eritrea, Sudan, Comoros and Cote d'Ivoire.
- Promoting the interests of developing countries with regard to poverty reduction and debt relief at the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and in discussions with the G-8 countries.
- Successful conclusions of the 2000 Review Conference of the Nuclear Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT).

- Development of new co-operative partnerships and alliances with states, regions and organisations. Regional and multilateral co-operation include SADC, the European Union (EU), the Economic and Custom Union of Southern American States, the Caribbean Community, and the Indian Ocean Rim Association for Regional Co-operation (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2001/2002:58).

4.8 The Tenets of South Africa's Foreign Policy

According to the Annual Report of the Department of Foreign Affairs (2001/2002:53), the tenets of the Department's foreign policy are as follows:

- Foreign policy is an integrated part of government policy, aimed at promoting security and the quality of life, of all South Africans;
- A commitment that South Africa, as a member of the UN and as a responsible citizen of the world, will live up to its obligations and contribute to a peaceful world;
- A commitment to the African Renaissance through the AU and its programme for Africa's Development;
- Commitment to economic development through regional integration and development in SADC and the Southern African Customs Union;
- Interaction with African partners as equals;
- Pursue friendly relations with all peoples and nations of the world.
- Peace making and conflict prevention;
- Actively engage in efforts to secure international peace and security, promote disarmament, prevent genocide, restrict the proliferation of arms and secure a new world security compact through the UN;
- Promote multi-literalism;
- Promote a rules-based international trading regime through the World Trade Organisation;

- Combat racism, sexism, xenophobia and other related intolerances;
- Promote a positive image of South Africa; and
- Safeguard South Africa's territorial integrity and sovereignty.

4.8.1 South Africa's Foreign Policy Objectives

In order to give effect to the vision, the Department of Foreign Affairs adopted four high level objectives, which form the basis of the organisations strategies, activities and outputs. These priorities have been grouped in four clusters. These clusters are:

- Security;
- Stability;
- Sustainable development (economic and social); and
- Co-operation (Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document 2003:13-14).

4.8.1.1 Security

During 2001/2002, the Department worked towards a peaceful, stable and secure region. In this regard, the focus was on assisting to resolve conflict and contributing towards the attainment of sustainable peace and stability in the Southern African region and other African countries. The Government instituted specific programmes of action in 2001 to contribute to international and regional efforts aimed at ensuring a peaceful resolution of conflicts in Angola, Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Ethiopia and Eritrea. Consequently, the Department continued with these initiatives in its new programmes of action during 2002/2003.

The Department pursued the following key priorities during 2002 to advance its objectives of peace and stability:

- Protected and assured the sovereignty and territorial integrity of nation-states in the region;

- Promoted the development of an effective security for the region and opposed the proliferation of illicit trade in arms;
- Worked towards the attainment of a peaceful, stable and secure region by promoting peace and stability, as well as working towards the elimination of state corruption on the Continent; and
- Developed an effective system and coordinated approach to averting and managing disasters such as terrorism (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2001/2002:47).

4.8.1.2 Stability

According to the Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2001/2002:50), threats to the internal stability of countries on the African Continent have had trans-frontier effects that cause instability and conflict. Refugee flows, arms trafficking, regional conflict and environmental disasters have spill-over consequences of instability, which ultimately impact on South Africa's well being. Such instability also undermines regional integration projects and political values that South Africa is trying to nurture. In order to promote peace and stability on the Continent, the Department of Foreign Affairs undertook the following strategic actions during 2001/2002 (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2001/2002:51).

- Gathered, analysed and shared information on issues affecting peace and security;
- Built the capacity of government and civil society to facilitate and mediate between groups and states;
- Supported credible and legitimate leadership on the continent;
- Condemned governments who came to power by unconstitutional means;
- Provided pre-election assistance, as well as monitors and observers for elections;
- Developed, reviewed and implemented regional and continental instruments to address the issue of mercenaries; and
- Strengthened South Africa's participation in anti-corruption initiatives.

4.8.1.3 Sustainable Development

The priorities and action plans of the South African government is to promote development in the country, the region and the continent which is directly related to the government's internal efforts to create jobs, build skills required to compete in a global world, and a sound economic framework to encourage foreign investment that will stimulate economic growth (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2001/2002:49).

The Department's priorities which fall within this area are:

- The promotion of sustainable growth and development through trade and investment;
- Maximising South Africa's competitive edge in the global world through integration and co-operation among African regional and continental bodies;
- Promoting equity amongst the world's nations through multilateral co-operation with continental and global organisations that have a bearing on African development; and
- The promotion of job creation and economic development through tourism (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2001/2002:50).

4.8.1.4 Co-operation

South Africa's future survival and prosperity is inextricably linked to that of the African Continent with which it has close geographic and historical ties. The need for co-operation, not only with the mother Continent but also with multilateral entities, has been made even more imperative by the challenges of globalisation. The fields of co-operation are vast, but the following were prioritised: human resource development; health; poverty alleviation; people to people co-operation; human rights; sustainable development and security co-operation (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2002/2003:54).

On the basis of this overview of South Africa's foreign policy since 1994, it is clear South Africa plays a crucial role in the positive development of the African Continent. South Africa needs to carefully use its leadership role in a way that seeks to promote socio-economic

stability, the spirit of cooperation and mutual benefit. Continental programmes for development and change such as NEPAD can play a vital role in this regard.

4.9 Heller's Study of European Excellence

A careful analysis of Heller's Study (1997:14) provides clear guidelines for striving towards African excellence without becoming too Euro-centric. Africa needs solutions that are customised and unique to the fifty-three nation states on the continent. In this model, leaders attempted to create the European future whereby Europe's revolutionaries sought to search for their own brand of excellence.

Heller identified ten key strategies:

- 1) Developing leadership – without losing control or direction;
- 2) Driving radical change – in the entire corporate system, not just in its parts;
- 3) Reshaping culture – to achieve long-term success;
- 4) Dividing to rule – winning the rewards of smallness while staying on growing large;
- 5) Exploiting the 'organisation' – by new approaches to central direction;
- 6) Keeping the competitive edge – in a world where the old ways of winning no longer work;
- 7) Achieving constant renewal – stopping success from sowing the seeds of decay;
- 8) Managing the motivators – so that people can motivate themselves;
- 9) Making team-working work – the new, indispensable skill; and
- 10) Achieving total management quality – by managing everything much better.

Heller (1997:16) suggests that leaders should encourage, and further build on each of the ten vital renaissance strategies. This will certainly ensure effective and improved performance and delivery of services.

4.9.1 Relevance of Heller's Study of European Excellence

From this study, it can be deduced that the European excellence model can be applicable to Africa or any developing nation as well. This study emphasizes the role of *leadership*, which President Thabo Mbeki embraces in his role in NEPAD, which in essence is *reshaping the culture* of Africa, which was previously entrenched in dictatorial leadership. The South African President has endeavoured to *divide to rule* by assisting to solve problems of individual States, as was done in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC).

NEPAD has also given Africa a new approach to the central direction of African *Renewal*. Africa too has been introduced to innovative technology so as keep the competitive edge. Like Europe's success in service and performance excellence, Africa also has the potential to achieve *total quality management*. Through the efforts of NEPAD, every endeavour is made to achieve *constant renewal* where all African leaders will be called upon to *work as a team* and make a difference to the African Continent.

4.10 South Africa Adopts the New Economic Programme for Africa's Development (NEPAD)

A country's foreign policy, in many ways, serves as a framework within which foreign relations are conducted. It determines the manner in which a country will interact with other countries. Since South Africa is inextricably part of Africa, it is very important that the country's foreign policy reflects and promotes the interests of the continent as well (Dube 2003:01).

The South African foreign policy therefore provides a strategic framework for the establishment of partnerships aimed at encouraging development initiatives and programmes for Africa. In this sense NEPAD has brought about a paradigm shift in the restructuring of the continent's patterns of interaction, particularly with the highly industrialised countries of the developed world (Mbeki 1999:77).

4.10.1 The Role of the Department of Foreign Affairs in NEPAD

As a prerequisite for the successful implementation of NEPAD, the Department of Foreign Affairs will continue to contribute to the creation of an enabling environment for the resolution of conflict in Africa, and work towards the creation of a peaceful region and Continent. To this end, work on the African continent will promote South Africa's regional and multilateral interests towards the realisation of the African Renaissance. According to the Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2001/2002: 61), this will be done by promoting the objectives of the AU and NEPAD in the following areas:

- Within Southern Africa, the country seeks to maximise the potential of each SADC member state in terms of security and stability; economic and social development and civil society interaction;
- For the rest of the Continent, South Africa seeks to maximise the potential of African countries in terms of security and stability; economic and social development and civil society interaction by supporting the AU and its organs;
- South Africa will also oversee the national implementation of NEPAD in terms of the identification and implementation of projects; assist in creating a greater synergy and compatibility between national, regional and continental programmes of action.

In the implementation of these priorities, the Department will utilise the capacities of Head Office and the missions in African countries to build upon the interaction of political principals and partner departments. The Department will also continue to engage with African missions accredited to South Africa (Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document 2003:17).

4.11 South Africa's Regional and Multilateral Interests

The Department of Foreign Affairs has established various regional branches that aim to stimulate trade, investment and encourage economic growth within the country. The following is a breakdown of the regional branches and the objectives of each branch.

4.11.1 Africa

The South African Government has espoused the view that South Africa's destiny cannot, and should not, be isolated from that of its neighbours in the Southern African region and the rest of the African Continent (Mbeki 1999:92). The objectives, according to the Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2002/2003:91) are, therefore, to:

- Make a tangible contribution for a Renaissance on the African Continent;
- Further South Africa's national interests and values abroad;
- Promote development, cooperation, stability and security on the continent;
- Enhance multilateral and bilateral structures;
- Promote international cooperation;
- Promote trade with other African countries and work for foreign direct investment into South Africa;
- Promote South Africa and Africa's tourist industries; and
- Enhance the image of South Africa and that of the continent.

4.11.2 Asia and Middle East

Since 1994 South Africa's interaction with Asia had increased significantly. South Africa has fifteen residential missions in Asia and Australia. Eighteen countries from this region currently have diplomatic missions in Pretoria. The objectives of this branch are to:

- Promote increased exports and services;
- Attract investments and the involvement of the wealthier countries of the region in poverty alleviation on the African continent;
- Promote tourism from the Asian continent; and
- Resolve and prevent conflict on the continent (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2002/2003:99).

4.11.3 Americas & Europe

The objective of this branch is to:

- Promote South Africa's national interests, the New African Initiative and the creation of a better world for all through the enhancement of South Africa's bilateral relations with those countries under its jurisdiction (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2002/2003:106).

South Africa's regional and multilateral interests the world over, and especially in Africa is indicative of the often, turbulent environment that the Department of Foreign Affairs finds itself. It does, however, have structures in place and are still improving on them for organisational excellence, as indicated by the following model.

4.12 The Goldsmith & Clutterbuck Study

Goldsmith & Clutterbuck (1998:10) examined how top organisations excelled in the turbulent environment of the 1990's and beyond. They found that conflict between the ability to exert control and to give autonomy is inherent in all the key success factors for today's high performance organisations. *These apparent conflicts give rise to critical questions that our high-performance people ask themselves again and again, putting exceptional effort into making sure they have the balance right*' (Goldsmith & Clutterbuck 1998:10). The key success factors are:

- Control versus autonomy;
- Long-term strategy versus short-term urgency;
- Evolutionary versus change;
- Pride versus humility;
- Focus versus breadth of vision;
- Values versus rules;
- Customer care versus customer count;

- Challenging versus nurturing people;
- Leaders versus managers; and
- Gentle versus succession.

In addition to these ten balances, long-term companies all place very high reliance on three other characteristics which are:

- A challenge culture;
- Simple solutions to complex problems; and
- A highly developed sense of 'rightness'.

4.12.1 Relevance of the Goldsmith & Clutterbuck Study

From this model of organisational performance, it can be deduced that the problems of Africa require African solutions and not those that are euro-centric. The African Continent represents a turbulent environment and clearly the vision of a new world order and an African Renaissance will not be an easy task to accomplish.

In its endeavour to achieve peace and stability on the African continent, the South African leadership proposes a simple philosophy in this regard, namely African leaders offering African solutions to the African problem. The focus of the African Renewal cannot be controlled by any foreign force but by the leaders of Africa. Although NEPAD will be a challenging task, it must be able to instil in the people of Africa, a value system where they believe that the path taken to improve Africa is the right one and any change proposed, must be acceptable to all parties. In this way the process of transformation will reflect one of care, gentleness and nurturing, which is essential in a turbulent environment transforming.

The lesson from this model will assist the South African government, who was responsible in initiating the process of the African Renaissance, by offering simple solutions to a very complex problem and in the process also managing total quality.

096587

4.13 Total Quality Management (TQM)

Total Quality Management (TQM) emphasises the importance of people as the key to quality. Human resource management and quality management converge to give total quality. Although systems are necessary in the work organisation, they are only as effective as the people who design them. Deming (1993:26) one of the forerunners TQM contends that changes in the traditional organisation structure and the increasing importance of effective work groups emphasise team-based management as an essential element of TQM.

4.13.1 The Department of Foreign Affairs Embraces TQM

Total Quality Management is generally expressed in terms of *“a way of life of an organisation as a whole, committed to total customer satisfaction through a process of improvement, and the contribution and involvement of people”* (Mullins 2002:863).

The Department of Foreign Affairs, being a global player soon realised that, *“World standards of organisational effectiveness are not achievable without fully developed and committed people at all levels within the organisation. New technologies, new systems, and new concepts may, of themselves, produce some improvement in effectiveness and hence competitiveness but even in the short term the improvement will be stunted, without an organisation culture which engenders commitment of people across the organisation”* (James 1991:50).

Steps were therefore taken by the Department of Foreign Affairs to invest in their training of staff so as to enhance total quality management.

4.13.2 The Lessons of TQM for the Department of Foreign Affairs

For an organisation to function at its best, a system of managing the quality of service has to be set in place. Consequently TQM becomes very relevant to the public sector after having enjoyed phenomenal success in the business sector.

Thomas (1995:185) concludes that, *“Total Quality cannot be ‘managed’ in the traditional, i.e. supervise and control sense of the word because it involves factors such as commitment, purpose, vision, and trust that are not amenable to mechanistic prescription. Quality can, and must be managed. Total Quality,*

however, must be encouraged to evolve". To create a culture of quality within an organisation requires the inputs of an innovative leader who could harness the human potential within the organisation for the benefit of all (James 1991:51). Coupled with the efficient use of technology, any organisation will be in a position to excel and remain committed to providing excellent service.

4.14 Information Communication Technology & The Department of Foreign Affairs

The Department of Foreign Affairs has transformed its ICT infrastructure and developed common information technology applications, networks, databases, security and network management capabilities to facilitate the achievement of its strategic objectives (Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report 2000/2001:72).

The functions of the Department of Foreign Affairs are carried out across the globe. In order for the Department to achieve its goals, it will have to effectively utilise information technology to reach its one hundred and twenty missions across time zones, the world over to supply and receive information within the shortest space of time. The Department's ICT plan is therefore designed to assist in making informed decisions when choosing appropriate systems. The master systems plan, which is still in the process of development, would be able to:

- Take advantage of information access and tools;
- Structure operations to improve service and enhance the productivity of the workforce;
- Satisfy business requirements;
- Have controlled messaging – uninterrupted secure, highly reliable network service for missions during critical traffic periods;
- Possess web based and data processing applications for diplomatic activities, administrative and other business processing;
- Full internet access – access to the wealth of information sources on the internet with secure departmental e-mail facilities; and

- Classified information will be pasted on a separate high security intranet network that will be isolated from the open network to prevent access from unauthorised sources (Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document 2003:61).

4.14.1 Information will be the Key to Success

There is full access to the Internet for all users at all locations, worldwide. The Internet will provide a vehicle for collaboration and partnership among members of the International Community. Through the Internet the department's staff will be able to interact with their counterparts in foreign governments, other agencies and non-governmental organisations and the South African public (Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document 2003:63).

Departmental databases will be made accessible to any authorized official regardless of location. Information management tools will enable users to search and analyse information from any source without requiring specialised knowledge of either the technology or individual databases. We already possess the different opportunities to improve workflow for efficiency of administration operations. Many of the labour-intensive operations have been automated such as the automation of message transmission and reception. However, streamlining is especially critical at overseas posts where administrative and technical staff is limited and scarce resources must be the focus on mission priorities (Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document 2003:63).

4.15 Chapter Summary

This chapter briefly traced South Africa's foreign policy during the apartheid era as well as the post apartheid era. The vision, the mission and the foreign policy objectives of the Department of Foreign Affairs were stated and the processes such as policy amendments, affirmative action, gender equity, service delivery and organisational performance, that were being reviewed to ensure goal achievement of The Department of Foreign Affairs. The theories of organisational performance and their relevance to the Department of Foreign Affairs were also outlined.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The empirical investigation focuses on the impact of sound leadership on the organisational efficiency of the South African Department of Foreign Affairs.

The study aims to formulate strategies to link appropriate leadership styles to given situations. It is also envisaged that the utilization of human capital together with the upgraded information technology systems will result in fulfilling the Department's strategic plans.

With the emergence of the new democratic government in 1994, the call for effective service delivery had become more pronounced. Viewed against this background, an empirical study was undertaken in conjunction with the literature review, in order to determine the knowledge and attitudes of senior officials in the Department of Foreign Affairs with regard to leadership and their impact on organisational efficiency.

5.2 The Objectives of the Study included the following:

- To define leadership within the context of the Department of Foreign Affairs and review pertinent literature in order to reveal the findings of other research in the field.
- To determine the impact of leader behaviour and leadership styles of senior managers in ensuring the achievement of the Department's vision, mission and strategic objectives, as well as on the morale and motivation of members of the diplomatic corps by administering questionnaires specifically designed for this purpose.
- To interview middle managers and gauge their perceptions of personnel management and organisational efficiency.

- To investigate the role of leadership in promoting organisational performance and enhancing service delivery in accordance with prescribed policy.
- To analyse the data collected, draw conclusions, propose possible solutions and make recommendations after examining the results emanating from empirical research.

5.3 The Sampling Technique and Description of the Sample

According to Sekaran (1992:226), “a sample is a subset of the population. However, not all the elements of the population would draw form in the sample”. By studying the sample, the researcher would draw conclusions or make inferences that would allow generalizations about the target population.

The reason for selecting a sample can be attributed to various factors, the most important being that, it is simply not possible to study every element in the population or to engage in a laborious exercise to collect data from the entire population.

Therefore, studying a small sample is likely to yield reliable results and facilitate the data collection whilst lessening the error impact.

The population parameters have been determined precisely in a sample survey since not every element in the target population is included in the research design. However, the fundamental premise for choosing a good sample is that it should be representative of the target population (Pillay 2000:331).

To test the hypotheses, the investigator had to decide on how many subjects to choose and how to select those subjects so they are representative of a cross section of missions under the South African Department of Foreign Affairs.

The respondents included diplomatic personnel from Africa, Asia, Europe, the Americas and the Middle East.

To ensure representation, equal numbers of respondents were chosen from missions in both developed and developing countries.

5.4 Selection of Sample of Mission/Embassy/High Commission

The selection of the sample was a two-way stage procedure involving

- Selection of Missions; and
- Selection of Foreign Service Officers.

5.4.1 Selection of Missions

Owing to the vast, modern Internet communication systems that link all missions with Head Office, the researcher found it feasible to select missions in any geographical area under investigation. To ensure reliability and validity the researcher used 10 missions in the initial stage of sampling.

None of the Missions chosen for this study were identified, nor were any of the 60 respondents identified by name. The main reason for this was to ensure total confidentiality of the Mission and the officials who participated.

5.4.2 Selection of Foreign Service Officers

Participation by diplomatic personnel was strictly voluntary. Owing to the varying sizes of the Missions and staff compliment, it was not possible to have an equal number of participants at all Embassies/High commissions. Consequently, the number of respondents per mission averaged six with sixty respondents in total.

5.5 Data Collection Techniques

Specific data collecting techniques enabled the researcher to systematically collect information in order to answer questions in a conclusive way.

A survey was conducted to either answer certain questions, test certain hypotheses or serve an exploratory study and it was essentially a method of obtaining information from a group of respondents by means of direct contact, namely, either through personal interviews, telephonic interviews, or self administered questionnaires.

5.5.1 Procedure

The administration of the questionnaires to members of the diplomatic corps, within the Department of Foreign Affairs were, undertaken by the researcher herself. Participation was voluntary and the respondents were assured of confidentiality.

The respondents were clearly informed about the purpose of the research.

The researcher has worked in the Department of Foreign Affairs for the past ten years, having served at Missions in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia and in Rome, Italy, as well as in Pretoria. Furthermore, the researcher is familiar with the communication network that exists between Head Office in Pretoria and the various Missions around the world.

The questionnaires were sent on line via the intranet facilities that the Department uses.

5.6 The Research Instrument

The research instruments used to collect data in this project were:

- 1) Questionnaires
- 2) Interviews

5.6.1 The Questionnaire comprised three sections:

5.6.1.1 Section A: Biographical Data

It is important to have a good introduction at the beginning to let the respondents know a little about what is sought by the researcher. Allowing the respondents to speak about themselves also made them a little more enthusiastic about the exercise. Biographical information such as size of staff, level of education, and length of service in the diplomatic corps was sought in this category. Information about the gender of respondents was also sought. This was to ascertain gender representation within the Foreign Service as well as the government's stated policy of promoting women at all levels within State Departments.

5.6.1.2 Section B: Task Performance

Information sought in this section included the manager's control over workloads, giving timely feedback and coaching towards better performance. The researcher also endeavoured to gauge the leader's promotion of Africa's interest in general and South Africa's in particular, in the host country. The rating of each question ranked from "always" to "never".

5.6.1.3 Section C: Group Maintenance Leadership

In this section, the researcher sought details about conflict and co-operation, the leader's role in fostering team spirit and creating promotion opportunities for subordinates. Attempts were also made to gauge the leader's commitment to the department's vision and mission and how he/she communicated this to the rest of the team. The rating of each question ranked from "always" to "never".

5.6.1.4 Section D: General Leadership

This section contained 4 general questions on leadership and respondents were expected to give their honest opinion in the following aspects:

- The marketing of South Africa in the host country;
- Staff development programmes of the Department; and
- The use of information technology in creating efficiencies.

5.7 The Interview

Interviewing as a method of collecting and evaluating data can be very informative. The advantages of interviewing are primarily related to naturalness and spontaneity, flexibility, observation and control of the environment, high response rate, and access to information and non-verbal responses (Kerlinger 1986:96).

5.7.1 Interviewing the Head of Management

In this instance, the Head of Management who is responsible for the general administrative functioning of the Embassy/High Commission was interviewed.

After having made prior arrangements about the date and time of the interview, the teleconferencing facilities were set up between the researcher and the mission concerned. The Heads of Management, who generally enjoyed the attention and stimulation of being interviewed, were questioned on a broad range of managerial issues related to the mission. This exercise also gave the researcher an opportunity to assess first hand the general administrative environment of the Mission as perceived by the head, together with the subordinates' perception of his/her leadership.

5.8 Response Rate

There was a hundred percent response rate of all questionnaires administered to the diplomatic staff of South African Missions around the world. However, 93% of the returned questionnaires were considered fully complete. The remaining 7% of the questionnaires were not properly answered or incomplete and were therefore not taken into account.

5.9 Limitations

The researcher encountered some limitations, which were carefully assessed in order that reliability and validity were not compromised. Furthermore, the possibility does exist for the Head of Management to be at his or her very best management behaviour just for the duration of the interview. However, the survey researcher can never be certain that his/her findings are the result of some unknown influence.

Although the Head of Management had granted permission, prior arrangements had to be made with officers to participate on a voluntary basis. All information gleaned, had to be treated confidentially and used for academic purposes only. Due to the fact that a small

sample size was used, findings could not be generalised. There was no real triangulation of data, no double-checking to ensure reliability and validity of data collected.

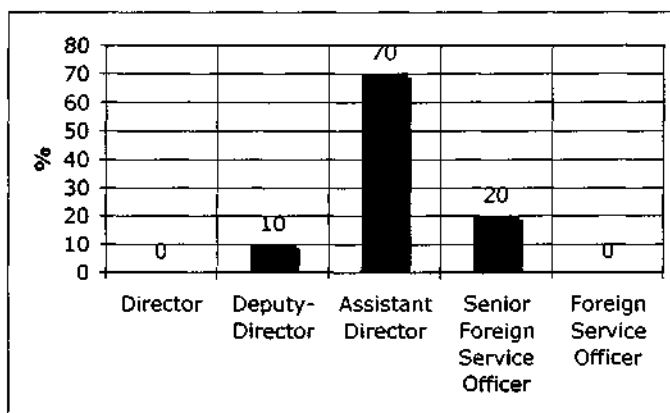
5.10 The Findings of the Study

The findings of the study are as follows:

5.10.1 Section A – Biographical Details

5.10.2 Designation

Figure 5.1



With reference to Figure 5.1, the majority of respondents, namely 70% of officials were assistant directors with only 10% being deputy directors.

The researcher found that a significant number of deputy-directors were also not willing to be part of the survey to assess leadership at their missions. This could be attributed to constraints of time that most deputy directors experience whilst at a mission, or due to fear that confidentiality was not guaranteed.

According to the Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document (2003:74), it is the intention of the Department to post staff at lower ranks, and those who would occupy the position of Head of Management. This would address the policy of affirmative action.

5.10.3 Gender of Respondents

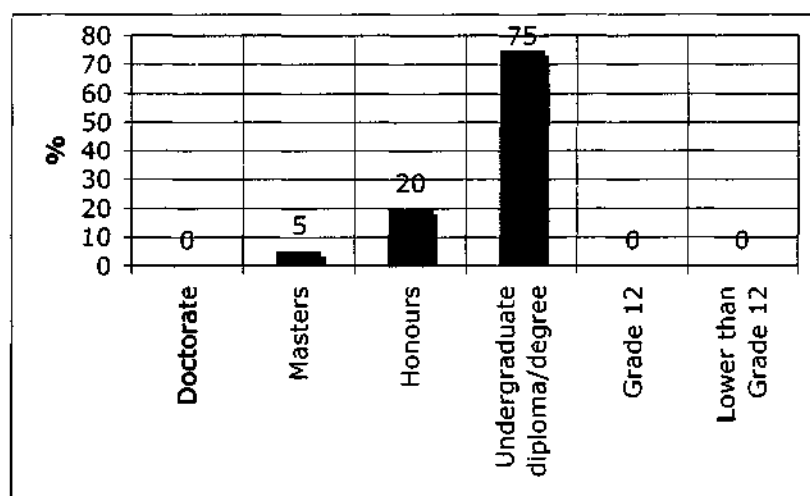
Table 5.1

A	Male	65%
B	Female	35%

Table 5.1 reflects that 65% of the respondents were female with 35% being male. Of these, the majority are males occupying positions of directors and deputy-directors. The Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document (2003:76) confirms the Department's policy in addressing gender equity, where women would be promoted to occupy positions of directors and deputy-directors and it is envisaged that this will be addressed completely by March 2005 through internal promotions, post creations and the replacement of existing staff.

5.10.4 Highest Level of Qualification

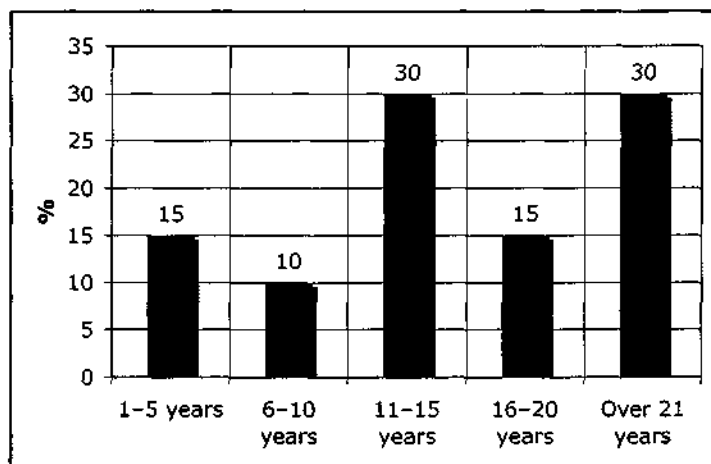
Figure 5.2



All diplomatic officials interviewed had the minimum qualification of an undergraduate diploma/degree. Some of the qualifications include communication, education, international politics, political science and public administration. This is reflected in Figure 5.2.

5.10.5 Work Experience

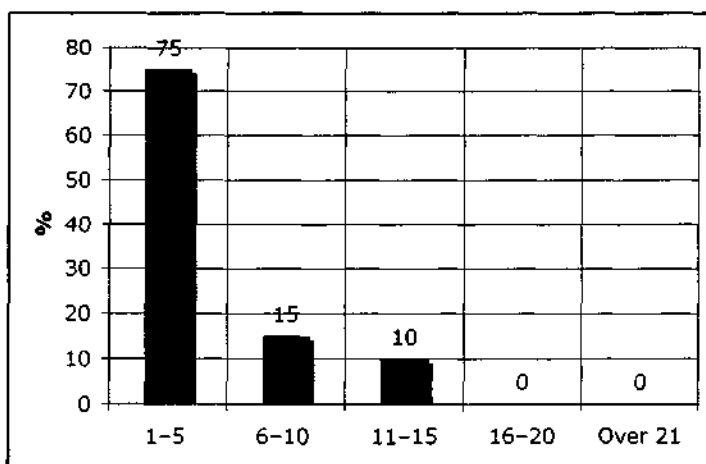
Figure 5.3



With reference to Figure 5.3, 30% of the diplomatic corps interviewed had over 21 years of experience. Those between 11-15 years of work experience also constituted 30%.

5.10.6 Size of Diplomatic Staff at the Mission/Business Unit

Figure 5.4



The majority of the missions being surveyed had a staff compliment of two and five members. Only 10% had a larger team of between eleven and fifteen. The findings are reflected in Figure 5.4.

5.10.7 Work Tenure at Present Mission

Figure 5.5

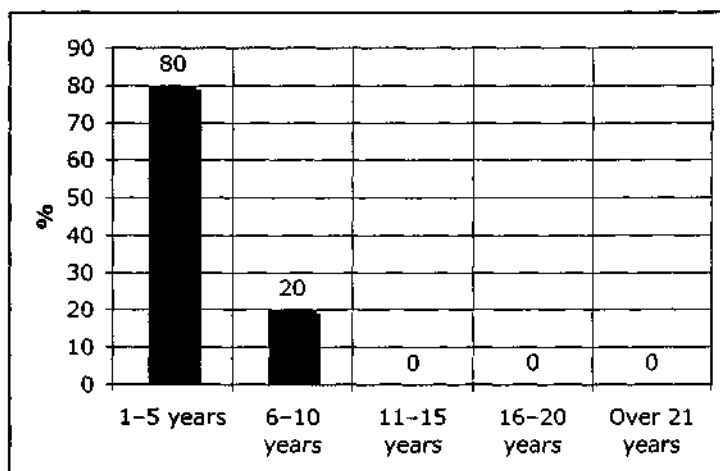


Figure 5.5 reveals that diplomatic staff do not spend beyond 10 years at any one mission or business unit.

5.11 Section B – General Questions

5.11.1 Vision of the Department of Foreign Affairs

The stated vision of the Department of Foreign Affairs in promoting the interest of the country is, according to the Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report (2000/2001:10), as follows:

“South Africa shall strive for peace, stability, democracy and development in an African Continent, which is non-sexist, prosperous and united, contributing towards a world that is just and equitable”.

The vast majority of the respondents had a fairly concise idea of the vision of the Department and how this acted as a guiding principle in their daily activities. This seems to have been consistently emphasised at management and team meetings.

A very significant shared value is a strong compelling vision for the Mission. This vision which has its source in a personal and imaginative creativity that goes beyond analysis is embodied in actions that reflect initiative, risk taking and an unswerving commitment to its achievement (Leavitt 1991:65).

5.11.2 Mission Statement of the Department of Foreign Affairs

The mission statement of the Department of Foreign Affairs is as follows:

"The Department of Foreign Affairs is committed to promoting South Africa's national values, the African Renaissance and the creation of a better world for all" (Department of Foreign affairs Annual Report (2000/2001:10).

All those interviewed had a clear understanding of the mission statement and how it impacted on their activities at the various Embassies and High Commissions.

British Statesman, Benjamin Disraeli once observed, *"The secret of success is constancy of purposes."*

A leader's deep commitment to the Mission's purpose and his or her direct, forceful communication of the mission statement is a constancy that can profoundly affect the level of performance at the Embassies/High Commissions. Inspiring leaders are known for their single-mindedness of vision. They do not go it alone but continually present their vision to others. In this process the vision becomes expanded. A successful vision, in coming to reality must pass through several sets of hands. When this coalition-building process is successful, the project gains the commitment of the whole organisation (Stow and Salancik 1991:99).

5.11.3 The Objectives of the Department of Foreign Affairs in terms of the following:

5.11.3.1 Long term Goals

To build a positive image of South Africa and make it internationally recognised whilst promoting peace and security through sustainable development and an equitable global system.

5.11.3.2 Medium term Goals

The medium term goal is to work towards the realisation of the African Renaissance through the promotion of the objectives of the AU and NEPAD.

5.11.3.3 Short term Goals

The short term goal is to promote dialogue and economic co-operation within SADC. This would be a stepping-stone towards greater socio-political stability in the region.

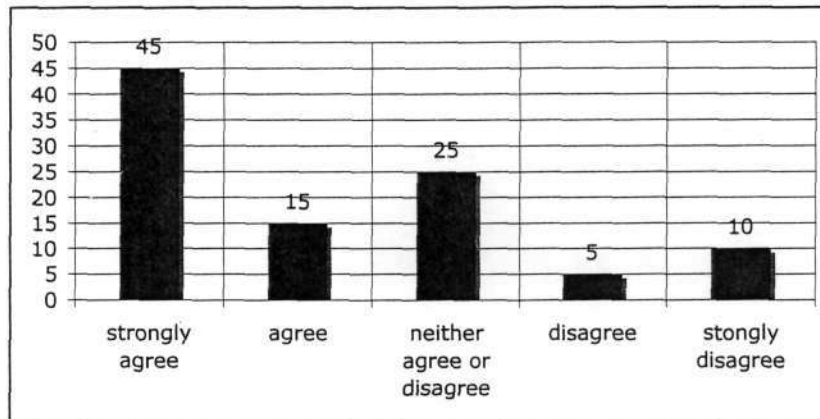
Although these were the stated goals of the Department of Foreign Affairs, not all officials had a clear and precise understanding of how their activities contributed towards the realization of these goals.

5.11.4 Leadership as applicable to the Mission/Business Unit

The respondents had various ideas of the term “Leadership” as applied to their business units. Their understanding was that the leader of a business unit is expected to communicate strategic development and ensure the effective implementation of the performance-management system. However, their assessment of his/her styles varied from democratic to autocratic in some instances.

5.11.5 Offering Praises and Celebrating Successes

Figure 5.6



With reference to figure 5.6, most of the respondents, namely 45% agreed that their leaders, in general, praised the contribution of the team and celebrated its accomplishments. However, 25% neither agreed nor disagreed that their leaders took steps to foster team spirit. Of the total, 10% strongly disagreed that such team building exercises took place.

Leading at a Mission or business unit is not a task for the faint hearted. Rather it implies a commitment to growth and achievement for staff as well as the leader. Leaders must be judged not only by outcomes but also by the quality of their relationships, plans and policies.

Celebrating success stories is an excellent way to galvanize support and commitment from subordinates. The supervisor is first and foremost a leader of adults, with responsibility for ensuring continuing opportunities for professional development that are related both to the individual and to the Department of Foreign Affairs. Ultimately, leadership is about the head and the heart. The staff members have intellectual, personal and socio- developmental needs. These needs must be addressed on an on going basis.

The Missions and business units will have to respond to these needs as well as to externally generated demands. Celebrating together can only foster team spirit and cooperation. Management should therefore take note that structures built on individual and separated responsibility are placing disproportionate pressure on some members of staff who feel overwhelmed by the demands placed on them and experience painful feelings of isolation,

inadequacy and panic. If left unchecked and unattended, these can lead to both personal and professional dysfunction (Day 1998:156).

5.11.6 Suggesting Changes to the ICT Network

The vast majority of respondents did mention that the Department had recently upgraded its *information technology network*. However, many did indicate that they would like to be better equipped to use these facilities. Some also suggested that there be in-house training to better utilise these equipment.

In an age where the speed at which information is disseminated and acted upon is so crucial, it becomes equally important for team members to be proficient in the use of the equipment used. Failure to do so could lead to general apathy. Consequently, such narrowness of orientation and experience leads to “safe”, non-risk taking attitude that do little to assist the mission achievement its strategic objectives (Gates 1999:2).

5.11.7 Freedom to Execute Duties

Figure 5.7

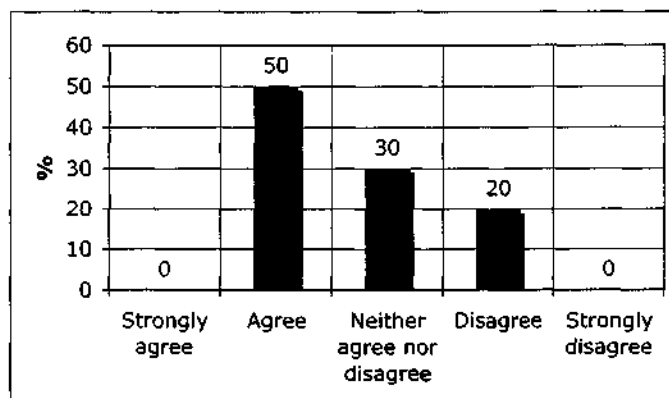


Figure 5.7 indicates that 50% agreed that their leader gives them freedom to determine the details of how tasks should be carried out and not being over prescriptive. However, 30% neither agrees nor disagrees with this statement.

Managing a Mission by the strict observance of regulation does reflect characteristics of a command – and – control system in both the people and task.

The time has come for the leadership to move from *telling to selling*. In the ideal and most effective model of leadership, the leader's role is collaborative and he/she will operate according to principles of participation, negotiation, trust and responsibility.

The more the head “tells” (makes decisions and announces them) or “sells” (through persuasion) the more he or she will demonstrate his or her use of authority and the less will be the personal investment of colleagues in the enterprise.

The more the head “consults” (eg. presents a problem, gets suggestion, makes decisions) or “shares” (defines limits, asks group to make decisions), the greater will be the area of freedom felt by colleagues and the stronger their investment (Finch 1983:150).

Hersey & Blanchard (1982:67) suggest that by delegating more job responsibility and initiating greater participation in decision-making, the greater will be the tendency to develop feelings of mutual trust, respect and commitment to the organisation.

Whatever the question to be dealt with – be it staff development, policy review, roles and responsibilities – it is crucial that the focus be agreed through consultation. The purpose of this communication is to influence and organise meaning for members of the organisation so that they feel empowered as they act in concert to create synergy and alignment in activity.

5.11.8 Information as a Resource in the Department of Foreign Affairs

Of those interviewed 90% indicated that the Department had a highly efficient intranet communication network. They were also pleased with the channels of communication between head office in Pretoria and their respective missions. This made the completion of their tasks much easier and the passage of information much quicker.

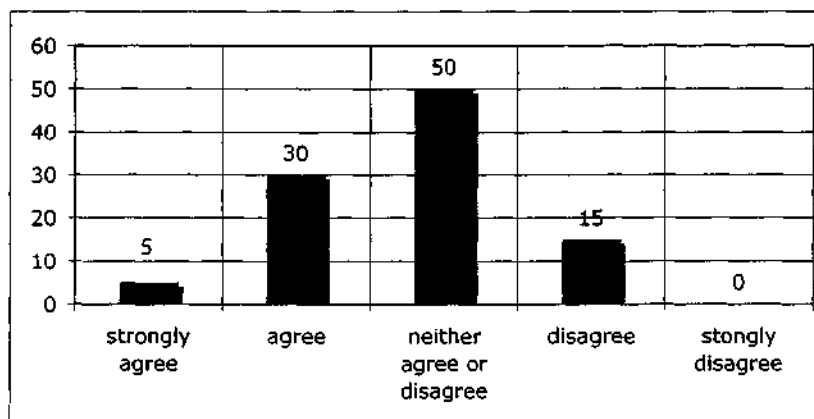
Information is a great source of power. Sharing information is tantamount to sharing power. When the leader shares power with other people, they in turn feel more strongly attached to the leader and more committed to carrying out their duties and responsibilities effectively –

they feel failure to carry out tasks lets themselves down as well as the boss (Charlton 1992:90).

In co-operative learning people have been found to use higher level thinking, ask more questions, debate different positions, elaborate their views and engage in problem solving, all of which helps them understand and evaluate the strengths and limitations of ideas. People learn by having ideas explained and by explaining ideas. There is richness to the exchange when people learn together. This is not possible when they learn competitively or by themselves (Badenhorst 1997:257).

5.11.9 Drafting of Business Plan

Figure 5.8



With reference to figure 5.8, 5% strongly agreed that their managers included all members of the team in drafting the business plan for the Mission. However, 50% were non-committal, neither agreeing nor disagreeing with the statement.

The current structure, although notionally creating a team, in fact tends to reinforce an individualistic tendency at Missions allocating separate roles and responsibilities, which are conducted by members of staff in isolation of each other.

As Fullam & Hargreaves (1992:161) have observed:

“Uncertainty, isolation and individualism are a potent combination. Almost by definition they sustain conservatism, since the opportunity and pressure arising from new ideas are inaccessible.”

The initiative of staff working in concert is crucial to the successful accomplishment of goals. However, 15% indicated that they never have the opportunity to undertake tasks independent of their supervisors or are given a chance to express their creativity or competence.

5.12 Section C – Group Dynamics

5.12.1 Managing Conflict

The researcher had found that managers generally try to be objective in their handling of conflict situations. However, 25% of respondents did indicate that they experienced some degree of partiality in the handling of their grievances. Nothing could be more disconcerting to subordinates than to see leaders taking sides in conflict situations.

A visionary leader could use conflict to the benefit of the organisation and not see it as a disruptive element in the day to day running of the organisation.

Mullins, (2002:169) has observed that in well-run organisations there is an increased tendency to tackle work through task groups and temporary teams which, require attention to the process of collaboration and work, itself. This requires a focus on collective learning if the potential of participants is to be harnessed effectively. There will need to be an enhanced capacity to use conflict creatively, to use dialogue and discussion to root out defective thinking habits and defensive routines.

Leaders should note that honest feedback is more beneficial than aggressive attacks on subordinates in an attempt to subjugate them. Feedback is quite unlikely to be helpful if it takes the form of a critical attack that simply puts the person on the defensive and makes it

unlikely that he will either understand or accept the feedback. It is descriptive rather than evaluative. By describing one's own reaction, it leaves the individual free to use it as he sees fit. By avoiding evaluative language it reduces the need for the individual to react defensively (Finch 1993:235).

Feedback ought to be directed towards behaviour about which the receiver can do something. Frustration is only increased when a person is reminded of some shortcoming over which he has no control. Feedback has to be well timed and is most useful at the earliest opportunity after the given behaviour (Sadler 1989:283). If this procedure is followed then neither the perpetrator nor the leader need lose face.

5.12.2 Redressing Grievances

Whilst there may be formal structures to address concerns or any unfair decision arrived at, the process can become tedious and complicated. Most respondents indicated that they would prefer avoiding the formal route of redressing grievances as it could be emotionally taxing, and the possible fear of victimisation also exists. Therefore, feedback given in a clinical manner could avoid the need for grievance procedures, which could reverberate through the entire workforce thereby affecting morale at all levels.

Some officials complain that their supervisors are so arrogant and uncaring that they do not even listen. Instead they turn to quick fixes, hoping more meetings will make the organisation harmonious and pep talks about quality will unite everyone behind quality improvement (Hellriegel & Slocum 1998:48).

Blanchard & Johnson (1982:59) state: "There is nothing as unequal as the equal treatment of unequals." Since development level is not a global concept, but task-specific, goal setting and the analysis of development level go hand in hand.

At the same time, understanding a subordinate's development level can help leaders develop more reasonable performance standards. Praising is the key to developing people as one gradually changes leadership from directive styles of directing and coaching to the nondirective supporting and delegating styles (Blanchard 1990:62).

Some co-workers will persistently perform at sub standard level, which could also influence the other workers.

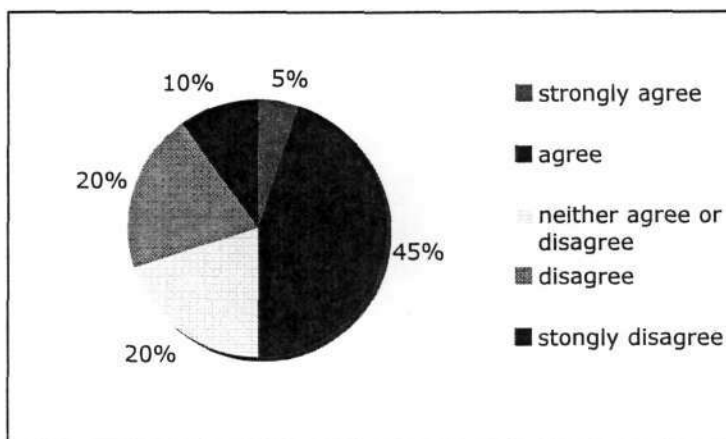
In such cases reprimands are also tools that ought to be used but with circumspection. It is for subordinates who are competent and committed but whose performance lately has not been up to par. Reprimands are not training tools but a way to deal with motivation and attitude problems.

If reprimands are used on young, inexperienced subordinates, they will often lose their motivation and stop trying. Instead, reprimands should be used with competent subordinates who have lost interest in a task (Hersey & Blanchard 1982:58).

When managers reprimand subordinates they must ensure that they have the facts and that there are no extenuating circumstances. Sometimes a drop is caused by a decline in performance and confidence. It could be that the job is more complicated than anticipated. When that happens reprimands are not advised. Support and encouragement should be given and if necessary the manager should provide direction.

5.12.3 Managers' Concern about Future Benefits to subordinates

Figure 5.9



Of those questioned, 45% agreed that their managers were concerned about their promotion prospects or their possibility of receiving merit awards. A significant 20% disagreed with this statement and 10% strongly disagreed. This is illustrated in figure 5.9.

It is evident that approximately one third of the interviewees feel that their bosses have little or no concern about their upward mobility within the diplomatic corps.

The Foreign Service, as an organisation needs subordinates to be “good citizens” who do more than what is prescribed in job descriptions and stipulated in union contracts. Staying late to deal with a crisis in the host country, assisting an overlooked colleague or passing on useful information to head office, all contribute to a successful organisation. However, this may well be possible where the tasks are clearly outlined and followed according to strict rules and procedures (Steers 1989:128).

Bureaucrats must realise that organisations are made up of people with their own ambitions, needs and values. No matter how totalitarian the institution, it has to satisfy the ambition and needs of its members and to do so in their capacity, not only as individuals but through institutional rewards and punishments incentives and deterrents (Drucker 1999:285).

Supervisors are accountable for the work of others. They also have power over the careers of others. Making strengths productive is therefore much more than an essential of effectiveness. It is a moral imperative, a responsibility of authority and position. Supervisors owe it to their organisation to make the strength of every subordinate as productive as it can be. But even more, they owe it to subordinates as human beings to help them get the most out of whatever strengths they may have.

Organisations must serve individuals through their strengths, regardless of their limitations and weaknesses (Finch 1993:182).

Directors and their deputies have a statutory obligation to supervise and participate in any arrangement within an agreed national framework for the appraisal of performance of their subordinates, ensure that they have access to advice and training appropriate to their needs and provide information about the work and performance of the staff where this is relevant

to their future employment and promotion prospects (Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document 2003:74).

5.12.4 Capacity and Skills to Achieve Objectives

The majority of respondents indicated that the department had the necessary capacity but lacked the necessary skills to optimally utilize the resources at their disposal. Approximately 45% stated that skills were lacking but they were prepared to undergo the necessary training to make an effective contribution to the organisation.

It is important that the Department of Foreign Affairs equips its staff with the necessary skills to optimise their contribution in a highly competitive environment. When this is achieved the leader is considered a focused taskmaster.

Once a leader has communicated his/her objectives and put simple management systems in place, he or she needs to become a taskmaster. This means setting demanding standards and persistently following up on subordinates' efforts to meet them. While most people seek security and certainty, they also want outlets for their creativity and freedom from arbitrary interference in their work lives.

5.12.5 Enforcing the Principles of Batho Pele

All respondents were well aware of the principles of *Batho Pele* and the general importance of service delivery. These principles as enunciated by central government, appears to have permeated most business units. However, there are no mechanisms in place to ascertain how successful the department is, in implementing these principles.

Leaders should ensure that service, are delivered according to certain standards.

Ambassadors and Heads of Missions should also bear in mind that most members of staff can accomplish feats beyond their ordinary expectations, but to reach their potential, they must be stretched and inspired to meet even higher standards. The reward for staff is pride in their achievement but for the mission it is exemplary competitive performance, which enhances the status of the Department of Foreign Affairs and the country as a whole.

Service excellence has seldom been a guiding principle in the public sector. Yet it could be a force that would help give the Department the edge over its competitors.

Ultimately, survival depends upon recognising the threats to well-being, and effectiveness, and taking steps, sometimes quite radical and severe ones, to change the habits and patterns hardened over many generations (Hall & Hall 1988:252).

5.12.6 Promoting the Interest of Africa

Figure 5.10

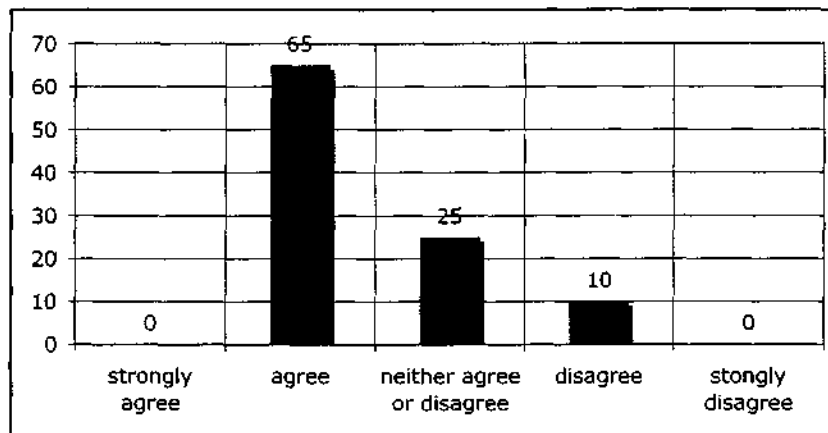


Figure 5.10 reflects 65% of respondents agreeing that their leader actively promotes the interest of Africa in general and South Africa in particular. However, 25% were undecided about the leaders' role in this regard.

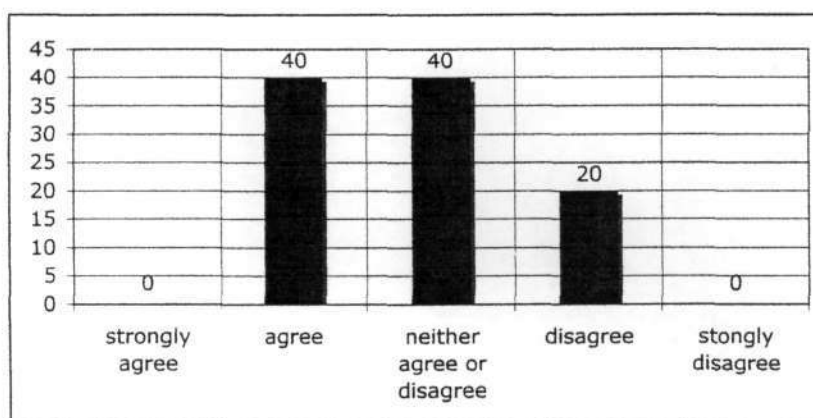
In keeping with the vision and mission of the Department of Foreign Affairs, this is of paramount importance.

However, South Africa is an integral part of the geo-political landscape on the African Continent. This country, under the leadership of President Thabo Mbeki, was the architect of NEPAD and South Africa has to ensure that the program is well marketed internationally. To this end the various Embassies and High Commissions play an important role. The country's involvement in various international bodies and organisations also creates opportunities for promoting the interest of the country and the continent at large.

Therefore, leaders need to take note of this very important role of the Department and should actively engage in measures to promote it.

5.12.7 Posting Officials with Appropriate Competencies

Figure 5.11



With reference to Figure 5.11, 40% of those questioned indicated that they agree that mission staff with appropriate skills be posted to missions according to their needs. On the other hand 40% neither agrees nor disagrees that staff members at the various business units have the required skills. A significant 20% disagree that the right people are chosen to perform specialized tasks.

In addressing the question of affirmative action the Department might have inadvertently placed personnel without the necessary skills and competencies in positions. However, steps need to be taken to remedy the situation by building on strengths and compromising on standards.

A truly resourceful leader could change this problem into an opportunity by showing positive belief in others. Despite their apparent lack of skills he/she could capitalise on the enthusiasm and build strengths through strong belief in the goodwill and latent ability of his/her subordinates.

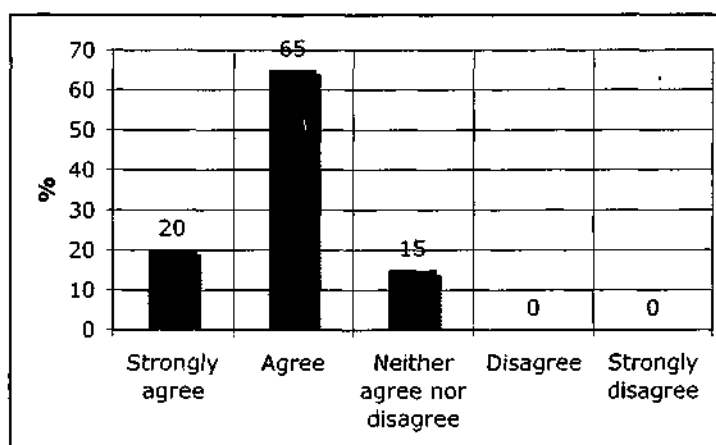
Leaders, who act on the principle that people learn best when they are punished for their mistakes, aren't likely to foster experimentation. In higher performance Missions, the leader's

role in promoting excellence and managerial innovation is one of “nurturing good tries, allowing modest failures, labelling experiments after the facts as successes, leading the cheers and quietly guiding the diffusion process” (Peters & Waterman 1983:266).

Bennis (1989:246), the renowned authority on leadership, concludes that visionary leaders believed in themselves as well as their subordinates. They emphasised their strengths instead of their weaknesses and they brought out the strength of others. In addition to positive self-regard, these individuals had positive regard for others as well.

5.12.8 Completing Tasks within Timeframes

Figure 5.12



According to Figure 5.12, 20% strongly agree whilst 65% agree that their supervisors, insists on tasks being completed within stipulated time frames. A further 15% neither agrees nor disagrees with this statement.

Whilst this response might be an indication that the supervisor is strict about task completion and punctuality, it could indicate bureaucratic control of leader to exercise authority and entrench a subtle form of subservience.

Within the context of operating efficiently and within time frames, the leader should also make use of timely feedback as a tool when dealing with subordinates.

Successful leaders realise that “feedback is the breakfast of champions” (Hersey & Blanchard 1982:262) and is the only way for people to learn, adapt and grow in a challenging environment. This practice of giving and receiving feedback, which is a vital instrument to both the psychotherapist and organisational development specialist, of necessity, involves an element of risk and rejection. Giving and receiving feedback involves identifying where an organisation stands in relation to its objectives, as well as identifying the self-defeating patterns and learning disabilities that exist within the organisation thereby preventing organisational and individual growth (Charlton 1992:104).

5.12.9 Describing Supervisors Leadership Style

Respondents were varied in their description of their supervisors’ leadership styles. These ranged from 25% describing their leader as being autocratic. The majority, which comprised 60% of the respondents, described their leader as democratic in style who made provision for differences of opinion and encouraged active participation in discussions. 15% were uncertain of the style of their leader.

It becomes increasingly apparent, that to be an effective leader, one must be able to adapt behaviour to the demands of the situation. He/she needs diagnostic skills for assessing and analysing a situation, for example, to identify what needs to be done to maintain high levels of work performance and to improve where necessary. To achieve this, the manager must have a good understanding of the range of factors, which affect performance, such as motivation, abilities, feedback, promotion opportunities.

Furthermore, the successful management of people requires accurate perception and evaluation of people and events. This is important in the analysis of work performance such as team building, coaching and conflict management (Finch 1993:206).

Within teams, status differentials can be minimised and each member of staff is encouraged to contribute according to his or her experience and skill. There are many benefits to be accrued from such a dynamic and highly participative structure.

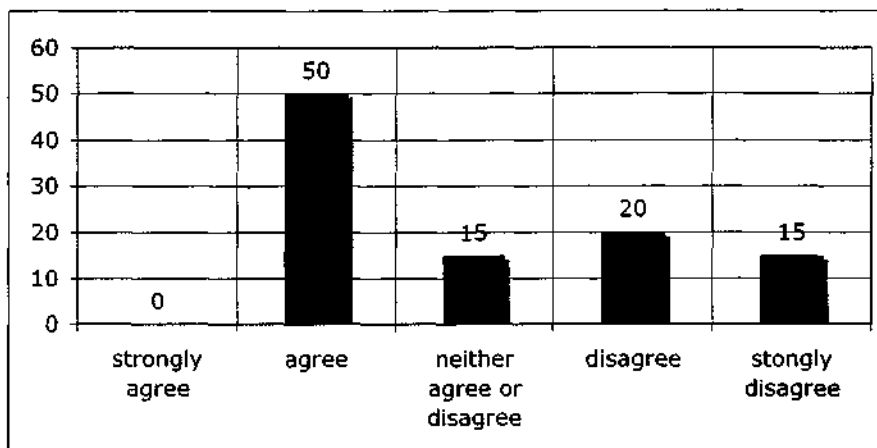
Perhaps more than anything, the sort of approach that leaders take should help a mission to move from a red-light mentality – restricting action and development – to green light

mentality – encouraging easy access and involvement in key tasks within the diplomatic corps.

Devolving authority to the team will release heads from too detailed an involvement in development and change, and allow the fuller expression of staff talent and ambition. Teams should be encouraged to set their own detailed targets within the brief designed by the team as a whole (Steers 1989:153).

5.12.10 Competence in Key Positions

Figure 5.13



With reference to Figure 5.13, 50% agree that all officials are competent in key organisational processes that are critical to each business unit. However, a significant 15% strongly disagrees that this is a correct assessment of key personnel's ability. This situation creates a major challenge for the leader. He/she could use these shortcomings to build a formidable team or he/she could just pretend that the problem exists and further divide an already fragmented staff.

A resourceful leader will accentuate the strengths and downplay the weaknesses within the team.

Such a leader will give them greater freedom to use their creativity in determining work details. With this increased autonomy, a greater degree of success will be experienced.

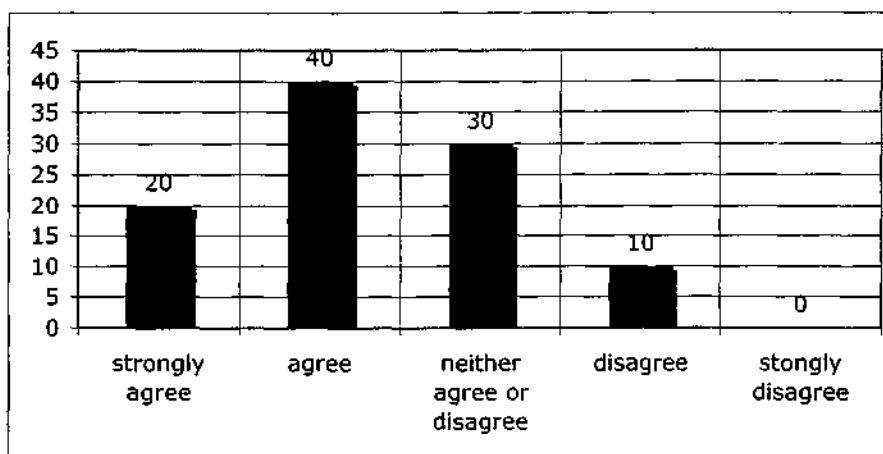
Therefore, lack of skills, size, diversity, complexity or other pressures limit a manager's ability to become directly involved in situations. He/she, however, has two broad options:

- 1) Build up staff to gather and evaluate more information and check on heads of business units' decisions whilst keeping the team together,
- 2) Increase the autonomy granted to junior managers, and rely on them to take appropriate action with limited security.

This course is the only way to develop other managers into leaders. This approach can lead to a diffusion of power, but out of this diffusion can come a surge of leadership throughout the embassy or high commission. In this context, structures and systems serve two purposes. They communicate and reinforce the objectives, assumptions and criteria on which staff have taken decisions. They also ensure that these junior leaders get the information, resources, co-operation, and freedom from the bureaucratic meddling to which they were previously accustomed (Blanchard 1990:122).

5.12.11 Supervisor Displaying Appropriate Leader Behaviour

Figure 5.14



According to Figure 5.14, 20% strongly agree and 40% agree that their leader understands the nature and style of leadership and displays appropriate leadership characteristics in

performing his/her duties. Nevertheless, 30% neither agree nor disagree that their leader shows appropriate leader behaviour in changing circumstances.

This situation could be attributed to a lack of experience on the part of certain leaders given the fact that missions have been mushrooming around the globe at such a rapid pace. Nevertheless, this further emphasises the need for leadership training to eliminate certain grey areas.

Given an organisation like the Department of Foreign Affairs with such a vast network of embassies and business units across the world, it is important that teams are created within the various business units – teams that operate like well-oiled machinery.

5.12.12 Competence in use of Information Technology

All respondents indicated that they were computer literate and able to meet the basic needs of their respective business units. However, the recent upgrading of hardware necessitates in-service training. Respondents have shown an eagerness to improve their skills in this regard.

For the Department of Foreign Affairs, information becomes a key issue. The time taken for a vital piece of information to be relayed to head office in Pretoria and a response to be conveyed to the mission from where it originated, is crucial. It is therefore, important for personnel to have the necessary skills to use technology at their disposal. If training is required, it should become a priority.

The combination of shared purpose and relatively decentralised decision making makes it possible to set up a number of small, semi autonomous units that have information technology, resources, and flexibility needed to respond rapidly and creatively to turbulent conditions.

Thus, the highest standards and achievements will accrue to those missions that nurture and exploit innovative knowledge of all kinds, as well as other intangible resources, which like knowledge, are developed and possessed by rare, talented individuals (Drucker 1999:108).

5.12.13 Mission Staffs' Understanding of the Business Environment

Figure 5.15

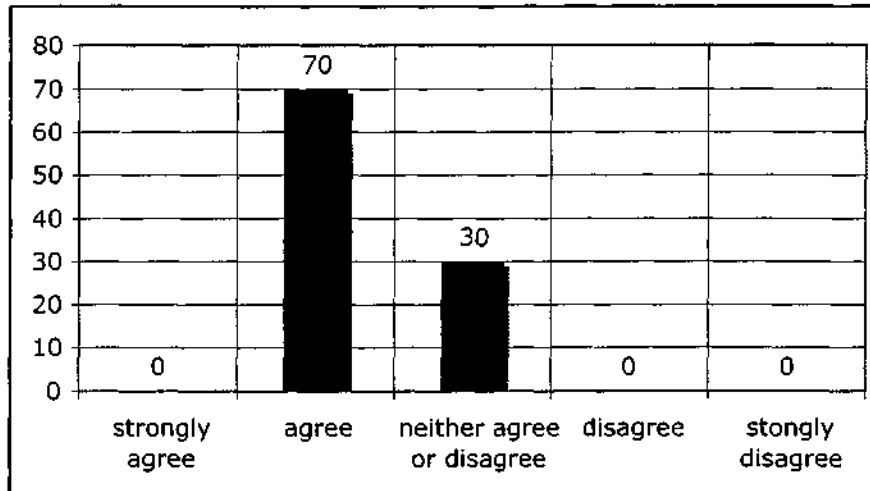


Figure 5.15 indicates that 70% agree that all members of staff have a good understanding of the work environment, (internal and external) and the nature of business at their respective missions. However, 30% are non-committal on this issue, neither agreeing nor disagreeing.

Having a thorough knowledge of one's business environment is an essential element in order to achieve success in any foreign country. It is imperative that all officials understand the unique customs and traditions of the host country. In this regard the leader needs to lead by example and ensure that the rest of the team is equally conversant with the local way of life.

Interaction at inter-government level and cooperation with other non-government organisations within the host country would help significantly to bridge the cultural divide. Such liaison creates opportunities for bi-lateral trade and cultural exchanges.

5.13 Chapter Summary

The research design and methodology utilised adequately achieved the objective of the survey. It also highlighted the sampling technique employed, the description of the questionnaire and how it would be administered. Descriptive and inferential statistics were deemed to be sufficient for the purposes of the research study.

The questionnaire was analysed personally by the researcher who was based at the Department of Foreign Affairs Head Office in Pretoria.

The presentation and analysis of results were described and interpreted against the background of the questions raised in Chapter One.

The findings, arising from the empirical evidence, have been contextualised within the broader framework of the study. The analyses of the data under the relevant themes have given an integrated and holistic overview of the study as a whole.

A detailed summary of the research report is contained in chapter six.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

6.1 Introduction

The research sought to build a conceptual framework that can help guide the process of leadership and its impact on organisational performance and service delivery within the Department of Foreign Affairs.

From the research undertaken and the analysis of the data collected, the following conclusions have been drawn in respect of which accompanying recommendations are made.

In order to meet the objectives of this investigation, a literature study was undertaken. Themes regarding leadership, organisational performance and the South African foreign policy were located in existing public administration texts, in leadership theories and in South African political studies.

6.2 The Department of Foreign Affairs in an Era of Competition

The South African Department of Foreign Affairs finds itself operating in a highly competitive global village where speed and accuracy of response in different spheres of international relations gives one the edge as limited resources are competed for.

With old certainties fractured, new incentives must be found to attract the finest career diplomats into the Department of Foreign Affairs. The greatest incentive offered to Ambassadors is to join a team, which is wholly committed to serving the interest of its people. In the execution of duties, the diplomatic staff will meet with other professionals, whose values are similarly built around the life-enhancing purpose of promoting the interest of his/her country. This service he/she should be dispensed with pride and joy as the South African flag takes its rightful place in the community of nations.

The call for such dedicated service must be rewarded institutionally by a relationship based on real commitment to the development of human potential, both personal and professional. As has already been discovered, this process can only be carried out by a special brand of leadership.

The new contracts between diplomats and the State cannot guarantee permanence, but it must guarantee, at the very least, to provide fulfilling development opportunities which are consciously designed to promote growth and enhance competence in order to meet the increasing demands of the reform agenda (Day 1998:48). In this regard, promotion opportunities and upward mobility needs to be increased to meet the growing aspirations of enthusiastic diplomats.

6.3 Elements still stuck in the Apartheid Past

As the country enters its 11th year of democracy, transformation is still continuing and missions in turn are still adapting to this new environment. The Department of Foreign Affairs, however, still finds itself in a period of transition between the old and the new, with both principles that defined the apartheid era and the principles of the new democracy. Attempts to achieve teamwork, empowerment and diversity at Embassies/High Commissions become difficult because the belief and thought processes of both leaders and subordinates are still stuck in the old paradigm that values stability and homogeneity (Manning 1999:134).

Diplomatic leaders and subordinates need to whole-heartedly embrace change and the new cultural diversity that they are confronted with, or their jobs could become increasing stressful.

Leaders will successfully lead their respective Embassies/High Commissions when their beliefs are in harmony with the transformation occurring within the diplomatic service, and especially when they value the following:

- Empowerment versus Control;
- Collaboration versus Competition;

- Relationships versus Things; and
- Diversity versus Uniformity.

6.3.1 Empowerment versus Control

Leaders in powerful positions, thought that followers should be told what to do, how to do it, when to do it and with whom to do it. They believed strict control was needed for the organisation to function efficiently and effectively. This rigid structure forms part of the processes of public administration according to the traditional model as advocated by Cloete. Structure, is indeed, important to maintain control within the public service but creativity within that structure should not become stifled. Therefore the innovative model as advocated by Schwella, which takes the fluid environment into account, becomes more user-friendly in this instance.

Often the rigid organisational hierarchies and detailed structured work- procedures let everyone know that those at the top had power and those at the bottom had none (Badenhorst 1997:258).

Managers need to know that subordinates are demanding empowerment and participation in all facets of their lives including their work. Therefore the emphasis on control and rigidity tends to decrease motivation and morale rather than produce desired results. Junior officers, for example, are crying out to be allowed to initiate projects and manage them to their conclusion.

Today's leaders need to share power. They must find ways to increase an organisation's brain-power by getting everyone within the organisation involved and committed. One reason for this is that knowledge and information, not a building, computers and plush offices, have become primary forms of capital, for example, leaders should draw a profile of each official's unique talents and give him/her the opportunity to utilise these talents.

Success, therefore, depends on the collective intellectual capacity of all employees, and leaders have to face the hard fact that people cannot be owned.

Charles Handy, a British business consultant, called empowerment *a moral imperative* (Charlton 1992:8). Empowerment does not mean that those higher up the hierarchy are graciously handing down power, but that power rightfully belongs to all workers. One of the leader's most challenging jobs is to guide workers in using their own power effectively and responsibly by creating and developing a climate of respect and development for all employees. Power lies more in the strength and quality of relationships rather than in titles (Barth 1988:52). Therefore, by sharing power, the leader becomes more powerful simply because he earns the respect and loyalty of his subordinates.

6.3.2 Collaboration versus Competition

The move to empowerment also ties directly into new ways of working that emphasize collaboration over competition and conflict. Some competition can be healthy but ideas about the nature of competition are changing (Handy 1998:246). Rather than a struggle to win while someone else loses, organisations and individuals direct their competitive energy towards being the best they can be. When confronted with a problem, the collective wisdom of the entire team is far more valuable than individual contributions. This may be due to the fact that diplomats operate in foreign countries and the knowledge base is small, hence the need for strong teams within the missions.

Compromise, therefore, becomes a sign of strength and not weakness. Within organisations, self-directed teams and other forms of horizontal collaboration eliminate boundaries between directorates within departments whilst simultaneously helping to spread knowledge throughout the organisation (Hellriegel & Slocum 1998:149).

The various business units within the Embassy/High Commission should therefore view themselves as teams that collectively create value rather than as autonomous entities in competition. The opportunities for collaboration are immense. Within the Mission, leaders will need to create an environment of teamwork and community that foster collaboration and mutual support. The call for empowerment, combined with an understanding of the Mission as part of a fluid, dynamic, interactive environment, as portrayed by the innovative approach of public administration, makes the case of intimidation and manipulation obsolete as a means of driving the competitive spirit (Manning 1991:154).

6.3.3 Relationships versus Things

The increase in collaboration both within and among Missions, reflect another fundamental transformation and that is a shift from an emphasis on things to an emphasis on relationships. Rather than operate on a yes-or-no, black-or-white basis, staff members learn to deal with the different shades of grey – the nuances, subtleties and possibilities inherent in relationships (Hellriegel & Slocum 1998:155).

Instead of focusing on segments, staff will focus on the organisation as a whole. The dominant image of the organisation will not be as a machine but as a living system or a web of interaction through the sharing of information and resources between the various business units. Transferring this understanding to the organisation may be one of the greatest challenges for leaders of today. Whereas objects are concrete and unchanging, relationships are intangible and ever shifting (Hellriegel & Slocum 1998:158). It is, therefore, the task of the innovative leader to keep the relationships among subordinates and between his/her staff and head office cordial.

6.3.4 Diversity versus Uniformity

Many of the Missions were established on assumptions of uniformity, separation and specialisation. People are often grouped in teams because they tend to think alike, act alike and have similar job skills. These teams work at desks such as NEPAD, SADC and the AU. Individuals serving in each of these desks see themselves as autonomous with nothing to contribute to other desks or sub sections. Therefore, co-operative thinking should be encouraged so as to give rise to creative solutions as they tap on the resources from different sub sections.

Leaders must realise that homogeneous groups find it easy to get along, communicate, and understand one another. The uniform thinking that arises, however, can be disastrous in an environment as diverse as the Department of Foreign Affairs. Therefore, an all encompassing strategic plan taking diversity into account should form the basis for the development of business plans, performance agreements and resource requirements for business units at head office and Missions abroad.

6.4 Leading in the New Era

The leader in the new era must be caring, show empathy, and be willing to serve and recognise human worth. In addition, the future-oriented leader will also have to find and maintain a fine balance between functional achievement, efficiency and consultation, as well as between democracy and flexible adaptable strategy (Lawrence 1991:76).

To succeed in the post apartheid era, the leader must build on the following assumptions:

- His/her subordinates are trustworthy;
- Everyone has a unique contribution to make to the mission; and
- Problem Solving Skills should be handled at the lowest possible level as this will empower departmental/section heads.

This is an approach to reach levels of accomplishment never before dreamed of. However, such levels cannot be achieved without everyone pulling together. What we are talking about is leadership of the Embassies or High Commissions as organisations and not leadership of individual diplomatic officials as was the case historically.

6.4.1 The Transformational Approach

The desired results can be found in the transformational approaches to leadership. Here leaders inspire their followers and deal individually with subordinates to meet their development needs and encourage new approaches for solving problems. Leaders follow this approach by building a shared responsibility team, continuously developing the skills of individual subordinates and determining and building a common vision to create superior performance (Davis 1996:99).

Diplomatic leaders need to personalise responsibility by creating a context within which routine jobs become meaningful, the human spirit is liberated and people are transformed from *a position of working to live to living to work* (Charlton 1992:129). The junior member of the team has to be empowered to take complete charge of a project and savour the feeling of accomplishment.

Leaders need to possess the skill of sensitivity, which in transformational leadership seems to be the key factor in ensuring congruence between expectation and behaviour. If managers lack this key factor of situational sensitivity, no matter what the range of their other skills, they are not likely to succeed as leaders or supervisors. They will not be able to identify correctly what is expected of them and will not be able to behave congruently. For example, absenteeism from work should be treated with caution, given the fact that working in a foreign country and being very far from home and the support of family and friends can render one nostalgic or isolated.

6.4.2 Adapting to Change

Continuous restructuring of the Department has greatly intensified the pressure on managers. Insecurity about the future is pervasive among the staff. The traditional career-for-life model, based on employment security and promotion prospects, has been replaced by a climate of fear and anxiety about the very real prospect of redundancy at some missions. To some extent the policy of affirmative action and gender equity has created a sense of insecurity amongst some career diplomats.

These conditions are not conducive to sustaining work relationships based on high levels of trust and co-operation. Rather, the logic of survival results in heightened individualist competition for a limited number of postings abroad (Day 1998:98).

Embassies and High Commissions need Ambassadors and High Commissioners who can ride the waves of change, who can function as leaders in the process of organisational and environmental adaptation to change and adopt strategies that could make the mission more marketable, which in turn would attract greater interest from the host country.

Leaders must be able to read signals and translate such signals into meaningful messages to be dealt with by the team according to the requirements of the specific work circumstances.

6.5 Leading is Interdependent

Virginia Woolf once said that, *“one of the signs of passing youth is the birth of a sense of fellowship with other human beings as we take our place among them”*. As the leader takes his place within the team, cognisance should be taken of the following:

- Supervisors must remember that their interdependence with subordinates and the strengthening of abilities to accomplish things together are not simple but are part of the rich complex feeling of satisfaction of becoming a leader.
- To be a leader requires the heart as well as the head. Leaders need to be passionate and persistent; simply going through the motions will not do, nor will just working hard. On being given a leadership role, in some instances, the individual often feels that he/she had reached the pinnacle of his/her career and their roles were now that of a figure head. This is a misconception.
- Followers need leaders they can trust to be committed, honest and determined. Leading is so demanding that leaders must work persistently if they are going to make a difference. He/she has to have a hands-on approach until the last day of his/her career as a diplomat.

6.6 Observing Integrity within the Diplomatic Service

Of central value to society, is that people should engage in meaningful, productive work. Many rewards that society provides, such as recognition, prestige, respect, status, are intimately tied to the kind of work people do. Serving in the diplomatic corps does have its fair share of status. However, members of the Department of Foreign Affairs should protect their integrity at all times. They must not be tempted to corruption which could bring them as well as their country to disrepute. The recent spate of corruption charges against government officials in various sectors is a telling reminder that the Department of Foreign Affairs does not quite enjoy diplomatic immunity from this scourge. A hands-on leader will identify any irregularities before it rears its ugly head.

Cheminais, et al (1998:74), contends that in the rendering of services, the conduct of public officials must always be in the interest of the public. High demands such as accountable behaviour and reliability are placed on all staff at the mission. The public trusts officials to render services and use public funds effectively, and efficiently. The personal conduct of public functionaries is essential to promote a more professional ethos and a commitment to serve the people.

6.7 Concluding Remarks

Research conducted in this study, attempted to gauge the leadership styles of senior managers as well as establish the effect leadership has on service delivery and organisational performance within the Department of Foreign Affairs.

By moving from political isolated to a key political figure on the African Continent, South Africa, through the Department of Foreign Affairs, found itself in an era of competition. This inevitably posed a new challenge to Ambassadors and High Commissioners to create and sustain a team within the diplomatic corps to serve the people of South Africa, with pride, joy and integrity. The challenge required a dedication to develop the Department's human potential by a special brand of leadership.

Amidst the challenges of leading, were the challenges of transition. The Department of Foreign Affairs found itself between values of the apartheid and post apartheid eras. Senior managers had to embrace these changes and forge ahead to make their mark as dynamic leaders within a transforming institution.

It was found that leaders would only succeed if their beliefs were in harmony with the process of transformation and when they valued empowerment, collaboration, building relationships and embracing diversity.

The desired results of effective leadership could be found in the transformational approach to leadership, where followers are inspired to do their best and where leaders adapt to change easily.

In carrying out the function of diplomacy, integrity and accountability should be of central value to all within the diplomatic corps.

This study confirmed that leading is interdependent, in that supervisors and subordinates should strengthen their ability to accomplish goals and objectives together, leaders must be passionate and persistent in leading effectively and leading requires commitment, honesty and determination to succeed in the field of diplomacy.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BOOKS

- Adair, J. 1983. Effective Leadership. New York: Pan Books.
- Andrews, Y. 1988. The Personnel Function. Pretoria: Haum Educational Publishers.
- Bardenhorst, J.A. 1997. Introduction to Business Management. Johannesburg: Thomson Publishing.
- Barth, R. 1988. Building a Professional Culture. New York: Teachers' College Press.
- Bass, B.M. 1994. Leadership and Performance beyond Expectations. New York: Free Press.
- Bayat, M.S. & Meyer, I.H. 1994. Public Administration: Concepts, Theory and Practice. Pretoria: Southern Book Publishers.
- Bennis, W. 1989. Changing Organisation. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Blake, R.R. & Mouton, J.S. 1985. The Managerial Grid. Houston: Gulf Publishing.
- Blanchard, K. 1990. Change through Effective Leadership. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Blanchard, K. & Johnson, S. 1982. The One Minute Manager. New York: Williams Morrow.
- Botes, P. 1994. Aspects of Supervision: A Guide for the Contemporary Public Manager. Halfway House: Southern Book Publishers.
- Brevis, T., Ngambi, H.C., Vrba, M.J., Naicker, K.S. 2002. Management Principles – A Contemporary Edition for Africa. Cape Town: Juta & Co.
- Buchanan, D. & Huczynski, A. 1997. Organisational Behaviour – An Introduction. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall.
- Burns, J.M. 1998. Leadership. New York: Harper & Row.

- Cheminais, J., Bayat, S., van der Waldt, G. & Fox, W. 1998. The Fundamentals of Public Personnel Management. Cape Town: Juta & Co.
- Charlton, G.D. 1992. Leadership: The Human Race. Johannesburg: Juta & Co.
- Cloete, J.J.N. 1981. Public Administration and Management. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.
- 1986. Public Administration and Management. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.
-1988. Public Administration and Management. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.
- 1991. Public Administration and Management. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.
- 1993. Public Administration and Management. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.
- 1994. Public Administration and Management. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.
- 1998. Public Administration and Management. Pretoria: J.L. van Schaik.
- Covey, S.R. 1991. Principle – Centred Leadership. New York: Simon & Shuster.
- Cronje, G.J. 1997. Introduction to Business Management. Halfway House: Thomson.
- Daft, R.M. 1999. Organisational Behaviour: An Analysis of Conflict, Choice and Commitment. Eaglewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Davis, J.H. 1996. Group Performance Reading. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.
- Day, C. 1998. Developing Leadership in Primary Schools. London: Paul Chapman.
- Deming, W.E. 1993. The New Economies for Industry. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Drucker, P.F. 1999. People and Performance. London: Heineman.
- Du Toit, D.F.P. & Van der Waldt, G. 1997. Public Management – the Grassroots. Cape Town: Juta & Co.
- Finch, F.E. 1993. Managing For Organisational Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Fox, W., Schwella, E. & Wissink, H. 1991. Public Management. Cape Town: Juta & Co.
- French, R.P. & Raven, B. 1990. The Basis of Social Power. Boston: Houghton Hifflin.
- Fullam, M. & Hargreaves, A. 1992. What's Worth Fighting For. London: Open University Press.
- Gandhi, M.K. 1927. An Autobiography of My Experiments with Truth. Ahmedabad: Navajivan Press.
- Gardener, H. 1995. Leading Minds: An Anatomy of Leadership. New York: Basic Books.
- Gates, B. 1999. Business @ the Speed of Thought. New York: Warner Books.
- Gerber, P.N. 1998. Human Resources Management. Johannesburg: Thomson Publishing.
- Gildenhuys, J.S.H. 1997. South African Public Administration. Pinetown: Owen Burgess Publishers.
- Gildenhuys, J.S.H & Knipe, A. 2000. The Organisation of Government. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Goldsmith, W. & Clutterbuck, D. 1998. The Winning Streak Mark II. United Kingdom: Orion Business Books.
- Gordon, J.R. 1993. A Diagnostic Approach to Organisational Behaviour. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Griffin, R.W. 1991. Introduction to Business Management. Halfway House: Thomson Publishing.
- Grobler, P.A. 1996. Leadership Challenges Facing Companies in the New South Africa. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Hall, E. & Hall, C. 1988. Human Relations in Education. London: Methuen.
- Handy, C. 1998. Beyond Certainty. London: Arrow Books.

- Hanekom, S.X. & Thornhill, C. 1983. Public Administration in Contemporary Society: A South African Perspective. Cape Town: Southern Book Publishers.
- Hassard, J.S. 1996. Organisational Behaviour. Staffordshire: Keele University.
- Heller, R. 1997. In Search of European Excellence. London: Harper Collins.
- Hellriegel, R.M. & Slocum, H. W. 1998. Organisation Management. Massachusetts: John Wesley Publishing.
- Hersey, P. & Blanchard, K. 1982. Management of Organisational Behaviour – Utilising Human Resources. New-Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hoge, B.J. Anthony, W.P. & Gales, L.M. 1996. Organisation Theory: A Strategic Approach. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- House, R.J. 1974. Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness. New York: Random House
- Huddleston, 1992. The Public Administration Workbook. New York: Longman Publishing.
- Hunt, J.W. 1992. Managing People at Work. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Kerlinger, B. 1986. Foundations of Behavioural Research. Johannesburg: Juta.
- Kester, I.H. Painter, C. & Barnes, C. 1997. Management in the Public Sector – Challenge and Change. Birmingham: International Thomson Business Press.
- Koteen, J. 1989. Strategic Management in Public and Nonprofit Organisations: Thinking and Acting Strategically on Public Concerns. New York: Praeger.
- Kotter, J.P. 2001. Corporate Culture and Performance. New York: Free Press.
- Kroon, J. 1995. General Management. Pretoria: Kagiso.
- Lawrence, P. 1991. Dealing with Resistance to Change. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Leavitt, H.J. 1991. The Organisational World. New York: Harcourt Brace.
- Locke, E. 1991. The Essence of leadership. New York: Lexington Books.

- Manning, A.D. 1999. The New Age Strategist. Cape Town: Southern Book Publishers.
- Manning, A.D. 1991. The Race to Learn. Cape Town: Juta.
- Mbeki, T. 1999. Africa – The Time has Come. Cape Town: Tafelberg Publishers Ltd.
- Milner, J.B. 1989 Theories of Organisational Behaviour. Illinois: Dreyden.
- Mullins, J.L. 2002. Management and Organisational Behaviour. Essex: Pitman Publishing.
- Nanus, B. 1992. Visionary Leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Nel, P.S., Gerber, P.D., van Dyk, P.S., Haasbroek, G.D., Schultz, H.B., Sono, T. & Werner, A. 2001. Human Resource Management. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Nicholas, J.M. 2001. Project Management for Business and Technology – Principles and Practice. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Palmer, P.N, Van der Walt, A., Vrba, M.J., De Klerk, A & Pitout, W. 1992. Management Principles. Johannesburg: Juta & Co. Ltd.
- Peters, T.J. & Waterman, R.H. 1983. In Search of Excellence. New York: Harper & Row.
- Robbins, S.P. 1995. Organisational Behaviour: Concepts, Controversies and Applications. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Robbins, S.P. & De Cenzo, D.A. 1997. Fundamentals of Management. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Sadler, C.M. 1989. Personnel Psychology. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Schwella, E. 1991. Theoretical Concerns and Implications, In Fox, W., Schwella, E. & Wissink, H. Public Management. Kenwyn: Juta & Co.
-1992. Components of the Public Management Environment, In Fox, W., Schwella, E. & Wissink, H. Public Management. Kenwyn: Juta & Co.
- Sekaran, U. 1992. Research Methods for Business. New York: Wiley.

Sergiovanni, T.J. 1992. Moral Leadership. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Smit, P.J. & Cronje, G.J. De. 1992. Management Principles: A Contemporary South African Edition. Johannesburg: Juta & Co. Ltd.

Steers, R.M. 1989. Managing Effective Organisations. Boston: Kent Publishing.

Stoner, J.A., Freeman, R.E. & Gilbert, D.R. 1992. Management. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Stow, B.N. & Salancik, G.R. 1991. New Directions in Organisational Behaviour. Chicago: St. Clair Press.

Thomas, F.A. 1981. South Africa: Time Running Out. London: University of California Press.

Thomas, B. 1995. The Human Dimension of Quality. New York: McGraw Hill.

Van der Waldd, G. & Du Toit, D.F.P. 2000. Managing for Excellence in the Public Sector. Cape Town: Juta & Co.

JOURNALS

Breytenbach, W.J. 1978 "South Africa's Involvement in Africa." Occasional Paper No. 42. Pretoria: Africa Institute of South Africa.

Crow, S. & Hartman, S.J. 1995. Can't Get No Satisfaction, Leadership and Organisational Development Journal. Volume 16 Number 4.

Daniel, D.R. 1993. Reorganising for Results, Harvard Business Review. Volume 44 Number 6.

Dube, K.M. 2003. Overview: South Africa's Foreign Policy in Africa, Area Studies – Briefing Paper No. 30/2003.

Dunderdale, P. 1994. Analysing Effective Organisations, Professional Manager. New York: Harper Collins Business September 1994.

James, G. 1991. Quality of Working Life and Total Quality Management, ACAS Work Research Unit Occasional Paper Number 50 November 1991.

Kotter, J.P. 2001. What Leaders Really Do, Harvard Business Review. Volume 79 Issue 11.

Lawrence, P. 1991. How to Deal with Resistance to Change, Harvard Business Review. Volume 47 Number 197.

Levine, S.R. 2000. The Value Based Edu-Leader, Chowdhury, S. Management 21st Century. Financial Times.

Nicholls, J.R. 1995. A New Approach to Situational Leadership, Leadership and Organisational Development Journal, Volume 6 Number 4.

Robinson, G. 1999. Leadership vs Management The British Journal of Administrative Management, January/February 1999.

Tannenbaum, R. & Schmidt, W. H. 1973. How to Choose a Leadership Pattern Harvard Business Review, Volume 2 Number 36.

UNPUBLISHED SOURCES

Pillay, P. 2000. Impact of Urbanisation on Municipal Services Delivery with Particular Emphasis on the Provision of Water in the Durban Metropolitan Area. University of Durban – Westville. Durban.

South Africa (Republic) 1996. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996, Pretoria: Government Printer.

Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report: 2000/2001. Cape Town: Formeset Printers.

Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report: 2001/2002. Cape Town: Formeset Printers.

Department of Foreign Affairs Annual Report: 2002/2003. Cape Town: Formeset Printers.

Department of Foreign Affairs Strategic Planning Document: 2003. Cape Town: Formeset Printers.

White Paper on Transformation of the Public Service 1995 Pretoria: Government Printers.

White Paper on Service Delivery 1997 Pretoria: Government Printers.