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STATE CAPACITY IN THE PROVISION OF SERVICES IN SEDIBENG DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

By

Innocentia Ntomboxolo Marule

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Commerce, Law and Management, University of the Witwatersrand, in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

31 March 2014

LONG ABSTRACT

This thesis was designed to examine the South African state's capacity in the provision of basic services. State capacity is understood as being the ability of the political system to enforce rules and deliver services. This enforcement of control by the state over persons and resources within governments is critical for the performance of an organisational political system. State capacity is therefore vital in ensuring that the provision of basic services is satisfactory and sustainable to optimise client satisfaction.

Sedibeng is a District Municipality in one of South Africa's nine provinces called Gauteng Province. In spite of its rich and enduring political history and heavy industry, this district is still characterised by relatively high levels of unemployment and poverty. The situation in Sedibeng is partly attributable to the lack of adequate skills capacity with which to drive service delivery in the area. Within this context, this research sought to examine the role of state capacity in the provision of basic services to citizens at local government level by focusing on three local municipalities: Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

A qualitative research approach through interviews, focus groups and document analysis was adopted. The researcher also used a case study design. The advantage is that, apart from this better enabling understanding of the contextual issues impacting skills capacity building, it also provided an ideal opportunity for the researcher to tap into the vast municipal experiences of Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. Of importance was the contribution of executive managers, senior managers and ward councillors regarding the state of skills capacity, the process followed to implement skills capacity and to learn whether skills capacity efforts have been used to improve employee performance in the provision of services.

A key objective of this investigation was to determine whether Sedibeng District Municipality had taken advantage of the new skills development policies and supporting legislation to build the skills capacity required to enhance organisational performance and outcomes in order to meet the diverse economic and social needs of its communities.

This investigation was also inspired by the growing concerns in the literature that persistent skills shortages severely undermine the state's ability to deliver adequate and high quality services to people on the ground. The research took place in a district municipality which is driven by the South African constitutional mandate to provide basic services to communities as part of the government's strategy to promote sustainable development. To do this, they need to strengthen resource capabilities, including the skills of their workforces as part of human resource development.

From the cross-case analysis involving Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, it emerged that despite the common difficulties encountered in organisational culture, resources for capacity-building initiatives, recruitment, selection and retention strategies and aligning skills capacity with the municipal strategic direction, the skills capacity-building initiatives were being implemented with some degree of success. The study was informed by management, leadership and performance management theories. The interface of these theories provided valuable insights and lessons in terms of key variables that are needed to ensure effective implementation of skills capacity-building programmes in Sedibeng.

The research was underpinned by four inter-related and mutually reinforcing concepts positioned within the context of local government, namely skills capacity building, leadership and governance, performance management and service delivery. This conceptual framework was based

on the assumption that skills capacity building is a catalyst (an enabler) in enhancing leadership, governance and the overall performance of organisations. Performance management ensures that employees' behaviour and career aspirations are properly aligned with the mission and vision of the organisation by the organisation's leadership, within the context of good governance. The perceived outcomes of the interaction among these processes are efficient and effective service delivery and improved client satisfaction.

In formulating the research problem, the researcher assumed that building a cohort with strong skills capacity would impact positively on these critical activities and thereby result in improved service delivery in Sedibeng District Municipality. The findings and subsequent analysis in chapter six sheds considerable light on these assumptions. The investigation revealed that the loss of skilled and highly experienced employees and managers undermined the potential for efficiency and contributed to diminished organisational memory which is critical for strategic planning and effective service delivery in any institution.

Although there was no agreement on the precise methods and tools used to monitor the implementation of skills programmes across the three local municipalities, it was conceded that monitoring efforts were being undertaken to demonstrate commitment to accountability and transparency as training involved substantial expenditure. On the basis of these findings, the study concluded that although there had been progress in the implementation of skills capacity-building programmes in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, the scope, intensity and sustainability of these initiatives varied across the three local municipalities.

Even though the researcher had assumed that skills capacity-building was the most important ingredient in service delivery, the findings of the study revealed that training is not the only important variable needed to improve

service delivery in local municipalities. Other crucial variables include the alignment of training with performance management, career management, reward systems, skills transfer, employee welfare and retention strategy for the protection and the preservation of organisational memory.

The study concludes that learning provides the intellectual basis which stimulates the impetus for effective and sustainable organisational memory, which in turn plays a key role in facilitating strategic planning, skills formation, staff motivation and retention for improved service delivery. This learning emphasises the importance of locating the problematic of organisational memory towards possible improvement of service delivery where skills capacity and other related factors play a major role.

The contribution of this thesis to the body of knowledge is underpinned by the interface between learning and organisational memory as surfacing beyond skills capacity and as a necessity to enhance service delivery in municipalities.

SHORT ABSTRACT

This thesis was designed to examine the South African state's capacity in the provision of basic services. State capacity is defined as the ability of the political system to enforce rules and deliver services. This reinforcement of control by the state over persons and resources within governments is critical for the performance of a political system. State capacity is therefore vital in ensuring that the provision of basic services is satisfactory and sustainable so as to optimise client satisfaction.

Sedibeng is a District Municipality in one of the nine South African provinces called Gauteng Province. In spite of its rich and enduring political history and heavy industry, the situation in Sedibeng is partly attributable to the lack of adequate skills capacity with which to drive service delivery in the area. Within this context, this investigation sought to explore the role of state capacity in the provision of basic services to citizens at local government level by focusing on three local municipalities: Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

The research was underpinned by four inter-related and mutually reinforcing concepts positioned within the context of local government, namely skills capacity-building, leadership and governance, performance management and service delivery. This conceptual framework was based on the assumption that skills capacity-building is a catalyst or enabler in enhancing leadership, governance and the overall performance of organisations.

A qualitative research approach through interviews, focus groups and document analysis was adopted. The researcher also used a case study design and its advantage is that, apart from it enabling understanding of the contextual issues impacting skills capacity-building, it also provided an ideal opportunity for the researcher to tap into the vast municipal

experiences of Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. Of importance was the contribution of executive managers, senior managers and ward councillors regarding the state of skills capacity, the process followed to implement skills capacity and to learn whether skills capacity efforts have been used to improve employee performance in the provision of service.

From the cross-case analysis involving the three municipalities, it emerged that despite the common difficulties encountered in organisational culture, resource for capacity-building initiatives, recruitment, selection and retention strategies and aligning skills capacity with the municipal strategic direction, the skills capacity-building initiatives were being implemented with some degree of success.

The findings of the study concluded that although there had been significant progress in the implementation of skills capacity-building programmes in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, it is not clear whether these training initiatives were producing the desired outputs across Sedibeng's three municipalities as a step to provide and improve service delivery, as the scope, intensity and sustainability of these efforts varied markedly across the three local municipalities.

The investigation also revealed that there was no evidence of monitoring and evaluation with intense feedback and review of the progress made through skills capacity-building. Further findings were the loss of skilled and highly experienced employees and managers, which undermined the organisational memory which is critical for strategic planning and effective service delivery in any institution.

Even though the researcher had assumed that skills capacity-building was the most important ingredient in service delivery, the findings of the study revealed that training is not the only important variable needed to improve service delivery in local municipalities. Other crucial variables include the

alignment of training with performance management, career management, reward systems, skills transfer, employee welfare and retention strategy for the protection and preservation of organisational memory.

The study concludes that learning provides the intellectual basis which stimulates the impetus for effective and sustainable organisational memory, which in turn plays a key role in facilitating strategic planning, skills formation, staff motivation and retention to improve service delivery. This learning emphasises the important consideration to locate the problematic of organisational memory towards possible improvement of service delivery where skills capacity and other related factors play a major role.

The contribution of this thesis to the body of knowledge is underpinned by the interface between learning and organisational memory as surfacing beyond skills capacity and as a necessity to enhance service delivery in municipalities.

DECLARATION

I, Innocentia Ntomboxolo Marule, declare that this thesis is my own unaided work, and that the technical assistance which I received is in the detailed acknowledgements, that all filed work and data collection was undertaken by myself, and that I am responsible for the text of this study and all conclusions reached.

No part of this thesis has been submitted in the past, or is being submitted, or is to be submitted for a degree at any other university. The process for collecting the data in this thesis commenced in June 2012 and continued through December 2012 while I was a full-time employee of the Department of Roads and Transport in the Gauteng Province.

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I. N. MARULE **DATE**

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to the upliftment of the Sedibeng District Municipalities, namely Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study would not have been possible without the support, guidance and co-operation of a number of individuals and institutions, and I am wholeheartedly indebted to all of the following:

First, I would like to express the deepest appreciation to my supervisor Dr Horácio Zandamela, who continually and convincingly conveyed the spirit of adventure with regard to research scholarship, and an excitement with regard to teaching the subject. Without his guidance and persistent help, this thesis would not have been realised.

Let me take this opportunity to thank the Wits PhD forum which started in 2010, and added enormous value to guide and support me and all the PhD students who were prepared to present their work during the forum engagements.

The completion of the study would also not be possible if the Sedibeng District Municipality had firstly not made the research data contribution, and secondly, permitted me to conduct the research and facilitate the availability of all the respondents which helped me to conclude the data collection within the planned period of time.

I would like to thank my beloved husband and loving children who have been the source of my strength and inspiration, always endowing me with positive energy, understanding and advice.

I also remain indebted to my mother for the solid foundation she laid in my life.

I thank my friends from the School, Marumbo Ngwira and Shodi Nyawo, and my colleagues at work who have been very supportive. It has been a long tiring journey, but one which I hope has advanced, and will continue to advance, the quality of governance and development in South African Government institutions.

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ANC	African National Congress
ASGISA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa
CDW	Community Development Worker
CW	Chief Whip
DA	Democratic Alliance
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
BSA	Development Bank of Southern Africa (DBSA)
DPSA	Department of Public Service and Administration
ELM	Emfuleni Local Municipality
GEAR	Growth Employment and Redistribution Strategy
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HoD	Head of Department
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRDSA	Human Resource Development Strategy for South Africa
IDP	Integrated Development Plan
LG SETA	Local Government Sector Education and Training Authority
LLM	Lesedi Local Municipality
M&E	Monitoring and Evaluation
MEC	Member of the Executive Committee
MLM	Midvaal Local Municipality
MMC	Member of the Mayoral Committee
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
NSDS	National Skills Development Strategy III

PALAMA	Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act
PMDS	Performance Management Development System
PSC	Public Service Commission
RPL	Recognition of Prior Learning
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SDA	Skills Development Act
SDM	Sedibeng District Municipality
SETA	Sector Education and Training Authority
SSP	Sector Skills Plan
TNA	Training Needs Analysis
WC	Ward Councillor
WSP	Workplace Skills Plan
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an orientation of the study of the skills development in the provision of services in the Sedibeng Municipality's three local municipalities, namely Emfuleni, Lesedi and Midvaal. Skills development or upliftment is the enhancement of employees' applied competence in their jobs by improving their knowledge, skills, abilities and attitudes through formal education, skills training and continuous development. For a developing country such as South Africa, a skilled workforce means not only improved global competitiveness but also improved living standards for all its people (Coetzee, 2013).

There is growing pressure for effective and efficient service delivery that has become a regular challenge across many municipalities in South Africa. These challenges place a premium on state capacity as the vehicle for delivering much-needed services. It is widely acknowledged that if organised actions are allowed to be performed in an unplanned and un-co-ordinated manner, resources will be wasted and the chances of improving operational efficiency within the state apparatus are near zero (Craythorne, 1993).

Within this context, solid and reliable state capacity, particularly at local government level, is central in driving both the planning and delivery of basic services to local communities, thereby ensuring enhanced customer satisfaction. Effective provision of such services is imperative, as South Africa has positioned itself as a developmental state focused on deepening democracy and providing a better life for all. Given this, the key

focus of this investigation, therefore, was to establish if the Sedibeng District Municipality has been able to build, monitor, intervene and evaluate the skills capacity at both organisational and community level to bolster service delivery.

Mogale (2005) highlights that local governments are pivotal to reshaping and strengthening local communities and intensifying service delivery, especially to the poor. This deepens the foundation for democratic, integrated, prosperous and authentically non-racial local communities.
However, according to Smith and Cronje (2003), many managers lack the ability to make effective strategic decisions and solve problems innovatively, which results in inefficiencies within service delivery. It remains unclear whether the current skills building interventions are helping to alleviate the capacity constraints of service delivery in local government institutions.

Venter and Landsberg (2006), however, point out that the obligation of local municipalities to render services is mainly constrained by their limited financial resources. Makobe (2002) attributes this to weak financial management systems in municipalities. These two views are not directly in line with the study, due to the focus being on skills capacity and its effect on service delivery. To support the study, Naidoo (2009) states that there is massive investment by government insofar as empowering public servants through management development. However, many of the initiatives are regarded as failures. It is in this context that the researcher sought to determine the level of skills formation in the Sedibeng District Municipality to see if it met service delivery needs.

Therefore this investigation is conducted against a backdrop of growing discontent and frustration with sluggish service delivery efforts in many parts of South Africa including the areas under investigation. There is a general consensus in the literature that the continued lack of skills at local

government level has had a restraining effect on the provision of basic services such as housing, water, sanitation, education and health care. According to Chapter 7, Section 157 of the South African Constitution of 1993, municipalities in South Africa have a mandate to provide the abovementioned basic services to their respective constituencies in a fair and satisfactory manner. However, this mandate cannot be achieved unless leaders, managers and employees in municipalities share the responsibility of being capacitated with the knowledge and skills necessary to run an organisation (Smith and Vawda, 2003). This includes the ability to interact with the multiplicity of stakeholders involved in the service delivery system. In support of this view, Venter and Landsberg (2006) cites Section 152 of the 1996 constitution (Act 108 of 1996) which provides that a municipality must promote social and economic development as one of its objectives; and Section 195 (*ibid*), which states that public administration must be development-oriented. Emphasising the importance of skills capacity in service provision, Lee (2000) argues that government departments and agencies and their administrations are under increasing pressure to improve performance and demonstrate a positive return on the investment of resources and taxpayers' money.

Research indicates that much of the lack of service delivery at local government level resides with the relative dearth of human resource capability in the public sector relative to the private sector (Masango, 2000). There is no doubt that skills development is the catalyst for building the core competencies and capabilities that an organisation needs to function properly to meet the diverse and changing needs of its customers to respond swiftly to environmental changes, opportunities and challenges (Masango, 2000). Of equal importance is to ensure the effective and efficient growth, success and sustainability of the organisations.

One of the major concerns about capacity backlogs in municipalities is that they have far-reaching implications on human rights and quality of life for

citizens, competencies and capacity needs (Section 2, South African Constitution, Act 108 of 1998). The sustained deterioration of skills capacity in state institutions is thus not only a grave operational issue but also a formidable challenge in addressing the credibility gap between planning and implementation of service delivery.

1.2 ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

This investigation is oriented towards management social research, as it employs a qualitative case study design to investigate the implementation of skills capacity-building efforts in the Sedibeng District Municipality. It achieves this by employing a combination of face-to-face interviews, focus groups, site visits, document analysis and thematic analysis in order to gain profound insights into current practice regarding capacity-building in this area. The case study is investigated holistically to ensure that all its sub-units are considered in the analysis. Given the broad nature of the concept of capacity in the management field, it became necessary to focus on one aspect of capacity, namely skills development. The emphasis here was on the most critical skills such as technical, human and conceptual skills.

1.2.1 Delineation of the study

From the outset, is imperative to define clearly the parameters or boundaries of this study. This research examines skills development as part of capacity building in local government contexts. The intention is to determine if skills development processes enhance performance and service delivery in local municipalities. To achieve this, the study makes use of three local municipalities of Sedibeng, namely Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. The purpose of this research is to focus on all aspects which contributed to the case study identified in this research. By its nature, capacity is a broad and complex concept with many variations and

connotations (Cloete, 2002). However the purpose of this research is to focus on skills capacity in the provision of services in Sedibeng Local Municipalities. For this reason, it was necessary to narrow the scope of the research to skills development as it relates to performance management and service delivery in local government contexts.

The next section will highlight the history of local government within the context of the Sedibeng District Municipality and its three local municipalities, as a chosen area of focus for the study. The background of the study will also focus on the critical management skills required by municipal employees.

1.3 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The background of the research is described in relation to the factors that impact on the basic premise being investigated, namely the State's capacity in the provision of service. Cities and towns in South Africa are relatively young, resulting in the lack of expertise, often within an unstable political economy and a volatile country, which results in a high level of inadequacy in skills and service delivery (Cloete, 1994). The enhancement of local government accountability and the strengthening of public participation in municipal processes should be directed to delivering sound human resource development of both the management and the political role-players to fulfil the needs of South Africa's citizens. In theory, Integrated Development Planning (IDP) is designed to facilitate close interaction between local government and communities in prioritising needs. This resulted from the Local Government Transition Act 209 of 1993, which encouraged the move from a passive and unresponsive approach to a participatory and developmental approach. In many cases, this ideal of collaboration has not always materialised and service delivery has been intermittent at best partly due to limited skills capacity (Kauzya, 2000).

There is both anecdotal and empirical evidence of skills shortages in a number of occupations and economic sectors within South Africa. There is, for instance, an estimated 34% of the South African population with a matriculation qualification (Department of Labour, 2011). Importantly this fact co-exists with a relatively high level of unemployment. There is a tangible problem arising from the mismatch between the supply of educated people and the demand for certain skills in the South African labour market, despite the fact that the South African labour market has increased its demand for semi-skilled labour from 1994 to date (Department of Labour, 2011). As a result individuals are encountering low levels of success in finding employment after successful completion of training. The best way to address this mismatch is to ameliorate the implementation of a comprehensive and credible HRD strategy (HRD-SA, 2010-2030).

1.4 SEDIBENG AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT HISTORY

As the study is located within the local government sphere, it becomes necessary to provide an historical context of the developments that have occurred in the local government sphere since the pre-democratisation process in 1993. This will provide insight into where municipalities come from and where they are now, in particular Sedibeng District Municipality (SDM). This discussion is undertaken within the context of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) and in particular Chapter 7, as outlined by the constitutional mandate of Local Government in respect to status, object and developmental duties, co-operative governance as well as its own development and planning processes.

1.4.1 Transitional period of Local Government in South Africa: 1993

The South African terrain changed dramatically with the unbanning of the liberation movements in 1990. At national level the National Party government entered into a period of intensive negotiations with unbanned movements and other political players between 1990 and 1994. A similar scenario was played out at local level. The unpopularity of the apartheid-based local government had led to the rise of local civic groups which had united to form a national civic movement in the 1980s. The civic groups began negotiating with the apartheid system and called for "one-city–one-tax-base". The civic groups negotiated, *inter alia*, on issues of improved services and access to land. These discussions led to the establishment of the Local Government Negotiating Forum in the pre-1994 period. The product of the Forum was a significant piece of national legislation, the Local Government Transition Act, promulgated in 1993.

The objectives of the Act were to provide for the revised interim measures with a view to promoting the restructuring of local government and for that purpose as well as to provide for the establishment of provincial committees for local government in respect of the various provinces, to provide for the recognition and the establishment of provincial committees for local government in respect of the various provinces. It was also intended to provide for the establishment of the forums in order to ensure the establishment of appropriately appointed transitional councils in the interim phase and to establish Local Government Demarcation Boards for various provinces and to repeal certain laws.

1.4.2 Local Government post-1994

According to the International Republican Institute (1995), the end of 1993 gave rise to the Local Government Negotiation Forum which produced the Local Government Transition Act, together with Chapter 10 of the Interim Constitution of South Africa as well as the Agreement on Finance Services, as signed by Mandela and De Klerk in February 1994. This Act

provides the overall framework for local government transformation. Planact (2001) states that local government, like any other government structure, is governed by the principles and rules laid out in the Constitution. In addition, the Constitution of 1996 describes the framework which other spheres of government must adhere to in interacting with local government. This transitional phase began after the 1995 and 1996 democratic local government elections and ended after the democratic local government elections in December 2000. The main task during this transitional phase was to establish National Policy Frameworks and Legislation for the local government sphere with the aim or eradicating all problems associated with the past. This was a phase of intensive activity which was intended to devise a final, workable model for local government.

The final phase started in the December 2000 elections. This phase poses critical challenges for all the stakeholders in the implementation of the different pieces of legislation drawn up during the transitional phase. The Demarcation Act of 1999 and the Municipal Structures Act of 1998 are designed to ensure the establishment of more representative political structures with significant powers. To peruse the history of local government is to share the archival records of where this level came from and also to understand why the country is still faced with continuing local government challenges. It also aids in understanding the milestones of the perceived local government transformation in South Africa so that the challenges faced by the SDM and its three local municipalities can be conceptualised based on this background.

The Municipal Structures Act (1998) was enacted in December 1998 and provides for the establishment of municipalities. This provided the criteria for determining the categories of municipality to be established, defined the type of municipality, provided for the division of functions and powers among municipal types, and regulated the structures and operations of

municipalities and their office bearers. The Municipal Structures Act (1998) further calls for the introduction of three main types, namely:

- Category A: A municipality that shares a municipal executive and legislative authority in its area and they are called a Metropolitan Council;
- Category B: A municipality that shares a municipal executive and legislative authority in its area with a Category C municipality within whose area it falls; these are called local councils;
- Category C: A municipality that has a municipal executive and legislative authority in an area that includes more than one municipality and has a District Council.

The Sedibeng District Municipality is a Category C municipality which comprises three municipalities, namely Emfuleni, Lesedi and Midvaal Local Municipalities.

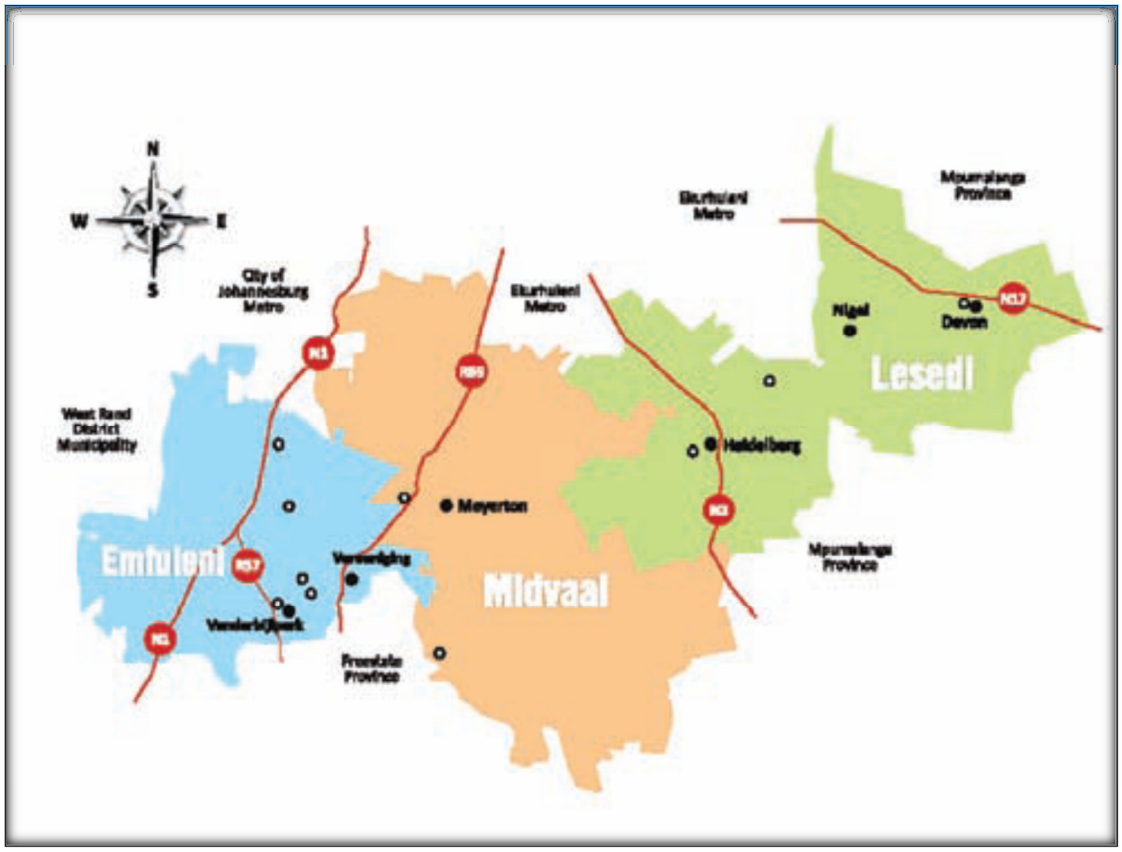
The local sphere of government, like the other organs of the state, has an obligation to promote the rights of citizens as outlined in section 2 of the Constitution. More specifically, section 152(1) delegates responsibility to local government in the promotion of the rights associated with, for example, the environment, water and health care. Similarly, the White Paper on Local Government (1988) defines developmental local government as being committed to working with citizens and groups within the community "to find sustainable ways to meet their social, economic and material needs and improve the quality of their lives." The four key developmental outcomes include the provision of household infrastructure and services; the creation of liveable, integrated urban and rural areas; local economic development; and community empowerment and redistribution.

In relation to the provision of household infrastructure and services, for example, municipalities need to ensure good basic services, the extension of basic services to all, and the provision of affordable and sustainable levels of service. In order to achieve this, municipalities are required to engage in comprehensive planning processes, funding identification and the transformation of their service delivery mechanisms. Competencies such as communication skills, inter-personal skills, strategic thinking, the ability to respond to local specifics and manage diversity, have become more relevant. Moreover, Plummer (2002) appropriately notes that with the reorientation of the municipal process from top-down planning and management to effective governance, the concept of local governance involves a variety of local agents in the sharing of power, with municipal government having a co-ordinating rather than an unchallenged and controlling role. Focusing on these functions, it is evident that local municipalities are also required to develop the capacity needed to deliver services to their constituencies effectively and efficiently. By implication, this means that skills capacity-building is also one of the key capacity needs of municipalities. Below is an overview of the Sedibeng District Municipality.

1.4.3 Overview of the Sedibeng District Municipality

The District Municipality of Sedibeng (DC42) is situated in the southernmost part of Gauteng, some 35 kilometres south of Johannesburg, extending along an axis of 120 kilometres from east to west. The Sedibeng District Council service area contains three local municipalities, namely Lesedi, Emfuleni and Midvaal, as depicted in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Map of Sedibeng District Municipality



Source: Municipal Demarcation Board (2007)

The key consideration that prompted this study is that despite the high level of publicity associated with the area and the new socio-economic policies since 1994, Sedibeng continues to encounter multiple challenges in relation to lack of skills and poor service delivery. For example, despite twenty years of democracy, many citizens in most of Sedibeng's local municipalities remain without basic services such as water and sanitation, housing, education, health care, social welfare, transport and electricity. Government policy on most of these issues is therefore challenged to deliver the above-mentioned services (Sedibeng Annual Report, 2008/2009). Part of the researcher's interest in this area was triggered by the rich political and historical context which surrounds the Sedibeng Municipality. The area is linked to major national events such as the Sharpeville massacre in 1960, the Delmas Six Trial in 1989, and the

Boipatong massacre in 1992. More recently, Sharpeville was selected as the site where South Africa's new Constitution was signed by its first democratically elected former president Nelson Mandela on 8th May 1996. Furthermore, the date of the massacre, March 21st, was promulgated as Human Rights Day in South Africa, and in 2010 government commemorated the 50th anniversary of the Sharpeville massacre. Below is a brief discussion of the demographics of the municipality as presented by Statistics South Africa's Census of 2011.

1.4.4 Population as per Census 2011

According to Statistics SA (2001) the Sedibeng District Municipality population was 796 756 people. Of these, the majority (658 417) lived in the Emfuleni Local Municipality, 64 640 resided in Midvaal, and 73 689 lived in Lesedi. Between 2006 and 2007 population growth in Sedibeng reached approximately 805 436 people (Global Insight, 2009). By 2013 the population of Sedibeng District Municipality which included Lesedi, Emfuleni and Midvaal was 916 484.

1.4.5 Age and education

More than 56.4 per cent of the population in Sedibeng is under the age of 30 while 0.8 per cent falls between the ages of 20 and 29, and 70 per cent falls within the economically active age group of 15 and 64. At the municipal level, Midvaal has a slightly older population with 51.5 per cent of its population being under the age of 30. Midvaal has the highest percentage (71.3 per cent) of the population falling within the economically active age group. With regard to education, there are discrepancies evident at the municipal level. In this regard Midvaal fares best with 34.7 per cent of its population having a Standard 10/Grade 12 or higher level of education. Emfuleni has 32 per cent of its population with an equivalent level of education and Lesedi has only 25.9 per cent of its population with an education level of Standard 10/Grade 12 and above (Bews, 2008).

The level of education attained is also important when dealing with labour force statistics. Not only does it show the level of skills that individuals within an area have obtained but also the numbers and the skills of school leavers that must be absorbed by the labour market in the area (Richardson, 2005). The policy framework and institutional arrangements required to facilitate skills development at local government level are discussed below to lay a foundation for the study.

1.5 POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

There are several policies that have been identified as key policy drivers for skills development in the local government sector. The first policy is the White Paper on Local Government (1988) which was significant in that it articulated the shift towards a developmental local government (LGSeta, 2011).

1.5.1The Local Government Turnaround Strategy (LGTAS) (2009)

The second important policy driver for the LG-Sector is the Local Government Turnaround Strategy (LGTAS) introduced in 2009. The aim of this strategy is to strengthen the ability of municipalities to perform their functions as enshrined in the constitution. A key consideration in this regard is skills development, which is needed to enable municipalities to effectively deliver on their performance contracts and/or mandates. Therefore, the LGTAS is an important policy instrument in promoting skills development in municipalities.

1.5.2 National Skills Development Strategy III (NSDS) (2011-2016)

The National Skills Development Strategy III is the third key policy driver for the sector. The NSDS III is the key strategic policy to guide and to

inform skills development interventions and sector skills planning in all SETAs for the period 2011-2016. Furthermore, the NSDS III has identified seven key developmental and transformative imperatives that include race, class, gender, geography, age, disability, and the HIV and AIDS epidemic that will inform the nature and scope of skills development interventions by SETAs. The strategic objectives and the challenges mentioned in the NSDS III require that municipalities continuously assess the extent to which their human resource development strategies and programmes respond to the skills development needs of the sector.

1.5.3 National Skills Accord (NSA) (2011)

Another important policy initiative that impacts on skills development in the local government sector is the National Skills Accord that was signed to support the New Growth Path target of creating five million jobs by 2020. The Accord presents eight commitments related to training and skills development that need to be implemented by different stakeholders to achieve the New Growth Path. Of importance for the LGSETA and municipalities are Commitments One, Two, Four, Six, Seven and Eight. In this regard, the LGSETA will need to continue as well as intensify its funding support to ensure greater access to relevant skills development opportunities and that municipalities implement the National Skills Accord as planned.

Despite the introduction of the policies mentioned above, however, municipalities continue to experience skills shortages nationwide. This point is corroborated by Pillay (2009) who argues that local government has been unable to attract and maintain the stock of human capital necessary for its effective functioning. This is one of the concerns that prompted the research to investigate skills development as one of the catalyst for service delivery in SDM.

Having considered the policy framework pertaining to skills development, attention will now be focused on the institutional networks established to guide and facilitate implementation of skills programmes in the local government environment.

1.6 INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS FOR SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

(a) Sector Education Authorities (SETAs) (2000)

The SETAs were established in 2000 in accordance with section 9 of the Skills Development Act (1998) to meet the skills needs of the various economic sectors. The main function of SETAs is to promote and contribute to skills development in their respective sectors. They achieve this by ensuring that people learn the skills that employers need. They research and develop sector skills plans which show the types of skills needed in each occupational category, including scarce and critical skills as well as future skills needs. They are also responsible for assessing and granting accreditation to competent training providers; promotion of learnerships; and monitoring and evaluation of learning programmes in their sectors. Currently, there are 21 operating SETAs in South Africa.

(b) The Local Government Seta (LGSeta) (2011-2016)

The LGSeta facilitates skills development interventions aligned to the NSDS III for the local government sector to contribute in the achievement of the strategic outcome a responsive, accountable, effective and efficient local government system. The NSDS III has as its purpose “an explicit commitment to encourage the linking of skills development paths to career paths, career development and promoting sustainable employment.” An emphasis of the NSDS III is on those who lack relevant technical skills for the workplace or adequate reading, writing, and numeracy skills (LGSeta: Sector Skills Plan, 2011-2016).

According to the LGSeta, training in the sector must contribute to effective, efficient, accountable and responsive local government. For this to happen, all training in the local government sector should be aligned to municipal key performance areas and IDP objectives. Training in the sector is categorised by the LGSeta as follows (LGSeta: Sector Skills Plan, 2011-2016): infrastructure and service delivery (which would include community services and emergency services); financial and administrative viability; community based participation and municipal planning; management and leadership (including councillors); Adult Education Training (whilst not linked to municipal key performance areas, it is a fundamental skill without which all learning and possible career development is hindered); and workplace training systems, which includes the training of local labour forum members, shop stewards, skills development facilitators, workplace assessors, mentors etc.

However, at the time of conducting the study, the Director-General of the Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) had published Government Gazette No. 2155 in accordance with section 15(2) of the Skills Development Act 6 to place the LGSeta under Administration on the 20th of March 2013, as directed by the Minister of Higher Education and Training in terms of section 15(1) of the Act, following serious governance and management failures. It is expected that the Administration will address these failures and ensure that the LGSeta becomes a more responsive and well-managed organisation that will carry out its mandate to facilitate skills development for the local government sector (LGSeta Sector Skills Plan, 2013-2016).

(c) South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA)(2008)

The South African Qualifications Authority (Act No. 67 of 2008) was established to oversee the development and implementation of the National Qualifications Framework. The role of SAQA is to advance the objectives of the NQF; oversee the further development of the NQF, co-ordinate the NQF sub-frameworks, register qualifications or part-

qualifications as recommended by a quality assurance body if it meets the relevant criteria, and develop policy and criteria, after consultation with quality councils, for assessment, recognition of prior learning and credit accumulation and transfer. Thus, SAQA plays a critical role in ensuring that skills development programmes produce the desired results by requiring all service providers to deliver accredited training programmes. This requirement also applies to skills development in municipalities.

In light of the institutional arrangements mentioned above, it can be inferred that opportunities exist to promote skills development in municipalities, including SDM, which is a key focus of the study. More importantly, these institutional networks provide the basis for funding and accreditation of skills programmes in municipalities.

1.7 CRITICAL MANAGEMENT SKILLS NEEDS IN MUNICIPALITIES

The literature (Cloete, 2002: Craythorne 2006: Pillay, 2009) specifies the types of skills that are needed to improve employee performance and service delivery in municipalities. Among these, orientation and training in policy analysis and management skills is vital for municipal staff. These include policy process skills i.e. planning, decision-making, implementation – including alternative service delivery approaches and private-public partnership options – and evaluation; as well as sectoral policy skills i.e. local government, water resources, health, energy, environmental, traffic, housing, welfare, tourism, local economic development and other supplementary or relevant policy and managerial skills. Other important areas that require training here include organisational development; financial and human resource management (including negotiations and general labour relations); provisioning and management of diversity; conflict management; communication management and law of contract; and programme and project management skills (Cloete, 2000).

In addition to the skills mentioned above, it also important to consider the ccore competencies for municipal officials as identified in the Guidelines for Municipal Competency Levels including strategic leadership and management, strategic financial management, operational financial management, governance, ethics and values in financial management, risk and change management, project management, legislation, policy and implementation, stakeholder relations, supply chain management and audit and assurance skills.

Armstrong (2013) also identifies other general competencies required to measure all managers in the workplace. These include the following:

(a) Managing oneself which entails making decisions, solving problems, taking the initiative, managing time, improving own performance, working to support the organisation's values and goals
(b) Managing others which mean getting results through people; delegating work; exercising leadership; managing performance, providing feedback; implementing performance management and developing staff.
(c) Managing relationships which involve exerting influence; building and maintaining effective relationships with colleagues and stakeholders, and participating in or implementing the organisational mandates. Positive indicators for this include getting on well with staff and customers and respecting diversity. Similarly Naphiet and Ghoshal (1998) emphasises the importance of interaction between people as a network of relationship that constitutes a valuable resources for the conduct of social affairs of the organisation. Managing relationships according to Drucker (1993) and Argyris (1991) is through the identification of knowledge workers with a high level of specialist skills combined and the ability to apply these skills in sharing that knowledge.

(d) Managing communications, which means communicating orally or in writing to colleagues, customers/clients and external individuals or organisations. Positive indicators in this regard include presenting clearly and effectively to one's audiences; using a language that others understand; acknowledging other people's feelings and emotions and selecting the most appropriate communication methods and tailoring messages to recipients. Kanter and Dretler (1998) argue that human capital should be measured in terms of management competencies, stating the role of effective communication and developing new routes of communication as being of critical importance, whereas McCall and Hollenbeck (2002) and Kuhlmann and Stahl (2001) emphasise the role of tolerance, openness and managing continuous improvement. This entails constantly seeking ways of improving the quality of services, the relevance and appeal of those services to the needs of customers and clients and the effectiveness of support and operational systems and the ability to manage change effectively.

Looking at all the competencies mentioned above, it is evident that multi-skilling of the workforce is crucial in municipalities as they face mounting pressure for high quality services. According to Erasmus, Leadoff, Mda and Nel (2006), multi-skilling means skills development beyond the requirements and scope of current jobs and may involve developing people for future jobs. Northouse (2009) suggests that there are three main skills categories: human, technical and conceptual, and believes that these skills should be developed in managers, which is done by providing them with a set of managerial knowledge bases and methods.

Similarly, Katz (1955) emphasises that managers need all three skills to fulfil their role requirements, but the relative importance and the specific types within each category depend on the leadership situation. Based on the concept of skills as being an ability to translate knowledge into action

in organisations, the three inter-related skills categories that are sought by the study are briefly discussed below.

1.7.1 Human relations skills

Human relations skills are required by all managers at all levels of management in order to lead, motivate and develop team spirit. This skill set is relatively less important for managers at the top level. These are abilities that help a leader to work effectively with subordinates, peers and superiors to accomplish organisational goals (Katz, 1955). The following critical skills are categorised under human skills: problem-solving skills, diversity management skills, communications skills, inter-personal skills and organising skills. Whetten and Cameroon (2007), and Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly and Marks (2000) define problem-solving as a skill that is required of every person in almost every aspect of life. This requires the ability to identify and solve problems by using critical and creative thinking skills. Many of the problems that municipal managers and teams face require high level problem-solving skills such as the ability to negotiate, mediate and settle disputes pertaining to service delivery, and more importantly, the ability to engage communities in a manner that facilitates the identification and prioritisation of their needs.

Diversity management skills are also crucial for managers. According to Cox (1997), managing diversity is a process of creating a climate in which the potential advantages of diversity for organisational or group performance are maximised, while the potential disadvantages are minimised. Diversity management encompasses all forms of differences among individuals, including culture, gender, age, economic class and social status. All these ethnic backgrounds require changing an organisation's focus so that everyone feels welcome and able to participate at the highest level (Adler, 1991).

Nelson and Quick (1997) emphasises that in the South African environment, political affiliation is a subtle but powerful force that plays a critical role in the public service workforce. The continued transformation of the public service implies that public servants will need to be able to work with people from diverse social backgrounds and handle the differing needs of their customers. With diversity management skills, officials and programme personnel will be able to appreciate and embrace cultural differences, including globalisation and a constantly changing workforce, tolerate the views of others, and learn new ideas and techniques which can be used to improve service delivery and client satisfaction.

Managing and leading people imply that managers should have sound communication and interpersonal skills. Samovar, Porter and McDaniel (2011) defines communication as the management of messages with the objective of creating meaning. This requires the ability to communicate orally and in writing using visual, mathematical and language skills**.** Demir (2000) and Yillmaz (2003) further define communication as a message exchange between people, through symbols, emotions, thoughts and knowledge. It is one of the processes that hold the organisation together. The ability to communicate is critical for officials in Sedibeng District Municipality as they have to prepare quantifiable and quality operational plans and forecasts, and generate reports about the budgets and financial performance of their organisations.

Appleby (2000), Johanneson and Frid (2002), as well as Yancey (2001) have found that the most critical job skill a new employee needs is good interpersonal skills. Interpersonal skills and communications skills are often used interchangeably. However, according to Hargie (2010), the former is generally used to refer to the extent to which a manager can communicate with others in a manner that fulfils one's rights, requirements or obligations to a reasonable degree without damaging the other person's similar rights, requirements or obligations. In Golamen's (1995) view, an

individual that fits this description is said to have a high level of emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence is based on two critical dimensions: empathy and self-discipline. This means the ability to work effectively with others as a member of a team, group, organisation or community. In relation to the study, 'people' skills are critical for all personnel in a municipality as they affect working relationships. Officials need to be able to interact constructively with their superiors, colleagues, cross-functional teams, service providers, clients and the general public.

Apart from communication and interpersonal skills, managers also need to demonstrate sound organising skills. In short, organising reflects how an individual tries to accomplish and implement strategic plans. It involves the assignment and grouping of tasks for business functions, the assignment of authority and allocation of resources across the department (Vallabhaneni, 2009). Organising skills further identifies activities and tasks, and allocates tasks to take advantage of the special abilities and skills of the employees so as to use their particular abilities most effectively. This skill empowers managers to establish relationships among all functions of management (Payne-Palacio and Theis, 2011).

Organising skills are required at both the individual and organisational level. At the individual level, managers and programme personnel are expected to organise and use their time efficiently and to use self-motivation to improve their performance and their lives. At the organisational level, managers have to be able to organise and deploy human and material resources to enable achievement of organisational goals. Likewise, municipal officials and staff require organising skills to carry out the range of services which municipalities provide to local communities.

1.7.2 Technical skills

Technical skills deal with specialised activities. It is the knowledge about a specific type of work or activity; it includes competencies, analytical ability to use appropriate tools and techniques. Northouse (2009) and Katz (1974) view technical skills as working with things rather than people, and explain that managers must have technical skills to allow them to train and evaluate subordinates performing specialised tasks. Technical skills also enable managers to work with systems, hence the need for systems skills in both public and private organisations. Technical skills are more important than conceptual skills for lower level managers. In this regard, managers should ideally possess some technical skills to discharge their responsibilities. Technological literacy skill relates to the ability of a person to use, manage, understand and evaluate science and technology effectively and critically, showing responsibility towards the environment (Kalfsbeek, 2007). As the public service increasingly turns to modern management and work practices, officials and programme personnel will need to acquire technological literacy skills with which to process, convey, share, store, update and retrieve information. Technological literacy is critical for effective knowledge management and institutional memory in municipalities. The paragraph considers conceptual skills in light of the research study.

1.7.3 Conceptual skills

Conceptual skills enable managers to see the organisation as a whole or to have a systematic viewpoint. More recent terms such as systems thinking, according to Senge (1990), have been used to describe the conceptual skills category. Yukl (2002) states that conceptual skills focus on ideas and concepts and are considered mental abilities that allow the manager to understand the interaction between different work units within

the organisation, the effect of changes on any part of the organisation, and how the organisation fits into the broader system.

These skills promote the ability to visualise the organisation as a whole which includes analytical, creative and initiative skills. It helps the manager to identify the causes of problems and not the symptoms. Conceptual skills involve the ability of combining technical skills with human skills (Katz, 1995). A leader with conceptual skills is comfortable making decisions about the ideas that shape the organisation. They are central to creating a vision and strategic plan for an organisation.

According to Northouse (2001), conceptual skills are strategic to top management levels and are necessary as people admire leaders who challenge them to think, learn and be open to new thinking. They are needed to lead the research contribution, according to Senge (1990), who explains that system thinking is a methodology that is effective in solving the most difficult types of problems: those involved in complex situations, those who depend on the past or on the actions of others, and those stemming from ineffective co-ordination. This means the ability to understand the world as a set of inter-related systems rather than a set of isolated contexts.

Similarly, Aronson (1994) provides specific examples of areas where systems thinking has added value. The first relates to complex problems that involve helping as many contributors as possible, seeing the big picture instead of just a section. Another relates to recurring problems, and lastly, there are issues whose solutions are not obvious. As officials in SDM are faced with complex, multi-level and wide-ranging challenges about service delivery, they need to be conversant with systems thinking skills in order to deliver municipal services that include health care, water, sanitation, electricity and housing.

According to Neuman (2000), research skills are grouped with conceptual skills and the ability to deal with ideas, and focus on the goal of empowerment, while raising consciousness and increasing awareness. This conceptual skill equips public service officials and their teams to be able to collect, analyse, organise and critically evaluate information pertaining to public policy, programmes and projects. Effective analysis and evaluation of public policy depends on the correct application of quantitative and qualitative data analysis tools and processes. Therefore building research capacity to support service delivery in SDM is one of the most important considerations for local government.

All the skills mentioned previously are essential for effective service delivery in municipalities, as they explain the underlying elements of effective performance (Mumford, Zaccoro, Connelly and Marks, 2000). The research problem concerning skills capacity in the provision of services in SDM is expanded on below.

1.8 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

According to Kagwanja and Kondlo (2009), the South African government faces serious capacity challenges which retard service delivery and outcomes. Although progress has been made in service delivery since 1994, many municipalities struggle to deliver basic services such as water, sanitation, housing and electricity to communities (Vil-Nkomo, 1997). Vil-Nkomo (1997) supports the White Paper on Human Resources Management in the Public Service with the view that slow service delivery is attributed to factors such as weak implementation arrangements, limited skills capacity and the inability of many municipalities to attract and retain suitably qualified personnel.

Ncube (2009) concurs with this view, noting that service delivery bottlenecks are caused by the lack of performance management and

talent retention systems in municipalities. This suggests that there is a skills deficit in many of these institutions, which in turn stifles delivery. Erasmus, Loedolff, Mda and Nel (2006) argue that knowledge and skills are two of the most important factors that will positively influence economic growth, political stability and social success in South Africa. In a similar vein, Naidoo and Kuye (1994) point out those critical issues such as skills and the development of a skills audit base are important for the determination of the issues which impact on the current debates around service delivery in South Africa.

According to Van Vuuren, Grobler and Pelupessy (2008), a serious problem in SDM is the high rate of non-attendance (29%) at schools or other educational facilities. The problem is most severe in Midvaal (38%), followed by 31 per cent in Lesedi and 27 per cent in Emfuleni. Bews (2008) confirms that SDM faces a number of challenges in tackling social issues such as poverty, unemployment, poor skills and education levels, HIV/AIDS and crime. While government, and the latest debates from the Local Government Turnaround Strategy (2009), have noted that lack of skills is one of the major constraints which impede service delivery in municipalities and presupposes the need for rapid skills development in both the public and private sectors, little is known about the reasons for the continued shortage of skilled personnel in local municipalities.

1.9 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this explanatory study is to examine the limited skills capacity of SDM in order to establish if available skills development opportunities are being harnessed to improve service delivery and outcomes. The findings may help deepen the understanding of the role of skills capacity in the provision of services at local government level.

1.10 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The key questions that this research attempts to address are:

a) What is the state of skills capacity in Sedibeng District Municipality?

The above question is essential to establish the status quo with regard to skills capacity in SDM's three local municipalities. This was geared to uncover the current skills levels, skills types (in relation to human, technical and conceptual skills), the demand and supply of skills as well as the deficit that the SDM faces in relation to service delivery.

b) How are skills development initiatives used to enhance service delivery?

This question is intended to establish the process followed to initiate skills development in the SDM. Consideration of the process is crucial because a skills development effort in South Africa needs to be aligned with the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) to ensure compatibility and labour mobility. Other crucial processes are in relation to the co-ordination of the internal human resource skills strategic planning and implementation processes.

c) Why is performance management crucial for skills capacity building?

The above question will assess whether there is a relationship between training efforts and performance enhancement. This is important because the literature in the background and the problem statement suggest a disjuncture between skills needs and service delivery. More importantly this provides insight into whether municipal employees are rewarded for acquiring additional skills, which is integral to staff motivation, growth and retention.

The three questions above indicate the scope of the main issues that the research attempts to address concerning skills capacity in the selected municipalities.

1.11 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study aims to achieve the following objectives:

1. To find out if there was adequate skills capacity to drive service delivery.
2. To determine the process followed to implement skills capacity-building programmes at the municipal and community levels.
3. To learn whether skills capacity-building efforts had been justified to improve employee performance and the provision of basic services to local communities in the area.

1.12 ADDRESSING THE KNOWLEDGE GAP

This thesis generates knowledge in several areas. Firstly, it provides insight into how to uncover the current skills levels, skills types (in relation to human, technical and conceptual skills), demand and supply of skills as well as the deficit that the SDM faces with regard to service delivery.

Secondly, the research investigates the process followed to initiate skills development in the SDM. Consideration of process was crucial because the skills development effort in South Africa needs to be aligned with the NQF to ensure compatibility and labour sustainability.

Thirdly, there is a revelation of the relationship between training efforts and performance enhancement. This is important because the literature in the problem statement suggests a disjuncture between skills needs and service delivery. More importantly, this provided insight as to whether

municipal employees expect to be rewarded for acquiring additional skills, which is integral to staff motivation, growth and staff retention.

The nature of the articulation between international bodies that promote skills capacity-building is explored by examining the dynamic nature in which this manifests itself in management practice within the three municipalities, and the extent to which skills capacity in municipalities is perceived as enabling the developmental state to achieve service delivery. Finally, although the research topic is based on Sedibeng District Municipality, it is important to note that the data gathering and analysis processes focused on three local municipalities of this three-case study, namely Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. This is because the district municipality is mandated to perform facilitative and oversight roles, while local municipalities are responsible for programme implementation. Given the rationality, it was therefore crucial to collect the data from the implementing agencies as opposed to the district office. Through this research, insight is provided into the configuration of the three municipalities through a comprehensive investigation undertaken to enable in-depth analysis of the case study.

The research will contribute to the current debate about the need to scale up service delivery through capacity-building in local municipalities. In this way, it will help increase policy-makers' understanding of the dynamics impacting service delivery systems and processes at local government level. It will also help bring to the fore some of the valuable lessons gleaned from international experience on skills capacity in the delivery of services. In undertaking this research endeavour, the researcher is inspired by the realisation that unless more time, effort and resources are spent to build the critical skills capacity required to enhance service delivery processes in municipalities, the goal of achieving a "better life for all" might diminish, possibly resulting in more violent eruptions in many

local municipalities across South Africa. If this happens, both the credibility and legitimacy of the state may be irreparably tarnished.

1.13 REPORT OUTLINE

Chapter One: Study orientation

The chapter introduces the study by explaining its background, rationale and purpose. This chapter also elucidates the critical questions that the study seeks to answer in relation to skills capacity in SDM and shows how this relates to service delivery and outcomes. The main focus in this chapter is to show why skills capacity is such an important issue at local government level.

Chapter Two: Understanding the state capacity in the provision of services

This chapter reviews the literature on the capacity of the state in the provision of services, and provides the common capacity building models, processes and strategies as useful tools in the enhancement of service delivery. Performance management is presented as a tool to effectively determine if skills initiatives are linked with performance management. Lessons from the European Council are explored and benchmarked with the South African Local Government capacity-building initiative

Chapter Three: Conceptual Framework

This chapter presents the theoretical and conceptual framework. It articulates relevant and important management theories, performance management and leadership theories as theories providing the framework for understanding the changes taking place in organisations in respect of management practices and service delivery strategies and processes. The theories also provide a guide in terms of how people's management practices have evolved over the years and what municipalities can learn from these.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

This chapter presents the research methodology employed by the study, including research design, selected case municipality, and justification of the case approach, sampling and sample size and methods of data collection, and the techniques to be employed in data analysis. This chapter also considers issues of validity and reliability, as well as privacy, anonymity and confidentiality.

Chapter Five: The state of skills capacity in Sedibeng District Municipality

The data collected from the respondents in SDM's three local municipalities is presented. The data relates to the state of skills capacity in the municipalities, linkages between skills building, performance management, service delivery and outcomes, as well as opportunities and challenges that the SDM faces in relation to human resource development. The overarching goal of this chapter is to demonstrate if SDM utilises available policy avenues and resources to bolster skills capacity to ensure effective service delivery.

Chapter Six: Skills capacity effects in Sedibeng District Municipality

This chapter provides an in-depth analysis of the data collected from the case study Municipality. This is achieved through a range of qualitative data analysis techniques, such as comparing and constructing empirical evidence with theoretical evidence in order to identify common patterns and emerging trends from the data and establish the link between data and the problem statement. This analysis also reveals how skills capacity affects service delivery in SDM.

Chapter Seven: The role of skills capacity in Sedibeng District Municipality

An integrated, refined summary of the research results is presented. The view demonstrates the relationship between skills capacity-building, leadership and governance, performance management and service delivery in Sedibeng. From this discussion it is clear as to what opportunities and challenges the municipality faces in relation to skills capacity-building and the importance of other related variables. The emerging theories after the data analysis are tabled in this chapter.

1.14 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The context and justification of the research has been explained. The key focal point of this research was to examine the state capacity in the provision of basic services by focusing on the skills capacity-building programme of SDM's three local municipalities, namely Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

Following from the above, this section provides the context and rationale for the study, and elucidates the research problem which revolves around skills capacity-building in the provision of services in local government. As custodians of service delivery, municipalities are required to develop the capacity needed to deliver high quality services to citizens. Therefore it is assumed that skills building constitute an effective mechanism for creating a highly competent and flexible workforce that can help municipalities cope with the service delivery challenges arising in their constituencies.

This chapter also provided the background of the study followed by the problem statement, research questions, the significance and the objectives of the study and finally the organisation of the study. The next chapter presents the literature review that informs the research.

CHAPTER TWO

CAPACITY BUILDING IN SEDIBENG DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This review focuses on the relationship between capacity building, leadership and governance, performance management, monitoring and evaluation, the importance of management skills and their relevance to the study. References to the international literature in skills capacity-building models were also considered for purposes of benchmarking and deriving lessons that are pertinent to the study.

The main purpose of the review will be, among other things, to demonstrate a familiarity with a body of knowledge and establish credibility; to show the path of prior research and how a current project is linked to it; to integrate and summarise what is known in an area; and to learn from others and stimulate new ideas (Neuman, 2006). This process includes, according to Terreblanche and Durrheim (1999), identifying potentially relevant sources, an initial assessment of these, thorough analysis of selected sources and the construction of an account integrating and explaining relevant sources.

The information will deepen understanding of the role of capacity-building in improving skills levels, community participation and service delivery at local government level. Below is a clarification of concepts relating to skills capacity building.

2.2 THE CONTEXT OF CAPACITY BUILDING

As capacity-building forms the core of the study, it may be appropriate to begin this section by clarifying two points. Firstly, it is acknowledged that capacity is a wide-ranging concept with multiple connotations attached to it. Secondly, given the complex nature of this concept, the research will therefore focus on skills development because it is assumed that skills-building is vital in driving superior performance and ensuring effective service delivery. According to Ogilvie (2003), the concept of capacity-building developed from recognition of the need to embrace a wider view that went beyond economic and institutional development to include the development of physical, human, organisational, social and cultural resources. The UNDP (1997) defines capacity building as the process by individuals, groups, organisations, institutions and countries to develop their ability individually and collectively to perform a function, solve problems, and achieve objectives.

Having clarified the position adopted by the study, attention is now given to the nature and meaning of capacity building. The contribution of Hall (2002) suggests capacity building is not an ideal or general approach. This is reflected in the multiple definitions that various scholars have generated in attempting to explain the intricacies surrounding this concept. Tyler (2004) defines capacity as a tool to improve capabilities to achieve an individual or organisational goal. An earlier definition can be found in Jurie (2007), who views the concept of capacity as the inherent endowment possessed by individuals or organisations to achieve their fullest potential. According to Lappe and Bubois (1994), capacity also involves empowerment: “We cannot realise our values or goals without power. Power is the ability to act publicly and effectively, to bring about positive change, to build hope.”

Scholars such as Loza (2004), Janeiro (1992) and UNCED (1992) confirm the UNDP (1997) input and support the view that capacity-building has five focal areas, namely human resource development, research advocacy, information access, organisational development, and financial stability.

Publications from official agencies such as the UNDP (1998), academic writers like Fowler (1995) and Lipson (2006) agree that capacity-building cannot be readily defined and is a complex human process that involves changes in relationship between elements of open systems, shifts in power and identity, capacity for 'people acting together to take control over their own lives' and an indigenous process ('formed from within') that involves the main actor taking responsibility for the process of change. The concept of local ownership has become the cornerstone of development thinking.

The literatures (UNDP, 1998; Zadek, 2001; Loza, 2004) outline the capacity-building strategies and classify them into four groups: the technical and organisational approach, the systems network approach, the social approach, and the political approach. The technical and organisational approach is the traditional approach which changed its dimensions in the 1980s and addresses the environmental issues which resulted in growing awareness that individual organisations did not have the capabilities to address their problems. This resulted in a change in the nature of capacity-building towards a systems and network approach that considered organisations' external and contextual influences that require stronger stakeholder engagements and their relationships where their systems or networks work together to bring about organisational objectives.

The social networks are fundamental in bringing out these improvements and organisational goals. This approach arises from identifying the need to build and promote partnerships and collaboration which recognises that

capacity-building is as much personal as it is technical and organisational in nature. Finally, the political approach in the SDM addresses the role of governance because without having a stable and supportive political environment, it will be difficult to implement or encourage any capacity-building approach.

From the above definitions of skills capacity and strategies, it is clear that there is the concept of capability which is sometimes used interchangeably with capacity, and is further clarified below (Jurie, 2007).

2.2.1 Capability

According to Franks (1999), there is no review that can be tabled without differentiating between capacity and capability, although it is frequently found that many articles use these terms interchangeably. Franks (1999) makes a clear distinction by defining capability as the knowledge, skills and attitude of the individual, separately or as a group, and the competency to undertake the responsibilities assigned to them. Frank's (1999) definition is in line with the World Bank (1997) which defines capability as the ability to undertake and promote collective action of whatever nature and its consequences, whereas capacity is the ability to use available capability to meet the concerns and the objectives of the organisation. Likewise, local government institutions need sufficient and reliable skills capacity to be able to meet their service delivery mandates. Friedman (2004) and Horton (2000) contend that capacity-building has given rise to a number of capability models, all of which attempt to explain the concept of capacity and capability elements. These are considered below.

2.2.2. Capability model

The fact is that “knowing how” does not always translate into “being able to” tap into cognitive capacity. Moving from knowledge through a critical evaluation of capacities does not ensure effective performance, since the individual must have continued capabilities as well (Gibbs, 2002). There are levels that constitute the tripartite model which comprises capabilities, intermediate capabilities and overarching capabilities.

a) Underpinning capabilities

These are capabilities that are expected as a consequence of primary and secondary education.

b) Intermediate capabilities

These are capabilities that are most associated with capacity-building at work, capacity-building in occupation-specific roles, and generic capabilities relevant to most jobs in personal development.

c) Overarching capabilities

These are capabilities associated with productive people and productive organisations. Their essence is that they all relate to people taking responsibility rather than being instructed. These are capabilities that need to be developed in concrete workplace situations and cannot be learned and developed in other circumstances. They are relevant to all employees and are not confined to management (Parson, 1997).

The tripartite model confirms the levels of capabilities that are essential for employability, that can be taught and that are required for improving organisational performance. However, the problems of measurement, accuracy and verifiability must also be taken into consideration (Harvey, 1999).

The importance of this model is that it incorporates the concept of performance, which, together with skills development, drives service

delivery in any organisation. Organisational effectiveness and efficiency is more likely to increase if managers and employees are empowered through continuous training and coaching in municipalities.

2.2.3 Competency

Competency is a combination of tacit and explicit knowledge, behaviour and skills that gives someone the potential for effectiveness in task performance. The competency model is a narrative description of the competencies required for targeted job category departments or other units. The use of competency models in HRM integrates HR activities. In fact, competencies are the common link among the majority of human resource systems. By linking human resources processes to desired competencies, organisations can shape the capabilities of their workforces and achieve better results. Donzelli, Alfaro, Walsh and Vandermissen (2006) suggest that it may be possible for an organisation to build on-going snapshots of the overall knowledge and capital skills portfolio of its workforce which the organisation may then be able to utilise to reduce training costs, improve staff retention and deploy their capital more effectively (Gangani, McLean and Breden, 2006).

The competency approach to human resource management is not new. McClelland (1973) describes competency as the characteristics underlying superior performance. Robbins, Bradley and Spicer (2001) defines competency as a set of skills, knowledge or abilities that enable people to successfully perform their jobs. Competency has been defined by a number of scholars in contributing to a more complete understanding of the different aspects that this term incorporates. Marrelli (1998) defines competencies as measurable human capabilities that are required for effective work performance demands. In addition, DuBois (1998) highlights that competencies are those characteristics, knowledge, skills and mind-set which can be used either singularly or in various combinations for successful performances. Jackson and Schuler (2003)

agree with DuBois (1998) define competencies as the skills that complement knowledge abilities and other characteristics that individuals needs to perform a job effectively.

Bennour, and Crestani (2007) expands the definition by indicating that competencies are not themselves resources in the sense of knowing how to act, or knowing how to do, but they mobilise, integrate and co-ordinate such resources. This mobilisation is only pertinent in one situation, and each situation is unique. There are different types of competencies. For example, McCrackin (1998) argues that competencies are generally organised into three main categories. The first is the core competency category; this competency forms the basis for strategic direction and refers to the elements of behaviour that are important for all employees to possess as it is results-orientated. The second category is leadership or a managerial competency; this category involves competencies that relate to leading an organisation and people to achieve the organisation's objectives. The third category is functional competencies; this is aligned to those that are required to perform in a particular job role or profession (Ozcelik and Ferman, 2006).

Deducing from the above information, competency based HRM is a core strategy to help align internal behaviour and skills with the strategic direction of the organisation as a whole. Organisations like the Sedibeng District Municipality must realise that if skilfully handled, the competency model can lead to individual and organisational performance enhancement.

2.3 PRINCIPLES OF GOOD CAPACITY BUILDING

Official agencies (UNDP, 2006), academic writers (Morgan, 2006; Fowler, 2013), international NGOs and practitioners (James and Wrigley, 2007) all agree that capacity-building is a complex human process that involves

change in the relationship between the elements of open systems. This interaction involves shifts in power and identity; it is an endogenous process formed from within and involves the main actor taking responsibility for the process of change (James and Hailey, 2007). From this background, it is suggested that the following generic principles underpin the study: capacity-building is about change, it is a process of making things better by adding value and developing new talents.

2.3.1 Capacity building as a process

According to the OECD (2006), effective capacity-building is the result of the interplay between individual, organisational, network and institutional factors. It is difficult to plan in advance which steps will need to be taken or which dynamics will evolve, but planning is nevertheless essential to develop a shared vision and strategy. Its development can be pursued and facilitated by a process of action learning and continuous adaptation of interventions in the light of experience. Capacity-building entails the sustainable creation, utilisation and retention of the abilities of individuals and organisations.

The challenge for leaders and managers in local municipalities in particular is to recognise the stages of development and help teams to progress through them successfully. Gersick (1991) and Tuckman and Jensen (1977) identify the developmental stages that teams go through. Each stage has its own characteristics with distinct forms of leadership and different behaviours as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Group Development Stages

Stage of development	Team activity
Forming	Get acquainted Task defined Rules established
Storming	Dealing with conflict/misunderstandings as values are debated,
Norming	Issues are conflicted Spirit of co-operation Culture established
Performing.	Group self-management Autonomy Team unity Problem solving
Reforming	Evaluation of the process

Source: Tuckman and Jensen (1977)

The development through these stages is never linear. 'Norming' and 'storming' in particular can be a lengthy and circular process. It is an axiom of group development that most groups prefer to avoid the difficult aspects of 'norming' and 'storming' and claim that they have moved effortlessly to the 'performing' stage. However, unless the difficulties or tensions (about resources, responsibilities and leadership) are addressed, the group will operate at a sub-optimal level because the level of trust and confidence necessary to perform well will be missing (Tuckman and Jensen, 1977). The stages of team development often have to accelerate in practical teams and studies of practical teams suggest that the first two stages, 'forming' and 'storming' are best accomplished at the same time and in the same place. Bringing people together for a couple of days of team building can help teams move rapidly to the 'performing' stage (Young, 1998).

2.4 THE CAPACITY BUILDING PROCESS

James and Hailey (2007), Pearson (2009) and Ogilvie (2003) suggest that capacity-building is an on-going process that occurs over time and should be perceived as a process as opposed to a single intervention. The overarching goal of capacity development is to ensure the growth, success and sustainability of the organisation. The capacity-building process, according to Korten (1990), Stamberg (1997) and Fisher (1998), set out the key issues and steps which need to be considered in any capacity-building process, as well as guidance on the key tools and techniques which can be used. Given this, it needs to be established how the chosen municipality deals with capacity-building in its constituency.

Based on the above, this section highlights that the capacity-building issues in multi-partner research consortia cannot be undertaken by research directors with a few hours to spare. Professionals in the field need to be involved from the outset. How much time is needed will, of course, depend on the size and complexity of the partnerships. The research suggests that a five-step process be considered. The key steps are depicted in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2: Capacity building process

Source: Kirkpatrick (1994).

a) Capacity assessment:

This concerns the identification of the main strengths and weaknesses of the research and institutional framework at the individual, organisational and institutional levels (Pearson, 2009). The capacity assessment must start with an appraisal of the current research and institutional framework; it is an essential part of the inception phase. Such an analysis should focus as much on identifying assets, or areas of relative strength, as weaknesses. In general, it is easier to build on the former than to transform the latter. This analysis should include an assessment of the position at the three levels, namely individual, organisational and institutional. The three inter-dependent categories of capacity-building comprise formal systems in relation to infrastructure, resources, knowledge and skills. The informal systems and organisational culture are less tangible including the perception of staff and leadership. These two aspects should, as far as possible, be conducted as a collaborative exercise with key partners (McKay, Horton, Dupleich and Anderson,

2002). Capacity-building begins with a shared and explicit awareness of individual, organisational and institutional strengths and weaknesses in all partner teams and organisations. According to Lusthaus, Anderson and Murphy (1993), contextual and organisation information must be obtained before plans for capacity-building are undertaken, and performance and the assessment must include appropriate organisational representation.

b) Strategy and Planning:

According to Galpin (1997), this step is a formal process of choosing the organisation's vision, mission and overall long and short term goals. It involves planning the detailed activities required to deliver the programme outcomes, costs and time-frames, and monitoring and evaluation arrangements which will include organisational mapping and establishing a capacity baseline. Steps one and two would normally be undertaken and reported on during the inception stage. Planning a capacity-building intervention in a research environment should initially be structured around the desired outcomes and understanding the risks and uncertainties associated with the plan (Hill and Jones, 1998). This requires taking each programme outcome and constructing a list of key activities to deliver the outcome.

c) Implementation:

This step of the approach builds on the values of active participation, learning by doing, and respect for diversity. The section sets out the key roles of the research partners in supporting capacity-building processes and highlights some examples of actions at each of the three levels-individual, organisational and institutional-which can contribute to effective capacity building (Watson, 2006). Capacity-building is often thought of in terms of machines, and the bolting on of different parts to form a whole. Some elements of capacity (formal training, equipment, even managerial mentoring) can be supplied in this way. Due to the fact that capacity-building has to take account of politics and power relations, the process is

as much about negotiation and accommodation as it is about the supply of resources and tangible assets.

Therefore, in seeking to support capacity-building processes, it is essential that external actors are able to identify the factors that can stimulate or inhibit capacity-building; and which will differ from one context to another and evolve over time. The implementation stage must balance the requirement to build ownership, motivation, professional pride and respect for high research standards with the specific inputs and outputs identified in the planning stage. Successful implementation requires considerable skills, particularly in the field of Organisation Development (OD).

d) Monitoring and Evaluation:

According to Bee and Bee (2003), too often capacity-building programmes are devised and implemented at great expense with no verifiable results. Monitoring and evaluation is a frequently omitted component of capacity-building initiatives in reforming organisations. Organisations do not usually evaluate their capacity-building, and even if they do, they lack systematic methods of doing so. It is strongly urged that capacity-building should be fully evaluated to verify whether the organisational objectives have been met. In order to be most effective, the evaluation method should be designed early on in the strategic planning phase.

There are four levels of evaluating whether a capacity-building initiative has achieved its objectives (Harris, 2005). These are the reaction level, training level, performance level, and results level. The reaction level relates to obtaining the views of beneficiaries about capacity-building through questionnaires that look at the trainer's performance, the method and training materials used. The training level evaluation measures and assesses whether the beneficiaries have achieved the learning objective. The data derived from the reaction level and training level ought to assist

in identifying areas of failure and success as well as providing useful interventions and modifications to the capacity-building programme.

Performance level evaluation is the most important test of effectiveness of the training as a capacity-building measure. It is an external level validation process which assesses whether the learning objectives have met the needs of the beneficiaries, in terms of being able to perform specific tasks to identify standards. The process of external monitoring, assessment and validation according to Lusthaus, *et al.,* (1993) should be considered once the beneficiaries have had sufficient opportunity to put into practice what they have learned during capacity-building programmes. The data gathered should lead to amendments and changes being made to the programme.

The results level is the most important level since it attempts to assess the final impact of capacity-building on the organisation's terms of achievement of key priorities and objectives. It is also a very difficult phase to verify as it will be required to identify links between positively verified improvement in performances and in the capacity-building intervention.

e) Review and adjustment:

The data from monitoring and evaluation enables management to review and adjust the capacity-building programme in order to accommodate the changing needs of internal and external customers, including beneficiaries. Reviewing capacity-building programmes requires the inputs of all key stakeholders in the organisation, including line managers and employees (Fowler, 2013; Lipson, 2006).

Given the five steps of capacity-building mentioned above, it would be helpful to consider the key categories involved in capacity-building, which are individual, organisational, institutional and environmental capacity-building constituents, as summarised below.

2.5 CATEGORIES OF CAPACITY

a) Individual capacity:

According to Philbin (1996), the potential and competency, or lack thereof that is found within a person, which is normally reflected through their specific technical and generic skills, knowledge, attitudes and behaviour is accumulated through forms of education, training, experience, networks and values. Individual capacity is therefore directly linked to this research problem for municipal expectation.

b) Institutional capacity:

It is the potential and competency, or lack thereof, found within the entire institution and in this case it is the local government institution. According to Jones and Young (2007) it is a build-up of the individual, organisation which includes human resource collective individual capacities, strategic leadership, organisational purpose, orientation. The positive implementation of everyone's capabilities enhances the institutional memory, its internal confidence, partnerships and inter-governmental relations, powers and functions. Walters (2007), further posit an institutional analysis framework which incorporates four functions which are relevant to the research topic that institutions are a way of bringing meaning to our lives over what individuals and organisations should or could do.

c) Environmental capacity:

According to Janicke (1997) and Honadle (1981) this relates to the potential and competency, or lack thereof, found outside municipalities' 'formal' structures. They are elements that, as a municipality, one has little or no influence or direct impact upon, but which may be needed or can be harnessed and acted upon. Philbin (1996) includes within environmental capacity the socio-economic factors such as tax base, demographic composition, political, legislative and social capital within communities,

ecological, geographical, non-municipal infrastructure, natural, mineral and environmental aspects and non-municipal resources. As mentioned in chapter one, the study was also aimed at discovering whether skills development opportunities had been extended to local communities in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi municipalities.

2.6 CAPACITY BUILDING AT COMMUNITY LEVEL

Capacity-building at the community level can be defined as the formulation of plans and strategies in support of sustainable development in areas such as health, education, the environment and human settlements (McGinty, 2003; UNCED, 2005). Furthermore, community capacity-building is a process and means through which national and local government develop the necessary skills and expertise to manage the environment and the natural resources in a sustainable manner within their daily lives with the main focus of developing people's capacity to achieve sustainable livelihoods and the emphasis on developing the skills and performance of both individuals and institutions. Based on this logic, it follows therefore that skill capacity-building can play a major role in enabling communities to participate actively in service delivery in SDM.

Similarly, Eade and Williams (1996) point out that for communities to participate meaningfully in service delivery efforts, communities should know what participation means, their role in it, how it is going to change their lives, what activities they can participate in; and how they can negotiate or mediate issues and disputes in order to strengthen their own values and priorities in relation to service delivery. This suggestion, according to Mayer (1994), is that municipal leaders, managers and employees should acquire skills with which to engage communities to ensure effective and meaningful community participation in the planning and delivery of services. Without capacity-building, communities are merely collections of individuals acting without concern for the common

good, and are without the necessary ingredients required to develop a healthier community.

According to Cloete and Wissink (2000), the aims of community participation are to influence the outcomes of policy activities or programmes and obtain as many benefits as possible from the results of those activities. Community participation can consist of four types of involvement, namely direct involvement in discussions to find solutions or agreement on critical issues affecting the community; direct involvement in planning; drafting implementation; and evaluation of policy programmes once the decision to adopt them has been taken.

2.7 EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNITY CAPACITY BUILDING

An important question to interrogate is how a community will know when capacity has been built. As Graig (2002) observes, community capacity development with its emphasis on empowerment and participation is not only concerned with what happens as a result of a particular intervention, but also how it happens; in other words, not only meeting the needs of a community but also meeting them in a particular way. The outcomes have to be linked with process goals.

A framework for evaluating community capacity development needs to draw on a wide range of data. Numerical data is important, hence the need for officials to be capacitated in conceptual skills with particular reference to research and systems thinking skills as noted by Russell (1996), who observes that many community programmes have begun to develop innovative measures which reflect the values of community development. According to Carley (1995), the criteria for evaluating an organisation's approach to community participation includes representatives, which is participation by all interested persons without exclusion; effectiveness, which is doing things that need to be done,

including negotiating good ideas for communities; and internal and externally legitimate matters being supported within and accepted by external stakeholders.

Community dilemmas on capacity-building will not be acceptable to everyone. Their critiques are based on a challenge to organisations working with local communities who question the motive of promoting the community capacity-building from the top or higher levels of management. Beresford and Hoban (2005) argues that capacity-building to promote and develop people's confidence, self-esteem and understanding supports their participation and is not the same as skills development to equip people to work in the way organisations work. Diamond (2004) notes that the capacity-building approach to communities by other authorities actually marginalises alternative views seek to co-opt activists and through this practice individualise rather than collectivises the experiences of the local communities. Similarly, Mowbrey (2005) and Partridge (2005) note that governments made funding available in effect only to those communities with pre-existing well established structures, ensuring that any activities which might be regarded as political were excluded from the initiative, and then claiming credit for the action and plans of the participating communities. The ability of a community to act on its own behalf and work on issues identified by themselves is sometimes compromised by government's own political agendas.

The presentation of community capacity-building from the perspective of community values suggests communities as somehow deficient in certain skills and capacities that are needed to enable themselves to engage effectively with local government representatives. According to Taylor (1995), however, communities do have skills, capacities and ideas which are often concealed because local representatives come with their agendas which are imposed. This in the main contributes to community participation and empowerment. The same principle applies to Emfuleni,

Midvaal and Lesedi. It was important to find out if capacity-building efforts included all stakeholders, such as, for example, political office bearers and local communities. Having explained how community capacity-building can be evaluated, attention will now be focused on capacity-building challenges.

2.8 CAPACITY BUILDING CHALLENGES

Studies of capacity-building differentiate between different levels and dimensions. Batley (1999), Bennett (1999) and the UNDP (1998) identify three levels: the micro (individual), meso (organisational) and the macro (systemic). The concept of levels does not imply that capacities must be tackled at every level in a single programme, but suggests the need to identify the limiting factors. A challenge from one level may have implications for the whole system. Benette (1999), further notes that an effective utilisation of capacities may be influenced by external factors, the external and internal factors, according to Benette (1999), are summarised in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Internal and external factors impacting capacity building

Internal factors	External factors
Human resources in terms of hiring, training and re training	Financial and economic factors
Management which must set clear guiding principles which are supported by organisational and administrative structures	Institutional e.g. rules and regulations, legislation and management practices
Financials by acquiring funding, the efficient and the use of financial management systems	Political and social influences
Information systems, effective systems which are supporting clear communication	Inter organisational relationships e.g. public- private partnerships

Source: Benette and Mills (1988)

From Table 2 above it is evident that a combination of human, material, structural and management issues can affect capacity-building in an organisation, including policies and regulations from the organisation's external environment. In this research it was necessary to establish if SDM had taken advantage of the opportunities presented by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) Act and the National Skills Development Act to improve the implementation of skills development efforts.

Ogiogio and Sako (2002) concur with Benette and Mills (1999) that capacity-building challenges include inadequate financial resources; ineffective co-ordination of capacity-building efforts, resulting in duplication of support; insufficient commitment by governments, leading to weak ownership, leadership and sustainability of the capacity building process; continuing preference for traditional technical assistance by some donors and African governments; and inflexibility in donor policies and practices.

According to Collins (1997), capacity-building and institutional developments have tended to focus on the supply side, namely training, equipment and technical assistance. Because they have not had much effect on incentives and have addressed corruption only indirectly, in difficult environments, these efforts have tended to fail. Strong leadership and good governance are regarded as the answer in addressing the challenges mentioned above and the leadership and governance role is discussed below.

2.9 THE IMPORTANCE OF LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE

The performance of any organisation is directly related to the quality of its leadership. The point of contention is that effective managers will lead their institutions to greater heights of achievement, productivity and ultimately prosperity if they are competent and have inspiring leaders as well. It is in the public service for the public interest where effective leadership is most

needed. The difference between a manager and a leader also has to be understood. Nehavandi (2006) and Kotter (2003) demonstrate the important differences between leadership and management in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Differences between management and leadership

Criteria	Leadership	Management
Change	Provide a vision and initiate change	Implement changes as tabled by the leader
People	Inspire and develop	Control
Tasks	Do the right things	Do things right
Commitment to goal	Passionate	Impersonal

Source: Bennis and Nanus (1985)

From Table 3 above it is clear that there are distinct differences between leadership and management. However, leadership, like the management concept, means different things to different people. The term ranges from being the first to initiate a change to inspiring bravery. According to Drucker (1992), leadership and management have been used synonymously, but as an emphasis of the two terms, leadership is essentially the activity of trying to influence people to strive willingly to attain the goals and plans of the organisation, whereas management is the function of running an organisation from a conceptual or policy standpoint.

To enhance innovation and teamwork in the organisation, leadership must be present at all levels. Managers will become much more effective if their leadership skills are developed and utilised. It is also important to note that managers are bearers of authority assigned to them by an organised structure that has the authority and rights to organise so as to lead the activities of others. This entails giving orders and ensuring that they are carried out. A leader can obtain results without coercion. Such an individual is a leader because he or she has specific traits and a power base, consults with his or her followers on particular matters, and

motivates them to co-operate and to work according to their free will (Kuye and Mafunisa, 2003).

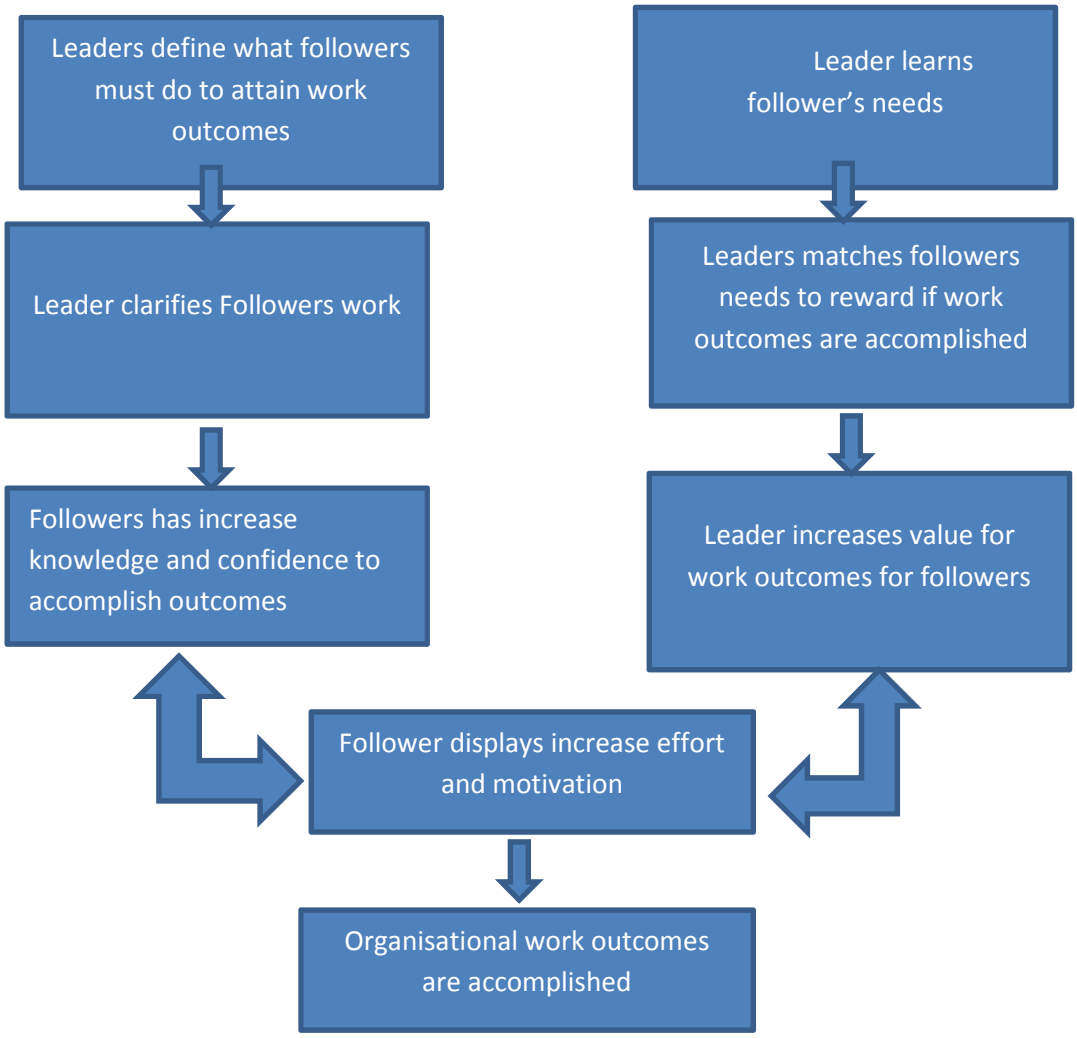
According to Reddy (2003), it is generally acceptable that decentralised government under favourable conditions facilitates the multiplication of points towards the identification of responses to new developmental opportunities. There will be efficiencies and a reduction of lost opportunities as a result of improved management as well as more effective use of, and matching of local needs to available resources. Improved management allows for the prioritisation of areas and projects to facilitate equitable distribution of services and to meet economic objectives. It is believed that less specialised units, smaller working groups, immediate responses and on-going deliberation with the local citizenry ensures outcomes-based perspectives that foster integration across economic and environmental spheres.

It is accepted that more localised forms of authoritative decision-making reduce the cost of effective participation and increase the returns to collective action. According to Cloete (2005), recent international research findings on good governance indicate the following main trends: a general acceptance that a strategic management approach focused on committed actions to achieve realistic goals is needed to improve service delivery outcomes; implementing and assessing the effectiveness of policy systems; and increasing reliance on more user-friendly approaches and systems which are less technically complicated electronic decision support systems. It is therefore clear that an organisation without sound leadership and good governance is lifeless and unproductive, because it has no objectives and goals to achieve. In this context, leadership models are considered below.

2.9.1 Leadership model

Leadership, according to O'Connor (2012), is the ability to present a vision so that others want to achieve it. Leaders need the skills necessary to work with other people as well as the belief that they can make a difference. Therefore leaders and followers need each other, so that when leaders present their plans to their followers, followers should loyally support the plan of action. Figure 3 below depicts the role of leadership as conceived by the Path-Goal Model.

Figure 3: Leaders' role in the Path-Goal Model



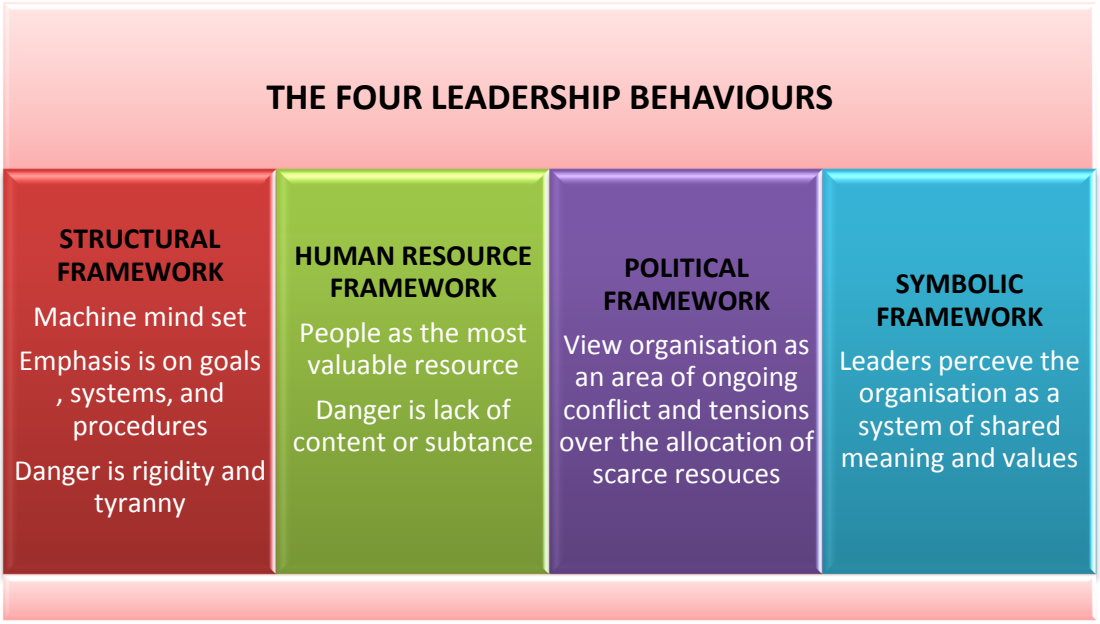
Source: Bass (1985)

The Path-Goal theory as shown above depicts four levels of leadership behaviours which the leader can adopt. These are supportive, directive, achievement orientation and participative actions (House and Mitchell, 1974). The success of this type of leadership depends on a leader establishing trust, clarifying the directions in which people should be moving, and communicating so that people feel confident in their leader (Hinkin and Schriesheim, 1990). The leaders who determine the ultimate effectiveness of the organisation as the character and skills that they bring determine the way problems are solved and accomplished by the followers (Bolman and Deal, 1991). The next section describes the Four Leadership Framework Approach.

2.9.2 Four Leadership Framework Approach

In the Four Leadership Framework Approach, Bolman and Deal (1991) suggest that leaders display leadership behaviours in one of four types of frameworks: Structural, Human Resource, Political, or Symbolic. The style can either be effective or ineffective, depending on the chosen behaviour in certain situations. These frameworks are represented in Figure 4 below.

Figure 4: Four Leadership Behaviours



Source: Adapted from Bolman and Deal (1991)

The model based on Bolman and Deal (1991) suggests that leaders can be put into one of the four categories. There are times when a particular approach is more appropriate and times when it would not be, meaning any style of leadership can be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. For example, during the major organisational change especially after the municipal elections, a structural leadership style may be more effective than a symbolic leadership style. During a period when strong growth is needed, the symbolic approach may be more appropriate.

Heimovics, Herman and Coughlin (1993) maintain that structural leaders focus on structure, strategy, environment, implementation, experimentation, and adaptation. In an effective leadership situation, the leader is a social architect whose leadership style is based on analysis and design. Human Resource leaders believe in people and communicate that belief. They are visible and accessible; they empower, increase participation, support, share information, and move decision-making down into the organisation. In an effective leadership situation, the leader is a

catalyst and servant whose leadership style is supportive; who uses advocacy and empowerment, while with an ineffective leadership situation, the leadership style is abdication (Bolman and Deal, 1991).

Pfeffer (1992) points out that political leaders clarify what they want and what they can get; they assess the distribution of power and interests; they build linkages to other stakeholders, using persuasion first, and then use negotiation and coercion only if necessary. In an effective leadership situation, the leader is an advocate whose leadership style is coalition-building. In an ineffective leadership situation, however, the leadership style is operational. Bolman and Deal (1991) concludes, as depicted in Figure 4 above, that symbolic leaders view organisations as a stage to play certain roles and give certain impressions. These leaders use symbols to capture attention and try to frame experience by providing plausible interpretations of experiences; they discover and communicate a vision. In an effective leadership situation, the leader is a prophet whose leadership style is inspirational. While each of the four frames provides a significant example of enhancing leadership effectiveness, not every leader can develop abilities in all these areas. However, effective leaders understand their own strengths in order to expand on them (Burns, 1978). In the context of this research, leaders should be individuals who know and understand their leadership roles in the municipality in order to be in a position to make local government administration deliver goods and services effectively to all their communities. The leadership in municipalities must be familiar with the legislative framework of local government in order to know what to do, how to do it, and what not to do.

Having considered the concept of leadership above, attention will now be focused on the notion of governance. As discussed, both concepts are directly related to the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study.

2.10 DEFINING GOVERNANCE

Core governance characteristics as defined by the UNDP (1994) are, *inter alia,* participatory, transparent and accountable. Good governance also promotes the rule of law and equity. The discourse ensures that political, social and economic priorities are clear and that the voices of all citizens are heard. However, Bridgman (2006) points out that there is no single definition of governance, but rather there are many different, sometimes conflicting definitions. The word is sometimes used to capture the totality of activities necessary for a well-managed organisation, a collective noun for administrative and managerial activity. The working definition used to inform this research is underscored by the notion that good governance is about excellence in organisational decision-making, the distribution of authority to make decisions and the systems of accountability for exercising that authority. Good governance is the qualitative state of excellence in the decision-making process.

Heinrich and Lyn (2003) offers a much broader definition of governance, and explains that governance may be defined as regimes of laws, administrative rules, judicial rulings, and practices that constrain, prescribe and enable government activity, where such activity is broadly defined as the production and delivery of publicly supported goods and services (Heinrich and Lyn, 2003; De Buse and Lee, 2008).

The above definition suggests that governance is premised on a regulatory framework and norms and standards that facilitate provision of high quality services to the people or consumers. It is in this context that the concept of governance was included as part of the conceptual framework. From this logic, it follows therefore that governance, if practised well, could play a key role in the implementation of skills development programmes in local municipalities. The elements of accountability and transparency apply to the allocation, utilisation and

management of both human material and financial resources in the practice of skills capacity-building.

Furthermore, Carrington, De Buse and Lee (2008) make a conceptual distinction between government and governance. Government has formal authority to act, and it also has the power to enforce compliance with rules and policies. In contrast, the broader concept of governance describes the way in which an organisation chooses to engage in certain activities backed by goals shared by its constituents. In promoting skills capacity-building, local municipalities have to work with internal and external stakeholders to ensure that the process produces the desired outcomes. As will be seen in chapter six, the study also determines whether political office bearers were involved in capacity-building in their respective communities. The point about constituents sharing in the goals of the organisation is therefore relevant to the study as it seeks to examine the implementation of skills capacity interventions in the Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi municipalities.

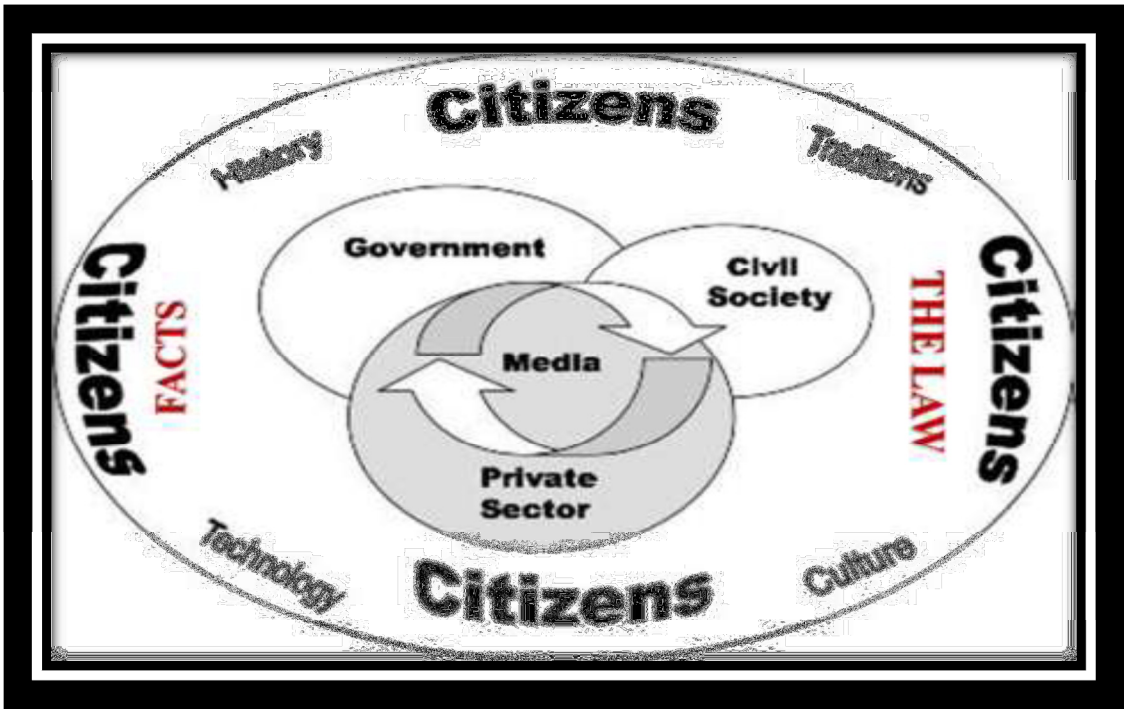
Governance incorporates elements of accountability, transparency, participation and collaboration between government and citizens. This means that in the new collaborative governance environment, government has to work with citizens, recognise their inputs and ensure transparency and accountability in all its dealings with citizens. This principle also applies to local municipalities. Collaboration is needed in planning, execution and monitoring of skills development programmes. Transparency is defined as the open flow of information in the relationship between government and citizens. Transparency in an organisation is not only about what is communicated externally, but about what is right on the inside, and at the heart of its operations (Park and Blenkinsopp, 2011). The complexity surrounding the concept of governance is considered briefly below.

2.10.1 Complexity surrounding the concept of governance

Holiday (2013) emphasises that governance is a precondition for meeting the challenge of enhancing education, improving health care, reducing poverty, maintaining one's culture, protecting the environment and promoting sustainable financial economic development. Juiz, Guerrero and Lira (2013) suggest that governance is not a simple and straightforward matter. There is a need for exploration of the complexity of relationships in relation to conformance, performance and governance in the public sector. This is related to, and bound up with, compliance and performance but is also more than that. Understanding the complexity of governance allows organisational leaders and managers to improve all aspects of governance, including compliance and performance improvement, and to intervene when change is needed.

Figure 5 below outlines the integrated approach of good governance because good governance means different things to different people and there is a need to view it from a social and political context where traditions, cultures and history play significant roles.

Figure 5: The decision-making environment



Source: Institute of Governance (Holiday, 2013)

Figure 5 above suggests that decisions made by a public servant are never made in a vacuum. Decisions are made within a complex environment of relationships between sectors. How the decision translates into practice will depend on the facts, the law, traditions and the culture which includes political conviction. None of these aspects are fixed. People can differ about the facts, and the parties involved may not share the same culture or background. It is, for example, well known that lawyers can differ over the meaning of a law. Good governance thus means different things to different people and depending on the function a decision-maker holds, other aspects of good governance will be important. It is in this societal context of traditions, culture and history that the various partners, civil society, businesses and public officials operate. Operating in this societal context the governments, namely parliamentarians, ministers, mayors, councillors and civil servants, have a leading role to play through the application of good governance, in particular at local government level

(Holiday, 2013). The latter perspective directs the researcher to present below an overview of good governance.

2.10.2 An overview of good governance

Good governance, according to Rhodes (2001), is the process of governing in a transformed, well-organised and efficient manner. Governance can be expressed by the inter-dependency and networking of all stakeholders that have an interest in developmental issues. The debate around good governance has sometimes been tense and due to its varied meanings and applications some scholars label good governance as a minimal state, while other scholars equate it with corporate governance or the new public management. The various interpretations of good governance are possible because there are different perspectives from which governance may be analysed (Bevir and Rhodes, 2001). There are visible similarities between Holiday (2013) and Fuhr (2000), when they both maintain that the development of a culture of good governance requires collaboration between government and citizens, be it at local, provincial or national level. Barnes, Newman and Sullivan (2004) maintains that this new approach of governing society appears to be challenging governments because it demands increased levels of citizen participation in the decision-making process.

Good governance is commonly seen to be associated with the evolution of autonomy, openness and transparency. Similarly, according to Ginther, Denters and de Waart (1995), it is argued that a lack of transparency and accountability in the public sector may result in a large scale of corruption within the government system. Good governance is thus not an abstract notion, but a way of conducting affairs that are in the public interest and could be democratically enriching. As noted by Mhone (2003b), the conventional understanding of democracy as currently pursued is at odds with the need to promote sustainable human resource development and

good governance; as a result it is important to note the similarities with Newman, *et al.* (2004) and Mhone (2003b), who posit that democratic development and governance will require popular citizen participation. This contribution is relevant to the study as this participation was central to the skills development plan for the full participation of the municipal officials in the three local municipalities.

2.10.3 Dynamics of governance

It follows that good governance is not static and not easy to define, it covers the quality of organisations and their effectiveness in translating policy into implementation, and changes and adapts with context (UN, 2008). The most common failing is to focus on compliance at the expense of performance improvement and good decision-making (Bridgman, 2006). This statement has direct implications for the study in the sense that it draws attention to the evolving nature of governance in both public and private institutions respectively. Effective local government relies on public confidence in authority, whether elected or appointed, similar to the local government processes where the Local Government Systems Act (2000) provides the authority for political parties to deploy Proportional Representative (PR) councillors to be part of the municipal council. For local municipalities, this means that managers must bear in mind the five-year term of office and should ensure that the process of implementing skills capacity is aligned with these time-frames. The authorities need people with the right skills and experience to direct and control the municipal operations (CIPFA, 2007).

2.10.4 Conformance, performance and governance

There are complex relations between the different aspects of good governance. According to Jiuz, *et al.,* (2013), every public sector entity like a municipality spends public money and the quality of service it

provides is critical, therefore good governance of public services must be of a high standard. This process must lead to good management, good performance and effective spending in way systems where factors can be seen as preconditions of others; for example, technical and managerial competence is one precondition of organisational capacity, and organisational capacity is one precondition of maintaining the rule of law. There are also important effects in the other direction, for example, where organisational capacity reinforces technical and managerial competence there is accountability to reinforce the rule of law (Bridgman, 2007).

Using the international literature above as a point of departure, the concept of governance in South Africa is understood within the context of developmental local government, which seeks to democratise local governance by introducing the notion of elected representatives, but also to transform it with a new focus on improving the standard of living and quality of life of previously disadvantaged sectors of the community. In addition, developmental local government requires citizens to actively participate in development initiatives in their areas (Pycroft, 1998; Coetzee and Cooper, 2001).

Up to this point, attention has been focused on the nature and importance of governance in relation to skills capacity-building. The next section deals with performance management as it relates to skills capacity-building and service delivery.

2.11 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Organisations are run and steered by people, and it is through people that goals are set and objectives are met. According to Curtis (1999), performance management is a fairly new concept in South Africa, particularly in municipalities. This concept was developed internationally about thirty years ago and originated in the Management by Objectives

(MBO) approach (Cameroon and Sewell, 2003). It was only in 1998 that this concept was introduced through the White Paper on Local Government. The performance of an organisation is thus dependent upon the sum of the total performance of its members. The success of the organisation will therefore depend on its ability to measure accurately the performance of its members and use this objectively to enhance them as vital resources. The performance of an individual can be defined as the record of outcomes produced as specific job functions or activities during a specified time period (Bernadine, 2007).

One of the key objectives of the study is to determine if skills initiatives are linked with performance management in order to ensure effective service delivery in SDM. The practice of performance management in the public service is governed by section 195(1) of the Constitution (1996), which states that public administration must be governed by democratic values and principles as enshrined in the Constitution, including promotion of efficiency, economy and effective use of resources, and accountability of public administration.

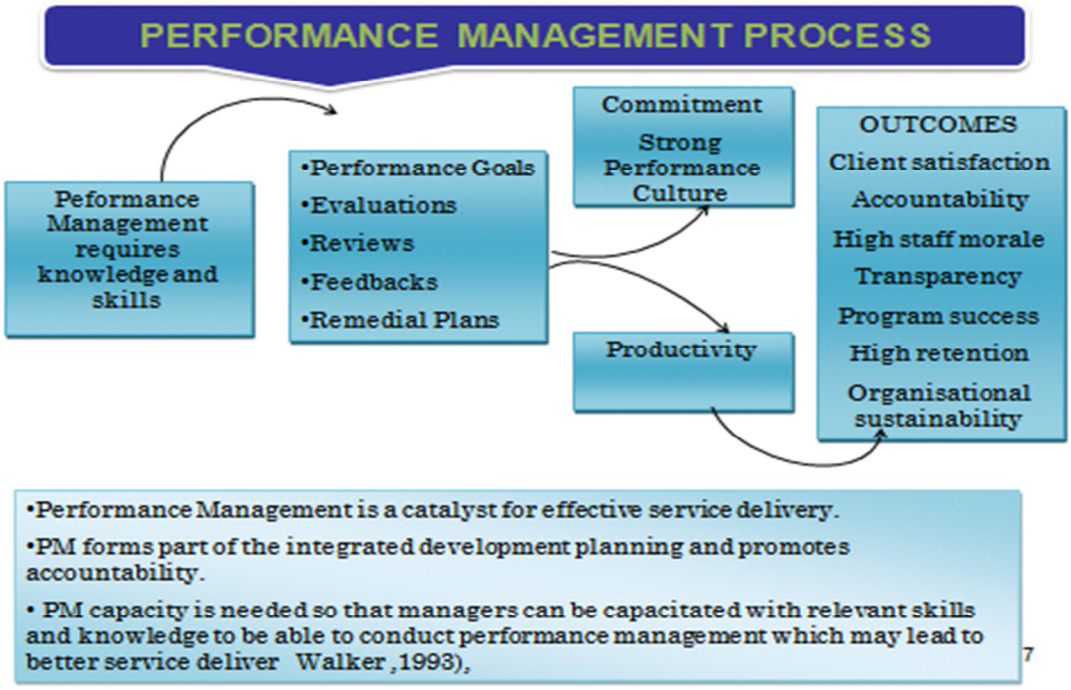
Managing performance is one of the approaches designed to ensure that public servants are held accountable for their actions in government departments; including municipalities. Performance management answers critical questions such as: “Is everyone contributing effectively to the attainment of organisational goals?” “How well is the organisation meeting customer needs and expectations?” “Are the values of the organisation being internalised and practiced?” “Who needs training, and why?” (Walker, 1993). An important linkage between performance management and skills development is that the former provides the input (feedback), which indicates an employee’s strengths and weaknesses, as well as the critical areas that need training interventions. Both processes play a key role in the enhancement of service delivery.

This mutually reinforcing relationship between performance management and skills development makes it imperative to understand whether the selected organisation has been able to align these processes as part of capacity-building. A traditional definition of performance by Warren (1982) is that it is the systematic application of processes aimed at optimising human performance in an organisation. This view is shared by Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, Poisat, Scultz and Sonos (2008) who defines performance management as an holistic approach and processes which can ensure that individuals share goals as well as an organisation's strategic objectives which can be achieved through a performance management approach. Bennett (1999) states that performance management fulfils three important purposes in organisations: it is a process for strategy implementation; it is a vehicle for culture change; and it provides input to other (HR) systems such as development and remuneration.

The above view regarding the strategic importance of performance management is confirmed by Nel, *et al.,* (2008) who argues that performance management entails: the clarification and communication of organisational strategic objectives; the alignment of individual and group goals with organisational objectives; the early identification and reporting of deviations; the development of action plans to correct deviations; the coaching and mentoring of individuals and groups; and, finally, the review of individual and group performance and the re-evaluation of the organisational process. Bhatia (2006) and Armstrong (2006) suggest that performance management is a priority for most organisations. It is a link between organisational strategies and results. The above articulation reveals three important points about performance management: First, it is a tool for communicating strategic goals. Second, it is a means for aligning people's behaviours with organisational objectives. Third, it provides the opportunity for identification and correction of mistakes, as well as coaching and mentoring of employees.

Coaching and mentoring are vital to the study, as they may increase the employee's commitment and satisfaction (Wiese and Buckley, 1999). To some extent, this means that performance management contributes to capacity-building in organisations. Flanagan and Finger (2003) also draw attention to the fact that improving the performance of staff is hard enough, and maintaining and building on that improvement presents even greater challenges for managers. Most improvement processes consist of monitoring progress, recognising achievement, and reviewing the performance displayed. Figure 6 below is an illustration of the relationship between skills capacity, performance management and service delivery.

Figure 6: Performance Management Process Flow



Source: Walker (1993)

What emerges from this illustration is that there is a close relationship between skills capacity, performance management, and service delivery provision. For example, in order for public managers to evaluate staff performance successfully, they need to be capacitated through training.

Performance management enables managers to identify employees' performance and development needs. Once trained, employees will be able to improve their performance on the job, and the outcome will be improved employee performance.

2.11.1 Performance management as a leadership tool

Leadership is a critical element for making organisations successful. Through cascading the strategy throughout the organisation, leadership gives the performance management processes a depth and sustainability that survives changes at the top, including those driven by regular elections and changes in political party leadership. Leadership does not stop at the top; it is important but not at the top level only. Leaders are entrusted by employees in solving problems and achieving the mission that makes for a most successful organisation. Weak leadership can ruin the soundest strategy (Sun-Tzu, 1988).

Leadership involvement should include leaders from all levels. One of the most comprehensive leadership theories of organisational improvement is the theory of transformational and transactional leadership. Burns (1978) developed initial ideas on transformational leadership in the political context. Transactional leadership develops from the exchange process between leaders and subordinates wherein the leader provides rewards in exchange for subordinates' good performance. Transformational leadership goes beyond transactional leadership and motivates followers to identify with the leader's vision and sacrifice their self-interest for that of a group or an organisation**.** A more detailed explanation of the leadership styles are presented in the theoretical framework section.

Kotter (1990) introduces an important element to leadership after deducing that effective leaders are able to motivate and inspire through bursts of energy in support of the organisational goals. This is referred to as

inspirational leadership created by articulating the vision encouraging recognition and rewarding success. According to Bennis and Nanus (1985), understanding of the leadership environment is based on three pillars, namely commitment, complexity and credibility. It is important to note that the focus on leaders, instead of declining, is actually increasing, though this topic has been under investigation for a long time.

There are a number of reasons for this which all revolves around many diverse and complex issues. The first stems from the socio-political turbulences and the pervasive impacts of technology, markets and business change that dominate the international and local economic landscapes. The consequence is economic and political environments and fluidity as well as uncertainty which demand a decision that robustly, yet sensitively, balances numerous contending considerations. The emphasis of the concept 'performance management' is a managerial task that includes activities that are meant to ensure that the goals of an organisation are consistently being achieved. Risher (2003) reiterates that managers should be held accountable for creating an environment that strives for peak performance in municipalities.

Below is a brief explanation of why performance management needs to be benchmarked against best practices from other parts of the world.

2.11.2 International experience

As performance management is one of the fundamental aspects of the study, it may be helpful to draw lessons from international experience, particularly the United Kingdom, the United States, Botswana and New Zealand in order to establish how these countries address performance management issues.

There are a number of approaches to performance management that the different governments have adopted. Performance management has become the keyword permeating all discussions about NPM (OECD, 1993). In the United States the Malcolm Baldridge Criteria for performance excellence were designed to help organisations enhance competitiveness through the efficient delivery of services to customers and improving the organisation's performance and capabilities. The Malcolm Baldridge Criteria is based on self-assessment which serves as a basis for the Malcolm Baldridge Criteria National Awards. Not only the United States of America but also other countries have followed suit by introducing similar systems, such as, for example, the European Quality Management Framework (Bobrowski and Batham, 1994; Powell, 1997).

2.11.3 The Malcolm Baldridge Criteria for performance excellence

Consideration of the criteria for performance excellence is important in this research because it sets useful guidelines for determining the quality of products and services in organisations, including provision of education and training programmes and related services. Pycraft, Singh, Phihlela, Chambers and Johnston (2010) emphasise that the quality strategy of an organisation should address the competitive priorities of the organisation; the roles and quality responsibilities of all parts of the organisation; the resources available for quality improvement; and the quality philosophy of the organisation. These authors note that efforts to promote quality management in the organisation's programmes and strategies should have the full backing of senior management.

In the South African environment, a number of provinces and local authorities are using similar approaches, in the form of provincially based 'Premier Awards' to recognise superior performance. Through the Government Results Act (1993) the results-orientated approach has been institutionalised. It has progressed reasonably well with the measurement

of government programmes to improve organisational performance practices and practice, given the fact that, according to the literature, performance management in developing countries appears to see indigenous management as hierarchical, centralised, and authoritarian (Bobrowski and Batham, 1994; Powell, 1997; Kanungu and Jaeger, 1990; Blunt and Jones, 1992; Kiggundu, 1989).

Botswana's productivity improvement initiative involved their National Productivity Institute (Leruo, 2012) The Botswana Performance Management System had the objective of providing a planning and change management framework linked to the national development plan and related budgetary processes. The productivity improvement teams set up to assess government departments are utilised to instil the culture of performance management in the public service.

A further example is seen in Uganda's Results Orientated Management (ROM), which directed itself to cultivating a new management culture whereby the focus is on measurable outputs and outcomes as opposed to simply managing process (Mitaka, 2001).

In South Africa, the National Development Plan (2013) identified the unevenness in capacity that leads to uneven performance at local government level. According to the National Development Plan (2030), this tension is caused by the political administrative interface and instability of the administrative leadership skills deficits which then impact negatively on organisational performance.

According to Bobrowski and Batham (1994) and Powell (1997), New Zealand is considered as having the world's most advanced performance management systems. Through its separation of policy advice from operational functions it allows managers to concentrate on their prime objective of operational efficiency.

The United Kingdom's reform and performance management systems are based on its Measurement and Performance Projects (MAPP) which is part of a series of initiatives launched in 1999. Through its Modernising Government Project, the government requires each department and its agencies to articulate its priorities and set clear targets for improvement over a period of three years. This was strengthened by the introduction of a Public Service Productivity Panel set up to advice government on improving the productivity of departments and their agencies.

Having considered the international experience on the practice of performance management, attention is now turned to monitoring and evaluation; which underpins effective skills development.

2.12 MONITORING AND EVALUATION

The Public Service Commission Report (2008) points out that the strategic role of monitoring and evaluation in determining programme effectiveness, utility, viability and sustainability cannot be overlooked. Development interventions, whether donor-driven or government-led, generally involve substantial investment in both human and material resources, which in turn necessitates accountability for results. Similarly, skills programmes in local municipalities need to be backed by sound monitoring and evaluation systems and practices to ensure that they produce the types of skills and competencies required to improve the supply of services to citizens. As highlighted by the analysis in chapter six, monitoring and evaluation of skills building programmes was relatively weak in all three local municipalities of SDM, suggesting gaps in the application of M&E principles to human resource development interventions.

Within this context, the study reviews Monitoring & Evaluation (M&E) theory and practice in order to deepen the understanding of the key

concepts and principles underpinning the practice of M&E in the public sector. For simplicity and logic, the discussion of M&E is linked to skills capacity-building which forms part of the research questions. The following section draws on the key learning and insights from the M&E literature.

2.12.1 Defining Monitoring and Evaluation

Dunn (2008) defines monitoring as the policy-analytic procedure used to produce information about the causes and consequences of policies. Because monitoring helps to describe relationships between policy programme operations and their outcomes, Casley and Kumar (1987) and Randel (2002) present monitoring as a continuous assessment of the functioning of the project activities that allows for early recognition of the social effects. It is usually seen as an internal primary source of knowledge about the effectiveness of policy implementation. Monitoring is therefore primarily concerned with establishing factual premises about public policy.

The above definition highlights three important aspects of M&E in development programmes. First, M&E is an analytical tool for understanding the workings of any given policy programme, including skills development interventions. Second, if planned and carried out well, M&E can produce objective facts about programme performance. Third, M&E can tell whether the results from the programme or project meet client needs and expectations or not, and provide indications as to the strengths and weaknesses of the programme. On the basis of the above, De Beer and Swanepoel (1998) suggest that the participating evaluation has emerged as an approach that seeks to involve those who contribute to or involve local communities and provides an ideal opportunity for management and programme personnel to learn how their own actions impact on programme operations and outcomes.

2.12.2 The rationale for Monitoring and Evaluation

As Dunn (2008) correctly points out, the consequences of policies are never known in advance. For this reason, it is essential to monitor policies after they have been implemented. Mouton (2001) states that social interventions such as programmes, policies, new systems and schemes are evaluated for a number of reasons including programme management, improvement and refinement, generating knowledge, financial accountability, on public demand, to meet accreditation requirements, and for purposes of quality assurance and control.

Umar and Kuye (2006) observe that it is necessary to create or strengthen monitoring and evaluation structures to act as a watch-dog, assist dissatisfied clients and also make recommendations to the departmental heads on how to reinvent, energise and transform their processes and activities to better deliver quality services. Similarly, Cloete and Wissink (2000) argue that, while a policy project or programme is being implemented, a need exists to monitor the implementation process in order to keep track of the time-frame, the spending programme, the progress towards objectives, and quality and quantity of outputs.

Anderson (1994) states that, a policy may have either intended or unintended consequences or even both. Policies may affect situations or groups other than those at which they are directed. These are variously called third-party effects, spill-over effects or externalities. Thus, through evaluation, planners and programme personnel can determine the intended and unintended consequences of public policy on target groups, beneficiaries, society and the natural environment. For the purpose of this study, monitoring and evaluation are deemed to be fundamental aspects of good programme management and are responsible for quality, to provide data on a programme and its effectiveness, accountability to

stakeholders, and lastly learning to provide opportunities and to learn from the experience (Gosling and Edwards, 2003).

2.12.3 Approaches to Monitoring and Evaluation

Cloete and Wissink (2005), Dunn (2008) and Mora-Imas (2009) suggest several approaches to monitoring and evaluation. These include formative evaluations which may be conducted prior to and during implementation of a development intervention; summative (post-ante) evaluations which are usually conducted after the implementation of the programme to determine the overall impact of the programme on intended beneficiaries and stakeholders in light of predetermined objectives; and finally, participatory evaluations, programme and work ethic perspectives which facilitate stakeholder participation in the evaluation process.

All these approaches are relevant to the study as they highlight the need for involving beneficiaries in monitoring and evaluation of service delivery programmes, including skills development. Using this as a point of departure, the three M&E approaches are considered briefly below.

2.12.3.1 Participatory evaluation

Paulmer (2005) characterises participatory evaluation as a collective assessment of a programme by stakeholders and beneficiaries. They are also action-oriented and build stakeholder capacity and facilitate collaboration and shared decision-making for increased utilisation of evaluation results. As described by Patton (2002), participatory evaluation is underpinned by the following principles. Firstly, the evaluation process involves participants' skills in goal setting, establishing priorities, selecting evaluation questions, analysing data, and making decisions on the data. Secondly, participants own or commit to the evaluation, as they make decisions and draw their own conclusions.

Thirdly, participants ensure that the evaluation focuses on the methods and results they consider important and that all aspects of the evaluation are understandable and meaningful to participants. People work together, facilitating and promoting group unity. Finally, self-accountability is highly valued and facilitators act as resources for learning, while participants act as decision-makers and evaluators. A key distinguishing feature of participatory evaluation is that it empowers both programme personnel and beneficiaries to make informed judgments about programme performance and outcomes. In this way, the participatory approach thus makes M&E a collective responsibility of government agencies and the communities that they serve. Table 4 below illustrates the differences between participatory and traditional M&E techniques as suggested by Morra-Imas and Rist (2009).

Table 4: Preparatory versus traditional evaluation techniques

Participatory evaluation techniques	Traditional evaluation techniques
Participant focus and ownership	Donor focus and ownership
Focus on learning Flexible design	Focus on accountability and judgment
More informal methods	Predetermined design
Outsiders as facilitators	Formal methods outsiders as evaluators

Source: Morra-Imas and Rist (2009)

Based on the foregoing discussion and the examples in Table 4, it follows that the participatory approach could also be used in the monitoring and evaluation of skills capacity-building programmes in local municipalities. In SDM, the data revealed that while people were encouraged to participate in planning of skills programmes, there was no clear indication as to whether they were also involved in monitoring the implementation of skills.

2.12.3.2 Programme perspective

Monitoring from the perspective of programme or service delivery performance involves the monitoring of performance against pre-set objectives, indicators and targets. The key concepts related to performance monitoring are given in Table 5 below.

In practice, the monitoring process involves the routine collection of data on all the indicators in strategic and performance plans and the preparation of reports to managers on different levels on the values of the indicators as compared to a baseline or target. A simple example is monitoring whether the projects in a performance plan have been completed by the target dates set in the plan. This principle also applies to monitoring and evaluation of skills development programmes in local municipalities, and for this reason the study included a question on M&E practice in SDM.

Table 5: Key Performance Measures

Measures	Practical implications
Objective	A description of the aim or purpose of an activity
Indicator	Identifies specific numerical measurements that track progress towards achieving a goal
Target	Expresses a specific level of performance that the institution, programme or individual aims to achieve within a given period
Baseline	The current performance levels that an institution aims to improve when setting performance targets. A baseline is also a measurement of the current societal conditions that a programme aims to improve

Source: Adapted from the PSC (2008)

2.12.3.3 The work ethics perspective

Evaluation from the work ethics perspective requires on the one hand an evaluation of certain ethics outcomes, such as an actual change in the

conduct of public servants to better comply with the Code of Conduct for Public Servants or a lower incidence of corruption, and on the other hand, an evaluation of whether adequate measures have been put in place to ensure such outcomes.

These measures have been called an ethics infrastructure and include anti-corruption strategies and fraud prevention plans; risk assessment; activities to promote the Code of Conduct; minimum anti-corruption capacity; investigation procedures and protocols; effective reporting lines (whistle-blowing); inter-agency co-operation; management of conflicts of interest; dealing with financial misconduct; assignment of responsibility for the ethics function in the organisation; pre-employment screening; and ethics training.

Although the study was not specifically concerned with the application of ethical principles in SDM, the ethics perspective provides useful guidelines that relate directly to the study insofar as monitoring and evaluation of training is concerned. For example, issues of accountability and proper allocation of financial resources is crucial for effective skills development in municipalities.

2.12.4 The application of Monitoring and Evaluation

According to Morra-Imas and Rist (2009), M&E can be used to help make resource allocation decisions; to help re-think the causes of problems; to identify emerging problems; to support decision-making on competing or best alternatives; to support public sector reforms and innovation; and to build consensus on the causes of a problem and how to respond. In addition to this list, Dunn (2008) identifies four important functions in the application of Monitoring &E in particular to the public institutions. These are compliance, auditing, accounting and explanation. These functions are summarised in Table 6 below.

From Table 6 below it is evident that M&E can be a major source of crucial decision-making information in local municipalities in particular. However, for M&E information to be useful in decision-making, it should display certain characteristics. According to Smit, Cronje, Brevis and Vrba (2011), characteristics of good information include quality (accuracy) where information is of high quality if it portrays reality accurately. The more accurate the information, the higher its quality; relevance, managers and employees often receive information that is of little use, and information is relevant only when it can be used directly in problem-solving and decision-making processes and when the quantity (sufficiency) is appropriate, since managers and employees often complain about information overload.

Table 6: Function of Monitoring and Evaluation

Function	Practical meaning
Compliance	Monitoring helps to determine whether the actions of programme administrators, staff and other stakeholders are in compliance with standards and procedures imposed by legislators, regulatory agencies and professional bodies.
Auditing	Monitoring helps to determine whether resources and services intended for certain target groups and beneficiaries (individuals, families, municipalities, states, regions,) have actually reached them.
Accounting	Monitoring produces information that is helpful in accounting for social and economic changes that follow the implementation of broad sets of public policies and programmes over time.
Explanation	Monitoring yields information that helps to explain why the outcomes of public policies and programmes differ.

Source: Dunn (2008)

2.12.5 Application of monitoring and evaluation model

A logic model is an analytical method to break a programme down into logical components to facilitate its evaluation. A logic model helps to answer questions like, “Have the objectives of the programme been achieved?” and “Were the means to achieve those objectives appropriate and were they competently implemented?” Since efficiency can be defined as the ratio between inputs and outputs and effectiveness as the relationship between outputs and outcomes, logic models help to evaluate the efficiency and effectiveness of a programme. The logic models presented in Table 7 below are used widely as frameworks to design monitoring systems or structure evaluations (PSC, 2008).

Table 7: Components of the logic model

Component	Description
Inputs	All the resources that contribute to production and delivery of outputs. Inputs are ‘what we use to do the work’, and include finances, personnel, equipment and buildings.
Activities	The processes and/or actions that use a range of inputs to produce the desired outputs and ultimately outcomes. Activities describe ‘what we do’.
Outputs	The final products, or goods and services produced for delivery. Outputs may be defined as ‘what we produce or deliver’.
Outcomes	The medium-term to long-term results for specific beneficiaries that are a logical consequence of achieving specific outputs. Outcomes should relate to an institution’s strategic goals and objectives set out in its plans.
Impacts	The results of achieving specific outcomes, such as reducing poverty and creating jobs.

Source: PSC (2008)

Table 7 above presents an overview of the relationship between the five components of the logic model as underpinned by inputs; activities; outputs; outcomes; and impacts. In this model, the overall performance of skills capacity-building is influenced by the capacity of its internal components as well as external environments (Katellos, 1998; USAID,

1998). This model can be used in the monitoring and evaluation of skills capacity-building programmes in local municipalities. The process of ensuring that financial and human resources are available to contribute to production and delivery of the expected training outputs are essential for municipalities.

2.12.6 South African approach to monitoring and evaluation

According to Olowu and Sako (2002), good governance is a system of values, policies and institutions by which a society manages its economic, political and social affairs through interactions within and among the state, civil society and the private sector. Section 195 of the South African Constitution (1996) highlights the need to include governance in monitoring and evaluation systems. This view is reinforced by Cloete (2005) who argues that a coherent good governance measurement programme should be developed as a matter of urgency as an integral part of a more encompassing M&E programme in South Africa.

These views include monitoring through the financial perspective. Monitoring and evaluation from a financial perspective happens through monthly and annual financial statements. Financial statements try to answer the following questions: Was money spent as appropriated? Has the incomes that accrued to government been collected and were assets protected? Can the department meet its liabilities and has the department adhered to sound financial controls? These financial reports currently primarily give managers updates on progress in relation to expenditure as measured against budget. Such statements are prepared in terms of Generally Recognised Accounting Practice as prescribed in terms of the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) (1999).

In addition, annual financial statements are audited by the Auditor-General so that a high degree of confidence may be attached to financial figures

(PSC, 2008). Monitoring through the Human Resource Management (HRM) perspective requires evaluation of whether human resource management objectives have been achieved, and the extent to which good human resource management practice is applied in the public service. HRM objectives in the public service include the recruitment of skilled staff to meet service delivery requirements and achieving the status of being a good employer. As part of the South African approach to M&E, the Batho Pele Principles were introduced to reinforce good governance measurements and are summarised in Table 8 below.

Table 8: Batho Pele Principles

Principle	Practical meaning
Consultation	Citizens should be consulted about the level and quality of the public services they receive and, wherever possible, should be given a choice about the services that are offered.
Service standards	Citizens should be told what level and quality of public service they will receive so that they are aware of what to expect.
Access	All citizens should have equal access to the services to which they are entitled.
Courtesy	Citizens should be treated with courtesy and consideration.
Information	Citizens should be given full, accurate information about the public services they are entitled to receive.
Openness and Transparency	Citizens should be told how national and provincial departments are run, how much they cost and who is in charge.
Redress	If the promised standard of service is not delivered, citizens should be offered an apology, a full explanation and a speedy and effective remedy. When complaints are made, citizens should receive a sympathetic, positive response.
Value for money	Public services should be provided economically and efficiently in order to give citizens the best possible value for money.

Source: PSC (2008)

The eight Batho Pele Principles in Table 8 above provide useful insights on how government service delivery programmes can be evaluated. The term Batho Pele is taken from the Sesotho language and its literal translation is “people first” (Russel and Bvuma, 2001). Batho Pele principles provide a yardstick for measuring the provision of skills capacity-building services at local government level. For this reason, they have been considered relevant to the purpose of the study. According to Sekoto and Van Straaten (1999), in order to transform and improve the image of the public sector there is a need to adapt a customer-focused approach because it is a practical attempt to improve efficiency and productivity, not only in the private sector but also in the public sector. In addition, the main objective of a customer- or citizen-focused approach is to improve service delivery as characterised by the Batho Pele Principles. Umar and Kuye (2006) emphasise that it is necessary to create or strengthen monitoring and evaluation structures to provide oversight, assist dissatisfied clients, and also make recommendations to the departmental heads on how to reinvent, energise and transform their processes and activities to deliver quality services. Thus, as emphasised by Hirschowitz and Orkin (2009), in the absence of monitoring and evaluation carefully planned interventions can easily go awry. However, monitoring and evaluation is a complex process that requires the application of both qualitative and quantitative techniques.

For this reason, municipal managers and employees need to be capacitated to ensure that monitoring goals are achieved. Similarly, beneficiaries need to be taught about ways in which they can contribute to monitoring and evaluation activities in their areas. The study will highlight whether the SDM has developed the skills capacity required to carry out monitoring and evaluation activities in service delivery.

In summary, M&E principles, approaches and perspectives within the South African context are provided and the overall impression from this

discussion was that M&E practice is increasingly becoming a major strategic tool for ensuring accountability, transparency, better results and client satisfaction in almost all government programmes, including skills development interventions. In addition to holding officials and programme personnel accountable for results, M&E also provides a good mechanism for enhancing good governance and better customer satisfaction.

2.13 THE ROLE OF MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

The phrase “management is what managers do” occurs widely, suggesting the difficulty of defining management. The literature on management indicates that the verb “manage” comes from the Italian *maneggiare* meaning ‘to handle’, which is in turn derived from the Latin *manus* meaning ‘hand’. The French word *mesnagement* which evolved into *ménagement* influenced the development and meaning of the English word ‘management’ in the 17th and 18th centuries.

The term management can be, and often is, used in several different ways. Follett (2003) describes management as the art of getting things done through people. From this viewpoint, managers give direction to their organisations, provide leadership, and decide how to use organisational resources to accomplish goals. As a discipline, management entails the organisation and co-ordination of the activities of an organisation in accordance with certain policies and in achievement of clearly defined objectives. It is often included as a factor of production along with machines, materials and money. The term ‘management’ as used in this research is described by Daft (1993) as being the attainment of organisational goals in an effective and efficient manner through planning, organising, staffing, directing, and controlling organisational resources.

According to Werner and Brouthers (2002), management is described as a science which is concerned with short-term problems in the organisation.

To manage effectively, people must have not only the necessary abilities to lead but also a set of critical skills acquired through time, experience, and practice. If art is defined as a personal aptitude or skill, then management has certain artistic components and cannot be a short-term function. Colvin (1999) supports the notion that managers and leaders are not inherently different types of people and many managers already possess the qualities needed to be effective leaders. However, leadership cannot replace management but should be considered in addition to management.

There are five crucial areas for organisational performance: direction, alignment, relationship, personal qualities, and outcomes (Lieber, 1998). The difference between management and leadership creates two differing outcomes, management producing a degree of stability, predictability, order and efficiency, and good management thereby helping the organisation to consistently achieve short-term results and meet the expectations of various stakeholders (Reingold, 1999). The contribution from Senge (1990) refers to management as thinkers who see the organisation as a whole or who have a systematic point of view. Management focuses on objects such as machines and reports when taking the steps needed to produce organisational goods and services, whereas leadership focuses on motivating and inspiring people. This different source of power is one of the key distinctions between management and leadership, because leadership depends more on who an individual is than the individual's position or title (Bennis, 1998).

Further to management and leadership roles is the scope and functions of management within the context of capacity-building, which is explained below.

2.13.1 The scope and functions of management

Management is needed in all types of organised activities. Moreover, management principles are applicable to all types of organisations, including profit-seeking organisations and not-for-profit organisations such as non-governmental organisations (NGOs). Any group of two or more people working to achieve a goal and having resources at its disposal is engaged in management. According to Dessler (1996) and Fisher (2009), a manager's job is different in different types of organisations, exists in unique environments, and uses different technology. However, all organisations need the common basic activities: planning, organising, leading, and controlling. Management is also universal in that it uses a systematic body of knowledge that includes economics, sociology, and law. This knowledge can be applied to all organisations, whether business, government or religious, and is applicable at all levels of management in the same organisations. It can also be applied to conceptualise, develop and implement capacity-building programmes in order to meet the organisation's operational needs.

2.13.2 The Management functions and roles

The manager at the district level must actively perform basic managerial functions. One of the earliest classifications of managerial functions was made by Fayol (1949), who suggests that planning, organising, co-ordinating, commanding, and controlling are the primary functions. Other theorists identify additional management functions such as staffing, communication, or decision-making. Cengage (2006) points out that there is some agreement that the basic managerial functions are planning, organising, leading and controlling as the process of management is organised through these functional frameworks. The additional functions, such as communication and decision-making) will be discussed as sub-sets of the four primary functions.

Table 9: Basic Managerial Functions

Planning	"Defining goals, setting specific performance objectives, and identifying the actions needed to achieve them"
Organising	"Creating work structures, systems and processes, arranging resources to accomplish the organisational goals and objectives"
Leading	"Instilling enthusiasm by communicating with others, motivating them to work hard and maintain good interpersonal relations"
Controlling	"Ensuring that things go well by monitoring performance and taking corrective measures as effectively as possible"

Source: Adapted from Cook and Hunsaker (2001)

The managerial functions summary is explained in greater detail below.

a) Planning

According to Galpin (1997), planning is considered to be the central function of management because planning means defining goals for future organisational performance and deciding on goals, objectives, tasks and use of resources needed to attain them (Daft, 1993). Planning encompasses four elements: evaluating environmental forces and organisational resources; establishing a set of organisational goals; developing strategies and plans to achieve the stated goals; and formulating a decision-making process

These elements, according to Cook and Hunsaker, (2001) are concerned with organisational success in the near future as well as success in the more distant future. In planning for the future, the manager develops a strategy for getting there. This process is referred to as strategic planning. Other examples of planning are business planning, project planning, personnel planning, advertising and promotion planning. To be effective, skills capacity-building programmes need thorough planning involving all key stakeholders in the organisation.

Managers are found at every level of an organisation plan. The plans outline what the organisation must do to be successful. While plans at each managerial level may differ in focus, they harmonise to achieve both the short-term and long-term organisational goals. According to Daft (1993), the organising, leading and controlling functions all derive from planning in that these functions carry out the planning decision. While planning is important at all levels of management, its characteristics vary by level of management.

b) Organising

The organising function, according to Moorhead and Griffin (2010), ensure that there are available resources to carry out a plan. Organising involves the assignment of tasks, the grouping of jobs into manageable units and establishing patterns of authority among the jobs and groups. Through this process a structure and a framework is produced. From the local government point of view, the manageable units are called sections, for example human resources or finance, for the allocation of resources to departments (Daft, 1993).

For effective management performance, managers need sound organising skills which include the following: developing the structure of the organisation; acquiring and training human resources; and establishing communication patterns and networks. Determining the method of grouping these activities and resources is the organising process. The organising function therefore relates to the establishment of relationship among all the management functions in order to implement capacity-building programmes in their respective organisations (Payne-Palacio and Theis, 2012).

c) Leading

According to Daft (1993), leading or directing is another basic function within the management process. Griffin and Moorhead (2010), state that

leading is the use of influence to motivate employees to achieve organisational goals. The leading function focuses directly on employees. Managers must be able to make employees want to participate in achieving the organisation's goals. The leading process helps the organisation move towards goal attainment. In the context of capacity-building, it is important for managers to motivate their teams so that they can see the need and value of participating in skills development programmes. Three components make up the leading function: motivating employees; influencing employees; and training employee groups.

It is important to note that to lead as a function; each leader must see leadership as a responsibility and not a rank or a privilege. The effective leader accepts responsibility and does everything to select the able, independent and self -assured employees (Drucker, 1992).

d) Controlling

The final phase of the management process is controlling. Moorhead and Griffin (2010) defines controlling as a process of monitoring and correcting the actions of the organisation and its employees' activities by determining whether the organisation is on target to attain its goals. According to Salman (2000), controlling ensures that, through effective leading, what has been planned and organised to take place has in fact taken place. This principle also applies to the execution of capacity-building interventions in municipalities. Without some form of control, it would be difficult for municipal managers to determine whether skills development interventions are yielding the desired results to justify further budget allocation for training.

Three basic components constitute the control function: elements of a control system; evaluating and rewarding employee performance; and controlling financial, informational and physical resources. Controlling is an on-going process. An effective control function determines whether the

organisation is on target toward its goals and makes corrections as necessary. Thus the purpose of management control is to ensure the organisation stays on its quality path. Controlling or co-ordinating, according to Lowe and Manchin (1987), includes continuous collection of feedback, monitoring and adjustment of systems, processes and structures accordingly. Examples include use of financial controls, policies and procedures, performance management processes, and measures to avoid risks. It is worth pointing out that these managerial functions are related and interrelated to each other, and have direct implications for municipal managers involved in skills development.

2.13.3 Managerial roles

Management expert Mintzberg (1973) avers that a manager's work can be broken down into ten common roles. These roles can be grouped into three broad areas, namely interpersonal roles, informational roles and decisional roles. Interpersonal roles focus on basic interpersonal relationships. The three roles that form this category are the figurehead role, the leadership role and the liaison role, which result from formal authority. Practicing the above roles, the manager is able to move into the informational roles that in turn lead to the decisional roles.

From the figurehead role, all management jobs require some duties that are symbolic or ceremonial in nature. For example, the Mayor attends to citizens through the IDP presentations and visits other districts or local ceremonial events. The leadership role involves directing and co-ordinating the activities of subordinates (Griffin, 1992). It may involve staffing (hiring, training, promoting, dismissing), and influencing and motivating subordinates. Leadership also involves controlling, such as making sure activities are carried out as planned, while in relation to the liaison role, managers are involved in interpersonal relationships with other managers and individuals outside their areas of command. This may

involve contacts both within and outside the organisation (Griffin and Moorhead, 2010).

2.13.3.1 Informational roles

This set of roles establishes the manager as the central focus of receiving and sending non-routine information. The functions involved in this category include the monitoring role that involves examining the environment to gather information about changes, opportunities and problems that may affect the unit. The formal and informal contacts developed in the liaison role are often useful here. The dissemination role provides privileged information to subordinates that they might not ordinarily know about or be able to obtain. Lastly, the spokesperson role represents the department. This representation may be internal, as when a manager makes a case for salary increases for members of the department to top management. The representation may also be external as when an executive speaks for the organisation on a particular issue of interest (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Kotter, 1990; Boyatzis, 1994).

2.13.3.2 Decisional roles

Interpersonal relationships and informational activities serve as basic inputs to the process of decision-making. Some schools of thought have it that these decisional roles of entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator and negotiator are a manager's most important functions. In the role of disturbance handler, managers make decisions or take corrective action in response to pressure that is beyond their control; decisions must be swift and prompt in cases of disturbance. In the resource allocation role, the manager is placed in the position of deciding who gets which resources including money, people, time and equipment. There are usually not enough resources relative to expectations, and the manager must allocate the scarce resources towards numerous possible ends. Resource allocation is one of the most critical of the manager's decisional roles.

2.13.3.3 Negotiator role

Managers must negotiate all the time, with internal staff members and external stakeholders. The negotiation may be on grounds of overwork, performance, resources or anything influencing the concerned communities on service delivery challenges. Managers therefore need a mix of skills to ensure that organisational goals are met (Griffin and Moorhead, 2010). For every role to be effectively achieved, as mentioned above, there is a need to have the requisite alignment of skills from every employee, managers and leaders.

2.13.4 Types and classification of managers' levels

The managerial functions, according to George (2009), must be performed by anyone who manages any type of organised activity. With the basic understanding of management, defining the term manager becomes relatively simple. The manager is someone whose primary activities are a part of the management process. In particular, a manager is someone who plans, organises, leads and controls human, financial, physical and information resources of an organisation. To this end, the success or failure of an organisation depends heavily on the ability of its managers to perform these tasks effectively. Managers can be classified in two ways, firstly by their level within the organisation and secondly, by the scope of their responsibilities.

2.13.5 Levels of management

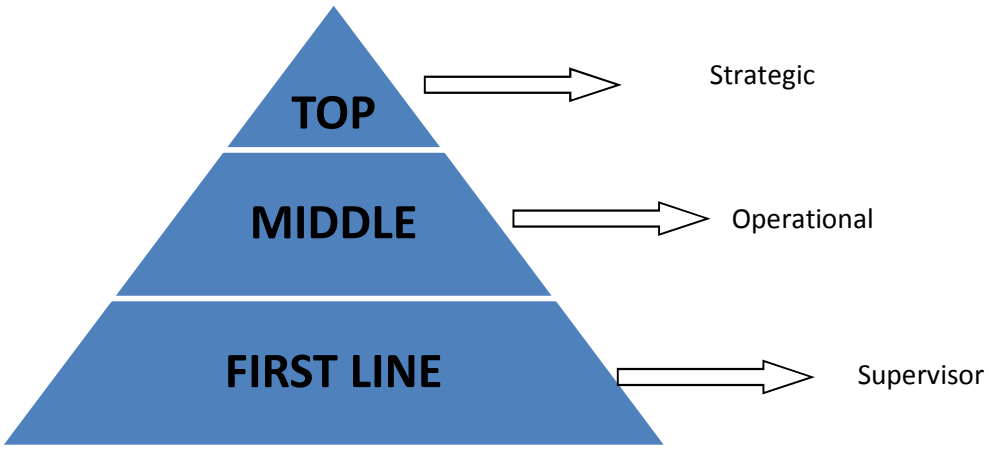
Most people think of three basic levels of management: top, middle, and first-line managers. As depicted in Figure 7 below, top-level management is responsible for the overall direction and operations of an organisation (George, 2009). In particular, they are responsible for setting organisational goals, defining strategies for achieving them, monitoring

and implementing the external environment, and taking decisions that affect the entire organisation. Specific to local government arrangements, the hierarchy includes the Municipal Manager and Heads of Departments. Managers in these positions are responsible for interacting with representatives of the external environment such as important customers, financial institutions and governmental structures, and establishing objectives, policies and strategies.

Middle-level management is responsible for business units and major departments. Examples of middle-level managers are department heads and division heads. The responsibilities of middle managers include translating executive orders into operation, implementing plans, and directly supervising lower-level managers. Middle-level management typically has two or more management levels beneath them. They receive overall strategies and policies from top managers and then translate them into specific objective and programmes for first-line managers (Daft, 1993).

First-line management, which is the supervisory level, is directly responsible for the production of goods and delivery of services. In particular they are responsible for directing non-supervisory staff. First-line managers are variously called office manager, line manager or supervisor as illustrated in Figure 7 below. The search sample selected the top and middle level management and their roles are therefore relevant to the research problem.

Figure 7: Levels of Management



Source: Daft (1993)

2.13.6 Management responsibilities

Managers are also distinguished by the scope of activities they manage. They are individuals, as suggested by Gardner and Nadler (1999) and Miller (1989), who decide on the most appropriate strategies and tactics in order to achieve the goals that have been set to satisfy the various stakeholders. They guide and direct the work performance of employees. Overall, managers are responsible for the complete operation of a more complex unit, such as a company or a division. According to Drucker (1992), managers have a responsibility to organise, directly control the allocation of human, material and financial resources, and co-ordinate information resources in pursuit of the organisational goals. From this brief description it is evident that management is in itself not an independent discipline. Management is, however, a science and an art and must be viewed as being imposed in all known disciplines. The introduction of the relevant skills for this research was tabled in chapter one, but the researcher felt that there was still a need to provide more detail as it was a driver for the research problem. The concept and its importance is discussed below.

2.14 SKILL AS A CONCEPT

Harrison (2003) defines the concept 'skill' as being the process of enabling individuals to assume new roles and implement systems effectively in order to successfully achieve stated performance outcomes. It is also important to mention that the concept of skill is frequently and correctly identified as an important area of knowledge that is mostly needed to function effectively and efficiently in any task that is supposed to be executed and implemented. Robbins (1998) defines skill as the ability to demonstrate behaviour that is realistically related to the attainment of a performance goal.

Skill is further explained as a capability that can be transferred from one person to another. This means that skills are more concerned with the art of knowledge application. Thus an attempt to strengthen the capacity of public servants should not only be based on creating knowledge workers, but also on assisting the public servant to acquire the art of being able to apply knowledge contributing towards the success of the institution (Buckingham and Coffman, 1999). According to Critten (1993), there are three types of skills that should always be taken into account because they are typical to all jobs in both private and public institutions.

The three types of skills as identified by Critten (1993) are conceptual, human and technical skills and can be valuable in properly determining management effectively and efficiently in any institution. Even though most of these skills are self-taught it is important that municipal officials are encouraged to make time available to acquire these skills as they are vital for development and the proper management and administration of a public institution like a local government sector.

2.14.1 Managerial skills

Regardless of the type of goals that must be met or their level of authority, managers need to possess conceptual, human, technical, diagnostic and political skills. The first three skills have long been accepted as important for management, while the last two have received more recent attention.

Developing from the managerial responsibilities, this section discusses managerial skills. According to a classic article by Katz (1995), managerial success depends primarily on performance rather than personality traits. Katz (1995) indicates that while successful managers must possess a high level of expertise in technical, human and conceptual skills, it is also true that each skill will vary in importance according to the level at which the manager is located in the organisation.

Generally, technical skills become least important at the top level of the management hierarchy, replaced with a greater emphasis on conceptual skills. Technical skills are most pronounced at lower levels of management because first-line managers are closer to the production process, where technical expertise is in greatest demand. Human skills are equally necessary at each level of the management hierarchy.

Conceptual skills are critical for top managers because managers have to think in the abstract, and they need the mental capacity to understand the overall working of the organisation and its environment, to grasp how all the parts of the organisation fit together, and to view the organisation in a holistic manner. This allows them to think strategically, to see and to make broad-based decisions for the whole organisation (Barton and Martin, 1993).

Development of human and conceptual skills will be the main thrust of the material in this research. This emphasis does not imply that technical skills

are believed to be less worthy, but simply that they are more easily developed than human and conceptual skills. In many organisations, newly recruited managers have obtained a foundation in technical skills through schooling. In addition, many organisations provide in-house training programmes to develop the technical skills that are specific to the operations of the organisation.

Human skills, according to Mumford, Zaccaro, Connelly and Marks (2000), can be developed through an understanding of human and group behaviour. Conceptual skills can be developed through knowledge of the various factors that influence organisational activities. Both human and conceptual skills rest on information gathering, reflection, and critical analysis. Such skills are not developed through intuition. Rather, development of human and conceptual skills is enhanced by establishing a framework that will enable managers to identify and respond to various factors that affect a given situation.

In addition to the above-mentioned skills, the study highlights some of the relevant skills such as diagnostic, political, persuasion, dialogue and negotiation skills necessary for managers to lead at the local government level with some success. Diagnostic skill, according to Pavett and Lau (2005), includes the ability to determine through analysis and examination the nature of a particular condition. A manager can diagnose a problem in the organisation by studying its symptoms. These skills are also useful in favourable situations, and enable managers to visualise the most appropriate response to a situation. The importance of diagnostic skills increases as the managers improve and influence work performance (Griffin, 1990). Political skills are considered in more detail below.

2.14.2 Political skills

Apart from technical, conceptual and human skills, managers also need political skills to manage effectively, given the diverse nature of their work environments. According to Hunt (1992) and Garratt (1994), a political skill is the ability to acquire the power necessary to reach objectives and to prevent others from abusing that power. Political skill also refers to the exercise of influence through persuasion, manipulation and negotiation (Mintzberg, 1983). The extent to which managers need different kinds of skills varies from lower management to upper management. As previously explained, and in relation to the study focus, municipalities are driven by political interests and are political systems. Organisational politics involves managers building up their departments by fighting for additional resources and authority. Examples of political skills are presented below.

2.14.2.1 Influencing and persuasion skills

In any given situation, a manager can control, influence or appreciate the organisational circumstances. According to Gardener (2006), influencing is the process through which a person modifies the behaviour or attitude of another. Influencing skills are critical to managers since they work through people. Influencing a situation by influencing the people involved to view a situation in a different way suggests that a manager can choose to shape how a situation affects people rather than leaving it to chance. This is being proactive rather than being reactive (which is a situation in which the individual is driven by the social, physical and work environments).

McPheat (2010) suggests that persuasion and influence are actually advanced forms of communication. They require that managers as communicators stop thinking about what they want to say or how they want to say it, but instead consider what other people need to hear. This skill need enables managers to be calm and confident and to keep trying to identify what it is that other people need to hear. As a result, the manager must appreciate his or her own sources of power and choose the right ones to exercise. These powers include power originating from formal

hiring, selection and appointment; power arising from the resources under one's control; and the ability to influence particular knowledge of the issue and/or skills gained through training and experience and in association with power and with internal and external stakeholders. This skill underlines the importance of contextualising communications to ensure that they meet the needs of subordinates in an organisation. Municipal managers and officials are not an exception to this rule.

Gardner (2006) further explains the influencer role as somebody who can act through a good argument including the logical reasons; and/or that the particular issues have a personal appeal to the target or are of concern to that person. Persuasion skills are vital for municipal managers and programme officials as service delivery and skills development involve a wide range of stakeholders with very different needs and expectations.

The influencer can also influence the target by pointing out the rewards of a particular action; or may put pressure on the person to act in a certain way in order not to attract a certain sanction. The influencer may choose to appeal to the person's emotions and senses. The facilitator or an influencer may draw on the other person's sympathy and trust.

From the above strategies for influencing, it is apparent that the personal sources of power are very important. Interpersonal relations and skills, expertise and credibility are not affected by changes in the environment. Power that depends on other people is also not always reliable since it draws strength from how others recognise or assign such power to an individual. Therefore, to influence effectively it is important to consider the facilitator's credibility, style, communication skills and stature. It is thus crucial for municipal managers and officials to demonstrate integrity and honesty; build commitment and trust; show empathy towards others; communicate well; seek feedback, persuade and listen; and take action to ensure that skills programmes succeed.

2.14.2.2 Persuasion skills

Effective persuasion, according to Thomas (2004), is a process which involves negotiating and learning through which a persuader leads colleagues to a problem's shared solution. It also incorporates discovery, preparation and dialogue. Hook (1999) observes that that the point of persuasion is being able to influence or change attitudes, beliefs or values in relation to a particular subject. Its objectives may range from a slight shift in opinion to a complete change of behaviour. As will be seen in chapter six, employees' negative attitudes affected learning in Emfuleni and Lesedi, due to the perceived gap between training and rewards.

Patterson (1996) concurs with Hook (1999) that persuasion includes knowing what an individual wants to say; how to say it; and saying it; determining the kind of response that is required and designing the approach towards that, providing the person with reasons to support what the facilitator is saying; highlighting the benefits to the person (or the negative consequences associated with remaining on the opposing side or holding a contrary position, or inaction); persisting in the message (especially if the person is wavering); and presenting the facilitator's espoused facts in a variety of ways, using vivid language.

Effective persuasion skills, according to Gardner (2006), require hard work, time and preparation but the results are usually worthwhile. In relation to local government, this function will be helpful to ensure that officials and communities are persuaded to perform, and to participate when they are selected for skills development.

2.14.2.3 Dialoguing

Dialogue is a form of co-ordinated action. In foregrounding the concept of collaboration, the relational foundation of dialogue is highlighted. That is,

meaning within dialogue is an outcome not of individual action and reaction, but of what Shotter (1984) calls joint-action, or the co-ordinated actions of the participants. In this sense, the meaning of an individual's expression within a dialogue depends strongly on the response of his or her speaker. Similarly, Bohm (1998) states that people may start out as holding completely opposing views but may share experiences and discover their common dreams and understandings. What is shared must be relevant insights to show familiarity with the issues, lessons learned and promising practices. This skill is needed to promote co-operation and collaboration to ensure effective delivery of skills capacity-building in local municipalities.

In contrast, according to Gerard and Teurfs (1995), one way of understanding the distinct quality of dialogue is to construct it with discussion. Typically the aim of a discussion is to present one's own point of view and persuade others to adopt it. Dialogue, on the other hand, requires that participation suspends their attachment to a particular point of view, and that a deeper level of listening, synthesis and meaning can emerge (Schein, 1993). Open dialogue is crucial in planning, implementation and monitoring of skills programmes and this skill extends to executives, officials and ward councillors, especially during the integrated development planning process.

2.14.2.4 Negotiation skills

As one of the key human skills, negotiation is an essential aspect of district administration work with the assembly's various stakeholders. Kellogg, Orlikowski and Yates (2002) state that negotiation is a process of seeking agreement or reaching a compromise between parties. This is essential when managing conflicts that could be a threat to the organisation. Municipal managers need negotiation skills to deal with workers and unions to ensure effective identification and prioritisation of training needs across occupational levels and categories.

Barber and Tietje (2004) reiterate that the training of this skill is crucial at the local government level and a set of rules for a negotiator would include a thorough knowledge of the subject that includes the topics or points of negotiation. In the negotiation process, therefore, there is a need to define one's maximum interest, since good negotiators draw on teamwork in an attempt to influence the other party or parties to adopt the negotiator's point of view by making intermediate and non-binding compromises (Tas and LaBrecque, 1996).

2.14.3 The four dimensions of political skills

Ferries, Treadway, Perrewe, Brouer, Douglas and Lux (2007) identify four dimensions of political skills which managers need to manage effectively in organisations. These include social astuteness, interpersonal influence, networking ability, and apparent sincerity. These skills are relevant for the executive, senior managers and political office bearers in local municipalities. These four dimensions are explained in detail below.

Social astuteness

Individuals possessing political skill are astute observers of others. They understand social interactions well and accurately interpret their behaviour and the behaviour of others. They are keenly attuned to diverse social settings and have a high level of self-awareness. Pfeffer (1992) refers to this characteristic as being sensitive to others, and argues that the ability to identify with others is critical to obtaining things for oneself. Socially astute individuals are often seen as ingenious in dealing with others. Social astuteness is critical in building and motivating teams to participate in skills development. As will be seen in chapter six, some employees were not motivated to learn. Social skills are needed to ensure that municipal workers are inspired to take full responsibility for their own learning and development.

Interpersonal influence

According to Ferris, Anthony, Koldinsky, Gimore and Harvey (2002), politically skilled individuals have an unassuming and convincing personal style that exerts a powerful influence on others around them. Interpersonal influence allows people to adapt and calibrate their behaviour to different situations to elicit the desired responses from others. The interpersonal influence dimension denotes "flexibility," which involves adapting one's behaviour to different targets of influence in different contextual settings to achieve one's goals and act on them (Grant, 1995). In planning skills development programmes, managers and programme officials have to interact with a wide range of stakeholders inside and outside the organisation in order to mobilise the resources needed to support the implementation process. This requires flexibility and effective application of emotional intelligence.

Networking ability

Individuals with political skill are adept at identifying and developing diverse contacts and networks of people. People in these networks tend to hold assets seen as valuable and necessary for successful personal and organisational gains (Burt, 1992). Because of their typically understated style, politically skilled individuals easily develop friendships and build strong, beneficial alliances and coalitions. Furthermore, according to Burt, Jannota and Mahony (1998), individuals high in networking ability ensure they are well positioned to both create and take advantage of opportunities and their attributes influence how social networks are developed and utilised. Finally, they are often highly skilled negotiators and deal-makers and are adept at conflict management (Ferries, *et al*., 2007; Pfeffer, 1992). In the context of skills development, networking skills are critical in establishing and nurturing partnerships with service providers, quality assurance bodies such as the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA), accreditation agencies and community representative bodies that

include ward committees, joint community forums and local NGO, CBOs and NPOs.

Apparent sincerity

Politically skilled individuals appear to others as having high levels of integrity and as being authentic, sincere and genuine. They are, or appear to be, honest and forthright. This dimension of political skill is crucial in attempting to influence people because it focuses on the perceived intentions of the behaviour exhibited. Closely linked to this dimension is affability. According to Kolodinsky, Hochwarter and Ferris (2004), affability reflects an outgoing, likeable and interpersonally pleasant orientation, and is represented by such constructs as extraversion, agreeableness and positive thinking. In a local government context, this dimension suggests that executives and officials should act as role models and be aware of community needs and expectations. This dimension highlights the need for proper conduct and integrity in the execution of their functions, including skills development.

2.14.4 Summary of political skills

Political skill reflects the capacity to effectively exercise influence over others at work. Individuals with high levels of political skill know which particular type of influence tactic or strategy to employ in each situation. These individuals also know precisely how to execute a specific tactic or strategy in the most appropriate way to demonstrate the desired effect, thus ensuring the success of the attempt to exert influence. For example, ingratiation and self-promotion can be quite differently perceived and interpreted based on whether the actor is more, or less, politically skilled. It follows therefore that political skills are as important as technical, human and scientific skills in municipalities. The discussion thus far has been concerned with the technical, human, conceptual and interpersonal skills that managers need to run their organisations. As reflected in chapter one,

these skills are crucial for effective service delivery in municipalities, including SDM, which is the main focus of this research. The following section summarises skills development as a systematic process.

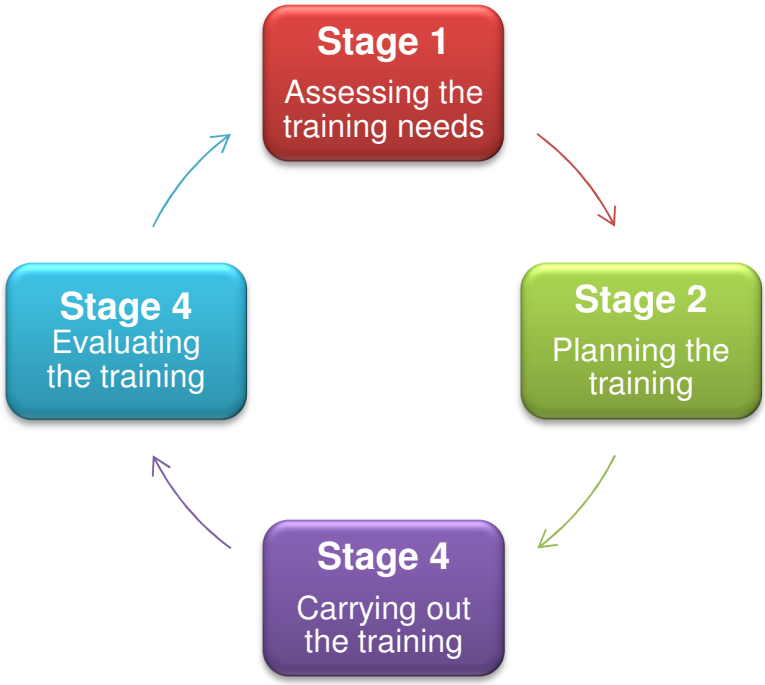
2.15 THE SKILLS DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS

The concept of skills development is relatively new in South Africa arising out of the new policy and legislative framework discussed in chapter one. Traditionally, training has been the most popular concept in human resource development literature. For this reason, training and skills development are used interchangeably below.

2.15.1 The training cycle

The literature suggests that training is a systematic process involving four sequential steps (Buckley and Apple 1995; Ivancevich 1995; Bargraim, Jaga and Meyer, 2010; and Coetzee 2013). This means that training involves proper planning. The key steps involved in the training process are illustrated (Figure 7-b) and explained briefly below.

Figure 7-b: Training cycle



Source: Bargraim, Jaga and Meyer, 2010 (2010)

In terms of Figure 7-b, effective training entails four interrelated stages, namely assessing training needs; planning the training, carrying out the training and evaluating the training. Each one of these steps requires specific action steps to ensure that the training programme produces the desired results. Following is a brief discussion of these steps and their relation to the study.

Stage 1: Assessing training needs

As shown in the illustration (Figure 7-b), the first step of the training process entails assessing training needs. This is part of the skills audit by Meyer and Orpen (2013) which practically means collecting data or information about the training needs of employees and those of the organisation or municipality. It is the systematic collection and evaluation of information to identify the gaps in the existing competency levels, skills,

knowledge and attitudes of employees. It involves gathering and analysing data about employees' existing capabilities and the organisation's demands for skills, and analysing the implications that new and changed roles have for changes in capability. Similarly Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) indicate that if a learning package is of sound design, it should help the learners to bridge a performance gap. The suggestion is that if a programme is carefully designed, learning can be evaluated fairly and objectively whilst the training session is being conducted. The information obtained from an analysis of the assessed needs provides the foundation for human resource development (Coetzee, 2013).

Common methods that are used to collect data include interviews with managers and staff, job analysis, observation and feedback from activities such as performance appraisals, and career counselling planning (Bargraim, 2010; Mabey and Salaman, 1996). Needs analysis is therefore crucial to the planning, design and delivery of any training and development initiative in the workplace (Coetzee, 2013). Bird and Cassel (2013) provides useful probing questions that can be used to identify training needs in an organisation and these are:

a) What is driving the training request? What is the root cause of the issue behind the training?
b) What are the opportunities for developing greater performance?
c) What are the success measures and business outcomes that must be achieved?

Leatherman (1990) emphasises the need to involve all key stakeholders in the identification of training needs. The end result of the needs assessment phase is a detailed workplace skills plan (WSP) showing the training needs of staff at each level of the organisation (Coetzee, 2010).

Stage 2: Planning the training

The second step in the training process is planning, which entails activities such as setting training objectives in light of the organisation's and employee's training needs identified above and determining both the financial and material resources needed to implement the training programme (Bargraim *et al.,* 2010). Planning also involves consideration of issues such as the approach and methodology that will be used to deliver the training, for example, on-the-job training or off-the-job training, as well as the identification of trainers, facilitators or instructors. All these issues are therefore important in ensuring the success of skills development in municipalities.

Stage 3: Carrying out the training

In practice, carrying out the training means delivering the training programme as planned (Buckley and Apple, 1995). Key action steps associated with this stage include developing appropriate training materials i.e. learner guides, assessor guides, moderator guides (Coetzee 2013 and Meyer and Orpen, 2013). This is not always easy as municipalities face an array of problems, including diminishing resources, low staff morale and competing service delivery priorities, among others.

2.15.2 Training methods

Successful implementation of a training programme requires careful selection of training methods. These include coaching, mentoring, lectures, in-basket exercises, games, simulations, and team-building exercises.

The programme design must take account of whether the skill will be taught and practised as one whole unit or divided into parts. It should provide for adequate practice time and be based on the requirements of the job (Lundy and Cowling, 1996).

Stage 4: Evaluating the training

Training evaluation is intended to determine the effectiveness of the training programme (Erasmus, Loedolff, Mda and Nel, 2006). The value of any training initiative will focus on how useful it has been to an individual who has experienced the training; the impact that individual, with an improved knowledge and capability, has made to a specific job or team; and the wider impact on the business in terms of improved process or increased profitability (Bird and Cassell, 2013).

There are some real benefits to effective training evaluation, including higher motivation of participants where the value of a programme can be demonstrated; proof that training makes a difference – examples may include productivity increases, cost savings, increased sales, improved retention of staff, greater team cohesion and morale, better messaging and clarity when presenting, reduced duplication of effort, less time spent correcting mistakes, faster access to information; increased investment from organisations because they can see the value that training brings; improved allocation of resources in future; higher profile of trainers and the learning and development department, and evidence that change and improved results in the workplace can occur.

It follows therefore that monitoring and evaluation are key to determining the effectiveness and efficiency of skills development programmes in municipalities. Kirkpatrick (2006) suggests four levels of training evaluation, namely:

Level 1: Reaction

Evaluation at this level measures how those who participate in the training programme react to it. This is usually done at the end of the training programme with participants required to complete a questionnaire or

“happy sheets” (Bird and Cassell, 2013). The key question here is: How do learners feel about the learning programme and associated activities?

Level 2: Learning

The second level of training evaluation entails determining learning effectiveness by asking questions such as: Did learning occur? Did learners or participants understand key concepts and principles associated with the training programme? Useful tools here include knowledge tests, examinations, demonstrations and simulations.

Level 3: Behaviour

Level 3 measures the extent to which a change in behaviour on the job has occurred as a direct result of the participants attending the training programme. The key question here is: Do people or participants use their newly acquired knowledge and attitudes to improve their performance and customer satisfaction in their respective jobs? Techniques used to measure behaviour change include observation by the employee’s immediate supervisor; work-based projects, simulations, and portfolio of evidence (POE).

Level 4: Results

This level is concerned with the impact or the results of the training programme on the overall performance of the organisation. The impact here could be determined in monetary terms, for example, return on investment (ROI), cost/benefit analysis, and cost savings resulting from reduced waste, defects and duplication and improved customer satisfaction due to the training received (Bird and Cassell, 2013).

Today, training programmes cannot merely be a ‘good idea’ but must directly relate to measurable performance metrics that will advance the company’s business plans. Return on investment (ROI), a process that

compares the monetary benefits or outcomes of training with the cost of training, is a critical factor for strategic training and development. ROI benefits or an outcome is the value gained by the organization. For example, on-boarding that results in retention of new staff and decreased costs of turnover, and increased customer base due to improved call centre service increased member retention and/or revenue base.

2.15.3 Transfer of learning

To benefit from off-the-job training, it is essential to maximise the transfer of learning to the job setting. According to Lundy and Cowling (1996), ways of doing this include the following:

a) Maximise the similarity between the training and the job situation.
b) Provide as much experience as possible with the task being taught.
c) Provide for a variety of examples when teaching concepts or skills.
d) Identify or label important features of the task.
e) Make sure that general principles are understood before expecting much transfer.
f) Make sure that the training behaviours and ideas are rewarded in the job situation.
g) Design the training content so that the trainees can see its applicability.

2.15.4 Feedback

Feedback, or knowledge of results, is critical to both learning and motivation. Deprived of feedback, a trainee may learn a skill incorrectly. Feedback enables incorrect behaviour to be eliminated and because it reinforces correct behaviour it acts as an incentive because the individual experiences success. It is therefore a powerful source of motivation. Feedback should be linked to programme goals. The sooner negative

feedback is provided the more likely it will be seen as relevant. Feedback is particularly valuable where the trainee has been taught how to evaluate his/her own performance. The principle of prompt feedback applies to skills development in municipalities as well.

Up to this point, the discussion has dealt with the stages involved in the training process. What is clear from this discussion is that training requires proper planning, provision of feedback to learners and transfer of learning to the workplace. The analysis in chapter six will provide more information on these points.

2.16 INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVE OF SKILLS CAPACITY-BUILDING

The perspectives of Blair (2005) on capacity building as a means to enhance service delivery in local government contexts are discussed. This makes it appropriate to compare and contrast the capacity-building strategies that these countries use to support service delivery and outcomes. The European Union and United Kingdom approaches to capacity development will yield lessons that may deepen understanding of skills capacity in SDM.

2.16.1 United Kingdom capacity-building processes

The United Kingdom (UK) government capacity-building programme was established in 2003. The aim of the programme was to develop confidence and leadership skills within local councils as well as to develop their capacity to learn, innovate and share knowledge and expertise about what works and how (Local Government Association, 2009). The capacitation of councils was necessary not only to build the appropriate organs of state in a new political, economic and social environment but also to manage the pressures for and against change. Early priorities were to establish the

rule of law, institutional reform, effective public administration, and an effective parliament. But once the national government was established, the development of local democracy was essential to avoid tendencies to authoritarianism and to better meet the real needs of local people. Effective, democratic local government, according to Blair (2005), both delivers better local public services and gives local people a meaningful voice in the services they receive and in the way they are governed. It means that people in power locally become accountable to the people they serve, rather than to central government.

In a number of transitional countries, the development of local democracy has been limited. Competencies have been transferred, but in some cases not sufficiently or without sufficient resources. Public services are being provided, but not always to the standards to which local people are entitled. Local leadership is present but is not always sensitive to the needs of local people. Local people may vote, but they may not do much more than that (Local Government Association, 2009).

2.16.2 A vision of local democracy

The development of effective democratic local government is a fundamental change from the old ways of governing. To adopt this approach, people need a vision of what real local democracy might be. Local democracy means that local authorities provide effective leadership for their communities. They work with civil society to introduce joint projects, to develop longer term plans for their community, and to meet the challenges of the future. They focus on delivering results that improve the quality of life for local people and provide public services that meet recognised standards and respond to the needs of local people.

Blair (2005) with reference to the European Council explains the role played by local democracy. Local people are engaged with their local

authority not only through elections but in the setting of priorities, in the design of public services, and in the decisions that affect those services. Local people understand their local authority's plans and celebrate their achievements. They are able to hold the local authority accountable. Local democracy means that local people need to be represented by leaders who themselves aspire to this vision, who understand how national and local government functions, who care about the needs of the people who elect them, who communicate well and who encourage wider democratic participation.

2.16.3 The challenges of capacity-building from the European Council

There is another dimension to creating the necessary framework for effective and democratic local government. The will and capacity of government may be in place but this is not sufficient. One of the complex issues, according to Meehan (1993) relates to recruitment of professional people to non-coastal areas that are not unique to local government. There was some reluctance for managers to seek positions in locations that did not concur with their lifestyles. A central government concern about this reluctance was justified. They needed the confidence that local government will work well and the assurance that basic standards will be achieved, and that public money will be properly accounted for. For that reason, capacity-building programmes were essential.

2.16.4 The Council of Europe National Training Strategy

According to Blair (2005), a central element in capacity-building is the delivery of the right training at the right time to the right people. This does not often happen as training is often wasted because the trainee may lose his or her job following the next election, since there are no professional career or succession plan prospects, or might seek a better paying job elsewhere; the trainee cannot put the learning into practice because the

competencies and resources have not been allocated as expected; or the training standards may be low, the methodology traditional and the manuals not well prepared.

In transitional countries many staff and elected representatives receive little training because they work in smaller, more remote local authorities or there is no training budget. This is similar to the South African training challenges. The recruitment and the selection of competent candidates is also a challenge and training courses are insufficient. There needs to be a supportive training environment. Accordingly a National Training Strategy has to be owned by local government itself as their strategy. There are also other stakeholders, particularly the local government training providers and donors. A National Training Strategy needs the support of all stakeholders if it is to be effective, as it sets the framework of all training.

2.16.5 Best practice from the United Kingdom experience

This section explains what best practice is and how it can be used to improve local government leadership, management and service delivery. The criteria that help distinguish best practice from “average practice” must be identified. According to the Council of Europe (2005), best practice is an action which is innovative; replicable (in a new environment); relevant (to the problem identified); a success story based on sufficient, reliable data; based on evidence from multiple settings (local, regional and international); focused on both process and outcomes; and which takes account of the wider picture.

Looking at the seven best practices listed above, it can be inferred that innovation, replication and the need to focus on process and outcomes are not only relevant but also essential in planning and executing skills development programmes at local government level.

2.16.6. Benchmarking with the South African perspective

According to Davies, Stankav and Roberts (1998), many municipalities are using benchmarking as a means to improve service delivery. The rise of benchmarking in local government parallels the widespread adoption of strategic management. The rising demand for high quality services and the need to reduce service costs have prompted municipalities to initiate internal and external learning activities. The advantage of benchmarking, according to Kyro (2003), is classically seen as a tool to improve organisational performance and competitiveness in that it offers evidence that ideas invented elsewhere can work, and opens doors for innovation. With benchmarking, a municipality is able to compare its own value chain with those of leading organisations in or outside its area of jurisdiction. Benchmarking facilitates organisational learning, continuous improvement, capacity-building and self-evaluation. It is one of the fundamental principles of total quality management (Karia and Assari, 2006).

Although the task of benchmarking seems fairly easy on the surface, this process is complex and requires vital skills such as, for example, conceptual, analytical and technical skills. John and Eeckhout (2006) point out that unless managers have these skills, the chances of success in benchmarking are poor. Therefore building the skills capacity required to undertake meaningful benchmarking initiatives in local municipalities is fundamentally important. In short, managers and employees in the three SDM local municipalities need to be exposed to basic benchmarking principles and processes through education and training.

Several studies have attempted to address capacity-building in state institutions from different perspectives. Examples include Mabala (2006), whose doctoral research focuses on aspects such as leadership perspectives on service delivery in the South African Public Service;

Ngoatje (2007) whose research was on capacity-building; and Naidoo and Kuye (1994) whose research was on service delivery in the South African Public Service from 1994 to 2003. What is common in these studies is that all provide a generic view of state capacity, describing leadership capacity challenges, institutional and financial management challenges at the local government level. None of them alludes to skills development as a driver of service delivery. This research, therefore, marks a departure from these studies in that it examines whether skills capacity contributes to effective service delivery at local government level. As will be seen in chapter seven, this research also demonstrates that organisational learning plays a key role in enhancing organisational memory.

2.17 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE STUDY

The international experience cited above has implications for the study. Firstly, it is evident that capacity-building and service delivery issues are a world-wide phenomenon, as illustrated by the European case; and that local governments adopt a variety of strategies to improve the delivery and quality of services. Of particular importance is that the European experience places a strong emphasis on quality improvement initiatives.

Secondly, with regard to capacity-building, the UK Council experience shows that complementary structures are provided to support the institutional capacity. Notably, the focus on best practice models provides the added advantage in terms of both the capacity and support infrastructure required to scale up the provisioning of services to citizens.

There are similarities between the approach of the United Kingdom to capacity-building and that of South Africa, where its municipal trainees often lose their jobs following the next election due to lack of future professional career prospects on talent retention and succession plans. Other similar approaches relate to an emphasis on the involvement of

different stakeholders such as government, labour, business and local communities.

Of importance is the decentralisation of processes and systems in the development of local governance. This statement implies capacity-building would be treated as an on-going process of developing local government. What this means, therefore, is that unless local government capacity is built and strengthened at the right time and with the right people, service delivery efforts are likely to suffer and training is often wasted.

2.18 SUMMARY

Overall, the literature review has delineated the concepts that are crucial in understanding state capacity in the provision of services in Sedibeng District Municipality. These include skills capacity-building, leadership and governance, performance management and service delivery.

In respect of capacity-building, it was argued that skills capacity plays a vital role in driving superior performance and ensuring effective service delivery in local municipalities, including Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

Regarding leadership and governance, it was argued that the performance of an organisation is directly related to the quality of its leadership. In this, leadership plays a key role in mobilising the support, commitment and resources needed to implement skills development programmes in municipalities.

With regard to performance management, it was explained that this process needs to be aligned with skills capacity-building as it helps with the identification of performance gaps and employees' development needs.

In respect of monitoring and evaluation, the study argues that this activity drives policy implementation by ensuring accountability for outcomes in policy interventions, including skills development. In this way, M&E underpins effective skills development in local municipalities.

As mentioned in chapter one, the study was interested in establishing whether SDM's three local municipalities (Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi) had utilised the new policy framework to build the technical, conceptual and human skills needed to improve service delivery in this area. The literature suggests that these skills are mutually inclusive and therefore crucial for executive managers, senior managers and political officers in local municipalities.

The international perspective revealed several important lessons regarding skills development practice. For example, the UK experience shows that effective skills development in local government contexts should be innovative, relevant, focus on both processes and outcomes, and be replicable.

Based on the foregoing, the next chapter provides a detailed explanation of the theoretical and conceptual framework. According to Babbie (2014), concepts and theory provide the basis for understanding the research phenomenon and justifying the chosen path of investigation. These theories and conceptual frameworks will deepen understanding of capacity-building practice within the context of local government and enable the researcher to make informed inferences on the findings of the study.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL AND THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 INTRODUCTION

A conceptual framework helps researchers to model relationships between theories; reducing theoretical data into statements or models; explicating theories that influence the research; providing theoretical bases to design, interpret or research; and creating theoretical links between extant research, current theories, research design, interpretations of findings and conceptual conclusions (Leshem and Trafford, 2007). The conceptual framework is where the writer examines the key concepts used in the research and identifies the relationships between concepts. It provides the basic outline for analysing the data and drawing conclusions (Badenhorst, 2007).

Against this background, the aim of chapter three is to explain and justify the theoretical and conceptual framework employed by this study. The proposed model or framework will be developed and presented in chapter six following the data presentation, research analysis and the findings.

Hanekom and Thornhill (1983) explain that theory is derived from the Latin word *theoria and* Greek *theoreo,* meaning observation, speculation and sight. According to Hanekom and Thornhill (1983), the theory is used to indicate a frame of reference and abstracted generalisation that may stand in lieu of the facts. Theory therefore encourages reasoning and an understanding of a frame of reference. The latter is crucial in the process of decision-making in order to make rational decisions within organisations and improve performance.

3.2 MANAGEMENT THEORIES

Contemporary theories of management tend to account for and help interpret the rapidly changing nature of today's organisational environments. This research will deal with several important management theories and is useful for two reasons. Firstly, it provides the framework for understanding the changes taking place in organisations in respect of management practices and service delivery strategies and processes. Secondly, management theory provides a guide to how people management practices have evolved over the years and what municipalities can learn from these.

According to Flippo and Munsinger (1975), management is fundamentally a process of planning, organising, directing and controlling activities that will lead to the effective fulfilment of organisational objectives within the parameters set by society. An important element of this definition is the inclusion of societal parameters. What this means is that management decisions should be ethical; that is, they should conform to societal norms and values. This is particularly true for public servants who are entrusted with the responsibility of managing government agencies such as local municipalities. On the basis of this view, the purpose of this section is to provide an overview of management theories from the classical period to modern times.

For the purposes of this study, management theories that will be considered include scientific management theory, bureaucratic theory and administrative theory, as reflected below.

3.2.1 Scientific management theory

Scientific management theory was developed in the early 20th century by Frederick W. Taylor. Taylor was decrying the awkward, inefficient, or ill-

directed movements of men as a national loss. Taylor consistently sought to overthrow the approach of management by rule of thumb and replace it with actual timed observations leading to best practice. He also advocated the systematic training of workers in specific best practice rather than allowing them personal discretion in their tasks. The emphasis on systematic training of employees has a direct bearing on human resource development programmes. In practice this means that skills development programmes must be properly planned so that the desired expectations of the citizens are produced. While scientific management may be credited for providing the first ever structured approach to management in the workplace, the associated shortcomings cannot be overlooked.

Firstly, Taylor's over-emphasis on rules and conformity has been deemed problematic by Aktan and Ozler (2008) in that it stifles creativity and innovation, as employees have to do everything by the rules because Taylor in his studies found out that organisations cannot benefit from workers and believed that forming and programming of how work must be done must be re-regulated by scientific analysis so that output can be increased.

Secondly, perhaps one of the greatest shortcomings of scientific management is its depiction of workers as machines. In some way, this connotes exploitation and thereby the dehumanisation of employees.

Thirdly, the apparent narrow focus on the role of managers in organisations especially with regard to HR issues is another defect of scientific management. In the information-driven economy of the 21st century, managers have to be versatile and exhibit an all-round ability to deal with a wide range of complex organisational issues on a daily basis. Therefore, reliance on payment for workers was a motivating factor. Fayol (1949) and Weber (1946) suggests that these approaches would not help today's managers, particularly in complex organisations such as

municipalities, and therefore regarded the critiques as a base for themselves and build on Taylor's teachings (Simsek, 2009). However, according to McNamara (2009), the Taylor approach appeared to work well for organisations with assembly and other mechanistic routine functions.

3.2.2 Bureaucratic theory

Historically Weber (1946) is regarded as the founding father of bureaucratic theory. Weber encompasses a set of principles for an ideal bureaucracy as follows: fixed and official jurisdictional areas; a firmly ordered hierarchy of superiority and subordination; management based on written records; thorough and expert training; official activity taking priority over other activities; and management of a given organisation that follows stable, knowable rules. The bureaucracy was envisioned as a large machine for attaining its goals in the most efficient manner possible.

As explained by Crainer (1995), in the 1930s Max Weber, a German sociologist, wrote a rationale that described the bureaucratic form as being the ideal way of organising government agencies. Weber's principles spread throughout the public and private sectors. Even though Weber's writings have been widely discredited, the bureaucratic form lives on in Weber's six major principles as presented in Table 10 below.

Table 10: Weber's Ideal Bureaucracy

A formal hierarchy of structure	A formal hierarchy is the basis of central planning and centralised decision-making.
Management by rules	Controlling by rules allows decisions made at high levels to be executed consistently by all lower levels.
Organisation by functional specialty	Work is to be done by specialists, and people are organised into units based on the type of work they do or skills they have.
An up-focused or in-focused mission	If the mission is described as “up-focused”, then the organisation's purpose is to serve the stakeholders, the board, or whatever agency empowered it. If the mission is to serve the organisation itself, and those within it, e.g., to produce high profits, to gain market share, or to produce a cash stream, then the mission is described as “in-focused”.
Purposely impersonal	The idea is to treat all employees equally and customers equally, and not be influenced by individual differences.
Employment based on technical qualifications	Selection and promotion is based on the qualifications and performance of members

Source: Adapted from Crainer (1995)

Table 10 above depicts how almost all the components of Weber’s Ideal Bureaucracy apply to public sector organisations. For example, the emphasis on hierarchy, rules, equality, and merit-based employment practices reflect exactly what is happening in many organisations today. Possibly the one area where some public institutions are still lacking is the use of merit in recruitment and selection decisions, particularly in municipalities where cases of nepotism, patronage and corruption are reported.

Overall, this theory is relevant to the study as it touches on the key issues affecting capacity-building and service delivery in the SDM in particularly, for example, the need for specialisation based on the type of work or employee skills. Despite providing a workable organisational model, Weber's work has been criticised for its reliance on hierarchy. The concern here is not so much about hierarchy, but rather the centralisation of decision-making, which makes it difficult for large organisations such as municipalities to respond quickly and flexibly to the diverse and sometimes conflicting needs of their constituencies.

Consequently, the term "red tape", according to Hahn (2007), has often been used to describe the rigidity associated with Weber's organisational model. In local government there is often criticism related to undue delays in delivering much-needed services due to "red tape". What this means is that the tall organisational structure (hierarchy) delays implementation on the ground as only senior management has the authority to make and verify decisions.

3.2.3 Administrative theory

Fayol (1949), unlike Taylor (1991) recognises that *esprit de corps* is a vital ingredient in any organisation; his theory focus was mainly concerned with the functions of management in organisations as opposed to workers on the shop floor. Fayol believes that management has five principal roles: to forecast and plan; to organise; to command; to co-ordinate; and to control. Table 11 below summarises the implication of these management functions and their relevance to the study.

Table 11: Five Roles of Management

Managerial Role	Role Justification
Forecasting and planning	Forecasting and planning was the act of anticipating the future and acting accordingly.
Organising	Organisation was the development of the institutions resources, both material and human
Commanding	Commanding was keeping the institutions actions and processes running.
Co-ordinating	Co-ordination was the alignment and harmonisation of the group's efforts
Control	Control meant that the above activities were performed in accordance with appropriate rules and procedures

Source: Adapted from Crainer (1995)

It can be inferred from Table 11 above that municipal public servants need to revisit their principles such as planning, organising, leading, co-ordinating and controlling knowledge and skills. The view is that all these skills are critical in ensuring effective delivery of services to citizens. In order for public servants to improve on these skills, municipalities should develop and implement more rigorous and appropriate training interventions.

The fourteen principles of the administrative theory mentioned above are relevant to the SDM case study as the success of skills building programmes depends on proper execution of these tasks. For example, while planning informs identification of skills needs, coordination ensures that skills development efforts are synchronised to avoid duplication and fragmented implementation processes. The organising function is critical in providing the material and human resources needed to support implementation of skills capacity building initiatives. Lastly, control not only measures performance but also ensures accountability in the implementation of skills programmes. These examples illustrate how

administrative theory can be applied to facilitate planning and execution of skills programmes in the case study. However, as will be seen in Chapter Six, the research findings demonstrated that problems existed in the planning of skills programmes in Sedibeng.

Of all the management functions proposed by Administrative theory (table 11), perhaps co-ordination stands out as the most useful one. Given the large size of state institutions and the multiplicity of the stakeholders that they serve, co-ordination becomes a vital tool for pooling together the various functions and programmes of government to ensure that service delivery goals are met timeously.

The first challenge with Fayol's principles of management is "knowing when to apply them and how to adapt them to new situations" (Hahn, (2007). Therefore, co-ordinating functions may also be a challenge to ensure that skills development interventions are integrated across departments in municipalities. The second problem with administrative theory is that it overemphasises the role of management in organisations. This creates the impression that only managers are responsible for ensuring organisational success as long as they adhere to the five functions cited above. In short, managers are at the centre of the production process.

The above scenario contrasts sharply with today's work environment, which requires teamwork where managers, employees, partners, contracting agencies, beneficiaries and local communities work together to find the most viable policy alternatives and service delivery strategies that effectively address their diverse needs. Therefore, an over-reliance on managers as custodians of service delivery will not work in multi-cultural settings such as those of municipalities in South Africa.

3.3 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Performance management is a topic of strong interest in human resource training and development for professionals, especially those engaged in helping organisations to re-think and re-design their performance management systems. A traditional definition of performance by Warren (1982) is that it is the systematic application of processes aimed at optimising human performance in an organisation. This view from Warren (1982) is shared by Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, Poisat, Scultz and Sono (2008) whose definition of performance management is that it is an holistic approach and processes which ensure that individuals' shared goals as well as an organisation's strategic objectives can be achieved through a performance management approach.

3.3.1 Underlying performance management theories

Psychologists have provided an extensive and rich array of motivational theories, yet there is much room for improvement in how applied performance management takes advantage of motivation theory. For example, Guest (1997) lobbies for Expectancy Theory as the key linkage between motivation and performance. Donovan (2001) lists Equity Theory, Expectancy Theory, Cognitive Evaluation Theory, Goal-Setting Theory, Control Theory, and Social Cognitive Theory as having received the most attention in recent years. From this collection, this research will select three to be linked to the study, namely Goal-Setting Theory because goals are central to even the most basic performance management systems as explained by Locke and Latham (1990); Control Theory because feedback is central to performance management and for growing interest in self-regulated performance (Carver and Scheier, 1998); and Social Cognitive Theory which adds explicit goal-focused aspects to the social learning view of motivation (Donovan, 2001).

Human Resource Development's reflection on these and other theories is needed for two purposes: first, to respond to the question of whether or not applied performance management is taking full advantage of advancing theory; and second, these theories help draw forth challenging questions when they are considered from the performer's perspective. The overview below of each theory provides background for further discussion.

3.3.1.1 Goal-Setting Theory

This theory has been studied extensively and has been found to be exceptionally reliable, valid and useful across diverse work situations. Locke and Latham (2002) describe five moderators that further affect goal-driven performance. Most critical is goal commitment, especially for more challenging and difficult goals. The second moderator, goal importance, affects the commitment level. A variety of tactics can increase goal importance, including public statements, organisational vision-goal alignment, and goal assignment, participation in goal-setting and monetary incentives. An individual's self-efficacy level is another moderating influence. People with strong self-belief and confidence in their capabilities show more commitment to achieving difficult goals. This theory raises issues that are pertinent to the study; for example, the need for goal alignment and participation in goal-setting are crucial in promoting skills development in SDM. A related point is the need to use financial incentives to improve staff motivation and commitment, which are necessary for programme implementation in any organisation.

3.3.1.2 Control Theory

This is described in self-regulation terms as an on-going comparative process aimed at reducing the discrepancy between standards for behaviour and the observed effects of actual behaviour (Carver and Scheier, 1998). Whereas goal-setting theory places the emphasis on goal specificity and difficulty, with feedback given secondary status, control

theory essentially reverses the order. It is this focus on feedback as a primary Performance Management Theory behaviour regulatory device that explains the on-going attention given to control theory and why it is included in this discussion.

Carver and Scheier (1998) and Richards (1995) illustrate how control theory explains the shaping of behaviour through feedback. At their model's centre is a sensor that continuously compares current behaviour to a standard or goal set for that behaviour. According to control theory, people are self-regulating just like a thermostat that continuously regulates a home's heat. However, instead of a mechanical device, regulation in humans entails a cognitive process. Control theory asserts that performers monitor their behaviour and its effects relative to behavioural standards (Power, 1998). A key aspect of the control theory which complements the study is the need to include feedback in performance management. As discussed in chapter one, the study sought to determine if performance management had been linked to skills capacity-building to improve service delivery in Sedibeng.

3.3.1.3 Social Cognitive Theory

Bandura (1986) draws his conception of social cognitive theory from his earlier and larger work on social learning theory. In his view, motivation is influenced by the interaction of three key elements: the work environment itself, what the performer thinks, and what the performer does. Each influences the other. Bandura emphasises the importance of performers monitoring their behaviours and self-reacting, much like control theory. His central concept of self-efficacy, what people think or believe about their capabilities, helps explain how a performer's beliefs about what he or she can or cannot do, moderates performance.

Strong performance, according to Pajares (1996), requires positive self-belief of efficacy in addition to appropriate skills and abilities. Self-efficacy

not only affects the choice of goals, the difficulty level, and commitment to them, but fundamental choices of work and career as well. If healthy self-efficacy is important to performance, then developing and strengthening of positive self-belief in employees is a meaningful performance management system.

Deducing from this theory, it can be argued that self-efficacy and motivation are vital ingredients for successful execution of skills development programmes in SDM. Understanding motivation is critical, as it provides new insights into improving performance management systems and productivity in organisations (Swanson, 2001). Below is a brief review of leadership theories as they relate to the study.

3.4 LEADERSHIP THEORIES

A number of writers, like Stone, Russell and Patterson (2003), have given their own understanding of leadership with some scholars believing that particular behaviour determines who the leaders are and what they do as well as how they lead. Leadership theories have been proposed in the past and currently and the discourse continues on what it takes to be a good leader. The researcher will make reference to trait, the behavioural as well as the situational theories. Smith, Montagno and Kuzmenko (2004) present a distinction on transformational leaders and servant leadership, in that they are not equivalents of each other nor is one an instance of the other, but rather there are complementary frameworks that share a focus on the individual, both in terms of the appreciation of followers and of the emphasis on leadership characteristics. However, they differ significantly in leader motivation, organisational objectives and measures of success. Where a transformational leader is motivated by the need to achieve organisational goals, the servant leader is motivated by the need to support the self-actualisation of followers. In transformational leadership, the personal development and empowerment of followers is approached

as the mean for achieving organisational goals, whereas in servant leadership it is the goal.

3.4.1 Trait Theory

The trait theory is one of the oldest leadership theories that was simple to implement. Traits are patterns of observable or action-directed behaviours, namely the ways of behaving or a habitual way of thinking. The relationship of a leader trait, according to Humphrey, Hahrgang and Morgeson (2007), is where personality and leader behaviour may be influenced by the organisational structure and therefore the leader should emerge strongest when that situation calls for that particular trait.

There are some people who are said to possess the trait of charm when they characteristically act in a charming manner or are said to be pessimistic if they habitually express negative thoughts. According to Kirkpatrick (1991), few issues have had a more controversial history than the leadership trait. There is conclusive evidence regarding the role of traits of creativity, flexibility and charisma.

Avolio (2007) indicates that the trait theories made no assumption about whether leadership traits were inherited or acquired, but simply asserted that leaders were different by identifying various traits of historical figures like Winston Churchill, and Julius Caesar, among others. The trait review was thrown into confusion mid-century when early reviewers of leadership came to the conclusion that there was no clear tie between a leader's traits and effective leadership.

In spite of the controversy associated with trait theory, there are important lessons from this theory which apply to the study. The first is that, to be effective, leaders must possess certain characteristics, for example, skills, charm and intelligence. These characteristics or traits are crucial in managing people, programmes and resources in any organisation,

including SDM. The second is that leadership behaviours need to be aligned with organisational structure to ensure congruence.

3.4.2 Behavioural approach

A behavioural theory focuses more on what good leaders do rather than on their characteristics or traits. This is a radical departure from the trait theory in that it assumes that leaders can be trained or developed. With the behavioural theory, it is assumed that the way individuals behave in particular situations or under particular circumstances will identify them as leaders (Barton and Martin, 1994); Around the work environment where there are a number of people interacting with each other, there will always be those who behave in such a way that suggests they are giving directions or instructions to achieve certain goals, especially where there are no leaders (Hellriegel, *et al.,* 2008).

During disasters, for example, it is particularly encouraging seeing people assuming leadership roles and responsibilities by giving direction and control by intuition. This type of a leader, even though not designated as such, will act in a way that will make his or her behaviour resemble that of an appointed leader. It is also possible that they have inborn leadership qualities that make them behave like leaders. Overall, this theory suggests that leaders should lead by example so that their followers can emulate them, especially in goal achievement. It follows therefore that implementation of skills programmes in municipalities also requires results-driven leadership that aligns employee behaviour with organisational goals to ensure better outcomes.

3.4.3 Situational leadership theory

In situational leadership theory, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) argue that a leader's task behaviour and relation behaviour interact with the

subordinate's maturity to effectively influence leader effectiveness. Fiedler (1967) suggests that three situational factors, namely the leader-member's relationship, power position and task structure, can moderate the relationship between the leader trait and the leader's effectiveness.

Yukl (1981) also argues that successful leadership depends on the fit with regard to the leader, the subordinate and the situation. According to this theory, anybody can be a leader and the support received from subordinates will influence whether that person succeeds or not.

There is a high level of acknowledgement in the world today that leaders are developed rather than born and need to possess psychological and job maturity (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). Within the context of the study, municipal leaders are faced with a highly dynamic and changing environment that requires frequent adaptation of their management styles and strategies to achieve better results. Municipalities must realise the importance of training for leadership to help them cope with the challenges presented by a complex and multicultural work environment. A brief review of leadership styles is presented below as they have a significant impact on the morale of subordinates and on organisational outcomes.

3.5 LEADERSHIP STYLES

The fact that leadership is one of the complex concepts studies by organisational and psychological researchers is attested to by many different definitions of leadership that are found in the literature (Van Seters and Fields, 1989). Some of these definitions describe leadership as an act of influence, some as a process, while other definitions refer to traits (John and Moser, 1989). Each one attempts to describe the nature and characteristics of leadership. The leadership style or behaviour describes the way in which a leader interacts with others rather that his or

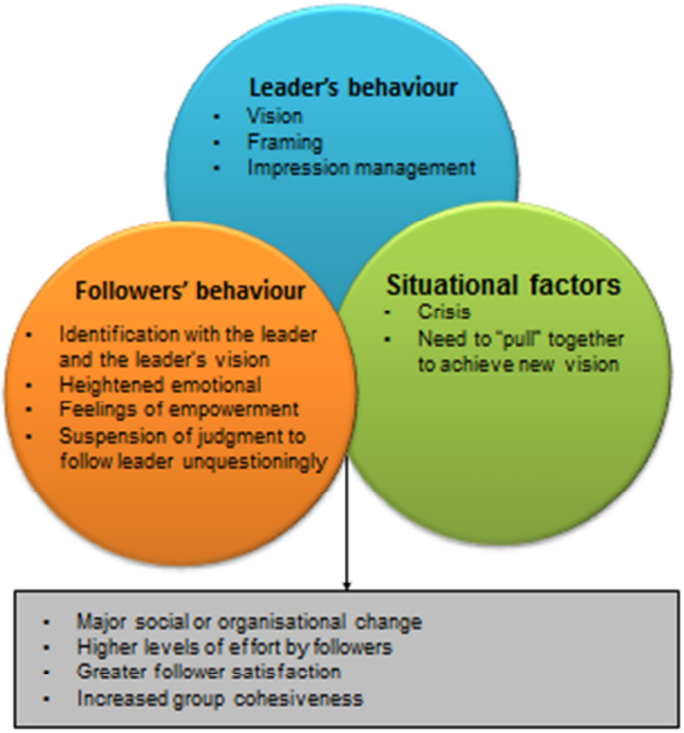
her traits. Before describing leadership styles, it is useful to place them in their context within the evolution of leadership theories.

3.5.1 Transformation leadership style

There is considerable variation in the way leadership is conceptualised. Transformational leadership, according to Northouse (2001), is a process that changes and transforms individuals and has the potential ability to get people to want to change, to improve and to be led. This process also involves assessing group motives, satisfying their needs and valuing them.

Transformational leadership has become a popular leadership model in recent years because of its emphasis on extraordinary leaders' characteristics and its humanistic valuation of followers. Some behavioural scientists contend that transformational leadership theories are rooted in the charismatic leadership framework developed by Max Weber Smith (Montagno and Kuzmenko, 2004). Figure 8 below illustrates the workings of the transformational leadership model.

Figure 8: Transformational leadership model



Source: Northouse (2009)

Figure 8 above shows the interrelated aspects associated with transformational leadership in organisations. The first element is leader's behaviour, which must be exemplary and inspiring to his or her subordinates. The leader must define the vision and motivate followers to buy into and commit to the vision in order to achieve organisational goals. Idealised influence attributes occur when followers identify with and emulate those leaders who are trusted and seen as having an attainable mission and vision. This influence also refers to leader behaviour which results in followers identifying with leaders and wanting to emulate them.

Inspirational motivation is closely related to idealised influence. It implies that leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to the followers' work.

The second variable relates to followers' behaviour which, according to Figure 8, must be identical with the leader's behaviour and vision. This means that followers should adapt to the leader's style and espouse the values embodied in his or her personality or character.

Transformational leaders are regarded as those who motivate their followers and provide support for developing them to higher levels (Bass and Avolio, 1990). Bennis (1959) posits that transformational leaders have the ability to reach the souls of their followers. This notion was modified by Burns (1978) whose view was that transformational leadership represents the transcendence of self-interest by the leaders and the followers.

Dvir Eden, Avolio and Shamir (2002) concurs with Burns (1978) by highlighting that transformational leadership is highly effective in terms of subordinates' development and performance and also acknowledges that transformational leadership has consistently exhibited an influence on their followers' development and ultimately facilitates team performance.

Transformational leaders, according to Sosik, Avolio and Kahai (1997), are able to ensure that followers are consciously aware of the importance of sharing organisational goals and values. They also find ways to ensure that followers know how to achieve these goals. For Sedibeng, this means that executive managers and senior managers need to sensitise staff about the mission and vision of the organisation in light of the organisation's skills development programmes.

Burns (1978) further states that transformational leaders motivate their followers to go beyond their own self-interest and make a particular effort on behalf of the organisation. Bass (1990) and his team identifies five factors which represent the behavioural components of transformational leadership as being idealised influence (attributes); (behaviour); inspirational motivation and the individualised influence.

The idealized influence is the behaviour in which leaders exhibit excellent behaviour and might sacrifice their own needs to improve the objectives of their workgroup (Moss and Ritossa, 2007).

Inspirational motivation describes the degree to which the leader states a vision that is attractive and encouraging to followers (Judge and Piccolo, 2004). The individualized consideration refers to the degree in which leaders provide support, encouragement and coaching to followers (Yukl, 2006). Individualised consideration occurs when leaders relate to followers on a one-on-one basis in order to elevate goals and develop skills. This relates to the Leadership definition as a process of influencing individuals or groups so as to achieve group goals (Hoyt and Blasscovich, 2003).

The third element of transformational leadership pertains to situational factors. For example, in a time of crisis the leader needs to galvanise support and provide direction (i.e. vision) in terms of what needs to be done and communicate this to his or her followers. Based on this, it can be

inferred that transformational leadership emphasises the emotional attachment of followers to the leader's persona and style of leadership. However, this can be problematic when the leader falters, such as failing to lead by example. Intellectual stimulation occurs when leaders encourage their followers to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems and approaching old situations in new ways. Jung and Avolio (2000) confirms that trust in the team leader helps to explain the impact of transformational leadership on performance. The mediating role of trust in the team leader on the relationship between transformational leadership and performance is critical.

Given the above explanation, transformational leadership highlights the need for leaders to inspire their followers to work towards the attainment of organisational goals. This principle is relevant to the research as it seeks to understand whether skills programmes are being implemented to improve staff performance and service delivery in SDM.

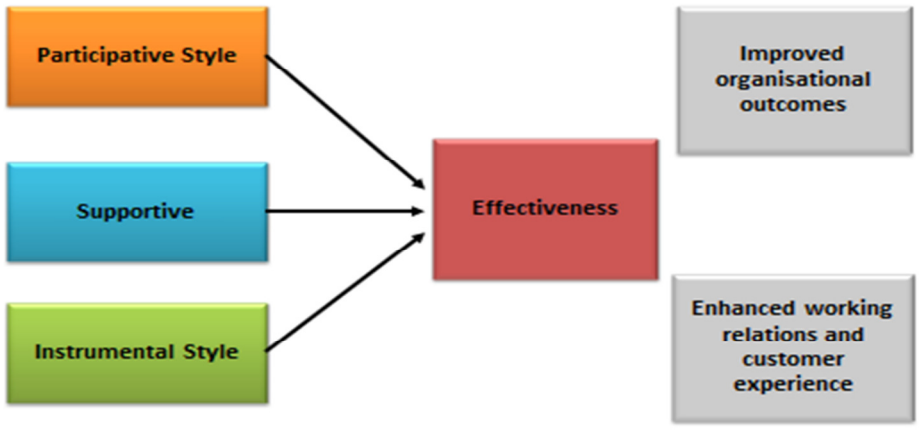
3.5.2 Transactional Leadership style

Bass (1985) refers to transactional leadership as an exchange relationship between leaders and followers. This theory is grounded in the social learning and social exchange theories, which recognise the reciprocal nature of leadership. This theory is also based on the realisation that leadership does not necessarily reside in the person or situation but resides in the social interaction between the leader and the follower (Van Seters and Fields, 1989).

Bass and Avolio (1990) describe transactional leadership in terms of two characteristics: the use of contingent rewards, and management by exception. They describe contingent reward as the reward that the leader will bestow on the subordinates once the latter have achieved the organisational goals that were agreed upon. By making and fulfilling

promises of recognition, pay increases and advancement for employees who perform well, the transactional leader is able to get this done. Bass (1985) therefore argues that by providing contingent rewards, transactional leaders might inspire a reasonable degree of involvement, loyalty, commitment and performance from the subordinates. Figure 9 below illustrates the workings of the transitional leadership styles.

Figure 9: Transactional leadership model



Source: Burns (1978)

Burns (1978) describes transactional leaders as those leaders who influence employee compliance by expected rewards. Transactional leadership is an exchange relationship that involves the reward of effort, productivity and loyalty.

Transactional leadership suggests two important aspects that can be linked to skills capacity-building processes in SDM. The first is the need to reward performance so that employees are motivated to do better in their jobs. The second is that it highlights the need for leaders and managers to work with their teams to set and agree performance goals. In this way, transactional theory provides a good opportunity for municipal managers

to use goal-setting as a means to improve staff performance and outcomes.

3.5.3 *Laissez-faire* leadership style

Both the transactional and the transformation leaders are described as leaders who actively intervene and try to prevent problems, although they use different approaches. These two active forms of leadership are often contrasted with the *laissez-faire* leadership style. According to Bass and Avolio (1990), this type of leadership is also referred to as management by exception. Management by exception characterises action only when subordinates fail to meet the organisational objectives. Leaders who manage by exception intervene only when procedures and standards for accomplishing tasks are not met. An important aspect of this theory relating to the study is employee empowerment, where staff is given all the necessary resources and support to achieve agreed performance targets. The same principle can be applied in the implementation of skills capacity-building programmes. Figure 10 below illustrates the *laissez-faire* leadership style.

Figure 10: Laissez-faire leadership model

Source: Own, 2013

Bass (1990) describes the *laissez-faire* leader as an extremely passive leader who is reluctant to influence subordinates, make decisions or give direction. Such a leader refrains from participating in a group or in individual decision-making, thus giving his or her subordinates considerable freedom to the point of abdicating his or her responsibility.

3.6 MULTI-FACTOR OR DIFFERENT LEADERSHIP STYLES

From the above-mentioned theories as developed by Bass (1980), the approach incorporates the transformational, transactional, laissez-faire and charismatic styles of leadership. These styles have been described as having a direct effect on the individual and organisational level of outcomes (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1992).

3.6.1 Leadership style in capacity building practices

Hellriegel, *et al.,* (2008), McGrath and Bates (2013) and Bass and Avolio (1991) suggest that leaders in today's changing organisations need to

develop their followers to handle greater levels of responsibility and uncertainty. This requires training and development of the employees (Avolio, *et al.,* 1991). This will in turn benefit the transformational leader as it can be argued that transformational leadership would tend to practice the HRM policies that encourage the training and development needs of subordinates. When the idealised and inspirational motivation is displayed, this is when the leader foresees a desirable future and articulates how it can be achieved. This requires human resource management policies with information sharing. A transformational leader would be assumed to be committed to human resource practices which encourage communication and which allow for when subordinates become more innovative and creative.

Drawing on the preceding section, it is evident that leadership is about the exercise of authority, whether formal or informal, in directing and co-ordinating the work of others. The best leaders are those who can simultaneously exercise both kinds of leadership, the formal based on the authority of rank or office, and the informal based on the willingness of others to give service to a person whose special qualities of authority they admire.

3.6.2 Significance of theories in this study

According to Stoner, James, Freeman, Edward, Gilbert and Daniel (1995), theories are perspectives where people make sense of their world experiences. Furthermore, theory is a systematic grouping of interdependent concepts, (mental images of anything formed by generalisation from particulars) and principles (generalisations or hypotheses that are tested for accuracy and appear to be true to reflect or to explain reality) that give a framework to, or tie together It is a significant area of knowledge. Dispersed data are not information unless the reader has knowledge of the theory that will explain the relationships. The study

was informed by management, leadership and performance management theories. Taken together, the abovementioned theories provide valuable insights and lessons on the key variables that are needed to ensure effective implementation of skills capacity-building programmes in SDM. For example, transformational leadership is needed to inspire employees so that they can be motivated to participate in skills programmes, while performance management is a vital tool that enables managers and employees to set and agree performance goals and to identify future learning and development needs. Management theory sets out the guidelines needed to plan, organise, direct, and control execution of skills programmes. In this way, these theories resonate with the research topic and add value to the conceptual framework.

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, theoretical and conceptual frameworks are the building blocks of research. They provide explicit pictures of research from which to launch an investigation and interpret the results thereof. According to Leshem and Trafford (2007), the benefits of conceptual frameworks include the following: helping researchers to model the relationships between theories; reducing theoretical data into statements or models; explicating theories that influence the research by providing theoretical bases to design; and interpreting the research findings. A detailed explanation and justification of the conceptual framework follows below.

3.7 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.7.1 Introduction

Underpinning this investigation were four interrelated and mutually reinforcing concepts positioned within the aspects of local government, namely skills capacity; leadership and governance; performance management; and service delivery. For clarity, the terms skills capacity

and skills development will be used interchangeably as they both relate to skills training. Coetzee (2012), for example, defines capacity in relation to skills development as the development of knowledge, skills and attitudes in individuals and groups of people relevant in the design, development and maintenance of institutional and operational infrastructures and processes that are locally meaningful.

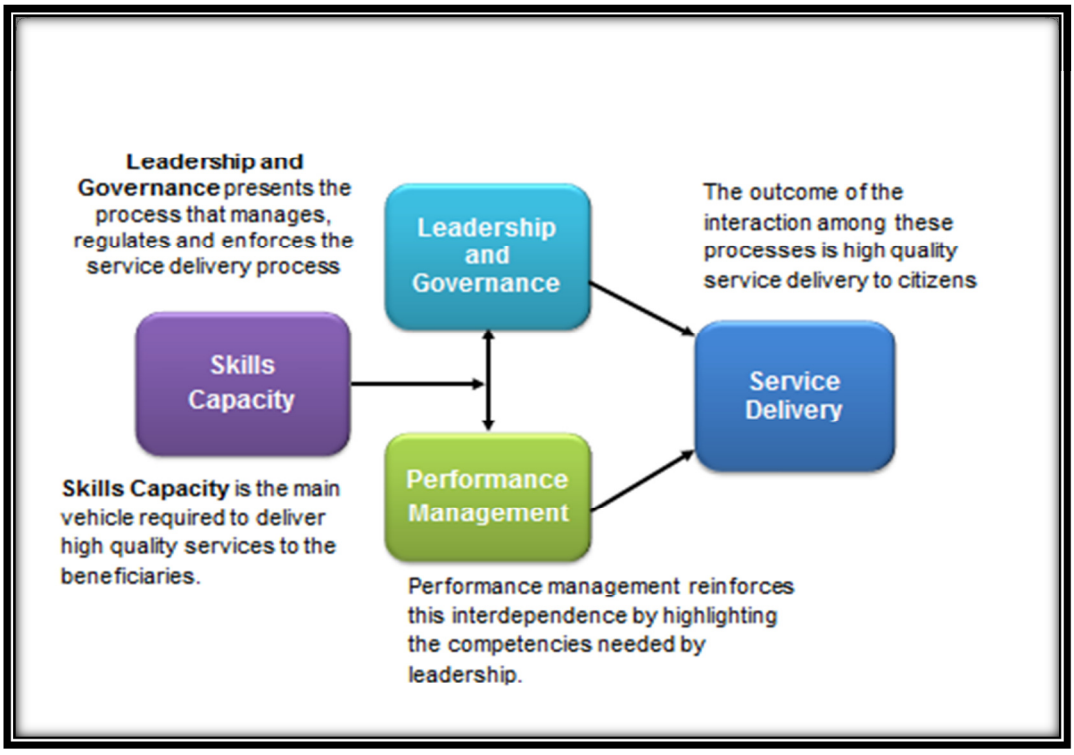
Berg (1993) regards capacity building as being characterised by three main activities: 'skill upgrading – both general and job-specific; procedural improvements; and organizational strengthening'. Skill enhancement refers to general education, on-the-job training and professional strengthening of skills such as policy analysis and IT. Procedural improvements refer to context changes or system reforms. According to Morgan (1998), there is a close relationship between human resource development and capacity development; there is an evolving relationship between training and capacity development; effective capacity development requires sustained attention over a longer period of time; capacity development attempts to move beyond administrative techniques and beyond projects; and capacity development attempts to accelerate interaction between organisations and their environment.

According to Cohen (1993), public sector capacity building 'seeks to strengthen targeted human resources (managerial, professional and technical), in particular institutions and to provide those institutions with the means whereby these resources can be marshalled and sustained effectively to perform planning, policy formulation, and implementation tasks throughout government on any priority topic'. One element of these definitions that is relevant to the study is the development of human resources to improve performance and results. The study looked at skills development to establish whether this process is used to enhance state capacity in the provision of services in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

In formulating the research problem, the researcher assumed that building a strong skills capacity would impact positively on these critical activities and thus result in improved service delivery in the Sedibeng District Municipality. The findings and subsequent analysis in chapter six sheds light on these assumptions.

According to Karrer and Neuman (2011), concepts are the building blocks of theory. A theoretical concept is an idea expressed as a symbol or in words, thus conceptualisation is the process in which the researcher maps out the meanings and connotations of key thematic concepts and shows how these reinforce each other and how they relate to the broader objectives of the study. Presented in Figure 11 below is the proposed conceptual framework for this study.

Figure 11: Conceptual Framework



Source: Own (2011)

Figure 11 above illustrates the interdependence among the concepts of skills capacity-building, leadership, governance, performance management and service delivery. This framework is based on the assumption that skills capacity-building is a catalyst or enabler in enhancing leadership, governance and the overall performance of organisations generally and municipalities in particular. Performance management reinforces this interdependence by highlighting the competencies that officials and employees need in order to meet service standards in their areas. The outcome of the interaction between these processes is efficient and effective service delivery.

Goodman (1998) describes capacity as, “the ability to carry out stated objectives” and capacity-building as a process that improves the ability of a person, group, organisation or system to meet its objectives or to perform better. Like capacity, capacity-building is a multi-dimensional and dynamic process. It should lead to an improvement in performance at each level and contribute to sustainability. An important distinction between this definition and others found in the professional literature is the addition of the individual and his or her community as an important level for capacity-building.

The concept of capacity-building is also somewhat intangible. Theoretical discussion, found largely in the published literature, discusses capacity-building in broad terms and focuses on making the case for building the capacity of organisations to deliver services (Mogedal, 1997; Paul, 1995; Peters and Chao, 1998). This body of literature presents a wide range of definitions and arguments as to why capacity-building is important, with limited discussion on how to measure capacity prior to an intervention, or the effect of interventions designed to improve capacity (UNDP, 1998).

3.7.2 Capacity and performance

Common to all characterisations, according to Tang, Nutbeam, Kong, Wang, R., and Yan, (2005), capacity-building is the assumption that capacity is linked to performance. A need for capacity-building is often identified when performance is inadequate or falters. Moreover, capacity-building is only perceived as effective if it contributes to better performance (Davis, 2009). In seeking to improve understanding of the measurement of capacity (and the effects of capacity-building interventions), linking of capacity and performance presents three challenges.

Firstly, there is a lack of common understanding of the nature of the relationship between capacity and performance. For example, little is known about what elements or combinations of elements of capacity are critical to performance. It is also important to establish if capacity-building efforts, particularly in SDM, reinforce the culture of high performance, which is the hallmark of good governance and service delivery.

Secondly, there is considerable variation in what constitutes adequate performance. For example, the literature provides numerous examples of how to improve organisational capacity, but very little discussion of what level of organisational performance is expected from those improvements. In many instances, identification of “essential skills capacity elements” will depend on the nature and focus of performance goals, as well as the stage of development of the entity being assessed, whether human, technical and conceptual skills needs.

Thirdly, capacity, like capacity-building, is not only dynamic, on-going and multi-dimensional; it is also directly and indirectly influenced by contextual factors or elements of the external environment. Therefore, the maximum level of capacity and performance that can be attained in any organisation

may vary in different contexts. Measurement of performance improvement in the context of resource-poor service delivery is particularly problematic. Thus capacity means the ability of an organisation to perform effectively and efficiently in an ever-changing environment (Woods, 2000). Therefore, this research report presents a conceptual framework for mapping capacity that depicts the role of skills capacity in the provision of services in SDM (Fort, 1999).

Performance management for different levels of capacity within the municipality, managers (executive level), middle managers and political office bearers outlines the elements of capacity that are critical at each level and breaks down these components into inputs (resources), processes (functions), outputs, and outcomes.

The proposed conceptual framework could serve as a starting point for determining critical gaps in capacity prior to intervention, assisting in the choice of capacity-building intervention, and finally guiding planners in developing a strategy for monitoring and evaluating the effect of skills capacity-building activities.

The important prerequisites for effective governance in local government and administration are that communities should be capacitated to participate. This implies participation in the decision-making process as well as in the evaluation of the services received. Should citizens be ignorant of the services they are entitled to, they cannot call municipal councillors and officials to account for inefficiency, ineffectiveness or non-performance. It should be obvious that accountable government requires a knowledgeable community. Municipal communities should be capacitated to articulate their needs and requirements in accordance with their particular value systems and perceptions regarding the need for services. Thereafter they will be in a position to demand effective and efficient service delivery and in the case of inefficiency, demand redress.

According to Maccoby (2001), strategic leaders are people who have clear vision, based on a widely shared set of values and aspirations of where their organisations should be heading and who can clearly articulate that vision in a manner that motivates others. They are an inspiration to others both internal and external to their organisations. They must be sensitive and be effective listeners who must hear and understand the needs and demands of their constituents, and be able to interpret and clarify the trends that indicate future needs and directions for their organisations. Becker, Huselid and Ulrich (2001) further states that leaders are analysts and assessors of their situations, and they understand the value and impact of the services provided by their organisations in political, market, social, human and financial terms. More importantly, they know how to use that information to adjust the mission and vision, to mobilise resources, and to generate action.

From the above, it can be deduced that should a leader not understand the direction in which he or she wants to take citizens, the leadership role will be lost and with it the ability to ensure good governance. When both leadership and governance collapse, service delivery suffers, resulting in poor outcomes and customer dissatisfaction. Without effective leadership, government will not be able to convince the local communities that it is able to lead and meet the challenges facing service delivery. Without effective skills capacity-building and leadership, the executive and management will not be able to manage the performance of employees at all levels. Similarly, employees will not be able to identify their strengths, weaknesses and development needs without proper appraisal and feedback from their managers.

The above explanation paints a clear picture of how skills capacity-building relates to the concept of leadership, governance, performance management and service delivery. Given this context, the thrust of this

research, therefore, lies in understanding whether SDM has been able to make use of skills capacity-building to ensure effective leadership and good governance, which in turn contributes to effective service delivery and better outcomes.

As custodians of service delivery, municipalities are required to develop the capacity needed to deliver high quality services to citizens. Therefore, skills building constitute an effective mechanism for creating a highly competent and flexible workforce that can help municipalities cope with the service delivery challenges arising in their constituencies. As depicted in Figure 1 above, the role of skills capacity is three-dimensional in that it contributes to good leadership and governance as well as improved performance management at all levels of the organisation. The mutual interdependence between these concepts and their relevance to the study is explained further below.

3.8 LEADERSHIP

According to Gibson, Ivancevich and Donelly (1988), leadership is an attempt at influencing the activities of followers to willingly co-operate through the communication process towards the attainment of some goal or goals. This definition implies two things about leadership. First, leadership involves the use of influence and all relationships can involve leadership. Second, communication is integral to effective leadership. The quality of the communication methods and channels used are critical as they affect the behaviour and performance of subordinates.

The inclusion of leadership as part of the conceptual framework is important for three reasons: first, this will enable the study to establish skills requirements at the senior level of the organisation. Leadership capacity is critical in ensuring that the people in an organisation are inspired and willing to excel in service delivery. Second, leaders are

supposed to lead by example, that is, they have to act as role models in the eyes of subordinates and the general public by adhering to and promoting the principles of accountability, transparency, integrity, visible support and commitment, and effective communication. Third, leadership capacity plays a key role in enhancing both the credibility and acceptance of policy interventions among local communities.

Leaders must therefore also have the skills with which to engage local communities to ensure that they participate meaningfully in service delivery programmes. Davis, Stankav and Roberts (1998) highlights the two important elements of the effective school of leadership, which are to establish a school vision and foster positive interpersonal relationships. Roome and Bergin (2006) state that it is important for leaders to set a direction as leaders are defined as people of the highest integrity and deep understanding of difficult concepts such as sustainable development, and are committed to building enduring organisations in association with others. In a world of constant change, leaders must be able to lead transformation in their organisations.

Gibson, Ivancevich and Donelly (1988) mention several attributes of transformational leaders, which include raising the level of consciousness of followers about the importance and value of designated outcomes; getting them to transcend self-interest for the sake of the team or cause; generating personal trust; and convincing followers to extend themselves and to develop further.

Therefore, municipal leaders and officials need specific skills and knowledge to be able to deal with challenges and opportunities in service delivery. These include creating and maintaining effective networks and partnerships, mastering negotiation techniques and alliances, and understanding the operations of global institutions such as the United Nations system, the Bretton Woods Institutions and the influence of

regional blocs as well as the international financial and market systems (CAFRAD, 2004). As leaders deal with people, leaders also need to have emotional intelligence skills.

Goleman (2006) defines four components of emotional intelligence. The first is self-management, which means the ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods and regulate one's own behaviour coupled with a propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence. The six competencies associated with this component are self-control, trustworthiness and integrity, initiative and adaptability, comfort with ambiguity, openness to change, and a strong desire to achieve.

The second one is self-awareness which relates to the ability to recognise and understand one's moods, emotions and drives as well as their effect on others. This is linked to three competencies, namely self-confidence, realistic self-assessment, and emotional self-awareness.

The third component is social awareness with the ability to understand the emotional make-up of other people, and skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions. This is linked to six competencies: empathy, expertise in building and retaining talent, organisational awareness, cross-cultural sensitivity, valuing diversity, and service to clients and customers.

The fourth component is social skills proficiency in managing relationships and building networks to get the desired result from others and reach personal goals, and the ability to find common ground and build rapport. The five competencies associated with this component are leadership, effectiveness in leading change, conflict management, influence, communication, and expertise in building and leading teams.

Having reviewed the management and leadership theories above, attention will now be focused on governance as one of the four components of the conceptual framework supporting the research.

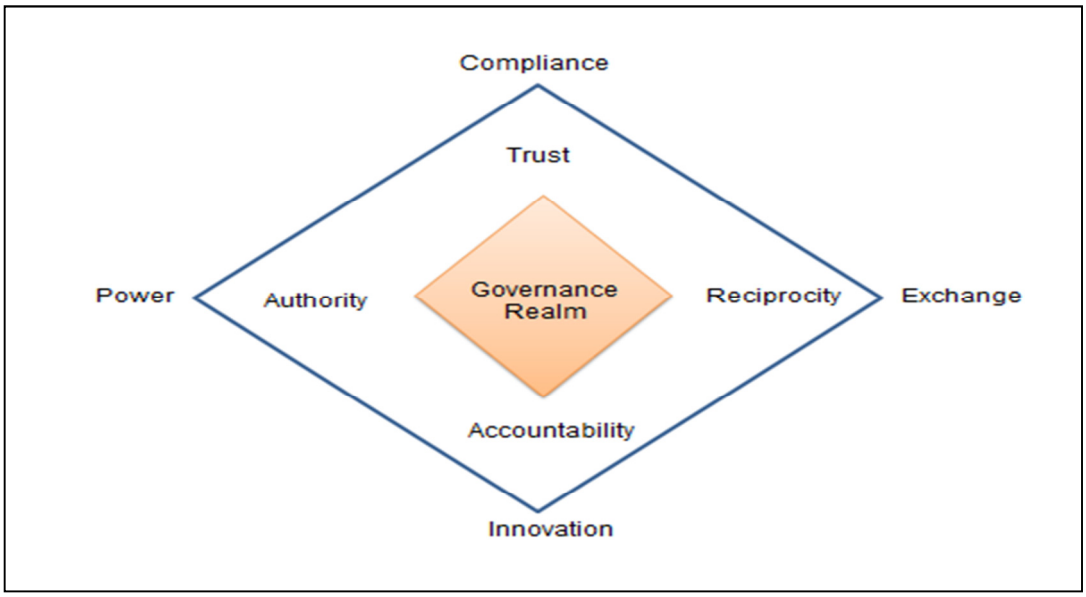
3.9 GOVERNANCE

As discussed in the literature review in chapter two, the core governance characteristic as defined by the UNDP (1994) is, *inter alia*, participatory, transparent and accountable. It is also viewed as an effective way to promote the rule of law and equity. Governance is part of the four inter-related concepts underpinning the conceptual framework for the study. The discourse ensures that political, social and economic priorities are prioritised and the voice of the poorest is the most heard.

Historically, the word 'governance' has its origin in the Greek language and refers to steering. Thus, as an element of steering people's development, governance is a multifaceted compound situation of institutions, systems, structures, processes, procedures, practices, relationships and leadership behaviour in the exercise of social, political, economic and managerial or administrative authority in the running of public or private affairs. Governance is the exercise of this authority with the participation, interest, and livelihood of the governed as the driving force (Kauzya, 2000).

Considering this definition, it is clear that governance is an all-encompassing activity that mirrors the interests of all stakeholders in any given situation. Besides providing leadership and direction, governance also creates the environment necessary for effective and meaningful community participation in service delivery issues. Figure 12 below illustrates the concept of governance as described by Hyden and Bratton (1992).

Figure 12: Structural Dimension of the Governance Concept



Source: Adapted from Hyden and Bratton (1992)

Figure 12: Structural Dimension of the Governance **Concept** above suggests that the governance realm consists of four properties, namely compliance, trust, accountability and innovation. Governance crises tend to occur because of the incompatibility of unprocessed community demands on the one hand, and limited public resources on the other. In the light of a weak social capital base, regimes find it hard to cope with these pressures, thus making effective governance hard, if not impossible. Problems of governance are not unique to any particular regime, but the challenges each regime typically encounters are different.

Effective governance, however, cannot be realised unless leaders and managers are trained on basic governance principles (Aucoin and Heintzman, 2000). This statement suggests two points: first, governance is not automatically understood and practiced by managers in organisations. Secondly, governance principles need to be taught so that leaders and managers may be well-versed in its intricacies and associated policies and legislation. The above diagram highlights the key values that underpin service delivery in public institutions, namely compliance, trust, accountability and innovation. Barrett (2002) also notes that governance is concerned with structures and processes for decision-making and with necessary controls and good behaviour for effective performance outcomes Therefore these values can be used to support skills building initiatives in municipalities.

Accordingly, Auriacombe (1999) supports Hyden and Bratton (1992) in that active citizen participation is an essential ingredient in any democratic dispensation because it ensures that the government of the country remains on track and that public officials serve the general welfare of society rather than pursuing their own interests.

3.10 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Performance is an increasingly important concern for South Africa and the South African local government level is not exempted from the necessity of performance, as they are continually threatened by the expectations of service delivery to communities. Performance has been defined by Hellriegel, Jackson and Slocum (1999) as the level of an individual's work achievement after having exerted effort. Cummings and Schwab (1973) and Whetten and Cameron (1998) believe that performance is ultimately an individual phenomenon with environmental variables influencing performance primarily through their effect on the individual determinants of performance ability and motivation.

Behling and McFillen (1996) confirm the link between high performance and leadership in the United States by developing a model of charismatic transformational leadership where the leaders' behaviour is said to give rise to inspiration, awe and empowerment in his subordinates, resulting in exceptionally high effort and commitment and willingness to take risks. It has been widely accepted that if organisational effort is not effective, organisational performance will suffer (Maritz, 1995; Ristow, Amos and Staude, 1999). Performance is important to both people and organisations. There is a tendency to believe that people can, and will, improve at what they do, and there is the expectation of improvement over time (Temple, 2002). People are an organisation's greatest assets, and individuals and organisations have learned about the importance of the role of people in an organisation, and how the success of an organisation depends on its people (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1995).

The role of human resources is critical in raising performance in an organisation (Armstrong and Baron, 1998). Ultimately it is the performance of many individuals which culminates in the performance of an organisation or the achievement of goals in an organisational context

(Armstrong and Baron, 1998). Performance management is thus an integral part of effective human resource management and development strategy (Hellriegel, *et al*., 2004).

Performance management is an on-going and joint process where the employee, with the assistance of the employer, strives to improve the employee's individual performance and his or her contribution to the organisation's wider objectives (Hellriegel, et *al*., 2004). Amos, et *al.,* (2004) define performance management as the process that begins with translating the overall strategic objectives of the organisation into clear objectives for each individual employee.

Performance management can also be seen to incorporate all of those aspects of human resource management that are designed to progress and/or develop the effectiveness and efficiency of the individual and the organisation (Amos, et *al*., 2004). First-class performance management begins and develops with the employee's lucid understanding of the organisation's expectations (Hendrey, 1995). To elevate and sustain the level of work performance, managers must look past individual or team performance to a larger arena of play. Campbell, McCloy, Oppler and Sager (1993) point out that the success of a performance management system is reliant on the commitment and support of an organisation's management. Performance management systems must be seen to reward personal development and achievement (Hendrey, 1995). Within the performance management field itself, it is important that targets are viewed as being fair and equitable across all groups. It is imperative that employees have confidence in their work and recognise that management supports them (Cherrington, 1994; Baird, 1986).

A good performance management system motivates employees to better their own performance, promotes self-motivation, and builds and strengthens relationships via open communication between employees

and managers (Baird, 1986). There are two main purposes driving performance management. Firstly, there are the operational reasons, which lead and control the system (Temple, 2002). Secondly, on the cultural side, the system can feature as part of the overall drive to build a more open relationship with employees (Temple, 2002).

The performance management system sets out to communicate the link between an organisation's mission, strategic direction and the required employee performance (Armstrong and Baron, 1998; Foot and Hook, 1999). A successful performance management system is one that requires full participation between employees and managers through effective communication and goal agreement, resulting in complete common understanding and not unfounded expectations (Campbell, *et al.,* 1993). A well-executed performance management system is a tool for managers and employees to develop an understanding of what work the mission of the organisation requires, the manner in which this work should be accomplished, and to what extent it has been achieved.

Employees should be empowered and receive support from their manager without removing any of the employee's responsibility (Armstrong and Baron, 1998). As the performance of an organisation is dependent on the quality of the workforce at all levels of the organisation it is essential to discuss the concept of individual performance (Temple, 2002).

3.11 SERVICE DELIVERY

According to Kickert (2002), service delivery is concerned with the provision of a product or service by government or a government body to a community to meet community expectations. Service can be variously defined as the performance of work or duty by an official, an act of helping others, the power to control or to make use of resources, or an institution or system providing the public with something useful. Accordingly, the act

of delivery can be defined as producing or performing, handing over, taking goods to the intended recipient, or producing results as promised or expected (Du Toit, Van der Waldt, Bayat and Cheminias, 1998). The two concepts of functions and services are generally used synonymously, but there are distinct differences between them. The differences lie in the fact that before a service can be delivered, various functions or processes have to be carried out. For example, before running water can be made available in a house or in an area, the department responsible would have to budget and plan the service, to draw up a programme of execution, and finally to supply a pipeline and water to the area. From this, it can be deduced that services refer to the results emanating from the execution of policy and entail a variety of functions or processes.

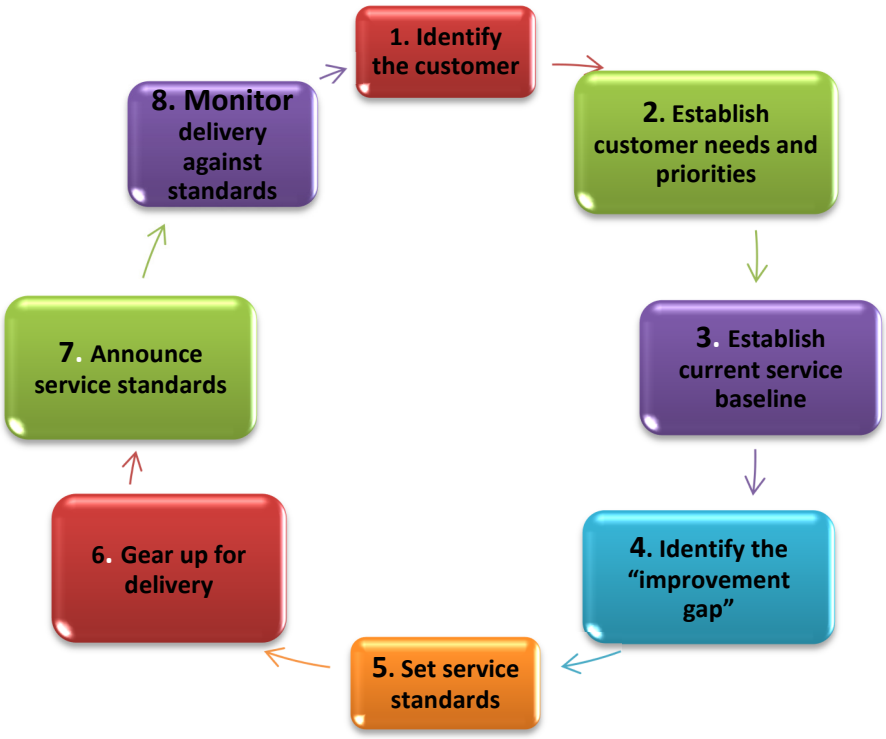
Within this context, service delivery includes citizens being protected by the public service (Du Toit, et *al.,* 1998). In exchange for being governed and protected, citizens expect public service to maintain orderly communities by providing basic goods and services. This relationship between them confirms the public services' responsibility to govern on behalf of the citizens of such communities and to protect their interests. This responsibility further implies that the public service is responsible for delivering services to the communities.

Fox and Mayer (1994) define service delivery as the provision of public activities, benefits or satisfaction. Service delivery relates both to the provision of tangible public goods and of intangible services. According to Flyn (1997), the responsibility for service delivery denotes the delivery of both collective and basic services. As communities grow and became more sophisticated, their need for more and improved services is increased. The public service was thus created to deliver these services, because citizen needs are increasingly difficult to meet.

It can be argued that the basic principle of government in a true democracy is most favourable serviced delivery, at minimal cost in order to realise the ultimate goal of creating a good quality of life for every citizen. The priority of every government is to improve the lives of its entire people. SDM has been in the public arena, benefiting from the high level of publicity from political events associated with the area. However, SDM is still faced with multiple service delivery challenges. For example, lack of service delivery in the area remains a serious problem despite the number of years of democratic rule by the ANC government. Many areas are still without essential services such as water and sanitation, housing, education, health care, social welfare, transport and electricity, leading to frustration on the part of residents and the consequent capacity-building confrontations.

The inclusion of the concept of service delivery in the conceptual framework is important because government has defined an eight-step model for improving service delivery in public institutions, which is presented below in Figure 13. This provides the basis for comparing data against the municipality's service delivery plans, and assessing whether attempts are being made to develop the skills capacity required to implement the eight-step model as stated in government policy. From this process, it will be possible to theorise and make conclusions around skills capacity-building and service delivery needs of the selected municipality.

Figure 13: Eight steps to improve service delivery



Source: White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997)

As illustrated in Figure 13 above, the service delivery improvement model comprises eight steps. Notably, the first step highlights the need for public institutions to know their customers before even packaging their service offerings. Closely related to this is the need to determine customers' needs in step two; while step three requires them to determine the current level and quality of service and to use this information as the basis for improving service delivery. Step four is critically important as it entails determining the performance gap before taking corrective action. In step five, service standards are set indicating the commitment to provide the required services to customers. The sixth step involves mobilising support and commitment throughout the organisation to address the identified service gaps. Once these are developed, service standards will need to be communicated to all key stakeholders and the service delivery programme will be introduced to address the identified challenges. Finally, step eight involves monitoring delivery against standards and publishing results. The research findings will reveal whether the case organisation has the skills capacity to drive this service delivery model. As indicated throughout this

thesis, skills capacity cuts across all organisational activities and is thus critical to the success of any organisation.

Given the wide scope of capacity, the study will focus mainly on skills capacity. The intention is to determine the extent to which current skills capabilities are leveraged to enhance service delivery, and to establish if plans are in place to build future skills for the organisation. As indicated in the introductory section, there is growing concern in South Africa about the massive backlogs in service provisioning, and the dearth of skills capacity has been cited as a major contributory factor to this problem.

3.12 SUMMARY

The theoretical and the conceptual framework outlined in this section provided the theoretical orientation of the study concerning the relationship between skills capacity-building, leadership and governance, performance management and service delivery. However, skills capacity appears to be severely constrained in many South African local municipalities, including Gauteng, a situation which undermines service delivery. Therefore, there is a need to examine how municipalities align, transfer and empower their public servants with relevant skills building, and to find out if these efforts enhance service delivery. This assumption provides the impetus for examining state capacity in SDM, which falls under the Gauteng Province.

The next section presents the methodology utilised by the researcher to collect and analyse data from the case organisation. The research methodology is the road map that informs and guides the investigation and as such constitutes the blue print for assessing state capacity in the provision of services in the Sedibeng District Municipality.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four deals with the methodological issues reflecting on the planning, structuring and execution of the research project with a view to comply with the demands of truth and validity, and with heavy emphasis on qualitative case study design. In operationalising this design, the case study was sub-divided into three sub-units to enable effective and meaningful data gathering. The sub-units were Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi local municipalities. To ensure consistency and uniformity, all the questions were administered across these local municipalities which form part of Sedibeng District Municipality (SDM).

4.2 RESEARCH METHODS

Research methods are crucial aspects of the research and are determined by the purpose of the study. Methods are tools used to obtain information about a study being undertaken. These tools also determine the reliability of the data collected. The methodology used is important because it is influenced by the theories under investigation. The research method answers the question of how the researcher intends to go about conducting the research. According to Blaxter and Hughes (1996), thinking methodologically can significantly enhance research as it provides a better appreciation of popular methods and provides a range of possible research strategies, approaches and techniques available to the researchers when undertaking the research.

The methodology used for the study justifies the research methods and choices by presenting a justifiable and objective research process which is pivotal to answering the research questions (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). The comprehensive nature of the study necessitated the use of a qualitative methods approach, which is based on the philosophical orientation of pragmatism wherein the research questions and not the methods dictate the orientation of the study (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, 2009).

A qualitative case study goes beyond descriptive questions to answer the "how and why" questions (Yin, 1993). The study is explanatory and descriptive in nature, and seeks explanations for questions related to the skills capacity in SDM. It allows for researcher insights to be fed into the analysis. It also allows for analytic generalisations, and has the potential for theory building (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). This study is not a theoretical exercise, as it assesses the influence of several forms of oversight of the case study of the Sedibeng District and its local municipalities to understand internal processes regarding the state's capacity in the delivery of services.

Underpinning the research questions is the testing, either explicitly or implicitly, of issues that relate to accountability, transparency and efficiency which resonate with the notion of good governance. The conceptual framework and literature review have formed the basis for the definitions and concepts that have been used to forge more detailed research questions and became the basis against which actual performance was measured. In addition, none of the studies mentioned in chapter two have affected cross-case analysis regarding implementation of skills capacity-building programmes at local government level.

4.2.1 Data triangulation

The study used the triangulation methodology. Silverman (2000) describes a triangulation method as enabling the researcher to use different methods or sources to corroborate each other. Assembling a collective view of data drawn from different contexts enables one to triangulate the true situation by exploring where differences interact. Triangulation increases the quality and validity of the qualitative research methods and has been commented on by a number of authors such as Gillham (2000), Patton (2002) and Stake (1995). Yin (1994), for example, advocates the use of triangulation to avoid bias on the part of the researcher, either in terms of the influence the researcher has on the behaviour of participants or in terms of the bias the researcher brings into the conduct of the research. Triangulation should help to overcome both these potential sources of bias even if bias is not totally eliminated. Stake (1995) observes that triangulation includes, "data triangulation (from other sources), investigator triangulation (use of observers), and methodological triangulation (using multiple sample types and sources)." Gillham (2000) also advocates triangulation as a method of validating the research, as does Yin (1994), stating that, "a major strength of case study data collection is the opportunity to use many different sources of evidence." During this study it was planned to use triangulation as part of the data gathering activities. Stake's (1995) three types of triangulation were used in this research as explained below.

4.2.2 Theory triangulation

This was achieved through the use of the various theories of knowledge management which were referred to in the construction of the qualitative data-gathering activities, in the construction of the maturity measuring assessment and in the construction of the specific story-telling initiatives which formed part of the research. The methodological triangulation was achieved through the use of a variety of data gathering tools and techniques such as interviews, focus groups and observation. Accordingly, Neuman (2006) states that triangulation is generally considered to be one

of the best ways to enhance validity and reliability in qualitative research, and can partly overcome the deficiencies that flow from using one type of method.

4.2.3 Triangulation and how it was used in the study

Triangulation has been widely recognised as one of the most effective techniques that permit the use of multiple research methods and tactics to enhance not only the integrity of the data sought but also the reliability and validity of the research results (Mouton, 1996). The application of triangulation techniques in this study was therefore inevitable because, as Mason (1996) correctly points out, qualitative research aims to produce rounded understanding on the basis of rich, contextual and detailed data.

As defined by Imas and Rist (2009), triangulation is the use of three or more theories, sources, types of information or types of analysis to verify and substantiate an assessment by cross-checking results. Through triangulation, it is possible to mitigate bias and distortion of findings, or to reduce inappropriate certainty (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Based on this reasoning, triangulation was therefore applied at four levels of this research as depicted in Table 12 below.

Table 12: Different levels of triangulation

Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	Level 4
Triangulation of primary and secondary data sources	**Triangulation of data collection methods and tactics**	**Triangulation of theoretical perspectives on capacity building**	**Triangulation of data analysis methods and techniques**
Respondents were drawn from all levels of the case study organisation Secondary data was extracted from a wide range of documents including strategic plans, IDPs and skills development policies and legislation	A combination of interviews, focus groups, observation and content analysis were used to collect data from SDM Use of local languages was encouraged during Interviews and focus groups to improve data collection	The literature scan covered capacity-building models, management functions and human resource development The use of international case studies provided the basis for testing the validity and reliability of the findings	Description, cross-case analysis, and inductive reasoning were applied to generate meaning from the data regarding skills capacity-building and service delivery in the Sedibeng District Municipality

Source Own (2013)

4.2.3.1 Triangulation of data sources

Table 12 suggests that triangulation spanned almost the entire research process from sampling right up to the data analysis and reporting process. On the first level, triangulation enabled design of a fairly representative sample by drawing respondents from Sedibeng's three local municipalities, namely Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. Thus, through triangulation, it was

possible to include senior executive, middle level managers, programme officials and community representatives such as ward councillors in the study. Triangulation efforts at this level also involved varying the sources of secondary data which practically meant identifying and analysing the SDM strategic plans, integrated development plans, workplace skills plans and programme skills development performance review reports.

4.2.3.2 Triangulation of data collection methods

Table 12 above shows that triangulation permits the use of different data gathering tools to obtain the required data from SDM. One major advantage of varying data collection methods was that it provided an ideal opportunity for the researcher to tap into the different perspectives and insights of key stakeholders on skills development in the provision of service delivery in SDM's three local municipalities.

Only qualitative data gathering tools were used to obtain the required data. These included face-to-face interviews and focus groups with senior executives, middle level managers, programme officials and councillors. These were supplemented with observation which was used to learn about people's experiences of capacity-building and service delivery. The triangulation technique also proved useful in the collection of secondary data. An in-depth analysis of skills development policies and legislation, municipal IDP and strategic plans was undertaken to generate sufficient data which was subsequently used to support the analysis and verify the research findings.

4.2.3.3 Triangulation of theoretical perspectives on capacity building

Given the scale and complexity of the concept of capacity-building generally, it became necessary to enhance understanding of this concept by exploring common capacity-building models within the context of human resource development including international experience, lessons

and best practices on capacity-building. Ultimately this ensured a balanced analysis of the research findings and helped to enhance both the integrity and credibility of the conclusions and recommendations of the study. Chapter two which focuses on the literature review provides more clarity on how the various theoretical perspectives were reviewed and linked to skills development and service delivery within local government contexts.

4.2.3.4 Triangulation of data analysis approaches and techniques

As Miles and Huberman (1994) correctly observe, triangulation is part of the verification process. It is a way to get to the findings by seeing or hearing multiple instances of it from different sources using different methods and by squaring the findings with others, ultimately leading to analytic induction. According to Patton (2002), inductive analysis involves discovering patterns, themes and categories in the data, whereas deductive analysis involves analysing data using an existing framework. Based on this perspective, a combination of descriptive and cross-case analysis techniques were used to interrogate, dissect and assimilate the data sets collected from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, with a view to establish whether or not skills capacity-building programmes were being implemented and whether such efforts have contributed to improvement of service delivery in the SDM.

4.3 THE UNIT OF ANALYSIS

As pointed out in the introductory section, the study was conducted in the Sedibeng District Municipality, which is part of the Gauteng Province and has three local municipalities, namely Lesedi, Midvaal and Emfuleni. In analysing the study area, attention was given to executive managers (6), senior managers (7), and political office bearers (18). These respondents were selected because they play a vital role in skills capacity-building.

According to Tellis (1997), the unit of analysis is a critical factor in the case study. Case studies are selective, focusing on one or two issues that are fundamental to understanding the system being examined. Stake (1995) states that a unit of analysis does not necessarily have to be human, but may also involve personal documents.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

Research designs are plans that guide decisions about when and how often to collect data, what data to gather, from whom and how to analyse the data. The general meaning, according to Mouton (1996) and Babbie (2006) is that a research design is a set of guidelines and instructions which are to be followed in addressing the research problem. The main function of a research design, according to O' Sullivan (2003), is to enable a researcher to anticipate what the appropriate research decision should be so as to maximise the validity of the eventual results. A further contribution by Trochin (2006) describes research design as the structure of the research, the strategy, methodology, and the approach that gives a complete presentation of the research.

In light of the above, it follows therefore that research design is the overall plan of how the researcher is going to conduct the research. Based on this logic, this research can be categorised as a descriptive and explanatory type of research as it used case study design to understand the role of state capacity in the provision of services in SDM. According to Babbie (2014), many social science studies aim to describe and explain situations and events. Descriptive studies answer questions of what, where and when, while explanation enables the researcher to answer questions of how and why. For example, in this research, it was imperative to understand what skills programmes are offered in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, how these programmes are implemented and why it is important to link skills development to performance management.

Given the unique socio-economic demographics of SDM's three local municipalities, it was necessary to localise data collection strategies to accommodate diversity issues. This culminated in the use of different local languages and linking interview schedules with respondents' work plans. This alignment was based on the conceptual framework underpinning the study as well as the literature review. The data has been drawn from the personal perspectives of respondents, documentation (reports and evaluations) and observations. The study ensured that the research design was explicit and replicable and that the roadmap for collecting the data was appropriate (Cooper and Schindler, 2001).

4.4.1 Case Study of Sedibeng District Municipality

This section is centred on the Sedibeng District Municipality (SDM) and its three local municipalities, namely Emfuleni, Lesedi and Midvaal. From time to time protests are reported in the media in relation to poor service delivery rendered by the municipalities to their communities. These reports are also confirmed by continued 'service delivery' protest demonstrations. To examine whether skills capacity was adequately rendered to deliver services, the researcher prepared unstructured questionnaires which were distributed to the local municipalities in order to obtain the required in-depth information. The term 'case study' is clearly and explicitly defined in order to shed light on what a case study is, which affirms that the Sedibeng District Municipality is a valid case study methodology, and indicates the procedures to be followed when dealing with such a case study. The approach to designing a case study is dealt with to demonstrate how the present case study has been designed.

4.4.2 Definition of a case study

Various complementary definitions of a case study are found in the research literature. Stake (1995) and Bryman (1989) argue that the term case study pertains to the fact that a limited number of units of analysis, such as an individual, group or institution, are studied intensively. Studies on the concept of case study are directed at understanding the uniqueness and idiosyncrasy of a particular case in all its complexity. Most of the time the objective of a case study, according to Cresswell (2009), is to investigate the dynamics of some single bounded system, typically of a social nature, such as, for example, a family, group, community, participants in a project, a practice or an institution.

This is especially so when a group or institution is investigated. Field work is done when the researcher conducts the investigation on the spot under natural circumstances. Feagin, Orum and Sjoberg (1991) note that case studies are multi-perspective analyses. This means that the researcher considers not just the voice and the perspective of the actor, but also those of relevant groups of actors and the interaction between them. This one aspect is a salient point in the characteristics that case study possesses.

Stakes (1995) argues that the two aspects deserve special mention as far as the conducting of case studies is concerned. Firstly, the case study should be defined or demarcated; in other words, its boundaries should be determined. In some instances the researcher may, during the course of the study, find it necessary to adjust the boundaries which of necessity have initially been determined arbitrarily. Secondly, whichever technique is used for the purpose of data collection, the concern is not merely with the description of what is being observed, but with searching in an inductive way for recurring patterns and consistent regularities. Similarly, Huysaman

(1994) observes that a case study must have clearly defined boundaries and should be searched or analysed in an inductive fashion to identify recurring patterns and consistent regularities. In observing this principle, the researchers sub-divided the Sedibeng District Municipality into Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi local municipalities and used them as the source of data. From this, it was evident that a case study might be an individual, group of people or an institution that is put under intensive investigation in order to probe the dynamics of some single bounded system that is typically of a social nature.

From the three definitions referred to above, it can be deduced that case studies provide an ideal opportunity for generating rich data about the research phenomenon at hand. In addition to being a rich source of data, case studies also enable the researcher to engage in inductive reasoning which resonates with qualitative research theory. In this way, it was possible for the researcher to gain an in-depth understanding of how skills capacity programmes were implemented in SDM's three local municipalities.

In support of this view, Somekh and Lewin (2005) argue that the strength of a case study is that it can take an example of an activity, or an instance in action, and use multiple methods and data sources to explore and interrogate it. Thus it can achieve a rich description of a phenomenon in order to present it from the participant's perspective.

4.4.3 The general applicability of a case study design

A valid criticism of case study methodology is that its dependence on a single case renders it incapable of providing a generalising conclusion. Yin (1994) considers case methodology a microscopic method, because it lacks a sufficient number of cases. In contrast, Hemel, Dufour and Fortin (1993) forcefully argue that the relative size of the sample, whether two,

ten or one hundred cases, are unimportant and does not transform a multiple case study into a macroscopic study. The goal of the study should establish the parameters, and should then be applied to all research. In this way even a single case could be considered acceptable, provided it meets the established objectives.

The literature provides some insight into the acceptance of an experimental prototype to perceive the singularity of the object of the study. This ensures the transformation from the local to the global for explanation. Hemel, *et al.* (1993) characterises such singularity as a concentration of the global in the local scenario. Yin (1994) states that general applicability results from the set of methodological qualities of the case and the rigour with which the case is constructed, and requires that a case should be seen to satisfy the three tenets of the qualitative method: describing, understanding and explaining.

The body of literature on case study research is relatively unsophisticated and limited in comparison to that of experimental or quasi-experimental research. The requirements and inflexibility of the latter form of research makes case studies the only viable alternative in some instances. Yin (1994), amongst others, lists several examples of the use of case study along with the appropriate research design in each case. There are suggestions for a general approach to designing a case study and also recommendations for exploratory and descriptive case studies.

Each of the three can be either a single or a multiple case study. In exploratory cases, fieldwork and data collection questions and hypothesis are standard. This type of study has been considered as a precursor to some social research. However, explanatory cases are suitable for conducting casual studies. In very complex and multivariate cases, the analysis can make use of pattern-matching techniques. Descriptive cases require that the researcher begins with a descriptive theory, or face the

possibility that challenges will occur during the research. For the purpose of the Sedibeng District Municipality case study and the three local municipalities, permission was secured to interview the executive, senior managers and the political office bearers.

4.4.4 Designing a case study

The literature (Berg, 2006; Babbie, 2014; Eisenhardt and Graebner, 2007) suggests five components of research design which include the study in question, its proposition, if any, its unit(s) of analysis and the logical linking of the data to the proportions and the criteria for interpreting the findings. The research study questions are not likely to be 'how' and 'why' questions, and their definition is the first task of the researcher. The study propositions sometimes derive from the 'how' and 'why' questions, and are helpful in focusing the study goals. Studies without propositions would at least have a stated purpose or set of criteria on which the success of the research can be judged.

The unit of analysis defines what type of case it is. This could be a group, organisation or country but remains the primary unit of analysis. Yin (1994) asserts that a case study must be able to operate as a senior investigator during the course of data collection. There should be a period of training which begins with the examination of the definition of the problem and the development of the case study design. If there is a single investigator, this might not be necessary. The training would cover aspects that the researcher needs to know, such as the reasons for the study, the type of evidence being sought and what variations might be expected.

A case study protocol contains more than the survey instrument. This protocol is considered as a major component in asserting the reliability of the case study. A typical protocol should have the following sections, namely an overview of the case study (objectives, issues, topic being

investigated); field procedures (credentials and access to sites, source of information); case study questions (specific questions that the researchers must keep in mind during data collection); and a guide for the case study report (outline, format for the narrative) (Yin, 1994 and Rowley, 2002).

4.4.5 Adoption of a multiple case study method

Lewis-Beck, Bryman and Liao (2004) describe the multiple case study method as a variant that includes two or more observations of the same phenomenon. This variant enables replication that is the use of multiple cases to independently confirm emerging constructs and propositions. It ualso enables extension, which uses the cases to reveal complementary aspects of the phenomenon. This research set out to assess state capacity in the provision of basic services and identified SDM as the case example. This case study has three mutually reinforcing variants, which are Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. A multiple case study enables the researcher to explore differences within and between cases.

Although case comparisons will be drawn, it is also important to note that this is not a comparison case study. It is imperative that the cases are chosen carefully so that the researcher can envisage similar results across cases, or expect contrasting results based on a theory Baxter and Jack S. (2008). Following this principle, the study elicited complementary datasets from three inter-related cases, namely Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi local municipalities. As Baxter and Jack (2008) correctly point out, in a multiple case study there are several cases being examined in order to understand the similarities and differences between the cases.

Yin (2003) describes how multiple case studies can be used to either, “(a) predict similar results (i.e. a literal replication) or (b) predict contrasting results but for predictable reasons (a theoretical replication)”. Like any other research strategy, the multiple case study method has its own

strengths and weaknesses. On the positive side, evidence obtained from this type of study is considered robust and reliable. On the negative side, operationalising a multiple case study design can be extremely time-consuming and expensive to conduct. Baxter and Jack (2008), in a hallmark work on case study, argues that the use of multiple data sources as a strategy enhances data credibility (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2003). Potential data sources may include, but are not limited to, documentation, archival records, interviews, physical artefacts, direct observations, and participant-observation. Unique in comparison with other qualitative approaches within case study research, investigators can collect and integrate data which facilitates reaching a holistic understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

In case study, data from these multiple sources are then converged in the analysis process rather than handled individually. Each data source is one piece of the "puzzle," with each piece contributing to the researcher's understanding of the whole phenomenon. This convergence adds strength to the findings as the various strands of data are integrated to promote a greater understanding of the case (Baxter and Jack, 2008). Although the opportunity to gather data from various sources is extremely attractive because of the rigor that can be associated with this approach, there are dangers. One of them is the collection of overwhelming amounts of data that require management and analysis as it is often the case that researchers find themselves "lost" in the data.

In order to fully understand the findings, they are compared and contrasted with what can be found in published literature in order to situate the new data within pre-existing data. There is general consensus in the research literature (Yin, 1994; Merriam, 1994; Stake, 1995, 1998; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Gillham, 2001; Johansson, 2003) that the case study method bears the following essential characteristics: there must be a "case" which is the object of study; the "case" should be a complex

functioning unit, the case should be investigated in its natural context with a multitude of methods, and the case should be contemporary.

As already mentioned in chapter one, the research topic refers to SDM as a custodian of the three local municipalities. However, the data gathering and analysis processes focused on three components of this case study, namely Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. Given the rationality, it was crucial to collect the data from the implementing agencies rather than the district office.

4.5 RESEARCH STRATEGIES

As described above, several research strategies have been used. Given the comprehensive nature of the research process this was done simultaneously with data gathering and analysis. This helped to keep the research within reasonable time-frames, and prevent research fatigue as the researcher would not have to return to the same respondents and experts repeatedly as themes emerged from the research. The idea was to keep the research participants informed, but not be obtrusive.

The use of the case study for this qualitative assessment allowed for an assessment of the phenomena as it unfolded within the complexity of a real situation (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994). The researcher was engaged with SDM's three local municipalities for a period of over two years before the data collection process commenced and was able to build a relationship with the SDM and observe trends in its performance over the period. This assisted with the in-depth qualitative analysis which was made possible through this approach.

4.5.1 Expert views

The researcher followed the guidelines of South and Lightfoot (2004) in relation to how the views of interviewees were considered. Given that skills

capacity is a relatively new field in South Africa, the researcher drew on an extensive network of local experts to solicit views on matters relating to the interface between a local municipality, internal departments and political office bearers and also obtain a more general view on other successes achieved in the implementation of human resource development. Thus several interviews to solicit different information were undertaken and in each instance the details have been recorded.

The researcher interviewed senior managers such as municipal managers, managers from the corporate services unit, managers at the speaker's office, and ward councillors. The content of the interviews varied, depending on the relevant information from the research questions. The results have informed the analysis and confirm that these issues as reflected in the data presentation are indeed critical for achieving successful governance. The names have been excluded to ensure confidentiality. All of the interview data was classified and captured accordingly.

4.5.2 Sample size and procedures

It is common practice for researchers to save time and costs by simply selecting a specific number of subjects from the District and the three municipalities for investigation, rather than attempting to study the entire population. In this qualitative investigation emphasis was placed on the richness of the identified data sources rather than representatives of the sample, which usually applies to quantitative studies. Examples of data sampling are outlined below.

4.5.3 Data sampling

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), sampling involves decisions not only about which people to observe or interview but also about settings,

events and social processes. In undertaking this investigation, the researcher initially targeted a total of 36 participants drawn from the three Sedibeng Local Municipalities, but during field work the turnout differed across all three. For example, while twelve participants came from Emfuleni, another twelve participants came from Midvaal, and seven were from Lesedi Local Municipality. The total number of participants was thirty-one out of a proposed thirty-six participants. The non-participation of the planned respondents did not impede the research presentation and the analysis because all the relevant categories in all three municipalities contributed immensely to the study. It is worth mentioning, as presented in Table 13 below, that the executive management category was earmarked for the mayors, the Mayoral Committee (MMC), the Speaker and/or the Chief Whip of that municipality.

Table 13: Respondents Categories

Category	Reference to	No. of official respondent	Non participators
Executive Management	Mayor, MMC, Chief Whips and the Municipal managers	6	3
Senior managers	Managers in the corporate service sections	7	2
Political office bearers	Ward Councillors	18	0
	Total	31	5

Source: Own (2012)

Following this principle, the research according to Leedy (1993) adopted purposive sampling which forms part of non-probability sampling. A key advantage of this sampling technique is that the researcher selects the participants on the grounds of their existing knowledge of the population. Based on professional experience as a manager in public service in South Africa over the past fifteen years, the researcher was able to determine

suitable data sources in advance. More importantly, purposive sampling was appropriate when the researcher wanted to select a unique case which could provide special information. It was important to obtain information not only about the existing skills development plan but also information about future human resources development and performance management strategies. Therefore the deliberate inclusion of executive management, senior management and councillors in the sample enabled meaningful data collection from SDM's three local municipalities.

A basic choice in formulating the approach to data sampling exists between probability sampling, which includes simple random sampling; systematic sampling; stratified random sampling, and cluster sampling, and non-probability sampling. Given the nature of the research problem outlined in chapter one, it became clear that non-probability data sampling methods would be appropriate for this research study. Due to the largely qualitative nature of this project in the judgment of the researcher, there was no role for probability sampling, hence that particular sampling approach was not used nor is it further discussed. Views on non-probability sampling are discussed below.

4.5.4 Non-probability sampling methods

A number of views by various authors including Hussey and Hussey (1997); Jankowicz (2000); Leedy and Ormrod (2001); Miles and Huberman (1994); Powell (1997); and Welman and Kruger (1999) on the subject of non-probability sampling were identified during the investigation into the appropriate research methods to be used for this case study. Not all of those views used the same terminology and classification for the non-probability sampling method. For the purpose of this research Powell's classification was followed. Powell (1997) observes that non-probability sampling includes the accidental sample, the quota sample, the purposive sample, and the self-selected sample.

Grinnell (1997) suggests that purposive sampling is the selection of the participants based on their characteristics and their capability as the most appropriate. This aligns with the argument of Miles and Huberman (1994) who states that qualitative samples tend to be purposive rather than random, at least in part because the universe is more limited and that much qualitative research examines a single 'case', which is a phenomenon embedded in a single social setting. Powell (1997) discusses purposive sample in some detail and states that, at times, it may seem preferable to select a sample based entirely on the researcher's knowledge of the population and the objectives of the research (Powell, 1997). This concurs with Leedy and Ormrod (2001) who uses the term 'purposive sampling' where people or other units are chosen for a particular purpose, implying the use of judgment on the part of the researcher. This was the situation for this research study.

The researcher used a purposive sample in that the potential respondents' categories were known in advance, and the selection is based on the fact that the group has the relevant knowledge and experience with which to contribute to the study (Flick, 2009; Imas and Rist, 2009). In this case, it was the entire management cohort and the political office bearers of the District and the three local municipalities. The respondents within this cohort could choose to exercise their right to participate or not. The respondents were executives; this means that the respondents were sufficiently senior to offer credible insights into their perceptions of various aspects of oversight.

4.5.5 Sample characteristics

The biographical characteristics of the sample of respondents are presented in order to get a clear picture of the sample. Demographic information of the respondents was given in this form as gender, ethnicity,

and disability, age, area of work, current position, seniority, occupational level, and qualifications held. This information was elicited through the first part of the interview schedule.

Requiring and collecting this information was necessary in order to answer a number of important questions related to how well the municipality recruitment and deployment strategy supports skills development processes in SDM's three local municipalities. For example, specific questions related to whether staff recruitment efforts are aligned with performance management and talent retention strategies. As will be seen in chapter six, the data presentation revealed some gaps and misalignments between necessary human resource management practices across the three local municipalities of SDM.

4.6 DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

4.6.1 Interview process

There are several methods of obtaining information for qualitative inquiry. Qualitative interviews are the most common general approach, with semi-structured and unstructured interview formats predominating. According to Mearns and Thorne (1999), the interviewer should have basic skills that will help the interviewer focus without imposing on the respondents. In line with qualitative research theory, unstructured interviews, the planning and execution of the project started in July and continued through December 2012. The interviews and the focus group appointments were facilitated through e- mails and telephone calls. Following this, in all cases interviews were conducted in corporate boardrooms which proved convenient in ensuring the order and free flow of the conversation between the interviewer and the interviewees, thereby enabling meaningful and effective data collection.

During the interview process the following activities were undertaken: first the researcher explained the purpose and the objectives of the study in relation to skills capacity-building as well as the potential benefits for the SDM three local municipalities. Accordingly, participants were advised about their rights in relation to the investigation. These included the right to voluntary participation, and to protection of their privacy. This helped to ease tension and anxiety particular in Lesedi where there had been service delivery protests prior to the interviews.

Following this, the researcher produced and explained her credentials to the participants; this entailed producing the P&DM letter confirming the PhD registration status of the researcher as well as the research topic. In addition to producing and explaining the credentials it was also important to assure participants that the researcher was not a journalist, which is what some of the participants had suspected before the interviews. The researcher had to reassure the respondents that she was attracted by the deep political history, the progress and the improvements made by the District and its municipalities.

As a way forward, the researcher explained the structure of the interview schedule to participants and encouraged the participants to ask for clarity if they did not understand any of the questions or their meaning. Once all the preliminaries had been met, the interview process commenced. The first question posed elicited biographical information from participants, and subsequent questions focused on the implementation of skills capacity-building programmes and the monitoring of the programmes in each of SDM's three local municipalities.

4.6.2 Administration of interviews

For the purposes of the interviews which were part of the study a questionnaire was used (Annexure A). The questionnaire was semi-

structured and open-ended, and based on the conceptual framework and literature review. The questions were developed to ensure that there was no ambiguity, and were clearly laid out (Babbie and Mouton, 2007). The respondents were assured in the purpose statement that there were no right and wrong answers, and emphasised that their views as managers were valued. This was achieved through emphasising the personal aspect, hence the use of the word “you”. It also offered them the opportunity to respond in various ways (by email or a telephonic interview).

Confidentiality was assured. The data was assessed at an aggregated and disaggregated level in all three local municipalities, face-to-face interviews were conducted, and the questionnaires completed by the researcher. In these instances it allowed for greater probing. There were two exceptional cases where face-to-face interviews had to be supplemented with telephonic interviews due to the anxiety and reluctance shown by the respondents, who were in the executive group of respondents.

Apart from alleviating respondents’ concerns, this also enabled sufficient data collection. The interview schedule was divided into four sections which became the basis for analysis, the gathering of the biographical data, such as age, level of education and number of years in the current position which helped to construct a profile of the skills levels and core competencies of the workforce within SDM’s three local municipalities. The interview schedule contained questions relating to the key topic, such as the current supply and demand of skills capacity, the effectiveness of skills capacity within the municipality; management’s role in promoting skills capacity-building and challenges, and their experience and challenges in skills development.

4.6.3 Interview process strategies

It is generally accepted that the mere conduct of the interview session in itself does not guarantee sufficient data collection. It was therefore necessary to employ recognised interviewing tactics to enable effective data collection. These entailed the use of probing and follow-up questions which aimed to gain an in-depth understanding of the participant's views and perceptions regarding the research phenomenon. The second technique was paraphrasing. This was particular useful when collecting data from ward councillors, most of whom had limited educational backgrounds, especially in Midvaal and Emfuleni.

The paraphrasing was used in instances where participants did not understand certain words or the meaning of the questions. A key advantage of this technique is that, apart from putting respondents at ease, it also inspires them to share more information on the research topic. This technique was supplemented with translation and use of different local South African languages that participants were familiar with, including Setswana, Sesotho and Zulu. The use of the multilingual approach made it easier for the researcher to probe issues and to follow up on outstanding issues.

4.6.4 Insights and lessons from the focus groups

Babbie (2007) views the focus group research as being based on facilitating an organised discussion with a group of individuals selected because they were believed to be a representative of a particular class. However, Wilkinson (2004) views focus groups as an informal discussion among a group of individuals about a particular topic. Kitzinger (1995) concurs with Babbie (2007) by stating that the group is arranged to examine a specific set of topics and this grouping is focussed because the discussions involve some kind of collective activity.

The primary aim of a focus group is to describe and understand meaning and interpretation in order to gain an understanding of a specific issue and participants should come from a similar social and cultural background and/or must have similar experiences (Hennink, 2007).

In this study, focus groups as part of the document collection tools were aimed at gaining in-depth information on how skills capacity-building was implemented and how participants felt about these interventions, including the perceived opportunities and constraints. The focus group from the political office bearers comprised six councillors from Emfuleni, with the same number from Midvaal and from Lesedi. The chosen focus group was thus representative. In terms of procedure the researcher started by allocating two hours for the discussion as part of the agenda items during the constituency council meetings. The researcher briefed the participants about the purpose of the focus group activity and the meaning of the topics given. Following this, the researcher facilitated the discussions, clarifying issues and ensuring adherence to the agreed time-frame. It was easy to administer the focus group activity because participants knew each other and were from the same political organisation.

The discussions of focus groups as a data collection instrument would not be complete without alluding to some of the experiences observed by the researcher in this exercise. One of the main issues observed was that some participants wanted to dominate the discussions, thereby preventing others from expressing their views on skills capacity-building. The second issue was that participants held conflicting views on skills capacity-building and as a result they could not reach consensus on what worked. To tackle this challenge the researcher persuaded the participants to focus on the agenda and to provide ideas and answers pertinent to the research problem. This made it possible to obtain valuable information about the skills capacity-building from the focus group.

4.6.5 Participants' observations

In addition to focus groups, interviews and document review, the researcher also used participant observation as a supplementary data collection tool (Guba and Lincoln, 1987). Observation has been recognised as a valuable data collection method in a case study setting by a number of authors such as Gillham (2000); Jankowicz (2000); Powell (1997); and Yin (1994) complement interviews as a valuable source of additional data (Kumar, 1999; Denscombe, 1987). The researcher was more interested in the behaviour than in the perceptions of individuals, and observation was the best approach to collect the required information, especially when the respondents were unable to provide objective information.

There are two types of observation: Participant observation and Non-participant observation.

Participant observation is when the researcher participates in the activities of the group being observed in the same manner as its members, with or without their knowing that they are being observed.

Non-participant observation, on the other hand, is when the researcher does not become involved in the activities of the group but remains a passive observer, watching and listening to its activities and drawing conclusions from this (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000). The latter type of observation was the chosen tool as it gives direct access and insight into complex social interactions and physical settings. This approach also supplemented the researcher data gathering by allowing triangulation and increased research reliability (Foster, 1996).

Having said that, it is equally important to indicate that non-participant observation is not without limitations. For example, while the outsider

status of the researcher enhanced data collection, it also tended to alienate unskilled and semi-skilled participants, and even though they had been encouraged to ask for clarity on research topics, some of the participants were reserved and declined to comment, mainly because of anxiety. To mitigate this challenge, the researcher used empathy and sympathy, which entailed greater thoughtfulness of the participants and consideration from their perspective. This gave the researcher an opportunity to learn about the attitudes, behaviours and perceptions in relation to skills capacity-building in SDM's three local municipalities.

In all instances, the attempt was made to triangulate data in order to produce in-depth understanding of phenomena. This understanding is also tabled in chapter five.

4.6.6 Document Review

Document analysis, according to Gribbs (2002), is a social research method and an important research tool in its own right, and as such is an invaluable part of the triangulation method. In addition to this, the following documents were reviewed: LGSeta, Municipal Work Place Skills Plans (WSPs), National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS III), Employment Equity Plans, Annual Performance Review reports and Integrated Development Plans of Sedibeng including Lesedi, Emfuleni and Midvaal. The value of the document review exercise is that it provided the basis for checking and verifying the data obtained from the respondents in Emfuleni, Lesedi and Midvaal regarding skills development in these institutions.

4.6.7 Literature review, secondary data and content analysis

The literature was reviewed according to the methods presented in Hart (1992). The body of literature was reviewed systematically, by collecting

information on the subject, in this case, skills capacity-building, and then identifying and appraising the debates in the field. The latter was done through desk-top analysis. This process assisted with the systematic and critical review of the literature, highlighting relevant themes and deepening the understanding of skills development as an emerging field in South Africa.

The quality, especially in terms of the evaluations of the theoretical perspectives and insights, was established based on whether the studies were peer reviewed, and the extent of the citations within the reports. In all instances original studies were obtained. In respect of the literature on the status quo of SDM's three local municipalities, this largely took the form of examining government policy, strategy and reports, which provided the baseline for assessing the findings of the study on skills capacity-building efforts in the area. Apart from assessing relevant theoretical perspectives on skills development, the review also focused on performance management within the context of the SDM as a focal point of the study. Guided by the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (1997), the researcher examined processes related to how managers, mayors and councillors contribute to the skills development process.

In designing the interview schedule, the researcher sub-divided the questions in order to cater for the needs of managerial and non-managerial employees in all three local municipalities. The outcome was three sections, for the executive group of management, the middle management, and councillors. In addition, based on the guidance provided by Faraday and Muir-Cochrane (2006), a hybrid approach was employed which involved reading and scanning the data to establish both common patterns and dissimilarities.

Furthermore, to simplify the data cleaning process, the researcher also used colour to code the data. The coding of data was done using headings and sub-headings, resulting in clear sequencing and description of data categories and themes. This also helped to simplify classification of the large amount of narrative data obtained (Richard, 2005). The codes helped to identify features as well as patterns (Wolcott, 2001). The process of arriving at generalisations was iterative. The following phases were used to understand the qualitative data from the open-ended questions: data familiarisation; generation of codes (colour and numbers were used); and establishing commonality (trends and themes). It should be noted that, in view of the small sample size, the results are indicative, but provide an understanding of how a relevant management cohort perceives matters relating to oversight.

4. 7 DATA ANALYSIS

Research literature confirms the use of cross-case analysis methods in qualitative studies. For example, Somekh and Lewin (2005) argue that it is always helpful to compare and contrast across cases to learn about the various experiences in each case and their implications for the whole programme or institution.

According to Poggenpoel (1998), data analysis makes use of various reasoning strategies including analysis, synthesis, inductive reasoning, bracketing and intuition. In this study, transcripts were analysed into codes, then built up and synthesised into categories and themes. This was done inductively, starting from vague supposition, finding relationships and patterns and arriving eventually at a conceptual framework of the data. Analysis was performed through intuition and intense concentration on the phenomena and with an open context, being influenced by some pre-conceived ideas.

The approach applied in this investigation derives from qualitative research theory. Marshall and Rossman (1990) maintain that comprehensive synthesising, theorising and contextualising are important in qualitative studies. Based on this principle, the transcripts of interviews as well as field notes were studied and coded, sensitive to underlying meaning. In addition, categories were analysed, sorted and synthesised to represent relationships and similarities. In theorising, alternative explanations were constructed and the perspective inputs of other participants incorporated. To supplement the approach of Marshall and Rossman (1989), Tesch (1990) provides detailed suggestions on how to analyse and arrange the emerging themes. These were applied in this case in order to reach coherent categories. Transcriptions were read first from a holistic point of view and those ideas and responses were noted. Topics were coded and noted at appropriate places in the transcript texts.

The qualitative data was managed in a manner which ensured that the data was broken down into discernable units to show patterns and trends. Several authors (Hussey and Hussey, 1997; Leedy and Ormrod, 2001; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002 and Yin, 1994) have expressed a view on how best to present and analyse qualitative data gathered as part of a phenomenological research project. Leedy and Ormrod (2001), in particular, provides guidance in the area of data analysis in a case study, and explains the following steps in Table 14 below.

Table 14: Data Analysis Guidelines

Guidelines	Practical implications
Organisation of details about the case	The facts are arranged in a logical order.
Categorisation of data.	Categories are identified that can help classify data into meaningful groups.
Interpretation of single instances.	Specific documents, occurrences, and other pieces of data are examined for the specific meanings that they might

	have in relation to the case.
Identification of patterns	The data and their interpretations are scrutinised for underlying themes and other patterns.
Synthesis and generalisations.	This relates to an overall portrait of the cases. Conclusions are drawn that may have implications beyond the specific case that has been studied. This approach was adopted in discussing the analysis methods used in the research project and will now be explored in more detail.

Source: Adapted from Leedy and Ormrod (2001)

4.7.1 Organisation and the categorisation of data

Both primary data (for example, responses to various types of interviews) and secondary data (for example, from internal and external publications and annual reports) provided a wealth of data which was reduced through the process of selecting (through the judgment of the researcher), simplifying (using a variety of classification methods, for example, relating to the research instrument topics), and transforming the data (through a variety of techniques, including the transcription of digital recordings).

4.7.2 Categorisation of data

A number of categories were identified for the data. These include external business strategy, organisational knowledge management strategy and sharing and storytelling activities. In addition, detailed categorisation of the data was carried out in line with the subject areas identified in the maturity assessment for knowledge sharing and storytelling especially from the political office bearers (councillors).

4.7.3 Interpretation of single instances

There were many individual documents, responses to interviews and observations which were examined for meaning in relation to the specific circumstances of the case. To reiterate, the SDM multiple case studies from the three local municipalities provided a baseline for understanding the implementation of skills capacity-building programmes in this area, in light of the heightened concerns about slow service delivery.

4.7.4 Identification of patterns

As Boyatzis (1998) notes, in qualitative research methods, thematic analysis is a process of encoding qualitative information, thus the researcher develops codes, words or phrases that serve as labels for sections of data. The codes can come in many shapes and sizes. Referring to a set of codes, Boyatzis (1998) explains that this form may be a list of themes, a complex model with themes, indicators, and qualifications that are causally related, or something in between these two forms

The data gathered during the field research were examined and the relevant themes and patterns in relation to the findings were tabled as a practice for knowledge sharing.

4.7.5 Synthesis and generalisation

The synthesis of the data findings and analysis is presented in chapter seven. A strong focus of this exercise is to highlight potential areas of data assimilation, in relation to skills development practices and strategies, thereby enabling the three local municipalities to learn from each other.

4.8 RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES

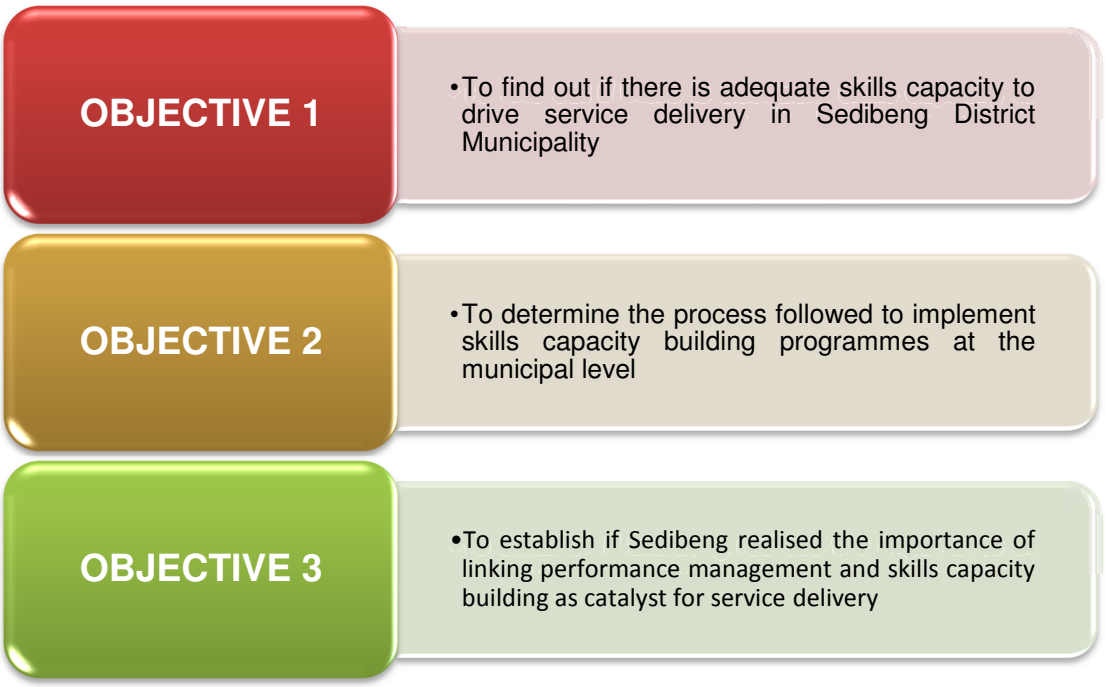
The SDM was examined together with three local municipality perspectives, each of which interrogates the local municipality's skills capacity in the provision of services. Although each perspective is treated as distinct, they are in fact inter-related and complement each other. Each of the perspectives meets the following criteria.

Firstly, the rational for the perspective is conceptually sound, based on literature and the context of the study. The perspective is illustrated through the use of multiple streams of information and qualitative data. Criteria and standards are presented as norms to test specific areas of performance within the municipality. Secondly, each perspective leads to a broader theoretical discussion, which helps to address the following research questions and the research objectives:

1. What is the state of skills capacity-building in Sedibeng District Municipality?
2. How are skills development initiatives used to enhance service delivery?
3. Why is it crucial to link performance management and skills capacity-building?

The objectives presented in Figure 14 below were assumed to reveal whether there is a relationship between skills capacity efforts and performance enhancement. This is important because the background literature and the problem statement suggested a disjuncture between skills needs and service delivery. More importantly, this provided insight as to whether municipal employees are rewarded for acquiring additional skills, which is integral to staff motivation, growth and retention.

Figure 14: Research Objectives



Source: Own (2012)

4.9 MEASURES TO ENSURE RIGOR IN THE STUDY

The study utilised five quality indicators to enhance the integrity of the research findings. The first was trustworthiness, which involved creating a report with respondents and making the necessary prior arrangements with them to obtain the required set of data. The second concerned credibility which practically meant producing results that have substance in the eyes of the reader and beneficiaries. The third factor was transferability, aiming to determine the extent to which the findings of the study could be used in other municipal settings to improve delivery of skills capacity-building initiatives. This principle also enabled the author to establish whether or not participants had been able to apply acquired knowledge and competencies back on their jobs. As will be seen in chapter five, some of the respondents admitted that they had not been able to do this partly due to lack of opportunity to practice learnt skills and knowledge in the work environment. The fourth factor, dependability, was

used to determine the extent to which the study could be relied upon in terms of form, structure, content and utility. This was achieved through the use of the cross-case analysis method, which enabled meaningful comparison of the approaches and strategies used by SDM's three local municipalities to drive skills development interventions. The fifth factor, conformability, was established through a variety of techniques including comparison of answers from respondents, and contrasting primary data with secondary data and applicable policies and legislation, such as the Skills Development Strategy and the Skills Development Act of 1998.

4.10 ENSURING VALIDITY

Given that this study falls within the qualitative approach, the question of validity is important. The use of multiple sources of information to assess a particular area increases the validity of the findings. All the data is treated with due circumspection and the relevant qualifiers have been applied in relation to these data streams. Having explained the theoretical principles and guidelines that informed the design and operationalisation of this research, attention will now be focused on the ethical considerations and the research limitations which provided valuable information about data gathering and analysis.

4.11 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Berg (1998) emphasises the importance of confidentiality and anonymity in research and argues that it is important to provide subjects with a high degree of confidentiality. Confidentiality is an active attempt to remove from the research records any elements that might indicate the subjects' identity, whereas anonymity means that the subjects remain nameless. Drawing on this principle, the author advised the respondents of their rights to free participation and protection from harm.

Relying on the work of Strydom (1998), the following guidelines were applied to ensure the investigation conformed to research ethics. Firstly, an informed letter of concern was sent to SDM management and the three participating local municipalities. Secondly, participants were assured of privacy by concealing their identities and not publishing their names in the research report. This was discussed and agreed with senior management in all three local municipalities prior to the conduct of fieldwork. Thirdly, the researcher had to co-operate with respondents as they had demanding work schedules. Being considerate was a necessary ingredient in this research as SDM is polarised along political ideologies with the African National Congress (ANC) on the one side and the Democratic Alliance (DA) on the other side. In meeting this challenge it was necessary to conduct a field study of location of the three different local municipalities so that the researcher needed to have prior knowledge about the areas and demarcations. The last principle was feedback which was met by providing regular updates to the research supervisor and the PhD forum. In the field, this principle was satisfied through regular contacts with the management of the three local municipalities, informing them about progress and areas that the researcher needed further clarity or additional information on.

4.12 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

Research work is never without limitations and this study is no exception. As a result a number of factors could be deemed to undermine the quality of the research findings as well as the conclusions drawn from the findings. The first of such factors was related to the fact that the research was limited to the employees of the three SDM local municipalities and not to the external stakeholders like Ward Committees and Community Based Organisations. Secondly there is frequent staff mobility from within the ranks of the municipal managers, chief whips and councillors and these changes in municipal personnel always pose a challenge as some of them

are sometimes redeployed due to community dissatisfaction and they all leave the original deployment with vast experience and knowledge.

This had an impact on the consistency of the sample size and data collection period. Most councillors had only been in their employment a year after the 2011 local government elections. Some public servants were often sceptical about the researcher's intentions and this made it difficult for the researcher to freely administer the interview process. Addressing all aspects of capacity-building is beyond the scope of this research as it only focuses on skills capacity-building in the provision of basic services. The researcher is of the view that since capacity is a wide-ranging concept, it would be impossible to collect composite data for all the issues associated with capacity-building.

Although the response rate was relatively satisfactory in all three local municipalities, the data collection process was not entirely smooth, as some respondents were reluctant to take part in face-to-face interviews. This posed a challenge to data integrity. To overcome this challenge, some respondents were interviewed telephonically, especially in Midvaal and Lesedi, while others answered the interview questions electronically through email.

4.14 SUMMARY

The discussion in this chapter has shown that while case study design presents an ideal opportunity for deepening the understanding of a research phenomenon, each case has its own unique characteristics that the researcher needs to deal with to ensure success. Similarly, this investigation grappled with several important issues that had to be resolved timeously to enable proper data collection from the three SDM local municipalities. These included establishing protocols for interviewing senior executive managers, chief whips, speakers and councillors,

augmenting face-to-face interviews with telephonic and email interviews and obtaining permission to hold follow-up discussions with certain respondents from Midvaal and Lesedi.

As a multiple case study, cross-case analysis was undertaken to enable in-depth analysis of the findings. Individual analysis of the three local municipalities was not emphasised as the aim of the analysis was to discover similarities, dissimilarities and gaps in the practice of skills development across Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

Table 13 below illustrates how the study was conceptualised, delineated and operationalised to collect and analyse the data on the implementation of skills capacity-building programmes in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. Visualising the research design not only enhances understanding of the research process but also demonstrates to the reader how the research problem was aligned with the conceptual and theoretical framework to enhance the validity and integrity of the study.

Table 15: Research process

Process	Justification
Research problem	Limited skills capacity hinders service delivery in municipalities; resulting in poor outcomes and client dissatisfaction.
Research purpose	To examine how well Sedibeng Municipality promotes skills development to support service delivery.
Research questions	What is the state of skills capacity in Sedibeng Municipality? How well does Sedibeng promote skills development? Why is it crucial to link performance management and skills capacity-building?
Theoretical framework	The framework links capacity-building, leadership and governance, performance management and service delivery as mutually inclusive issues.
Research methodology	Qualitative approach supported with a case study design. Data collection tools: interviews, observation, focus groups Data analysis was based on the cross-case analysis method.
Data presentation and analysis	Cross-case analysis using verbatim and paraphrasing for all respondents in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.
Contribution to knowledge	The study exposed the vital link (alignment) that is required between skills development, performance management, learning transfer, talent management and career management to enhance organisational memory.
Conclusion	The researcher concludes that learning theory provides the basis for sustainable organisational memory, which is vital in improving staff morale, retention of essential skills, service delivery and client satisfaction.

Source Own (2013).

CHAPTER FIVE

THE STATE OF SKILLS CAPACITY IN SEDIBENG DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

While the previous chapter outlined the research process, this chapter is concerned with data presentation. Practically, data presentation entails the integration of interviews, focus groups and documentary sources and the researcher's perspective. As an introductory procedure, it is helpful to explain the process followed to present and explain the data on the implementation of skills development in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. The data presented here is meant to address the three critical research questions outlined in chapter one of this thesis, which are as follows:

1. What is the state of skills capacity in Sedibeng District Municipality?
2. How are skills development initiatives used to enhance service delivery?
3. Why is it important to link performance management with skills development?

As discussed in chapter four, initially a total of thirty-six respondents were targeted in SDM's three local municipalities. However, during field work the turnout from senior managers differed across the three local municipalities. The total number of participants was thirty-one instead of the proposed total of thirty-six. However, the non-participation of the planned respondents did not undermine the data presentation and analysis because all the relevant categories in all the three municipalities contributed significantly to the study. It is worth mentioning that the executive management category was earmarked for the mayors, the

mayoral committee (MMC), speaker and/or the chief whip and the senior manager were the managers in the corporate service section, while the political office bearers were the councillors of all three local municipalities.

5.2 JUSTIFICATION OF INTERVIEW PROCESS

Based on qualitative research theory, planning and execution of the project took place from July to December 2012. Prior to conducting the actual study, a quick feasibility study was undertaken in the Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi local municipalities as part of the preparation process. The aim was to gain familiarity with the functions, protocols, systems and processes of the municipality, which are critical for understanding skills development practice. Interviews and focus group appointments were facilitated through emails and telephone calls. Interviews were conducted in corporate boardrooms in all three local municipalities. This was convenient as it ensured the order and free flow of the conversation between the interviewer and the interviewees; thereby enabling meaningful and effective data collection. More importantly, interviews and focus group methods provided an ideal opportunity for the researcher to interact directly with the respondents in order to gain a better understanding of their views and experiences regarding the implementation of skills capacity-building programmes in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

5.3 DATA COLLECTION CHALLENGES

As with all research endeavours, this study was not exempt from challenges. As tabled in the research limitations in chapter four, the first challenge was political in nature and relates to the divisions between political parties (ANC and DA), particularly in Midvaal. This meant adhering strongly to research ethics to ensure that the validity and credibility of the data was not compromised. Getting councillors to

participate in the study required prior consultation with the Chief Whip's office so that they could be allowed to participate in the interviews and focus group sessions. In Lesedi, it was difficult to engage ward councillors as most of them were new in their positions and reluctant to speak to the researcher. To mitigate this challenge, the Office of the Speaker intervened and motivated ward councillors to participate in the study.

5.4 DATA PRESENTATION STRATEGY

In order to illuminate the discussion, verbatim information from the respondents was used along with explanation and description. The advantage of using verbatim information here is that it presents spoken words for explanation, using quotations to deepen understanding and using quotations to enhance readability (Corden and Sainsbury, 2006). Indirect quotes and paraphrasing were also used to enhance data presentation. These principles are consistent with the qualitative research paradigm which focuses on understanding meaning and context (Neuman, 2012). This data presentation strategy was applied in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

Data was presented under the following three thematic topics: current skills requirements; skills development process; and alignment between skills development and performance management process. The interviews consist mainly of open-ended questions as this is a qualitative case study requiring in-depth understanding of the skills capacity-building in SDM. As shown in Table 16 below, each of these themes differed from each category because the questions posed to respondents differed across categories (executive managers, senior managers and political office bearers).

Case study structure presents the respondents, themes and the number of respondents per category in each of the three local municipalities of the

SDM. A breakdown of the respondents entails the executive managers who were the Members of the Mayoral Committee, Municipal Manager, Chief Whip and the Speaker. The second category comprises senior managers across SDM's three municipalities. The third category includes the political office bearers. The involvement of the selected respondents not only enhanced the integrity and credibility of the data but also provided an ideal opportunity to verify the similarities and the gaps in the data sets across the three local municipalities.

Each category of respondents in Table 16 below had a specific set of questions and themes to answer. Executive managers were required to answer questions on strategic issues; while senior managers were expected to address questions relating to the implementation of skills, development programmes and the processes followed to achieve this goal. Political office bearers dealt with questions on the benefits of training and their role in transferring acquired knowledge and skills to communities. The findings for each category are grouped together across municipalities. As presented in the case study below, all the responses are coded to enable better understanding of the uniqueness of each sub-case study in terms of skills development systems, processes and practices as well as opportunities and challenges as the basis for cross-case analysis presented in chapter six.

Table 16: Case study structure

Case	Respondents	Themes	No. of respondents per case
Case study 1 Emfuleni	Executive managers	• Current skills requirements (Supply); • Skills development processes Alignment between skills development and performance management process.	A.1.1 – A1.2
	Senior Managers	• Current skills programmes; • Alignment between skills development and performance management process	A.2.1 – A2.3
	Political Office bearers	• Perception of working conditions • Perspective on service delivery • Perception of skills capacity- building	A.3.1 – A3-6
Case study 2 Midvaal	Executive managers	• Current skills requirements (Supply) • Skills development process e • Alignment between skills development and performance management process.	B.1.1 – B1.2
	Senior Managers	• Current skills programmes • Alignment between skills development and performance management process	B.2.1 – B2.3
	Political office bearers	• Perception of working conditions • Perspectives on service delivery • Perception of skills capacity- building	B.3.1 – B3-6
Case study	Executive managers	• Current skills requirements (Supply) • Skills development process	C.1.1 – C1.2

3 Lesedi		• Alignment between skills development and performance management process.	
	Senior Managers	• Current skills programmes • Alignment between skills development and performance management process	C.2.1 – C2.3
	Political Office bearers	• Perceptions of working conditions • Perspectives on service delivery • Perceptions of skills capacity- building	C.3.1 – C3-6

Source: Own (2013)

5.5 CASE STUDY: EMFULENI LOCAL MUNICIPALITY

Category A1: Executive managers from Emfuleni Local Municipality

5.5.1 Theme 1: Current skills requirements (Supply) in Emfuleni

5.5.1.1 Skills development objectives

There were two participating respondents under this category in Emfuleni Local Municipality. Executive manager A.1.1 reported that, “the aim of skills development is to improve performance and service delivery at all levels of the Municipality; and to develop human resources to support the organisation’s mission and vision in relation to service delivery”. This respondent added that skills development was being used to “prepare our people for the future” (Executive manager A.1.1, Interview 17 July 2012).

Similarly, Executive manager A1.2 concurred with Executive manager A.1.1 by saying that, “the objective of skills training in our organisation is to enhance organisational efficiency and client satisfaction. We believe that with a competent workforce, we can provide quality services to our communities”. The respondent also referred the researcher to the municipality’s strategic plan, which confirmed the need for improving skills profiles and the general competence of the organisation as a whole (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012).

Taken together, these responses suggest that Emfuleni executive managers were aware of skills development goals in their municipality.

5.5.1.2 Current supply and demand of skills

With regard to the supply of skills, Executive manager A.1.1 stated that Emfuleni municipality had “project management skills, change

management skills, and people management skills". The second Executive manager A.1.2 added that the municipality also had "IDP process management, conflict management and negotiation skills". Concerning the demand for skills, Executive manager A.1.1 emphasised that there was a "high demand for engineering, research and leadership skills, as these skills were in high demand in both the public and private sectors. It is difficult to attract these skills with low salary packages". Still on the demand side, Executive manager A.1.2 reported the shortage of research skills, computer skills, financial management and communication skills, which he said, "affected delivery of services at community level" (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012). From the executive manager's point of view, the technical and conceptual skills were in high demand because there was a greater focus on management and administrative skills. There was also a concern that skills transfer from within the organisation and from the service providers was unsatisfactory. This finding suggests that the current supply of skills in Emfuleni is inadequate.

5.5.2 Theme 2: Skills development process in Emfuleni

5.5.2.1 Workplace skills plan

Executive managers A.1.1 and A.1.2 concurred that Emfuleni implemented the skills plans, although this was negatively affected by the lack of funds. Executive manager A.1.2 also stated that the corporate service section was aware of the workplace skills plan but it was not thoroughly implemented the way it should be. This respondent also added that the municipality was in "a process of appointing a skills development facilitator to ensure proper implementation of skills plans in Emfuleni Local Municipality" (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012).

This question also revealed a lack of understanding of the key requirements for the skills capacity-building process, as some officials

struggled to explain the process followed to implement workplace skills plans.

5.5.2.2 Perceptions on current skills capacity

In this question, Executive managers A.1.1 and A1.2 were required to indicate if they were satisfied with the current supply of skills in their organisation, namely Emfuleni. Both respondents conceded that the current supply of skills was inadequate and that this problem "affected all levels of the municipality when it comes to delivering high quality services, which contributes to client dissatisfaction". Executive manager A.1.2 attributed this problem (undersupply of skills) to the lack of co-ordination and training capacity in the organisation (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012).

From these responses, it may be inferred that the current supply of skills in Emfuleni was below expectations and thus not consistent with the rising demand for better services in the area.

5.5.2.3 Critical skills required

Executive managers A.1.1 and A.1.2 from Emfuleni reported that, "the municipality needs strategic planning, talented management and conflict management skills". Executive manager A.1.1 emphasised the fact that high level skills, such as strategic planning and technical skills, explaining that, "critical skills are required to help the organisation to achieve its service delivery mandates, because communities continue to demand better services from the municipality" (Executive manager A.1.1, Interview 17 July 2012).

This question confirms that Emfuleni executive managers were aware that for the municipality to succeed it had to eliminate shortages in critical skills

to be able to lead and direct the organisation in accordance with the municipal delivery mandates.

5.5.2.4 Implementation of skills programmes

The main goal of this question was to establish if training opportunities had been given to lower level employees in Emfuleni. Executive manager A.1.1 confirmed that staff members had been given training. The respondent added that staff members had been consulted as part of the needs identification process. Executive manager A.1.2 mentioned that it was "the responsibility of each staff member to discuss their training needs with their managers. Although we encourage staff members to come forward with their skills needs, however, very few do this due to lack of motivation or busy work schedules" (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012).

From this data, it appears that skills development programmes had been implemented in Emfuleni, although this happened in varying degrees across occupational levels. There was also the expectation that each staff member had to take the initiative instead of being directed or asked to participate in skills programmes.

5.5.2.5 Relationship between organisational culture and human resource development

Executive manager A.1.1 felt that the learning culture was weak in Emfuleni and that more efforts were needed to make people aware of the importance of life-long learning. Executive manager A.1.2 was sceptical, saying that many officials were demotivated with regard to learning and that was mainly because they did not see the financial benefits of training. This respondent felt strongly that, "the lack of incentives after training is the basis for many staff members to turn down training opportunities. It is difficult for some people to attend training if they do not see the financial

benefits." (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012). It appears from these findings that Emfuleni lacks a strong learning culture and this has the potential of limiting career growth for staff members.

5.5.2.6 Communication of skills programme to the staff

The aim of this question was to determine if efforts had been made to raise awareness among staff about the importance and benefits of training. Executive manager A.1.1 stressed that informing staff about skills development opportunities was "part of the municipality's human resource development policy", and therefore vital for all departments in Emfuleni. Executive manager A.1.2 reported that, "training programmes are communicated to staff through staff meetings, directives, notice boards and performance reviews and appraisal feedback". However, this respondent also conceded that training communications did not reach all target audiences, especially ward councillors (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012).

Based on these inputs, it appears that training communications were not effectively disseminated and as a result training opportunities did not reach all staff members.

5.5.2.7 Process followed to implement skills programmes

The two executive managers from Emfuleni (Executive managers A.1.1 and A.1.2) reported that skills development started with consultations with staff members and unions and the identification of skills needs across departments. Similarly, Respondent A.1.2 reported that, "skills development is an inclusive process involving managers, staff and employee representatives". According to Executive manager A.1.1, this collaboration promoted the implementation of the skills programmes in the municipality, although this was negated by the limited budget allocated for training (Executive manager A.1.1, Interview 17 July 2012).

From this finding, it seems that executive managers understood the skills development process at Emfuleni, although this was obscured by their inability to explain how skills development programmes were tracked and measured to determine their municipality outcomes.

5.5.2.8 Methods used to build skills capacity

The aim of this question was to determine the methods used to build skills in SDM's three local municipalities. Executive managers A.1.1 and A.1.2 from Emfuleni confirmed that, "formal and informal training methods are being used to build skills in the organisation". For example, some of their members were sent to the Vaal University of Technology for short courses, while their ward councillors were inducted by the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) for training on the workings of municipal systems and processes.

Executive manager A.1.1 conceded that, "these training efforts are not enough because we have large departments with many occupational levels and skills needs", while Executive manager A.1.2 added that, "funding (budget) has to be increased in order to ensure that skills programmes covered the needs of all our people" (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012).

These results suggest that both formal and informal methods were used to build skills in Emfuleni although a lack of financial resources was impeding the realisation of municipal skills capacity goals.

5.5.2.9 Key role-players in the skills development process

Executive manager A.1.1 reported that Emfuleni managers, staff and unions worked together to plan and implement skills programmes. This respondent from the executive management category emphasised the fact

that their approach to skills development was highly inclusive. Executive manager A.1.2 stated that the involvement of unions made it easy for the municipality to address skills development issues in the organisation, because, “Unions help with the monitoring and evaluation of skills programme” (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012).

It appeared that to a large extent Emfuleni enjoyed the support of the unions in skills development as opposed to Lesedi, which suffered due to a lack of union support.

5.5.2.10 Financial resources required to support skills development

This question sought to determine if sufficient financial resources had been allocated for skills development in SDM’s three local municipalities. What follows is a summary of the data as rendered by the respondents from Emfuleni Local Municipality. Executive manager A.1.1 from Emfuleni indicated that as much as they were willing to implement skills programmes, their municipality faced “severe financial challenges due to its historic underdevelopment of the area”. The respondent said that the Municipality did not benefit from the skills grants as it had not submitted skills plans to the local government Sector Educational and Training Authority (LGSETA).

Training relied heavily on the 15 per cent derived from the human resource budget. No extra funding was available to support skills capacity-building. Executive manager A.1.2 added that, “limited funding options forces the municipality to prioritise training programmes, and the careful selection of candidates and selection of the relevant training institution” (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012).

From these responses, it appears that skills development in Emfuleni was hampered by the lack of financial resources.

5.5.3 Theme 3: Alignment between skills development and performance management process in Emfuleni

5.5.3.1 Link between skills programmes and performance management

At first, the respondents from Emfuleni were somewhat hesitant to talk about performance management. Executive manager A.1.1 conceded that, “the link between training and performance management is not visible and that this problem was due to a lack of communication between Corporate Services and section managers”. Executive manager A.1.2 stated that the weak link between skills programmes and performance management discouraged some employees from attending training courses. According to this respondent, “not all managers know how to use the performance management system to coach, give feedback to employees on their daily performance and that is why we still face problems in this area” (Executive manager A.1.2, Interview 17 July 2012).

On the whole, these results show that there was no strong link between skills development and performance management.

5.6 CATEGORY A2: SENIOR MANAGERS FROM EMFULENI

In the context of local government, senior managers are supposed to be specialists in their respective functions. It was therefore important to include them in the study as they deal with a wide variety of HR issues, including compensation, training, planning and human resource development. Their inputs were needed to determine if they themselves had received the necessary training to be able to perform their jobs and assist other units to deliver on their mandates. Their inputs would also enable the researcher to verify the datasets derived from members of the executive team. This would also help enhance the validity and reliability of

the study. Their views were administered through the interview process and have the following themes: current skills programmes and alignment between skills development and performance management process.

5.6.1 Theme 1: Current skills programmes in Emfuleni

5.6.1.1 Consultation process

Three (3) officials from the municipality of Emfuleni took part in the interview process. The responses are tabled below.

Senior manager A.2.1 from Emfuleni confirmed that, “yes I have been consulted on skills development and this is part of our municipality’s HRD strategy, which encourages learning and development for all staff members, including senior management”. This respondent highlighted that this consultation was aimed at helping him to identify, discuss and agree training needs. Similarly, senior manager A.2.2 reported that he had been consulted on training needs, but this respondent was quick to point out that, “this consultation did not include career issues”. In other words, training was discussed as an isolated subject with little emphasis on the linkages between this process and other HR programmes, such as compensation, performance management and succession planning. Senior manager A.2.3 reported that, “yes I have been consulted and consultation is not only focused on senior managers but also covers other employees, including trade union officials” (Senior manager A.2.3, Interview 20 July 2012).

These results show that while employees had been consulted on training needs, these efforts were not linked with other human resource programmes from the perspective of Respondent A.2.2.

5.6.1.2 Training received

This question was intended to establish if senior managers had been given the necessary training so that they could make informed decisions about service delivery issues. Senior manager A.2.1 noted that, “yes, I have been trained on project management, customer service and diversity management, although this sometimes does not meet one’s career needs”. Senior manager A.2.2 concurred that he had been trained in project management and change management. By contrast, senior manager A.2.3 stated that the training received was, “generic in nature and not job-related, and there are no opportunities for officials to apply acquired skills back on the job after training, meaning that sometimes there are no opportunities for testing acquired knowledge and skills in the workplace” (Senior manager A.2.3, Interview 20 July 2012).

From this finding, it appears that although training had been provided, the bulk of this training did not address performance issues. In part this explains why some senior managers felt that training was not helping staff to improve their performance on the job.

5.6.1.3 Customer service training

Because of their close interactions with communities, officials must have sound knowledge of customer service basics. In this context, senior manager A.2.1 reported that, “yes I have been trained in customer service and strategic planning, although this does not happen frequently in my area of responsibility”. In the same vein, Senior manager A.2.2 also said that he had received training in customer service when he first joined the organisation. The third senior manager A.2.3 indicated that customer service training included, “Batho Pele principles, which require officials to consult with customers (beneficiaries) on service delivery issues” (Senior manager A.2.3, Interview 20 July 2012).

Overall it seems that senior managers had been given training in customer services, although such training differed from one portfolio to another. On the positive side, it was pleasing to see that customer service training had been aligned with government policy on the Batho Pele principles as a benchmark tool for improving individual performance and service delivery.

5.6.1.4 Required service standards

In this question respondents were asked to indicate the quality standards that they are required to meet in their respective jobs. Senior manager A.2.1 indicated that service standards were included in his performance contract and that these include, “meeting deadlines, promoting teamwork and ensuring that services are delivered on time”. Similarly, Senior manager A.2.2 confirmed that, “in terms of my contract, I have to excel in my duties, but sometimes this can be difficult if there is no support” (Senior manager A.2.2, Interview 20 July 2012).

The third senior manager A2.3 stated that he was guided by the Batho Pele principles, which set out the specific service standards for all employees in his department. From these findings it seems that senior managers were generally aware of the required service standards in their respective portfolios.

5.6.2 Theme 2: Alignment between skills development and performance management process in Emfuleni

5.6.2.1 Appraisal and skills needs

The respondents were asked if they received appraisal in their respective line functions. Senior manager A.2.1 responded: “yes I have been appraised in my portfolio but this does not happen regularly and therefore means that we still have a long way to go in this area”. The respondent

wished that appraisals could have been done regularly to help him grow in his job. Similar sentiments were shared by Senior manager A.2.2 who said that although a performance management system had been put in place, this was not implemented properly across all occupational levels. The respondent said that, “not everyone is clear about the goals and benefits of performance management in the municipality”. Respondent A.2.3 stated that it would have been better if appraisals had been aligned with rewards to motivate employees (Senior manager A.2.3, Interview 20 July 2012).

Looking at these results, it appears that although senior managers had been appraised, the scope and intensity of such appraisals differed from one portfolio to another, suggesting that the performance management process was somewhat fragmented and inadequate.

5.6.2.2 Perceptions on the quality of training received

In terms of this question, respondents had to indicate if they were satisfied with the training received. Senior manager A.2.1 said that, “not really, because it does not address my career goals. When you join the organisation you expect your career goals to be linked to your skills needs. It is difficult to do this when there is not enough information and when you have a tight work schedule everyday”. This respondent qualified his opinion by saying that there was no clear link between training and what he wanted to achieve in his career. He said it was this lack of consistency between training and career planning that discouraged some officials from attending skills programmes.

Senior manager A.2.2 pointed out that, “training opportunities are not contributing to the effective development and retention of senior managers in the organisation”. She said this was one of the reasons why the municipality struggled to attract and keep highly talented employees at the senior level. Senior manager A.2.3 shared similar concerns, saying that, “management development programmes should be diversified to cater for

the unique career needs and aspirations of senior managers in the municipality" (Senior manager A.2.3, Interview 20 July 2012).

Judging by these responses, one gains the impression that senior managers at Emfuleni were generally not happy with the fact that training had not been aligned with their career needs and expectations as some wanted to diversify their careers. In addition, these findings suggest that senior managers were aware of the fact that current skills interventions are not helping to build a sustainable skills base that can help Emfuleni to improve service delivery.

5.6.2.3 Potential challenges hindering skills capacity building

Participants were required to indicate if there were any challenges that blocked skills formation in their organisation. The three respondents from Emfuleni unanimously agreed that the municipality faced challenges in skills development. For example, while Senior manager A.2.1 raised concerns about the small training budget (15 per cent of the HR budget), Senior manager A.2.2 reported that identification of skills needs was lacking in some respects. For example, employees were not subjected to Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL) assessment to identify their learning capabilities and courses in which they deserved credits. Senior manager A.2.3 stated that, "officials lack the desire to learn; it is the responsibility of top management (Executive) to provide the incentives and support needed to boost staff morale". This respondent further stated that the inability of the municipality to recruit a skills development facilitator was one of the major barriers to skills development (Senior manager A.2.3, Interview 20 July 2012).

From these findings it is clear that Senior managers were fully aware of the constraints impeding skills building at Emfuleni.

5.6.2.4 Suggestions for improvement

This question sought to establish what the respondents thought could be done to enhance delivery of basic services to the people of Emfuleni. A wide range of interesting suggestions was given. For example, Senior manager A.2.1 suggested that, “there should be clear roles and responsibilities for training in communication skills, political and persuasion skills,” while Senior manager A.2.2 felt that, “dialogue between parties should be increased at all levels of the municipality to improve access and awareness irrespective of the party’s political backgrounds and beliefs”. Senior manager A.2.3 suggested that, “employees who have successfully completed their training should be rewarded to reinforce positive thinking and motivation among officials” (Senior manager A.2.3, Interview 20 July 2012).

The varied nature of these responses suggests that senior managers were aware of the need to improve implementation of the skills programme in Emfuleni.

5.7 CATEGORY A3: POLITICAL OFFICE BEARERS (COUNCILLORS) FROM EMFULENI

The respondents in this category were Ward councillors and were visited in their respective local municipalities. Their inclusion in the study was vital as they provide the link between the municipality and local communities. Not only do they play a liaison role but they are also required to monitor and report on service delivery issues in their respective wards. To be able to perform these duties well, councillors need a wide range of skills, including public speaking skills, negotiation and conflict resolution skills, and change management skills. Their inputs were needed to establish if they had been given the opportunity to attend skills development programmes.

The process followed to obtain data from these respondents entailed focus groups which were facilitated by the researcher after securing permission and appointments with these respondents through the Chief Whip's office. Before the focus group sessions, participants were briefed about the themes, which included length of service/seniority; willingness to continue serving the municipality; level of service delivery; challenges in skills capacity-building; ward councillors' role in skills development at community level; and what could be done to improve service delivery at community level.

With regard to the process, the researcher was directly responsible for organising, directing and facilitating focus group discussions, which were held in respondents' constituent offices and municipal board rooms. With regard to process, the first step was to explain the discussion topics to participants. Next, participants were informed of the general guidelines governing focus group activities, which include mutual respect, tolerance for divergent views, free and open expression of ideas, non-criticism, and recognition of participants' contributions to the discussion.

The time allocated for the focus group sessions was approximately two hours in each municipality to enable effective data collection. This arrangement was accepted by the respondents. This gave participants enough time to discuss and reflect on the given topics. In addition, keeping the discussion short and focused also helped mitigate the risk of boredom, diversion from the given topic, as well as polarisation among participants, which may compromise data integrity and credibility

There were six (6) respondents in the municipality of Emfuleni. Each respondent was given a form to complete and was requested to include their unique code of A.1-A.6 for ease of reference. Their responses are presented under the following themes: Attitude towards municipality as a

deployee; perspective on service delivery; and perspective on skills development

5.7.1 Theme 1: Perceptions on working conditions

5.7.1.1 Length of service

During the focus group discussions, Political office bearer A.3.1 indicated that, “I have served for more than one year”. The second political office bearer A.3.2 reported that he has “served for more than seven years” as a ward councillor in his community. He said people re-elected him because they were apparently satisfied with his performance and contribution to community development. Meanwhile, Political office bearer A.3.3 stated that she had “served for more than six years” because she had also been re-elected in her area for the same reason, namely commitment and good standing in the community.

Political office bearers A.3.4 and A.3.5, had served for three years due to the by-elections which took place before the 2011 local government election and shared similar sentiments, saying that “most ward councillors had difficulty understanding municipal systems and processes”, which affected their tenure in office. Political office bearer A.3.6 served for two years and complained about the lack of induction and support for newly appointed ward councillors, saying this was one of the reasons that forced some of them to oppose requests for re-election (Political Office bearer A.3.6, Interview 21 August 2012). From these findings, it is clear that the respondents had different experiences with regard to length of service in their positions as ward councillors. For example, while some were relatively new in their positions, others had served for longer periods of time.

5.7.1.2 Willingness to continue serving as a Ward Councillor

There were differences among the Emfuleni respondents regarding this issue. For example, Political office bearer A.3.1 indicated that, “I am not willing to continue serving in my position due to lack of support and opportunities for development”. This sentiment was shared by Political office bearer A.3.3, who said that ward councillors’ work was “risky because councillors do not receive the same treatment from the municipality, especially in terms of salaries” (Political office bearer A.3.3, Interview 21 August 2012).

These respondents indicated that they would consider retaining their positions if conditions of service were improved. Only Political office bearer A.3.2 indicated his willingness to continue serving because he liked his job of serving the community. Political office bearer A.3.4 felt that councillors were “demotivated by lack of communication in the municipality” and as a result, some ward councillors were not aware of what was happening in the municipality. Political office bearer A.3.5 and Respondent A.3.6 shared a similar view, saying that unless councillors were given the necessary guidance and support they would not last in their positions, meaning that there would be high staff turnover (Political office bearer A.3.6, Interview 21 August 2012). Overall, the above finding suggests that there were different views on whether councillors wanted to continue serving in their portfolios; this negative sentiment was particularly strong among the newly deployed councillors who felt insecure in their jobs due to lack of support.

The researcher’s observation was that there were silent disagreements in that some councillors were sceptical about training efforts due to the fact that these were not linked to financial incentives; and that skill capacity-building efforts were hampered by apathy or ignorance in some areas. This was evident from the interviews with councillors in this municipality when asked about the courses attended in previous training; one of the

participants could not recall the specific subjects learned and some employees were negative about not being informed about the SALGA training as evident in their body language and from their verbatim responses.

5.7.2 Theme 2: Perspectives on service delivery in Emfuleni

5.7.2.1 Describe level of service delivery in your area

Nearly all the respondents from Emfuleni conceded that the level of service delivery at community level was unsatisfactory. For example, Respondent A.3.1 indicated that there were not enough resources to support service delivery. Political office bearer A.3.2 stated that communities could not differentiate between short-term, interim and long-term services and as a result, “they (community members) expect everything to be done now”. Political office bearers A.3.3 and A.3.4 were not happy with the fact that some community members were hostile towards ward councillors despite the fact that some of them had done their jobs well for more than seven years. Political office bearer A.3.5 lamented the slow pace of service delivery, especially in informal settlements. Political office bearer A.3.6 raised concerns about the “lack of feedback” on promised projects, saying that officials did not accompany ward councillors during feedback meetings to explain the cause of delay in delivery of projects (Political office bearer A.3.6, Interview 21 August 2012). It appears that the majority of ward councillors in Emfuleni were generally unhappy with the current level of service delivery in their constituencies.

5.7.2.2 What could be done to improve service delivery in your area?

Political office bearers were asked to suggest ways to improve service delivery in their respective areas. Political office bearers A.3.1 and A.3.2 suggested that councillors should be given the same treatment across the

board, meaning that all ward councillors should receive the same benefits, including compensation and development opportunities. Political office bearers A.3.3 and A.3.4 expressed similar views, saying that “ward councillors should be given more support by the executive members”. Political office bearer A.3.5 suggested that, “programme officials and project managers should attend community forums to build mutual trust between citizens and the municipality”.

Political office bearer A.3.6 wanted to see more improvements in training communications, the municipal by-laws and ensuring that communities understand the provincial mandates and the municipal mandates (Political office bearer A.3.6, Interview 21 August 2012). Taken together, these findings show that Emfuleni office bearers were committed to serve their municipality irrespective of the challenges they face with their communities, because the absence of senior managers during community meetings is a challenge.

5.7.3 Theme 3: Perspective on skills capacity-building in Emfuleni

5.7.3.1 Municipal challenges in terms of human, conceptual and technical skills

Political office bearers A.3.1 and A.2.2 stated that ward councillors were “not well equipped to support skills development” at community level. Respondent A.3.3 indicated that skills capacity-building was hampered by the “lack of co-ordination across programmes”, which resulted in fragmented approaches to skills development. For Political office bearer A.3.4, the major barrier to skills formation was the communication break-down between officials and ward councillors. Political office bearer A3.5 felt strongly that ward councillors were “not given the same recognition and treatment as officials”, which discouraged some of them from participating in skills development programmes. Respondent A.3.6 expressed concerns about the “heavy reliance on external consultants and

subcontractors", which he said prevented the municipality from building engineering and technical skills (Political office bearer A.3.6, Interview 21 August 2012). These findings imply that the lack of mutual understanding between ward councillors and officials as well the extensive utilisation of external service providers contributed to the shortage of skills in Emfuleni Local Municipality.

5.7.3.2 Role of ward councillors in skills capacity-building

All six respondents from Emfuleni confirmed that ward councillors were involved in skills development at community level. For instance, Political office bearer A.3.1 indicated that, "councillors are required to educate street committees about the IDP process and community development programmes". The other respondents (A.3.2, A.3.3, A.3.4, A.3.5 and A.3.6) reported that ward councillors had attended public speaking workshops and administrative courses including computer literacy (Political office bearers, Interview, 21 August 2012). On the whole, these findings show that ward councillors had contributed to skills capacity-building at Emfuleni.

More inputs were received from Political office bearer A.3.2 who confirmed that he contributed to skills building by "educating his community about nutrition, human rights and HIV/AIDS issues". Political office bearer A.3-5 also reported similar experiences, saying that these interventions were not just restricted to one local municipality, but were part of SDM's community capacity-building programme which covered the entire district (Political office bearer A.3.5, Interview 21 August 2012). What is clear from these responses is that Emfuleni councillors had played meaningful roles in capacity-building, although their contributions differed from one area to another. For example, Respondent A.3.1 reported that he even took the initiative to engage his community on their service delivery needs and to educate them about the meaning of service delivery.

5.7.3.3 Problems encountered in skills capacity-building

Political office bearers were asked if they had encountered any problems in skills capacity-building. Political office bearer A.3.1 complained about "poor communication", saying that ward councillors were not informed well in advance about training opportunities. Political office bearer A.3.2 said "the shortage of funds" was a major barrier to skills development in Emfuleni; while Political office bearer A.3.3 was more concerned about the "deteriorating working conditions for councillors" in the area. She said that, "the success of capacity-building efforts at community level depends on the motivation and commitment of ward councillors". Political office bearer A.3.4 observed that training should start with councillors because they are the ones who deal with community problems on a daily basis, and furthermore, that the lack of skills among councillors contributed to the slow delivery of capacity-building programmes at community level. Political office bearer (A.3.5) felt that training opportunities were "not given to all councillors". As a result, some councillors performed well in their jobs, while others struggled to meet their performance targets due to lack of training. In addition, Political office bearer A.3.6 noted that after their term of service of five years, "trained councillors are replaced with newly elected councillors". This leaves a vacuum in the organisations stability (Political Office bearers, A.3.6, Interview 21 August 2012).

What is clear from these findings is that the challenges hindering skills development at Emfuleni revolved around the ward councillors' extended term of office, their commitment to learn and the fair allocation of financial resources among all of the councillors.

5.8 CASE STUDY II: CATEGORY B1: EXECUTIVE MANAGERS FROM MIDVAAL

5.8.1 Theme 1: Current skills requirements in Midvaal

5.8.1.1 Skills development objectives

There were two executive managers who participated in this Municipality. According to Executive manager B.1.1, the aim of the skills development programme in Midvaal was, "to contribute to the national goal of transformation and social development through enhanced responsiveness in the planning and provision of basic services to local communities". This respondent saw skills development as a critical driver of Midvaal's strategic plan and service delivery programmes. Executive manager B1.2 stated that skills development was intended to improve not just the skills levels but also the quality of services provided to local communities (Executive manager B1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). From these data inputs, there appears to be a general understanding of training objectives by all the executive managers in Midvaal.

5.8.1.2 Current supply and demand of skills

Executive manager B1.1 stated that Midvaal was involved in a wide variety of skills programmes including project management, diversity management, and transformation. However, this respondent was quick to point out that transformation and diversity training was not as effective as they wanted it to be. Executive manager B1.2 reported that, "efforts to build high level skills are being considered, including further investment in technical skills and engineering skills training programmes". This respondent lamented the fact that management development programmes were not achieving the desired outcomes due to political interference. The respondent felt that, "political tensions between the (ANC) (ruling party) and the opposition (DA) forced many skilled individuals and professionals

to leave the municipality". He said this continued to "cause high staff turnover" in his organisation (Executive manager B.1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). On the whole, the results show that the executive managers were aware of the need to improve the supply of skills in Midvaal.

5.8.2 Theme 2: Skills development process in Midvaal

5.8.2.1 Workplace skills plan

Both Executive managers B.1.1 and B.1.2 concurred that Midvaal had skills plans and that these had been implemented annually to achieve not only HRD objectives but also to improve employment equity levels in the municipality. However, the respondents admitted that despite the implementation of the skills plans, management development moved slowly at the top due to poor performance of the transformation programme. The respondent said transformation outcomes were dismal and embarrassed the municipality. Executive manager B.1.1 felt strongly that, "drastic steps are needed to improve implementation of the skills plans at the senior level of the organisation to ensure that the mission and vision of the municipality are achieved as planned" (Executive manager B.1.1, Interview 19 October 2012). These findings demonstrate that work place skills plans were implemented in Midvaal although the results were unsatisfactory.

5.8.2.2 Perceptions of current skills capacity

Executive manager B.1.1 said that he was not satisfied with the levels of skills in the municipality, and he felt that the current supply of skills reflected generic skills which were easy to find in general. He explained that, "when it comes to technical, leadership and technical skills, the record is very poor, because currently we are running short of these skills in almost all our departments". Similarly, Executive manager B.1.2 pointed

out that the municipality did not have the requisite skills needed to enhance service delivery. The respondent was particularly concerned about the lack of research and policy analysis skills. He felt strongly that these skills were critical for programme officials as they dealt with policy issues in their jobs (Executive manager B.1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). These results show that Midvaal officials were aware of the shortage of skills and the negative impact of this deficit on service delivery.

5.8.2.3 Critical skills required

Executive manager B.1.1 indicated that Midvaal's "diversity management and transformation record was unsatisfactory". He said this problem illustrated the challenge that the municipality faced in building critical skills. Executive manager B.1.2 stressed the fact that Midvaal had done well in areas "like HIV/AIDS, and fire-fighting at community level". This respondent added that leadership skills were needed to expedite transformation at the higher level of the organisation (Executive manager B.1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). From these inputs it may be deduced that the executive managers were aware of the need to accelerate diversity training, particularly at the higher level of the municipality.

5.8.2.4 Implementation of skills programmes

Executive manager B1.1 said skills development included both formal and informal methods, with some employees being trained on the job, while others were trained at different universities. He said, "only accredited providers are used to deliver skills programmes internally". Equally, Executive manager B1.2 confirmed that skills programmes had been implemented in Midvaal, including financial management and project management for officials (Executive manager B.1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). From these findings; it is evident that efforts had been made to improve skills capacity in Midvaal.

5.8.2.5 Relationship between organisational culture and human resource development

Executive manager B.1.1 indicated that the "current organisational culture hinders rather than promotes learning" in Midvaal. He qualified this statement by saying that, "the political tensions" resulting from lack of transformation at senior management level negates the principles of continuous improvement in Midvaal, and without management support, it would be difficult for Midvaal to develop the requisite skills. Executive manager B.1.2 said that, "lack of a learning culture discourages many employees from furthering their studies in the municipality". He said some employees avoided training not because they wanted to, but because they had not been motivated to attend. Based on this, Executive manager B.1.2 concluded that, "more efforts are needed to create an organisational culture that inspires managers and staff to improve their education, skills and career prospects" (Executive manager B.1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). A close examination of these responses suggests that the culture of learning had not been strongly embedded in Midvaal.

5.8.2.6 Communication of skills programme to the staff

Both Executive managers B.1.1 and B.1.2 concurred that staff had been informed about skills development opportunities in Midvaal. However, Executive manager B.1.2 conceded that, "not all staff members were aware of these opportunities", suggesting a gap in training communications. This concern was also reflected by Executive manager B.1.1 who said that some staff members, "due to lack of information", contacted him to enquire about training opportunities (Executive manager B.1.1., Interview 19 October 2012). These data inputs suggest that training communications were weak in some portfolios in Midvaal.

5.8.2.7 Process followed to implement skills programme

Executive manager B.1.1 said both formal and informal methods were used to build skills in Midvaal. He explained that, “informal approaches include on the job training; while formal approaches involve sending some officials and managers to the University of Johannesburg for further training”. Executive manager B.1.2 supported this view by saying that the municipality used both on-the-job and off-site training techniques. This dual approach enabled Midvaal municipality to address the training needs of management and employees respectively. However, this respondent was quick to mention that this dual approach did “not help transformation at the senior level of the organisation as diversity issues were not receiving enough attention” (Executive manager B.1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). These results confirm that skills development had been formalised in Midvaal.

5.8.2.8 Methods used to build skills capacity

Executive manager B.1.1 stated that informal methods were being used to equip staff members with new knowledge and skills. He said that, “these methods were job-based and required managers and supervisors to work closely”. However, this respondent also conceded that coaching meetings between managers and staff were not easy to achieve in some areas due to the busy schedules of programme officials. Respondent B.1.2 said formal methods were used to train managers; for example, some officials were sent to universities for further training, although such training was, “not always job-related, which often leads to unsatisfactory performance in some cases” (Executive manager B.1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). These results imply that both formal and informal methods were used to promote skills development methods in Midvaal.

5.8.2.9 Key role-players in the skills development process

According to executive manager B.1.1, key role-players in the skills development process included the executive, senior management, unions and staff. He said that, “skills development facilitators also played a major role in training administration, for example, compilation of training records, workplace skills plans, annual training reports, application for skills grants and providing advice on skills development policies and regulations”. Executive manager B.1.2 concurred with this view, saying that the skills development process is inclusive and requires the contributions of all these key stakeholders ((Executive manager B.1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). These results suggest that the skills development process was based on consultation with different stakeholders within the municipality.

5.8.2.10 Financial resources required to support skills development

Executive manager B.1.1 stated that Midvaal was relatively better off in terms of financial resources as its training budget combined funding from the HR budget and skills grants. He said that, “this makes it easier for the municipality to cope with the rising cost of short courses” (usually one- or two-day training workshops). Similarly, Executive manager B.1.2 indicated that the “budget is not a major challenge for Midvaal”. He said the only problem was that not everyone was committed to skills development, and this was attributed to “lack of communication” (Executive manager B.1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). What is evident from these findings is that Midvaal had sufficient funds to support skills development, although this was hampered by political tensions.

5.8.3 Theme 3: Alignment between skills development and performance management process in Midvaal

5.8.3.1 Link between skills programmes and performance management

Executive manager B.1.1 reported that training was linked to performance. He said that, “every official’s employment contract includes a performance agreement with clearly stated objectives and targets”, and this was communicated to all officials when they joined the municipality. Executive manager B.1.2 agreed, saying that training is meant to support employee performance in the municipality. He said it was every manager’s responsibility to ensure that their subordinates are appraised and that feedback from this process is used to improve employees’ performance and career prospects (Executive manager B.1.2, Interview 19 October 2012). From these findings, it appears that Midvaal executive managers had a clear understanding of the relationship between training and performance management.

5.9 CATEGORY B2: SENIOR MANAGERS FROM MIDVAAL

Two (2) officials, respondents from the municipality of Midvaal took part in the interview process. The responses are tabled below.

5.9.1 Theme 1: Current skills programmes in Midvaal

5.9.1.1 Consultation process

Respondent B.2.1, a senior manager, stated that, “yes, I have been consulted about training as part of my individual development plan in the department”. She said her manager scheduled regular meetings to discuss and agree training needs in light of the municipality’s service delivery

mandate. Respondent B.2.2, also a senior manager, concurred with Respondent B.2.1, saying that he too had been given a chance to talk about his training needs, although this happened intermittently (Senior manager B.2.2, Interview 26 October 2012). The respondent emphasised the fact that, "consultation covered all occupational levels and this is because all our people must receive training". From these results it can be inferred that Midvaal officials had been consulted on skills development issues, although such consultation apparently overlooked critical issues such as recognition of prior learning.

5.9.1.2 Training received

Senior manager B.2.1 confirmed that he had received training in various courses, including leadership and diversity management. He said Midvaal "places high value on these skills because they facilitate transformation". Equally, senior manager B.2.2 reported that he had received training in courses like "project management and diversity management". He said it was sometimes difficult for officials to attend all training courses due to the demanding nature of their jobs. The respondent added that training would produce better results if officials were given enough time and space to practice acquired knowledge and skills on the job (Senior manager B.2.2, Interview 26 October 2012). On the whole, this finding suggests that officials received support training in Midvaal, although the scope and intensity of such training differed from one department to another.

5.9.1.3 Customer service training

Senior manager B.2.1 admitted that she been trained in customer service on several occasions. She said "this training is linked to the *Batho Pele* principles, which put the customer (citizen) at the centre of service delivery". Every official was required to practise and follow the customer service guidelines associated with their job portfolio.

Senior manager B.2.2 reported that he had been coached on customer service and that this happened when he joined Midvaal Local Municipality. This respondent felt strongly that, “customer service training should cover both the supply-side and the demand-side. For example, community members must be taught how the municipal system worked and what services they can expect in the short term and long term” (Senior manager B.2.2 Interview, 26 October 2012). These results show that customer service training had been provided to senior managers in Midvaal although the degree of emphasis differed from one portfolio to another.

5.9.2 Theme 2: Alignment between skills development and performance management process in Midvaal

5.9.2.1 Appraisal and skills needs

Senior manager B.2.1 said, “Yes I have been appraised by my manager”. The respondent was quick to point out that appraisal was a mandatory process for all officials and project managers in Midvaal. She said appraisals were used to hold officials accountable for performance and results in their respective portfolios. Senior manager B.2.2 indicated that appraisal is “a core requirement” for all portfolios in the municipality, and that he had been appraised and given feedback on his performance.

Senior manager B.2.2 said feedback was given in a fair and impartial manner, which helped him to identify his strengths and weaknesses and to take corrective measures. This respondent thought that appraisal was a very useful tool in helping employees learn and grow in their jobs (Senior manager B.2.2 Interview, 26 October 2012). These findings imply that both respondents were positive about appraisal in Midvaal.

5.9.2.2 Perceptions on the quality of training received

The two respondents differed slightly on this issue. For example, Senior manager B.2.1 admitted that although training had been provided, the courses differed in terms of depth and quality. He said, “some courses were too general and below expectation, meaning that sometimes the training is too basic and not necessarily matching my educational background and qualifications”. This means that some training programmes did not match official’s core competencies. Senior manager B.2.2 felt that formal courses had to be diversified to accommodate the broad portfolios in the municipality. He said, “leadership training is not helping to transform the organisation at senior management level”. He felt strongly that more robust, transformation-focused training programmes were needed to facilitate change at the senior level of the organisation (Senior manager B.2.2, Interview 26 October 2012). While these results suggest that the quality of training was not satisfactory, it is pleasing to note that officials were eager to see greater improvement in both scope and quality of the skills programmes offered.

5.9.2.3 Potential challenges hindering skills capacity building

Senior managers B.2.2 and B.2.1 reported that slow transformation was one of the major barriers to skills development in Midvaal, explaining that, “without meaningful change at the top, it will be difficult for the municipality to achieve management development goals” (Senior manager B.2.1). She further stated that change at the top would set a good example for departments to follow. Senior manager B.2.2 indicated that, “the rising cost of training is a big problem as it means that training programmes have to be implemented gradually”. He said this prevented some employees from getting their training on time (Senior manager B.2.2, Interview, 26 October 2012). These results demonstrate that senior managers from Midvaal understood the constraints impeding skills formation.

5.9.2.4 Suggestions for improvement

Senior manager B.2.1 suggested that, “the training budget should be increased to cater for all staff, including capacity-building programmes for citizens in line with the municipality vision”. Similarly, Senior manager B.2.2 indicated that, “an increase in the training budget would improve access to development opportunities for all programme officials.” The respondent added that training should also include project managers because they were directly responsible for service delivery. He said service providers should be encouraged to, “transfer skills to officials and beneficiaries at grass root level in order to benefit our communities, especially vulnerable groups such as women, youth and the disabled” (Senior manager B.2.2, Interview, 26 October 2012). These findings suggest that officials were committed to improve service delivery in Midvaal.

5.10 CATEGORY B3: POLITICAL OFFICE BEARERS FROM MIDVAAL

There were six (6) respondents in the municipality of Midvaal. Their responses are presented below.

5.10.1 Theme 1: Attitude towards municipality as a deployee in Midvaal

5.10.1.1 Length of service

Political office bearer B3.1 indicated that he had “served for more than six years” and that this was because of “re-election”. He believed that his re-election was probably due to the mutual trust between him and his community. Political office bearer B3.2 indicated that he had served three years, while Political office bearer B3.3 had been in the municipality for five years, and Political office bearer B3.4 was the longest-serving with a

total of ten years in office. Respondent B3.5 had been in office for seven years and Political office bearer B3.6 was active for four years. These findings suggest that only a few Midvaal councillors were inexperienced compared with many who had exceeded five years in office (Interview, Political Office Bearers, 6 November 2012). Taken together, these findings show that Midvaal fared relatively well in retaining experienced ward councillors.

5.10.1.2 Willingness to continue serving as a Ward Councillor

Political office bearers B.3.1 and B3.2 and Respondents B.3.3 and B.3.4 indicated that they would continue to serve the municipality if given another chance. The reason for this was that they all loved their work and serving the people. However, Political office bearers B.3.5 and B.3.6 expressed concerns about the risky conditions under which councillors work. They said more improvements were needed to make ward councillors' work more attractive and rewarding (Political office bearers B.3.5 and B.3.6, Interview 6 November 2012). From these results it appears that ward councillors would continue to serve in their portfolios if their working conditions were improved.

5.10.2 Theme 2: Perspective on service delivery in Midvaal

5.10.2.1 Describe level of service delivery in your area

Nearly all six political office bearers (B.3.1 to B.3.6) concurred that there were challenges in service delivery. Respondent B.3.1 indicated that, "community communications are not well developed". He felt strongly this was one of the major causes of conflict between the community and ward councillors in other areas, which ultimately led to poor service delivery in some instances. Political office bearer B.3.4 alluded to the fact that, "not all ward councillors have been trained on service delivery systems and processes", and that this impacted negatively on service delivery.

Political office bearer B.3.5 complained about the unequal treatment of ward councillors in the Midvaal municipality. He attributed this to the fact that this was a highly contested local municipality between the ANC and the DA. Respondent B.3.6 stated that funding was not evenly allocated between formal and informal settlements in this area, causing some community members to lose patience with the municipality (Political office bearer B.3.6, Interview 6 November 2012). These results show that ward councillors experience different challenges in their constituencies, all of which hindered service delivery.

5.10.2.2 What could be done to improve service delivery in your area?

Political office bearers B.3.1 and B.3.2 suggested that a change management programme should be introduced to facilitate transformation at the higher level of the municipality; while Respondent B.3.3 wanted to see greater improvement in the implementation of skills plans for all occupational levels. Political office bearer B.3.4 suggested that, “there should be close co-operation between management, officials, unions and staff to enable effective planning and implementation of skills development programmes at all levels”. Respondent B.3.5 indicated that the welfare of ward councillors needed urgent attention because, “these people are key to service delivery”. Political office bearer B.3.6 suggested that training programmes should be prioritised to mitigate the rising cost of training (Political office bearer B.3.6, Interview 6 November 2012). These results were positive about change in skills capacity-building and the need for more work relations between management and councillors.

5.10.3 Theme 3: Perspective on skills capacity building in Midvaal

5.10.3.1 Municipal challenges in human, conceptual and technical skills

Political office bearer B.3.1 conceded that, “building and retaining technical and engineering skills is a major challenge in the municipality”. Similarly, Respondent B.3.2 acknowledged that not all ward councillors were fully equipped with human skills to deal with challenges in their respective constituencies. Political office bearers B.3.3 and B.3.4 felt that lack of capacity is a major challenge to service delivery. They were referring to funding and training capacity and felt that these areas needed significant improvement. For Respondent B.3.5, the biggest challenge was how to tackle the backlogs in transformation at the senior level of the organisation. He felt that leadership disagreements were commonplace in Midvaal and that this delayed service delivery on the ground (Political office bearer B.3.5, Interview 6 November 2012).

Political office bearer B3.6 was concerned about the rising demand for services in the context of shrinking budget allocations. He said this imbalance contributed to slow service delivery in the area, particularly in informal settlements which exhibited high levels of poverty and unemployment (Political office bearer B.3.6, Interview 6 November 2012). Based on these results it was generally accepted that Midvaal faces challenges in technical skills and human skills and the demand for services from the informal settlements. Throughout the interview, the researcher observed that there was a power relationship challenge because the meeting was also attended by one of the MMCs for transport and he tended to dominate the meeting. What was observed was that the mood was tense and some councillors were not willing to contribute, and this was exacerbated by lack of self-confidence and to some extent limited educational background.

5.10.3.2 Role of ward councillors in skills capacity-building

Political office bearer B.3.1 reported that he had been involved in human rights awareness campaigns and community safety training. He said this

was accomplished through partnerships between the community, police and human rights organisations in his area.

Political office bearers B.3.2 and B.3.3 concurred with this view, saying that this training was part of the municipality's capacity-building programme for local communities. Respondent B.3.4 reported that he had been involved in nutrition programmes, while Respondent B.3.6 had assisted with HIV/AIDS education in her ward (Political office bearer, B.3.6, Interview 6 November 2012). These results show that Midvaal ward councillors contributed to the implementation of skills capacity-building in Midvaal.

5.10.3.3 Problems encountered in skills capacity-building

Political office bearer B.3.1 indicated that time constraints prevented many ward councillors from attending training workshops. He said some of them "face "demanding work schedules due to the mounting pressure for better services in their areas". Respondent B.3.2 concurred with this respondent, saying that at times he had been forced to abandon training in order to focus on service delivery issues.

Political office bearers B.3.3, B.3.4, B.3.5 and B.3.6 revealed that, "some ward councillors are unable to cope with their work due to limited educational background and skills". It was emphasised that the municipality should cater for the unique learning and development needs of ward councillors, as opposed to offering generic training that did not help them to improve their performance (Political office bearer B.3.6, Interview 6 November 2012). It is pleasing to note that the majority of ward councillors in Midvaal were aware of the backlogs hindering skills development. The challenge in this regard was based on the respondent's skills educational level versus the level of training to be acquired.

5.11 CASE STUDY III: CATEGORY C1: EXECUTIVE MANAGERS FROM LESEDI

5.11.1 Theme 1: Current skills requirements

5.11.1.1 Skills development objectives

Two executive managers participated in this municipality. Executive manager C.1.1 reported that the goals of skills development in Lesedi included to, “improve performance at all levels; develop our human resources; improve organisational efficiency, and to prepare our people for the future”. Executive manager C.1.2 referred the researcher to the municipality’s strategic plan documents, which reflected the need for skills development to be treated as a strategic intervention in the organisation in order to support service delivery (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November 2012). These data inputs demonstrate clearly that Lesedi managers were aware of the strategic importance of skills development in enhancing service delivery. The researcher at first observed a lot of tension from the senior manager, who was refusing to be interviewed and opted to give the researcher their IDP documents and their strategic plan in response to the aforementioned question but through persuasion an appointment was set and interviews took place.

5.11.1.2 Current supply and demand of skills

Executive manager C.1.1 noted that, “our municipality is well equipped with human resource management skills and financial management skills; although there are frequent shortages in areas like project management, monitoring and evaluation, research and change management and risk management skills”.

In addition, Executive manager C.1.2 conceded that Lesedi experienced acute shortages in “project management skills, change management skills, technical skills, life skills (at community level) and risk management skills”. Both respondents recognised that it would take time to build these skills because most executive managers are redeployed across portfolios during their term of office (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November, 2012). From these results it seems that current supply was not adequate and therefore justified a need for building more skills to support service delivery.

5.11.2 Theme 2: Skills development process in Lesedi

5.11.2.1 Workplace skills plan

Both Executive manager C1.1 and C1.2 agreed that their municipality had workplace skills plans. Executive manager C1.1 said Lesedi used the (WSP) as, “a tool to plan and promote human resource development”. Executive manager C1.2 noted that although the workplace skills plans had been developed with contributions from all stakeholders, ordinary employees had benefited very little from these interventions. Given this, the respondent then concluded that in future management would have to accelerate implementation of the skills plans for non-managerial employees (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November, 2012). This indicates that the respondents were committed to improving skills capacity-building in Lesedi.

5.11.2.2 Perceptions on current skills capacity

Executive manager C1.1 said Lesedi management was “not pleased with the current level of skills as there are gaps in technical and engineering skills”. The respondent said this problem was exacerbated by service providers who did not transfer skills to officials and project staff. He said

continued reliance on contracted engineers undermined internal skills capacity-building efforts. Executive manager C1.2 stated that skills capacity was also, “a big challenge at consumer level due to lack of effective consumer education, which hampers community participation in service delivery”. She said in order for Lesedi municipality to work well with its customers (namely the local communities), it had to provide more education to the community, such as teaching people how to access government services using modern technology like the Internet and computers (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November, 2012). These findings showed that Lesedi adopted a holistic view in dealing with current supply and future demand of skills as they also catered for community capacity-building.

5.11.2.3 Critical skills required

Executive manager C1.1 stated that Lesedi was still struggling to attract project management and research skills, particularly in “monitoring and evaluation”. The respondent felt strongly that training programmes had to be diversified to mitigate these shortages. Executive manager C1.2 reported that “people management skills are in high demand” and that these are “crucial for programme officials and project teams as they are directly responsible for implementation of development interventions at community level” (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November 2012). In spite of this, both respondents were optimistic that Lesedi would succeed in building these skills as it was financially stable and self-sufficient.

5.11.2.4 Implementation of skills programmes

Executive manager C.1.1 reported that the implementation of skills programmes was preceded by “planning, where training needs for all levels were identified and documented”. He said managers at each level were required to “meet with their teams to discuss their skills needs in light

of appraisal feedback". However, the respondent also conceded that this was not happening in all areas. Executive manager C.1.2 concurred with the first respondent by saying that the Office of the Speaker "works with senior managers to facilitate execution of skills programmes", but also expressed a concern that, "unions are not co-operating and that this sets a bad example for the other local municipalities". The respondent further stated that owing to lack of training capacity, Lesedi had to outsource its formal training programmes to universities such as the University of the Witwatersrand and the University of Johannesburg (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November 2012). These results suggest that Lesedi followed a structured approach to skills development although this did not trickle down to lower level employees.

5.11.2.5 Relationship between organisational culture and human resource development

Both Executive managers C.1.1 and C.1.2 from Lesedi conceded that while a learning culture was visible at senior management level, there were still tensions in labour relations. This was due to the lack of co-operation from unions. Respondent C.1.2 added that, "ward councillors have not been fully integrated into the training system, meaning that they are still treated as outsiders and this alienates them". He said these tensions undermined skills capacity-building efforts within the municipality (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November 2012). In light of this, the respondent then concluded that working relations between management, ward councillors and trade unions needed considerable improvement in Lesedi. This finding suggests that organisational culture in Lesedi is not fully supportive of skills development.

5.11.2.6 Communication of skills programmes to staff

There were mixed feelings about training communications. For example, according to Eexecutive manager C.1.1, training communications had

been “sent to all staff at all occupational levels through general staff meetings, consultations and directives”. Executive manager C.1.2 felt strongly that training communications were, “more focused on senior management than ordinary employees”. As a result, there were weak perceptions about the benefits of training at the lower level of the municipality (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November 2012). Based on this logic, the respondent concluded that ordinary staff members did not have easy access to skills development opportunities in Lesedi. This finding implies that training communications were biased towards senior management.

5.11.2.7 Process followed to implement skills programmes

Both Executive managers C.1.1 and C.1.2 reported that skills development was a structured process that entailed consultations and skills audits. Executive manager C.1.1 in particular emphasised the fact that no employees were sent to training without proper consideration of their needs. He said it was the responsibility of each senior manager to discuss training and career issues with their subordinates before sending them to a training workshop. Executive manager C.1.2 stated that skills development was “a strategic issue that needs proper planning and execution and the involvement of all key stakeholders across departments”. It was the responsibility of all managers to ensure that training efforts are integrated with the municipality’s strategic plan (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November, 2012). Looking at these results, it seems that the planning of skills programmes in Lesedi was relatively strong compared to Midvaal.

5.11.2.8 Methods used to build skills capacity

According to Executive manager C.1.1, “both formal and informal methods were used to build skills in the municipality”. Informal methods included coaching and mentoring on the job and short courses, while formal training methods entailed sending officials to the University of the Witwatersrand

for further training in areas like financial management and project management. Executive manager C.1.2 concurred with this view, saying that, “most officials are interested in formal training and as a result some of them spend most of their time attending lectures at Wits”, which disrupted work flows in some areas (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November 2012). The respondent added that offering formal training to senior management was one of the Treasury requirements and therefore mandatory for the entire Sedibeng District Municipality. These results imply that Lesedi used both formal and informal methods to improve skills capacity.

5.11.2.9 Key role-players in the skills development process

There was confusion around this issue, as the two respondents held conflicting views on the roles and responsibilities for training. For example, executive manager C.1.1 indicated that the Speaker and management were responsible for skills development in the municipality, while Executive manager C.1.2 reported that all stakeholders were involved in this process, although unions had challenged management during the skills audit. The respondent stressed the fact that, “ward committees and ward councillors are also part of the skills development process as they are the facilitators between the municipality and the community” (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November 2012). From these results it appears that all the key stakeholders were involved including the ward committee members in skills capacity-building.

5.11.2.10 Financial resources required for supporting skills development

The two respondents from Lesedi, Executive manager C.1.1 and C.1.2, agreed that training resources were not a major challenge for Lesedi, given its smaller size and efficient management system. The only concern, according to Executive manager C.1.1, was that the training budget was

more focused on the development needs of senior managers or officials. Consequently, staff members at the lower level of the organisation did not benefit much from the training budget. Executive manager C.1.2 felt strongly that, “this skewed allocation of financial resources in training is not a good sign for the municipality as it reduces staff morale and the organisation’s ability to retain conceptual, technical and engineering skills” (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November 2012). This finding shows that Lesedi did not have serious budget constraints in training, which contrasts sharply with Emfuleni, which struggled to raise training funds due to the historic underdevelopment of the area.

5.11.3 Theme 3: Alignment between skills development and performance management process in Lesedi

5.11.3.1 Link between skills programmes and performance management

Executive managers C.1.1 and C.1.2 had different but complementary views on this question. For example, Executive manager C.1.1 said that the reason why performance management was linked to training was that it enabled management to, “identify strengths and weaknesses in each job category and use this information to determine the training needs of employees”. In short, feedback from performance management was used to plan skills development programmes.

By contrast, Executive manager C.1.2 reported that, “the alignment between these two processes (namely training and performance management) is not evenly spread across the departments. As a result, some officials are not given the opportunity to discuss their performance and training needs with their superiors or bosses” (Executive manager C.1.2, Interview 20 November 2012). These results show discrepancies in the alignment of training with performance management as evidenced by the divergent views of the respondents.

5.12 CATEGORY C2: SENIOR MANAGERS FROM LESEDI

Two (2) officials, from the Lesedi Local Municipality took part in the interview process and were interviewed in their respective offices. The answers derived from these respondents are presented below.

5.12.1 Theme 1: Current skills programmes in Lesedi

5.12.1.1 Consultation process

Senior manager C.2.1 confirmed that he had been consulted on skills development issues many times as part of the planning process. He summed up the matter as follows: “Yes we are consulted regularly but sometimes we cannot agree on training needs because unions see things differently, meaning that sometimes they do not accept the proposed training programmes for their members”. Echoing these sentiments, Senior manager C.2.2 reported that consultation was, “a fundamental requirement for all HRD interventions in the municipality, all stakeholders are expected to participate and contribute to this process”.

However, Senior manager C.2.2 was also concerned about the fact that unions sometimes “disagreed” on the types of courses needed by their members and that this made it difficult for management to finalise and schedule skills programmes. This antagonistic behaviour, the respondent added, undermined the municipality’s effort to, “build a learning culture, which is vital for building future skills” (Senior manager C.2.2, Interview 29 November 2012). To some degree, the findings confirm that the senior managers had been consulted on skills development issues, although this positive trend was negated by the lack of co-operation from unions.

5.12.1.2 Training received

Senior manager C2.1 said, “yes I have been trained in my department”. He gave an example about financial and project management courses that he was attending at the University of the Witwatersrand. These courses had been sponsored by the Lesedi municipality as part of its HRD programme and treasury regulations to improve skills profiles at senior management level. For senior manager C2.2, training was offered “but this was not enough” in the sense that it did not empower lower level employees with practical skills such as administrative skills and conflict management skills. This respondent was also concerned that Lesedi would lose valuable leadership skills due to the, “pending merger of this municipality with Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality” (Senior manager C.2.2, Interview 29 November 2012). These results confirm that training opportunities were extended to senior managers in Lesedi, although this was negated by the proposed merger which created uncertainty in the planning and implementation of skills development programmes.

5.12.1.3 Customer service training

Senior manager C.2.1 admitted that he had been trained on customer service, and commented on the training: “Here at work they teach us about the importance of training our communities with respect and providing the help or support that they need”. Senior manager C.2.2 emphasised that customer service training was not just confined to officials, but included customers (community members) who received training on computer literacy and internet basics, “so that they can be able to search for services and information in the municipality’s website on their own”. He said this was part of the municipality’s strategy to build skills capacity at all levels to ensure effective service delivery in all constituencies.

Respondent C.2.2 added that many community members enjoyed the computer course as it empowered them to interact with the municipality in order to have their service delivery concerns resolved (Senior manager C.2.2, Interview 29 November 2012). A striking feature of these findings is that customer service training in Lesedi covered both employees and customers.

5.12.2 Theme 2: Alignment between skills development and performance management process in Lesedi

5.12.2.1 Appraisal and performance management process

Senior manager C.2.1 reported that he had been appraised. His experience in appraisal was as follows: “Yes, sometimes we are invited to attend performance review meetings with our managers. It happens, but not as often as it should. I think most managers do not have time because they do a lot of different jobs”. Senior manager C.2.2 differed slightly, saying that appraisals were randomly done in the organisation, “with some people receiving full attention and support from their managers, while others did not”. According to this respondent, the frequency and intensity of appraisal differed from one department to another, depending on the “availability of your boss” (Senior manager C.2.2, Interview 29 November 2012). The results show that the officials had been appraised although the intensity and scope of such appraisals was not consistent across functions.

5.12.2.2 Perceptions on the quality of training received

Senior manager C.2.1 spoke passionately about the benefits of training in relation to his career, saying that, “training helps me to discover my strengths and weaknesses and to improve myself over time. I am happy with the courses offered by Wits so far because they involve direct interaction and learning”. Senior manager C.2.2 was somewhat sceptical

about the link between training and career planning, saying that, “everything depends on the willingness of your boss to discuss these issues with you”. The respondent was concerned about the lack of support from senior managers in some departments. He said lack of career guidance demotivated some officials and eventually forced them to look for better job opportunities in other sectors of the economy (Senior manager C.2.2, Interview 29 November 2012). These results show that the link between training and career planning was somewhat weak and that this contributed to staff turnover.

5.12.2.3 Potential challenges hindering skills capacity-building

Senior manager C.2.1 summarised the challenges as follows: “We need to change negative mind sets amongst staff. People want to be pushed all the time even if they are the ones to benefit from the skills programmes”. For Senior manager C.2.1, most people look at training in terms of financial gains and not as an opportunity to improve their skills levels and performance on the job. This respondent felt strongly that unless this negative thinking is addressed, many officials would not see the value of training in their lives.

Respondent C.2.2 stated that skills building efforts in Lesedi were also causing divisions between officials and ward councillors. He said this was manifest in the decision-making process, where the views of senior management featured strongly in decision-making (Senior manager C.2.2, Interview 29 November 2012). These results showed that Lesedi also experiences problems in skills development, as evidenced by a lack of motivation to learn by some officials.

5.12.2.4 Suggestions for improvement

Senior managers C.2.1 and C.2.2 both shared interesting ideas regarding what could be done to improve implementation of skills capacity-building

programmes in Lesedi. Senior manager C.2.1 said that, “We need to start looking at the interests of our people at the lower level of the organisation. In this municipality, there is a lot of community support by the council. Communities are assisted for short courses like admin and computer training in our offices”. Senior manager C.2.2 added that, “our councillors need more support through training as they deal directly with community needs and problems everyday” (Senior manager C.2.2, Interview 29 November 2012). This respondent was convinced that giving more support to ward councillors would give them the power and confidence to identify and resolve service delivery issues in their areas (Senior manager C.2.1 interview, 29 November 2012). Taken together, this suggests that Lesedi respondents wanted to see significant improvements in skills development and service delivery.

5.13 CATEGORY C3: POLITICAL OFFICE BEARERS FROM LESEDI

5.13.1 Theme 1: Attitude towards municipality as a deployee in Lesedi

There were six (6) respondents in the municipality of Lesedi. Their responses are presented below.

5.13.1.1 Length of service

Political office bearer C.3.1 reported that, “I am still new in my position, having served only one year as a ward councillor”. The respondent said he found it difficult to adjust due to lack of support training. Political office bearer C.3.2 said he had been in his position “for 2 years”, while Respondent C.3.3 said he had “worked there for 3 years”. Political office bearers C.3.4, C.3.5 and C.3.6 were also new in their positions, having “served for only 12 months” (Political office bearers, Interview 6 December 2012).

On the whole, the focus group discussions revealed that the majority of ward councillors in Lesedi were inexperienced. In addition, due to the lack of experience, many of them also had limited educational backgrounds, in that the majority had no matriculation certificate which explains in part why some of them were reluctant to participate in focus groups. The researcher observed an element of fear among them because they kept asking the researcher if she was not a journalist and this observation was justified by their silence in which the researcher had to reinvent different interview strategies to help them feel at ease during the interviews.

5.13.1.2 Willingness to continue serving as a Ward Councillor

Political office bearer C.3.1 said, “yes, I will continue serving provided I am re-elected”, while Respondent C.3.2 said he would return to office, “if working conditions for councillors are improved, including remuneration and equal treatment of ward councillors”. For Political office bearer C.3.3, the real issue was not the willingness to continue serving but rather the danger that ward councillors faced in their communities. He said, “nothing is being done to protect ward councillors against hostile community members”. He added that many councillors feared for their lives because the perception out there is that, “you hold the key to service delivery”.

Political office bearer C.3.4 said it would be difficult for Lesedi to keep councillors, “because their interests are not catered for”. Similarly, Respondent C.3.5 indicated that his job as ward councillor was risky and not worth continuing because of unsatisfactory working conditions. Political office bearer C.3.6 said she would continue serving, “if given a second chance to serve” (Political office bearer C.3.6, Interview 6 December 2012). These results show that the majority of ward councillors would remain in their positions if the municipality improved their conditions of service.

5.13.2 Theme 2: Perspectives on service delivery in Lesedi

5.13.2.1 Describe level of service delivery in your area

Political office bearer C.3.1 was very honest about the level of service delivery in his area. He said while there had been great achievements since 1994, “the pace of service delivery in informal settlements is below expectation, causing a huge disappointment to many poor people”. He said this is because some projects are not completed on time. Political office bearer C.3.2 was confident that even though things looked hopeless on the ground, Lesedi would succeed, “because it has a small population compared to Emfuleni and Midvaal”. Political office bearers C.3.3, C.3.4, C.3.5 and C.3.6 concurred with this view during the focus group discussion, saying that, “what is needed is a co-ordinated campaign to educate communities to be patient and tolerant. Communities need to understand the difference between short-term and long-term service delivery projects”. (Political office bearers C.3.5 and C.3.6, Interview 6 December 2012). This shows that office bearers in Lesedi were aware of the shortcomings in service delivery and that they were committed to work with the municipality to improve the situation.

5.13.2.2 What could be done to improve service delivery in your area?

Political office bearer C.3.1 suggested that programme officials, “should work closely with councillors to provide regular feedback to communities on service delivery”, while Respondent C.3.2 wanted to see “greater improvement in the working relationships between ward councillors and officials”. Respondent C.3.3 and Political office bearer C.3.4 expressed similar views, saying that positive, constructive and productive working relations were needed to expedite implementation of skills programmes in all areas. Political office bearer C.3.5 suggested that, “funding should be

spread evenly across the wards to ensure that all local communities benefit from skills development programmes". For Respondent C.3.6, "meaningful consultation and involvement of ward councillors in decision-making" would help to expedite implementation of skills building programmes" (Political office bearer C.3.6, Interview 6 December 2012). These findings suggest that Lesedi ward councillors were positive about skills capacity-building.

5.13.3 Theme 3: Perspective on skills capacity-building in Lesedi

5.13.3.1 Describe municipal challenges in human, conceptual and technical skills

Political office bearer C.3.1 was more concerned about the education and training needs of ward councillors, saying that they were "not fully capacitated" to do their jobs in the community. He said this was one of the reasons why "staff morale was low among ward councillors". Respondent C.3.2 said skills capacity-building efforts were undermined by the failure of officials to treat ward councillors as equals. Political office bearer C.3.3 said skills capacity-building "should start with ward councillors in all constituents because they are an important link between the municipality and the community". He said training was needed because some councillors were "semi-skilled, which made it difficult for them to perform their jobs well".

Respondent C.3.4 was concerned about what he called, "the big wall between ward councillors and officials" in Lesedi. He was referring to the lack of unity between management and ward councillors. Respondent C.3.5 said skills capacity-building efforts were hampered by a "lack of incentives for ward councillors", while Political office bearer C.3.6 felt that, "communication between ward councillors and senior management is poor and insufficient", and this was why some councillors were more informed than others on skills development opportunities and service delivery issues

(Political office bearer C.3.6, Interview 6 December 2012). These findings suggest that the majority of ward councillors were aware of the challenges impacting skills capacity-building in Lesedi.

5.13.3.2 Role played by ward councillors in skills capacity-building

Political office bearer C.3.1 said, “I have been involved in fire-fighting training workshops in my community”, while Respondent C.3.2 had helped with HIV/AIDS awareness education in his area. Respondent C.3.3 agreed with these respondents, saying that, “I have contributed to several community education projects, including human rights and sewing courses for women”. Similarly, Political office bearers C.3.4, C.3.5 and C.3.6 also confirmed that they had participated in these community capacity-building initiatives in their respective wards (Political Office Bearers C.3.4, C.3.5 and C.3.6, Interview 6 December 2012). To some degree, these findings demonstrate that ward councillors in Lesedi had contributed to capacity building projects in various ways.

5.13.3.3 Problems encountered in skills capacity-building

Political office bearer C.3.1 said that, “lack of co-operation was a major problem, especially between ward councillors, programme officials and service providers”. Officials spent more time with service providers than with ward councillors. Respondent C.3.2 noted that many councillors were not even aware of existing skills capacity-building programmes, suggesting community break-down in some areas of Lesedi. Political office bearer C.3.3 said Lesedi should first “improve the well-being of ward councillors”, as he believed this was paramount to effective capacity-building at community level.

Respondent C.3.4 felt that consultation with ward councillors was inadequate, while Political office bearer C.3.5 expressed a concern that the uneven allocation of resources, saying that some departments were

sufficiently resourced, while others had to wait for a long time before receiving such resources. Respondent C.3.6 echoed the view of the first Respondent C.3.1, saying that lack of co-operation between management and ward councillors would continue to, “undermine skills building efforts in Lesedi” (Political office bearers C.3.1 and C.3.6, Interview 6 December 2012). These results imply that lack of co-ordination and poor communication impacted on skills development in Lesedi.

5.14 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The summary of findings is based on the cross-case analysis method adopted by the study. The cross-tabulation is based on the three municipal categories, namely Executive managers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, Senior managers and Political office bearers. It represents a consolidated and the integrated view of the results from these categories.

To a large extent, the datasets from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi demonstrated that executive managers understood the municipality’s human resource development objectives which included building a capable and responsive municipal workforce, improving service delivery and client satisfaction, and contributing to local economic development. In attempting to achieve these objectives, Emfuleni was faced with limited funding challenges due to its historic underdevelopment.

Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi experienced common problems in supply and demand of leadership skills due to the five-year tenure system which required replacement of leaders after expiration of their office term. This policy not only undermined recruitment and succession planning efforts but also led to great financial loss following the departure of trained officials. These municipalities also experienced shortages in technical and management skills, for example, accounting, finance, engineering, project management and research skills.

The process that was followed to plan and implement skills building programmes was formal and almost identical in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, with a high degree of emphasis on stakeholder participation in the skills audit process. The planning process entailed preparation of workplace skills plans that covered all levels of the municipality. In all three cases, the skills plans tended to be generic and did not address the specific development needs of executive managers, senior managers, ward councillors and lower level employees.

In all three sub-cases, the key role-players in the skills development process included municipal executives, officials, programme personnel and unions; although Lesedi experienced problems due to lack of co-operation from unions. A common problem in all three cases was that the role of human resource managers and training managers in skills development building was not clearly spelt out. For example, in Emfuleni, the Executive had more influence on skills capacity-building issues; whereas in Midvaal and Lesedi, the Chief Whip had more influence in relation to these issues.

To some extent, such structural tensions obscured accountability for skills development in SDM. Ultimately, it was not easy for the study to determine who was responsible for human resource development in the whole organisation. Monitoring and evaluation of skills programmes was confirmed in all three local municipalities, although the M&E process was somewhat unstructured and intermittent. For example, there was a trend to rely on budgets and monitoring by unions as M&E tools in Emfuleni and Midvaal. Literature evidence suggests that training evaluation should cover reaction, learning, behaviour, application and impact on the organisation, staff and customers. Yet none of the respondents alluded to these issues.

Senior managers and officials from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi confirmed having received training in their departments, although some complained about the lack of consistency and frequency in the provision of such training. From their perspective, major issues which weakened skills development in SDM included the lack of opportunities for trainees to practice acquired knowledge and skills, and the weak link between training, performance management and career planning and compensation management. These shortcomings made it difficult for the three local municipalities to attract and retain technical, engineering and human skills.

The consolidation of the senior manager's inputs was indeed challenged by the following factors:

- communication processes were fragmented;
- difficulty in motivating employees to participate in skills capacity-building to promote the learning organisation culture;
- equity challenges to ensure that there is uniform training resources allocation within the departments or sections and among the three local municipalities;
- concerns in relation to the negative relationship of councillors with the permanent senior official;
- lack of appreciation by the executive managers that the skills capacity-building offered to every employee is for the benefit of the entire organisation;
- the frequent redeployment of MMCs destabilises the municipality's operations;
- lack of monitoring by senior staff to ensure that corrective measures are attended to within a reasonable time-frame; and

- senior managers' contributions overlap with the detailed inputs from the executive managers and the political office bearers.

Accordingly, ward councillors from these three local municipalities reported that they had been trained in crowd control, diversity management, computer courses, IDP processes, conflict resolution and meeting management. They were, however, concerned that such training was not enough, given the growing concerns about slow and often unsatisfactory service delivery in their respective areas. They were also unhappy with the disparities in pay and treatment, which reportedly discouraged some ward councillors from serving their communities**.**

With regard to tenure seniority, some ward councillors had been with the municipality for more than seven years; while others were relatively new having spent only two to three years with the municipality. Others expressed a strong desire to continue serving the municipality provided working conditions for councillors were improved significantly. These included further training, better compensation, prompt resolution of their problems, effective communication, and equal treatment of councillors across the municipality.

There were difficulties in implementing skills programmes and these varied across the three local municipalities. For example, in Emfuleni the main problem was lack of financial resources, while Midvaal struggled to use training to achieve employment equity targets, particularly at senior management levels. Lesedi's skills programmes were biased towards managers and professionals, with little training for unskilled employees. In addition, disagreements with unions over training needs were also reported in Lesedi.

Regarding progress in skills capacity-building, the results were mixed. On the positive side, it was encouraging to see that all three local municipalities had formed strategic partnerships with local universities to drive skills development in their constituencies. In addition, the use of skills plans was also a good indication as it demonstrated the municipality's desire to comply with national training policies and legislation and to instil a culture of human resource development in line with the National Skills Development Strategy (2011-2015).

Regarding negative aspects, the visible misalignment between recruitment, induction and talent retention strategies weakened skills building efforts in SDM's three local municipalities. All three local municipalities also promoted skills capacity-building at community level, which to some extent confirms SDM's commitment to community capacity-building. For example, Emfuleni provided training on crowd control, and sowing, while Midvaal focused on HIV/AIDS, fire-fighting and human rights education. Lesedi's skills interventions addressed computer literacy, community safety, domestic violence, baking and HIV/AIDS training.

Despite these gains, Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi all experienced challenges in attracting, building and retaining high level technical skills to ensure effective service delivery. There is by all accounts a high level of competition from private companies, relatively low municipal salaries, limited programme management efforts, weak co-ordination mechanisms, and limited training budgets, which all make it difficult for SDM's three local municipalities to build a sustainable skills base. To a greater extent, this impacted negatively on the provision of basic services in the area.

Having presented and explained the data on skills capacity-building in SDM's three local municipalities, it is now appropriate to consider the

implications of these results in more detail. This is achieved through in-depth analysis and is undertaken in chapter six.

CHAPTER SIX

SKILLS CAPACITY EFFECTS IN SEDIBENG DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

A fundamental consideration in any investigation is the organisation, synthesis and interpretation of the data to establish its meaning and implications for the research phenomenon. This is precisely what chapter six does. Since this is a multiple case study, cross-case analysis is undertaken to enable in-depth analysis of the findings. Individual analysis of the three local municipalities was not emphasised as the aim of the analysis was to discover similarities, dissimilarities and gaps in the practice of skills development across Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi Local Municipalities.

The analysis follows an integrated approach encompassing data inputs, literature evidence and the researcher's perspective. This integrated approach will ensure that the analysis conforms to the principles of validity and reliability as mentioned in chapter four. As highlighted in chapter five, the analysis in all three cases (Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi) is based on the following themes: current skills requirements (supply); skills development process; and alignment between skills capacity-building and performance management. The analysis is the application of the descriptive method, which is explained in more detail below.

6.1.1 Descriptive and explanatory research

Application of description to data analysis was appropriate in this research because, according to Babbie (2014), descriptive and explanatory research answer questions of what, where, when, how, and why. For example, in this research, it was imperative to understand what skills programmes are offered in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi; how these programmes are implemented; and why it is crucial to align performance management with skills development. The value of description and explanation in this research is that they provided the basis for cross-case analysis between Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi to identify similarities and variations in the implementation of skills development interventions. This approach is consistent with the qualitative research paradigm, which states that data analysis should identify patterns, themes and dissimilarities between sub-cases (Cresswell 1998; Babbie 2014; Leedy 2006).

Description is one of the key purposes of case study design (Bassey, 1999; Berg, 2006; Diezmann, 2002; and Yin, 1994). Given the role of description in the various forms of case studies, it is understandable why description and case study are often inextricably linked. Explanatory case studies are characterised by the 'how' and 'why' research questions because they investigate the relationship that are proposed between components of a theory (Babbie, 2014; Diezmann, 2002).

In addition to cross-case analysis, visuals such as tables and graphs were used to summarise data concerning skills development practices in Sedibeng District Municipality's three local municipalities. This was helpful in revealing not only similarities but also the main emerging themes and theories. From the analysis, emerging themes are identified which are covered in more detailed in sub-section 6.4. Below is a justification of the cross-case analysis method applied in this chapter.

6.2 CROSS-CASE ANALYSIS

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), the benefit of cross-case analysis is that it helps the researcher to deepen understanding, and strengthens theory through examination of similarities and differences across cases. With reference to Ragin (1997) and Ekstein (2002), the application of the cross-case analysis allows the researcher to link cases from one or more settings and this provided the researcher the opportunity to learn from different cases and gathered critical evidence of the datasets from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. These were tabled simultaneously and contrasted to establish their overall implications for skills capacity-building in the entire SDM. Based on this logic, the findings are presented and analysed below.

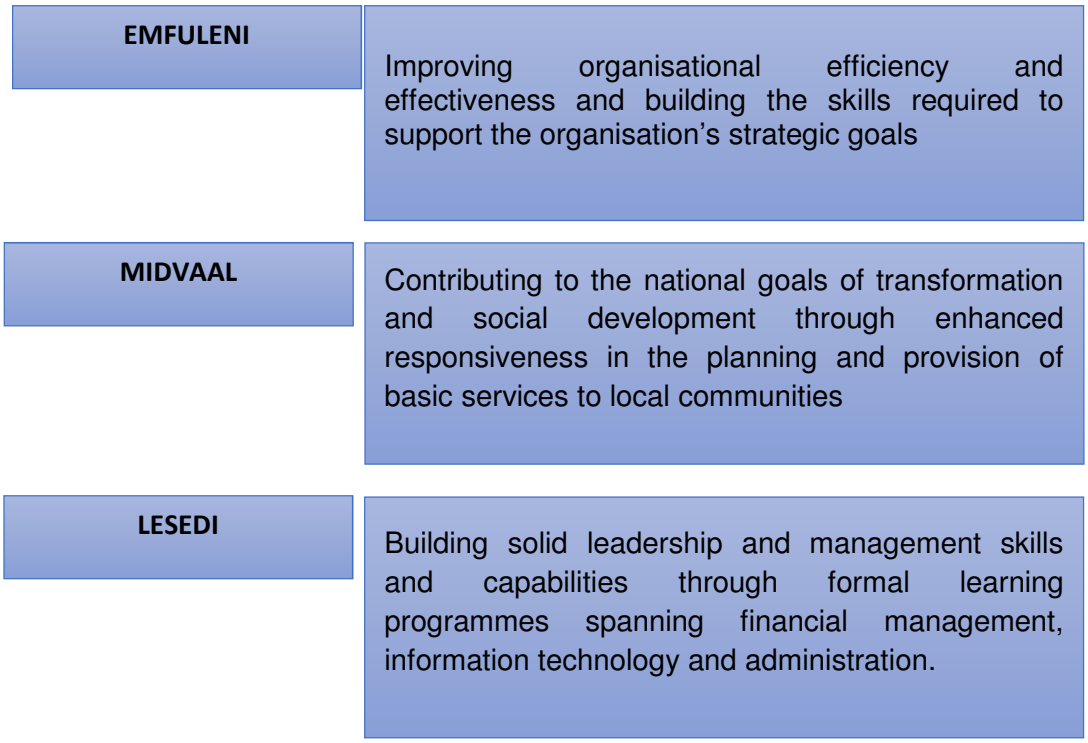
6.3 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Theme 1: Current skills requirements

6.3.1 Skills development objectives

Executive managers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi were able to articulate the objectives set by their organisations to build more skills. According to some of the respondents, these objectives were based on the objectives of their organisations. The data presented by executive managers in all three local municipalities of SDM are given in Figure 16 below and exemplify the training objectives for each municipality.

Figure 15: Skills development objectives



Source: Own (2012)

Although not exactly the same, the skills development objectives of Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi (Figure 15) are somewhat complementary and reflect SDM's vision on service delivery and social development. In all three cases, there was a strong realisation that organisational efficiency and effectiveness depends on the availability of skills capacity. That being said, it is equally important to highlight that Midvaal's commitment to human resource development was undermined by the perceived slow progress in transforming the organisation. This suggests that even though skills capacity-building efforts have been undertaken in this area since 1994, little has been achieved in this regard.

Lesedi's approach to HRD is generally biased towards leadership and management development and tends to focus heavily on financial management competencies, with little emphasis on the other skills needs of the organisation. While this does not satisfy all the lower level

employees, however, evidence from HRD literature from Erasmus (2006) and De Cieri (2003) suggest that leadership and management skills have received greater attention over the years due to increased pressure for enhanced delivery and outcomes.

These authors see HRD strategies as a process of changing an organisation, stakeholders outside it, groups inside it and people employed by it through strategic learning, so that they possess the required knowledge and skills. For example, Melchor (2008) states that public managers are expected to improve the performance of their organisations focusing on efficiency, effectiveness and propriety which were not the priorities fifty years ago. Therefore, to be able to respond to a changing environment the public sector has to transform its structures, processes, procedures, and above all, its culture. In the main, the findings on skills development objectives further reinforces the view advanced by the literature (Garavan, McGuire and O'Donnell, 2004) that an organisational level analysis understands HRD to be a specialised set of developmental activities or interventions that focus on supporting the achievement of organisational objectives.

Organisation-level discourse places an expectation on HRD to deliver a set of specific, tailor-made solutions to satisfy organisational or system needs. Recently, human resource development scholars and practitioners have reported the usefulness and effectiveness of an HRD framework to address emerging problems and issues to bring about meaningful and lasting change for the public good at multiple levels. However, basic expectations inherent in traditional HRD theory and practice that pursue organisational interests often do not fit numerous projects and programmes designed for community development, nation-building, or international development (Kim, 2012).

Considering these findings, from the researcher's point of view it appears that even though SDM's three local municipalities face formidable challenges in both resources and the capacity required to drive skills development, there is a growing realisation that unless specific human resource development objectives are set to guide this process, very little will be achieved in the end.

Theme 2: Skills development processes

6.3.2 Supply and demand of skills

During the interview sessions, Executive managers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi Local Municipalities were asked to describe the status quo with regard to skills capacity-building efforts in their organisations. The aim of this question was to determine skills levels across the three local municipalities, given the growing concerns about the slow pace of service delivery in the area. The responses from executive managers are presented per municipality below.

6.3.2.1 Supply and demand of skills in Emfuleni Local Municipality

At the time of conducting this investigation, efforts were underway to align skills capacity-building programmes with SAQA policies and regulations to ensure that employees received high quality training that makes them competent and productive in the workplace, in line with the spirit of effective service delivery. There was a clear commitment from top management to work with unions to identify and prioritise skills development needs, with unions also playing a monitoring role. This was accepted by management as unions are legally mandated under the Employment Equity Act of 1998 to monitor and report on employers' efforts to achieve employment equity through affirmative action and skills development in the workplace.

Attempts to formalise training were evident, as exemplified by the partnership between Emfuleni and the Vaal University of Technology; which is aimed at providing a wide range of short courses to staff as part of the organisation's commitment to improving provision of basic services at grassroots level. While commitment to skills development was evident at corporate level, lack of organisational communication tended to impede learning on the ground, as some councillors and lower level employees were not aware of available skills programmes.

6.3.2.2 Supply and demand of skills in Lesedi Local Municipality

In Lesedi, the investigation confirmed the promotion of skills development, with a key focus on formalising the learning and development process, as is the case in Emfuleni Local Municipality. Regarding educational background and skills profile of the workforce, the results were mixed, ranging from unskilled, semi-skilled, skilled, and professional employees.

Furthermore, there appears to be a willingness and commitment on the part of senior management to promote learning and development in the area. This was illustrated by the fact that many employees spent most of their time at the University of the Witwatersrand studying, a tendency which sparked concerns about "some people staying away from work in order to pursue their studies".

While Emfuleni relied on resources from the Chief Whip's office and corporate services to promote skills development, Lesedi had a training budget for each financial year, resulting in a constant supply of training services to staff in the area. The disparities in budgetary resources were attributed to the unique social and political history of these local municipalities, with Emfuleni facing harsh socio-economic conditions due to its long-standing legacy of underdevelopment.

However, a key constraint that blocked skills capacity-building at community level was the severe social dynamics faced by the municipality, including extreme poverty, unemployment, a high rate of pregnancy and school drop-outs, and a lack of service delivery. It was acknowledged that these challenges deprived local communities of the opportunity to participate in capacity-building.

6.3.2.3 Supply and demand of skills in Midvaal Local Municipality

As is the case with Emfuleni and Lesedi municipalities, Midvaal is involved in capacity-building at both the organisational and community levels. The strength of Midvaal's skills capacity programme is that it also tackles critical issues such HIV/AIDS and fosters collaboration between the municipality and various community-based institutions such as churches and schools to raise awareness about HIV/AIDS. Aligned to this is the social mobilisation and communication programme which also targets local communities. Successes in this regard are summarised below.

Volunteers have been trained on HIV/AIDS information and counselling and are involved in various HIV/AIDS programmes such as campaigns, voluntary testing and counselling, care and support of the infected and affected across the district. In addition, campaigns were conducted especially around the HIV/AIDS awareness period (November–December, 2011) which is World Aids Day. Door-to-door campaigns where volunteers visited households was a success in mobilising and creating awareness about HIV/AIDS in local communities. In addition there was training for women on baking skills at various community-based institutions like churches and schools. The aim was to raise public awareness and induce behavioural change and openness.

The findings from the executive managers regarding the supply and demand of skills are consistent with evidence from the literature (Eramus, *et al*., 2008; Casio, 2008; Coetzee, 2007) which stress the need for

employees and communities to be taught about economic development within their areas. Tedsmanson (2003) supports the views of Erasmus and Coetzee and states that to restore capacity in the people is to be responsible for the future; this fundamental argument is referring to restoring what communities already acquired from skills development.

Drawing on these data sets, it is clear that all three SDM local municipalities were committed to promoting skills capacity-building even at community level. Provision of courses such as community safety, fire-fighting, HIV/AIDS and sewing demonstrates that SDM is serious about community capacity-building. Through this approach to social change, ordinary people, particularly the most deprived, should be offered the real basics for empowerment. Community development is also an organisational goal.

6.3.3 Current skills capacity-building programmes

The data from the executive managers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi confirmed that there were skills programmes in place. Though the skills offered differed across the three local municipalities, Table 17 below provides evidence of the skills offered in SDM's three local municipalities, as articulated by the respondents.

Table 17: Skills Programmes Offered

Local municipality	Management courses	Staff / Community development courses
Emfuleni	Project Management People Management Public Management Financial Management	Administrative skills Computer literacy Conflict Management Communication Report writing
Midvaal	Financial planning Project management Secretarial courses	HIV and Aids Management Fire-fighting Human rights Sewing
Lesedi	Financial Management Customer Relations Management Risk Management Project Management	Computer literacy Customer service First Aid

Source: Own (2012)

The finding on the development of computer skills is consistent with the literature. For example, Ivancevich, Lorenzi, Skinner and Crosby (1997) argue that computer abilities are important since computers can substantially increase a manager's productivity. In minutes, computers can perform tasks in financial analysis, human resources planning and other areas that otherwise take hours or even days to complete. Computers enable managers to access crucial information quickly, and to generate scenario planning activities cost-effectively. Customised software enables managers to process and manipulate data to produce refined information that supports decision-making.

Managers with computer skills have a conceptual understanding of computers and, in particular, know how to use the computer and software

to perform many aspects of their jobs. Training serves a dual role that helps the manager meet human resource requirements, and is also a matter of mutual interest between the employee and the managers. Van Dyk, Nel and van Zyl Leodolef (2001) believe that this interface in employee relations is necessary to produce their full potential in the best interests of both the organisation and the employees.

The respondents from Emfuleni indicated that they been given training in administrative courses, although they were not happy with the extent of training received. There was a strong feeling that not much had been done to provide training across all levels of the organisation. Some ward councillors from this area added that they also spend more time in workshops than the actual training process provides for them.

A review of the National Skills Development Strategy in relation to the case study municipalities was imperative as this document set the goals and targets that must be achieved by employers in all sectors of the economy. The NSDS III (2011) places significant emphasis on relevance, quality and sustainability of skills training programmes to ensure that they impact positively on poverty reduction and inequality. In all three cases (Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi), skills audits were conducted to identify skills needs at all levels. This process was hampered by lack of data integrity and document management.

There are important lessons in relation to controlling or co-ordinating which includes continuous collection of feedback, monitoring and adjustment of systems, processes and structures accordingly. These include use of controls, policies and procedures, performance management processes, and measures to avoid risk. It is worth pointing out that performance management is crucial to the above concerns presented by the respondents.

6.3.4 Skills shortages

Based on the inputs from the executive managers of Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, it was commonly agreed that all three local municipalities did not have adequate research and engineering skills, which are critical in the design and delivery of infrastructure projects such as bridges, access roads and public facilities such as clinics and libraries. Consequently, the three municipalities were forced to rely heavily on external consultants and contractors. This delayed delivery of some projects, resulting in some communities expressing their dissatisfaction. In principle, participants were not against the use of external consultants, but the concern was that this practice added little value in terms of skills transfer as some of these service providers were unable to empower officials and programme personnel with new knowledge and skills. This perpetuated the gap in technical skills.

The shortage of skills is not unique to Emfuleni, Lesedi and Midvaal. The literature (Grobler, 2006; Coetzee, 2007; Botha, *et al*., 2013) confirm that continued skills backlogs pose a serious challenge to economic growth, job creation and service delivery.

6.3.5 Workplace Skills Plans

Collectively, executive managers and senior managers from Emfuleni reported that their organisation had skills plans but no copies of these were shown to the researcher during the interview. Emfuleni representatives mentioned that although the organisation had a skills plan, funding was still a major challenge to implement the work skills plan in their organisation. In addition, Emfuleni had also not claimed skills grants from the LGSeta. Midvaal had a skills plan but implementation of the management development component was undermined by lack of transformation at the top. With a small population size and a reasonable

budget, Lesedi was in a better position to implement its skills plan. The only concern here was that senior managers had more training opportunities than ordinary staff members and ward councillors.

The adoption of workplace skills plans (WSPs) as tools to facilitate multi-skilling of the workforce further demonstrated SDM's desire and commitment to build the capacity and competencies required to drive service delivery in the area, although some participants seemed unaware of these planning instruments due to lack of information. This also implies that the municipality was determined to meet compliance requirements in terms of the Skills Development Act (1998) and the Skills Development Levies Act (1999) which places a duty on employers to produce and use skills plans to promote human resource development. Similarly, Maclean and Ordonez (2007) substantiates this and argues that as the world of work changes, education and skills development should change accordingly.

A workplace skills plan (WSP) outlines the planned training and development interventions of an organisation. It is best practice for every organisation, regardless of its size, to determine the skills gaps within the organisation and decide how it will address these gaps through training (Fasset, 2009). Payment of mandatory skills grants by the sector education and training authorities (SETAs) depends on proper and timely compilation and submission of skills plans and annual training reports (ATRs). As mentioned in chapter five, Emfuleni and Lesedi could not claim skills grants as they had not submitted their skills plans to the local government SETA.

A workplace skills plan is a product of the skills audit process. Conducting a skills needs analysis involves using the list of competencies of the employee filling that particular position. Any variances should be recorded and noted as skills gaps. The analysis of these variances in competency

gives rise to a list of possible training interventions for potential training beneficiaries (Coetzee, 2013).

According to Meyer and Orpen (2007), a skills audit is needed to establish what skills gaps exist and how they can be addressed. A variety of techniques are used to achieve this goal. These include document reviews, interviews and basic questionnaires. Coetzee, *et al.*, (2007) emphasizes that a skills plan should be well researched and reflect the skills needs of the organisation before being documented in the WSP.

6.3.6 Skills priorities per municipality

As discussed in chapter one, the research assessed skills capacity by focusing on human, technical, conceptual skills and basic functional literacy skills. The data from the executive managers in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi regarding these skills is presented in Table 18 below.

Table 18: Skills priorities

Municipality	Skills needs per category			
	Human Skills	Technical Skills	Conceptual Skills	Functional literacy
Emfuleni	Communication skills Problem-solving skills	Engineering skills Policy analysis Monitoring and evaluation skills	Strategic planning and risk management skills Research skills	Basic adult education and life skills Computer literacy
Midvaal	Transformation and programme management skills	Engineering and project management	Strategic management Research skills	General life skills for local communities

Lesedi	Teamwork Conflict management	Engineering and project management Financial management	Risk management and integrated development planning basics Research skills	Customer service Computer literacy Administrative skills

Source: Own (2012)

Considering Table 18 above, it appears that all three local municipalities experienced difficulties in attracting and building high level skills. These included technical skills and project management skills. This finding corroborates the concerns raised in the literature (Coetzee, 2007; Botha, 2013; Grobler, 2006) that South African organisations struggle to attract and retain high level skills. These findings suggest that the shortage of high level skills affects not only private sector organisations but also local municipalities.

6.3.7 Progress in skills capacity-building

Data from executive managers of Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi demonstrated that despite the obstacles faced by SDM, significant gains have been realised in capacity-building, although this varied across the municipality. Table 19 below provides examples of the successes achieved in each of the three local municipalities in skills capacity building.

Table 19: Progress in skills development

Municipality	Progress in skills development
Emfuleni	• Training and Capacity Building Unit in the office of the Chief Whip • A dedicated employment equity department to drive transformation • Short courses for councillors • Qualifications/certificates received by councillors include project management , Municipal Governance and Petitions outreach programme for councillors • Transformation workshops covering change management, diversity, transformation and employment equity, offered to 13 managers, 34 junior staff and 35 union representatives.
Midvaal	• Career guidance and support for staff • Study assistance scheme from the Council • Workplace Skills Plan (WSP) and Annual Training Report (ATR) submitted to LGSeta part of compliance
Lesedi	• Management and professional staff attended Leadership Development and financial management programmes at Wits University • In-house training programmes covering basic computer literacy training and IDP processes

Source: Interviews, and document analysis (2012)

Table 19 suggests that some progress had been made in promoting skills formation in SDM's three local municipalities, although the intensity and quality of the services provided varied significantly across these municipalities, mainly due to the glaring economic inequalities that prevail between them. These results are analysed per municipality below.

6.3.7.1 Emfuleni Local Municipality

Based on inputs from the respondents and insights from document analysis, it was found that Emfuleni had established the Training and Capacity Building Unit in the Chief Whip's office and the training unit under Corporate Services. Together, these units assessed the qualifications of councillors. Following this skills assessment, councillors were offered training accordingly through different accredited institutions such as Vaal Technikons. Through these institutions, the following qualifications were obtained by councillors: Certificate in Municipal Governance; Petitions outreach programme for councillors. At the time of conducting the study, councillors were undergoing training in computer literacy with Wilberforce College.

In addition to capacitating its councillors, Emfuleni had also established an Employment Equity Department to achieve the legislative mandate, including a programme to refurbish a municipal building to cater for people with disabilities currently running at 30 per cent. This was supplemented with transformation workshops covering change management, diversity, transformation, employment equity, skills development and recruitment that has been offered to 13 managers, 34 junior staff and 35 union representatives. In addition, employment equity (EE) policy has been adopted and approved.

Notwithstanding these gains, challenges were also reported. These include apparent conflicting and confusing roles and functions of Community Development Workers (CDW) which led to ongoing conflicts with Ward Councillors and Ward Committees, resulting in slow service delivery in some areas, some projects that collapsed and resulting unhappiness among community members. Other impediments include poor planning during the financial year (2009/10); delays in the supply chain management process; limited technical staff in relation to the

number of projects to be implemented; and financial constraints leading to frequent budget adjustments (Emfuleni Annual Report, 2009/2010).

6.3.7.2 Midvaal Local Municipality

It was clear from the document analysis process that Midvaal, “strives to maintain good work relations with recognised unions (Midvaal Performance Report, 2012). This cordial relationship provided much-needed social capital for the municipality to pursue skills development initiatives for management and employees, including local communities. The Midvaal Skills Development Programme is aimed at capacitating all its employees and providing career guidance and support.

Furthermore, Midvaal Local Municipality annually submits a Workplace Skills Plan (WSP) and Midvaal Annual Training Report (ATR) as required by the Skills Development Act to the LGSETA and Midvaal received the mandatory grants to further skills development initiatives within the Midvaal Council Performance Report (2012). The annual training budget is managed by Human Resources and 100 per cent of the annual training budget for 2009/2010 was spent. In addition, Midvaal has a five-year EE plan which commenced in 2009. The progress made on EEP is reported to Council on a quarterly basis (Midvaal Municipality Performance Report II, 2012). This information is negated by the views of the respondents who indicated that lack of progress in transformation in this area was a major barrier to skills capacity-building.

6.3.7.3 Lesedi Local Municipality

As was the case with Emfuleni and Midvaal, Lesedi management was also committed to building skills capacity to enhance organisational efficiency and effectiveness. While the two sister municipalities offered generic skills programmes, Lesedi aimed to increase leadership and management capacity, although training efforts at the lower levels of the organisation

were relatively weak compared to Emfuleni which had made significant gains in this area, especially with regard to capacitation of ward councillors. As indicated in chapter five, human resource development programmes in Lesedi tended to focus more on the needs of middle and upper level personnel, with little emphasis on the learning and development needs of lower level employees. No reasons were given for these disparities during the interviews.

Evidence from the literature (Grobler, *et al.,* 2006; Erasmus, *et al.,* 2008; Ivancevich, 1995) suggests that training should encompass all occupational levels and categories in the organisation. This means that training interventions should be evenly distributed so that they meet the needs of staff and management respectively. Armstrong (2005) and Robey and Sales (1994) support this view when they say that learning organisations must have development programmes that cater for all members of the organisation. Similarly, DeVanna and Tichy (1993) confirm that one of the important qualities for a learning organisation to have is a strong adaptive organisational culture and a culture of learning that encourages openness, equality, continuous improvement and change. Therefore, to keep learning, managers and leaders can build a shared vision, help the employees and see the whole system functioning.

6.3.8 Opportunities and constraints in relation to skills development

In light of the above discussion and the findings presented earlier in chapter five, it is possible to identify some of the promising opportunities and constraints that apparently impacted skills capacity-building efforts in SDM's three local municipalities. Table 20 below provides a summary of these issues.

Table 20: Opportunities and constraints

Local municipality	Opportunities	Constraints
Emfuleni	Close co-operation between management and unions in planning skills development programmes Leadership commitment and support	Staff turnover, especially at the executive level – which tended to undermine talent retention efforts Limited communication efforts in skills development programmes
Midvaal	Relatively strong financial base which bolsters skills development Skills grants provided additional funding to support skills capacity building programmes	Weak monitoring and co-ordination systems, which undermined accountability Inability to manage employment equity programmes
Lesedi	Leadership commitment and support Strong emphasis on the use of both formal and informal methods Partnerships with accredited institutions of higher learning	Lack of stability due to proposed reintegration of Lesedi to Ekurhuleni Some officials spending more time in their studies, leading to absenteeism, which affected service delivery

Source: Own (2012)

As Table 20 suggests, there were opportunities and constraints in SDM's skills development programmes. On the positive side, strong leadership commitment to skills formation was evident across the three local municipalities. Inputs from the municipal executive, political officer bearers and senior managers showed that the leadership supported skills development efforts in these organisations. In Lesedi, it was the Chief Whip's and the Speaker's office that contributed strongly to the interviews.

On the negative side, severe constraints were also prevalent in these municipalities. For example, while Emfuleni's skills capacity-building efforts were challenged by high staff turnover, Midvaal's skills programme suffered from weak co-ordination, which resulted in duplication and fragmentation of training efforts. Likewise, Lesedi had its own unique problems. Key among these was the pending integration of the municipality to Ekurhuleni, which is likely to cause institutional instability due to possible departure of experienced personnel, particularly at the senior management level.

Taken together, these issues highlight the need for proper planning and co-ordination of skills development programmes in the case study. Current co-ordination efforts appear to be weak and fragmented across the three local municipalities. Blanchard and Thacker (2007) and Rees and French (2010) emphasise the fact that training efforts should be streamlined and aligned with other human resource management programmes to ensure consistency and uniformity in the provision of these services. To some extent, these findings also highlight gaps in programme management in the three local municipalities of SDM.

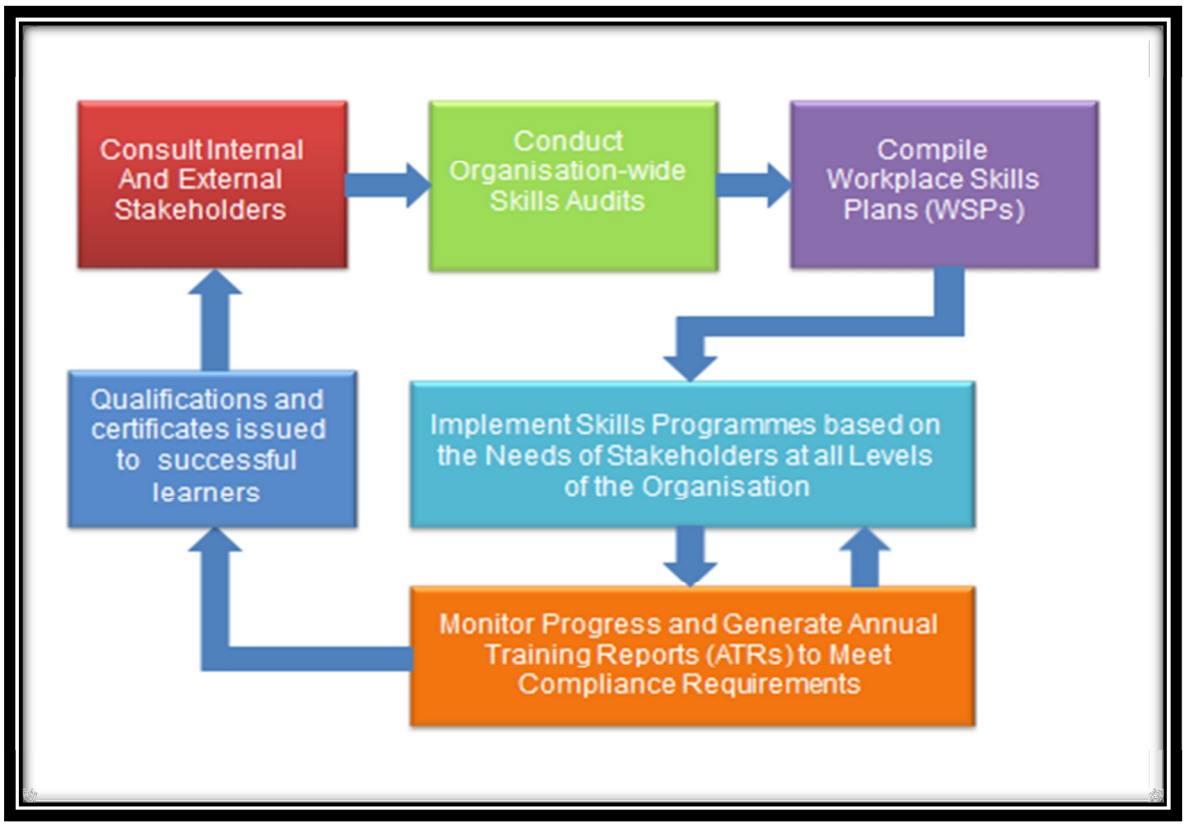
6.3.9 Implementation process

Generally, the term implementation implies a call to action. It means translating plans into results. In this context, respondents from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi were asked to explain how skills capacity-building programmes are implemented in their organisations. First, all the respondents confirmed that skills programmes had been implemented in their organisations, although the approaches and methods used varied considerably across the three organisations. Varying training methods is highly recommended in the literature. For example, Mabey and Salaman (2003) and Coetzee (2007) argue that using different training methods makes sense as people learn in different ways.

It needs to be mentioned from the onset that although the interventions adopted differ slightly from one local municipality to another, these are complementary as they all contribute to the skills development process in the area. Possible reasons for the varied approaches can be attributed to, firstly, the unique financial positions and demographic characteristics of SDM's three local municipalities. It was evident from the interviews with respondents that each local municipality faced multiple service delivery issues which merited improvisation and creativity. Consequently, each municipality would use training approaches that matched its capabilities.

Based on participants' inputs and suggestions, it is possible to provide a graphical illustration of the steps followed to promote skills development in these three areas. This is presented in Figure 16 below.

Figure 16: Skills capacity building process



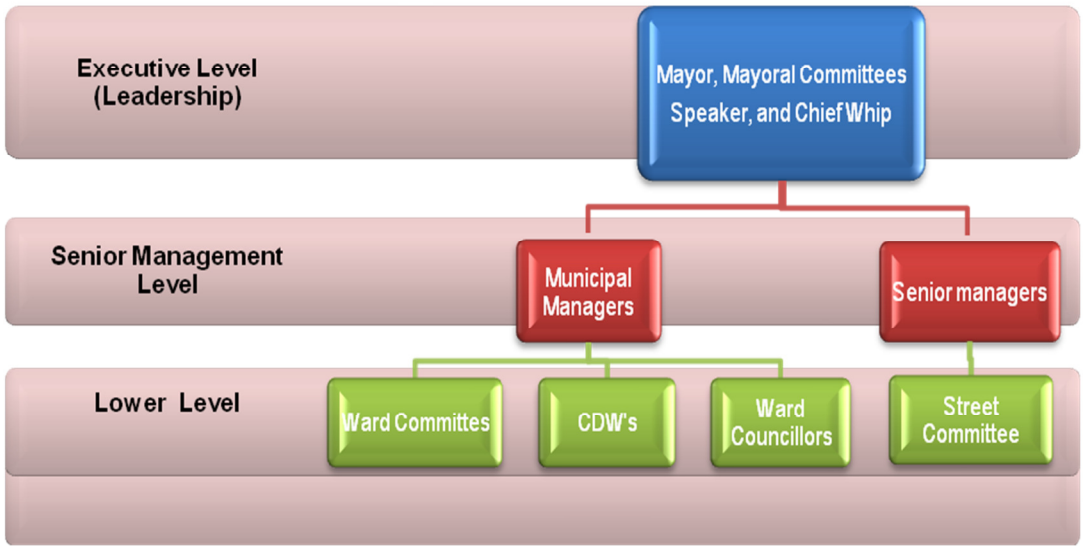
Source: Own (2012)

Figure 16 above suggests that the process followed to implement skills building programmes comprises six steps: Skills needs assessment through stakeholder's consultations; developing workplace skills; implementation of skills programmes; monitoring progress and generating ATRs; and issuing of certificates and qualifications to successful learners. While this process illustrates a formal approach to planning and delivery of training, variations existed between the three local municipalities in terms of procedure. For example, while Lesedi also used on-the-job training methods and external service providers, the other two municipalities tended to rely more on formal training provided by accredited institutions. Similarly, Midvaal preferred formal training methods, with many of their staff receiving training institutions such as the Vaal University of Technology and the University of Johannesburg.

6.3.9.1 Consult internal and external stakeholders

In this context, consultation means the process by which municipalities reach out to their internal and external stakeholders with a view to elicit their views and inputs regarding service provision, including skills development which is the subject of this investigation. Interestingly, the data elicited through qualitative interviews and focus groups from the three local municipalities revealed that stakeholder consultation is an organisation-wide process and that it extends to local communities. Figure 17 below depicts the levels of consultation in the skills development programme.

Figure 17: Levels of Consultation



Source: Own, (2012)

In Figure 17 above, the consultation process for skills development spanned the entire organisation, including the community level. Once again it is important to stress that this comprehensive consultation process resonates with the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 which requires local governments to work with communities to ensure effective planning and delivery of services.

More importantly, stakeholder consultation is also consistent with the South African Constitution of 1996, which seeks to deepen democracy through on-going stakeholder consultation in all three spheres of government: National, Provincial and Local. Therefore it may be safe to argue that skills capacity-building seems to enjoy high stakeholder consultation and participation in the Sedibeng District Municipality.

Venter, Van Der Waldt, Van Niekerk and Jonker (2002) corroborates the above findings when they say that municipalities have a duty to involve local citizens in municipal affairs and to build local democracy. For Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, this means that citizens should be involved

in planning and policy making and as partners in development processes, including skills development. By way of extension, this also promotes governance principles of transparency, participation and accountability, as discussed in chapter two.

6.3.9.2 Conduct organisation-wide skills audits

The data from executive managers of Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi revealed that the skills audit process was standardised across the Sedibeng District Municipality. It was confirmed that skills audits had been conducted in all three cases and that this exercise was part of the skills capacity planning process. As reported in chapter five, the scope and intensity of the skills planning process varied across the three municipalities. For example, executive managers from Emfuleni spoke passionately about the "highly consultative and inclusive nature of the skills planning process" in their municipality. Accordingly, Leatherman (1990) and Botha *et al*. (2013) outline training needs assessments and identify specific problems within an organisation by using appropriate methods of gathering information such as surveys, interviews, focus groups and observations, allowing them to determine which of the problems requires a training solution, and then uses the information to design training interventions that address the original problem.

In all three cases, none of the respondents alluded to recognition of prior learning (RPL) as one of the major tools normally used to help employees identify their competencies and future training needs. In addition, none of the three local municipalities had registered skills development facilitators to help with planning of skills development programmes. Only Midvaal had successfully applied for a skills grant while Emfuleni had not done so, which exerted pressure on their training budget. These gaps suggest that skills audits in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi only partially met the requirements of the Skills Development Act (1998) and the Skills Development Levies Act (1999).

6.3.9.3 Compile workplace skills plans (WSPs)

The data inputs from the executive managers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi indicated that the information from the skills audits was used to compile workplace skills plans (WSPs) spanning all occupational categories and levels of the organisation. The skills plans showed the current skills needs for each level in terms of race, gender and occupation. According to executive managers from Midvaal, this was consistent with the requirements of the Skills Development Act (1998) and helped their municipality to claim skills levies after training. The responsibility for compiling workplace skills plans was entrusted to Skills Development Facilitators and Human Resource Managers. In Emfuleni, this responsibility was delegated to the Corporate Services Unit, and not the skills development facilitator.

Although skills plans had been generated, it appears that this was done to meet compliance requirements. In other words, workplace skills plans were not seen as strategic tools for accelerating human resource development. The literature emphasises the role of training plans and strategies in helping the organisation to build current and future skills to meets its business needs.

6.3.9.4 Implement skills programmes based on the needs of stakeholders at all levels of the organisation

Members of the executive and senior management from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi agreed that skills programmes are designed to address the development needs of all stakeholders in their municipalities. It was reported that training permeates all levels, including ward councillors, ward committees, municipal managers, and staff officials. However, some participants from Lesedi and Midvaal did not share this sentiment. In their view, skills development tended to benefit professional staff and middle

level managers. There was a strong feeling that very little had been done to use training as a vehicle for driving transformation and employment equity at the senior levels of the Midvaal local municipality, resulting in under-representation of designated groups at the executive level.

In terms of the Employment Equity Act (1998) and as discussed in chapter one, the Skills Development Act (1998) and the Employment Equity Act of (1998) were promulgated amid high expectations that equity would be introduced in the workplace (Human, 1996; Thomas, 2002). However, the debate around the implementation of employment equity is ongoing.

The aim is to facilitate entry, promotion and promotion of previously disadvantaged groups (Africans, Coloureds, Indians, women and people living with disability). In all three cases (Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi), Employment Equity Plans had been developed with clear targets but these were undermined by lack of implementation. With regard to Emfuleni, gender equality had been promoted through the appointment of women to the executive positions; for example the Mayor of this Municipality is a woman.

In Lesedi, there were concerns that Employment Equity Plans did not adequately reflect the lower levels of the organisation. There was a high degree of emphasis on the training of middle and senior managers. In Midvaal the situation was very different. A review of the Integrated Development Plan (2013–2018) here revealed that efforts were being made to formalise human resource development between 2013 and 2016. The IDP also noted the slow progress in achieving employment equity targets, particularly at the senior management level and that implementation of skills development programmes had not progressed as desired. Emfuleni set a good example by elevating the status of women leadership at the highest level of the organisation. Of the five ward councillors who participated in the study, four were women. The only

challenge was that these community leaders had not received adequate induction to be able to perform their jobs well.

Several best practices that should be implemented by organisations to address the EE barriers were identified and include training and development to address skills shortages, transparent communication with regard to EE issues, and promoting management commitment to EE as a business strategy (Claassen, 2005; Human, 1996; Human, 2005; Thomas, 2003; Twala, 2004; Werner, 2007). More recently, this definition has been broadened to include Chinese South Africans, people living with HIV/AIDS and the youth (Botha, *et al*., 2013; Coetzee, 2007).

6.3.9.5 Monitor progress and generate annual training reports

Although there was no agreement on the precise methods and tools used to monitor the implementation of skills programmes across the three local municipalities, executive managers conceded that monitoring efforts were being undertaken to demonstrate commitment to accountability and transparency as training involved substantial expenditure. Examples of techniques used included on-site monitoring and reporting by union officials (Emfuleni); Annual Training Reports (Midvaal); and study allowances which were linked to academic performance (Lesedi). In addition, Lesedi also used performance management as a tool to identify performance gaps and training needs. In this way, performance management became a monitoring tool.

The finding that Lesedi had attempted to align skills training with performance management is consistent with the point raised by Bird and Cassell (2013), that linking training to performance management issues ensures that employees' behaviour and career aspirations are properly aligned with the mission and vision of the organisation. As reported earlier, some of the respondents from Emfuleni and Midvaal complained about the

missing link between appraisals, rewards and training. Others indicated that there is a lack of clarity on who is responsible for training.

6.3.9.6 Qualifications and certificates are issued to successful learners

The sixth and final step in the skills development process involves certification of successful learners. Executive managers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi confirmed that candidates were issued with the relevant certificates or degrees after completing their training. For example, some candidates are said to have received qualifications from institutions such as Midvaal University of Technology, University of the North West, University of Johannesburg and University of the Witwatersrand.

However, interviews with some of the ward councillors from Emfuleni revealed inconsistencies in the awarding of certificates. For example, it was reported that some candidates received computer literacy certificates even though they had only done basic secretarial courses without exposure to computer technology.

Although learners were given certificates after training, some learners expressed concerns about the fact that some of these certificates were generic and not job-related. As a result, the knowledge and skills acquired from the training could not help some of the respondents to improve their performance back on the job. This problem was reported by ward councillors in Midvaal. In contrast, the majority of employees who attended training in Midvaal and Lesedi were senior managers and professional staff, who received formal qualifications such as diplomas and degrees instead of the short courses, which were commonplace in Emfuleni.

6.3.10 Stakeholder roles and responsibilities

Assessing the implementation of skills capacity-building programmes in Sedibeng would not be complete without considering the roles and responsibilities of key role-players involved in this process. Based on executive managers' and ward councillors' inputs, it emerged that a wide variety of stakeholders are involved in the implementation of skills development programmes across the Sedibeng District Municipality. According to Young (2013), stakeholders include customers, sponsors, the customer user group, employees and suppliers. Success is directly attributed to the effective management of the project stakeholders as part of the project process. Figure 18 below depicts the key stakeholders involved in the planning and implementation of skills programmes in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

Figure 18: Key stakeholders in skills building

Source: Own (2012)

It is apparent from Figure 18 above that a wide variety of internal and external stakeholders are involved in the promotion and practice of skills development in SDM's three local municipalities. These include municipal leadership, management, staff, ward councillors and local communities, to mention just a few. This inclusive approach is consistent with the constitutional principle of stakeholder consultation and participation. Drawing on participants' inputs, it was possible to identify the roles and responsibilities of the various stakeholders in skills development. These are summarised in Table 21 below.

Table 21: Stakeholder role and responsibilities

Municipality	Roles and Responsibilities
Mayor	Co-ordination / oversight
Chief Whip	Governance issues
Mayoral Committees	Political, management and administrative support
Speaker	Governance Direct the council activities
Councillor	Political and administrative support
Management	Design and development of skills programmes
Trade Unions	Identification of training needs and monitoring of skills programmes
Employees	Identification of skills needs and participation in skills programmes
LG-Seta	Training support and Oversight and skills grants
Ward Committees	Community Mobilisation
Community Development Workers	Facilitation role for the province
Community	Participation in prioritization of capacity building needs

Source: Own (2012)

Table 21 above shows that all stakeholders are assigned to specific roles and are responsibilities in the skills development process. For example, while the Mayor's office is expected to co-ordinate skills building efforts, the Chief Whip's office together with the Speaker are responsible for governance; while the councillors are expected to make sure that the concerns related to the wards they serve in, and are chairpersons of, are represented in Council.

Apart from the articulation of residents' needs in council, Ward Councillors are responsible for giving ward residents a progress report, explaining the decisions of the council in committing resources, and assessing whether the municipalities' programmes and plans are having their intended impact. They also have a responsibility to assess whether services are being delivered fairly, effectively and in a sustainable way; and determining whether capital projects are being undertaken in accordance with the IDP plan. In accordance with the community expectations they must be in close contact with their constituencies to ensure that Council is informed of all issues on the ground and conveying important information from council to residents**.**

Councillors therefore serve as the interface between the citizens they represent and the municipal officials who design and implement development polices. The councillor's job is not only focusing on the expression of community needs, but also to act as an overseer and ensure the municipality implements policies to address the needs of citizens.

The mayoral committee members decide what policies and proposals are put before Council to be discussed and subsequently enacted as municipal policy. Section 33 of the Municipal Structures Act provides that a municipality may establish committees detailing the specific powers of such committees and the need for delegation and commitment of resources to such committees. Section 79 Committees are established by

the Council and its members for the efficient and effective performance of the Council. On the other hand, employees and trade unions are expected to assist with the identification of skills needs at all levels of the organisation; while the LGSeta provides oversight and skills grants; and community development workers help with facilitation of skills capacity-building at community level. These findings are consisted with HRD literature (Mabey and Salaman, 2003; Grobler, 2006; Bird and Cassell, 2013), which emphasises the need for a multi-stakeholder approach to skills capacity-building.

Like municipal employees, local communities are also expected to participate and contribute to the skills development revolution so that they can be capacitated to drive service delivery at grassroots level. The varied nature of stakeholder roles and responsibilities demonstrates that skills development is a collective effort in SDM and to some extent demonstrates the municipality's commitment to upholding the principles of transparency, accountability and stakeholder empowerment.

While the inclusion of these stakeholders in Table 20 above is commendable in SDM, best practice in the Education, Training and Development Industry in South Africa, according to Meyer and Orpen (2012) dictates that skills development planning should include the stakeholders depicted in Figure 19 below.

Figure 19: Mandatory stakeholders in skills development

Source: Meyer and Orpen (2012)

Comparison of the information in Figure 19 above and the data from Sedibeng shows that not all the key stakeholders were included in skills development planning in the case study. For example, there was no mention of the training committee, human resource manager, human resource development manager and employment equity manager as part of the skills development team. Based on this finding, it can be inferred that skills capacity-building was not fully integrated in the case study organisation.

The next paragraph deals with monitoring and evaluation of skills programmes in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

6.3.11 Monitoring and evaluation of skills programmes

As reported in chapter five, Executive managers from the three local municipalities of SDM were asked to explain if skills development programmes were being monitored and evaluated. As discussed in chapter two (Literature Review), M&E plays a central role in skills development as it holds stakeholders accountable for performance and results.

In all three cases (Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi), it was agreed that skills programmes were being monitored, even though the scope, intensity and methods used to achieve this varied across the three organisations. Table 22 below gives a summary of the training evaluation methods in these organisations.

Table 22: Strategies to monitor skills programmes

Municipality	Monitoring strategies
Emfuleni	• Oversight by management • Monitoring of workplace skills plans by unions
Midvaal	• Reporting i.e. interim and annual reports • Workplace Skills plans (WPS) • Annual training report submitted to LGSeta • Employment Equity plans
Lesedi	• Financial incentives for Ward Committees • Feedback reports from training providers • Penalties- i.e. recovery of tuition fees from unsuccessful candidates

Source: Own (2012)

Table 22 suggests that the three municipalities used different monitoring methods. In the case of Emfuleni, it was established that management and unions worked together to monitor the implementation of skills

programmes. Recognised trade unions were allowed to make suggestions and recommendations regarding suitable courses for their members, while top management provided oversight functions.

By contrast, Midvaal relied on formal reporting which involved data gathering and compilation of quarterly and annual reports. This information was also reflected in the organisation's 2010/2011 Integrated Development Plan. According to some of the respondents from this municipality, reporting was seen as part of compliance, although there was no indication as to whether such reports are shared with employees at the end of each quarter or not.

In Lesedi, senior management representatives who participated in the interviews reported that although formal learning opportunities had been granted to all staff, renewal of the study grants was subject to individual performance, and each employee was expected to report on his performance on the study programme at the University of the Witwatersrand regularly. Unsatisfactory performance would result in withdrawal of the study grants and affected employees would be required to repay the money from their salaries. This motivated employees to work hard.

From the researcher's perspective, the above monitoring strategies would generally be considered acceptable. However, from a training point of view, they would fall short of meeting the required standards of aligning the training with the municipal mandates and goals.

Dunn (2008) defines monitoring as the policy-analytic procedure used to produce information about the causes and consequences of policies. Monitoring helps to describe relationships between policy programme operations and their outcomes, and is the primary source of knowledge

about the effectiveness of policy implementation. Monitoring is therefore primarily concerned with establishing factual premises about public policy.

A programme, on the other hand, is a collection of inter-dependent projects, managed in a co-ordinated manner that together will provide the desired outcomes (Young, 2013). Programme management is the utilisation of project management and its inherent processes to manage a collection of closely inter-dependent projects in a controlled and structured manner to achieve some clearly defined objectives identified as strategic needs (Young, 2013). As shown in chapter five, the findings revealed gaps in monitoring and evaluation and programme management skills, as evidenced by weak co-ordination across Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

The above definition highlights three important aspects of M&E in development programmes. First, M&E is an analytical tool for understanding the workings of any given policy programme, including skills development interventions. Second, if planned and carried out well, M&E can produce objective facts about programme performance. Third, M&E can tell whether the results from the programme or project meet client needs and expectations or not, and provide indications as to the strengths and weaknesses of the programme. On this basis, M&E provides an ideal opportunity for management and programme personnel to learn how their own actions impact on programme operations and outcomes. Evidence from the literature (Noe, Gerhart and Wright, 2010; Eramus, *et al.,* 2006) suggests that training evaluation requires a formal approach that is properly co-ordinated across functions. In support of this view, Snell and Bohlander (2007) identifies five criteria which may be used to evaluate training.

Deducing from the data inputs of executive managers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, it can be inferred that, although skills development programmes were being monitored, such efforts were however not

consistent with the best training evaluation practices suggested by leading scholars such as Kirkpatrick (1994), Bohlander (2007), Grobler (2006), Meyer and Orpen (2012) and Noe, *et al.,* (2010). As discussed in chapter two, Kirkpatrick's training evaluation model consists of five levels which can be applied to enhance training evaluation in local government environments. These are summarised in Table 23 below.

Table 23: Levels of training evaluation

Level	Implications	Measuring Tools
Level 1: Reaction	How do learners feel about the training programme? Are they satisfied with teaching and learning methods and materials?	Formative assessments e.g. tests, attitude surveys, course evaluation forms, interviews, etc.
Level 2: Learning	Did learning take place? Did learners grasp key concepts and principles? Are there any gaps in learning?	Oral and written tests, individual and group assignments, etc.
Level 3: Behaviour	Do learners show or exhibit positive attitudes and behaviours as a result of the training? Is the training producing the attitudes and behaviours required to improve service delivery and customer satisfaction?	Demonstrations, Observations, Testimonials
Level 4: Application/Practice	Are learners able to effectively apply acquired knowledge and skills back	Work-based projects e.g. Portfolio of evidence; simulations,

	on the job? Are they given enough time, tools, support and guidance to test their skills in real life situations?	demonstrations etc.
Level 5: Impact of the training on the organisation and its stakeholders?	Has the training helped to improve organisational efficiency and effectiveness? Has the training contributed positively to employees' career goals and expectations?	Return on investments, quality audits, reduction/increase in defects; customer surveys, cost-benefit analysis, etc.

Source: Adapted from Grobler (2006) and Noe, *et al.,* (2010)

6.3.11.1 Reaction

This is the first stage of the training evaluation process and measures the candidate's opinions about the training programme. It seeks to answer critical questions such as: How do learners feel about the training? Are they happy with the quality of the content, learning activities, assessments, teaching method and reference materials? To obtain this information, trainers normally utilise a questionnaire or attitude survey which learners complete individually after the training.

6.3.11.2 Learning

This stage is learner-focused and aims to measure the change in knowledge, skills and attitudes as a result of the learner attending the training programme. The most important aspects covered in this stage are: Has learning occurred as planned? Did learners understand or grasp key concepts and principles associated with the training programme? Did they have the opportunity to participate and contribute to the learning process?

6.3.11.3 Behaviour

This stage measures the actual on-the-job changes in behaviour which result from attending the training programme (Snell and Bohlander, 2007). In terms of SAQA assessment policy and guidelines, learners need to be given the opportunity to practice what they have learnt in real work situations. This is called experiential learning. Depending on the situation, key tools used to measure application of knowledge and skills on the job include demonstrations, observations and testimonials.

6.3.11.4 Impact of the training on the organisation and its stakeholders

This stage focuses on how the training intervention has impacted on the organisation (Kirkpatrick, 1994; Snell and Bohlander, 2007). The focus is on determining the real value of the training on key organisational activities such as new product innovations, service delivery processes, customer service and trainees' ability to meet or exceed performance standards. None of SDM's three local municipalities had details of the four training evaluation stages detailed above, which made it difficult to ascertain whether training evaluation records were being kept in these organisations. To some extent this finding also indicates that training evaluation systems were relatively weak and fragmented across the municipality. In part, this finding also confirms the point made earlier that skills capacity-building efforts varied significantly across SDM's three local municipalities.

From the above it is evident that training evaluation needs to be structured and be comprehensive to produce the desired results and to merit further expenditure in the organisation. The immediate impression gained from the interviews was that training evaluation appears to be an administrative and compliance issue, as illustrated by the comments that M&E is used to

"demonstrate commitment, accountability and transparency" and that "annual training reports (ATRs) are needed to claim skills grants after training" (Interview with the Midvaal executive manager; document analysis from the Midvaal Annual Report, 2012).

Goldstein and Ford (2002) identifies three types of outcomes that should be produced by education and training. These are Cognitive outcomes, which include verbal knowledge, knowledge organisation and cognitive/thinking strategies; Skills-based outcomes which involve compiling, operationalising, composing, doing, acting and application; and affective outcomes, which includes attitudinal, motivational, disposition, self-efficacy and goal setting aspects. Kirkpatrick (1994) identifies three levels of learning that need to be met by training: knowledge, skill and attitude. The levels of learning are explained in Table 24 below.

Table 24: Levels of learning

Learning level	Practical implications
Knowledge level	This level of learning may be achieved through managing, conditioning, one-way communication, or similar approaches. It should not be confused with application of the knowledge.
Skill level	This level of learning requires adaptation and practice. Being able to convert intentions and knowledge into practical knowledge requires learning in the "action" context and will utilise role playing, skills practices, video type feedback plus practice and other action-oriented methods of learning.
Attitude level	At this level of learning we are dealing with perceptions, past experiences, and values. Learning which produces change in attitude is much harder to achieve – it will require more sophisticated methods such as confrontation learning, laboratory training, or sensory experiencing.

Source: Kirkpatrick (1994)

From the data it appears that very little had been done to prepare the work environment for experiential learning. The work environment must have all the crucial elements needed to facilitate learning transfer, such as the right set of tools and equipment, a learning culture, space, time and feedback systems. Evidence from Grobler, *et al.,* (2006), Erasmus, *et al*. (2008) and Ivancevich (1995) further suggests that training should encompass all occupational levels and categories in the organisation. This means that training interventions should be fairly distributed so that these meet the needs of staff and management respectively. The view of the researcher is that the results also helped to reveal the extent to which the training has met the employee's learning and career needs and expectations; including the gaps that need to be fixed to improve training delivery in future.

6.3.12 Role of organisational culture in skills development

The respondents reacted differently to this issue. With regard to Emfuleni, it appears that a learning culture is starting to emerge, as illustrated by the close co-operation between management and employees in the identification of skills priorities. For Midvaal, the learning culture was weakened by political tensions and lack of transformation at the senior level of the organisation. In Lesedi, the learning culture appears to support senior management development, with less emphasis on lower level staff.

Organisational culture is the pattern of values, norms, beliefs, attitudes and assumptions that may not have been articulated but shape the ways in which people behave and things get done (Armstrong, 1999). Accordingly, a learning culture is one that promotes learning because it is recognised by top management, line managers and employees generally as an essential organisational process to which they are committed and in which they engage continuously. As part of governance principles of

accountability, Holiday (2013) emphasises that governance is a precondition for meeting the challenge of enhancing education, improving health care, reducing poverty, maintaining one's culture, protecting the environment and promoting sustainable financial economic development.

Reynolds (2004) further describes a learning culture as a 'growth medium' that will encourage employees to commit to a range of positive discretionary behaviours, including learning and which has the following characteristics: empowerment not supervision; self-managed learning not instruction; and long-term capacity-building not short-term fixes. It will encourage discretionary learning, which takes place when individuals actively seek to acquire the knowledge and skills that promote organisational objectives.

Judging by these findings, it seems that the learning culture in all three local municipalities needs urgent attention, especially with regard to linking training, staff appraisals, rewards and career management. There needs to be a clear understanding of why these processes must go together; what benefits they bring for staff and the organisation; and why people should participate and contribute to these activities.

6.3.13 Communication strategy

Executive managers and senior managers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi confirmed that skills development programmes were being communicated to all stakeholders in their respective organisations; although the methods used differed from one municipality to another. Table 25 below lists the methods that were used by the three local municipalities of SDM.

Table 25 suggests that various methods were used to inform stakeholders about skills development opportunities and in all cases, meetings were the

most commonly used communication method. The use of skills planning workshops, particularly in Emfuleni deserves credit as it encouraged dialogue and information-sharing between management, unions, staff and ward councillors. This not only ensured receptivity but also the legitimacy of skills development programmes in the municipality.

Table 25: Communication methods

Municipality	Communication methods
Emfuleni	• Awareness campaigns • Planning sessions • Meetings and Workshops
Midvaal	• Meetings, Briefings • Directives and Memos
Lesedi	• Directives and Announcements • Appraisal feedback sessions • Notice boards

Source: Own (2012)

Similarly, the use of appraisal feedback meetings as the platform for identifying, discussing and agreeing employees' training needs and career goals holds promise for the SDM. Swanepoel *(*2008) emphasises the role of performance management as a communication and skills development tool.

As Craythorne (1993) correctly points out, communication is an integral part of organisational activity and has both formal and informal aspects. There is a need to ensure that information flows vertically and horizontally along adequate lines of communication. This observation underlines the importance of rendering effective communication in skills development programmes.

The importance of communication in organisations is also stressed by Robins, Judge, Odendaal and Roodt (2009) argue that communication serves four functions in a group or organisation, namely control, motivation, emotional expression and information. According to Hellriegel and Slocum (1998), communication skills are the ability to send and receive information, thoughts, feelings and attitudes. The ten managerial roles are based on the assumption that managers have at least basic written, oral, and non-verbal (body language) communication skills.

6.3.14 Resources allocation

Executive managers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi agreed that their organisations provided resources to support skills development, although the amounts given differed across the three municipalities. The data inputs in Table 26 below indicate resource allocation for training in each municipality.

Table 26: Resource allocation

Municipality	Sources of funds
Emfuleni	Contributions from Chief Whip's office and 15% from the human resource budget
Midvaal	Skills development budget plus skills grants from local government sector education and training authority
Lesedi	15% Annual budget for skills development obtained from the human resource budget

Source: Own (2012)

Table 26 shows that the three local municipalities used different but complementary funding arrangements to support skills development. The differences in resource allocation are understandable, given the formidable challenges that some of these municipalities face in terms of

financial resources. According to Mora-Imas and Rist (2009), M&E can be used to help make resource allocation decisions; to help re-think the causes of problems; to identify emerging problems; to support decision-making on competing or best alternatives; to support public sector reforms and innovation; and to build consensus on the causes of a problem and how to respond. The researcher also observed the uneven allocation of training resources within the sections and also among the three local municipalities, which was a major concern for Emfuleni Local Municipality.

6.3.15 Community capacity-building interventions

One of the critical issues that the study sought to determine was whether skills capacity-building is taking place at a community level in SDM's three local municipalities. The data from executive managers and political office bearers suggests that although somewhat sporadic in nature, community capacity-building activities are being undertaken in the three local municipalities of SDM. A summary of some of the community-based skills development programmes provided by the three local municipalities of SDM is given in Table 27 below.

Table 27: Community capacity building

Municipality	Skills capacity programmes
Emfuleni	• Educational Programmes to educate communities about IDP and their role in service delivery • Public speaking skills and organising for the ward committee members
Midvaal	• Fire fighting • Human rights awareness programme • HIV&AIDS Programme • Sewing courses
Lesedi	• Basic Computer literacy programme offered by

	Municipal Speaker's office • Baking • HIV/AIDS awareness campaigns involving door-to-door messages and households participation in HIV/AIDS and TB testing activities

Source: Own (2012)

From the examples in Table 27, it can be seen that each of the three local municipalities of SDM had offered limited education and training opportunities to their communities based on their unique needs. For example, while Emfuleni educated local communities on the workings of the IDP process to fast-track prioritisation of service delivery needs, Midvaal concentrated on fire-fighting, human rights and HIV/AIDS education. The high emphasis on fire-fighting training in Midvaal local Municipality is appropriate given the fact that there are more informal settlements in the area than the other two local municipalities. Lesedi provided computer literacy and the justification for this was that, "some services require that citizens (customers) use computer technology to gain access". In addition, as was the case with Midvaal, Lesedi also offered education and training on HIV/AIDS to local communities to raise awareness about their safety and risky behaviours.

The literature suggests that HRD interventions can be used to drive capacity-building at community level (Kim, 2012) and that the driving forces behind this notion include national cultural influences and HRD needs, human-social capital enhancement in the economy, and the notion of learning communities (Garavan, McGuire and O'Donnell, 2004). Kim (2012) points out that problems or issues in a specific community that shares demographic, economic, social, or other characteristics have been addressed using HRD interventions. In this context, local governments or NGOs are often key change agents that initiate changes for community development where HRD can be used as a useful tool for community development. Case studies have shown that HRD can be used as a method in community development processes that serve to strengthen the community, including leadership development, career development, literacy training, community building (used for team-building and incorporating diversity into the community), and developmental activities for women. Over and above these training aspects, respondents made

reference to municipal by-law training and assisting communities to better understand the municipal mandates which is linked to IDP training.

6.3.16 Challenges in community capacity-building

Executive managers and senior managers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi conceded that there were problems in the implementation of skills capacity-building programmes at the community level. These emanated from both the supply side and the demand side. Table 28 below summarises the challenges as articulated by the respondents.

Table 28: Challenges at community levely level

Municipality	Supply-side Challenges	Demand-side Challenges
Emfuleni	• Limited financial resources and lack of motivation to learn • Limited technical staff versus the number of projects to be implemented, which delays project implementation	• Lack of interest from some community members • Poor participation in available programmes • Confusion and lack of understanding about the purpose of capacity-building projects
Midvaal	• Uneven supply of capacity development services in formal and informal settlements	• Political differences between DA and ANC members led to tensions and delays • Poor attendance at meetings

Lesedi	• Institutional instability owing to the pending re-integration into Ekurhuleni Metro and the staff redeployment • Lack of co-operation from other NGOs and from other officials	• Some community members not taking responsibility for their own development • Antagonistic behaviour of some union officials

Source: Own (2012)

This input identified several constraints that challenged capacity development in SDM's three local municipalities. For example, at Emfuleni supply-side problems included lack of funding and technical staff, which impacted negatively on the implementation of community capacity-building initiatives. On the demand-side, lack of interest, poor participation and lack of information about the value of capacity-building for the community were the major obstacles that undermined capacity-building efforts. In Midvaal, supply-side challenges included the perceived inequality in the provision of services to formal and informal settlements.

These findings are confirmed by the literature and from the monitoring perspective as observed from communities. Garavan, McGuire and O'Donnell (2004) draw on a number of studies which posit that at the individual level certain characteristics explain participation in development activities. These include training and learner motivation. Baldwin and Majuka (1991) identify age and learner commitment as important factors. Cleveland and Shore (1992) as well as Noe (1986), Noe and Wilk (1993) and Yelon (1992) note the importance of learner attitudes and beliefs regarding development activities and motivation.

Theme 3: Alignment between skills development and performance management

6.3.17 Performance management

As indicated in chapter three, the conceptual framework also included performance management as a tool to facilitate skills development in SDM. It needs to be mentioned that executive managers and senior managers from Emfuleni and Midvaal were somewhat reluctant to talk about performance management issues. Some of them reported that they had not been appraised, and that even for those who had been appraised, such appraisals were not accompanied by constructive feedback and corrective measures. These oversights were reported in Emfuleni and Midvaal in particular.

In contrast, Lesedi had attempted to link training with performance management, especially at the senior management level. Examples given included the use of performance management results to facilitate career management and training. In this way, Lesedi was able to use performance management as a tool for identifying employees' skills and current and future skills needs. This finding is supported by the Lesedi Integrated Development Plan (2012/2016) which explains that:

> *Performance Management Review (PRM) focuses on results/outcome; produces meaningful results – with the alignment of activities and processes; directs attention from Bottom and Top approaches; identifies shortcomings, challenges and training needs. In addition, performance management has benefits for employees too. First, PM helps employees to take charge and become accountable for their responsibilities as a governance principle".*

Drawing from Risher (2003), performance management is a managerial task that includes activities intended to ensure that the goals of an organisation are consistently being achieved. Risher reiterates that managers should be held accountable for creating an environment that strives for peak performance in municipalities.

These inputs are supported by Armstrong (1999), and linked with the above statement from the Lesedi Integrated Development Plan (2012/2016), performance management is a planned process in which the primary elements are agreement, measurement, feedback, positive reinforcement, and dialogue. It focuses on targets, standards and performance measures or indicators. Performance management focuses on future performance planning and improvement rather than on retrospective performance appraisal. It also functions as a continuous and evolutionary process, in which performance improves over time and provides the basis for regular and frequent dialogues between managers and individuals about performance and development needs. Kaplan and Norton (1996) propose four perspectives for evaluating the performance of an organisation as explained in Table 29 below. Although their focus was on the private sector, this remains applicable in public sector organisations.

Table 29: Balance Scorecard

Element of the scorecard	Implications
Financial perspective	To succeed financially, how should we appear to our shareholders?
Customer perspective	To achieve our vision, how should we appear to our customers?
Learning and growth perspective	To achieve our vision, how will we sustain our ability to change and improve, and adapt to changes in the environment and new challenges?
Internal business process perspective	To satisfy our shareholders and customers, what business processes must we excel at? What are the unique competencies the organisation should have?

Source: Kaplan and Norton (1996)

The importance of the Balanced Score Card (BSC) is that it provides a methodology to assess management decisions and a measure to gauge improvements (MacAdam and Walker, 2003). Nonetheless the BSC approach can be a useful tool to link local government operations to strategy on an on-going basis. Similarly, Sibanda (2012) emphasises that BSC is a key tool for monitoring customer-focused quality of service. In this study the governance principles of accountability, participation, transparency and responsiveness to community needs may present a solution in addressing the challenges faced by the three local municipalities in Sedibeng District Municipality.

6.3.18 Strengths and weaknesses of the skills programme

Further interrogation of the data collected from Sedibeng's three local municipalities reveals both attractions and some pitfalls in the skills

development process. Summary of strengths and weaknesses in skills building are in table 30 below**.**

Table 30: Strengths and weaknesses of current skills programme

Municipality	Strengths	Weaknesses
Emfuleni	• Close co-operation between management and unions	• Weak programme communications
Midvaal	• Employee participation • Strong HIV/AIDS programmes • Formal reporting of training • Diversified training	• Under-representation of Affirmative Action (AA) candidates in management development programmes
Lesedi	• Strong learning culture • Strong accountability • Transparency	• Strong bias towards management development programmes

Source: Own (2012)

Based on the strengths of skills to be found within SDM, capacity-building programmes can be summarised as follows. Firstly, it appears that close co-operation between management and employees, particularly in Emfuleni, impacted well on the planning of skills programmes. Secondly, in Midvaal, a high degree of emphasis was placed on staff participation, which complements the co-operation reported in Emfuleni. In addition to participation, Midvaal's training interventions also reflected a strong focus on HIV/AIDS management education because the area is more rural and has a number of informal settlements.

Having analysed the perspectives and experiences of executive managers and senior managers concerning skills capacity-building in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, the findings on the experiences of office bearers will now be analysed.

6.3.19 Political office bearers' perspectives

Given the widespread skills shortages reported in many municipalities around the country and the negative impact on service delivery, it was necessary to establish how the political office bearers perceived skills development in the area and how they felt this affected delivery of basic services in their areas. The analysis here focuses on the following themes, which were drawn from the inputs and suggestions of the respondents from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

6.3.19.1 Perceptions of working conditions

Participants were asked to indicate how long they had been with the SDM and whether they were willing to continue serving the community. This item was included to determine issues such as length of service, experience and the ability of the municipality to retain loyal and competent office bearers in order to reduce the shortage of skills in the area. Table 31 below summarises the perceptions of political office bearers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi on working conditions.

Table 31: Perceptions of working conditions

Municipality	Concerns
Emfuleni	• The Executive and management are not providing enough support to ward councillors • Training opportunities are not communicated to all our people
Midvaal	• Lack of transformation at senior management level and continuing political in-fighting between parties blocks service delivery • Current skills supply does not match the number of projects that we have in the community
Lesedi	• There is a tendency for some people to use the opportunities offered by the municipality to further their own personal interest i.e. once they are trained, they leave the organisation

Source: Own (2012)

As shown in Table 31 above, office bearers from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi held different views on these issues. For example, at Emfuleni some participants reported that they had served the municipality for a period of 1-10 years, while others indicated they had been elected twice, and were still willing to continue serving as long as people wanted them to serve.

Based on Table 33 above, ward councillors from Midvaal raised concerns about the lack of promotion for designated groups, namely black people at the top. Apparently this demoralised some officials and caused them to leave the organisation before the end of their tenure. In Lesedi, cases of staff turnover were reported and this was thought to be one of the "unintended consequences of skills development" as some professionals

and officer bearers acquired skills and left the municipality afterwards to look for better opportunities in the private sector. Another concern raised by the focus group from Lesedi was that the pending integration of the municipality with Ekurhuleni had already caused anxiety in the organisation with some officials indicating that they would “not be part of this arrangement”.

6.3.19.2 Perspectives on service delivery

There was general consensus that although efforts had been made to drive transformation and service delivery, these efforts were not enough and therefore did not meet all of the basic needs of the SDM. To increase the likelihood of success, organisations should commit to learning. A learning organisation, according to Garvin (1993), is based on five building blocks:

1. systematic problem solving;
2. experimentation;
3. learning from their own experience;
4. learning from the experience of others; and
5. transferring knowledge throughout the organisation.

Table 32 below summarises the office bearers’ views on the state of service delivery and what can be done to improve delivery at community level specifically.

Table 32: Perceptions service delivery

Municipality	Perspectives on service delivery	Suggestions for improvement
Emfuleni	"The IDP process is not well understood by the community" "Community members blame councillors for poor service delivery and burn down their houses, simply because they assume that we are directly responsible for service delivery".	"People need to be taught how to present their needs in IDP meetings" "They also need to be helped to understand that office bearers are not directly responsible for service delivery"
Midvaal	"There is a big gap in the provision of services between formal and informal settlements and this causes tensions in the area as the poor feel left out" "There is a feeling out there that we are not keeping our promises and that we are dragging our feet."	"There is a need to speed up service delivery and to educate communities about the time required to deliver each type of service or programme". "People need to know that some projects can be delivered immediately while others like infrastructure need more time"
Lesedi	Lack of co-operation between professional staff and office bearers is a big problem, which ultimately delays service delivery" "The frequent reshuffling contributes to uncertainty for the ward councillors to focus on their delegated areas of work.	"They (the district) need to foster good relations between professionals and ward councillors in all the areas" "There is a need to create stability in one area or portfolio so we can work together to improve the lives of our people".

Source: Own (2012)

Table 32 above reflects different but complementary views on service delivery issues. What is clear from these views is that as things stand, service delivery is not satisfactory for a number of reasons. The first problem appears to be lack of understanding of the workings of the IDP and by-law process. This problem was common in Emfuleni, where some of the office bearers felt that delays in service delivery were sometimes caused by community participation. As a result, it was felt that local people need to be educated on IDP processes to ensure effective service delivery.

In Midvaal, due to its rural stature, the challenge was how to deal with the disparities in service delivery, as evidenced by the inequality between formal and informal settlements. In Lesedi, service delivery was apparently hampered by the lack of co-operation between ward councillors and officials. As highlighted in Table 30, office bearers here felt marginalised. In other words, a lack of unity between these key stakeholders impacted negatively on service delivery and contributed to staff turnover.

Regarding whether the three local municipalities had sufficient skills to drive service delivery, it was generally agreed that skills shortages were still a challenge in the municipality and that political office bearers were the most affected group. There was a strong feeling that newly deployed political office bearers did not receive enough support especially in training and guidance from senior management and colleagues. It was felt that lack of unity undermined skills capacity-building in the area. This problem was compounded by the uneven dissemination of information on skills development opportunities and critical service delivery issues. Lack of proper communication channels meant that some office bearers did not know what was happening in their areas, whereas their colleagues in other parts of the municipality knew what was going on. Managing and leading people implies that managers should have sound communication and interpersonal skills (Samovar, Porter and McDaniel, 2011).

Communication is a message of exchange between people, through symbols, emotions, thoughts and knowledge. It is one of the processes that hold the organisation together. The ability to communicate is critical for local government officials (Demir, 2000; Yillmaz, 2003).

It is also important to note that interviewees knew and understood their role in the skills capacity-building programme. These are summarised in Table 33 below.

Table 33: Office bearer's role in capacity

Role/ Responsibility	Practical meaning
Organising	Mobilising and encouraging community participation in education and training activities on issues such as HIV/AIDS, community safety elections, official visits, etc.
Dissemination of information	Providing regular updates on service delivery issues, ward meetings; crime prevention campaigns, new services and human rights
Advice and support	Giving advice on prioritisation of needs as well as short-term and long-term projects
Peace negotiator	Providing leadership and guidance in areas affected by service delivery protests and related matters
Community representative	Represent local communities in municipal meetings, conferences and workshops and provide feedback on resolutions taken

Source: Own (2012)

It is evident from Table 33 that despite the perceived constraints, office bearers contribute significantly to skills capacity-building efforts in SDM's three local municipalities. Since they are deployed at the community level, ward councillors have the opportunity to organise and inspire people to take part in capacity-building activities. Apart from this, they also serve as information agents and the community's voice. They continuously provide information and advice on services and represent communities in planning meetings. It follows that office bearers can make valuable contributions to skills capacity-building if they are empowered with information and the right set of skills before and after assuming their duties.

As Graig (2002) observes, community capacity development with its emphasis on empowerment and participation is not only a concern with what happens as a result of a particular intervention, but also how it happens that is not only meeting the needs but also meeting them in a particular way. The outcomes have to be linked with process goals.

Customer satisfaction is of great importance to public agencies that function as service delivery providers to citizens. When public services are provided to citizens on demand, governments, particularly local governments, devote considerable resources to meeting the needs of their citizens (Park and Blenkinsop, 2011).

Citizen participation has a number of positive efficiencies in relation to democracy: it increases knowledge, civic skills and public engagement, and it contributes to the support for decision-making among the participants (Michels, 2011).

A framework for evaluating community capacity development needs to draw on a wide range of data. Numerical data is important hence the need for officials to be capacitated in conceptual skills with particular reference

to research and systems thinking skills. Russel (1996) observes that many community programmes have begun to develop innovative measures which reflect the values of community development.

Having analysed the experiences of the respondents from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi regarding skills capacity-building, performance management and service delivery issues, attention will now be focused on the key themes emerging from this analysis. Consideration of these themes is important as they highlight critical issues that need to be addressed to improve skills development practice in SDM's three local municipalities.

6.4 EMERGING THEMES

As with all qualitative studies, analysis of findings usually culminates in the identification of specific themes and patterns, relating directly to the research topic (Creswell, 2009; Mouton, 1998; Neuman, 2006). This study was no exception. The key themes that emerged from the research include: organisational culture; recruitment, selection and retention strategies; gaps and discrepancies in the skills planning process; structural tensions and role ambiguity; motivation, compliance issues; institutionalisation of skills development; consultative leadership; strategic partnerships; and gaps and misalignments. These are discussed below.

6.4.1 Organisational culture

The findings revealed mixed results on whether the municipal culture supports skills development in SDM. Organisational culture is the pattern of values, norms, beliefs, attitudes and assumptions that may not have been articulated but shape the ways in which people behave and how things are done (Armstrong, 1999). Furnham and Gunter (1993) add that culture means the commonly held beliefs, attitudes and values that exist in

an organisation. Put more simply, culture is “the way we do things around here”. Table 34 below summarises the findings on this issue.

Table 34: Perceptions on organisational culture

Municipality	Perceptions on culture
Emfuleni	• “We work together” • “Management and Unions skills programmes together” • “They need to support new councillors”
Midvaal	• “Some people do not feel they belong here” • “Our biggest challenge is transformation at the top” • “Political differences are rife here”
Lesedi	• “Some people are so motivated to learn they even absent themselves from work” • “ We are not treated equally” • “Chief Whips were reshuffled three times before the interviews”

Source: Own (2012)

Table 34 above and the information presented in chapter two shows that soft organisational issues such as culture, attitudes, behaviours, values, ethics and work relationships impact significantly on skills formation (Nel, *et al*,. 2008; Grobler, Warnich, Carrel and Hatfield, 2006). This is also evident from the findings where some of these issues came out strongly during the interviews with respondents in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

6.4.2 Recruitment, selection and retention strategies

The research findings revealed omissions in skills development programmes, especially with regard to recruitment, selection, training and retention strategies. According to Grobler, *et al.,* (2006), the long term success of any organisation ultimately depends on having the right people in the right jobs at the right time. It is therefore important to analyse the

underlying causes of the misalignment between these important HR functions. Grobler, *et al.,* (2006) further states that human resource planning in HRD practices has undergone dramatic changes during the past decade. Practitioners and academics have called for greater attention to, and tighter linkages between, HR planning practices and organisational strategies. This calls for the development of innovative HR solutions to meet both the operational and strategic needs of the organisation.

Extrapolating from this view, it appears that the missing link in the local municipality's recruitment and selection strategy is strategic human resource planning. According to Dyer (2006), strategic human resource planning (SHRP) is the process through which organisational goals as stated in mission statements and plans are translated into HR objectives. Strategic human resource planning thus helps to ensure that the organisation is neither overstaffed nor understaffed, and that employees with appropriate talents, skills and interest are available to carry out their tasks in the right jobs at the right times.

This differs greatly from the traditional HR planning process which mainly took action relating to annual forecasts. These one-year planning horizons failed to take into consideration longer range organisational plans and needs such as new requirements of a qualitative nature. As a result, a lack of adequate talent was one of the single major constraints in an organisation's ability to sustain future growth. This view is reinforced by Wang, Hutchins and Garavan (2009) argue that a strategic approach to HRD is an imperative in the globalisation era. A strategic perspective involves designing and implementing HRD policies and practices to ensure that the organisation's human capital contributes to the achievement of its objectives. The findings of the study highlighted that Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi were challenged with regard to employee retention, which is addressed in more detail below.

Retention refers to anything an employer does to encourage qualified and productive employees to continue working for the organisation (Govender, 2009; Jackson and Schuler, 2003). According to Jackson and Schuler (2003), the purpose of retention is to reduce unwanted voluntary turnover by people the organisation would like to keep in its workforce. They argue that effective recruitment and retention attracts employees to the organisation and increases the chances of retaining employees once recruited. Mathis and Jackson (2003) state that a lower turnover in the organisation means one less person to recruit, select and train, as continuity of employees gives the organisation a positive "employee image" for attracting and retaining other individuals. It is imperative for South African public sector managers to understand employees' needs and expectations in the workplace if they want to succeed in attracting and retaining the most talented and skilled employees. This could be achieved through exit interviews to identify the reasons or factors that cause people to leave the organisation. Key factors contributing to staff turnover include low job satisfaction; labour market conditions that provide more attractive opportunities elsewhere; insufficient incentives and rewards; inappropriate performance measures; and family interests and commitments (Mathis and Jackson, 2005).

According to Govender (2009:104), the challenge for public sector managers is the recruitment, retention, empowerment and development of employees. It is important that the service delivery challenges are not compromised as a result of employees leaving South African public sector organisations. Govender (2009) and Mathis and Jackson (2005) suggest that there is a vital link between organisational culture and employee retention. An organisational culture that positively impacts on employees adds value to the employees' lives and retains employees, whereas a culture that devalues people and creates barriers to the use of individual capabilities will not successfully attract and retain employees. The challenge of staff retention is not unique to Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

For example, the European Council case study mentioned in chapter two observed that retention of highly skilled and motivated employees is crucial for effective service delivery at local government level.

Based on the above, the study revealed several important issues pertaining to career management and succession planning in the case study organisation. Even though training efforts were pursued at all levels of the organisation, the outcomes were not sustainable as there were no succession plans in place. It was revealed that, in terms of policy, incumbents are elected for a period of five years, after which new candidates are deployed. The departure of highly experienced officials tends to leave a vacuum in the organisation's skills base, which in turn perpetuates the skills backlogs and triggers service delivery protests. Table 35 below summarises the constraints which impacted on recruitment and retention of high level skills in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

Table 35: Constraints in recruitment and talent retention

Municipality	Constraints
Emfuleni	• Lack of support of departed councillors • Negative impact of the five-year tenure system • Difficulty of attracting science/engineering skills
Midvaal	• Lack of promotion opportunities • Perceived lack of transformation • Under-supply of project management skills
Lesedi	• There are fears that integration into Ekurhuleni may result in high staff turnover • Role ambiguity impacts negatively on career planning/succession planning

Source: Own (2012)

6.4.3 Omissions and discrepancies in the skills planning process

Evidence from the study suggests that the skills planning process was in place but that challenges were evident in the actual practice of skills audits, which omitted several important aspects, such as RPL assessment and job evaluation. The strategic planning process was limited in scope if one considers best lessons and practices from the literature (Botha, *et al.*, 2013; Coetzee, 2007). Evidence from the literature (Coetzee, 2007; Botha *et al.,* 2013; Mayer and Orpen, 2012) who suggests that skills planning should follow a strategic process as depicted in Figure 20 below.

Figure 20: Organisational strategic planning skills process

Source: Adapted from Coetzee (2006)

An important objective of the skills development strategy in Figure 20 is to ensure that education and training becomes more strategic in nature.

There should be a link between education and training. Workplace skills plans should include mission and vision as well as service delivery priorities and targets. This step involves deciding on what competencies or skills are required to meet organisational objectives; what skills are regarded as scarce skills; what skills are available; and what skills will be needed in future (Botha, *et al*., 2013; Coetzee, 2007). Based on Figure 21 above, the most important considerations in planning and executing skills development programmes include the following steps.

6.4.3.1 Determine learning interventions

This step requires management to decide on the suitable skills programmes that are needed to help employees and managers acquire the right set of skills or competencies to perform in their jobs.

6.4.3.2 Undertake training and development provision

In this stage, the identified training programmes are implemented at each level of the organisation. This may involve using on the job training methods such as coaching, mentoring, job rotation and peer coaching and formal methods involving off-site learning programmes.

6.4.3.3 Submit to SETA

In the South African context, organisational policies for training also need to be aligned with the skills development legislation. For example, training policies should make provision for cost-benefit analysis since the skills development legislation demands that a cost-benefit analysis be completed to determine the benefits to annual training investments (Bisschoff and Govender, 2004).

As part of the organisational strategic planning skills process diagram, the findings showed that only Midvaal had submitted the skills plan to the

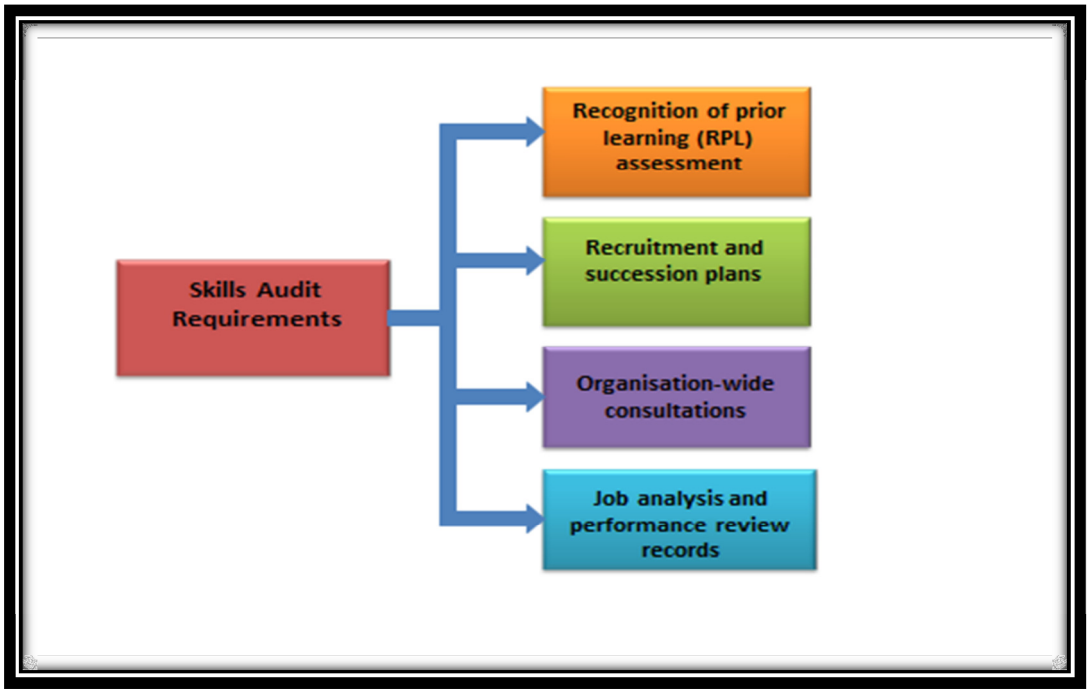
LGSeta and managed to successfully apply for the skills grant. This information was not available for Lesedi and Emfuleni. As a result, neither of the municipalities could claim the skills grant – hence the concerns about shortage of financial resources for skills development. These finding conflict with the LGSeta requirement that municipalities should use skills grant resources to accelerate skills development. On the positive side, it was pleasing to see that all three local municipalities of Sedibeng had implemented skills programmes to address some of the scarce and critical skills identified by the LGSeta (as explained in chapter one).

6.4.3.4 Determine future skills needs

The future skills needs of the organisation can be identified by analysing the organisation's strategic plan. This document provides clear guidelines for the strategic projects and programmes that the organisation will undertake in the long term and the type of skills required to help the organisation implement these interventions.

Although the results confirm planning of skills programmes in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, such planning is not, however, adequately informed by critical processes such as RPL assessment, job analysis and performance reviews. Recognition of prior learning means the comparison of the previous learning and experience of a learner howsoever obtained against the learning outcomes required for a specified qualification, and the acceptance for purposes of qualification that meet the requirements (South African Qualifications Authority, 2003). Figure 21 below presents the key components that are required to ensure effective skills audits to ensure proper alignment of skills development initiatives with the organisation's talent management strategy.

Figure 21: Critical process on skills audit



Source: South African Qualifications Authority (2003)

Figure 21 depicts four critical activities that underpin effective skills audit, namely recognition of prior learning, recruitment and succession plans, organisation-wide consultations, job analysis and performance review records. The findings of the study revealed that skills audits in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi relied heavily on consultation, with limited emphasis on prior knowledge and core competencies of trainees/learners.

The unstable nature of employee retention strategies in local municipalities is not an isolated incident. For example, the State of Local Government Review Report (2008) attributes this problem to the lack of planning capacity in municipalities, which in turn affects their ability to develop and retain talent, particularly at the leadership and managerial levels.

6.4.4 Structural tensions and role ambiguity

Based on the data from the three local municipalities of SDM, it appears that the roles and responsibilities for skills development have been

conflated and or mixed with political and management issues. This has resulted in structural tensions and role ambiguity in some instances, as illustrated by the case of Lesedi, where the Speaker had greater influence over skills development issues than was the case in Emfuleni, where the mandate for human resource development rested with the corporate services office. Consequently, it was not easy to establish what the role of the human resource management function is in Midvaal.

Organisational structure is a framework for good management. If the structure is wrong, good management becomes difficult or impossible (Archer, 1988). The encroachment of politics into the administrative sphere complicates the organisational operations. According to Fox and Meyer (1995), politics refers to the process of decision-making, a conflict resolution process which determines the distribution of resources.

6.4.5 Motivation

This problem was evident in Emfuleni and Midvaal, where some participants showed reluctance to attend training programmes due to personal reasons like their age and perceived disparities in the provision of training services to professional staff, managers, lower level employees and political office bearers. This finding conflicts with the literature which suggests a strong link between high employee motivation and learning and development (Grobler, 2006; Noe, 2005 and Ivancevich, 1995).

For example, Truelove (1992) argues that before considering the development of learning interventions, it is often necessary to take one step back and ask people to think about the things which prevent them from learning. The majority of people suffer from bad learning experiences and these can cause blockages which seriously inhibit any learning taking place. Similarly, Grobler *et al.,* (2006) emphasises the importance of paying attention to the factors that can motivate or demotivate people in

learning situations. One such factor is the readiness and willingness to learn. If participants are not committed, very little learning will happen. According to Ferris, Anthony, Koldinsky, Gilmore and Harvey (2002), politically skilled managers have an unassuming and convincing personal style that exerts a powerful influence on others around them. Interpersonal influence allows people to adapt and calibrate their behaviour to different situations to elicit the desired responses from others. In light of this, it can be inferred that this skill underlines the importance of contextualising communications to ensure that they motivate their subordinates in an organisation. Municipal managers and officials are also expected to communicate available skills development opportunities to staff in a manner that creates enthusiasm, commitment, passion for learning and participation.

6.4.6 Compliance issues

The study revealed that both formal and informal training approaches are used to address skills shortages in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, although this happened in varying degrees across these municipalities. This finding resonates with the goals of the National Skills Development Strategy and the National Qualifications Framework which, as discussed in chapter one, call for an integrated approach to skills development involving on-the-job training and formal training interventions.

In addition, skills programmes are also linked to SAQA and NQF policy guidelines to ensure high quality products, proper accreditation and certification of learners, although problems still exist in this area, particularly in Emfuleni where some respondents reported having received certificates that were not appropriate, suggesting problems in monitoring and evaluation of skills development programmes here. However, this negative trend was mitigated by the fact that Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi utilised accredited training institutions, for example, Wits, University of

North West, Vaal University of Technology and the University of Johannesburg. According to Dunn (2008), monitoring and evaluation helps determine whether the actions of programme administrators, staff and other stakeholders are in compliance with standards and procedures imposed by legislators, regulatory agencies and professional bodies.

It follows that good governance addresses the quality of organisations and their effectiveness in translating policy into implementation, and changes and adapts with context (UN, 2008). The most common failing is to focus on compliance at the expense of performance improvement and good decision-making (Bridgman, 2007). The strong partnerships between the local municipality and established local universities and technical colleges also demonstrated management's commitment to providing high quality training services to municipal employees. This undertaking is supported by Burns (1978) in relation to leadership styles in an organisation, when he describes transactional leaders as those leaders who influence an employee's commitment to performance.

6.4.7 Institutionalisation of skills development

From the data there appears to be a commitment to formalising training interventions across the Sedibeng District Municipality. This was evident from the inputs of councillors and the Emfuleni Local Municipality's Corporate Services Unit, which demonstrated that trainees received certificates for the training that they attended in their respective departments. In all three local municipalities attempts had been made to partner with different local universities to accelerate skills development.

Formalisation of training efforts was also evident in the use of workplace skills plans as planning tools. Fullan (2004) states that academic development has been infused into institutional cultures and is no longer an attachment of the mainstream curriculum. Such an understanding of

academic development contributes to ensuring that all those in need of skills development are advanced academically through services that are integral to their degree programmes.

The above realisation alludes to the fact that for universities in general and academics in particular, to remain relevant and stay abreast with changes in the world, professional development courses are very important (Craft, 2000).

To some extent, the use of workplace skills plans as instruments to facilitate multi-skilling of the workforce from SDM also demonstrated the desire to build the capacity and competencies required to drive service delivery in the area. Similarly, it was widely recognised that achieving the required skills levels would take time and that a gradual approach would be appropriate as the local municipality is challenged financially.

6.4.8 Consultative leadership

In all three local municipalities there was a clear commitment to involving the executive, management, employees and trade unions in the planning of skills programmes. To a greater extent this consultative approach demonstrates that democratic management principles were being applied to improve skills capacity-building efforts in SDM local municipalities. Programme officials from Emfuleni and Lesedi also confirmed that they had been consulted on their skills development needs, but could not confirm whether such consultation had been part of career management efforts.

According to Melchor (2008), managerial skills are naturally insufficient to produce and manage change, and should be complemented by leadership skills. Managers should not only do things correctly, they should also inspire their people. They should have the moral authority to expect

people's trust and demand their support in the achievement of a vision. Without public support managers are unable to effectively manage reform programmes. Managerial and leadership skills are thus two sides of the same coin.

6.4.9 Strategic partnerships

The study established that SDM's three local municipalities had formed strategic partnerships with various accredited training providers in South Africa with a view to promoting multi-skilling of their workforces to improve service delivery. For example, Emfuleni had partnered with the Vaal University of Technology to provide a wide range of short courses to staff, including secretarial and public management courses.

Midvaal, on the other hand, had established good partnerships with the University of Johannesburg and the University of North West for the sole purpose of promoting skills development. Meanwhile, Lesedi collaborated with the University of the Witwatersrand to provide financial management courses to its managers and programme personnel. Overall, these partnerships demonstrate that SDM is committed to building the core competencies required to improve the provision of basic services to citizens.

To some degree, the finding on partnerships confirms the views in the literature (Erasmus, et *al.,* 2006; Nel, *et al.,* 2007; Grobler, 2008) that organisations need to set up the right infrastructure and incentives for their workers to acquire better skills. Investment in training, both classroom and on-the-job, has been well documented as an essential ingredient in increasing value-added production.

In support of the above statement, Schwella, Burger, Fox and Muller (1996) states that continuing education and training reduces the possibility

of employees finding themselves with obsolete skills. Properly planned and carried out, these activities will match employees' aspirations and organisational needs.

Furthermore, Roux, Brynard, Botes and Fourie (1997) emphasise the fact that academic training should be supplemented by well-planned in-service training programmes. Specialised training should assist staff members to keep pace with current demands and should therefore contribute to the improvement of productivity.

6.4.10 Omissions and misalignments

Although cross-analysis of the study confirmed that all three local municipalities pursue skills capacity-building programmes using both formal and informal training approaches, there were shortcomings in these initiatives. These relate to three critical areas, namely planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of training practice. Table 36 below summarises some of the weaknesses identified in the study.

Table 36: Gaps and Misalignments

Local Municipality	Misalignments
Emfuleni	• Misalignment between training and the municipal mandate and goals • No link between training and rewards • Inadequate monitoring and control activities
Midvaal	• Slow progress in employment equity • Gap between AA and training programmes • Fragmented communication strategies
Lesedi	• More focus on managerial level • Inadequate monitoring and control activities

	• Conflicting views on skills priorities

Source: Own (2012)

It is evident that each local municipality experienced certain constraints in respect of skills development. In the case of Emfuleni, concerns were raised about the inability of the municipality to link skills development efforts to employees' career needs. Consequently, some employees were reluctant to attend training programmes as they did not see the value that such training added to their career goals and aspirations. In respect of Lesedi, there was a concern that monitoring and evaluation measures were inadequate, impacting negatively on accountability and training outcomes.

The literature (Carrell, *et al.,* 2003; Nel, *et al.,* 2008; Ivancevich, 2005) suggest that training at all levels of government there is a need to focus on the context of the employee on the job. Unless such organisational development training is given priority by the leadership of the organisation, training efforts will fail. This statement confirms the point highlighted in chapter two that effective leadership and governance are central to the success of skills capacity-building in organisations.

In Midvaal, concerns were raised about the slow progress in achieving employment equity goals as part of the transformation process. In particular, it was indicated that the municipality had not been able to attract and retain suitably qualified black managers at the higher level of the organisation. This constrained not only skills capacity-building efforts but also the acquisition and development of managerial talent at the higher levels of the organisation.

6.5 EMERGING GOOD PRACTICE

From the data sets derived from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, it is possible to identify some of the promising training practices that were used by these local municipalities to enhance skills capacity-building to ensure

effective service delivery. Table 37 below provides a summary of the promising trends revealed by the data.

Table 37: Best practice drawn from the data

Local Municipality	Best skills development practices
Emfuleni	• Teamwork and the involvement of corporate services in the identification of skills needs
Midvaal	• Proper planning and alignment of skills programmes with relevant policy framework
Lesedi	• Financial management and computer skills literacy is a requirement for all the managerial employees including councillors

Source: Own (2012)

Table 37 above presents interesting parallels in terms of best practice, all of which demonstrated the SDM's commitment to capacity-building. For example, while Emfuleni delivered skills development through teamwork and top management involvement, Midvaal put more emphasis on alignment of skills interventions with SAQA policies and legislation. For example, it was widely acknowledged that skills development efforts had to be linked with the Employment Equity Act and that Affirmative Action measures had to be fast-tracked at all levels of the municipality.

By contrast, Lesedi local municipality strives to ensure that all senior managers (officials) have knowledge in financial management and project management skills. The underlying assumption is that acquisition of these competencies will enable staff to better understand and perform financial calculations in the IDP as it is inseparable from the budgeting process.

6.6 SUMMARY

The analysis in this chapter covered four themes in relation to skills capacity-building in SDM's three local municipalities. These included current skills requirements (supply); skills development process; and alignment between skills capacity-building and performance management.

In respect of current skills requirements, the analysis demonstrated that SDM's three local municipalities (Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi) were committed to implement skills capacity-building programmes. However, skills development efforts in these municipalities were impeded by challenges from both the supply side and the demand side. Supply-side challenges include limited funding (Emfuleni) and lack of programme management skills, which was evident across the three local municipalities.

Regarding the skills development process, the analysis showed that lack of motivation, negative attitudes and behaviours, and failure to take responsibility for own development retarded skills development efforts. With regard to the skills development process, it appears that all three local municipalities are committed to skills development, although this is negated by the lack of financial resources (Emfuleni); tensions between management and unions (Lesedi); and lack of transformation (Midvaal), as well as weak monitoring and evaluation practices, which was common across the three local municipalities.

Concerning alignment between skills capacity-building and performance management, it was established that strategic human resource planning (SHRP) is lacking, which is critical in linking training efforts with the organisational mission and vision. The inability to link training with performance management, career management and rewards impacted negatively on skills transfer, staff morale and retention of skills in all three local municipalities. It also impacted negatively on organisational memory.

The next chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study regarding skills capacity-building in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi.

CHAPTER SEVEN

REFLECTIONS ON THE ROLE OF SKILLS CAPACITY IN SEDIBENG DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Informed by the analysis in chapter six, this chapter draws conclusions on skills development in Sedibeng in light of the three research questions, namely: What is the state of skills capacity in Sedibeng District Municipality? How are the skills development initiatives used to enhance service delivery? Why is it crucial for performance management to be aligned with skills capacity-building?

The main purpose of this study was to examine state capacity in the provision of basic services in Sedibeng's three local municipalities, namely Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. The research focused on skills development as one of the key capacity requirements for effective service delivery in municipalities. To enhance validity and reliability of the results, the conclusions are integrated with the theoretical and conceptual frameworks covered in chapter three of this dissertation.

To examine skills development in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, the study followed a qualitative approach including interviews, focus groups and observation. The objectives of the study were to establish whether there is adequate skills capacity to drive service delivery in Sedibeng District Municipality; to determine the process followed to implement skills capacity-building programmes at both the municipal and community levels, and to establish if Sedibeng District Municipality realises the importance of linking performance management and skills development as a catalyst for

service delivery. Based on this logic, the conclusions of the study on skills development in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi municipality are presented below.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS

As reflected in the discussion of the theoretical and conceptual framework in chapter three, the management functions of planning, organising, leading and controlling are central to the achievement of organisational goals, including skills development. For example, Taylor's scientific management theory highlighted the need for managers to allocate and organise work efficiently and to supervise employees to ensure that organisational goals are achieved as planned.

Similarly, Fayol's administrative theory emphasised the need for effective co-ordination of work to ensure consistency and uniformity in realising organisational goals. One of the problems that undermined skills development in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi was weak co-ordination mechanisms, which led to fragmented skills development approaches across Sedibeng. The goal-setting theory underlined the importance of encouraging staff to participate in and contribute to goal-setting. Almost all the respondents from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi confirmed the involvement of managers, staff and unions in the planning of skills development; although this was undermined by the somewhat antagonistic behaviour of unions in Lesedi Local Municipality.

Furthermore, the Control Theory highlighted the crucial role of providing prompt feedback to staff regarding their performance and related matters. The respondents from Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi reported that even though they had received training in different courses, they had not received prompt feedback on their performance back on the job. In other words, they had not been informed whether their newly acquired

knowledge and skills had been applied correctly on the job. As indicated during the analysis in chapter six, lack of effective monitoring, control and co-ordination mechanisms had a negative impact on the implementation of skills development programmes in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. This finding also conflicts with the literature in chapter two, which showed that monitoring and evaluation plays a crucial role in determining programme effectiveness (Cloete, 2002, Dunn, 2008 and PSC, 2008).

The Social Cognitive Theory put self-belief and motivation at the centre of organisational efficiency and effectiveness. In this regard, the study found that while some employees were motivated to learn in Lesedi, as illustrated by the number of staff that attended the financial management course at the University of the Witwatersrand in 2013, Emfuleni and Midvaal had different experiences. Most respondents in these two municipalities were demotivated because of the perceived gap between skills development and rewards, meaning that there was no link between training, financial incentives and promotion opportunities.

The trait theory suggests that in order for leaders to be effective, they should have certain characteristics, for example, intelligence, skills, charm. Equally, it is important to demonstrate the link between leadership, governance and skills development in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. As discussed in chapter three, leadership provides the impetus and inspiration that people need to be able to achieve organisational goals. Leadership skills in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi were insufficient due to the departure of highly skilled personnel and slow progress in achieving transformation and employment equity targets. The Behavioural approach suggests that leaders can be groomed or trained, and that it is important for leaders to lead by example and interact with their subordinates frequently. In Emfuleni, ward councillors felt that their leadership did not provide sufficient communication on available skills development opportunities, while Midvaal respondents felt that development of

leadership talent at the higher level of the municipality was hampered by lack of transformation. In Lesedi, there was a strong perception that senior management is not reaching out to middle and lower level employees. As one of the ward councillors explained, “there is a big wall that divides us”. This situation made it difficult for some employees to discuss their training needs with management in the municipality.

The situational theory posits that leaders should know that each situation is different and thus calls for a different solution or response. At the centre of this theory is the need for leaders and their teams to be able to learn and adapt quickly to their rapidly changing service delivery environments. This principle seems to have been applied fairly well in all three local municipalities as the leadership was able to align their skills development programmes with the National Qualifications Framework (NQF) and the Skills Development Act. This was evidenced by the production of skills plans and the utilisation of accredited training institutions. Transformational and charismatic leadership places a strong emphasis on leaders to motivate and guide their followers’ behaviour towards the attainment of organisational goals. As indicated earlier, the respondents from Emfuleni and Midvaal in particular lacked the drive to improve their knowledge and skills due to lack of motivation from their managers.

Transactional leadership posits that a leader can improve staff commitment, loyalty, performance and results through contingent rewards and punishment. As reported in the preceding sections, a common problem in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi was misalignment between skills development interventions, performance management and reward systems, which prompted some employees to avoid attending skills development programmes.

The concept of governance was discussed at length in chapter three and therefore needs to be factored into the conclusions. Governance is

generally associated with principles such as clean governance, accountability, responsibility, transparency and citizen participation. To some extent, Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi met some of these requirements, as illustrated by the involvement of all key stakeholders in the identification of training needs and the extension of skills development opportunities to citizens – for example, as part of skills development, programmes such as fire-fighting, sowing, HIV/AIDS awareness, small business management were provided to community members. Lesedi also had a dedicated computer and internet literacy programme for ordinary citizens. According to one respondent from this municipality, the aim of the computer literacy programme was to empower community members so that they could access municipal services through the Internet. To some extent, this shows that skills development was also used to improve service delivery in Sedibeng.

Having reflected on the relationship between the research findings and the theoretical and conceptual framework above, it may be helpful to consider the supply-side and demand-side constraints that hampered skills development in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi as derived from the data. Examples of supply-side constraints were shortage of funds and unsatisfactory programme management which was exemplified by fragmented M&E practices across the three local municipalities.

Demand-side constraints were largely attributed to staff attitudes and behaviours which were illustrated by factors such as demotivation, lack of interest in training, reluctance to talk about performance management issues, and failure to take responsibility for one's own development.

As with all qualitative studies, the analysis of findings usually culminates in the identification of specific themes and patterns relating directly to the research topic (Creswell, 1998; Mouton, 1998; Neuman, 2003). Based on

this principle, the following major themes were identified during the data analysis process in chapter six, and these are worth reflecting on here.

7.2.1 Organisational learning culture

Armstrong (2006) states that a learning culture is one that promotes learning because it is recognised by top management, line managers and employees generally as an essential organisational process to which they are committed and in which they engage continuously. With a visible learning culture, an organisation is in a strong position to benefit from skills transfer, where employees willingly and voluntarily apply acquired knowledge and skills back on their jobs without being directed. The research, however, indicates that skills transfer is not a simple and straightforward matter, mainly because there are transferable and non-transferable skills. The positive transfer of skills is the extent to which trainees apply the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained in the training offered to them previously.

7.2.2 Recruitment, selection and retention strategy

It appears that the missing link in the local municipality's recruitment and selection strategy is strategic human resource planning (SHRP) which is the process through which organisational goals as put forth in mission statements and plans are translated into HR objectives. SHRP helps to ensure that the organisation is neither overstaffed nor understaffed, and that employees with appropriate talents, skills and commitment are available to carry out their tasks in the right jobs at the right times.

Retention strategy is part of interdependent variables for capacity-building. The process focuses on several important issues pertaining to career management and succession planning, but even though training efforts were pursued at all levels of the organisation the outcomes were not

sustainable as there were no succession plans in place. It was revealed that in terms of the Municipal Systems Act (2000), incumbents (executive managers and political office bearers) are elected for a period of five years, after which new or old candidates are elected (or not) into office. The departure of highly experienced officials tends to leave a vacuum in the organisation's skills base, which in turn perpetuates the skills backlogs and triggers service delivery protests.

Much of this investment is lost to departments when such an individual leaves within a short period. Furthermore, it may take some time before the department is able to fill the vacant position. Such situations have a significant impact on the Public Service's ability to deliver on its mandate. Concerns about the high level of staff turnover in senior management and amongst professional staff informed a decision to conduct an investigation into the causes and effects of mobility amongst individuals who fill these positions, especially since it was recognised that a high staff turnover at these levels impacts negatively on a municipality's ability to deliver quality services.

Implementation of this framework will be based on sufficient consultation and elicitation of the views and inputs of all key stakeholders, namely leadership, management, staff, unions, and community representative structures. A consensus-based approach is consistent with the Constitution (1996), which encourages active community participation in service delivery programmes. In order for the case study organisation to build sufficient skills and retain highly experienced personnel, it needs to pay attention to issues of continuity, where highly skilled, inducted, developed and rewarded employees can be retained to ensure sustainability of operations and service delivery.

Therefore, by implementing this approach, the organisation will be investing in knowledge management. Knowledge management can play a

major role in preserving and enhancing organisational memory. Knowledge management is a process that helps organisations to find, select, organise, disseminate and transfer information and expertise necessary for their activities.

7.2.3 Strategic partnership and the institutionalisation of skills capacity-building

As reported in chapters five and six, one of the key strengths of the organisation's skills development programme is the highly visible commitment to employee consultation and involvement. Apart from encouraging employees to take full responsibility for their own development, this participative approach appears to boost ownership of the programme by stakeholders. The decision to outsource some skills development programmes (i.e. short courses) to accredited local universities and colleges is commendable, as it provides additional capacity which the municipality can use to accelerate skills building efforts at managerial, operational and community level. Having said that, it is equally important to note that some participants in Emfuleni were concerned about the fact that skills transfer was not happening in certain projects due to negligence by service providers, such as consultants involved in the construction of local public roads.

Furthermore, in terms of compliance with SAQA policies and regulations, the three local municipalities have done well in forming strategic partnerships with various reputable training institutions in Johannesburg to offer accredited training to their employees. At the time of conducting this investigation, Lesedi Local Municipality had already sent its employees to the University of the Witwatersrand for training in financial management, and Midvaal had partnered with the University of the North West and the University of Johannesburg to train its workforce. These initiatives are

commendable and raise expectations regarding the success of capacity-building in the area.

7.2.4 Omissions and misalignment with the municipal mandate

As indicated in chapter six, there were instances where training efforts were not properly aligned with the mandate of the Sedibeng District Municipality. This was explained by the absence of a skills planning strategy that shows how training is used to develop the core competencies and capabilities required to help the SDM achieve its goals. Respondents at Emfuleni reported that some of the training they received was too generic and did not address job requirements. Specifically, the importance of this variable is to highlight the need for linking skills capacity-building efforts with other critical organisational activities, such as the mission, vision and culture of the organisation and municipal mandate. This congruence is critical in ensuring that skills capacity-building efforts are factored into the strategic planning process and that they become everyone's business in the organisation. The alignment of roles and responsibilities must be standardised. Following is a brief discussion of organisational learning and how it relates to skills development.

7.3 LEARNING ORGANISATION

Although the initial theoretical framework was predominantly comprised of management theory, leadership and performance management theory, one crucial theoretical implication that has emerged from the data analysis process is learning theory. Below is a description of this theory and its relevance to the study.

Organisations are continuous learning systems, and organisational learning is the process of co-ordinated systems change, with mechanisms

for individuals and groups to access, build and use organisational memory, structure and culture to develop long-term organisational capacity.

A learning organisation is 'skilled at creating, acquiring, and transferring knowledge, and modifying its behaviour to reflect new knowledge and insights. They are able to adapt to their context and develop their people to match the organisation's delivery mandate. Although the initial assumption was that only skills development contributes to effective service delivery, the data showed that organisational learning, change management and motivation also play important roles in improving service delivery in local government institutions. As highlighted in chapter 6, one of the key findings revealed by the study was the continuous loss of skilled and experienced municipal leaders and managers due to the fixed tenure system applicable to local government agencies nationwide.

Aligned to this was the apparent lack of motivation to learn among some officials and lower level employees. This not only weakens the organisation's recruitment and talent retention efforts but also impedes organisational learning. The result of poor organisational learning is weak organisational memory, which impacts negatively on planning and delivery of services as employees struggle to find a frame of reference that they can use as a guide to achieve organisational goals.

7.3.1 Organisational memory model

Organisational memory refers to frames of meaning that are shared by an organisation's members. This memory emphasises the social nature of learning because it insists that understanding is shared. Individuals may have their own understanding about particular problems faced by an organisation, but these may not be shared by other members. A thread of coherence runs through organisational frames of meaning, and members regard them as the organisation's "world view". Sharing occurs through the

process of social interaction, wherein members communicate and behave interdependently.

New members learn shared meanings through the process of socialization. When shared by members, an organisation's institutional memory helps them to make sense of their experiences as employees. It explains what the organisation is, why the organisation does things, and what is expected of members. Members learn to share the same organisational identity, namely the mission, vision and core values of the organisation, and adopt the organisation's causal maps, which explain why actions are taken and why outcomes occur. They also learn to follow organisational routines, which are scripts for sequences of social action that are recalled from memory to guide behaviour in different situations.

7.4 STUDY IMPLICATIONS

As highlighted during the literature review process, current thinking in capacity-building tends to focus more on the generic approaches associated with institutional capacity-building and not much on skills development in local municipalities. As a result there is no adequate explanation of how the shortage of management, technical, human and conceptual skills influences the delivery of basic services in local municipalities. In addition, the current discourse on capacity-building does not provide a clear explanation regarding the vital link that is required between skills development, performance management, learning transfer, talent management and career management. It was this knowledge gap that informed this investigation. The research addresses this knowledge gap by attempting to show the strategic linkages between skills capacity-building and service delivery. It achieves this by highlighting the need for local municipalities to adopt strategic skills planning.

In conclusion although there had been significant progress made in the implementation of skills capacity-building initiatives in Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi, the scope, intensity and sustainability of these efforts varied markedly across the three local municipalities. Even though the researcher had assumed that skills capacity-building was the most important ingredient in service delivery on the basis of the literature, the findings of the study showed that training is not the only important variable needed to improve service delivery in local municipalities.

The commitment to supporting and improving service delivery was visibly strong in these municipalities, suggesting good prospects for improved delivery in future. This could be achieved by paying greater attention to, and including other crucial variables such as, alignment, recruitment, selection and placement of talent, retention strategies, performance management, career management, reward systems, communication systems, and employee welfare. These variables will boost the organisational memory for the sustainability of the Sedibeng District Municipality. On the basis of this evidence, it is the view of the researcher that learning provides the impetus for effective and sustainable organisational memory, which in turn plays a key role in facilitating strategic planning, skills formation, staff motivation, retention and service delivery. This learning emphasises the important consideration to locate the problematic of organisational memory towards possible improvement of service delivery where skills capacity and other related factors play a major role, as outlined above.

The contribution of this thesis to the body of knowledge is informed by the interface between learning and organisational memory, which can be achieved through proper implementation of skills development programmes at local government level. The following section tables recommendations on how to improve implementation of skills development programmes in municipalities.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The research findings, the theoretical framework and the data from SDM's three local municipalities has demonstrated that although progress has been made in promoting skills development, certain remedies are needed to improve the implementation of skills capacity-building programmes in the area. This requires a holistic approach that encompasses the strategic, institutional, programme and community levels. An overview of the envisaged remedies is presented below.

7.5.1 At the strategic level

At the higher level there is a need to firstly synchronise training efforts across the three local municipalities of Emfuleni, Midvaal and Lesedi. This can be achieved through such practices as information sharing and benchmarking. A key advantage of synchronising training efforts is that this will ensure consistency and uniformity of training outcomes across the organisation, which is the SDM.

A second and most important consideration at the strategic level is to consider domain experts and/or area experts to oversee the planning, execution and control of skills capacity-building initiatives in each of the areas, such as engineering, project management, adult basic education, and artisan courses for lower level employees.

7.5.2 At the organisational level

At the organisational level, two things should happen to improve delivery of skills programmes. First, there is a need to increase training capacity in order to meet the growing demand for technical skills across the SDM. As

discussed in chapter five, lack of technical skills impacts negatively on delivery of basic services.

Increased capacity can be achieved by allowing the three local municipalities to train and register their own skills development facilitators, assessors and moderators. This would enable them to increase training capacity and to reduce the costs of using external instructors and consultants.

Secondly, the positive relationship that exists between management and trade unions and communities operating in the municipal system can be leveraged to ensure that unions continuously support and contribute to skills capacity-building in all three local municipalities. For example, union officials can be trained to become facilitators and be deployed to train their own members.

7.5.3 At the programme level

At this level it will be imperative to improve training communications to ensure broad coverage; and to conduct proper market research in order to identify relevant SAQA unit standards. Planned and carried out properly, this may provide clear indications of career paths and relevant qualifications for staff in all three local municipalities.

Given the growing demands for high quality services and rapid technological change, it will be vital for SDM's three local municipalities to embrace benchmarking as a tool to facilitate collective learning and joint innovations, particularly in the area of skills development. For instance, Emfuleni and Midvaal could learn from Lesedi, which has done relatively well in building financial management skills in the area. At best, the key lessons derived from the benchmarking process can be used to enhance both form and content of skills programmes across the SDM.

Finally, it is important to align and integrate skills development efforts with career development, reward systems and performance management. Data from the three municipalities revealed that some employees no longer want to attend training due to the perceived gap between training and these human resource activities.

7.5.4. At the community level

The study also considered capacity-building efforts at community level, and it became clear is that gaps also existed in this area. In view of this, it is crucial to start by capacitating councillors and ward committees so that they form an important effective link between the municipality and local communities.

Preferably, capacity-building efforts at this level should be aimed at empowering these stakeholders with knowledge and skills in areas like public communications, political skills, negotiation skills, conflict management skills, anger management skills, planning skills and life skills
An all-encompassing capacity building model is required for Lesedi and Emfuleni communities which are still characterised by high levels of unemployment, poverty, HIV/AIDS prevalence and illiteracy. Recommended measures include literacy projects, computer skills, entrepreneurial education, and improved knowledge of IDP processes.

To facilitate implementation of these recommendations it will be necessary for the three local municipalities of SDM to convene a planning *Lekgotla* and increase their communities' participation according to their ward areas — instead of expecting the attendance of the whole inclusive community at once — where skills development priorities and remedial strategies will be discussed and agreed in accordance with service delivery needs.

7.6 FUTURE RESEARCH CONSIDERATIONS

The scope of this dissertation is limited, as attention was primarily focused on assessing state capacity in the provision of basic services using a case study method which has unavoidable limitations. Capacity-building is a complex concept with wide-ranging meanings and connotations. This research only considered the skills component of capacity-building. Other critical issues such as the process of allocation of resources, the alignment of skills with the municipal mandate, and the retention strategy particularly within the municipal context have not been thoroughly investigated. It is therefore conceded that future research may be required to look into the relationship of the aforementioned aspects and skills development in order to improve provision of basic services to local communities. A study of this nature would be of great value to policy makers and local municipalities not only in the Sedibeng District Municipality but in the country as a whole.

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ANNEXURES

INTERVIEW GUIDE

SECTION A: EXECUTIVE MANAGEMENT

1. What are your main goals on skills building in the municipality?

_____

2. Are there any specific skills building programmes covering human, conceptual and technical skills, Please explain based on the following categories

a. Political office bearers (Leaders)

_____

Managers

_____

Middle managers

_____

3. Does the municipality have the work place skills plan? Please explain

4. Are you satisfied with the current skills capacity? Give reasons.

_____

5. What are the most important skills that you need at each level of the organisation?

a. Senior level

_____

Middle level

_____

b. Lower level

_____

6. What specific steps are taken to implement the skills building programme in each of these three levels?

a) Leadership level (senior management)

_____

b) Management level

_____

Political level

_____

7. Does the culture of the municipality support human resource development? Give examples.

_____

8. Are skills building plans communicated to staff? Please explain

_____

9. Please explain the skills building process in your organisation in terms of the following activities:

a. Needs assessment

_____

b. Implementation process

_____

c. Monitoring and evaluation

_____

10. What methods are used to build skills capacity? Please explain with reference to the following:

a. On-the-job training methods (informal training methods)

_____

b. Off-the-job training methods (formal training)

_____

11. Who are the key role players, and what are their functions in the skills building process in the municipality? Please explain in terms of the following:

- Municipal Human Resource
- SALGA

a. Key role players

_____

b. Their functions

_____

12. Does the budget cater for skills building? Give examples.

_____

13. Are skills programmes linked to performance management and career planning activities? Please explain.

a. Link to performance management

_____

b. Link to career planning

_____

14. Have you met any challenges in skills building? Give 5 examples.

_____

15. What is the municipality doing to address these challenges?

_____

16. Are skills programmes quality-assured? Please explain.

_____

17. Has training helped you improve service delivery? Give examples.

_____

18. Do you train employees on customer service? Give examples.

_____

19. Are you making progress in skills building? Give examples.

_____

20. What is missing in the current skills building programme?

_____

21. What are your future plans on improving skills capacity?

_____

SECTION B: SENIOR MANAGEMENT

1 Have you been consulted about skills development opportunities?

_____

2 Have you received training in your department? Give examples.

_____

3 Have you been trained on customer service? Give examples.

What quality standards are you expected to meet in your job?

Does training meet your career goals? Give examples.

_____

Have you been appraised in your department? Please explain.

_____

4 Has appraisal helped you identify your skills needs? Give examples.

_____

5 Do you receive career guidance and counselling? Give examples.

_____

6 Has training helped you improve your performance? Give reasons.

_____

7 Are you satisfied with the quality of the training you have received in your department so far? Give reasons.

_____

8 Are there any challenges that you think block skills building in the municipality? Give 5 examples.

_____

9 In your opinion, what can be done to improve service delivery in this municipality? Give 3 suggestions.

_____

SECTION C: POLITICAL OFFICE BEARERS (WARD COUNCILLORS)

1. How long have you been serving in this municipality?

   _____

2. Are you still prepared to serve in this portfolio in future?

   _____

   __How would you describe the level of service delivery in your area?

   _____

3. How would you describe the municipality challenges or progress in terms of the following skills needs?

   a. Human Skills

   _____

   b. Technical skills

   _____

   c. Conceptual Skills

   _____

4. Do you play any role in the capacity building? Please explain?

   _____

5. Have you met any problems in capacity building? Please explain

_____

6. What is the municipality doing to address these challenges?

_____

7. What could be done to improve service delivery in your area?

_____

COVER LETTER

RESEARCH INFORMATION FOR PhD. DEGREE

Dear Sir/ Madam

I am currently conducting research into “State Capacity in the provision of services in Sedibeng Municipality” as part of my PhD studies at the University of Witwatersrand.

To this end I kindly request that you complete the following questions. The completion of these questions should not take more than 30 minutes of your time. Your response is of utmost importance to me.

As I may need to clarify some of your answers to the questions, I will appreciate it if you will be so kind as to enter your name and contact details in the space provided. Your cooperation in this regard is however voluntary. All information and personal details will be treated as confidential.

Should you have any queries or comments regarding these interview questions, you are welcome to contact me personally at 083 259 0668. Alternatively, you can e- mail me at lekampho@yahoo.com

Yours Sincerely

Innocentia Marule

Wits student