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Using organisational culture to derive performance improvement model for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

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WITS Graduate School of Governance

Thesis presented in partial fulfilment for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Management (in the field of Public Sector Monitoring and Evaluation) to the Faculty of Commerce, Law, and Management, University of the Witwatersrand

March 2023

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis titled 'Using organisational culture to derive a performance improvement model for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality' is my own, unaided work. I have acknowledged and referenced all sources that I have used and quoted. I hereby submit it in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the School of Governance, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg. I have not submitted this report before for any other degree or examination to any other institution.



Basia Dennis Bless

Johannesburg, 2023

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Finally, I am grateful to the Government of Lesotho for its generous financial support that made this study possible.

DEDICATION

This piece of work is dedicated to the departed souls that would have rejoiced at its completion. My father, Tubeho Tenson Bless whose spirit continues to be a source of inspiration and strength.

My uncle Dr. Qhobela Kitch Semuli for your support and encouragement. This work would have benefitted immensely from your expert language editing. Unfortunately, you did not live to see the product you had been eagerly waiting for.

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Table of Contents

DECLARATION i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ii
DEDICATION iii
CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY 1
1.1. Background 4
1.2. Research problem statement 6
1.3. The research purpose statement 7
1.4. The research questions 8
1.4.1. What factors enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality? 8
1.4.2. How does organisational culture affect performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality? 8
1.4.3. What strategies are relevant for augmenting the current organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality? 8
1.4.4. What empirical and theoretical values and assumptions are relevant for deriving a model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality? 8
1.5. Delimitations of the study 8
1.6. Research justification 9
1.7. Preface 10
CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW TO DERIVE A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK 21
2.1. The research context analysis 22
2.2. The research problem analysis 25
2.3. Methods, data, findings, and conclusions of studies on performance management 28
2.4. Introduction to management and its components 36
2.4.1. New public management in the United Kingdom 39
2.4.2. New public management in Australia 41
2.4.3. New public management in New Zealand 44
2.4.4. New public management in South Africa 47
2.4.5. Key limitations of New Public Management in South Africa 52
2.5. Key attributes of performance management 54
2.5.1. Performance planning 54
2.5.2. Performance measurement 55
2.5.3. Monitoring and Evaluation 56
2.5.4. Performance improvement 58
2.6. Theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical results 59

2.6.1. Public choice 60
2.6.2. Transaction cost theory 61
2.6.3. Principal-agent theory 62
2.6.4. Politics-administration dichotomy 65
2.6.5. Scientific management 66
2.6.6. Bureaucracy 69
2.6.7. New Public Management 71
2.6.8. Organisational culture 73
2.6.9. Leadership 75
2.7. A conceptual framework for deriving performance improvement model for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality 80
CHAPTER 3 - RESEARCH STRATEGY, DESIGN, PROCEDURE AND METHODS 86
3.1. Research paradigm 86
3.1.1. Research strategy 88
3.1.2. Research design 90
3.2. Procedures for selecting research participants 95
3.2.1. Description of the research participants 95
3.2.2. Purposive sampling 95
3.2.3. Sample size 98
3.2.4. Research data and information collection instrument 99
3.3. Methods for collecting research data and information 102
3.3.1. In-depth interviews 102
3.3.2. Field notes 103
3.3.3. Document analysis 105
3.4. Methods, processes and procedures for data processing and analysis 107
3.4.1. Coding, constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling 108
3.4.2. Ethical considerations when collecting research data 111
3.4.3. Research strengths – Credibility and trustworthy 112
3.4.4. Research weaknesses – technical and administrative limitation 112
CHAPTER 4 - FACTORS THAT ENHANCE OR IMPEDE PERFORMANCE IN TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY 114
4.1. Presentation of empirical research results 114
4.1.1. Adequate performance management regime 114
4.1.2. Political interference 115
4.1.3. Lack of human and financial resources 116

4.1.4. Lack of a common vision 117
4.1.5. Inadequate use of information for decision-making 118
4.2. Answering the main research question 119
4.3. Comparing the empirical research results with similar studies 123
4.4. Discussion of the research findings 126
4.5. Conclusion 136
CHAPTER 5 - MECHANISMS THROUGH WHICH ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AFFECTS PERFOMANCE IN TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY 138
5.1. Presentation of empirical research results 138
4.5.1. Cadre deployment 138
4.5.2. Employee motivation 140
4.5.3. Lack of accountability 140
4.5.4. Lack of trust 142
5.2. Answering the main research question 143
5.3. Comparing the empirical results with similar studies 147
5.4. Discussion of the research findings 151
5.5. Conclusion 159
CHAPTER 6 - STRATEGIES FOR AUGMENTING BUREAUCRACY IN TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY 161
6.1. Presentation of empirical research results 161
6.1.1. Leadership 162
6.1.2. Creating shared values 163
6.1.3. Open and inclusive communication 164
6.1.4. Improving trust and motivation 165
6.1.5. Capacity building 167
6.1.6. Improving accountability 168
6.2. Answering the main research question 169
6.3. Comparing the empirical results with similar studies 173
6.4. Discussion of the research findings 175
6.5. Conclusion 181
CHAPTER 7 - TOWARDS A MODEL FOR IMPROVING PERFORMANCE IN TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY 183
7.1. Theoretical perspectives on organisational culture 184
7.1.1. Frameworks and models for analysing organisation culture 185
7.1.2. Theoretical and empirical attributes underpinning organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality 203

7.1.3. Politicised bureaucracy 204
7.2. The proposed model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality 210
7.2.1. The role of leadership in augmenting organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality 211
7.2.2. Key components of the proposed performance improvement model 216
7.2.3. Mechanisms through which the proposed model may improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality 219
7.3. Conclusion 224
CHAPTER 8 - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 229
8.1. Research conceptualisation 229
8.2. The conceptual framework 232
8.3. The research strategy, design, procedures, methods and tools for data collection, analysis, and interpretation 237
8.4. The empirical findings 241
8.5. Contribution to knowledge 253
8.6. Recommendation for future research 253
REFERENCES 254

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Following years of oppression, racial inequalities, and conflict, South Africa attained democracy in 1994 when the African National Congress (ANC) - a political party that had been the face of liberation struggle - assumed power. To address the legacy of racial inequalities inherited from the apartheid regime, the ANC introduced a range of service delivery reforms commonly known as New Public Management (NPM). The theoretical basis for NPM is that use of private sector management techniques is a solution to performance challenges facing public institutions. To this end, Hood (1991) suggests a range of interventions derived from privatisation on one hand, and managerialism on the other. Judging by its title, this study is located within the performance management field. As a result, it adopts managerialims, which according to several authors (Halligan, 2003; Paterson, 1990; Potter, 2002), was successfully implemented in Australia. The author attributes this success to the ability of Australia to transform its public administration culture. For example, public officials were renamed managers or executives instead of administrators and their functions were reconfigured from administration to management (Parker & Nethercote, 1996). In addition, an effective performance management system made public managers more accountable, efficient, and effective in discharging their service functions (Chowdhury & Shil, 2017). As a result of these changes, the Australian public sector moved from ethos of public sector administration to public sector management (Parker & Guthrie, 1993). As several authors (Bradley & Parker, 2006; Halligan, 2003; Paterson, 1990; Potter, 2002) point out, the adoption of public management principles was characterised by a shift from a traditional bureaucratic, inputs and process-oriented administration to results-oriented and accountable administration that promotes a culture of performance. What makes Australia standout is that the culture of performance was infused within local councils (Harrison & Baird, 2015) thereby making its people enjoy improved service delivery.

Inspired by the Australian success, the ANC led government adopted NPM principles with the view to transform the apartheid bureaucracy and promote a culture of performance (Cameron, 2009). However, three decades after, service delivery remains a problem across South African Municipalities. The extent of this problem is displayed through the wave of service delivery protests that have engulfed the entire municipal landscape. These protests started in 2004 (Roux & Nyamukachi, 2005) but have since escalated to a point that Alexander (2010) describes them as the rebellion of the poor. This study concurs with Gumede (2015) that the increasing wave of service delivery protests indicate the failure of NPM in transforming the administrative culture of South African Municipalities. Elaborating on this point, the author maintains that the failure of NPM as a performance improvement strategy is entrenched in its theoretical design, which as stated in Hood (1991), does not recognise organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute.

Several scholars have investigated issues related to poor service delivery in different municipalities in South Africa. Specifically, most point to corruption, nepotism, political interference, lack of skills, and inadequate financial resources as main causes of poor performance in South African municipalities (Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Mamokhere, 202; Mathebula, 2019; Mello, 2018; Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016). Without negating these contributions, the author argues that available research identifies consequences not the root cause of the failure of NPM in transforming the administrative culture of South African Municipalities. This means that South African scholars are yet to pay attention to the question of how administrative culture promotes or impedes performance in the context of South African municipalities. Although some have attempted to answer this question (Gumede, 2015; Gasela, 2022; Kokt & Van der Merwe, 2009; Naidoo & Martins, 2014), their attempt is inadequate for two main reasons. First, all the empirical articles that the author managed to get access to, applied quantitative techniques. Second, most focused on private sector and a few that considered public institutions limited their attention to State Owned Enterprises (SOEs) (Gasela, 2022) and District Municipalities (Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2013). Therefore, there is dearth of qualitative research on how organisational culture affects performance in the context of South African Metropolitan Municipalities. Thus, the study adopts constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling, which according to Flick (2019), are required for successful implementation of grounded theory.

The author aligns with the view that constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling are critical for successful undertaking of grounded theory. However, most South African scholars who have applied qualitative research strategy to investigate performance management issues in South African public institutions have not applied these techniques (Cronin & Sadan, 2015; Masiya, Davids, & Mangai, 2021; Mlambo, Zubane, & Thusi, 2022; Mngomezulu, 2020; Ndevu, 2019). The few who have, such as Pretorius and Schurink (2007), do not provide adequate details on how these techniques have been used in their studies. Therefore, the contribution of this study lies in its desire to demonstrate the significance of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling in deriving an empirical model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As noted earlier, these techniques are commonly used in grounded theory research. After careful analysis of different brands of grounded theory, the author settled for a combination of (Charmaz, 2006) and Strauss (1987) who advocate for a constructivist approach to grounded theory. The choice of constructivism emanates from the author's desire to generate a pattern of meaning derived from the experiences of research participants on factors that affect performance in their Municipality. Generating a pattern of meaning requires an intensive and iterative process of comparing data with data, data with codes, and codes with codes (Thornberg, Halldin, & Petersson, 2013). This process allowed the author to stay as close to the data as possible, thereby facilitating development of

empirical explanations embedded in the data.

Ultimately, constant comparison of different data properties enabled this study to achieve its research objectives. The first objective is to establish factors that enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Answers to this question were generated through constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling. The former involved an iterative analysis of similarities and differences between emerging data properties and how they relate to the literature. This comparison yielded more data properties that enabled the author to achieve the second objective of defining the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To this end, the study revealed that the Municipality has a culture of politicised bureaucracy characterised by lack of accountability, mistrust, and lack of employee motivation. Using the same strategy of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling, the author investigated the emerging cultural attributes further. This investigation revealed an intricate web of politics-administration interface as the underlying cause of the politicised bureaucratic culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the study argues that this culture leads to poor performance displayed through a wave of violent service delivery protests that have become a common phenomenon across the South African municipal landscape. To address this problem, the study offers a model that outlines theoretical and empirical strategies appropriate for improving performance in the Municipality. Drawn from different cultural theories, this model positions leadership as the key strategy for addressing politicised bureaucracy.

There are two ways in which the achievement of the objectives mentioned above contributes knowledge in the field of public management. First, the construction of a performance improvement model discussed in chapter 7 introduces a different perspective that puts organisational culture as the centre of performance improvement efforts. As noted in subsequent Sections, South African scholars are yet to embrace this perspective. Second, the use of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling addresses methodological limitations observed in previous studies that have used grounded theory to investigate performance management issues in South African Municipalities. The process of advancing knowledge on how to address poor municipal performance in South Africa was guided by a conceptual framework anchored on intensive and systematic literature review. The first part of the conceptual framework highlights the role of literature review in conceptualising the research problem statement (Section 1.2.), the research purpose statement (Section 1.3), as well as the research questions (Section 1.4). The second part deals with research undertaking. Specifically, this part shows how the author used the literature review as a technique for deriving a theoretical framework (Section 2.6) and selecting the research strategy, design, procedures, and methods detailed in chapter three.

1.1. Background

This study uses organisational culture to derive a performance improvement model for use in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. A specific focus on performance improvement makes Management the most suitable academic home for this study. Therefore, setting a good background for this study requires understanding the notion of performance in the context of management studies. As used in this study, performance is a concept that allows the author to determine the success or failure of a particular Municipality in discharging its service delivery mandate. Literature identifies efficiency and effectiveness as key attributes indicators of performance. For example, efficiency measures resources used in the production of outputs while effectiveness measures whether outputs deliver expected objectives (Cordero, 1990). This description shows that efficiency is best used in the field of economics, which is concerned with allocation and use of resources. This means that efficiency falls outside the parameters of management as the academic home encompassing this research. For this reason, the study adopts effectiveness as an indicator to measure municipal performance.

Mofolo (2012) identifies four components of municipal performance, namely planning, monitoring, review, and improvement as key components of performance. Out of these components, the study focuses on performance improvement. This decision is informed by Mofolo's (2012) argument that performance improvement is a task that requires an objective analysis and measurement of outcomes. For this study, performance improvement requires an objective analysis of the service delivery outcomes contained in the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) as the framework for planning, monitoring, and evaluation of service delivery interventions in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The decision is also informed by the author's argument that the notion of performance improvement originates from Taylor's (1911) principles of scientific management. Particularly, the principle of objective-based measurement gave impetus to the use of scientific methods to evaluate the success of education programmes in the United States in the 1960s. This era is characterised by heavy reliance on traditional quantitative approaches to performance measurement. These measurements were based on accounting and relied on financial data to measure performance in terms of productivity and return on investment (Ghalayini & Noble, 1996).

The main limitation of traditional performance measures is that they use profit and costs as performance indicators. As Globerson (1985) and Ghalayini and Noble (1996) point out, profits and costs do not identify specific areas that need improvement. For this reason, Kaplan (1990) describes traditional performance measurements as harmful tools that should be eliminated. This fierce criticism marked the emergence of a new era in performance measurement in the 1980s. This era was characterised by several instruments and frameworks that integrate financial and non-financial indicators to measure performance. The Balanced Score Card (SBC) emerged as the

most popular instrument of this era (Sharma & Sharma, 2021). Developed by Kaplan and Norton (1992), the Balanced Score Card measures performance in terms of four critical dimensions, namely customer focus, internal processes, innovation, and learning, as well as financial performance.

At the time that business was using traditional mechanisms for measuring performance, thepublic sector had its own set of administrative tools and mechanisms. Commonly known as traditional public administration (Gruening, 2001), these mechanisms were derived from Weber's (1947) theory of bureaucracy. Van Riper (1987) and other critiques of bureaucracy associate traditional public administration with corruption, incompetence, and inefficiency. As several authors point out, these characteristics continue to define the administrative culture of South African Municipalities (Malefane, 2010; Makole, 2022; Mngomezulu, 2020; Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016). Therefore, this study argues that political bureaucracy is the root cause of poor municipal performance in South Africa.

Inefficiencies of bureaucracy led to the emergence of New Public Management (NPM). Coined by Hood (1991), NPM regards public performance as a function of applying private sector management techniques and principles in public institutions. Wegrich (2009) considers Australia, New Zealand, and United Kingdom as best practice countries for implementation of NPM, and literature identifies several factors behind its successful implementation in these countries. However, the most significant determinant of NPM relevant for this study is the ability to transform the culture of public institutions. As Bradley and Parker (2006) point out, this is what led to successful implementation of NPM in Australia and New Zealand. Inspired by these countries, South Africa adopted a similar approach which according to Gumede (2015), was intended to dismantle the apartheid bureaucracy and improve delivery of municipal services. Judging by the increasing wave of service delivery protests across the South African municipal landscape, this study argues that New Public Management has failed to improve the performance of South African Municipalities. Gumede (2015) attributes this failure to the inability of public sector reforms in transforming the administrative culture of the public service at large. Therefore, this study explores the role of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute in the context of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

1.2. Research problem statement

When the African National Congress (ANC) came to power at the dawn of democracy in 1994, it introduced New Public Management (NPM) as a strategy for improving performance in South African municipalities. Thirty years later, poor performance remains a serious problem as evidenced by the surge in service delivery protests. The gravity of these protests has generated a considerable research interest amongst South African scholars. Generally, researchers identify corruption, political interference, nepotism, and lack of skills as common causes of poor municipal performance (Dlamini & Migiro, 2016; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Malefane, 2010; Masiya, Davids & Mangai, 2021; Mello, 2018). Added to this list is poor use of evidence owing to the fragmentation of the South African monitoring and evaluation system (Cloete, 2009; Kanyane, 2014). These authors offer valuable information on key dimensions of poor performance in South African Municipalities. However, they mainly focus on the consequences of poor performance, not its root cause. To this end, the author points to Gumede (2015) who attributes poor municipal performance to the failure of NPM in transforming the administrative culture of South African Municipalities.

International evidence shows that successful implementation of NPM requires concerted effort to transform administrative culture of public institutions (Bradley & Parker, 2001; Chowdhury & Shil, 2021; Halligan, 2003; Harrison & Baird,2015). However, South African scholars are yet to embrace the significance of organisational culture in enhancing municipal performance. For example, the search of major academic databases such as Scopus, JSTOR, and Google Scholar revealed very few studies that have explored the relationship between organisational culture and performance in the South Africa (Gasela, 2022; Kokt & Van der Merwe, 2009; Naido & Martins, 2014; Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2013). Mostly, these studies focus on private companies and applied quantitative research strategies. Therefore, there is a need for more qualitative studies to explore how this phenomenon plays out in the public sector.

In response to this need, the study applies constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling to answer the question of how organisational culture enhances or impedes performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Even though constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling are fundamental to successful implementation of grounded theory research (Flick, 2019), they have not been adequately used in previous studies. For example, in a study on trust and organisational performance in South African Municipalities, Ndevu (2019) created categories from the data collected through content analysis but fail to explain how theoretical sampling enhanced data collection and analysis. In another study on enhancing service delivery in a particular Municipality in South Africa, Pretorius and Schurink (2007) used Strauss and Corbin's (1990) coding techniques but do not explain the value of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling in facilitating the

generation of service delivery improvement model proposed in their study. Therefore, the contribution of this study rests on its demonstration of the significance of constant comparative analysis and theoretical in deriving performance improvement model for the City of Tshwane. By so doing, it offers important insights that may improve methodological limitations observed in previous studies that have investigated performance issues in South African Municipalities. Most importantly, the study provides a new perspective on the role of leadership is shaping a culture of performance in the City of Tshwane.

1.3. The research purpose statement

The overall purpose of this study is to add new perspective on the role of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute in South African municipal landscape. In pursuit of this, the study applies grounded theory techniques to derive an empirical model that may be used to improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The journey towards realising this goal is guided by the Wotela's (2017) six steps towards of reviewing literature to derive a conceptual framework. Therefore, in deriving the conceptual framework for this study, the author interrogated literature to understand the research problem, establish the research knowledge gap, and formulate the research question. As Wotela (2017) points out, these are critical for research conceptualisation. Moving from research conceptualisation to research implementation, the author embarked on further literature review to derive a theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical results. Armed with the appropriate theoretical framework, the author interrogated literature to justify the selection of grounded theory as the most appropriate research approach.

To understand the research problem within its context, which in this case is Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author used problem tree analysis. This approach allowed the author to understand key dimensions of poor municipal performance. Second, the author established the knowledge gap by interrogating literature on the research strategies, designs, procedures, methods, and tools used in past and current studies that investigated performance in South African municipalities. This interrogation revealed a plethora of qualitative research on municipal performance (Malefane, 2010; Mathebula, 2018; Masiya, Davids, & Manga, 2021; Mello, 2018; Mofolo, 2012; Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2016; Ndasana & Umejesi, 2022). These studies contribute useful knowledge on consequences of poor municipal performance in South African Municipalities. However, most have not applied grounded theory and the few that did (Ndevu, 2015; Pretorius & Schurink, 2007), are oblivious of the significance of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling. This limitation has created a shortage empirically grounded solutions for improving performance in South African Municipalities. Therefore, this study aims to address this limitation through a set of research questions presented in the next Section.

1.4. The research questions

For a long time, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has failed to achieve its strategic objectives (Booysen, 2021). The following questions serve as a guide towards establishing performance impediments in the Municipality.

1.4.1. What factors enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?

1.4.2. How does organisational culture affect performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?

1.4.3. What strategies are relevant for augmenting the current organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?

1.4.4. What empirical and theoretical values and assumptions are relevant for deriving a model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?

1.5. Delimitations of the study

Even though research limitations and research delimitations are two different concepts, most scholars used them interchangeably. To avoid this confusion, the author describes research limitations as weaknesses inherent in a study. According to Creswell (2005), these weaknesses emanate from factors outside the control of the researcher. On the contrary, research delimitations describe what the researcher has decided not to do (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Therefore, this Section outlines important constructs that the author excluded from this study.

Different fields of study use different indicators to measure performance, but management scholars primarily use efficiency and effectiveness (Cordero, 1990). After the review of management literature, the author observed that economists use efficiency as a quantitative indicator to measure social policy outcomes against resources allocated to production of those outcomes. In view of this, this study deliberately excluded efficiency because its quantitative nature does not align with the ontological and epistemological convictions of the researcher. In addition, efficiency derives its theoretical origins from institutional economics (Gruening, 2001) not management, which is the field of study underlying this research.

Another important tool for performance management that emerged during the literature review is the Balanced Score Card (BSC). This tool is largely used to measure performance against financial and non-financial indicators in South African Municipalities. As mentioned before, this tool consists of four components (customer focus, internal processes, innovation and learning, financial performance). The author concurs with Kaplan and Norton (1992) that financial indicators alone are not sufficient to measure performance. Therefore, financial aspects were excluded, and the study focused on how internal processes in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality influence its

administrative culture. The author recognises that New Public Management, which provides the theoretical basis for this study, advocates for a customer-oriented approach in service delivery. However, the author did not have adequate resources to investigate the role of stakeholders in the service delivery chain.

1.6. Research justification

Research justification is a task that requires researchers to clearly indicate how the study contributes to existing knowledge in the area under investigation (Akanle & Shittu, 2020). Based on the research gaps identified in the research problem statement, this Section outlines several ways in which this study contributes to the existing body of knowledge in the field of public management in South Africa. First, the problem statement shows that most South African scholars have not adequately analysed the root cause of poor municipal performance. To this end, the study brings a new dimension that attributes this problem to the entrenched culture of politicised bureaucracy across to the South African municipal landscape.

Second, the study argues that New Public Management as a performance improvement strategy advanced by the South African government, is not conceptually cognisant of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute. This argument is a contribution to the ongoing debate on implementation of New Public Management in South African public institutions. In addition, Section 1.2 points to the dearth of grounded theory research on municipal performance in South Africa. For this reason, the paper demonstrates the value of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling in data collection and analysis. By so doing, the study contributes important knowledge that may improve methodological weaknesses observed in previous grounded theory studies.

Last, the study proposes a model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This model underscores the importance of leadership in transforming the culture of non-performance underpinned by political interference. Drawing from different theories, the model challenges the dominant view that values and principles underlying organisational culture are distinct and competing (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Instead, the model highlights the new perspective showing the complementarity of these values in addressing unique performance issues in South African Municipalities. In sum, the study contributes new knowledge that advances the debate on the significance of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute. Further, it addresses methodological weaknesses of past studies and offers an empirical solution that may effectively address poor municipal performance in South Africa.

1.7. Preface

This study consists of eight chapters the first of which introduces key elements underlying its conceptualisation. For this study, research conceptualisation began with the formulation of the research title. As reflected in the research title, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality represents the physical research setting. In addition, the title shows the researcher's intention of using grounded theory as the research design. Last, the title indicates a desire to develop an empirical solution to the problem of poor municipal performance. This means that the research title is the most important aspect of this study because it gives a hint of critical elements of the conceptual framework that informs this study. The first element of research conceptualisation encapsulated in the research title and presented in chapter one, is the research problem statement (Section 1.2). As discussed therein, this study is premised on the argument that introduction of New Public Management has failed to improve performance in South African Municipalities. This argument is backed by the increasing wave of service delivery protests, which the researcher describes as symptoms of poor municipal performance. In addition, the problem statement points to inadequate analysis of the root cause of poor municipal performance.

Another important issue discussed in Section 1.2 is the recognition of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute in countries such as Australia and New Zealand. This discussion is important because it highlights the problems arising from inadequate recognition of the same in South Africa. One such problem is the dearth of knowledge on how organisational culture affects performance in the context of South African municipalities. This calls for more research explore this topic in-depth. Therefore, specific questions to explore the question of how organisational culture affects performance are detailed in Section 1.4. The first question seeks to understand factors that enhance or impede Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The purpose of this question is to dig beyond the surface to identify the root cause of poor municipal performance in South Africa. The second question intends to understand elements that shape organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Understanding these elements is critical for determining empirical strategies for constructing a model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Collectively, these questions set the tone for moving this study from conceptualisation to empirical undertaking.

In sum, chapter one introduces key aspects that define how this study was conceptualised. For instance, it introduces the research problem statement (Section 1.2) and defines the research purpose (Section 1.3) and the research questions (Section 1.4). It is important to note that Section 1.2 also provides a hint on the research knowledge gap and the research strategy. All the aspects mentioned in the introductory chapter are detailed in chapter two. Generally, known as the Literature Review, the purpose of chapter two is to outline the conceptual

framework. Borrowing from Wotela (2017) and Bless (2020), the conceptual framework presented in chapter two consists of six components, the first of which is the analysis of the research context. To undertake this task, the researcher interrogated literature to understand socio-economic, administrative, and political factors that inhibit performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Administratively, Tshwane became a Metropolitan Municipality in 2000 following a merger of several neighbouring municipalities. In addition to making Tshwane the largest municipality in South Africa, the merger increased demand for services and stretched the financial resources beyond limits. As a result, the municipality is unable to fulfil its service delivery obligations. Political instability is another critical factor that impedes service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, Ramokgopa (2018) argues that political instability has collapsed service delivery in the Municipality. The collapse of service delivery in the Municipality bears testimony to the failure of public management reforms in eradicating the legacy of inequitable service delivery of the apartheid regime. The importance of the context analysis (Section 2.1) is that it provides context to the research problem. For example, this Section presents the socio-economic and political profile of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as the research setting. In addition, it outlines contextual factors that give rise to poor performance which is displayed through service delivery. In this regard, the Section sets the tone for the discussion of the research problem statement.

Section 2.2 is the product of interrogating the literature to understand the notion of poor performance as the research problem underpinning this study. Specifically, this Section provides an overview of performance as a concept. This discussion sets the conceptual parameters by defining what performance means in this study. It also explains why effectiveness is used as an indicator for measuring the extent to which Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality fulfils its service delivery mandate. In this regard, Section 2.2 outlines several performance impediments and applies the problem tree analysis approach to classify. For example, the Section identifies the escalating service delivery protests as a symptom of poor municipal performance and attributes a range of factors such as corruption, lack of accountability, nepotism, political interference, inadequate use of evidence in decision-making and many more, as consequences of this phenomenon. The main argument advanced in this Section is several studies including Abrahams (2015) and Ndevu (2019) have not adequately diagnosed the root cause of poor performance. Therefore, the researcher maintains that poor municipal performance originates from the underlying problem of the failure of public sector reforms in transforming the administrative culture of the South African public service. This argument paves the way for the establishment of the research knowledge gap, which is the third component of the conceptual framework that informs this study.

In establishing the research knowledge gap, the author interrogated empirical literature on past and current empirical studies on performance of public institutions in South Africa and other countries. The purpose of this interrogation was to understand the strengths and weaknesses of

research strategies, designs, procedures, and methods used in these studies. This interrogation revealed that international and local researchers mostly use quantitative research approaches to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance in public institutions. This means that there is a need for more qualitative research on this issue. In response to this need, Ndevu (2019) as well as Pretorius and Schurink (2007) applied the grounded theory to investigate performance issues in different municipalities. However, these studies are silent on how they used constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling to generate empirical explanations from the data. As a result, the studies do not provide effective empirical solutions to the problem of poor municipal performance. Therefore, this study aims to close this gap by demonstrating the effectiveness of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling in generating an empirical solution in this regard.

After establishing the research knowledge gap, the author interrogated literature to understand the field of management as an academic home encompassing this study. This understanding allowed the researcher to identify attributes for data collection and derive a theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical results. To determine these attributes, the researcher interrogated key aspects of performance management in the context of Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom. To this end, organisational culture emerged as an important attribute for successful implementation of performance management interventions in Australia and New Zealand. Therefore, Section 2.5 explains how several components of New Public Management, namely planning, monitoring, evaluation, and performance improvement provided the structure for the semi-structured interview used to obtain in-depth information from the research participants. Further interrogation of management revealed political bureaucracy as the root cause of performance challenges facing South African municipalities in general (Makole, 2022; Shava & Chamisa, 2018). This revelation allowed the researcher to derive a theoretical framework anchored on bureaucracy and politics-administration dichotomy.

As mentioned earlier, this study attributes performance challenges in South African Municipalities to the failure of the South African government in transforming the culture of these entities. For this reason, the researcher added organisational culture as an important aspect of the theoretical framework used for interpreting the empirical results of this study. Specifically, bureaucracy and politics-administration dichotomy are relevant for explaining the problem of political-administration interface. In addition, different theories of organisational culture are important for understanding key attributes that shape attitudes, norms, values, and assumptions that influence performance behaviour. Last, the theoretical framework includes New Public Management as a cornerstone for understanding factors that affect effective implementation of performance management interventions. After identifying the research attributes and concepts that

constitute the conceptual framework, chapter two concludes with a graphical summary of the six components of the conceptual framework. This summary outlines steps that the author embarked on in conceptualising and implementing this study.

After discussing the conceptual framework that guides the conceptualisation and the empirical undertaking of this study, the focus shifted to chapter three. This chapter presents the research strategy, design, procedures, methods, and tools for data collection. In terms of the research strategy, Section 3.1 provides a detailed account of ontological and epistemological beliefs and principles that guide the empirical aspects of research studies. After discussing different research paradigms, the researcher settled for constructivism. As Guba and Lincoln (1994) point out, the purpose of this paradigm is to understand the subjective world of human experience. This ontological posture is consistent with the researcher's convictions regarding the construction of social reality from the experiences of individuals. In addition, the epistemological beliefs of constructivism are consistent with the research questions stipulated in Section 1.4. For example, these questions allowed the researcher to derive empirical meaning from the data extracted directly from the research participants. The ontological and epistemological principles and values underpinning constructivist paradigm landed this study within the methodological realm of qualitative research. Out of several qualitative research designs available, the author picked grounded theory. In selecting this design, the researcher was motivated by a desire to contribute to demonstrate the relevance of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling in generating empirically grounded explanations on the relationship between organisational culture and performance in South African Municipalities. In addition, the author was motivated by a desire to address a shortage of grounded theory studies in the field of performance management in South Africa.

During the interrogation of the literature, the author came across various brands of grounded theory. Out of these, the author chose the constructivist grounded theory initiated by Strauss (1987) and advanced by Charmaz (2000). This brand acknowledges a strong interrelationship between the researcher and the participants. Although this study applied the constructivist approach to grounded theory, it relied on constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling, which characterise the classical grounded theory. These techniques allowed the researcher to undertake simultaneous data collection and analysis thereby enhancing the effectiveness of grounded theory. In preparation for data collection, the author used purposive sampling to select a group of 30 employees from a staff list that was used as a sample frame. Although there is no consensus on acceptable sample size for grounded theory studies, most studies argue that a sample of 20 to 30 participants is adequate (Aldiabat & Navenec, 2018; Creswell, 2013; Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013). However, Thomson (2010) argues that grounded theory studies reach saturation around the 10th interview. Thus, the proposed sample of 30 falls within acceptable threshold for qualitative research.

Snedecor (1939) argues that researchers need to prepare before undertaking sampling. Therefore, the author embarked on three critical steps to prepare for the empirical undertaking of this study. The first involved obtaining ethical clearance from the University and using it to get access to the research setting. Second, the researcher obtained a staff list which was used as a sampling frame. In addition, Tongco (2007) argues that researchers should set criteria for participation, which in this case was the perceived ability to answer the research questions. The staff list included information on the functional positions of the research participants, and this enabled the author to determine the ability of the participants in answering the research questions. The third step involved the actual selection of the participants using the staff list as a sampling frame. Thereafter, individuals identified from the staff list were contacted using telephones and emails. The greatest limitation was that a significant number of identified individuals did not respond. A few who did that agreed to participate were mostly senior management. To identify more participants, the researcher used snowballing. Noy (2008) argues that snowballing is used in situations where other means of obtaining information are not feasible as was the case in this study. At each stage of the data collection, the researcher employed constant comparative analysis to construct preliminary meanings from the data. After establishing the data properties, the author conducted theoretical sampling to identify more respondents to provide insights on the newly established data properties. The downside of this approach is that it was too time consuming.

With a sampling procedure and sample size determined, the author proceeded to collect data. Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) argues that methodological implications of paradigm choice permeate the research questions, participants' selection, data collection instruments and collection procedures, as well as data analysis. Therefore, constructivist paradigm informed the author's choice of semi-structured interview guide as the appropriate tool for collecting data. In addition, the attributes outlined in Section 2.5 provided content and structure of the data collection instrument. Turner (1981) argues that grounded theory studies use semi-structured or unstructured interviews or documentary sources to collect data. In the case of secondary data, this study used a document analysis matrix structured along theoretical themes derived from the research questions.

After developing the data collection instrument, the author used in-depth interviews and field notes to collect empirical data. Specifically, the in-depth interview was used for its ability to generate rich data on the experiences of research subjects. Using Kvale's (1996) metaphor of researcher as a miner and knowledge as a buried metal, the in-depth interviews allowed the researcher to dig deep to obtain deep insights on key determinants of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Despite these benefits, in-depth interviews are often criticised for lack of objectivity. To address this weakness, the researcher adopted Morse's (2015) strategy of using field notes and document analysis to enhance the credibility and trustworthiness of this method. Field notes are more useful when used as soon as issues worthy

of noting occur (Mulhall, 2003). For this reason, the researcher began recording field observations during the first interview. At this level, the author made notes on how long it took the officials to respond to requests. Based on these notes, the author formulated preliminary ideas that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality had a negative attitude towards outsiders. This opinion was derived from an observation that a significant number of potential respondents ignored email requests for participation in this study. In line with the key tenets of constructivism, this observation influenced the author's approach to data analysis. As part of enhancing the credibility of this study, document analysis was used as a strategy to triangulate data obtained through in-depth interviews and field notes.

Document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents, both printed and electronic material (Fischer, 2006). This method is a useful source of rich data for qualitative research (Charmaz, 2014). In applying this method, the author developed a data analysis matrix consisting of theoretical themes extracted from the research questions. These themes enabled the author to extract secondary data corresponding to the theoretical themes and categories the data in terms of similarities and differences. The similarities and differences between the documents formed the basis for triangulating the empirical data obtained from in-depth interviews and field notes.

In line with key principles of grounded theory, the author applied a multi-level data analysis embedded in theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis. The first level of data analysis involved open coding where the author used line-by-line review of the transcripts for events and incidents in the data. Consequently, the author assigned descriptive labels to the identified incidents and events in the data. Thereafter, the author compared the descriptive labels for similarities and differences. Labels or codes with similar meaning were clustered together and where necessary new labels were created. The newly created labels were compared back to the data, and this was useful for validating their meaning and relevance. This process of comparing initial codes to the newly created codes and back to the data reduced the number of open codes and allowed the author to move to the higher level of abstraction where open codes were turned into categories and concepts. Using the same process of comparing the emerging categories and concepts against other data properties as well as the literature. At every stage of comparison, more research participants were identified to provide data on the newly created data properties and this process was repeated until a set of core categories or themes emerged. These themes constitute the last step of comparison and theoretical sampling. At this stage, the themes were compared against each other and back to data properties established earlier. After this comparison, theoretical sampling was employed to collect further data from specific participants that provided clarifications on key aspects of the newly established themes. The process of continuous comparison and iterative data collection allowed the author to generate an empirical understanding of critical elements that define the administrative

culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

So far, the author has discussed key elements underlying conceptualisation of this study. For example, the author has discussed the research problem statement with particular emphasis on key manifestations of poor performance. In addition, the author explained how the research problem statement introduces the research knowledge gap and the research approach. The key elements embedded in the research problem statement are elaborated in the conceptual framework presented in chapter two. In particular, the key research approach introduced in the research problem statement is detailed in chapter three which explains procedures and methods used to select the research participants and obtain the empirical data. Most importantly, chapter three outlines procedures used during data analysis. In other words, chapter three marks the end of research conceptualisation and the beginning of the empirical exercise.

The first part of the empirical exercise is to present the outputs emerging from data analysis undertaken in chapter three. Therefore, chapter four through to chapter seven present the empirical results with reference to how the results respond to the research questions outlined in Section 1.4. Specifically, chapter four presents the results related to the first research question dealing with factors that enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, political interference emerged as the root cause of performance challenges facing Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, chapter four presents various manifestations of political interference that include corruption, incompetence, and lack of accountability. In addition, the results show that political interference is a result of the ANC's policy of deploying political loyalists in strategic positions within the municipal administration. In this regard, participants mentioned that the practice of putting political considerations ahead of merit and capability has paralysed service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This practice has resulted in mistrust between politicians and administrators. In addition, the study highlights lack of trust between management and employees leading to differences in policy direction. In this case, employees reported that they rejected the performance management because of the perception that management would use it as an instrument to victimise them. Another aspect of political interference revealed in the study is political and administrative instability arising from political differences within coalition government partners. The performance impediments identified in chapter four allowed the author to define empirical elements that influence organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. These elements are presented in chapter five and include political bureaucracy, lack of employee motivation, lack of accountability, and mistrust. Based on these attributes, the study describes Tshwane as the Municipality with a politicised bureaucracy characterised by lack of accountability, lack of motivation, and mistrust.

Building on from this cultural construction, chapter six presents empirical strategies for improving the culture of politicised bureaucracy. These strategies include improving communication, building trust, and strengthening individual and institutional capacity. chapter six also presents lack of communication as one of the issues leading to mistrust and inefficiencies in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specific actions proposed in this regard included the need for use of face-to-face mode of communication instead of electronic mode that is not accessible to most employees in the lower levels of employment. Second, the empirical results show that building trust is a management function that requires specific leadership competencies. Therefore, the participants highlighted the need for leadership as a strategy to equip management with communication skills. The study further adds that developing shared values across the organisation requires competent management with adequate skills in transformational leadership.

In terms of addressing performance management challenges reported in the previous chapters, the empirical results reveal the need for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to strengthen monitoring and evaluation as a critical component of performance management. In this regard, the participants highlighted the need for the Municipality to recruit more staff to beef up the monitoring and evaluation unit. In addition, the participants pointed to the need for building capacity across the Municipality on generation and use of evidence for decision-making. The suggestion to increase funding for monitoring and evaluation came against evidence attributing poor implementation of monitoring and evaluation activities in municipalities to inadequate funding and lack of technical skills (Cronin & Sadan, 2015; Kanyane, 2014; Mthethwa & Jili, 2016).

Feedback is an important aspect of a functional monitoring and evaluation system. In this regard, the author argues that monitoring and evaluation is another strategy for improving communication and trust between management and employees. In particular, the study revealed that employees are motivated by an environment that allows them to provide feedback. This revelation is consistent with the research finding that interactive communication between top management and personnel makes officials feel part of the organisation and motivates them to achieve the objectives of the organisation (Pillay & Hoque, 2015).

Based on empirical strategies outlined earlier, chapter seven outlines empirical strategies for improving organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. At the heart of these strategies is the need to transform the culture of political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, chapter seven presents organisational culture as a strategy for developing a model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This model was developed out of a conceptual theoretical framework including Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework, Schein's (1985) organisational culture as well as Denison's (1990) model of organisational culture. In particular, the Competing Values Framework allowed the author to

understand values and principles underpinning political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, this framework enabled the author to understand that key elements of political bureaucracy, which is the underlying attribute of the administrative culture established in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, are similar to what Cameron and Quinn (2011) refer to as hierarchical culture. In addition, this framework enhanced the author's understanding that hierarchical organisations are inward looking in terms of operational and strategic focus. In line with key values underlying Competing Values Framework, the author argues that this framework reiterates key features of bureaucracy articulated in Weber's (1947) theory of bureaucracy. Despite its usefulness in this regard, the framework assumes that values underpinning organisational culture are distinct and competitive. However, this assumption does not apply in the case of Tshwane where the study found multiple and co-existing cultures.

chapter seven also presents Denison's model of organisational culture is also one of the most popular approaches for analysing organisational culture. This model identifies four traits of organisational culture (mission, involvement, consistency, adaptability) that enhance performance in organisations. Based on the values underlying these traits, it is clear that Denison model provides a comprehensive framework for analysing organisational culture in public institutions. This conclusion is derived from a study that effectively used this tool to diagnose the culture of several municipalities in South Africa (Nzewi et al., 2016). In particular, this study identified that management was inconsistent in its values and did not effectively communicate values and principles required for successful achievement of strategic objectives. The consequence of this was lack of a shared culture across the municipalities. Based on these findings, the author argues that Denison model is a useful tool for identifying specific elements of organisational culture in public institutions. In particular, all the four traits of organisational culture identified in the model are applicable in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This notwithstanding, this model applies a quantitative approach to the analysis of organisational culture. As a result, it may not be effective in obtaining rich data for understanding underlying assumptions and attitudes that shape the behaviour of individuals within organisations. For this reason, the author suggests that qualitative research instruments should be used to complement the weaknesses of this model.

The last step towards constructing a model for improving performance involved teasing out the assumptions, beliefs, and values embedded in prominent theories of organisational culture. After identifying these elements, the author explored their relevance in augmenting the culture of political bureaucracy (hierarchical culture) in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To this end, chapter seven presents Denison's (1990) trait of involvement, which underscore the significance of teamwork as an important value for employee motivation. Therefore, the study argues that teamwork is an important value for improving performance. This value in embedded in Schneider's (1999)

collaboration culture, Harrision's (1972) person/supportive culture, as well as in Cameron and Quinn's (2011) clan culture. Collectively, these models embrace a supportive culture that values personal relationships. Given the reported mistrust and frosty relations between management and employees in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author proposes an empirical model entrenched in a culture that promotes strong personal relations. In support of this proposal, Denison (1990) argues that teamwork and involvement of employees in decision-making promote trust. In addition, trust reduces disagreements and conflicts at the workplace (Jabeena & Rahim, 2021) and improves motivation (Kanter, 1989).

Leadership and organisational culture are two sides of the same coin (Schein, 2004). Therefore, the author under argues that leadership is an important attribute that needs to be embedded in a model aimed at improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This argument is derived from empirical data showing the need to equip management of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality with leadership skills especially in the area of performance management, interpersonal relations. In particular, the author recommends specific training in transformational leadership, which is necessary for successful transformation of organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As Schein (2004) points out, transformational leaders should have skills to define organisational mission and infuse their own beliefs and values in the organisational mission. Therefore, Harrison (1972) and Weber (1947) provide useful insights on how to build a competent bureaucracy. Thus, the study argues that an effective model for improving bureaucracy in Tshwane
Metropolitan Municipality should be anchored around improving leadership and technical competencies. In support of this conclusion, Schneider (1999) identifies competence as a specific type of culture in his four dimensions of organisational culture.

The preface details the content covered in different parts of this study. Specifically, chapter one presents the research problem statement, the research purpose, and the research questions. The research problem introduces the research context, describes the research problem, and hints at the knowledge gap and the research strategy to be employed in the study. These items are elaborated in different Sections of the conceptual framework presented in chapter two. For example, Section 2.1 describes key features of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as the research setting. In particular, the Section highlights socio-economic and political factors that give rise to poor performance, which is the problem underlying this study. This problem is elaborated in Section 2.2 which deals with the research problem analysis. In this Section, the author articulates different dimensions of poor performance with particular emphasis on the symptoms, consequences, and root causes. For example, the Section presents service delivery as a symptom of poor performance. On the other hand, corruption, lack of accountability, and nepotism are presented as consequences of this problem while political interference is described as the root cause of this issue. Similarly, Section 2.3 expands on the

knowledge gap introduced in the research problem statement. Section 2.5 provides data collection attributes required to operationalise the research questions outlined in Section 1.4. In addition, Section 2.5 provides content that informs the structure of the semi-structured interview guide used to collect data on the research questions. Section 2.6 provides a theoretical framework for interpreting information obtained from the research questions. Therefore, literature review provides the content and the structure of the entire thesis.

CHAPTER 2 - LITERATURE REVIEW TO DERIVE A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The purpose of this chapter is to present a conceptual framework that shows how this study was conceptualised and implemented. Bless (2022) and Wotela (2016) argue that a conceptual framework is an outcome of the literature review and consists of six components. The first component is the context analysis while the second is the research problem analysis. The third is the research knowledge gap and the fourth is the discussion of the field of study. Discussing the field of study provides for the establishment of the research attributes and the theoretical framework which are the fifth and the sixth components of the conceptual framework respectively. As noted in the preface, understanding the research context (Section 2.1) and the research problem (Section 2.2) expands on the key elements articulated in the research problem statement presented in Section 1.2. The research knowledge gap presented in Section 2.3 elaborates on the research purpose statement outlined in Section 1.2. Based on these interlinkages, the author argues that the first three components of the conceptual framework provide useful information on how this study was conceptualised. The other components, namely the field of study discussed in Section 2.4 and the research attributes presented in Section 2.5, as well as the theoretical framework articulated in Section 2.6, provide information on how the researcher implemented the empirical part of this study. The next paragraph explains how these elements of the conceptual framework enabled the researcher to successfully undertake the empirical part of this study.

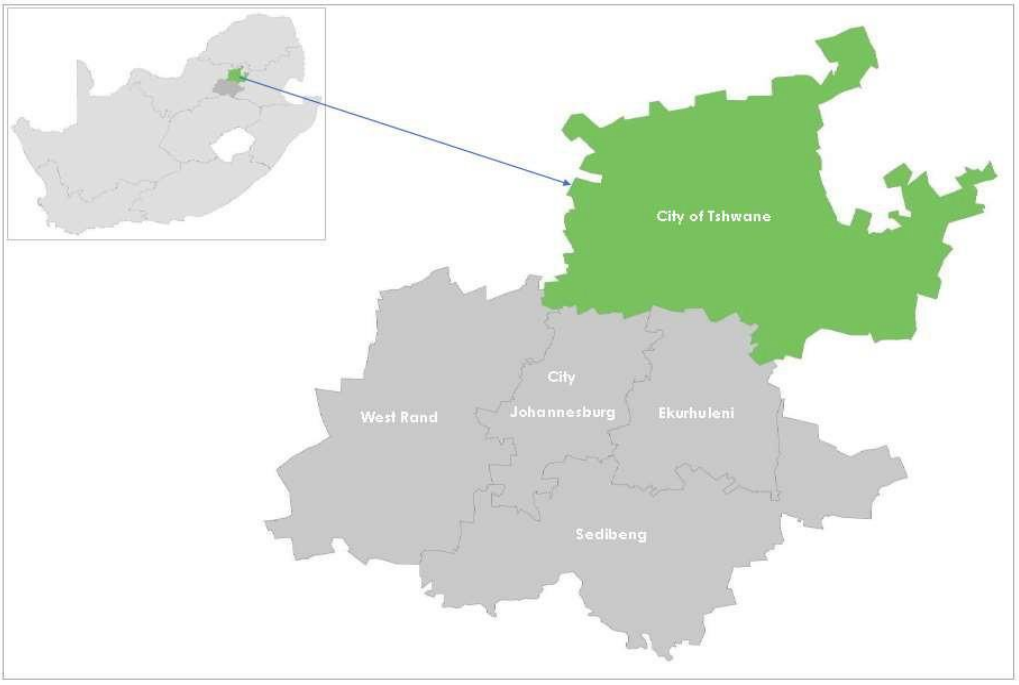
First, the researcher reviewed the literature to understand management as the field of study in which this research is located. This understanding allowed the author to appreciate important aspects of management but most importantly enabled the author to identify key attributes for data collection. In this regard, the author identified performance planning, performance measurement, monitoring and evaluation, and performance improvement as core attributes of management. Subsequently, these attributes were used as the framework to guide data collection and inform the structure of the semi-structured interview schedule. Second, reviewing the literature on management exposed the author to a range of theories and frameworks that other researchers use to explain different aspects of management. out of different theories and frameworks that the author was exposed to, the following were found to be useful for interpreting the empirical results of this study. These include bureaucracy, politics-administration dichotomy, public choice, principal-agent theory, scientific management, and New Public Management.

In sum, this chapter describes critical milestones that map out the journey undertaken in conducting this study. A summary of this journey is depicted in Figure 2.2 which provides a graphical display of the key elements of the conceptual framework. A narrative account of this graphical representation is provided as a conclusion to this chapter in Section 2.7.

2.1. The research context analysis

As shown in Figure 1, this study is set within the boundaries of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the South African capital and the administrative home to the government. Situated in the Province of Gauteng, Tshwane was established in 2000 following a merger of fifteen local authorities that had formed part of the greater Pretoria and surrounding areas. The Municipality further expanded its boundaries in 2008 after the incorporation of former Metsweding District Municipality made up of Nokeng tsa Taemane (Cullinan) and Kungwini (Bronkhorstspruit). This expansion made Tshwane the largest Municipality in Africa and the third largest in the world in terms of land area (Worku & Mammo, 2018).

Figure 1: The Map of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality



Source: Tshwane (2020)

The expansion of the Municipality did not only come with an increased service delivery coverage but also its population which is now estimated around 3.31 million (Tshwane, 2020). Further evidence shows that 61% of this population is younger than 35 years (Tshwane, 2020). The Municipality has a vibrant and diverse economy. Due to its vibrancy, the Municipality contributes about 26,8% of the Gauteng Province's GDP and 9,4% of the GDP of the national economy. Despite this, 32.6% of young people in Tshwane is unemployed while 31,3% of people in Tshwane live below the upper poverty line of R1 077 per month (Tshwane, 2020). The high level of youth unemployment bears testimony to the jobless growth that has come to define the South African economy in recent years

(Worku & Mammo, 2018).

Since the first cycle of local government elections in 1995, the African National Congress (ANC) had the luxury of enjoying popular vote. However, this changed in 2016 when the outcome of the local government elections resulted in hung municipalities in the Cities of Tshwane, Johannesburg, and Ekurhuleni. This outcome remarkably redefined the face of the South African political landscape as the ANC lost power to a group of political parties that had formed coalition governments in all the Metropolitan Municipalities in Gauteng. However, the advent of coalitions came political and administrative instability. For example, as the author writes now, the Municipality had a new Mayor who lasted for two days in office before resigning amid allegations of fraud and lack of fitness to hold office. The election of the new Mayor came after members of the multiparty coalition partners consisting of the Democratic Alliance and other parties, voted with an opposition block made up of the ANC and the Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF). The lack of consensus amongst multiparty coalition partners is indicative of chronic instability that the Municipality has been experiencing since the advent of coalitions in 2016.

As the political wrangling took the centre stage, service delivery was relegated to the periphery. Thus, Ramokgopa (2018) argues that political instability has collapsed service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Political instability is the main, but not the only impediment to service delivery in the Municipality. In this regard, Kgatle (2017) attributes poor service delivery to nepotism and political interference. This view is similar to a widely held view that during its long period of governance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the ANC had taken control of the Municipality by appointing its own political loyalists in strategic positions (Makole, 2022; Malefane, 2010; Mngomezulu, 2020; Shava & Chamisa, 2018; Twala, 2014). The appointment of political loyalists has several manifestations that have a negative impact on service delivery. For example, Shava and Chamisa (2018) posit that this practice has compromised service delivery because unqualified and incompetent people are now occupying senior positions without requisite skills to perform their official service delivery functions. In addition, politicisation of the South African municipalities has eroded accountability (Gumede, 2015; Madumo, 2016) and given rise to corruption and maladministration (Mamokhere, 2021). Masiya, Davids and Manga (2021) as well as Ndevu (2019) further note that political interference has led to lack of motivation and reduced trust within South African municipalities.

In light of the above, the author argues that political interference has created a culture entrenched in politics and characterised by lack of accountability, mistrust, and poor performance. The author further argues that the emergence of service delivery protests in 2004 (Roux & Nyamukachi, 2005) is a symptom that displays the inherent problem of poor performance within the South African municipal landscape. Since then, service delivery protests have escalated to a level

that Alexander (2010) refers them as the rebellion of the poor. Specifically, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality experienced its worst service delivery protest in the democratic dispensation in 2016. According to Kgatle (2017), the main motive for this violent service delivery protests that left massive destruction to property and two people dead, was political interference emanating from the ANC's decision to impose its favourite mayoral candidate against the preference of the community.

In an effort to address the growing protests emanating from poor performance across municipalities, the government stepped up implementation of performance management reforms that had been adopted when the ANC assumed power in 1994. In particular, the ANC government introduced monitoring and evaluation as a strategy to improve performance across the three spheres of governance (National, Provincial, and Local Government). The government put in place a comprehensive legislative framework to give effect to this policy. Particularly, the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 is fundamental to effective implementation of performance management at local government. In compliance with the established legislative framework, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has undertaken a series of administrative actions. One of the most notable actions is institutionalisation of Monitoring and Evaluation functions by creating a dedicated division responsible for organisational performance. Another important intervention was introduction of a performance management system for senior executives. These executives are known as Section 57 employees because of the provision in the Municipal Systems Act that provides for recruitment of senior municipal managers.

Despite institutionalisation of performance management, service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has worsened in light of the chronic problem of political instability and incompetence. For this reason, the researcher argues that introduction of New Public Management (NPM) reforms, of which monitoring and evaluation is an important part of, has failed to improve service delivery in the Municipality. In this regard, the author concurs with Gumede (2015) who points to the failure of NPM reforms in transforming the administrative culture of the South African public service. Based on the lessons drawn from Australia and New Zealand from which South Africa borrowed NPM, the author argues that transforming administrative culture is a prerequisite for successful implementation of performance management in South African public institutions. It is for this reason that amongst other things, this study explores how organisational culture promotes or impedes performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

2.2. The research problem analysis

As noted in the previous chapter, performance is the phenomenon of investigation in this study. As mentioned in the delimitations of the study (Section 1.5), the author adopted effectiveness as an indicator for analysing performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, effectiveness allows the author to measure how well or how bad the Municipality performs its service delivery mandate. Therefore, a situation of poor performance arises where the Municipality is not fulfilling its mandate as expected. Based on the review of literature, there are many situations which some scholars associate with the causes of poor performance across the South African Municipalities. These include corruption, nepotism, lack of accountability, and political interference (Cloete, 2009; Cronin & Sadan, 2015; Sidzumo & Wotela, 2016). However, this study argues that these are consequence, not causes of poor performance. Thus, the author applies a problem tree analysis to trace the true origin of poor performance across South African Municipalities. This analysis allows the author to classify key dimensions of poor performance into three categories, namely the root cause, consequences, and symptoms. Through this classification, the study contributes important information that enhances the ongoing debate on the dimensions of poor performance in South African Municipalities.

Before analysing poor performance as the underlying research problem, the author recalls from the Background Section that performance is a concept used to measure different things in different fields. In the field of management, which provides the academic home for this study, performance describes the ability or lack thereof, to achieve organisational goals as stipulated in strategic documents. This description resonates with the argument made earlier that effectiveness is about how well or how bad Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality fulfils its mandate of service delivery. This means that performance is a directional concept with one end of the continuum representing achievement while the other represents failure.

The issue of the performance of public institutions gained momentum with the popularity of New Public Management (NPM) in the 1980s. International literature points to successful implementation of performance management principles and techniques in Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom (Halligan, 2003; Harrison & Baird, 2015; Parker & Bradley, 2000; Wegrich, 2009). According to Halligan (2003), performance reforms in Australia were comprehensive and systematic. Similarly, the implementation of performance management reforms in South African Municipalities is anchored on a comprehensive legal framework. For example, the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 is a critical legislation that provides for mandatory planning driven by Integrated Development Plans (IDPs). According to Mathebula (2018), the IDP is a strategic planning and management framework for South African municipalities. This framework is operationalised through a set of administrative tools that include Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP). Ideally, the IDP and the SDBIP represent part of the overall Performance Management

System (PMS) in municipalities. These instruments were designed to help South African municipalities overcome the legacy of poor service delivery inherited from the apartheid regime. According to Sithole and Mathonsi (2015), the apartheid government had created homelands as black labour reserves for white-owned businesses. The authors further point out that the homelands were deliberately under resourced and experienced huge backlogs of basic services such as water, electricity, health, and education. Therefore, performance management reforms that came with introduction of NPM were intended to address inequitable and racially oriented delivery of public services. However, thirty years after introduction of performance reforms, service delivery backlogs continue to be a problem in black communities. Therefore, it is not surprising that service delivery protests are prevalent in black communities (Alexander, 2010).

Based on the foregoing, it is clear that the escalating and often violent service delivery protests are indicative of poor municipal performance, which in this study is measured through poor service delivery. There is consensus amongst South African scholars that poor service delivery has become a common phenomenon across South African Municipalities (Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Mello, 2018; Munzhedzi, 2020). However, researchers are divided on the causes of poor service delivery. For example, some scholars point to inadequate use of evidence for decision-making as the root cause of ineffective delivery of municipal services (Cloete, 2009; Cronin & Sadan, 2015; Sidzumo & Wotela, 2016). In addition, Ndevu (2019) attributes poor service delivery to lack of trust between politicians and bureaucrats. Elaborating on this, Masiya, Davids, & Manga (2021) argue that the lack of trust originates from political interference.

Consequences of political interference in South African Municipalities has been discussed at length. For example, many scholars associate the rampant corruption and lack of accountability and consequence management in South African Municipalities with political interference (Basopu, 2016; Chamisa & Shava, 2018; Manyaka & Nkuna, 2014; Mngomezulu, 2020). Second, Kgatle (2017) specifically attributes service delivery protests that engulfed Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality in 2016 to the decision of the ANC to interfere in the administration of the Municipality by imposing a new Mayor against the will of the people of Tshwane. Third, corruption and nepotism are two other factors associated with political interference. In this regard, Shava and Chamisa (2018) maintain that political interference has eroded accountability mechanism thereby giving rise to corruption in municipalities. Similarly, Moeti (2004) posits that the practice of deploying incompetent political loyalists in administrative positions in municipalities has resulted in increased corruption in procurement systems. On the same note, Shava and Chamisa (2018) argue that political deployment has weakened human resources management practices and created a corrupt system of political patronage. Last, political interference has resulted in shortage of skills in municipalities. For instance, incompetent and unqualified people are directly appointed by political

parties into key administrative positions in municipalities (Makole, 2022; Mlambo, Zubane, & Thusi, 2022; Shava & Chamisa, 2018). In addition, Maqoko (2015) states that the spill over of political factional battles of the African National Congress (ANC) into municipalities results in the purge of qualified and skilled municipal managers.

The researcher has observed that most studies present political interference as a recent phenomenon introduced by the ANC when it came to power in 1994. Therefore, the study argues that political interference was a common practice during the apartheid era and what the ANC did was just to entrench it. To justify this argument, the author points to Gumede (2015) who states that apartheid policy of segregation was implemented through political appointees who were loyal to the policies and principles of the governing National Party. Evidence shows that before the ANC came to power, it embraced values of moral improvement, individual responsibility and a sense of social consciousness (De Jager & Steenekamp, The changing political culture of the African National Congress, 2015). Embedded in the principle of individual responsibility is the notion of accountability, which is one of the key tenets of New Public Management (NPM). This means that the original values of the ANC were consistent with the principles of NPM but the party failed to implement these values when it assumed power. Highlighting the failure of the ANC in this regard, De Jager and Steenekamp (2015) argue that now that it is in power, the ANC embraces an inward-looking, self- seeking, and self-preserving culture. This culture is entrenched through cadre deployment through which the ANC as the ruling party, controls the government and embeds its values and practices into the organs of the State.

One such principle that the ANC has firmly entrenched in government is democratic centralism. According to Suttner (2003), democratic centralism is the principle where a few leaders make decisions and send out commands to members who obey them unquestionably. As Gumede (2015) points out, this system emphasises loyalty to the party and its leadership. These characteristics represent the organisational culture of the ANC as the ruling party. Therefore, when the ANC assumed power in 1994, it introduced this culture into the South African public service in two ways. First, it deployed its loyalists into the public service (Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016) and use them as agents to micro-manage the government. One aspect of this micromanagement includes the ANC members deciding on who government contracts (Ndevu & Muller, 2018). Second, the appointment of politicians into public administration has distorted accountability mechanisms and created poor consequence management. In this regard, Gumede (2015) posits that the appointment of politicians in key administrative positions has created a belief amongst the ANC members that their party is above the state. Second, in recent years, the ANC has intensified its efforts to control state institutions including the judiciary (De Jager & Steenekamp, 2015). Although the judiciary has resisted political capture, the same cannot be said about municipalities. Thus, the study argues that South African Municipalities has a

culture of non-performance characterised by incompetence, lack of accountability, mistrust, and poor performance. As noted above, these characteristics are a direct result of the administrative culture underpinned by democratic centralism.

In sum, poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is a direct consequence of the extension of the ANC culture of democratic centralisms into the Municipality. This extension is facilitated through cadre deployment. As noted earlier, the most prominent consequences of this policy include nepotism, incompetence, corruption, political instability. A combination of these factors continue to impede the ability of South African municipalities to achieve their service delivery obligations. Therefore, communities often engage in violent protests as an expression of anger and frustration over poor delivery of services. Therefore, the escalation of service delivery across the South African municipal landscape is a symptom of poor performance. In turn, poor performance originates from the failure of performance management initiatives in transforming the culture of democratic centralism that the ANC has entrenched across the South African public service.

In wrapping up this Section, the author argues that transforming administrative culture is a precondition for successful implementation of performance management reforms. This argument is informed by the recognition that organisational culture is a catalyst for successful implementation of public management interventions (Bradley & Parker, Do Australian public sector employees have the type of culture they want in the era of new public management?, 2006). As noted in the research problem statement, this recognition is yet to be embraced in South Africa. As detailed in the next Section, this has consequently created dearth of knowledge on the role of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute in South African Municipalities.

2.3. Methods, data, findings, and conclusions of studies on performance management

As noted in Section 1.2, this study is conceptualised around the argument that South African scholars are yet to embrace organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute. Therefore, this Section elaborates on the consequence of this limitation, which is dearth of knowledge on how organisational affects municipal performance. Second, it supports the author's observation that South African researchers have not adequately used grounded theory. In pursuit of these objectives, this Section reviews literature on the research strategies, designs, procedures, and methods used in past and current studies on performance management in South Africa and other countries. The inclusion of other countries is necessary to support the argument that international scholars have long recognised organisational culture as a performance catalyst. To facilitate the review, the author sourced empirical journals from major academic databases such as Google Scholar, SABINET African Journals, SAGE Research Methods Core JSTOR, and Taylor and Francis Journals. As much as possible, the author

limited the search to empirical studies conducted within the last ten years. This was to ensure that the study used relevant and recent studies to establish the knowledge gap from two different but complimentary perspectives. As noted above, one perspective relates to inadequate recognition of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute while the other points to limited qualitative research and inadequate application of grounded theory. As a point of departure towards demonstrating the existence of the knowledge gap along these dimensions, the author interrogates international literature on performance management.

Bradley and Parker (2001) conducted a 12-month study examining organisational culture in the public sector. The primary objective of this study was to investigate perceptions of current and ideal organisational culture across 15 organisational units in Queensland Victoria. The researchers used a mixed-method approach involving three stages. The first stage of involved in-depth interviews with senior managers from each of the participating organisations. During the second stage, the researchers conducted a survey involving a randomly selected group of 900 employees in Queensland and 200 in Victoria. The survey instrument used for data collection was structured around the Competing Values Framework (CVF). The last stage consisted of interviews with selected staff at various levels throughout the units. These interviews were used to clarify and provide some explanation of the survey results. For data analysis, the researchers used descriptive statistics to determine cultural preferences of senior managers while the CVF was used as a framework for interpreting the empirical results.

In terms of findings, the study established that Queensland Public Sector agencies had a culture of bureaucracy that focused more on rules and regulations with little flexibility. The study further found that employees had preference for greater flexibility and a more external focus than what the organisations offered. Based on these findings, the researchers concluded that bureaucracy is appropriate for more traditional public sector objectives. Despite its appropriateness in this regard, the researchers maintained that bureaucracy constrains achievement of the objectives that rely on greater flexibility and greater orientation toward the external environment. Thus, the authors suggested that where possible, rules and regulations constraining behaviour should be examined and replaced with more flexible policies.

In a similar study conducted in Greece, Xanthopoulou, Sahinidis and Bakak (2022) used Competing Values Framework to examine the effects of a culture's strength on the organisational performance in the public sector. The authors used snowballing to select participants from a sample of 92 departments and used an online survey to obtain data from 424 employees. For data analysis, the authors used inferential statistics procedures such as the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) as well as the Kruscall-Wallis and Mann-Whitney tests. These analytical procedures were useful in determining the relationship between culture's strength and organisational performance in the public

departments under investigation. Contrary to the view that organisational culture enhances performance in public institutions, the researchers established that strong cultures do not have a significant impact on organisational performance in the public sector. For this reason, the researchers concluded that the widely shared belief that strong cultures are more effective than weak ones is invalid and deserves further examination.

Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2003) used structural equation modelling to test hypothesised relationships between manifestations of leadership, culture type and effectiveness in the public sector. The authors collected data in two consecutive national leadership surveys. Both surveys that drew samples from the membership databases of the National Institute of Management and the National Institute of Public Administration. The purpose of the first survey was to assess the leadership skills and capabilities of future leaders in New Zealand. In this regard, Chief Executive Officers and managers were requested to rate immediate subordinate who was in a potential or future leadership role using a number of attributes drawn from Organisational Description Questionnaire (ODQ) and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). The ODG consists of 28 items that measure transformational and transactional qualities of an organisation's culture while the MLQ is structured around 45 attributes that measure leadership behaviour. The second survey was designed to measure the leadership process within team or work units using attributes such as transformational team leadership, leadership outcomes, and climate for innovation.

The researchers used comparative Structural Equation Modelling and inferential statistics as procedures for data analysis. In terms of findings, the researchers established that performance would increase in the public sector if the sector could adopt the organisational culture that is more transformational and less transactional. In this regard, the findings revealed the significance of leadership in generating this cultural improvement. Based on these findings, the researchers concluded that public sector organisations need to adopt a culture that helps people across all levels to demonstrate leadership.

So far, the author has presented quantitative research strategies, procedures, and methods used by international scholars that have investigated issues on organisational culture and performance management. Generally, quantitative methods have a great deal to offer, but only if the attributes under investigation are quantitative. As Michell (2003) points out, quantitative methods are powerful precisely because they are based on measurements of true quantities with ratio properties. Cycling back to Section 1.3, the purpose of this study is to explore the role of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute in South African municipal landscape. To this end, Section 1.4 proposed a series of research questions. In summary, these questions are structured around the intention to establish how the research subjects understand performance catalysts and impediments in their own context. Based on these experiences, the research questions aim to answer the question of how to improve performance.

Therefore, quantitative research approaches are not appropriate to answer the research questions underpinning this study. In concurrence with this view, Ugwu and Eze Val (2023) mention that qualitative researchers gather non-numerical data to produce insights that provide an answer to the how question. With this in mind and in search for appropriate qualitative strategies, the author interrogates literature on qualitative research approaches.

Hookana (2008) used a case study approach to investigate the influence of New Public Management in the adoption of new accounting methods and practices. This study used purposive sampling to obtain data from a sample of 32 participants. The researcher used a semi-structured interview guide as an instrument to conduct in-depth interviews with top management of a local government entity. Even though the study did not specify techniques and procedures used for data analysis, it revealed that political interference in administrative decisions results in disjointed policies, impedes innovation, and leads to poor performance. Chowdhury and Shil (2021) used the same research approach to explore how private sector financial management technologies (specifically, risk management system, fraud and corruption control system and internal audit) become embedded in a selected public sector organisation in Australia. To achieve this, the researchers used a qualitative research strategy and a case study design.

Unlike Hookana (2008), the researchers used unstructured interviews to obtained data from 20 top, mid and junior executives. In order to obtain in-depth data, the researchers also used participant observation method with one of them spending more than a year in the organisation under investigation. To prepare data for analysis, the researchers recorded and transcribed the interviews. Ultimately, data analysis involved reducing data, displaying data, and drawing conclusions. However, the researchers do not provide a detailed account on how the data was reduced and displayed. In addition, they failed to explain how data analysis helped them draw conclusions. Despite these limitations, the researchers established that the particular government department under investigation implemented private-sector style management control tools to achieve efficiency and effectiveness. Therefore, the researchers concluded that the adoption of the private sector management practices transformed the researched department into a new kind of organisation.

Based on the foregoing, the author made two important observations regarding the landscape of international research on performance management. First, most international studies used quantitative research strategies with particular emphasis on inferential and descriptive statistics. Second, a few studies that used qualitative research strategies did not adopt grounded theory. Based on these observations, the author intensifies efforts to review more literature in search of appropriate research strategies, design, procedures, methods, and techniques appropriate for this study. However, this time the focus is on studies conducted in African countries including South African which is the contextual home for this study. Focusing on Africa provides the opportunity for the author to compare the African and the European experience on

implementation of performance management reforms. This will also allow the author to identify appropriate and relevant research approaches for investigating performance management issues in South Africa.

Owusu (2012) conducted a study on the failure of public reforms in Ghana. This study examined the performance of ministries, departments and agencies in Ghana and proposed strategies for performance improvement. The study used purposive sampling to identify 223 employees from 19 government departments. The author requested the participants to rank their departments on a scale of 1 to 5 with the lowest point of the scale representing poor performance and the highest representing good performance. With the data obtained from this exercise, the study categorised the organisations into two, namely good performing organisations and bad performing organisations. Thereafter, the researcher used statistical methods to determine attributes that affect performance in different government departments. In addition, Schein's (1985) framework of organisational culture was used as an interpretive framework. Although the study was not comprehensive in analysing dimensions of organisational culture in all the departments, it points to the failure of public reforms in Ghana. To this end, the study revealed that public sector reforms serve external interests and ignore the experiences of local institutions. Therefore, the study calls for internally induced interventions to create a culture of performance in public institutions. Most importantly, the study underscores the need for effective leadership that can nurture the development of good performance culture through recruitment practices, training opportunities, setting up high expectations and imposing sanctions, when necessary.

In another study, the Zimbabwean researchers (Huragu & Chuma, 2019) used quantitative approach to investigate the impact of organisational culture on the performance of local authorities. Specifically, the researchers employed stratified sampling to identify 59 respondents from which data was obtained through structured interviews using a questionnaire. Following data collection, the researchers used the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) to process the data and undertake descriptive statistical analysis. The key results of this study revealed that the Zimbabwean local authorities display norms and practices that were not conducive to achieve optimal performance and inculcated lethargy in their approach to business. Therefore, the researchers suggested that local council management should work towards transforming the culture of the local councils in order to improve performance. The findings of this study are inconsistent with Harrison and Baird's (2015) study that found out that NPM enabled local councils in Australia to shift their culture from process orientation to results orientation.

A team of researchers from Botswana also conducted a similar study Botswana (Masale, Barkhuizen, & Schutte, 2021) to explore determinants of organisational talent culture for a local government institution. In this regard, the authors used a quantitative approach entrenched in cross-Sectional design with a sample of 405 officials representing different local councils. A questionnaire

was used as an instrument for data collection and the SPPS as a tool for data analysis. Specifically, the researchers used several statistical techniques that included exploratory factor analyses, linear regression analyses and multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVAs). This study revealed a weak organisational culture characterised by bureaucracy to the detriment of institutional performance. In particular, the study argues that inadequate administrative governance systems and a lack of dynamic operational capabilities undermine talent performance and productivity. For this reason, the authors emphasise the vital role of public sector leaders in creating a workplace talent culture that will enable public service efficiency and effectiveness.

Similar to the Botswana study, two South African studies used a cross-Sectional design to explore organisational culture in different government owned companies in South Africa. In the first study, Lekgothoane, Maleka and Worku (2020) applied stratified random sampling to select a sample of 204 participants. The authors used structured interviews to collect empirical data using a questionnaire while the SPSS was used for data processing and statistical analysis. This study found out that, even though the culture of the companies was predominantly bellicose, employees volunteered to go beyond the call of duty, and workplace attendance was above the norm. In view of this, the study suggested that the management of the enterprise should foster a culture of respect instead of a combative culture. To achieve this, the study recommends a series of actions that include continued motivation of employees to go beyond call of duty and conducting performance appraisals fairly and resolving employees' complaints speedily.

The second study was conducted by Gasela (2022) to determine the influence of organisational culture on organisational performance in public entities. To achieve this, the study used a survey design and a semi-structured questionnaire to collect data from a random sample of 38 respondents. For data analysis, the author used regression analysis, which led to the finding that the existing organisational culture in the public entities under investigation does not support strategy implementation, thereby negatively affecting performance. Similar to previous studies (Cronin & Sadan, 2015; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017) Gasela's (2022) study identified inadequate financial and human capital resources as performance impediments in the public entities under investigation. For this reason, the study argues that the issue of resources needs to be addressed for the entities to meet their strategic objectives and management should make appropriate interventions to promote a healthy organisational culture that will support strategy implementation.

Kokt and Van der Merwe (2009) conducted a quantitative study on the impact of organisational culture on service delivery using a survey with a sample of 3,172 respondents identified through stratified random sampling. The participants included managers, administration staff, and security staff of the security company. After obtaining data from different categories of participants, the researchers used the Competing Values Framework (CVF) as an analytical tool for measuring the

impact of organisational culture on service delivery. The main finding of this study is that the security company in question had two cultures. Given the legislative requirements structuring the industry, the company has elements of hierarchical culture but the rational culture was predominant. While the rational culture made the company more user focused and responsive to the needs of its clients, the rational/hierarchical combination was detrimental to a flexible and people-oriented environment. Therefore, the authors argue that the company needs to develop human resources in their South African operations. The main lesson from this study is that unlike Cameron and Quinn's (2011) who see values underlying organisational culture as competing, it is possible for a single organisation to have a combination of organisational cultures.

Harris (2014) investigated the relationship between organisational culture and performance in a private airline company in South Africa. This study applied a random sampling procedure to obtain empirical data from a sample of 30 research participants using Denison Organisational Culture Survey (DOCS). After applying statistical analysis, the study found out that although the company had moved towards a mission-oriented culture, its ability to adapt to changing circumstances did not improve. Using the same instrument in a different context, Nzewi et al., (2013) conducted a study to determine strengths and weaknesses in organisational culture within the selected municipalities in the Eastern Cape. In pursuit of this objective, the authors used a questionnaire structured around four cultural traits of Denison model namely mission, consistency, adaptability, and involvement. This means the four traits of organisational culture were used as the framework for data collection and undertaking statistical analysis and interpretation of data. This study found weak communication between management and employees leading to disconnection between organisational goals and employees' work. Therefore, authors attributed poor performance in selected municipalities to lack of visionary leadership.

The mapping of the international research landscape highlights a critical shortage of qualitative research. Based on the evidence presented above, the author argues that a similar pattern may exist in South Africa. For example, Ndevu and Muller (2018) carried out a qualitative study to examine performance management as a tool for effective delivery of services. Specifically, the study addresses the question of how the balanced scorecard (BSC) can be used to improve performance. To answer this question, the authors employed qualitative research strategy and used semi-structured interview guide to conduct interviews with different stakeholders within out outside a particular Municipality under investigation. The interviews followed the structure of the data collection instrument and included themes such as performance measurement, performance evaluation, management commitment, and policy implementation. Although the researchers did not specify their sampling technique, the used thematic analysis to analyse the empirical data. In terms of research findings, the study found several impediments to municipal performance. These include lack of consequence management, lack of capacity, poor management of performance processes, and lack of proactive leadership. Thus, the study concludes that leadership is essential to successful implementation of a Balanced

Score Card (BSC) in local government.

In a similar study, Nzimakwe and Ntshakala (2016) conducted a study to assess the degree to which performance management has been implemented at the West Rand District Municipality. The authors used stratified sampling to select respondents that responded to a questionnaire containing a mix of qualitative and quantitative questions. The use of a semi structured questionnaire and a large sample size of 80 people who participated in the study may appear to suggest that this study adopted a mixed method approach. However, in the absence of an explicit description of the research strategy used, the author classifies this study as qualitative. In addition, the author argues that using stratified sampling is not enough to make a study quantitative. This is more so when the analysis and presentation of results do not look anything quantitative. Nevertheless, the study presents useful findings that corroborate the arguments embedded in this study. For example, the study found ineffective implementation of performance management interventions in the Municipality under investigation. Particularly, the study found some level of alignment on the process of planning, implementation and performance management. However, the systems for monitoring remain a challenge. Therefore, the study concluded that while monitoring is done, linking organisational performance and individual performance remains sub-standard.

Cronin and Sadan (2015) used qualitative approach to explore attitudes of senior government officials on use of evidence in decision-making. The authors used a semi-structured interview guide to obtain data from 54 participants selected through purposive sampling. Although the authors do not specify techniques used for data analysis, their description of data analysis implies use of thematic analysis. In the main, this study revealed low level of evidence use in policy-making processes across all departments. The reason for this is lack of value placed on learning and research. Therefore, the study concludes that effective use of evidence requires culture and behaviour change. As a result, it calls for interventions that contribute to building institutional and individual capacity, commitment and energy for change.

So far, none of the South African studies reviewed above had applied grounded theory. Therefore, the author embarked on a spirited search for qualitative studies that used grounded theory design to explore different aspects of performance management in South African Municipalities. The first study used grounded theory to develop leadership model for improved service delivery in a District Municipality (Pretorius & Schurink, 2007). The authors collected data using a combination of structured and semi-structured interviews and participant observations to obtain data from four individuals within the municipality. Based on the experience of one of the researchers who was employed in the Municipality at the time of the study, the four participants were selected on the basis of their substantive experience on leadership.

In terms of data analysis, the authors used techniques and procedures provided in Strauss and Corbin (1990). Specifically, the researchers used a standard format that begins with coding and comparisons of data. To prepare for the analysis, the researchers prepared field notes, recorded interviews and produced transcripts. Open coding was employed to create categories of meanings from the transcripts. In addition, ATLAS.ti was used to undertake axial coding, a process that created core categories on the relationships between open codes leading to construction of empirical theory on leadership. In terms of the findings, the study lack of communication, lack of coordination and

tedious internal processes as key factors affecting effective service delivery in the municipality under investigation. To address these challenges, the study proposes a model that underscore the importance of creating a culture of performance anchored on continuous monitoring and evaluation. Although this study provides a detailed account of methods used for data collection and analysis, the authors did not effectively apply constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling as detailed in Strauss and Corbin (1990). According to Flick (2019) these techniques are pertinent to successful implementation of grounded theory research. Therefore, failure to recognise this is the main weakness of Pretorius and Schurink's (2007) study.

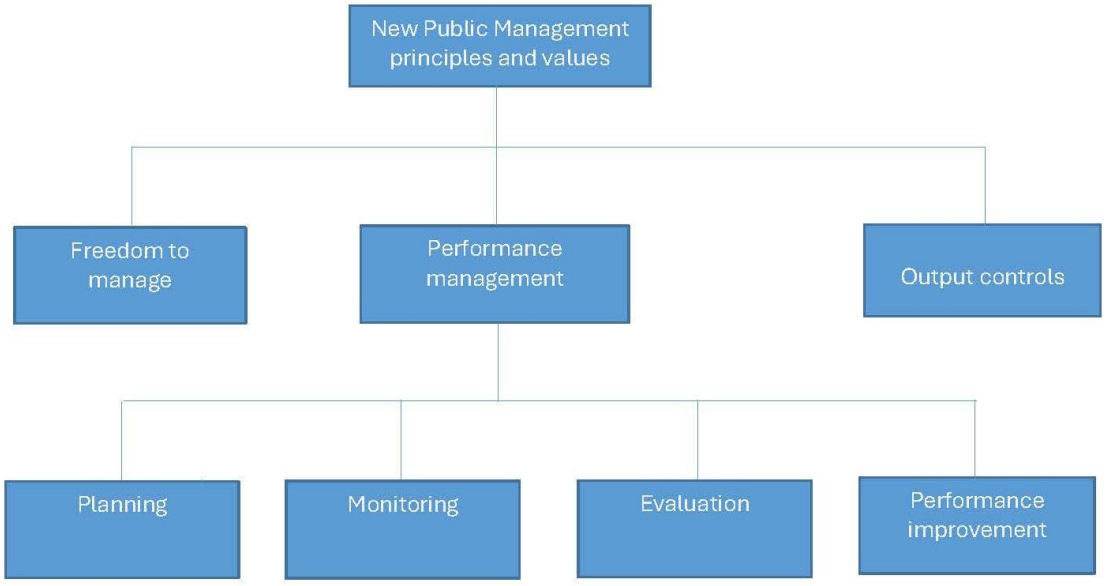
A similar weakness is inherent in other studies. For example, Ambe (2009) applied grounded theory to explore supply chain management practices in several municipalities in South Africa. The author used open coding, axial coding and selective coding for creating preliminary concepts as well as for constructing empirical theory on strengthening the supply chain management. However, the study does not mention how constant comparative analysis facilitated generation of grounded theory. Similarly, Ndevu (2019) conducted a study on the relationship between trust and organisational performance in a particular municipality in South Africa. This study mentions coding but does not provide details on the type of coding and coding procedures used. In addition, the author does not detail the significance of constant comparative analysis and constant comparative analysis in facilitation transition from coding to theory generation. This omission is serious because these techniques constitute the core of qualitative analysis in grounded theory approach (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Glaser, 1992; Strauss, 1987). For this and other reasons advanced in this Section, this study applies grounded theory design. Specifically, the contribution of this study to the body of knowledge lies in its ability to demonstrate the significance of constant comparative analysis and theoretical in deriving the empirical model for improving municipal performance. By so doing, the study offers important insights that may improve methodological limitations observed in previous grounded theory studies in South Africa. Most importantly, the study provides a new perspective on the role of leadership in promoting performance by transforming the culture of politicised bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

2.4. Introduction to management and its components

As part of the conceptual framework underpinning this study, Section 2.1 up to Section 2.3 provide a critical account on how this study is conceptualised. In particular, these Sections provide a detailed account on how the author reviewed literature to understand the research problem in context and establish the knowledge gap. Establishing the research knowledge gap provides justification for selection of the research strategy, design, procedures, methods, and techniques discussed in the next chapter. Another aspect that prepares research for its empirical undertaking is to determine the

research attributes and the theoretical framework. The former provides themes for data collection while the latter allowed the author to derive a framework for interpreting the empirical results. In light of this, the author interrogated literature to understand management as the field of study. This understanding is the basis for identifying attributes for data collection and provides for theories and frameworks for effective interpretation of the empirical results. A detailed description of the research attributes and the theoretical framework is provided in Section 2.5 and Section 2.6 respectively. For now, the focus is on deconstructing the field of study encompassing this study. In terms of structure, the field of management consists of two components, namely business management and public management. Since this research is conducted within the context of a public entity, this Section deliberately interrogates public management. As demonstrated in Figure 2.1, public management is divided into several components and processes.

Figure 2.1: Components of Public Management



Source: Adapted from Hood (1991)

According to Kalimullah, Alam and Nour (2012), public administration refers to the organisation and management of men and materials to achieve the purpose of the government (Kalimullah, Alam, & Nour, 2012). This study traces the origin of public administration to the 19th century when the American administrative machinery was in a state of disarray. As Van Riper (1987) points out, this is the time when administrative positions were distributed to those who contributed to the victorious party's electoral success. This gave rise to incompetence, inefficiency, and corruption (Gruening, 2001). The need to address these challenges gave impetus to a wave of public reforms that continue to

dominate the field of public administration and management to date.

Max Weber and Wilson are widely regarded as leaders of the progressive movement to reform politics and administration. At the centre of this movement was the concept of management, which was introduced as a strategy to improve the functions of traditional public administration. In this regard, Weber (1947) defined several principles of bureaucracy anchored on rationality, hierarchy, and division of labour. These principles were expanded by Henry Fayol in his seminal work on 14 principles of management. This expansion retained the hierarchical structure of public institutions proposed in Weber but added critical values and principles that guide management in maintaining an efficient and effective bureaucracy. Although a set of principles and values for an efficient and effective bureaucracy have been laid out, the problems that characterised the American spoils system remained a reality during the apartheid government. Therefore, when the ANC assumed power in 1994, it introduced New Public Management (NPM) reforms as a strategy to dismantle the apartheid bureaucracy and ensure effective and efficient delivery of public services.

As noted in Hood (1991), NPM is structured along two different streams of thought, namely institutional economics and managerialism. Although this study is embedded in the field of management, it is important to note that institutional economics is concerned with the role of institutions in the economy. In other words, it highlights the significance of institutional behaviour in promoting economic growth. Although it departs from the neoclassical view that presents market as the main predictor of economic growth, institutional economics retains quantitative measures of neoclassical economics when it comes to economic performance. As a result, it is not appropriate for use in this study where performance is conceptualised around effectiveness.

Figure 2.1 presents different components of NPM. The main component is managerialism, which is a philosophy encompassing management principles and values borrowed of the private sector. It is widely argued that improving public performance is a function of implanting these principles and values into the public institutions. This transfusion of ideas from the private sector into the public sector is known as NPM. As reflected in Figure 2.1, NPM consists of three subcomponents of performance management, output controls, and active/visible managers with freedom to manage. The subcomponent of performance management, which is the subject of investigation in this study, is further divided into four attributes. These are planning, monitoring, evaluation, and performance improvement. In sum, a collection of managerial principles and values outlined in Hood (1991) represents what the author calls the structure of NPM. This structure consists of three elements of performance management, freedom to manage, and output control. The author argues that even though these are presented as separate elements of NPM (Hood, 1991), they are interrelated parts of performance management. Therefore, any discussion of performance management going forward incorporates these aspects. At the lowest level of the hierarchy of public management

presented in Figure 2.1 lies what the author refers to as attributes of NPM. As noted in Nzimakwe and Ntshakala (2016) these are key processes of performance management. As noted earlier, these interrogating literature on these processes is a critical step towards empiricial undertaking of this study. Before discussing these attributes, the author provides a detailed account on the implementation of NPM in Europe and America before narrowing down to South Africa. This discussion provides useful information on the practice and evolution of NPM. It is argued that this evoluation is necessary to understand factors that enhance or impede performance in different settings. The European countries under consideration include the United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand. These countries represent textbook cases of NPM (Wegrich, 2009) and have immensely influenced the structure and content of public sector reforms in South Africa. According to Gruening (2001), the United States of America is home for public choice. For this reason, it is also considered for discussion in this Section.

2.4.1. New public management in the United Kingdom

Several authors trace the origins of New Public Management (NPM) in the United Kingdom (UK) back to the global financial crisis of the 1970s (Falconer, 1997; Wegrich, 2009; Wilson, 2004). However, this study argues that the UK has a long history of public reforms predating the 1970s. For example, Trevelyan and Northcote's investigation into the recruitment and promotion system within the British civil service in 1853 marks the turning point for public sector reforms (Davis, 2006). This investigation found entrenched nepotism within the civil service with unqualified and incompetent people appointed in the civil service. Therefore, the report recommended introduction of competitive examinations for recruitment into the civil service but this suggestion was initially rejected. However, as the civil service grew and the role of government changed to a much more active and positive engagement in public affairs it became apparent that the civil service was not properly equipped (Chapman,1968). Therefore, another committee chaired by Lord Fulton was established to examine the structure, recruitment and management, including training, of the civil service. The findings of this committee were generally similar to those that were rejected before.

Based on the recommendations of the committee, the British government established the civil service college to provide management training to civil servants. It also created department of civil service to implement meritocracy and supported those who had been appointed without qualifications to get requisite university training. In addition, the principle of 'accountable management' was introduced to give managers more authority and freedom to manage and hold individuals accountable for clearly defined performance standards (Chapman, 1968). As Manning (2001) points out, these interventions created a professional, efficient, and competent civil service. Efforts to the transform the civil service slightly took the back seat as the focus shifted to enconomic reforms in the wake of

the financial crisis that led to the intervention of the International Monetary Fund (IMD) in 1976. However, these efforts were revived in the 1980s with the implemention of the Financial Management Initiative of 1982 that paved the way for the abolition of the department of civil service. Amongst other things, this initiative decentralised management functions to line departments with the view to give managers more responsibilities over subordinates. This shift in administrative practices is aligned to the concept of freedom to manage espoused in Hood (1991). In addition, the Financial Management Initiative introduced principles of results-based management with all departments required to define objectives and output measures. As part of inculcating a culture of performance, government departments were required to sign two-year performance agreements with the treasury during the spending review period. As Wegrich (2009) points out, the spending review is a tool for evaluation of departmental performance against targets and allows for adjustment of resource allocation in line with changes that may occur within the three-year budget cycle.

Another important performance mechanism is the delivery unit established under Tony Blair premiership following his dissatisfaction with the performance of the civil service. Reporting directly to the Prime Minister, who regularly attended performance monitoring and review meetings, this unit coordinated performance of government along defined indicators and targets. The author concurs with several scholars who mentioned that the attendance of the Prime Minister in regular meetings of the delivery unit represents unprecedented level of political will (Barber, 2007; Christopher & Hood, 2006). Despite its success as the high-level coordinating and monitoring platform, the unit was abolished following the coalition government between the Conservativists and Liberal Democrats in 2010. Both the Delivery Unit and the public service agreements were replaced with departmental business plans, which are tools for accountability and management across government.

So far, the author has discussed prominent features of performance management reforms in the UK but the question of interest is, what makes the UK a textbook model as pointed in Wegrich (2009). Perhaps this is because the political will and continuity of purpose. For example, Thatcher took political leadership on the market-oriented reforms implemented in response to the financial crisis in the 1970s. When Blair came to office, he continued with the reforms agenda but put more emphasis on performance monitoring. Demonstrating the level of consistency in political direction, Pollitt (2006) states that even though the reforms agenda shifted over time, the basic direction remained rooted in the core principles of NPM. Similarly, Wegrich (2009) argues that Conservative and New Labour administrations have embraced the basic doctrines of the NPM. Therefore, the success of NPM in the UK comes down to a combination of political direction and continuity of purpose.

Given the widely recognised success of NPM in the UK, there are limited studies on what

did not work well. This notwithstanding, too much emphasis on targets resulted in gaming (Christopher & Hood, 2006). Adding to this, Worall and Mather (2008) state that management regimes under public service agreements have distorted behaviours as organisations focused on compliance. Second, there was no blueprint for reform and goals evolved over time making it difficult for government to state exactly what it wanted to do (Sözen, 2002). Third, the British model was characterised by strong control of public institutions from the centre. As Wegrich (2009) points out, this diminished professional autonomy. Last, privatisation that occurred during Thatcherism resulted in massive loss of jobs (Wegrich, 2009). Given these challenges, one argues that the implementation of NPM in the UK is mixed bag of success and some failures. As noted in subsequent Sections, some of the NPM interventions implemented in South Africa are borrowed from the UK. In the next Section, the author examines implementation of NPM reforms in Australia and New Zealand with the view to establish how these countries influenced the public management reforms agenda in South Africa.

2.4.2. New public management in Australia

Unlike the United Kingdom, which has a long history of performance management, Australia adopted New Public Management in the late 1980s. This journey began in 1972 after the Labour Party assumed office for the first time in twenty-three years (Hazlehurst & Nethercote, 1977). Evidence highlights the commitment of the new government to a broad reform agenda. To give effect to this agenda, the government established the Royal Commission of Australian Government Administration in 1976. According to Weller (1989), this Commission was equired to examine most aspects of the public service and other agencies of administration.

After reviewing the Coombs' (1976) report, the author identifies the following reasons that led to the adoption of the public service reforms. First, under the leadership of Whitlam, the Labour Party gained office for the first time in twenty-three years. Therefore, many Ministers were had no prior knowledge and experience on how the government worked. Second, the new government was in a hurry to implement its electoral promises and at times Ministers wanted to introduce plans for complex and wide-ranging programs but the public service was unaccustomed to the pace and pressure of these demands (Hazlehurst & Nethercote, 1977). This presented some conflicts and mistrust between the new government and the public servants who had served for a long time under the previous Liberal Party led administration. This conflict was displayed through resistance that government faced from public servants when it tried to change the configuration of some departments. Last, there excessive political intervention in administrative affairs had resulted in

conflicts and mistrust between Ministers and bureaucrats. These conflicts had affected the performance of the civil service to the point that a group of prominent Labour Parliamentarians openly expressed their dissatisfaction with the performance of the public service and called for a parliamentary inquiry.

At the end of its tenure, the Commission made several findings that converge on the main theme of inefficient and hierarchical bureaucracy. In this regard, the Commission proposed that this problem should be addressed by making permanent heads and managers of departments accountable and efficient. This recommendation is similar to the strategy of freedom to manage that was adopted in the UK. However, unlike the UK which initially focused on privatisation, Australian reforms were designed to address the poor performance of the civil service. As Halligan (2013) points out, the first phase of the Australian reforms focused on results-based management anchored on Financial Management Improvement Programme (FMIP) adopted in 1984. A notable attribute of this programme was a systematic diagnostic survey to understand financial management problems in the civil service.

The survey revealed that budgeting was used as a tool for spending money rather than achieving results (McDonald, 1990). Adding to this, Shaw (2012) argues that departments received parliamentary appropriations assessed against the cost of inputs. This weakness was addressed through introduction of the Program Management and Budgeting (PMB) in late 1985. As an important component of the Financial Management Improvement Programme, this programme introduced performance-based budgeting. In addition, evaluation was introduced as another component of the FMIP. In this regard, government agencies are required to plan for evaluations and prepare evaluation plans. According to McDonald (1990), the quality of evaluation plans was not satisfactory and the finance department established a task force to assist government departments in this regard. This shows that similar to the UK, capacity building was an important aspect of the Australian reforms.

Another principle of New Public Management that mirrors the British approach is decentralisation of human resources functions. In this respect, performance contracts were introduced for Departmental Secretaries who had previously enjoyed permanent tenure. Similar to the British model, performance-based contracting was accompanied by devolution of staffing for increased accountability and flexibility that allowed managers to manage. According to Halligan (2001), performance contracting is one of the mechanisms introduced to address the problem of political interference mentioned earlier. As part of strengthening the independency of the civil service, efforts were made to build a cohort of highly qualified and competent managers. Some of these efforts included attracting top managers from the private sector through lucrative fixed-term contracts. These efforts culminated in the creation of Senior Executive Service

(SES)consisting of senior officials below the level of Permanent Secretaries. However, fixed term contracting failed to attract external appointments and the majority of SES appointments continued to come from intra-departmental promotions (Halligan, 2013). The reason for this failure is that the salary packages reserved for these positions were not as lucrative compared to the private sector. Despite the failure of the SES, Australia is widely regarded as a success story for implementation of NPM reforms and the factors behind this success are detailed in the next paragraph.

Unlike in Britain where there was a change of focus from performance management reforms to economic reforms that took the centre stage in the 1970s, Australia structured its reforms around improving public service performance and had been consistent in that regard. Therefore, consistency and political leadership are important factor that made performance management reforms successful in both Australia and the UK. Second, results-based management principles were widely applied leading to improved strategic focus and decision-making in government (McDonald, 1990). Adding to this, Halligan (2010) states that in general, programme managers are now results oriented and accept responsibility for cost-effective management. In other words, performance management reforms have inculcated a culture of accountability and responsibility within the Australian civil service. Last, the requirement for departments to prepare and implement evaluation plans came with an inbuilt capacity development programme. This allowed the departments to improve development and implementation of evaluation plans thereby contributing to improved availability of evaluation- information. These benefits notwithstanding, the author points to some challenges concerning implementation of NPM reforms in Australia.

While devolution of human resource functions to the departments improved efficiency and accountability, its success was limited by the unwillingness of some line managers to assume resource management responsibilities. This behaviour may be a carryover from the traditional administration model, in which resource management was seen as being primarily the role of management services units (Halligan, 2003). Related to the accountability issue is the introduction of fixed term contracting which, according to McDonalds (1990), resulted in job insecurity and made departmental secretaries vulnerable to political interference. Elaborating on this point, Halligan and Power (1992) point to several secretaries that were dismissed from public service because of political considerations. Another challenge is that

In summary, the Australian model of New Public Management borrowed heavily from the British model. In this regard, it has been established that strong political leadership and consistency are critical ingredients for successful implementation of performance management reforms. The study has also highlighted capacity building as an important element that enhance the success of these reforms. Last, Australia and the United Kingdom applied public management principles to the letter (Halligan, 2010; Shaw, 2012; McDonald, 1990). The last point of conclusion is that in as much as the

two countries adopted a similar model, their approach was different in material ways. The British model was entrenched in economic reforms with particular emphasis on privatisation.
On the other hand, the Australian model focused firmly on performance management as a strategy to attain economic efficiency. Another point of contradiction is that the UK maintained a highly professional civil service while Australia had some challenges with political interference.

2.4.3. New public management in New Zealand

New Zealand was not immune to the economic crisis that led to the adoption of New Public Management within the Organisation of Economic Cooperation Development (OECD) countries. Therefore, when the Labour Party took office in 1984, it inherited an economy characterised by high inflation and slow growth coupled with a bloated, inefficient, and poorly managed public sector (Bale & Dale, 1998). As Mulgan (2008) puts it, the bureaucracy behaved in ways that undermine the capability of government hence service delivery was poor. However, unlike Australia, which before the advent of NPM had a public service characterised by nepotism, New Zealand always had a relatively politically neutral public service appointed on merit (Goldfinch, 1998). Nevertheless, the New Zealand bureaucracy was large, inefficient, and ineffective. For this reason, the Labour Party led government introduced public sector reforms. Generally, the New Zealand approach to performance management reforms was similar to that of the two countries discussed earlier. However, its approach was distinct in two ways. On one hand the reforms were led by a small elite group of politicians, policy advisers and lobbyists (Goldfinch, 1998) with massive experience in public policy. On the other, the treasury led the reforms agenda which, according to Chapman and Duncan (2010), was embedded in principles and values of public choice. For example, the treasury released a paper that identified several causes of inefficiency within the civil service, namely the monopolistic structure of public-service markets, inadequate indicators for performance measurement, and the large size of bureaucracy.

To address these challenges, the treasury adopted elements of institutional economics and managerialism explicitly as defined in Hood (1999). Using this guidance as a framework, New Zealand implemented the most coherent that stood the test of time (Chapman & Duncan, 2010). The most important objective of this programme was to improve efficiency, effectiveness and accountability. Contrary to Australia and Britain whose approach to reforms alternated between economic and management principles, New Zealand applied principles of institutional economics and managerialism concurrently and with equal determination. In support of this argument, the author points to the sequencing of legal instruments that gave rise to NPM reforms. The first instrument was the State-Owned Enterprises Act of 1986, which provided for corporatisation and later privatisation of government-owned businesses. The main purpose of the Act was to transform or

sell off state assets that were running at a loss. The Act required corporatised companies to operate like full commercial entities with clearly defined strategic goals and clear mechanisms for measuring progress. Because of these changes, all the remaining government-owned companies now run profitably and proceeds from privatisation were used to reduce government debt (Bale & Dale, 1998). This means that the State- Owned Enterprises Act was an instrument for achieving economic efficiency and management effectiveness simultaneously.

In a further display of concurrence in the application of economic and management principles, the Labour Party adopted the State Sector Act in 1988 to improve the accountability relationships within the public service. To this end, the Act removed permanent tenure for heads of department and introduced a fixed term appointments renewable on performance. In addition, their titles were changed to Chief Executives and given the authority and freedom to run departments in ways they deem suitable for meeting performance (Ball, 1994). Similar to those in the private sector, the CEOs are responsible for making all decisions on the number of employees needed and the skill mix of personnel required in line with the departmental strategic objectives (Chapman & Duncan, 2010). The changes effected through the State Sector Act are similar to those experienced in Australia and the United Kingdom where the tenure of departmental secretaries was changed from permanent to fixed term contracts. This means that the three countries adopted contractualism as a strategy for improving accountability and performance within the public service.

Accountability processes are much more effective if outputs to be delivered are well specified in advance (Bale & Dale, 1998). Therefore, New Zealand adopted a results-based management approach with a clear description of roles and responsibilities in the delivery of departmental outputs and outcomes. For example, the accountability regime is based on clearly defined and demarcated responsibilities between CEOs and Ministers with the former accountable for outputs and the latter for outcomes. (Bale & Dale, 1998) To enhance financial accountability, the Fiscal Responsibility Act was enacted in 1990. As its name suggests, this Act was intended to ensure responsible fiscal management by reducing debt and maintaining fiscal balance. Although this instrument was largely concerned with fiscal discipline, it has an important provision that required government departments to report on their short-term and long-term objectives (Treasury, 2015). This means that the State Sector Act of 1988 and the Finance Management Act of 1989 are instruments for creating an accountable and performing civil service in New Zealand. With the introduction of the Fiscal Responsibility Act in 1990, the National Party government, laid the foundation that continued under different administrations. For example, Chapman and Duncan (2010) state that the successive governments between 1990-1994 did not make any significant changes to the basic tenets that inform the structure of NPM reforms.

Similar to the other countries discussed earlier, political will and consistency are the hallmarks of successful implementation of NPM in New Zealand. Most importantly, the commitment to reforms in this country was underpinned by a theoretical framework that enabled implementation of the reforms as conceptualised in the literature. This success does not mean implementation of NPM was perfect. The Schick's (1996) review of the reforms established that too much emphasis on outputs resulted in a silo approach where Chief Executives focused on outputs for which they were accountable while ignoring broader long-term strategic contribution of departments. In addition, the emergence of the coalition government in 1996 affected the political capacity to give effect to rapid reforms due to lack of political consensus (Chapman & Duncan, 2010).

Despite this challenge, evidence suggests that successive governments from the late 1990s to date, have introduced innovations that enhance the limitations of the NPM reforms without tempering with its original structure. Some of the innovations focus on strategic management on outcomes, rather than only the production of outputs (Chapman & Duncan, 2010). In this regard, the State Sector Act of 1988 was repealed and replaced by the new Public Service Act 2020. This new Act underscores the role of leadership in promoting a customer focused service delivery. This means that the focus has now changed from improving efficiency and producing outputs to delivery of quality and responsive services.

To wrap up this Section, the author argues that generally Australia and its two counterparts discussed earlier followed the same path in implementing the NPM reforms. However, New Zealand stands out for its approach that was guided by a conceptual framework derived from institutional economics and managerialism as per the dictates of public management literature. Unlike Australia and Britain which alternative between privatisation and management, New Zealand stands out for paying equal attention to the two steams of new public management. Most importantly, New Zealand did so in a systematic and meticulous manner under an elaborate legal framework. Even though the author considers New Zealand the most successful of the three in implementing New Public Management reforms, there were a few challenges to note.

According to Gill (2000), the reforms created a plethora of well-focused, often single- purpose organisations thereby weakening coordination and interdepartmental Similar to the Australian experience, introduction of performance-based contracting did not come with attractive packages that matched the private sector. Therefore, it is difficult to retain highly skilled CEOs in the public service (Duncan, 1997). Related to this is the lack of organised management training programme meaning that there was little internal public service for the development of future leaders and chief executives (Chapman & Duncan, 2010). In addition, the political changes that came with the introduction of the new electoral model had slowed down the pace of reforms. As Duncan (2004) points out, it is now politically much harder, if not impossible, to apply a 'pure' neo-liberal or NPM policy model

in New Zealand. This is because the coalition governance arrangements make consultations and negotiations much harder (Chapman & Duncan, 2010). Based on the forgoing discussions, the study argues that the countries discussed herein, have a better experience than South Africa which introduced NPM reforms for the first time in 1994. Therefore, South Africa had the opportunity to learn from best practice countries when it comes to implementing public management reforms. In the next Section, the author interrogates literature understand implementation of NPM reforms in South Africa. This understanding will allow the author to make evidence-based judgement on whether or not South Africa learnt anything from its counterparts.

2.4.4. New public management in South Africa

It is a fact that African countries continue to face economic challenges that gave rise to New Public Management (NPM) reforms in Western countries in the 1980s. However, the conditions that made these reforms successful in developed countries do not exist in most African countries including South Africa. For instance, South Africa has a politicised bureaucracy (Mlambo, Zubane, & Thusi, 2022) inherited from the apartheid. Therefore, implementation of NPM reforms in South Africa should be understood within the context of the apartheid. It is for this reason that this Section highlights the history of public administration in South Africa before interrogating the structure and content of the performance management reforms in South Africa.

South African has a unique history of colonialism in which the British and the Dutch introduced a public administration characterised by systematic economic and political exclusion and blatant tant violation of human rights of non-white inhabitants. After several conflicts between 1795 and 1902, the British and the Dutch formed the Union of South Africa in 1910. Shortly thereafter, the Union enacted the Native Land Act to formalise and entrench racial inequalities. According to Sparks (2003), the Act came in response to the pressure from the white farming sector and the mining industry on government to facilitate more cheap labour. As Sithole and Mathonsi (2015) points out, the Act formalised systematic dispossession of black people's land and livestock resulting in further impoverishment and marginalisation. The systematic dispossession of land was further entrenched in 1948 when the National Party came into power. The election of the National Party through a system that excluded blacks from voting, marked the beginning of apartheid.

Another strategy used for entrenching racial segregation was the creation of homelands. According to Sithole and Mathonsi (2015) these were used as labour reserves for the mining industry and other white-owned businesses including the farms. As a matter of policy, most homelands and other peri-urban settlements designated for black populations were not provided with basic municipal services. Where such services were provided, they were deliberately designed to be of inferior standards compared to those provided in white areas. Given this situation, the 1970s and 1980s were

characterised by a spate of violent service delivery protests. Thus, Reddy (2016) argues that service delivery protests originated during the apartheid and were used as strategies to express dissatisfaction with the poor delivery of services. Therefore, the advent of democracy in 1994 came with the hope of a better life and improved service delivery. The next paragraph presents New Public Management (NPM) as the framework that guided the efforts of the new democratic government led by the African National Congress (ANC) in addressing the apartheid legacy of poor service delivery in black communities.

Two factors influenced the decision of the ANC to adopt New Public Management. According to Cameron (2015), the ANC government was motivated by the need to move from a public service that provided services based on race to the one that provided equitable services to all. It also wanted to modernise the public service, which had become outdated due to international isolation under apartheid (Tianyuan, 2009). In order to achieve these goals, South Africa structured its approach to NPM around decentralisation of power to managers, financial reforms, performance management, contract appointments, the introduction of the senior management service and corporatisation. Even though South Africa had a different motive from Australia, Britain, and New Zealand, its reforms agenda drew heavily from these countries. Therefore, this Section discusses implementation of NPM in South Africa in relation to these countries. In doing so, the author limits his focus to public reforms associated with managerialism as the stream of NPM underlying this study.

In an effort to move towards a public service that provided quality and equitable services to all, the ANC embarked on the transformation of the Commission for Administration as it was known during apartheid, to the Public Service Commission (PSC). The Commission for Administration had the executive power over human resources in the entire public service (Cameron, 2015). This mean that apartheid government had a highly central and racial approach to management of human resources within the entire civil service. Drawing from the experience of the OECD countries discussed earlier, the advent of democracy in South Africa coincided with a shift to a decentralised approach to service delivery. However, at the early years of democracy, the main priority was to dismantle the racial architecture of the public service and promote equitable access to service delivery. To achieve this, the government adopted the White Paper on Transforming the Public Service in 1997. According to Ncholo (2000), this is the first instrument that provided a conceptual framework for the transformation of the South African public service.

A series of legislative and administrative reforms were necessary to give effect to the transformational objectives expressed in the White Paper. One of the first legislative reforms is the Public Service Law Amendment Act of 1997 which made amendments to the Public Service Act of 1994. The reason for this amendment is that the newly created PSC under the Public Service Act still had executive powers over human resources just the same way as the Commission for Administration had under apartheid. Therefore, the amendments transferred executive power from the PSC to

politicians. As provided in the law, Ministers are referred to as Executive Authorities with power over human resources within their departments and are expected to delegate this function to further down to Director-Generals and Heads of Departments. However, delegation of this function does not happen in practice (Cameron, 2010). Whie this requirement is in line with the principle of letting managers manage that was part of NPM implementation in OECD countries, it was not effectively implemented in South Africa. For example, a survey conducted by the Department of Public Service and Administration revealed that only 18% of departments reported above average delegation while 10% reported extensive delegation. Further delegation to officials lower in the hierarchy was even more limited with 72 percent of cases showing that the Heads of Departments did not delegate powers to officials further down the hierarchy chain (DPSA, 2008). Based on this evidence, the author argues that failure to effectively implement the principle of letting managers manage leaves politicians with too much power and creates the opportunity for nepotism and political interference. For instance, Ministers as political appointees of the ANC, are custodians of the cadre policy, which is an instrument used by the ANC to appoint its loyalists in key positions within the public service. Several scholars point to this policy as the underlying cause of poor municipal performance in South Africa (Gumede, 2015; Makole, 2022; Malefane, 2010; Shava & Chamisa, 2018).

Even though South Africa had a legislative and administrative framework for implementing New Public Management, the early years of its implementation were haphazard. In support of this argument, Ncholo (2000) posits that early stages of the transformation process in 1994 were marked by the lack of an overall vision to guide the process. As a result, NPM reforms were not implemented in a systematic manner (Cameron, 2009). To highlight lack of coherence in the South African approach to NPM, the author points to a dramatic shift away from Reconstruction and Development Plan in 1994 to a market-oriented framework along the lines of Thatcherism in 1996. As Wenzel (2007) points out, the Deputy President Thabo Mbeki presented the new policy known as Growth, Employment, and Redistribution Strategy (GEAR) as a non-negotiable option to the alliance partners of the ANC. This shows that over and above the lack of a coherent vision, the government did not consult its partners. As a result, NPM did not receive the overwhelming support experienced in Australia and New Zealand.

One of the key principles of NPM is the move away from Weberian career system to performance contracting. As noted earlier, performance contracting is the key feature of the New Zealand model of public sector management reforms. Inspired by the success of this initiative, South Africa introduced performance contracting as part of its NPM strategy. Performance contracting was introduced in the 1980s under apartheid (Miller, 2005) but found systematic expression as a mechanism for enhancing performance and accountability during the ANC government. The New Zealand experience shows that fixed term contracting works well in New Zealand where there are adequate

mechanisms for insulating civil servants from political interference. Even in the US, which uses the hybrid system of meritocracy and cadre deployment, there are adequate mechanisms to protect public executives against political interference (Mafunisa, 2003). However, South Africa is unique in that the tenure of HoDs is dependent on the political-administrative interface relationship rather than competence (Cameron, 2009). This view is corroborated by empirical revelation that high-profile managers have left office before their contracts expired because of conflict with politicians (Maqoko, 2015). To counter this problem, the Department of Public Service and Administration suggested that Directors-General should be regarded as career civil servants, which implies that their skills should not be lost to the public service when their contracts expire. This suggestion gave rise to the creation of the Senior Management Service (SMS) cadre.

Penceliah (2012) identifies two models of SMS, namely the career-based model and the position-based model. The position-based model involves an open appointment where candidates are identified from a wide pool comprising all public servants who are qualified and private sector candidates with adequate qualifications and experience. As reported in the previous Sections, Australia and New Zealand follows the position-based model. On the other hand, career-based model is closed to an identified cohort of senior civil servants who are trained and natured to become elite administrators. The South African SMS follows the position-based model that allows open and transparent recruitment aimed at enhancing quality of service delivery (Penceliah, 2012). However, this assertion is highly debatable given the evidence showing that high-ranking officials are appointed on the basis of political considerations not merit (Gumede, 2015; Shava & Chamisa,2018). Further evidence shows that political appointments are worse at the level of municipalities where the ANC has firmly entrenched its hold over municipal affaires by appointing its cadres in positions Municipal Managers and Heads of Departments (Masiya, Davids, & Manga, 2021). As a result, most authors attribute poor service delivery across South African public service to the fact that political considerations take precedence over merit in the appointment of senior public officials (Gumede, 2015; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Shava & Chamisa, 2018).

Introduction of the SMS in South Africa was a result of the study undertaken by the Department of Public Service and Administration in 2000. This study recommended the establishment of a Senior Management Service (SMS) incorporating managers between the ranks of Director and Director-General (DPSA, 2007). The main reason for the establishment of the SMS was to retain highly skilled managers and improve performance within the public service (Fraser-Moleketi & van Dyk-Robertson, 2003). Based on the recommendations of the DPSA report, the SMS consisting of four top levels namely, Director-General, Deputy Director-General, Chief Director, and Director was established. Compared to Australia and New Zealand, South Africa offered competitive salaries that retained highly qualified managers while also attracting some from

the private sector. In support of this argument, Cameron (2009) argues that the SMS system enabled the public service to compete fairly with the private sector thereby reducing high turnover rates. However, this contradicts earlier evidence showing that contracting led to high turnovers within the South African public service. Perhaps, the high turnover affected other categories of staff except the SMS.

Performance management is another important aspect of NPM that South Africa borrowed from the OECD countries. As Penceliah (2012) points out, performance management focuses on continuous improvement of performance and outcomes. Adding on this, Miller (2005) states that focusing on results entails an emphasis on how individuals and organisations perform. It is for this reason that the Public Service Amendment Act of 1997 and the New Public Service Regulations of 1999 highlight the significance of individual and organisational performance. In particular, the Regulations outline key principles of performance management required for enhancing organisational efficiency, effectiveness, and accountability. One of the key principles is to link individual performance to organisational performance (Ncholo, 2000) and the other relates to development of Performance Management and Development System (PMDS). Ncholo (2000) and Miller (2005) agree that a comprehensive performance management system that links individual performance to organisational performance was required to transform the public service into a highly productive organ in which employees are accountable for the quality of the outputs they deliver. To this end, the ANC government adopted a performance management system that consists of three components.

The first component is concerned with strengthening availability of programme performance information. Led by the Treasury, this framework focuses on strengthening the systems that generate performance information from different sources across government departments. Specifically, performance information include output and outcome information collected at provincial level for strategic and annual performance plans and budgets, and at local level for Integrated Development Plans and Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plan (The Presidency, 2007). In other words, this component is about collecting periodic and routine data for monitoring performance of government programmes. The second component is the Statistical Quality Assurance Framework (SASQAF) of 2008. The purpose of this component is to protect the quality and integrity of the data. The last component is evaluation, which is intended to encourage government institutions to evaluate their programmes on a regular basis, establish a uniform approach to conducting evaluations and create a culture of evaluation- information use. Despite the development of the Evaluation Policy Framework in 2011, most studies point to poor use of evaluation-information within the South African public service as a whole (Cronin & Sadan, 2015; Goldman, 2015; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Sidzumo & Wotela, 2016). In particular, Kariuki and Reddy (2017) as well as Mello (2018) argue that

poor use of evaluation- information is more prevalent at the local government where there is shortage of skills for monitoring and evaluation. However, it is important to note that the assessment of the implementation of the South African evaluation system revealed an improvement in use of evaluation-information within the public service (Goldman, Deliwe, Taylor, & Ishmail, 2019).

A combination of the three components discussed above has created a performance management system that mirrors the New Zealand approach to move away from the outputs system to an outcomes-orientated approach. In this regard, South Africa faced similar challenges to New Zealand with the most prominent being lack of clearly defined results and the lack of alignment between individual and organisational performance (Cameron, 2015). Capacity constraint is another important element that affects effective implementation of performance management in South Africa. Several studies point to the practice of appointing political cadres in key strategic positions across the public service as the main reason for incompetence around monitoring and evaluation issues (Makole, 2022; Malefane, 2010; Mlambo, Zubane, & Thusi, 2022; Mngomezulu, 2020; Shava & Chamisa, 2018). Last, Cameron (2015) revealed lack of compliance in the signing and evaluation of individual performance agreements by senior officials. This is indicative of lack of political will for managing performance. It is also a reflection of counterproductive attitude that points to the existence of a culture that in not conducive to effective implementation of NPM in the South African public service. As discussed in the previous Sections, political will and a positive culture that embrace performance were fundamental to successful implementation of NPM reforms in OECD countries.

In summary, this Section has discussed an international experience on implementation of public management reforms. In particular, the author drew from the OECD countries because of their recognised success in the implementation of NPM. Specifically, these countries adopted NPM as a strategy to respond to the economic crisis that had affected most parts of the world in the 1970s and early 1980s. However, the motive for adoption of NPM in South Africa was primarily to redress the legacy of the apartheid regime. Therefore, public management reforms in South Africa have not been as successful as they were in the OECD countries. In the next Section, the author explains why implementation of NPM in South Africa was not successful.

2.4.5. Key limitations of New Public Management in South Africa

Inspired by the success of the countries discussed above, South Africa adopted New Public Management (NPM) with high expectation of enormous improvements. However, implementation of the NPM in South Africa yielded mixed results (Gumede, 2015). Most scholars attribute the failure of NPM reforms in South Africa to corruption and lack of political will (Gumede & Dipholo, 2014; Munzhedzi, 2020; Wenzel, 2007). However, the author attributes ineffective implementation of NPM in South African Municipalities to its flawed conceptual design, which as articulated in Hood (1991),

does not recognise organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute. For instance, the concept of NPM is premised on the widely held assumption that a transfusion of private sector management principles and values into public institutions is enough to improve delivery of public services. Implicit in this assumption is an element of a cultural shift, which according to Gumede (2015), failed to occur in South Africa. The failure of NPM to induce the necessary cultural shift required for performance improvement is confirmed in subsequent chapters that present the empirical results of this study.

There are two main factors that demonstrate the failure of NPM in transforming the administrative culture of the South African public service. First, the appointment of senior public servants in South Africa is based on political considerations. This practice is inconsistent with the principles of New Public Management and has created a culture of politicised bureaucracy characterised by nepotism and corruption. Second, NPM prescribes the same medicine with the same dose for all countries as if they face the same problems. Therefore, NPM is criticised for being a temporary fashion within public administration as it does not seem to be valid for all government and for all timeframe (Hood, 1991). In line with this view, Mafunisa (2003) argues that it is nearly impossible to maintain full-blown politics-administrative dichotomy in South Africa because eradicating the legacy of apartheid requires technocrats that are loyal to the transformational agenda of the ruling party. While this argument makes sense, the author calls for a merit-based cadre system that balances political loyalty with adequate leadership skills. This call comes against theoretical and empirical observations that a heavy reliance on political loyalty over meritocracy is the underlying cause of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Largely, South African scholars critique New Public Management from two perspectives. For example, Wenzel (2007) focuses more on economic impacts of privatisation while Munzhedzi (2020) points to corruption and other issues. Although these perspectives are important, the author deliberately focused on a different perspective that looks at the conceptual design of New Public Management as a concept. This perspective is important because most South African scholars who have investigated implementation of NPM in South African public institutions do not recognise the significance of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute (Gumede & Dipholo, 2014; Munzhedzi, 2020; Wenzel, 2007). Therefore, adopting this line of critique provides a new explanation on the limitations of New Public Management reforms in South Africa.

2.5. Key attributes of performance management

In this study, attributes refer to specific characteristics, properties, or categories that explain key dimensions of performance management as a concept. To understand key elements of this concept, the author applies Gharajedaghi's (2006) systems thinking approach to analyse performance management in terms of its structure, components, processes, and functions. There is consensus that the main function of performance management in the context of South African Municipalities is to ensure effective service delivery. However, there is no consistency on what performance management means because different scholars emphasis different components of this phenomenon. Nzimakwe and Ntshakala (2016) identify setting, monitoring, review, performance improvement and regular reporting as five key components of performance management. Similarly, Mofolo (2012) identifies appraisal/evaluation, planning, reward, and management as key components of performance management.

Based on these views, the author reiterates that improving performance which in this case is measured through effective delivery of services, is the main purpose for performance management in South African Municipalities. Adding to this, the author maintains that performance management consists of four main components that include performance planning, performance measurement, monitoring and evaluation, and performance improvement. Planning involves the establishment of goals and objectives as well as targets against which performance will be measured. Monitoring is about collecting data to track progress on defined indicators and targets set during the planning phase. The component of evaluation becomes important for assessing outcomes and impacts of the intervention against broad goals and objectives and derive lessons for future planning. Another important aspect of performance improvement is concerned with translating the results and lessons learnt from monitoring and evaluation into practice. Collectively, these are referred to as key attributes of performance management that set the study on course for its empirical undertaking. Specifically, these attributes influenced the structure of the semi-structured interview schedule discussed in chapter three. As discussed below, these attributes determine the content of the interviews.

2.5.1. Performance planning

Public sector strategic planning derives its origins from the military where it was used as a tool for managing government affairs through use of state power (Freedman, 2013). This description is consistent with the traditional model of public administration that emphasises state power and control as a mechanism for governance. A new understanding of public strategic planning emerged in the 1980s when the United States used public sector strategic planning as part of the New Public Movement (Eadie, 1983). As discussed earlier, the use of strategic planning as a management tool extended to other countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia, and New Zealand from which

South Africa adopted principles of strategic planning. It has been noted in previous Sections and confirmed by Bryson, Edwards, & Van Slyke (2018) that achieving performance is the most important reason for undertaking strategic planning. Within the local government context in South Africa, the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) is a tool that defines performance trajectory as well as indictors and targets to be used in measuring progress towards performance achievement. This means that the IDP is a tool that informs strategic planning in the City of Tshwane and other Municipalities as provided for in the Municipal Systems Act of 2000. However, the increasing service delivery protests are indicative of ineffective use of IDP as a performance planning and management tool. Therefore, this study aims to collect empirical and secondary data to understand planning processes in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Collecting this data is important because performance planning is a process that commences with the review of Integrated Development Plans (Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016). Therefore, the author seeks to establish if this is done in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The need to establish this is informed by evidence showing that South African municipalities are characterised by inadequate use of evidence for decision-making (Cloete, 2009; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017).

Stakeholder participation is another legislated process underpinning Integrated Development Planning. Given the multiplicity of stakeholders involved in this process, it is not possible to reach all of them. Therefore, the study will collect empirical data to understand how Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality involves its employees in the IDP processes. Involving employees in strategic planning allows them to understand the goals of the organisation, what needs to be done, why it needs to be done, and how well it should be done (Gerolamo, Carpinetti, & Galdamez, 2008). In light of this, the study aims to obtain empirical data to determine whether employees understand and embrace the strategic aspirations of the IDP as a framework for service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, the study will obtain empirical data on the perspective of employees and management on how well employees work towards the achievement of the strategic goals of the Municipality. The author believes that understanding these is a step towards identifying factors that enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

2.5.2. Performance measurement

A description of performance measurement, performance management, and Monitoring and Evaluation as performance management trio demonstrates their significance as key attributes of NPM. Given their close relationships, these concepts are often used interchangeably as if they are synonyms. For example, performance measurement has in some cases been used interchangeably with performance management and sometimes equated to monitoring and evaluation (Kimaro, Fourie, & Tshiyoyo, 2018). Drawing from different definitions found in the

business and management literature, the author describes performance measurement as a process for selecting indicators and setting targets. In other words, performance measurement is related to planning because it involves definition of standards and measurements for monitoring and evaluating the goals and objectives prioritised during the planning phase. The Balanced Score Card (BSC) is the most common performance measurement framework used in South African municipalities. This framework measures performance from four perspectives that focus on customers' needs, financial issues, internal business processes, and organisational learning and improvement.

By design, this study does not focus on financial aspects. In addition, it's attention to stakeholders is only limited to the employees of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality who were the research participants. Therefore, internal processes, as well as organisational learning and improvement are the most relevant aspects of performance measurement from which the author will obtain empirical data. Specifically, the author intends to obtain empirical data to understand how internal bureaucratic processes affect performance in the City of Tshwane. Interrogating internal operational tools, systems, and mechanisms is important for determining procedural and systems issues that enhance or constrain the ability of the Municipality to achieve its service delivery objectives and targets. This interrogation lays the framework for the author to understand how internal processes define the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, the author aims to collect empirical data to determine factors that enhance or constrain innovation and learning in the Municipality. This means that the Balanced Score Card is an important attribute that assists the author to answer key research questions underpinning this study. As noted earlier, there are two aspects of performance measurement. The first involves developing indicators for measuring progress against objectives and priorities established during planning. The second is about collecting data on the monitoring and evaluating progress towards achievement of established goals and objectives. Therefore, the next Sections discuss monitoring and evaluation as key attributes of NPM.

2.5.3. Monitoring and Evaluation

In his classification of key components and elements of NPM, Hood (1991) puts accountability under two doctrines. The first doctrine is about hands-on professional management, which gives rise to the principle of giving managers authority to manage. The second doctrine relates to performance measurement, which relates to quantification of goals, objectives, indicators, and targets. Under this doctrine, accountability is a function of monitoring and evaluation. Abrahams (2015) and Wotela (2017) state that Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) systems promote greater transparency and accountability within governments. Therefore, the author intends to collect empirical data to assess the extent to which this assumption holds in the case of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Data generated from monitoring activities provides management with early warning and possible

stumbling blocks (Ile, Eresia-Eke, & Allen-Ile, 2012). This means that data collection and decision-making are important elements of monitoring. Therefore, this study seeks to understand mechanisms for periodic collection of service delivery data in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, the study aims to determine the quality of data collected and the extent to which it is used for decision-making. The need to investigate these issues comes against revelations of poor quality of data across government departments at all levels (Mngomezulu & Reddy, 2013). Therefore, exploring mechanisms for data collection will yield relevant information for determining performance determinants and impediments relating to monitoring as a NPM attribute in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Another important requirement for effective monitoring is allocation of resources (Kusek & Rist, 2004). In this regard, several studies identify lack of technical skills for monitoring and evaluation as well as lack of funding as a major performance impediment in South African municipalities (Dlamini & Migiro, 2016; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Umlaw & Chitepo, 2015). Therefore, the author seeks to find out if this problem obtains in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and how so.

In terms of evaluation, the author seeks to explore if the City of Tshwane has embraced a culture of evaluation and how. Obtaining empirical data on this aspect is important because Municipalities have a legal obligation to embrace a culture of evaluation in order to inform strategic decision-making. The author argues that compliance with this legislative requirement requires Tshwane to have adequate financial and human resources with adequate skills. However, as noted above, South African municipalities do not have adequate resources. Thus, the author needs to collect empirical data to explore his assumption that lack of financial and technical resources are impediments to creating an evaluation culture in the City of Tshwane. The need to obtain empirical data in this regard come against reported observations of poor evaluation culture in South African public institutions (Cloete, 2009; Cronin & Sadan, 2015; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Mngomezulu & Reddy, 2013). Evidence further points that lack of a conducive environment for evaluation within South African public institutions leads to poor use of evidence in decision-making (Cronin & Sadan, 2015). Therefore, this study seeks to obtain empirical data to determine how inadequate use of evidence in decision-making impedes performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

2.5.4. Performance improvement

The author understands performance improvement from the perspective of Total Quality Management (TQM). Total Quality Management (TQM) is a management approach concerned with the integration of all the efforts in the organisation towards improving quality improvement to meet full customer satisfaction (Talib, 2013). Based on the review of several studies (Spencer, 1994; Swiss, 1992; Wicks, 2001; Zbaracki, 1998), the author identified five elements of TQM namely, transformational leadership, employee empowerment, process management, continuous improvement, and customer satisfaction. With the exception of customer satisfaction, which is outside the scope of this study, the four elements of TQM are summarised as follows. Transformational leadership is about providing unlimited support to employees and empowering them to achieve specific goals. It is also the responsibility of leadership to develop and manage processes, procedures, and systems required for achievement of goals and objectives. The last element of continuous improvement is concerned with use of monitoring and evaluation information to learn and improve performance. Based on this summary, it is clear that TQM enhances quality of work (Vinni, 2007) through supportive leadership that emphasises use of monitoring and evaluation information for learning and improving performance. Therefore, the author seeks to obtain empirical data to understand key dimensions of leadership and how they affect performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

The need to understand the relationship between leadership and performance comes against an observation that leadership was the most critical factor for successful implementation of NPM in OECD countries. In addition, TQM allows the author to examine strategies and processes that facilitate achievement of organisational goals as well as mechanisms for managing poor performance. In this regard, the study aims to determine the extent to which the management of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has adequate mechanism for encouraging performance improvement through appropriate consequence management. The need to investigate issues on consequence management mechanisms arose out of empirical evidence showing lack of consequence management and accountability in South African municipalities (Masiya, Davids & Mangai, 2021; Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016). The issue of employee involvement expressed in the TQM approach is useful for the author to determine the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, Denison (1990) identifies involvement as one of the four traits that promote a performance-oriented culture in public institutions. In view of this, the author argues that TQM provides for leadership and involvement of employees in decision-making as key attributes for successful implementation of NPM principles in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, TQM is useful for identifying attributes of organisational culture relevant for improving performance Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

2.6. Theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical results

This Section intends to achieve two primary objectives. The first is to explore the field of management as the field of study in which this study is located. This exploration allows the author to achieve the second objective of identifying appropriate theories for interpreting the empirical data emerging from the research attributes discussed in the previous Section. Figure 2.1 has introduced New Public Management as a component of management. Therefore, the whole of Section 2.4 presented implementation of NPM in different countries including South Africa while the previous Section outlined key attributes underpinning NPM. Gruening (2001) traces theoretical origins of NPM to institutional economics and managerialism. Therefore, in search of appropriate theories and frameworks for interpreting the empirical results of this study, the author examined prominent theories from institutional economics and management. This examination includes conducting literature review to understand circumstances and events leading to the emergence of common theories and frameworks used for interpreting performance management issues in different contexts. Doing so provides critical information that allows the author to understand the background and evolution of these theories thereby strengthening his critical analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of potential theories for interpreting the empirical results of this study. It is against these strengths and weaknesses that the author derived a theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical findings of this study.

Starting with institutional economics, the author considered three theories commonly used for interpreting empirical results on studies on New Public Management (NPM). These include public choice theory, transaction cost theory, and principal-agent theory. Although these theories have shaped public management reforms in the OECD countries, especially in New Zealand, they are not very useful in this study. Thus, the author extended the search for appropriate theories for interpreting the empirical results of this study to the field of public administration. In this regard, the author interrogated Wilson's (1887) politics-administration dichotomy, Taylor's (1911) theory of scientific management, as well as Weber's (1947) principles of bureaucracy. This interrogation revealed that the politics-administration dichotomy and principles of bureaucracy are relevant for explaining performance constraints within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This notwithstanding, the politics-administration and the principle of bureaucracy are not conceptually equipped to address the root cause of poor performance reported in the empirical chapters of this study. While NPM is touted as the most suitable strategy to address the weaknesses on bureaucracy, it is not conceptually designed to explicitly recognise organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute. Therefore, this adopts organisational culture as the most suitable theory for interpreting the empirical findings of this study.

2.6.1. Public choice

Public choice is one of the theories underpinning New Public Management as noted in Hood (1991) and Gruening (2001). This theory applies methodology and techniques borrowed from the field of economics to analyse the field of politics and public policy. Given its popularity and success in this regard, public choice has been expanded to a range of other fields including public administration and management. Public choice is founded on the principle of self-interest, an issue that was first raised in Adam Smith's Wealth of Nations. In support of this statement, Mueller (1997) argues that it is premised on the assumption that individuals are selfish and rational in pursuit of personal gain. Using this assumption in the fields of public administration and politics means that politicians and public administrators are motivated by selfish interests. As Bale and Dale (1998) point out, politicians may pursue their own objectives at the expense of many of their constituents while government officials may enlarge their department budgets without regard to the overall government financial status. Based on this example, the author argues that public choice is useful for explaining factors that give rise to socio-economic inequalities based on power relationships within different groups in society. Now that public choice has been defined and its key tenets outlined, the next step is to highlight important events that led to its emergence.

The foundations of public choice were laid out in the 1870s by two French mathematicians namely, Jean-Charles de Borda and Marquis de Concordet who used mathematical techniques to explain the rules and outcomes of voting (Mueller, 1997). Throughout the years, principles of public choice have been discussed in different studies marking its evolution from mathematics to the field of economics and later to public administration and political science as reported earlier. There is consensus that the establishment of the Thomas Jefferson Centre for Studies in Political Economy and Social Philosophy by James Buchanan and Warren Nutter at the University of Virginia in 1957 was a significant milestone in the evolution of public choice (Gruening, 2001; Mueller, 1997; Congleton & Voigt, 2019). The purpose of this centre was to promote awareness on public choice through organising lectures and sponsoring research in the area of public choice. One of the significant research milestones for the centre was the publication of the Calculus of Consent by James Buchanan and Gordon Tullock in 1962. Mueller (2012) argues that this book, along with others (Arrow, 1951; Olson, 1965) defined the field of public choice. In 1969, the Centre moved to Virginia Tech and renamed the Centre for the study of public choice and moved again in 1983 to the George Mason University where it currently locates. During these movements, the centre retained its mandate of promoting scholarship on public choice.

In terms of its application, public choice was used to explain that bureaucrats are motivated by self-interest to do their jobs (Downs, 1967). In support of this view, Mueller (1997) identifies power and financial gain as motivating factors for bureaucrats. In this regard, Orchard & Stretton

(1997) posit that public officials maximise budget allocations and make government bigger than necessary. In another study conducted in Ghana, Kombat and Wätzold (2019) applied the principle of self-interest to analyse political behaviour and found that politicians put their interests ahead of public interest when making policy decisions. These findings are similar to those of the study conducted in Peru where it was established that politicians refrained from taking policy decisions due to re-election concerns (Felgendreher & Lehmann, 2016). These studies highlight the relevance of public choice in interpreting the behaviour of public officials and politicians within the context of public policy. Despite its relevance, it has some limitations that make it unsuitable for use in this study. First, it relies on use of quantitative methods but this is not surprising because it originates from mathematics and economics, which are naturally quantitative fields of study. Second, the assumption that all bureaucrats are motivated by self-interest ignores the existence of bureaucrats who are motivated by public interest and professionalism. Last, it does not consider the relationship between self- interest and organisational culture.

2.6.2. Transaction cost theory

Transaction theory is concerned with minimising production costs incurred in operating an economic system (North, 1981). Within the context of the public sector, transaction costs theory compares the costs of planning, adapting, and monitoring (Bale & Dale, 1998) in order to choose an operating model through which these activities can be delivered. Based on the literature review, the author argues that the choice of what model to use for delivery of public goods and services is informed by an understanding that some transactions are better suited for the market while others are better suited to government. For example, contracting out happens when the supply of goods and services is contestable, quality and quantity can be easily measured and specified, and suppliers are numerous (Bale & Dale, 1998). This means that when these conditions are non-existent, in- house production becomes an alternative.

In terms of origin, transaction cost comes from the field of marketing. In support of this view, Rindfleisch (2019) states that transactions lie at the heart of marketing activity and have long been invoked as a foundational element of marketing thought. Similarly, Kotler (1972) describes transactions as a core idea of marketing. The author rejects the assertion that transaction costs theory originates from the field of marketing. For example, when Kotler (1972) released his seminal article on 'a generic concept of marketing', Ronald Coase had already discussed transaction cost theory in his seminal article on 'the nature of the Firm' in 1972. The main premise of transaction costs is that any economic activity entails costs. Therefore, a decision to reduce costs is dependent on a comparison of the costs of organising a transaction within the firm with the cost of the transaction being carried out on the market by independent contractors (Coase, 1988). This idea gave

rise to the notion of using private contractors for delivery of public goods and services as propagated in New Public Management (NPM). In addition to recognising the existence of costs of doing business, Coase's work is instrumental in defining the nature of the costs of doing business. In this regard, Coase (1988) points to costs of negotiating a transaction, and costs associated with entering into a negotiated contract and costs involved in settling disputes arising from the contract. Collectively, these costs are known as transaction costs (Rindfleisch, 2019). Therefore, balancing these costs is the primary reason for the existence of a firm (Coase, 1988).

Because of its influence, transaction theory has been widely used to analyse diverse issues related to economic organisation. For example, Ferris and Graddy (1994) employed transaction cost theory to analyse local government decision-making for production of mental health services. Ideally, a decision on what contracting modality to use should be determined by comparing relative production benefits and transaction costs associated with each contracting modality. However, the authors established that political considerations determined the final decision on how these services were provided. Therefore, it is clear that transaction cost is closely related to public choice theory which is premised on the principle of self-interest and political consideration. In another study, Jordaan (2012) used transaction cost theory to evaluate the most effective governance structure for production of raisins in the Northern Cape. In a similar study in Philippines, Milagrosa (2007), used transaction cost theory to determine the most effective governance structure for the vegetable industry. Both studies found out that high costs associated with sport market structure were reduced when farmers entered into long term contracts with buyers. This highlights the success of transaction costs theory in the context of the private sector. However, this theory is not very successful in the public sector. Wegrich (2009) shows cost reduction through privatisation of state assets in Britain resulted in high social costs due to massive retrenchment of workers. Another weakness of transaction theory is that it gives rise to corruption that happens between principals and agents. Therefore, policy makers should factor in costs of corruption in determining the best model for production and delivery of public goods and services.

2.6.3. Principal-agent theory

Bale and Dale (1998) argue that principal-agent theory is premised on the interchange between parties where one party (the principal) enters into agreements with another party (the agent). In this arrangement, the agent agrees to perform tasks on behalf of the principal in return for compensation. As an offshoot of public choice and transaction cost (Braun & Guston, 2003), agency theory assumes that individuals exercise their utility maximising behaviour in a rational manner. In particular, the principal derives the motive to engage the agent from the desire to maximise output value (Rasmussen & Gulbrandsen, 2012) while the agent aims to maximise profit. This means that the

principal-agent theory is premised on the assumption that parties to the agreement work towards the same goal (De Villiers, 1999) of attaining personal benefit. This assumption is informed by the expectation that both parties will maximise their respective utilities in a rational manner. However, Simon (2000) shows that human rationality is limited by certain conditions such as availability of information and the author identifies self-interest as one of the limitations of rationality. In concurrence, John and Weitz (1989) state that the motives and goals of the principal and the agent always differ.

Having outlined the key tenets of the principal-agent theory, the author moves on to discuss key events that led to its development and evolution. To this end, the author traces the origin of principal-agent theory back to Adam Smith who highlighted ineffectiveness of companies whose administration was entrusted in managers as agents of shareholders. Similarly, Zogning (2017) argues that ideas expressed in the Adam Smith's book on the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations provide the foundation for the principal-agent theory. The need for separation of owners and managers gained prominence during the Great Depression in the 1930s. As Bourdieu (1984) points out, this period marked the emergence of a new class of managers devoted to the management of large enterprises. The rise of professional managerialism coincided with a decline of family business leading to the need to appointment of competent technical experts to govern based on managerial knowledge as opposed to heredity (Zogning, 2017).

Different scholars have used the principal-agent theory to analyse different aspects of public policy in different settings. Fowler (2020) investigated the significance of the principal-agent theory in the implementation of federal environmental policies in the US. This study found out that the success of principal-agent relationships was dependent on aligning interests between principals and agents, building trust and reducing information asymmetry. Therefore, the principal-agent theory is useful in situations where the interests of principals and agents are aligned around a clearly defined goal. However, several studies revealed that proper alignment of interests between principals and agents is rare. In a study on the educational system in South Africa, De Viller's (1999) assessment found lack of clarity on who the principals were between the Minister of Education, Provincial Director-Generals, School principals, and community. Further, lack of clear goals resulted in uncertainty and confusion on what the principal expected from them. In another study in South Africa, Khaile (2020) established that lack of oversight is the main problem for the failure of principal-agent relationships.

Despite its limitations, the principal-agent theory is relevant for explaining the principle of outsourcing delivery of good and services in the South African context (De Villiers, 1999; Khaile, 2020). In this regard, the principal-agent theory has been successful in determining factors that affect effective delivery of public goods and services in South Africa. However, the author decided against this theory on the basis that its theoretical origin is inconsistent with the field of study

anchoring this study. Another reason for not using the principal-agent theory to interpret the results of this study is that it is unconcerned about the principals, who deceive, shirk and exploit the agents (Perrow, 1986). For this reason, it is inappropriate to explain the political behaviour of principals in the context of South African municipalities where service delivery models are largely determined by political considerations. Therefore, the author argues that the principal-agent theory is not appropriate to explain the problem of corruption, which is the main performance impediment in South African municipalities.

In sum, transaction cost and the principal-agent theories originate from classical economics that applies quantitative measures to quantify costs of delivering public goods and services. For this reason, these theories are not appropriate for a qualitative study of this nature. Most importantly, these theories have resulted in huge social costs in countries such as Britain. In addition, the notion of self-interest underlying the three theories discussed above presents the risk for increased corruption and unethical conduct. For this reason, the author argues that these theories do not provide useful solutions to address the poor performance in South African public institutions. The failure of institutional economics in providing an appropriate theory for interpreting the empirical results of this study led the author to expand the search for suitable theories to the field of Public Administration.

Bartholomew (1972) divides the evolution of Public Administration into five chronological stages. The first stage represents the politics administration dichotomy (1887-1926) while the second and the third represent the principles of administration (1927-1937) and the era of challenge (1938-1947) respectively. The fourth deals with crises of identity (1948-1970) and the last is the public policy perspective (1971 onwards). For the purpose of this study, the five stages are collapsed into three categories. The first category represents public administration reformers while the second is renamed principles of public administration and management, and the third category is described as contemporary management. This reclassification is important for three reasons. First, changing politics-administration dichotomy to reformers allows the author to demonstrate the true origin of the politics-administration dichotomy. Second, adding 'management' to the second stage named principles of administration is important to accommodate some theories that were primarily concerned about principles of management. Last, the category of contemporary management accommodates theories that fall within the fourth and fifth stage in the evolution of public administrating. Most importantly, the new categorisation of the evolution of public administration allows the author to focus mostly on theories with a potential for answering the research questions posed in the first chapter of this study.

2.6.4. Politics-administration dichotomy

In simple terms, the principle of politics-administration advocates for separation of political and administrative matters. This idea is often credited to Woodrow Wilson but the author argues that this attribution is incorrect. In support of this argument, the author concurs with Van Riper (1984) that Wilson gave impetus to the ideas that had already been advanced by the reformers of the U.S civil service in the 19th century. These reformers were led by Dorman B. Eaton, the primary author of the Civil Service Act of 1883. As Rosenbloom (2008) points out, the reformers made no effort to hide their discontent about the spoils system for excluding able and upright men from public life thereby giving rise to nepotism, incompetence, and inefficiency. In response to these challenges, the reformers created a movement to reform politics and administration. According to Gruening (2001), this movement called for separation of politics and administration and introduction of the merit principle including the need to uphold sound financial management. One of the key achievements in this regard was the passing of the Civil Service Act, which paved the way for a career public service separated from politics (Gruening, 2001; Lee, 1995). This means that the idea of separating politics and administration emerged before Wilson released his famous publication on 'The Study of Administration' in 1887. Therefore, it is incorrect to attribute the principle of politics-administration to Wilson because all he did was to give this idea the momentum. As Lamidi (2015) suggests, Woodrow Wilson propagated these ideals at the time people were fed up with rampant corruption that characterised the American bureaucratic framework. Perhaps this is why his views were widely accepted and promoted to the point of creating a misconception that he was the founder of the politics-administration dichotomy.

Now that the events leading to the origin and evolution of the politics-administration dichotomy have been cleared; the author proceeds to assess its relevance for interpreting the empirical results of this study. Several studies conducted in South Africa revealed an inherent problem of conflating politics and administration (Mafunisa, 2003; Makole, 2022; Masiya, Davids & Manga, 2021; Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016; Shava & Chamisa, 2018). Specifically, these studies attribute the problem of politics-administrative interface to deliberate politicisation of the public service by the African National Congress (ANC). These studies and many more, outline corruption, nepotism, inefficiency, and total collapse of service delivery as consequences of breaking the boundaries of politics-administration dichotomy. However, South African scholars are divided on this issue with some supporting this principle (Shava & Chamisa, 2018) while others advocate against it (Mafunisa, 2003; Twala, 2014). Those who are against this principle argue due to the unique history of racial discrimination, it was necessary for the ANC to deploy its own trusted cadres to the public service in order to ensure successful delivery of its programmes. For this reason, Mafunisa (2003) argues that the complementarity of politics and administration is the most suitable model for South Africa.

Despite this debate, the principle of politics-administration dichotomy is very relevant for interpreting the empirical results on factors that enhance or impede performance in South African municipalities. The relevance of this principle in this study is supported by overwhelming evidence that attributes poor performance across South African municipalities to the problem of politics- administration interface as outlined above. For this reason, the author adopts the politics- administration as one of the theories for constructing a multidimensional theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical results of this study. As argued in the empirical chapters, this principle has created a culture of politicised bureaucracy characterised by lack of accountability, nepotism, corruption, incompetence, and lack of employee motivation. Although this theory is useful for interpreting key attributes that shape the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, its strength is limited to political and administrative issues. Therefore, it is not effective in explaining behavioural factors that shape organisational culture. For this reason, the author explored other theories to augment the limitations of the politics-administration authority.

2.6.5. Scientific management

The second stage of the evolution of administrative thought was the era of the advancement of the politics-administration dichotomy as propagated by the American reformers and later Wilson. Concerned with the spoils system, the reformers adopted principles of scientific management as a solution to the problem of corruption and incompetence (Gruening, 2001). Influenced by Frederick Taylor's scientific management, the reformers in the New York Bureau for Municipal Research were the first to use performance indicators to benchmark the efficiency of public organisations (Lamidi, 2015). In support of this view, Gruening (2001) argues that the progressive reformers imported techniques for efficient street paving and snow removal from the scientific management. The uptake of scientific management techniques in the United States coincided with the industrial revolution that led to new problems in management (Lamidi, 2015). Thus, Frederick Taylor and Henri Fayol stepped in and proposed scientific methods to improve efficiency. Before detailing the proposed methods of scientific management, the author outlines key events that influenced the emergence and evolution of the scientific management.

Frederick Taylor is widely considered the father of scientific management. Without any fear of contradiction, this study recognises the significant contribution of Taylor to the management scholarship. However, it argues that the origin and evolution of the scientific management movement should be understood within the context of the relationship that Taylor had with Morris Cooke who was his associate. Literature shows that after being introduced to Taylor in 1903, Cook applied Taylor's principle in printing and publishing business and when Taylor was elected president of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers in 1905, he hired Cook to help him reorganise

its operations (Wrege & Stotka, 1978). The authors go further to argue that by 1907, many people had become interested in Taylor's ideas and as this interest grew, he started having talks at his home with Cook as an assistant responsible for analysing and improving these talks with data he collected on his own. By the end of 1907, Cooke had completed a manuscript titled Industrial Management largely drawn from the analysis of Taylor's presentations augmented with his own data. As Wrege and Stotka (1978) point out, Cooke wrote to Taylor requesting assistance to get the manuscript published oversees. The analysis of letter to Taylor on Industrial Management written in November 1909, outlined justification for the Industrial Management, its methodology, content, and structure, including plans for publishing and marketing the book (Wrege & Stotka, 1978). In 1910, the Industrial Management vanished and the Principles of Scientific Management appeared with striking similarities to Cooke's manuscript. The authors added that Taylor had a habit of using efforts of others to write his articles, speeches without acknowledging them. After reviewing evidence of a series of letters exchanged between Cook and Taylor, the author argues that there is some truth in this assertion. However, the problem is that management literature does not recognise Cooke's contribution to enhancing Taylor's ideas.

Despite the controversy surrounding the origin of the scientific management, Taylor's publication has been very influential. Therefore, the author examines key principles of Taylorism and their influence on everyday management practices. First, Taylor replaced the rule of thumb with scientific methods of designing jobs. These methods involved gathering and analysing data to determine the best way to perform tasks. This principle provides the basis for the notion of evidence-based performance management and improvement as propagated in New Public Management. Second, the principle of scientific selection and progressive teaching and development of employees, coupled with matching the job to the worker, continues to inform human resource practices in private and public organisations. In particular, this principle provides for selection of employees on merit and provides for a performance management system entrenched in training and continuous improvement. Third, Taylor suggested the division of labour characterised by hierarchical order where functions are segregated along seniority. This principle is the basis for bureaucratic administration found in the South African public service. Last, Taylor believed that employees were motivated by money. Therefore, he introduced performance incentives as the strategy to improve performance. This strategy continues to inform remuneration packages in most private sector organisational and to some extent is used in public institutions. Fayol (1949) is another influential author in the field of management and like Taylor, he believed in use of scientific methods to improve management practices. Both pioneers converged on several points including division of labour, fair remuneration and training of employees. Most importantly, they emphasise rule based and hierarchical management as a strategy for maintaining organisational stability and discipline. In view of these complementarities,

the author argues that Taylor's and Fayol's ideas continue to influence management practices of in public and private institutions.

Ndaguba, Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sambumbu and Sibanda (2017) conducted a study to examine application of Taylorism in a South African District Municipality. These authors found Taylorism more useful for employees of lower capabilities or lower qualification performing routine jobs. As a result, they concluded that scientific management is most suitable in a stable environment with little or no external influence where there is low complexity, low adaptive capacity and routine work processes and procedures. Despite this limitation, scientific management remains influential. For example, job demarcation was used as a strategy to promote specialisation and efficiency in corporations in the US (Naruse, 1991) and its influence extends to a broad range of fields including architecture where it influenced standard building designs (Mentzer, 2010). In addition, principles of scientific management were successful in improving performance in a public library in Nigeria where Ibrahim (2007) shows that establishing performance standards was useful for total reorientation of the library towards a culture of developing quantifiable, measurable and achievable goals and objectives.

Contrary to the Nigerian experience, South African scholars found that scientific management is mechanical and suitable in organisations characterised by low adaptive capacity and routine work processes and procedures (Ndaguba et al., 2017). This means that implementation of scientific management is one of the reasons for poor performance in South African public institutions. In addition, scientific management promotes hierarchical structure, which has been found to be one of the main causes of inefficiency in South African public institutions (Cameron, 2009). This finding strengthens the argument that scientific management is one of the causes for poor performance in South African municipalities. In addition, Taylor does not recognise organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute. As a result, scientific management is not conceptually equipped to explain attitudes, norms, and practices that give rise to a culture of politicised bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, scientific management is excluded from the list of theories that constitute a theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical results of this study. Thus, the author looks at Weber's theory of bureaucracy, which according to Lamidi (2015), is part of the theories that constitute the second stage in the evolution of public administration thought.

2.6.6. Bureaucracy

The theory of bureaucracy shares similar characteristics with the politics-administration dichotomy and scientific management. Therefore, it makes sense that Bartholomew (1972) includes bureaucracy in a group of theories that represent the second stage in the evolution of public administration. Similar to the approach taken in the previous Sections, the author kicks off the discussion with an overview of the emergence of bureaucracy, its key tenets as well as its strengths and weaknesses. Last, the author decides on whether or not bureaucracy is relevant for interpreting the empirical results of this study.

Bureaucracy is a product of Hegel's philosophical thought and found its way into the field of sociology through the work of Max Weber. As Shaw (1992) points out, Hegel formulated the first theory of modern bureaucracy in the Philosophy of Right and the author concurs that Hegel was the first to discuss basic characteristics of bureaucracy including separating public office from its incumbent. In addition, Hegel raised the notion of public interest which directly conflicts with the principle of self-interest underpinning classical economics. Despite these contributions, Shaw (2012) argues that Hegel did not have much influence and the author points to Weber as the most influential scholar on bureaucracy. Writing from a sociological perspective, Weber (1958) grounded his discussion on legitimacy as a framework that regulates social relationships. In explaining this concept, Weber (1968) argues that actions of actors within social relationships are guided by the existence of a legitimate order. The concept of legitimacy gives rise to legal rationality and is closely related to two concepts of power and domination. Power is defined as the belief and expectation that one actor in a social relationship assumes a position of authority and domination (Scott, 2007). The existence of a legitimate order underpinned by power and domination create a bureaucratic system. Specifically, legal rationality is the framework upon which a stable, predictable, and sustainable bureaucracy is built (Hall, 1963). In other words, rationality is the modality through which bureaucratic activities are undertaken.

Now that the conceptual origin of bureaucracy has been defined, the next task is to describe its purpose. In this regard, the author argues that in developing bureaucracy, Weber was motivated by a desire to improve efficiency. To achieve, this objective, Weber offers six key principles. The first principle is hierarchy of authority, which makes it easier for management to maintain control and order. In addition, higher level of hierarchy reduces conflict among vast employees and ensures effective coordination and cooperation in complex organisations (Matjie, 2018). Second, the principle of division of labour provides for efficient and effective production of goods and services. In this regard, Weber (1947) argues that division of labour leads to professionalism and specialised knowledge required for efficiency. A third principle that is connected to hierarchy is the emphasis on rules and procedures of doing work within the organisation. As Scott (2007) and Matjie (2018) point out, rules

provide stability and consistency and promote performance through sanctions. Most importantly, Weber (1968) argues that written rules, procedures and regulations ensure clear lines of authority and accountability for performance. Use of rules and regulations provide stability and predictability necessary to promote performance and sustain bureaucracy. Fourth, the principle of separation of administration from ownership is related to division of labour and is consistent with the politics-administration dichotomy and resonates with Taylor's principle of separating shareholders from management. According to Matjie (2018), separating ownership from management increases accountability and performance. The Fifth principle relates to meritocracy as an important feature of bureaucracy. Specifically, Weber (1947) advocates for a bureaucracy run by highly educated experts with adequate skills to make rational decisions to solve complex organisational problems. The last aspect of Weber's bureaucracy is adequate compensation which according to Matjie (2018), suggests that adequate pay serves as a motivating factor to induce greater institutional performance.

Before determining the applicability of bureaucracy in interpreting the empirical results of this study, the author explores how other researchers have used it. A Doctoral study undertaken by Mamogale (2016) applied bureaucracy to interpret performance of selected municipalities in Limpopo. This study established the strength of bureaucracy in explaining key performance determinants in South African municipalities. First, the study argues that the principle of prescribing educational qualifications and some minimum competency levels for entry into municipal service is the step to professionalise municipalities. Second, the study maintains that various pieces of legislation, policies, and regulations governing local government constitute a solid foundation for professional and effective bureaucracy. The study adds that because of the rules and regulations, municipalities are increasingly becoming more depoliticised. In sum, Mamogale (2016) shows that bureaucracy is relevant for interpreting performance management issues in South African municipalities. However, as discussed later on, these views are inconsistent with the empirical findings of this study. Sidzumo (2016) investigated use of evaluation-information in a health department in the province of Gauteng in South Africa. This study applied bureaucracy to interpret barriers to effective use of evaluation-information. In particular, the study argues that bureaucracy hampers performance due to long decision-making processes.

Despite numerous benefits of bureaucracy demonstrated in Matjie (2018), the South African literature on bureaucracy is dominated by studies that point to the failure of bureaucracy in ensuring efficient and effective delivery of municipal services. In this regard, several studies point to politicisation of the public administration as the root cause of bureaucratic inefficiency in South Africa. For example, Shiva and Chamisa (2018) state that the practice of appointing political loyalists to strategic positions within municipal administration has resulted in incompetence and poor service delivery. Similarly, other studies (Madumo, 2016; Makole, 2022; Mamokhere, 2021; Mngomezulu, 2020) show that the

ANC's control over public administration has created incompetence, eroded accountability, and paralysed service delivery Based on this evidence, it is clear that politics is the main impediment to effective implementation of bureaucratic principles in South Africa as envisaged in Weber.

The evidence presented above is reflective of the strength of bureaucracy in shaping the structure and operational behaviour of modern day South African public administration. Based on this strength, the author adopts bureaucracy as part of the theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical results of this study. First, bureaucracy is useful for explaining political interference as the root cause of poor performance in South African municipalities. Therefore, the strength of bureaucracy in interpreting the empirical results of this study lies in its ability to complement the politics-administration dichotomy, which as noted in the previous Section, is another option for interpreting the empirical results of this study. Second, bureaucracy provides a useful framework for the author to understand the structure and functions of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as a bureaucratic entity. In terms of functions, bureaucracy provides a framework for understanding rules, regulations, and guidelines that influence the performance behaviour and attitudes of bureaucrats in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Last, the author believes that to a large extent, principles of bureaucracy entailed in Weber determine organisational culture. For example, a culture that emphasises rules and stability is defined as inward looking and risk averse (Denison, 2019). Therefore, bureaucracy is a useful analytical framework for understanding organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Even though bureaucracy is useful in this regard, it is only good for explaining elements for structuring and operating organisations. Therefore, it is incapable of explaining values that influence decisions on what structures and operational modalities are suitable in what contexts. Therefore, the author argues that New Public Management and theories of organisational culture are important for augmenting the limitations of bureaucracy and politics-administration dichotomy.

2.6.7. New Public Management

Hood (1991), Aucoin (1988) and many more refer to New Public Management (NPM) as a paradigm. However, this study treats it as a framework rather than a paradigm. The reason being that NPM does not have a set of theories with common assumptions and hierarchy of ideas as defined in Kuhn's (1962) classification of paradigms. Instead, it is a collection of loosely connected ideas borrowed from the private sector (Hood, 1991). Nevertheless, successful implementation of these ideas in OECD countries marked a significant movement that shook public administration. Key tenets of NPM are detailed Section 2.4 and are not repeated here, save to say that NPM is adopted as one of the theories deemed suitable for interpreting the empirical results of this study. Specifically, NPM offers important lessons and analyses for public management throughout the world (Hope, 2001).

The significance of the NPM as an analytical framework lies in its posture as an alternative to bureaucratic problems that have generated governance crisis in most African countries including South Africa (Hope, 2001). As noted earlier, and confirmed through the empirical data of this study, governance crisis in South Africa is entrenched in politics-administration interface and manifests through corruption, nepotism, incompetence, lack of accountability and trust. As reflected in Section 2.4, these manifestations have created a culture of non-performance in South African municipalities. Therefore, NPM is a useful tool for transformation of public institutions. In support of this view, the author points to Gumede (2015) who posits that introduction of NPM in South Africa has improved the bureaucratic structure but failed to transform the administrative culture of the public service. Other studies that investigated implementation of NPM in South Africa have reached a similar conclusion (Abrahams, 2015; Cameron, 2010; Maqoko, 2015), and identify bureaucracy as the key constraint to performance in South African public institutions. This means that NPM is useful for improving limitations of bureaucracy and offers a range of tools for resolving the politics-administration interface problem entrenched in South African municipalities.

The author is aware that not all components of NPM are relevant in this study. Therefore, it is important to identify specific aspects of NPM that are relevant for interpreting the empirical results of this study. First, the principle of strategic planning is important to understand the extent to which key stakeholders are included in the formulation of strategic priorities in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Understanding strategic development processes is one of the most important elements that define the organisational culture as noted in Denison (1990). Second, the principle of monitoring and evaluation is crucial for explaining accountability and performance problems in the Municipality. In particular, monitoring is useful for determining the effectiveness of mechanisms for implementing service delivery programmes articulated in the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) as a strategic document for South African municipalities. Third, understanding the evaluation practice in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is useful for interpreting the culture of the Municipality as it relates to use of evidence for learning and improving performance.

This study is premised on the argument that organisational culture is a performance-enhancing attribute. However, the research problem statement has revealed that the relationship between organisational culture and performance has not received much attention in South Africa. Therefore, this study applies NPM as an analytical framework for diagnosing elements of organisational culture required for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Given a close relationship between NPM and organisational culture as demonstrated in several studies (Chowdhury & Shil, 2021; Chapman & Duncan, 2010; Halligan 2013; Bradley & Parker, 2006), the author adopts prominent theories of organisational culture to enhance the main weakness of NPM as reported in the research problem statement.

2.6.8. Organisational culture

Although there is no consensus on consensus on the meaning of organisational culture, this subject has received a great deal of attention in the last twenty years. This attention has resulted in a plethora of theories, frameworks, and models for explaining different aspects of organisational culture. However, this study argues that no single model, theory, or framework is capable of interpreting the research questions underlying this study. As a result, the author suggests a combination of models and theories drawn from different scholars. Therefore, this Section is limited to theories and models that are considered relevant for interpreting the empirical results of this study. In this study, organisational culture represents values and beliefs that shape attitudes and behavioural pattern of bureaucrats (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985). These elements are crucial for enhancing the author's understanding of how organisational culture affects performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, these elements provide a framework that allows the author to formulate a model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

After intensive review of literature, the author argues that Lewin (1939) is the first author to use the concept of organisational climate to analyse organisational behaviour within the field of psychology. As interest on the study of organisational behaviour grew in the 1970s, researchers used terms 'organisational climate' and 'organisational culture' interchangeably (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). However, the concept of 'organisational culture' became popular after it emerged from a study on processes and concepts that define institutions behaviour (Pettigrew, 1979). Since then, organisational culture has been used as an analytical framework to explain performance issues in private and public institutions (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Denison, 1990; Deal & Kennedy, 2000; Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985).

Kong (2003) applied Schein's theory of organisational culture to establish and explain assumptions and patterns underlying organisational culture of business organisations in the mainland China. This theory explains organisational culture in terms of three levels. The first level represents artifacts, which are visible objects, practices, behaviour, and rituals that inform how things are done in organisations. The second represents espoused values, which consists of aspirations and beliefs that shape the behaviour of individuals within organisations. The last aspect relates to shared basic assumptions. These assumptions are determinants of behaviour, values, and aspirations that define organisational culture and are developed overtime and shared across organisations as acceptable ways of doing things. To this end, the author identified several artifacts that explain organisational culture of business organisations in China. In particular, the study found out that most companies were unwillingness to delegate decision-making power to subordinates. Another important finding was that most companies preferred hierarchical control either through direction and supervision or through regulations. These artifacts, defined in Schein (1985) as visible objects, behaviour, practices,

and rituals, provide useful evidence for analysts to determine organisational culture. Based on the analysis of these artifacts, Kong (2003) concluded that Chinese organisations are characterised by a hostile and hierarchical culture.

In a study conducted in South Africa, Nzewi et al., (2013) applied Denison model of organisational culture to analyse performance in selected municipalities in the Eastern Cape. This model is premised on four cultural traits that enhance performance, which are mission, consistency, involvement, and adaptability. After adapting the model to suit the context of their study, the researchers found out that weak communication between management and employees led to lack of employee involvement in decision-making and other activities. In addition, the authors established that municipalities placed less value on feedback from customers thereby reflecting a an internally oriented culture as opposed to outward looking culture. Further, the study established lower scores on mission and consistency indicating lack of clarity in defining organisational goals and objectives and lack of capacity to rally employees behind a common vision. These findings are consistent with those reflected in other studies on performance issues in South African municipalities (Mofolo, 2012; Ndevu, 2019; Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016). This shows that Denison model is relevant for determining elements that shape organisational culture in South African municipalities.

Competing Values Framework (CVF) is another popular instrument for analysing organisational performance. Developed in 1983 by Quinn and Rohrbaugh, this framework helps organisations to understand their culture and how it affects performance. This framework consists of four types of organisational culture namely, hierarchy, market culture, adhocracy, and clan culture. This model is based on the argument that there are competing values underlying each culture and these values are distinct such that an organisation has one dominant culture out of the four. In this regard, O'Neill, De Vries and Comiskey (2021) applied the CVF to investigate leadership preferences in a community health care facilities in Ireland. This study aims to identify what kind of leadership staff in community healthcare observe in practice and their leadership preferences O'Neill, De Vries and Comiskey (2021) applied the CVF to investigate leadership preferences in a community health care facilities in Ireland. This framework allowed researchers to describe the leadership in community health care systems as organised, hard-driving, and competitive. As a result, they concluded that this leadership style represented stability and control, rather than flexibility and discretion, which equates to a hierarchical culture.

Based on the evidence presented above, this study adopts the three models of organisational culture to interpret the empirical results of this study. In particular, Schein's (1985) theory is useful for identifying key assumptions that influence the behaviour of bureaucrats in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This theory is also relevant for determining if the Municipality has mechanisms for sharing and embedding assumptions and values as well as how this shape

organisational culture in the Tshwane. This study was conducted visually. Therefore, it was not possible to make conclusive determination on the artifacts underlying organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. However, through telephonic and electronic interaction with the respondents, the author got some sense of some artifacts that shape individual and organisational behaviour in the Municipality.

With regard to Denison's model, the four traits of organisational culture are useful to provide a comprehensive understanding of key elements that define organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. For example, the mission trait is useful for determining assumptions, values, and artifacts underlying planning processes. The consistency trait provides a framework for understanding the consistency of leadership relative to espoused values, norms, and practices that guide the overall behaviour in the Municipality. The involvement trait is useful for determining the relationships between management and their effect on employee motivation. The last trait of adaptability is useful for determining the extent to which Tshwane is capable of adapting to changing operational environment. The CVF offers the opportunity to understand the dominant culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The CVF and the Denison model emphasise values that organisational should have in order to improve performance. Therefore, this study argues that Schein's theory provides the foundation of contemporary frameworks and tools used for assessment of organisational culture. Last, the study concurs with Schein's (1985) description that organisational culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin. Therefore, the study argues that leadership is a key ingredient for effective use of organisational culture as a framework for interpreting the research questions posed in this study.

2.6.9. Leadership

The surge in service delivery protests across South African Municipalities has generated a great deal of research interest on the role of leadership as a strategy for performance improvement. For example, Pretorius and Schurink (2007) argue that improving municipal performance is a function of applying a retro advanced leadership model consisting of four components that include management of leadership performance, legislative imperatives, the achievement of realistic goals, and continuous maintenance and monitoring of achievements. In addition, Dorasamy (2010) proposes a purpose-directed leadership approach underpinned by ethical behaviour as the appropriate strategy for improving performance in public institutions. Similarly, (Mbandlwa, Dorasamy, & Fagbadebo, 2020) point to a need for ethical leadership to improve service delivery in South African Municipalities. Further, Naidoo (2010) points to a critical need for effective leadership to promote service delivery at local government in South Africa and offers a strategic leadership approach as a solution. A year later, Naidoo and Xollie (2011) offered an integrated leadership approach and leadership training as

strategies for improving leadership competencies required for improving service delivery in South African public institutions. The author acknowledges contribution of past studies in advancing the debate on the role of leadership in enhancing service delivery in South African Municipalities. This notwithstanding, none of the studies presented above have adequately conceptualised leadership as a concept. As a result, they have presented a compelling argument on the significance of leadership as a framework for resolving the embedded problem of pollical interference. In an effort to address this weakness, the author traces the origin and evolution of leadership. Doing so is important for three reasons. First, it will allow the author to establish factors that led to the emergence of leadership and its evolution. Second, understanding these factors allows the author to identify elements of leadership appropriate for interpreting the empirical results of this study. Schein (1985) describes leadership and organisational culture as two sides of the same coin. Therefore, understanding leadership dynamics is important for establishing theoretical and empirical attributes of leadership required for deriving a performance improvement model promised in the research purpose statement.

Before articulating leadership from a historical perspective, it is important to define what leadership means in the context of this study. The word leadership has existed in our lexicon since the fourteenth century (King, 1990) but there is no acceptable definition of what it means. Highlighting the difficulty of coming up with a universal definition of leadership, Bolden, Hawkins, Gosling and Taylor (2011) state that leadership is open to subjective interpretation. This creates a leeway for the author to coin his own definition of leadership that fits the purpose of this study. Thus, leadership is a collection of action, principles, attitudes, and values that influence individual and organisational behaviour towards achievement of defined goals. With this definition in mind, it is time to explore how leadership has evolved over time.

As a point of departure, the author argues that different theoretical ideas of leadership have arisen at different times in history. Therefore, one of the earliest and most popular conceptions of leadership that flourished in the 19th and early 20th centuries (Bolden et al., 2011; Hunt & Fedynich, 2019; Benmira & Agboola, 2021) is the great man theory. This theory is premised on the assumption that leaders are born, not made or trained. As Malakyan (2014) points out, the great man theory presupposes that leaders are born to lead. As its name suggests, this theory is founded on the assumption that only men are born with innate characteristics that destined them to lead. For this reason, this theory is not relevant for interpreting the empirical results of a study conducted within a democratic dispensation that does not embrace sexism. In addition, Hunt and Fedynich (2019) point to lack of empirical data to prove the validity of this theory. Between the 1930s and 1940s, the great man theory evolved into the trait theory. According to Benmira and Agboola (2021), this is theory argues that leaders can be born or made. Unlike its predecessor, the trait theory is premised on the notion that certain inborn characteristics required to turn men into leaders can also be acquired

through training and practice. This represents a slight departure from the assumption that leaders are born and not made. The purpose of the trait theory is to identify the right combination of characteristics that make an effective leader. However, as Benmira and Agboola (2021) point out, a consistent set of traits was not produced and by 1950, it appeared that there was little advantage in continuing with this approach and hence it was abandoned. Elaborating on the failure of this theory, Hunt and Fedynich (2019) as well as Johns and Moser (1989) posit that the trait theory failed for the same reasons of being sexist and lacking empirical evidence to support its assumptions.

Based on the failure of the great man and trait theories of leadership, the behavioural theory of leadership appeared in the 1940s – 1950s. This theory and asserts that leaders are largely made, rather than born and that particular behaviours can be learnt to ensure effective leadership. According to Hunt and Fedynich (2019), the post-World War II came was characterised by the rise of national and multi-national corporations employing thousands of employees. As a result, the cult of personality that was promoted under the great man and trait theories could simply not support an adequate understanding of leadership.

Benmira and Agboola (2021) state that behavioural theory evolved from trait theories and puts emphasis on the actual behaviour of the leader as opposed to their personal characteristics. This theory was pioneered by McGregor (1960) who proposed two conflicting views about leadership. The first view take a fairly negative approach with leaders believing that the average person has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible. As Bolden et al., (2011) points out, leaders holding this view believe in coercion and control to ensure that people work. The author argues that this view is consistent the production-oriented dimension of leadership. On the other hand, there are leaders who hold the view that the average human being, under proper conditions, learns not only to accept but to seek responsibility. Therefore, such leaders will endeavour to enhance their followers' capacity to exercise a high level of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems (Bolden et al., 2011). This view is aligned with the employee-oriented leadership that promotes a mutual trust and respect between leaders and subordinates. As noted in Ndevu (2019) and supported by the empirical data presented in subsequent chapters, behavioural theory is relevant for interpreting some of the results emanating from the research questions articulated in Section 1.4. However, it ignores the circumstances in which leaders operate. Thus, the 1960s saw the emergence of situational theory that highlights the importance of context in effective leadership.

Situational theory argues that there is no one best set of leadership traits or behaviours and advocates for leaders to adapt their approach depending on the situation in each environment. Therefore, this theory is relevant to address the unique circumstances that led to introduction of New Public Management in South Africa. However, this does not mean situational theory of leadership is perfect for South Africa. For example, Ronay and Vugt (2014) argue that leadership under this

approach is fluid and ever changing to the situation. King (1990) adds that under this approach, a leader is effective only if he or she performs a differentiated diagnosis of the situation to determine the best course of action. Given the prevalence of political interference in South African Municipalities, leaders may not freely to do so. Further, the appointed leaders may not have adequate skills to undertake situational analysis. These may limit the effectiveness of situational leadership theory in the context of South African Municipalities.

To address the limitations of previous theories, Burns (1978) coined the term transformational leadership to define a style of leadership that transforms follower attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours, to a higher realm of motivation. Elaborating on this definition, Khanin (2007) argues that transformational leaders inspire followers to be motivated to rise above and beyond current levels of achievement and performance to even higher levels of achievement and performance. Expanding on this view Bass (1985) argues that transformational leaders can inspire followers to perform beyond expectations if they succeed in accomplishing three interconnected objectives. First, if they raise followers' comprehension of the importance and value of desired outcomes. Second, if they persuade followers to transcend their self-interest and embrace collective goals. Third, if they expand the followers' portfolio of needs and wants. To this end, Bass (1985) provides a framework of behavioural attributes required for transformational leaders. These include Idealised Influence (walking the walk), Inspirational Motivation (exciting the masses and sharing the vision), Intellectual Stimulation (thinking out of the box"), and Individualised Consideration (compassionate leadership). According to Benmira and Agboola (2021), transformational leadership is used when an organisation needs to be revitalised, is undergoing significant change or requires a new direction. For this reason, the author argues that transformational leadership is appropriate in the context of South African Municipalities which need a complete overhaul to deal with political interference that has severely compromised implementation of New Public Management.

On the opposite side of transformational leadership sits what Burns (1978) refers to as transactional leadership. This theory relies on authority to motivate employees and advocates for a carrot and stick approach where leaders reward those who perform and punish any follower who fails to meet established goals. As Avolio, Yammarino and Bass (1991) point out, transactional leadership is less focused on emotion and inspiration. For this reason, it may not be effective as an ingredient for inspiring demotivated employees who are grappling with the effects of cadre deployment in South African Municipalities.

As indicated earlier, there are several interpretations of leadership. As a result, there are several theories of leadership that are not discussed in this Section but which may be relevant for interpreting the empirical results of this study. One of such theories is servant leadership. According to Eliot (2020), servant leaders seek to support their team members and are most concerned with serving

people first. This is more relevant in the context of South Africa where politicisation of public institutions has eroded ethos of public service and entrenched an inward looking and self-serving attitude. In a way, the value of service invokes a sense of moral obligation and gives rise to ethical leadership. Thus, Souba (2011) argues that ethical leadership involves questioning and re-examining deeply held beliefs and convictions. The author argues that the required ethical convictions include honesty, integrity, truthfulness, openness to input, respect and empathy. These attributes are consistent with the traits theory rejected above and are also mentioned in Burns (1978) who argues that interaction of leaders and followers should raise the ethical behaviour and character of both. This confirms the argument advanced by situational leadership theorists that there is no one best set of leadership traits for all situations. Based on this, the author argues that by integrating a number of approaches, transformational leadership provides an all-encompassing approach to the question of leadership.

In sum, this Section has discussed prominent theories with the potential to interpret the empirical results of this study. Specifically, the author has interrogated theories drawn from institutional economics as one of the streams of thought for the academic field encompassing this study. In this regard, the author argued that public choice, transaction cost, and principal-agent theories are not suitable for interpreting the empirical results of this study. This reason for this is that these theories fall outside the field of management. After excluding theories associated with institutional economics, the author interrogated classical public administration theories. In this respect, the author discussed the politics-administration dichotomy, the scientific management theories, and bureaucracy. After careful analysis of these theories, the author eliminated scientific management theories on the basis that they are silent on organisational culture. Therefore, the author felt that these theories are inadequate to explain factors that shape organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. After excluding scientific management theories, the author selected the politics-administration dichotomy and bureaucracy. Specifically, the politics- administration dichotomy is useful for explaining the problem of political-administration interface, which is a major performance impediment in South African municipalities. In addition, bureaucracy complements the politics-administration dichotomy by providing a structure and operational guideline on how bureaucratic institutions should improve performance. Although the two theories are useful for interpreting the empirical results of this study, they are not suitable for explaining assumptions and values that shape organisational culture. To counter this limitation, the author adopted New Public Management (NPM).

New Public Management is a tool for understanding limitations of bureaucracy and presents alternatives that worked in other countries. In adopting the NPM as a framework for interpreting the empirical results of this study, the author was cognisant that not all elements of NPM are useful.

Therefore, the focus was limited to key aspects of performance management with the hope that they will allow the author to understand specific bureaucratic factors that hinder performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Similarly, NPM has some limitations one of which is its inability to transform the administrative culture of the South African public administration (Gumede, 2015). For this reason, the author adopted Schein's theory of organisational culture, Denison model of organisational culture, and the Competing Values Framework to augment the limitation of NPM. On the strength of the empirical evidence presented in different Sections of this chapter, the author argues that successful implementation of NPM reforms requires transformation of the administrative culture. Thus, the three theories of organisational culture are useful for determining specific elements of organisational culture that may augment limitations of NPM interventions in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As noted in Schein (1985) leadership is a critical part of organisational culture. Therefore, the author draws from different theories of leadership to identify theoretical and empirical attributes for transforming the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

2.7. A conceptual framework for deriving performance improvement model for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

This Section is a summary of how the author interrogated literature to conceptualise six components underlying this study. The first component involved interrogating literature to understand Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as the research context. This interrogation allowed the author to understand administrative, socio-economic, and political issues giving rise to poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Administratively, the Municipality is a product of a merger of several neighbouring local authorities that were incorporated over the years to form a Metropolitan Municipality in 2000. This expansion increased demand for services and put pressure on the already dwindling financial resources. For this and other socio-economic and political reasons, the Municipality is struggling to fulfil its service delivery obligations.

Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has a large proportion of young people mainly because it hosts most institutions of higher learning in South Africa. Despite its high contribution to the national economy compared with other municipalities in Gauteng, the majority of its young population are unemployed. The high level of youth unemployment is associated with the service delivery protests that engulfed the Municipality in 2016 (Kgatle, 2017). Since the first cycle of local government elections in 1995, the African National Congress (ANC) had the luxury of enjoying popular vote. However, this changed in 2016 with the advent of coalition governments that have rendered the Municipality almost dysfunctional with constant changes of administrative and political leadership. As the political wrangling dominates the agenda in Tshwane, service delivery has taken the back seat. As a result, the residents are disgruntled and frustrated and conflicts between labour

and management have escalated. Making matters worse is that the Municipality inherited an incompetent and politicised administration that makes it difficult for the Municipality to provide effective service delivery. In an effort to address poor performance, all the South African municipalities including Tshwane are required to implement performance management systems. To this end, Tshwane has institutionalised performance management of senior executives and developed a monitoring and evaluation system as part of implementing the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), which is a strategic framework for service delivery. Despite these interventions, service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has worsened because of political instability and incompetence. Therefore, this study argues that introduction of performance management as a tool for implementation of New Public Management (NPM) has failed to improve service delivery in Tshwane. Based on the lessons drawn from Australia and New Zealand from which South Africa borrowed NPM, the author further argues that transforming administrative culture is a prerequisite for successful implementation of performance management. It is for this reason that amongst other things, this study explores the relationship between organisational culture and performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

As Wotela (2016) points out, the research problem analysis is the second step towards deriving a conceptual framework. Therefore, armed with an understanding of background issues giving rise to poor performance, the author interrogated past and current studies that have investigated performance challenges in South African municipalities. This interrogation revealed that available studies identified consequences of poor performance but not its root cause, which according to Gumede (2015) is failure to transform administrative culture of public institutions. Literature shows that the administrative culture of public institutions in South Africa owes its origins from the ANC's culture of democratic centralism (Gumede, 2015; Suttner, 2003). As the ruling party, the ANC extended its ideals of democratic centralism to all aspects of the public service through its policy of cadre deployment. Through this policy, incompetent political loyalists were appointed in strategic positions thereby creating a culture of incompetence, lack of accountability, mistrust, and poor performance.

Despite several reforms to improve performance in South African municipalities, this culture persists and service delivery protests have now become a common phenomenon across South African communities. Therefore, the author concurs with Gumede (2015) that New Public Management reforms such as performance management, have failed to transform the administrative culture of South African municipalities. Even though international research highlights the significance of organisational culture in promoting successful implementation of public sector reforms, there is limited research on this issue in South Africa. Available research on the relationship between organisational culture and performance in South Africa is limited to the private sector and skewed

towards quantitative research methodology. For this reason, this study adopted qualitative research methodology anchored in grounded theory design with particular emphasis on theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis. The need to apply constant comparative analysis came against realisation that available studies (Ndevu, 2019; Pretorius & Schurink, 2007) have not adequately used this technique in their grounded theory studies. Therefore, this study demonstrated the effectiveness of this technique in generating empirical theory of organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. After establishing the root cause of poor performance within the context of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author moved on to the third stage of the conceptual framework, which involved establishing the research knowledge gap.

In establishing the research knowledge gap, the author interrogated literature on past and current empirical studies on performance management issues in South Africa and other countries. The purpose of this interrogation was to understand the strengths and weaknesses of research strategies, designs, procedures, and methods used in these studies. This interrogation revealed that international and local researchers mostly used quantitative research methodology to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance in public institutions. In particular, most authors undertook surveys based on random sampling techniques and used questionnaires derived from Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI) and Denison Organisational Culture Survey (DOCS). A few instances where researchers applied qualitative cases studies, they used purposive sampling strategies and in-depth interviews to obtain empirical data. The author observed a similar pattern in South Africa where all the reviewed studies used quantitative research strategies, procedures, and methods to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance in private companies. In few cases where researchers focused on public entities in the form of municipalities and parastatals, DOCS survey was used. This analysis supports the author's argument that there is shortage of qualitative research that explores how organisational culture affects performance in South African public institutions. A few qualitative studies that have investigated performance issues have not directly focused on organisational culture and have not applied grounded theory.

In a few cases where grounded theory was used (Ndevu, 2019; Pretorius & Schurink, 2007) constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling have been ignored. Regardless of the research methodology used, all the studies reviewed in this study point to the significance of organisational culture in promoting performance in public institutions. In particular, successful implementation of public management reforms in Australian and New Zealand rested on the ability of government to transform the administrative culture of public entities including local councils in the case of Australia. However, due to critical shortage of research looking into the relationship between organisational culture and performance in South African public institutions, the significance of

organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute remains unknown. Therefore, this study aims to close this knowledge gap by using constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling as techniques for deriving an empirical model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Having determined the research knowledge gap and how it would be addressed, the author proceeded fourth step towards deriving a conceptual framework. This time the author interrogated literature to understand the field of study encompassing this research. According to Wotela (2016) understanding the field of study provides for data collection attributes as well as theories, frameworks, and models for interpreting the empirical research results.

Throughout Section 2.4, the study discussed key dimensions of public management as the branch of management in which this study is located. The author made a choice to locate this study within the field of public management after interrogating components of management as a field of study. In this regard, the author realised that management is divided into two streams of business management and public management. The fact that this study focuses on a public entity influenced the author's decision to adopt public management as the field of study. Further interrogation of public management revealed that public administration and public management are two important components of public management. Thus, the study branched into public management, which Hood (1991) traces back to institutional economics and managerialism. At this point, the author branched off into managerialims with particular emphasis on performance management. For this reason, Section 2.4 provided an overview of implementation of key principles of performance management in developed countries from which South African borrowed its model of public management reforms. Throughout the discussion, the author revealed varying degree of successful implementation of performance management interventions in Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom. Despite drawing heavily from these countries, introduction of public management reforms in South Africa has yielded mixed results. On one hand, the apartheid bureaucracy was dismantled (Gumede, 2015). On the other, municipal performance has been on a downward spiral, giving rise to service delivery protests that have become a common phenomenon across municipal jurisdictions in South Africa.

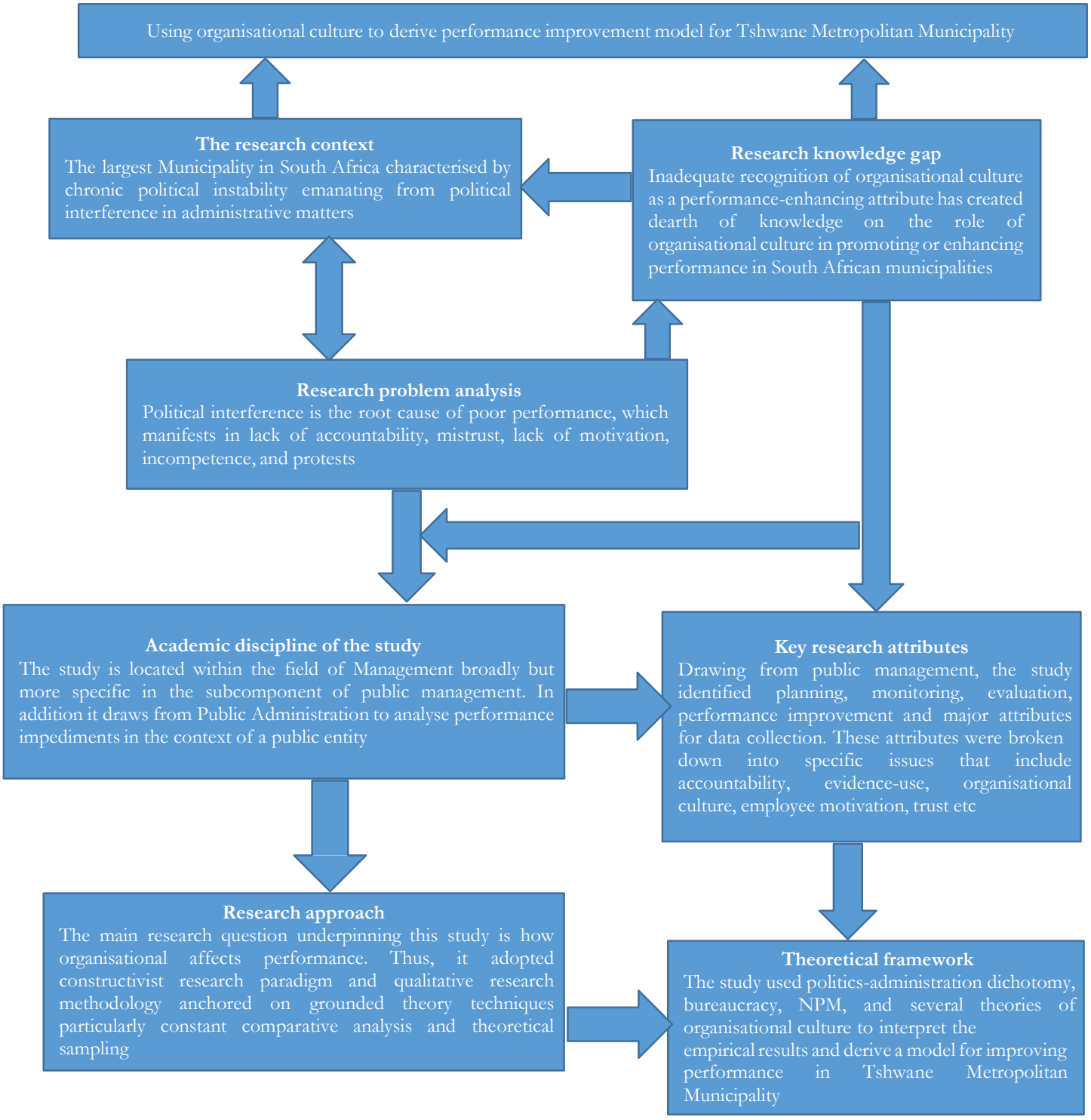
After interrogating literature to understand key dimensions of performance management as well as challenges and benefits for its implementation, the journey towards deriving a conceptual framework proceeded to the next step of determining research attributes and the theoretical framework. In this regard, the management literature identified performance planning, performance measurement, monitoring and evaluation as critical attributes of public management. Interrogation of these attributes provided different items that the author used to inform the content of the semi-structured interview guide used for collecting in-depth data from the research participants. In addition, interrogating literature to understand management as the field of study enabled the author

to identify important theories, frameworks, and models used for deriving a theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical results of this study. In this regard, the author adopted a combination of theories for interpreting various research questions.

The politics-administration dichotomy and bureaucracy were used to interpret factors that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, these theories highlighted the politics-administration interface as the root cause of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. However, these theories did not provide adequate solutions on how to improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In fact, several management studies identified bureaucracy as a serious constraint to performance. Thus, the author used NPM as a framework to understand performance impediments emanating from bureaucracy. Although it was useful in this regard, NPM is not conceptually equipped to explain personal and organisational values, principles, norms, practices, and behaviour that influence organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the author used Schein's (1985) theory of organisational culture to understand espoused and practiced values in the Municipality as well as underlying assumptions behind these values. Based on Schein's approach, the author formulated an opinion about the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In order to validate his opinion, the author used Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework (CVF) and Denison Model of organisational culture to understand how the espoused values established through Schein's approach relate to dominant cultural traits defined in Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) and Denison (1990). Comparing the empirical values and principles underlying assumptions that influence organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality with theoretical attributes of organisational culture, the author constructed a model for improving performance in the Municipality.

Based on the interrogation of literature, the author observed interchangeable use of a theoretical framework and a conceptual framework. To clarify this confusion, the author argues that a conceptual framework is a summary of six components involved in research conceptualisation. Therefore, this Section provided a summary of how the author interrogated literature to derive the six components of research conceptualisation namely, (1) understanding the research context and (2) the research problem within its context. Other components include (3) the establishment of the research knowledge gap and (4) understanding the field of study and (5) its attributes for data collection as well as (6) its interpretive theories, frameworks, and models. This means that a theoretical framework is a major component of the conceptual framework while a conceptual framework is an outline of how research is conceptualised.

Figure 2.2: The proposed conceptual framework



Source: Author

CHAPTER 3 - RESEARCH STRATEGY, DESIGN, PROCEDURE AND METHODS

As noted earlier, the main purpose of the conceptual framework is to guide research conceptualisation and empirical undertaking. Key elements articulating how this study was conceptualised are introduced in chapter one and detailed in chapter two. Specifically, chapter two discussed important aspects that shape the content of this chapter. Specifically, Section 2.3 informs the content on the research strategy, design, procedures, methods used for conducing this study. Building on this information Section 3.1 explains the research strategy and design while Section 3.2 outlines the target population and the procedure used to identify the research participants. Drawing from Section 2.5, the author presents the research methods and tools used for data collection in Section 3.3. Some of the content presented in Section 2.3 was used to shape the content of Section 3.4 which deals with procedures for data processing and analysis. In Section 3.5, the author presents ethical considerations that guided this study. Section 3.6 and Section 3.7 discuss research strengths and research limitations respectively.

3.1. Research paradigm

Researchers across different fields use research approach, research strategy, and research paradigm interchangeably. This has resulted in definition fallacy that has caused confusion amongst novice researchers. To clear this confusion, the author adopts Kuhn's (1962) definition of a paradigm as a belief system that shapes the researcher's worldview. Elaborating on this, Lincoln and Guba (1985) identify ontology, epistemology, and axiology as key issues that define the research paradigm. Ontology is a branch of philosophy concerned with the assumptions researchers make in order to believe that something makes sense or is real (Scotland, 2012). In other words, ontology is the philosophical study of the nature of reality. As Scott and Usher (2004) point out, ontology provides an understanding of the things that constitute the world. Epistemology describes how researchers come to know something. As Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) point out, it is concerned with knowledge acquisition. Thus, Schwandt (1997) defines epistemology as the study of the nature of knowledge and justification. Axiology describes ethical principles and values that guide knowledge acquisition. Researchers who believe in the existence of a value-free reality belong to the positivist paradigm (Mertens, 2015). The ontological position of this paradigm is naive realism and its epistemology is objectivism while its methodology is experimental (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). In simple terms, naive realism means the existence of the objective world pure from personal experiences. Similarly, objectivist epistemology means that researchers acquire objective knowledge by using methodologies that manipulate variables to determine cause and effect relationships (Smith & Heshusius, 1986).

On the other side of the spectrum sits the interpretivist paradigm also known as constructivist paradigm (Charmaz, 2006). As Guba and Lincoln (1994) point out, the purpose of this paradigm is to understand the subjective world of human experience. The authors argue that researchers subscribing to this paradigm understand and interpret the thinking of the subjects and their meaning about the context. In other words, constructivists understand the individual and their interpretation of the world around them. Thus, this paradigm is premised on the conviction that that reality is socially constructed (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). In terms of ontology, constructivism subscribes to a relativist ontology and subjective epistemology anchored in naturalist methodology. Relativist ontology consists of multiple realities (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000) and a subjectivist epistemology means that the researcher makes meaning of their data through their own personal experiences (Punch, 2005) and interactions with the research participants (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Chun Tie, Birks and Francis (2019) posit that researchers should reflect their philosophical beliefs and interpretations of the world prior to commencing research. For this reason, the author holds an ontological posture entrenched in the existence of multiple realities. Second, the author believes in subjective epistemology that constructs knowledge from personal experiences. In other words, the author beliefs that social reality should be explored through a value-laden approach. In view of these convictions, the author adopts constructivism as the research paradigm underpinning this study.

A decision to adopt constructivism does not mean that the author is oblivious to contemporary research paradigms. These paradigms emerged out of a concern that positivism and constructivism do not address social justice. Therefore, transformative paradigm emerged to fill this gap and as its name suggests, it promotes social change and empowerment through activism. This means that its epistemological approach to knowledge is structured around promotion of human rights and gender equality. Another paradigm that aims to reconcile the differences between positivism and constructivism is pragmatic research. The key tenet of this paradigm is that there is no single reality that can be described as objective or subjective. As Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) point out, pragmatism subscribes to non-singular ontology, a relational epistemology, and mixed methodology. Relational epistemology means that relationships in research are determined by what the researcher deems appropriate to in a particular study (Gage, 1989).

Based on the foregoing, the author makes the following decisions. First, the beliefs and assumptions underlying positivist paradigm are inconsistent with the beliefs and values of the author. For this reason, this paradigm is not appropriate for use in this study. Similarly, transformative paradigm is not appropriate because the intention of the author is not to use information obtained from this study to advocate for any position against social injustice of poor service delivery. Thus, the only feasible option that aligns with the objectives of this study is constructivism. To justify the selection of this paradigm, the author turns to previous studies that have applied constructivism.

Mabaso (2018) used constructivist grounded theory to assess the status of cyber-security in South African metropolitan municipalities. Three main considerations motivated the use of constructivism in this study. First, the author wanted to inductively generate a theory or pattern of meaning through the continuous collection of empirical data from the research participants. Second, the researcher wanted to explore and understand the meanings people ascribe to a social problem within their own setting. Last, as the security expert, the author wanted to understand the phenomenon of cyber security from his own personal experience. In another study on institutional capacity in South African municipalities, Scheepers (2015) found constructivist paradigm useful for incorporating personal experiences in developing a model for improving leadership capacity. Demonstrating the benefit of personal experiences in research, Babbie and Mouton (2001) as well as Webb and Auriacombe (2006) posit that they provide insider perspective that allows researchers to generate rich, detailed and textured data. Thus, Scheepers (2015) reported that his experience in government enabled him to obtain rich information that enhanced the quality of his research. As noted earlier, researchers use paradigms and research strategies interchangeably. Therefore, Motingoe (2012) states that his study on monitoring and evaluation in a particular government department in South Africa employed qualitative research paradigm. Similar to the studies discussed above, Motingoe (2012) used what he called qualitative research paradigm out of desire to infuse personal experiences in deriving an empirical model for effective use of monitoring and evaluation.

Based on these studies, it is clear that the main advantage of constructivism is that it provides for use of personal experiences to enhance research. Specifically, this enhancement is achieved through the ability to acquire rich empirical data that explains the phenomenon from the perspective of the researcher and the subjects that experience the phenomenon in everyday life. Having discussed different research paradigms and the decisions underlying the choice of constructivism as the most appropriate paradigm for this study, the next Sections outline research strategy, design, procedures, methods, and tools associated with constructivism.

3.1.1. Research strategy

The previous Section discussed ontological beliefs and assumptions underlying constructivist paradigm. Therefore, this Section discusses epistemological strategies, procedures, methods, and tools used in constructivist paradigm. Epistemology originates from episteme, a Greek word that means knowledge (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Cooksey and McDonald (2011) reiterate that epistemology is concerned with how researchers acquire and communicate knowledge. Therefore, research methodology is the "how" of collecting and processing data within the framework of the research process (Brynard & Hanekom, 2006). This definition means that research methodology is an encompassing term that explains how researchers gather, classify, analyse and interpret data in

addition to making logical conclusions based on the research inquiry (Ndenje-Sichalwe & Elia, 2021). Therefore, the research strategy, the research design, and the research methods are key components of the research methodology.

Brynard and Hanekom (2006) identify two types of research methodologies namely, qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. In line with the key tenets of pragmatic research paradigm, the author adds mixed methodology to the list. As noted earlier, the author of this report beliefs in the existence of multiple realities. This belief is associated with constructivism and qualitative research methodology used in this study. To apply this methodology effectively, the researcher used a grounded theory research design with particular emphasis on constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling. He also applied purposive sampling strategy to select research participants. Other qualitative strategies used in this study include a semi-structured interview guide as an instrument for conducting in-depth interviews.

As noted in Section 2.3, there is limited qualitative research on issues affecting performance in South African municipalities. It has also been mentioned that a few who have used this research strategy highlight some of its benefits. Pretorius and Schurink (2007) applied qualitative research strategy to conduct a study on development of an empirical model for improving service delivery in a particular Municipality in South Africa. In addition, Ndevu and Muller (2018) applied the same to investigate the role of Balanced Score Cards (BSC) in improving municipal performance. In both studies, the authors applied qualitative research strategy because of its ability to generate thick description of participants' feelings, opinions, and experiences. In particular, this strategy allowed Pretorius and Schurink (2007) to build rapport with the respondents and enhance their understanding of the research context. Further, Cronin and Sadan (2015) used the same strategy to explore attitudes of senior government officials on use of evidence for decision- making in the South African public service. In this case, qualitative research strategy enabled the authors to understand deeply embedded assumptions and values that influenced attitudes of managers on use of evidence for decision-making. The success of qualitative research strategy in similar studies encouraged the author to use this strategy in this study. Similar to the studies discussed above, adoption of this study allowed the author to obtain thick descriptions on factors that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Most importantly, these descriptions enabled the author to construct the organisational culture in the Municipality. In doing so, the author used personal experiences derived from doing research in government departments.

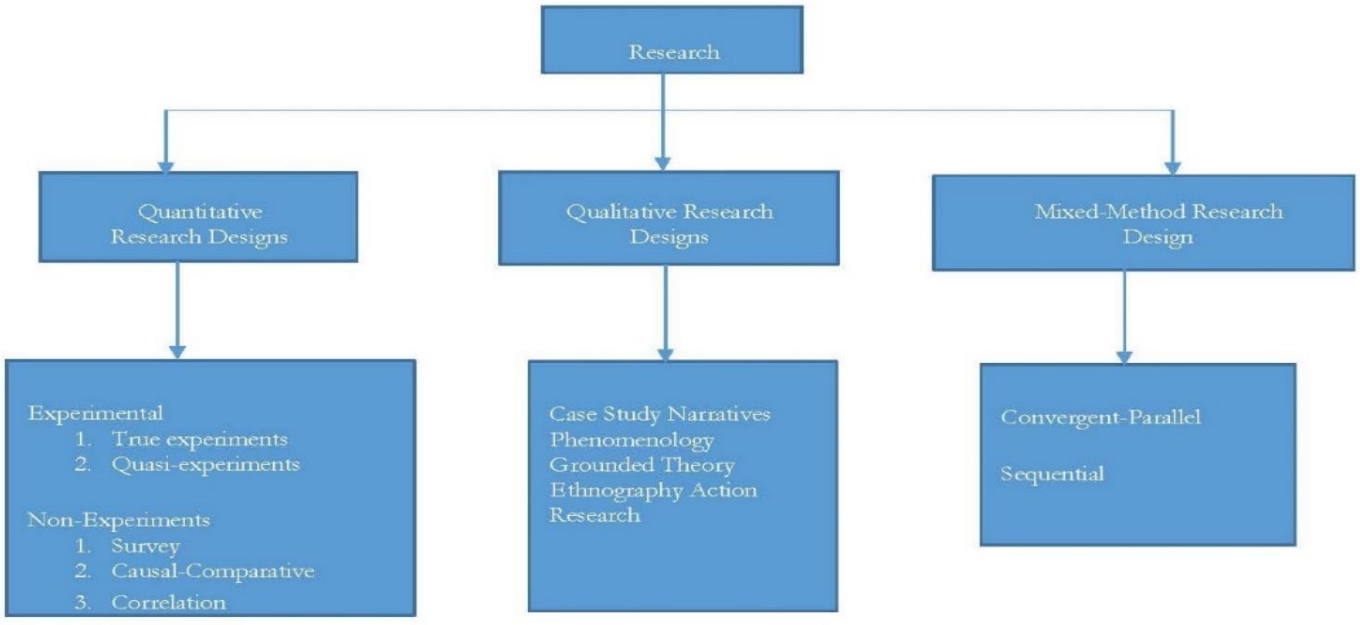
Use of personal experiences has received a great deal of criticism from different scholars. For instance, Mwita (2022) argues that qualitative research is vulnerable to researcher's bias emanating from infusing personal values and experiences that may distort reality. Because of these weaknesses, it is difficult for qualitative research to be replicable. Another limitation to generalisability

emanates from the use of small samples that are common in qualitative studies. Last, qualitative research generates voluminous data. For example, Barrett and Twycross (2018) had 219 pages of qualitative written data making the analysis a mammoth task. Responding to this criticism, the author points to the research questions stipulated in Section 1.4 and argues that these can be answered through a qualitative research strategy. In addition, the study has no interest to generalise its findings because it is intended to generate a context specific model and, doing so does not require large sample size. Therefore, the real weakness to address here relates to the complexities of managing and analysing bulk data. Details on how specific strategies used employed to mitigate this are outlined in the next Section.

3.1.2. Research design

After discussing qualitative research strategy as one of the key components of the research methodology, the focus now turns to the research design. Kothari (2010) defines the research design as an advanced plan that outlines methods, procedures, and techniques for data collection and analysis. Figure 3.1 presents a typology of research designs associated with qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method research.

Figure 3.1: Typology of research designs



Source: Author

As reflected in Figure 3.1, there are two main categories of quantitative research designs, namely experimental and non-experimental research designs. The former consists true experimental and quasi experimental research designs while the latter is made up of surveys, correlations, and causal-

comparative designs. As discussed earlier, these designs fall within the realms of positivism which is not aligned with the purpose of this study. In addition, the author noted that the assumptions and beliefs underlying positivism are inconsistent with the values, beliefs, and personal convictions of the researcher when it comes to the existence of reality and how it should be understood. For these reasons, there is no need to discuss quantitative research designs. Similarly, mixed-methods designs are not discussed because the study is anchored on a purely qualitative research approach. In search for the most appropriate design to choose from, Section 2.3 interrogated literature to discuss research design, procedures, and techniques used in qualitative studies on performance management in South African and other countries. Taking this discussion forward, the author interrogates literature to understand strengths and weaknesses of common qualitative research designs in the context of performance management research.

Narrative research is one of the qualitative research designs that focuses on life stories of individuals in their own context. As Connelly and Clandinin (1990) point out, this type of research design puts the person at the centre of the research inquiry and ensures that people's voices are not lost in translation. The design is premised on the value of participants' account as the basis for understanding the world within their own context. However, the intention of this study is not to understand participants' account of their lives. Instead, participants are used as a source of information to understand organisational behaviour not as sources of information for understanding their own life experiences. For this reason, narrative research is not an appropriate design for use in this study.

Related to narrative research design is ethnographic and phenomenological research designs. Although these studies are common, they use different approaches to describe different scenarios. For example, narrative research applies chronological approach focusing on systematic events that define the lives of research subjects. On the other hand, phenomenological research studies focus on understanding social phenomena from the experiences of research participants. This means that research subjects are not the primary focus of analysis, as is the case in narrative studies. Further, ethnographic research is about understanding shared patterns of behaviours within a particular cultural group over a long period. According to Asenahabi (2019), this design is useful in fields of anthropology and sociology. For this reason, it is not appropriate for this study, which is located within the field of management.

Action research is another type of research design that was considered for use in this study. This type of research seeks to generate immediate solution to the problem at hand and is not concerned with whether the results can be generalised to any other setting (Asenahabi, 2019). This means that Action research provides practical solutions to the problems faced by people or organisations that participate in the research process. Despite its practical value, Action research has minimal

contribution to knowledge (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003). One of the main objectives of this study is to contribute to the body of knowledge on how to address performance problems in South African municipalities. Therefore, Action research is not appropriate because it fails this critical requirement, which forms the criteria for judging this study's worth or lack thereof. Therefore, the researcher explores a case study as an alternative to the research designs discussed thus far.

Case studies account for a large proportion of the research presented in books and articles in psychology, history, education, and medicine (Starman, 2013). Despite their long history and use across a wide range of fields, researchers are divided about the space of case studies in research. On one hand, some authors see them as a qualitative research type (Baxter & Jack, 2008; Stake, 2005) while others perceive them to be a qualitative research method (Gerring, 2004; George & Bennett, 2005). This, coupled with multiple definitions of case studies, has caused confusion on the nature and function of case studies. Out of the many definitions found in the research literature, the author settled for a common description of a case study as an in-depth investigation of a phenomenon within its real-life context. To this end, Yin (2003) identifies four conditions under which case studies should be used. First, case studies answer the 'how' and 'why' questions. Second, the behaviour of those involved in the study cannot be manipulated. Third, case studies are suitable when researchers want to cover contextual conditions that are relevant to the phenomenon under study. Last, case studies are used when the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are blurry. Based on the analysis of these conditions, it is clear that case studies fall within the constructivist paradigm. For this reason, they are appropriate in this study especially because the purpose of this study is to understand amongst other things, how organisational culture affects performance within the context of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

If this study had adopted a case study design, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality would be the context while performance improvement would be the case. Therefore, this study fits the requirement for a case study because the boundaries between the context and the phenomenon are not clear. This notwithstanding, a case study is not appropriate for deriving an empirical model for improving performance in the Municipality. In support of this view, Mfinanga, Mrosso and Bishibura (2019) state that case studies provide an in-depth understanding of a case while grounded theory aims to generate a theory grounded in the views of participants. In line with the objective of deriving a performance improvement model grounded in the views of the participants, the author adopted grounded theory as the most suitable research design. Therefore, the next paragraph provide a detailed discussion on the key tenets of grounded theory.

Grounded theory emerged out of Glaser and Strauss' disenchantment while undertaking the Awareness of Dying in 1965. During the undertaking of this study, the authors observed an emphasis on research to verify theory instead of actually generating theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In addition,

the authors realised the dearth of social theory emanating directly from empirical research. Thus, they highlighted the need to generate theory from the data and believed that this would be more successful than theories logically deduced from predetermined assumptions (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Therefore, the authors developed grounded theory as a process for collecting qualitative data and undertaking data analysis to generate categories (a theory) to explain a phenomenon of interest (Opie, 2004). This description is consistent with the main objective of this study, which is to obtain and analyse experiences of employees of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality for purposes of generating a model for improving performance. Grounded theory is unique in promoting simultaneous data collection and analysis. In this regard, it suggests several methods and techniques that include theoretical sampling, coding, constant comparison, saturation and memo writing. A detailed discussion of these techniques is provided in Section 3.3. For now, the author interrogates literature on key features of grounded theory.

Although Glaser and Strauss discovered grounded theory together, they differed significantly over philosophical beliefs underlying grounded theory. Because of these differences, they parted ways in 1987 leading to the emergence of Glaserian grounded theory, which operates within a positivist paradigm, and Straussian grounded theory that focuses on constructivist paradigm. The original inventors of grounded theory did not only differ on ontological positions but also on the role of the literature review. Specifically, Glaser argues that literature review should be done post data collection while Strauss maintains that it should inform data collection. In light of this, the author followed Straussian approach and found it useful for shaping the research conceptualisation and framing of the research questions. The adoption of constructivist paradigm in indicative of Straussian influence in this study.

Grounded theory evolved further with Charmaz' (2006) development of Constructivist Grounded Theory, which is intentional in its application of the principles of constructivist paradigm. In particular, Constructivist Grounded Theory acknowledges a strong interrelationship between the researcher and the participants. Despite this benefit, the physical interrelationship between the researcher and the research participants was limited because this study was conducted visually at the height of COVID-19 restrictions. This means that it was not possible to apply key principles of Constructivist Grounded Theory to the letter. For this reason, the author applied a combination of Strauss and Charmaz's brands of grounded theory as a framework for undertaking this study. This decision is based on the observation that these brands are based on symbolic interactionism (Charmaz, 2014). In order to justify this selection, the author discusses other studies that have used both or one of these approaches.

Mabasa (2018) used Constructivist Grounded Theory to assess the status of cyber-security in the Metropolitan Municipalities in South Africa and highlighted the following benefits of this

approach. In this regard, the author applied key principles of grounded theory to collect and analyse the empirical data. In particular, the author used the principle of reflexivity in enhancing his understanding of the data thereby facilitating generation of the empirical theory. In another study, Burden and Roodt, (2007) applied grounded theory to undertake a study on organisational design in a South African company working in the Information and Technology sector. The researcher was a Group Executive for Human Resources in the company and deliberately allowed his personal experiences to influence the research process. As the author pointed out, use of personal experience was useful for obtaining rich information from participants.

Two studies were conducted in South African municipalities with the first applying grounded theory to derive a model for improving service delivery (Pretorius & Schurink, 2007). Although the authors did not specify what brand of grounded theory they used, they mentioned that their approach was entrenched in symbolic interactionism. As a result, the author assumed that it could have been either the Straussian grounded theory or Charmaz's grounded theory. Similar to the previous studies reported above, Pretorius and Schurink (2007) found grounded theory useful for generating thick descriptions and enabled the authors to derive the empirical model through understanding personal experiences of the participants involved in service delivery processes in the Municipality. Similarly, Ndevu (2019) used a grounded theory approach to explore the relationship between trust and performance in a particular municipality in South Africa. Similar to Pretorius and Schurink (2007), the author did not specify the type of grounded theory used in his study. However, he mentioned that his approach was entrenched in qualitative research methodology. In addition, the author mentioned that the study relied on personal experiences and interpretations of research participants. These characteristics are consistent with constructivist paradigm in which Strauss and Charmaz's grounded theories are embedded.

Based on the information extracted from other studies that have applied grounded theory, the author points to two main advantages of using this approach in this study. First, this approach allowed the author to obtain rich empirical data to first understand performance impediments in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and subsequently determine the culture of doing things in the Municipality. Second, grounded theory enabled the author to use his previous experience of doing research in one of the public organisations in South Africa. In particular, the author used his personal experience to formulate preliminary questions that facilitated focused literature review. Despite these benefits, the author is cognisant of some limitations of grounded theory design. Chief amongst this is its complexity to novice researchers such as the author. In mitigating this risk, the author embarked on an intensive process of self-learning aided by his moderator. In addition, the author overcame limitations of massive data by employing an organised thematic data analysis strategy anchored in Gharajedaghi's (2006) systems thinking methodology. This approach enabled

the author to sort the massive data generated from interviews along theoretical and empirical themes derived from the research questions thereby ensuring effective management and analysis of the empirical data. A detailed description of methods and techniques used for analysing the empirical data is provided in Section 3.4. Before proceeding to data analysis, the next Section outlines procedures for selecting the research participants.

3.2. Procedures for selecting research participants

There is lack of guidance on why and how researchers should describe socio-demographic characteristics of the study participants. The little information available on this aspect comes from quantitative researchers. For example, Pickering and Blaszczynski (2021) state that describing research participants gives readers an idea of the extent to which study findings can be generalised to their own local situation. Even though generalisation is not an objective of this study, describing key characteristics of the research participants allows the reader to understand the research findings in context.

3.2.1. Description of the research participants

Understanding procedures for selecting research participants requires the author to define the research population first. Research population, also known as general population (Asiamah, Mensah, & Oteng-Abayie, 2017), represents the entire group (Creswell & Creswell, 2003) of potential participants. Therefore, the general population of this study included all employees of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. However, due to limited time and resources, it was not possible to include every member of the general population in the study. Therefore, the author had to select a subset of general population believed to be knowledgeable about the subject matter of this study. This group included senior and middle managers, specialists from different portfolios, representatives of labour, and ordinary employees who did not hold managerial positions. The next Section explains the reasons and procedures for choosing these participants as well as the actual number that participated in the study.

3.2.2. Purposive sampling

Different articles and books on research methods define sampling as a process for identifying participants who can provide information to answer the research questions. Qualitative and quantitative researchers use different techniques and procedures to select research participants. For example, the former apply non-probability sampling techniques and procedures while the latter uses probability sampling techniques and procedures. In line with the research design adopted for this study, the author highlights different non-probability sampling techniques. To this end, five types of

sampling strategies that fit within the prescripts of qualitative research were identified from different books and articles reviewed to conceptualise this study. The first strategy is convenience sampling, also known as accidental sampling (Etikan, Musa, & Alkassim, 2016). As its name suggests, the convenience sampling involves selection of participants based on accessibility, availability, and willingness to participate. The main reason that made this strategy inappropriate for this study was its likelihood to get people with no knowledge on the issues of interest in this study to participate in the study.

Quota sampling is the second type of non-probability involves dividing the research participants into subgroups that are proportional to the overall research population. This method is more reliable that convenience sampling because the population is more representative of the characteristics of the general population. However, it is effective where the proportions of the subgroups are known. Therefore, it was not appropriate for this study because proportional representation was not an issue. Instead, this study selected research participants because of their perceived knowledge on the issues of interest in this study. Known as purposive sampling or judgemental sampling, this strategy describes what needs to be known and sets out to find people who can and are willing to provide the information required (Bernard, 2006). Snedecor (1939) argues that in order to find knowledgeable and reliable informants, researchers need to prepare before undertaking sampling. Therefore, the author embarked on three critical steps that involved inquiring about procedures to get access to the research setting. After getting approval, the author requested a series of documents including a staff list indicating names, positions, departments, and contact details of senior managers and specialists up to the level of the Heads of Departments.

The second step as suggested in Tongco (2007) was to set criteria for participation. This included (a) senior managers from the rank of Director, Divisional Head, and Head of Department responsible for departments and divisions related to finance, management, and organisational wide governance issues, (b) specialists working in different portfolios dealing with different aspects of finance and management, (c) representative of labour unions, and (d) ordinary employees who did not have any managerial responsibilities. The author believed that these categories of participants were most suitable to answer the research questions. Specifically, senior managers provided useful information on strategic issues that enhanced or impeded performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The other categories added valuable data that in some cases corroborated management perspective while other information contradicted the management perspective. In addition, the author believed that all the categories of participants had adequate knowledge on issues that influenced organisational culture in the Municipality.

The third step involved the actual selection of the participants using the staff list as a sampling frame. Therefore, research participants who fit the established criteria were contacted

through emails and telephone numbers extracted from the staff list. After several attempts, most respondents did not respond to emails and some of those contacted telephonically did not pick up or declined participation. In addition, those who had agreed to participate were skewed towards management. In order to correct this bias, the author embarked on snowball sampling, which is a more specialised type of purposive sampling (Weisberg, 2005). A decision to use a snowball technique is in line with the view that sometimes snowball sampling follows purposive sampling (Tongco, 2007). Snowball is a technique in which one interviewee gives the researcher the name of at least one more potential interviewee (Cohen & Arieli, 2011). Adding to this, Noy (2008) argues that this strategy is useful in situations where other means of obtaining information are not feasible. Therefore, the use of snowball was necessary because initially purposive sampling did not yield satisfactory results.

As noted in Section 3.1.2, one of the key features of grounded theory design is simultaneous data collection and analysis. Therefore, after the open coding, the author applied theoretical sampling as the last step in the last step of a multi-dimensional sampling approach underpinning this study. Based on several descriptions of theoretical sampling found in the literature, the author understands theoretical sampling as a sampling technique in which research participants are selected on the basis of theoretical concepts emerging from the initial data analysis. For example, political interference is one of the concepts that emerged early on after the initial analysis of data on factors that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Upon this discovery, the author identified more research participants who helped the author understand various dynamics of this concept. At the end, political interference became the pillar on which the author built the empirical theory that explains organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

As noted in Section 2.3, there is shortage of studies that have applied grounded theory to explore performance management issues in South African municipalities. For this reason, there are few examples on effective use of theoretical sampling in South Africa. Strengthening this argument is an observation that researchers who have applied grounded theory design to explore performance management issues in different municipalities in South Africa use purposive sampling technique only (Ndevu, 2019; Pretorius & Schurink, 2007). This observation is consistent with the findings of the review of articles published during the period 1994–2016 to identify trends and patterns on use of grounded theory methods in the education sector (DuPlessis & Van der Westhuizen, 2018). The purpose of this review was to identify trends and patterns in order to understand how grounded theory methods contributed to the development of new educational theories in South Africa. The main contribution of this review found 31 studies on grounded theory conducted over a period of 22 years, with 24 published from 2010 to 2015. This confirms the author's argument that there is shortage of grounded theory research in South Africa. In addition, the review established that most studies focused on health issues pointing further to the limitations of grounded theory research on

management. Last, DuPlessis and Van der Westhuizen (2018, p.16) point out, 'a disappointing trend identified in the publications was that the levels of theorising were limited'. It is for this reason that this study aims to demonstrate the value of constant comparative analysis as a technique for developing an empirical model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. After choosing the sampling technique, the next step is to determine the sample size, collect data, and assess the response rate (Taherdoost, 2016). Therefore, the next Sections discuss the sample size and the instrument used for collecting data. The issue of response rate is included in the discussion on the sample.

3.2.3. Sample size

There is no consensus regarding sample size determination in qualitative research. For example, Bernard (2006) suggests that between 10 and 20 knowledgeable participants are sufficient to uncover and understand issues in any qualitative study. On the higher end, Boddy (2005) suggests 30 in-depth interviews if researching a relatively homogenous population. On other hand, (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007) proposed that researchers should determine a sample size by examining sample sizes in previous studies of similar design in which saturation was reached and using a figure within the range of such sample sizes. Based on this argument, the author examined sample sizes used in different qualitative designs as the basis for determining the sample size for this study.

After the review of several case studies, the author discovered that there is no specific rule that dictates the number of participants in case studies. In this regard, literature suggests that researchers should use a sample between 4 and 15. In support of this, Mills, Durepos, & Wiebe (2010) state that too large sample may lose the depth of information required. For ethnographic studies, evidence shows that sample sizes ranged from 6 to 33 with an average of 23 in education studies while the smallest sample in health science was 9. In addition, Guetterman (2015) suggests a sample size of between 8 to 31 for ethnographic design while Morse (1994) and (Creswell (1998) proposed 6 to 10 and 5 to 25 respectively. In terms of grounded theory design, some scholars suggest a sample size of 20 to 30 (Creswell, 2013; Marshall, Cardon, Poddar, & Fontenot, 2013) while others regarded a sample size of 16 to 24 enough (Aldiabat & Navenec, 2018).

Based on the above, this study selected a total sample of 40 participants with the belief that the response rate would put the actual sample within an average sample size of 30 participants as recommended in most grounded theory studies. However, the actual sample reduced to 24 research participants after some declined to participate. Based on previous studies on grounded theory, the author was confident that a sample of 24 was enough. For example, Mbala (2016) used a sample of 33 while Ndevu (2019) used a sample size of 20 with the lowest sample of 4 used in Pretorius and Schurink (2007).

3.2.4. Research data and information collection instrument

As noted earlier, research paradigms guide choices that researchers make on what research methods and tools are appropriate for use in undertaking research. As Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) point out, the methodological implications of paradigm choice permeate the research questions, participants' selection, data collection instruments and collection procedures, as well as data analysis. As presented before, constructivist paradigm informed the author's decision on choosing grounded theory as the most appropriate design for undertaking this study. In addition, the author detailed procedures for selecting the research participants. Therefore, the next step is to discuss the influence of constructivist approach in determining the data collection instrument and procedures used for data analysis.

Starting with data collection tools, Howitt (2019) notes that grounded theory deals with qualitative data gathered from participant observation, from the observation of face-to-face interaction, from semi-structured or unstructured interviews, from case-study material or documentary sources. This means that qualitative researchers have a number of data collection instruments to select from depending on the purpose of their study. Therefore, selecting the appropriate instrument for use requires an understanding of differences embedded in a range of qualitative data collection instruments. For example, if a researcher wants to collect narrative data from a group of individuals, a focus group discussion guide is appropriate. To justify this view, the author points to Guest, Namey, Taylor, Eley, & McKenna (2017) who argue that this instrument gathers data from a group of people with similar backgrounds or experiences on a particular topic. For studies that use observations as methods of data collection, observation schedule is used. This instrument consists of a list of observable items, which Howitt (2019) describes as observational checklist that guide their researcher in observing participants' behaviour.

One of the fundamental principles of grounded theory is systematic gathering and analysis of data. For this reason, the author used a document analysis matrix for systematic collection of data from a variety of documents. Denzin (1970) advocates for use of document analysis in combination with other qualitative research methods as a means of triangulation. Therefore, the author combined the matrix with a semi-structured interview guide. Curry and Nunez-Smith (2015) describe a semi-structured interview guide as a collection of loosely defined areas of specific topic of discussion. This differs significantly from structured and unstructured interview guides. For example, the former includes close ended questions and is appropriate for use in quantitative studies. On the other hand, the latter is a conversation that is not guided by any particular instrument. The semi-structured interview guide and the document analysis matrix were developed through a process of interrogating literature to conceptualise this study. This interrogation paved the way for conceptualisation of the research questions (Section 1.2.3) and the research attributes (Section 2.5). Collectively, these aspects of research conceptualisation informed the content of the semi-structured interview schedule and the

structure of the document analysis matrix. The strengths and weaknesses of these strengths are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Literature identifies several benefits of using semi-structured interview guides in grounded theory studies. First, this instrument is useful for generating thick data through open-ended questions. In a grounded theory study on cyber security in South African municipalities, Mabaso (2018) used this instrument to obtain rich empirical data for development of empirical theory of integrated development cyber-security. In particular, the author attributes the success of theory generation to rich data collected through open-ended questions emanating from the semi- structured instrument. This confirms the view that semi-structured interview guide is a critical instrument that facilitates inductive theory development (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Second, semi- structured interview guides allow researchers to develop in-depth accounts of experiences and perceptions with individuals (Levenson, Willis, & Prescott, 2015). In a study on the relationship between trust and organisational performance in a South African municipality, Ndevu (2019) found a semi-structured interview guide useful for obtaining the feeling, knowledge, experience and attitudes of municipal employees on issues affecting performance within their own context. Last, semi-structured interview guides are useful where researchers already know something about informants through fieldwork or other experience ((Taylor, Draai, & Jakoet-Salie, 2020). Therefore, the author's prior knowledge on performance management issues in South African public institutions makes this instrument relevant for use in this study.

Qualitative researchers agree on the importance of document analysis as a strategy for triangulation. Therefore, one would expect to find a wide variety of literature on this topic. Unfortunately, the literature on documentary research is scant (Morgan, 2015) especially in South Africa where grounded theory research is limited. Another limitation on this subject is that researchers such as Lawrence and Tar (2013) and many more, highlight the benefits of document analysis but hardly mention tools used for conducting document analysis. A few that have such as Dalglish, Khalid, & McMahon (2020) and Wotela (2016), recommend use of Excel sheets. In this regard, the author used a matrix where identifying information of each document such as date of publication, topic of research, author, was deposited in a separate column. The rows of the matrix were used to represent a predetermined theme on specific information to be extracted from each article. In a theoretical paper on conceptualising conceptual framework for public management research in South Africa, Bless (2020) used this matrix to interrogate different dimensions of public management as the field of study. In addition, this instrument was successfully used to analyse articles, books, and reports to understand attributes of management (Wotela, 2016; Bless, 2022) and key aspects of monitoring and evaluation (Sidzumo & Wotela, 2016; Wotela, 2017).

Even though these authors were successful in using the document analysis matrix, this instrument was largely used in the context of conceptualising public management research. Therefore, the author reiterates an argument made in the research purpose statement that there are limited examples that have used grounded theory techniques to explore performance issues within the context of South African municipalities. The next Section on research methods elaborates on this argument but for now, the author concludes this Section with an overview of strengths and limitations of the semi-structured interview schedule and the document analysis matrix as experienced in this study. First, semi-structured interview guides yielded rich data that enabled the author to understand the issues from the perspective of the research participants. On the other side, generation of massive empirical data may be overwhelming to novice researchers. However, the author possesses a relatively good research experience acquired through previous research that mitigated against this limitation.

Second, the author found the flexibility of this instrument useful in enhancing the quality and focus of data collection based on issues emanating from simultaneous collection and analysis of data. In some cases, the constant changing of the content of the data collection instrument proved to be time consuming because it required realignment of the research questions and some critical components of the study. While this iterative process enhanced the quality of the research process, it was sometimes confusing. However, this confusion faded away as the researcher became more and more familiar with the literature. Another limitation often raised by positivist researchers is that semi-structured interview schedules lack credibility. To mitigate against this weakness, the author adopted Collingridge and Gantt (2019) approach of providing a detailed account on the overall methodology used for undertaking this study. This is evident in the previous Sections that provided a rather more detailed analysis than in other postgraduate studies (Mabaso, 2018), on methodological aspects underpinning grounded theory.

Last, document analysis matrix was useful in guiding the author towards a systematic approach of extracting useful theoretical data from the literature. Given its success during the literature review, this instrument was used to analyse the empirical data along major themes from the research questions. In this regard, the document analysis matrix enabled the author to develop a structured approach towards generating of empirical theory. This notwithstanding, the greatest limitation in this regard was lack of empirical examples that demonstrate the effectiveness of document analysis matrix in undertaking grounded theory research in the context of South African municipalities. Therefore, this study serves as mitigation against this limitation.

3.3. Methods for collecting research data and information

Section 3.1 through to Section 3.2 discussed constructivist as the research paradigm underpinning this study and highlighted the relevance of grounded theory in determining appropriate methodology for undertaking this study. Specifically, Section 3.2 discussed procedures used for sampling as well as instruments used to collect theoretical and empirical data. In advancing these discussions, the author presents methods used for collecting (Section 3.3) and analysing empirical data (Section 3.4).

3.3.1. In-depth interviews

As noted in the previous discussion, a semi-structured interview guide is an instrument used for conducting a semi-structured interview. Kvale (1996) and many others, use semi-structured interviews and in-depth interviews interchangeably. Other authors refer to semi-structured interviews as research instruments for undertaking qualitative research (Ruslin, Mashuri, Rasak, Alhabsyi, & Syam, 2022). This description confuses an instrument (semi-structured guide) with a research method (semi-structured interview). A note that semi-structured interview is based on a guide confirms that semi-structured interview is not an instrument as other researchers think but it is a research method. Although other researchers use semi-structured interview and in-depth interview interchangeably, this study uses the latter. The reason is that using the former would mask the real purpose of qualitative interviews, which is to obtain in-depth information. The main question in this regard is what makes qualitative interviews in-depth? Before answering this question, the author defines interview as a concept.

In simple terms, an interview is a conversation between two or more people about a particular topic. As Kvale (1996) points out, the purpose of a qualitative research interview is to understand the world from the perspective of interviewees. However, this definition does not explain what makes interviews in-depth. To answer this question, the author turns to Kvale's (1996) metaphor of a researcher as the miner and knowledge as buried metal. To interpret this metaphor, the author highlights two points that make qualitative interviews in-depth. First, the role of the researcher is to extract useful information from the participants. Second, doing so requires the researcher to dig deep to discover thoughts and feelings that are deeply embedded in the minds of the participants. Because of its ability to generate in-depth data, interviewing is the most frequently deployed qualitative research method. Specifically, this method is appropriate for grounded theory research (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Ndevu (2019) is one of the few researchers who used grounded theory design to explore the relationship between trust and performance within a particular District Municipality South Africa. This method enabled the researcher to extract in-depth information on the feelings, knowledge,

experience and attitudes of research participants. Similarly, Mabaso (2018) used the same research design and the same method to collect empirical data for his Doctoral research aimed at developing a theory that explains cyber-security implementation in metropolitan municipalities in South Africa on cyber security were the information data. Similar to Ndevu's (2019) study, Mabaso (2018) highlighted the importance of in-depth interviews in generating information on the experiences and feelings of the participants. In addition, Pretorius and Schurink (2007) reported that they used in-depth interview as the method for data collection because they were interested in how the research participants thought about their lives, their experiences in the context of their own work environment as the research setting. As the researchers mentioned, these experiences were useful in developing a performance improvement model grounded in the experiences of the research participants. In-depth interview is also common in other studies that used case studies and other types of qualitative research designs. For example, Cronin and Sadan (2015), Kariuki and Reddy (2017) as well as Sidzumo (2016), have applied in-depth interview as a method for collecting empirical data on different aspects related to performance management in South African public institutions.

In sum, in-depth interview is the mostly used method of data collection in different qualitative research studies. Its popularity lies in its ability and flexibility that allow researchers to probe for details thereby generating in-depth information. Most importantly, in-depth interview facilitates development of empirical theory and models for improving municipal performance. These benefits do not necessarily mean that in-depth interview is flawless as a research method. For example, it is often criticised for lack of objectivity that allows researchers to influence data collection. To avoid the problem of biasness as mentioned in Brounéus (2010), the author interviewed different categories of employees. According to Morse (1994), doing so generates a variety of information that enhances the credibility and trustworthiness of the data. In addition, the author enhanced credibility and trustworthiness by employing other methods to triangulate data obtained from interviews.

3.3.2. Field notes

Field notes, also known as ethnographic writing (Clifford & Marcus, 1986), are an important method for collecting data in qualitative studies. In simple terms, field notes are the observational notes that researchers make while in the field. Mulhall (2003) states that every observer has his or her own preferred strategies for recording the data from field observations. In the context of limitations imposed by COVID-19 restrictions, the author did not have access to the field. The field in this context means a physical interaction with the research participants within their own setting. Therefore, the author's approach to field notes was different from what most studies including Spradley (1980) recommend, which is to start observations in the field. Instead, the author prepared field notes before, during, and after fieldwork.

Mulhall (2003) argues that it is important to record field notes as closely as possible in time, to when the events occurred and were observed. For this reason, the author began recording observations at the time he had first interactions with the key officials who helped with the logistics of getting access to the research participants. At this level, the author made notes on how long it took the officials to respond to requests for assistance and the manner in which they responded. Based on these notes, the author formulated preliminary ideas about attitudes towards outsiders. The second level of recording observations was undertaken during the phase of contracting potential research participants. In this regard, the purpose and outcome of observations were the same as reported in the first level of observations. Based on these observations, the author noticed a pattern of non-responsive and lack of consideration to outsiders. Largely, this opinion influenced the author's approach to data collection and analysis.

The third level of observations was made during the actual interviews where the author took note of key issues emerging from the interview. In this regard, the focus was on how the respondents reacted to the questions and what factors influenced their reactions. It is during this time that the author identified preliminary concepts and their meanings. In addition, the author observed and recorded factors that interfered with the interview. Another important area of observation was the performance of the researcher in conducting the interview. In this regard, the observations and note taking focused on how the author asked the questions and how long it took to complete the interview. Observations and records were made on the impression of the overall quality of the interview including whether participants provided useful information. In some cases, the author requested participants to provide documents and/or suggest potential participants. In this regard, the author made notes on who did not assist the author with the documents or lists of potential participants despite agreeing to do so. Again, these notes allowed the author to formulate opinions that influenced data collection and analysis. There is no consensus on when and how to write field notes. For example, others argue that it is best to write field notes at the end of each day (Mulhall, 2003) while others recorded events as they occurred (Hinds, Vogel, & Clarke-Steffen, 1997). The author note important events as they occurred during the interview and prepared field notes at the end of each interview while issues were still fresh in his memory. In support of this practice, Mulhall (2003) argues that recording events as they happen or shortly afterwards is useful for ensuring that important details are not lost to memory. On the same note Sanjek (1990) argues that scratch notes need to be transformed into field notes as soon as possible while impressions are still vivid (Sanjek, 1990).

There are several limitations of field notes reported in the literature. For example, Mulhall (2003) argues that in some cases taking field notes may influence the participants to act in a manner that they would not if they were not observed. In addition, another limitation is that although participants may accept their actions being recorded directly in one instance, at another time they

may object (Hinds, Vogel, & Clarke-Steffen, 1997). Other limitations of such as lack of validity and biasness are not specific to field notes but extend to qualitative research methodology as a whole. The source of bias inherent in the field notes results from the fact that researchers cannot replay the event to verify their field notes (Tessier, 2012). For this reason, field notes should not be used alone (Bertrand, Brown, & Ward, 1992). Despite these limitations, the author discovered that field notes enhance an iterative process of data collection and analysis, thereby improving the quality of grounded theory research. For example, a constant comparison of the field notes enabled the author to identify other important areas on which data was collected. It also allowed the author to formulate opinions that influenced the creation of categories and meanings from the data.

3.3.3. Document analysis

Documents are an important source of rich data (Charmaz, 2014) for qualitative research. In this regard, the author applied document analysis defined in Fischer (2006) as a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents, both printed and electronic material. Also known as a framework analysis (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006), this systematic procedure involved two main steps. First, the author identified key themes from the research question with the first question broken into two themes namely, performance constraints and performance enablers. The second and third questions are related to different aspects of organisational culture. Specifically, question three investigates how organisational culture affects performance while question four looks into how empirical and theoretical attributes of organisational culture could be used for constructing performance improvement model for use in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. After identifying themes, the author used a thematic matrix reflected in table 3.1 to analyse and extract secondary data from several documents including academic and non-academic material. Academic material was sourced from sourced from different online academic databases that were accessed through the Wits University Library. For non-academic material, the author used government websites to access policy documents relevant for performance management. In addition, the author relied on the website of the City of Tshwane to obtain strategic documents, periodic reports and tools used for performance management. Table 3.1 shows how the author applied a thematic analysis to extract secondary data.

Table 3.1. Thematic analysis matrix for extracting secondary data

Q1: What factors enhance or constrain achievement of service delivery targets in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?						
Themes	Journal x	Journal xx	Journal xxx	Similarities	Differences	Reconciliation
Inadequate use of evidence for decision-making	There is no use of information for decision making	There is limited use of evidence for decision- making	Evidence is ignored and policy decisions are made on the basis of political considerations	Some scholars point towards limited use of evidence to inform decision making	Majority of scholars maintain that evidence use for decision making in municipalities does not exist	There is a debate on use of evidence for decision making in South African municipalities
Lack of accountability	Despite policies in place, there is lack of accountability and consequence management	The culture of political appointments has created a culture of non-accountability	People without adequate skills are appointed to senior positions	There is clear evidence of politicisation of municipal service in South Africa		Political appointments have created a culture of poor performance and lack of accountability in South African municipalities

Table 3.1 shows how the author extracted secondary data from academic and non-academic sources on the performance of South African Municipalities. Using this framework as guidance, the author analysed over 15 journal articles and 10 academic research reports and several government policies and reports. The analysis was guided by the research questions with the first research question used as an example in the table. The first step of the analysis involved breaking down the research questions into themes as reflected in the first column in table 3.1. Based on these themes, the author reviewed and extracted information from each source and deposited extracted information in a cell corresponding to each theme. For example, data from Journal x was deposited in a cell corresponding to two themes representing inadequate use of evidence for decision making and lack of accountability. After doing the same for all the sources reviewed, the author added three columns namely, similarities, differences, and reconciliation. The column on similarities was used to identify points of convergence across the sources while a column on differences represented debates on specific issues embedded in identified themes. Armed with the similarities and differences, the author made findings about emerging issues from literature sources. Finally, these views were compared with the views emerging from the empirical data. Through this triangulation process as well as a constant comparative analysis reported later on, the author was able to answer the research question.

This Section outlined three methods used to collect data for answering the research questions stipulated in Section 1.4. In particular, the Section adopted in-depth interview as the main method used for collecting empirical with field notes used as a complementary method for purposes of triangulation. In addition, triangulation was enhanced through constant comparative analysis of empirical data obtained through the two methods with the theoretical data sourced through document analysis.

3.4. Methods, processes and procedures for data processing and analysis

Building on from different components of research methodology presented in Section 3.1 through to Section 3.3, this chapter outlines procedures and techniques used for analysing the empirical data. Recalling from Section 3.1, this study adopted a particular brand of grounded theory associated with Charmaz (2014) as well as Strauss and Corbin (2008). Therefore, the procedures and techniques discussed in this Section are drawn from the views of these authors who represent constructivist brand of grounded theory. In order to understand the context within which the data analysis procedures and techniques were used in this study, the author provides a very brief analysis of the evolution of grounded theory. The original version of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) assumes a positivist posture but a shift occurred when Strauss (1987) embraced constructivism. However, Strauss never explicitly indicate the paradigm underpinning his thoughts (Mills, Bonner, & Karen, 2006) leading to different opinions on his ontological position (Annells, 1997). Later publications clearly indicate that Strauss rejected positivism (Strass & Corbin, 1998) adopted constructivism, which was later propagated in different publications, with Charmaz (2006) emerging as the main proponent.

In view of the evolution described above, this study took a constructivist posture anchored in grounded theory methodology to understand (a) factors that enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and (b) understand the role of organisational culture in promoting or impeding performance. A motive to explore these issues came from the author's observation of poor performance in the Municipality and desire to develop an empirical solution to this problem. So far, the author has discussed methods and tools used in collecting empirical data to achieve the objectives of this study. Therefore, this Section takes this discussion forward by outlining procedures and techniques used for data analysis.

The first step towards data analysis began with the interviews that were conducted through the Microsoft teams platform. In line with the ethical protocols, the author requested permission to record the interviews using a recording facility inbuilt in the Microsoft teams while a mobile phone was used as a backup. Each recorded interview was assigned a special identifier for ease of reference and secured in a password protected audio file. After the first interview, the author completed the field notes and transcribed the raw data. Data transcription is the process of turning the recordings into written form in order to enable data analysis. Therefore, a written verbatim record of the audio recording is called a transcript. Although grounded theorist suggest that data analysis should begin immediately after the first interview, the author began analysis after the first set of interviews conducted with four members of the executive management in the City of Tshwane. After these interviews, the author had generated in-depth information to understand the perspectives of senior management regarding constraints to performance management. Understanding these perspectives enabled

the author to conduct a productive and well guided theoretical sampling and data collection thereby enhancing the quality of the empirical data.

3.4.1. Coding, constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling

As mentioned above, grounded theory is unique in that unlike other research designs, it provides for simultaneous data collection and analysis. As presented later on in this section, constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling are key strategies for ensuring effective and iterative process of data collection and analysis. To understand how these techniques were used in this study, the author underscores the importance of data transcription as the main process for data analysis. After developing data transcripts, the author embarked on coding, which according to Holton (2010) is a mechanism that moves research from raw data to theory generation. In simple terms coding is the process of naming or labelling the data, categories, and properties (Saldaña, 2016). Grounded theorists use different terminologies to describe different types of coding but all agree on the existence of three levels of coding. In this study, the author used open, axial, and selective coding to analyse the empirical data.

Open coding is done line-by-line (Glaser, 2007) and the author applied this approach by breaking data into discrete parts and assigning descriptive labels that define events and incidents in the data. According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), the purpose of line-by-line coding is to discover concepts, properties, and dimensions embedded in the empirical data. Table 3.1 below presents the outputs of open coding derived from the first four interviews conducted with the Heads of Divisions in the City of Tshwane.

Table 3.1: Open coding

Excerpts	Raw data	Initial codes	Concepts
1	…the IDP and the SDBIP are the basis for performance agreements. Implementation of SDBIP is contained in the individual performance tool	Performance management tools Implementation of performance management	Instruments of performance management
2	Performance management is provided for in the Municipal Systems Act and other regulations	Legal frameworks for performance management	Performance enablers
3	Getting performance management rolled out across City structures has been quite challenging	Performance management implementation challenges	Constraints to performance management implementation
4	Permanent employees resist performance management	Lack of cooperation from permanent employees	

Source: Author

The first column of Table 1 presents the unique identifiers assigned to each of the four interviews conducted with the Heads of Divisions in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The raw data emerging from these interviews is presented in the second column while the third displays the initial codes that describe the meaning inherent in the raw data. For example, the emerging issues from the raw data indicate that the City of Tshwane has administrative and legal instruments for performance. Despite this, the data highlights some performance implementation challenges including lack of cooperation between management and staff. In line with Strauss and Corbin's (1998) description of line-by-line coding as a process of discovering concepts embedded in the data, the last column in table 1 presents preliminary concepts derived from the codes. These concepts represent the author's transition to a higher level of abstraction. For example, two codes derived from excerpts 3 and 4 were collapsed to develop a concept labelled as *constraints to performance management implementation.* To validate this concept, the author compared this newly developed concept to the existing literature and back to the raw data. The process of comparing the empirical concepts back to the literature revealed similarities between the emerging empirical data properties and the existing literature in as far as performance challenges in South Africa are concerned. For this reason, the author concurs with Glaser and Strauss (1967) that prior review and knowledge of the literature enhances theoretical sensitivity.

After generating and validating initial concepts through a process of comparative analysis, the author conducted axial coding. According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), axial coding identifies relationships between open codes and allows researchers to develop core categories in preparation for selective coding. In addition, axial coding is useful for refining, aligning, and categorising themes (Williams & Moser, 2019). Therefore, the author applied theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis to undertake axial coding. Charmaz (2006) defines theoretical sampling as the collection of data to elaborate and refine categories emerging from data. Based on this definition, the author saw the need to elaborate on two factors that emerged from the initial codes displayed in table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2: Outputs of theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis

Excerpts	Excerpts from the interview data	Initial codes	Expanded codes	Subcategories	Core categories
Excerpt 3	Getting performance management rolled out into the city structures has been quite challenging	Difficulty in implementing performance management	Lack of skills Nepotism Lack of leadership Lack of consequence management Political interference Political instability	Incompetence Cadre deployment Lack of accountability Poor consequence management	Politicised bureaucracy Incompetent leadership Lack of accountability Low staff morale
Excerpt 4	Permanent employees resist performance management system	Lack of cooperation from permanent employees	Lack of consultation Negative attitudes Disgruntlement Mistrust	Poor leadership Lack of communication Conflicts between management and staff	

Source: Author

The first issue is the lack of cooperation between management and staff while the second relates to difficulties in the implementation of performance management. The need to expand on these issues was informed by the author's curiosity to understand empirical factors underlying the resistance of employees to performance management as well as why it was difficult to rollout performance management across the City of Tshwane. Therefore, the author identified participants who, by virtue of their official roles and responsibilities, were perceived to be well positioned to provide information on these issues. These participants included specialists, labour union leaders, directors and many more. The author adjusted the initial data collection instrument to include specific questions for this group. Answers to these questions yielded new information that was used to refine and expand the initial codes to formulate new concepts and categories. For example, three categories emerged from the open code of *lack of cooperation from permanent employees*. As displayed in table 3.2, these categories include lack of consultation, negative attitudes, disgruntlement, and mistrust.

The newly created categories were subjected to three levels of constant comparative analysis. First, the author compared and contrasted the new categories of data against each other and back to the literature. This process resulted in the creation of the main category of *poor leadership* consisting of two subcategories of *lack of communication* and *conflict between management and staff*. Second, the author compared and contrasted the key elements of poor leadership back to the open codes and the literature. The purpose of this comparison was to ensure that the main category and its elements were consistent with the original data obtained from the first four interviews conducted with the executive management of the City of Tshwane. In cases where inconsistences were found, the original codes were refined and aligned in line with the empirical data emerging from interviews with specialists, directors, and labour representatives. The last level of analysis included comparing and contrasting the subcategories across transcriptions. For example, leadership and its components were further compared and contrasted against subcategories formulated from the raw data extracted from excerpt 3 and this procedure was used for all the transcriptions. As presented in table 3.2, this process of constant comparative analysis yielded four core categories which were also subjected to the same process outlined above.

In order to move data analysis to the highest level of abstraction, the author used theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis to facilitate selective coding. According to Holton (2010), selective coding begins only after the researcher has identified a potential core variable. As presented in table 3.2, poor leadership and cadre deployment emerged as core categories. Lack of communication and conflict between management emerged as key components of poor leadership while incompetence, lack of accountability, and poor consequence management emerged as key attributes of cadre deployment. Holton (2010) points to the need to delimit subsequent data collection and coding to that which is relevant to the emerging conceptual framework. For this

reason, the author undertook theoretical sampling to explore two themes (politicised bureaucracy) and (incompetent leadership) formulated out of several attributes of poor leadership and cadre deployment presented in table 3.2. At this level of analysis, the author obtained data from more participants with the view to understand the organisational culture in the City of Tshwane. Subsequently, the author compared the new data to the two themes and well as to the existing data properties across all transcriptions. This process of comparison enabled the author to construct a theory describing the City of Tshwane as an entity with politicised bureaucracy characterised by incompetence, nepotism, lack of accountability, and low staff morale.

In sum, this section demonstrated the significance of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling in generating a theory that describes the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As a result, this study contributes important knowledge that addresses methodological gaps identified in previous public management studies that have failed to demonstrate the significance of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling in grounded theory research.

3.4.2. Ethical considerations when collecting research data

Section 3.1 identified ontology, epistemology, and axiology as three pillars of research paradigms. Up to this point, the focus of discussion has been limited to ontological and epistemological considerations that informed the conceptualisation and empirical undertaking of this study. Therefore, it is time for the author to consider axiological perspectives underpinning this study. Before doing so, it is important to recall axiology refers to the ethical issues (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017) and involves defining, evaluating and understanding concepts of right and wrong behaviour relating to the research (Israel, 2015). Based on this definition, the author embarked on a series of activities to ensure adherence to required ethical standards.

First, as a student at the University of Witwatersrand, the author obtained ethical clearance certificate from the research ethics committee. Second, the author requested permission to conduct this study within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and submitted the ethical clearance certificate as one of the supporting documents required for gaining access to the research participants. Second, the author requested participants to sign a consent form indicating that they participated in the study voluntarily. Last, in line with research participants need to be adequately informed about the research (Israel, 2015), the author prepared research information note that was distributed to the research participants ahead of the interview. This note outlined the objectives of the study including research questions. It also describes roles and responsibilities of the researcher in relation to the management of data obtained from the participants. In this regard, the issue of an anonymity and confidentiality of the data was emphasised. To ensure anonymity, the author did not reveal the names of the

participants when reporting their views in the report. With regard to ensuring the confidentiality of the data, the author stored the audio and paper-based materials on password protected files to be destroyed after five years.

3.4.3. Research strengths – Credibility and trustworthy

Qualitative research is often criticised for lack of credibility. To address this problem, researchers should articulate measures for ensuring accuracy and credibility of their studies (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). These measures include using detailed and consistent methods of data collection and analysis (Collingridge & Gantt, 2019). Thus, the strength of this study lies in detailed description of methods for data collection and analysis as described in Section 3.5. Lack of validity is another issue which quantitative researchers use as a critique against qualitative research. In the context of this study, Guba and Lincoln's (1989) concept of trustworthiness is used instead of validity. Therefore, to attain trustworthiness, the author used triangulation, described in Flick (2018) and Morse (2019), as use of different methods and procedures for data collection and analysis. Specifically, the author used different categories of employees in order to obtain a variety of views on performance issues within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

In what Collingridge and Gantt (2019) describe as methods triangulation, these data were also subjected to different levels of analysis in the form of initial coding, focused coding and theoretical coding, all of which were underpinned by constant comparative analysis. In addition, the author employed constant comparison analysis as a strategy to enhance trustworthiness of the data and its confidence in generating empirical model for improving performance in the Municipality. The use of constant comparative analysis is consistent with Hoflund's (2013) strategy of using the same to improve credibility and trustworthiness in grounded theory study on network leadership within the health sector.

3.4.4. Research weaknesses – technical and administrative limitation

The greatest weakness inherent in this study is that grounded theory is challenging to the novice (Timonen, Foley, & Conlon, 2018) such as the author of this research report. For example, Allen (2003) reported being lost in the data while undertaking this approach. To mitigate against this risk, the author embarked on a self-taught mission involving intensive reading of grounded theory literature while also receiving constant guidance from his moderator. There are other challenges encountered during data collection. First, the study was conducted during Covid-19 lock down and face-to-face interviews were not carried out as initially planned. This limited the author's ability to observe the research surroundings and other factors that could have influenced the responses of research participants. Second, the use of Microsoft teams as an alternative to face-to-face interviews also came

with its own challenges. For example, in some cases the respondents chose to have interviews in noisy surroundings and this affected the quality of the recordings. As a result, important data may have been lost during transcription especially because the transcriber was not involved in data collection. Third, it was difficult to get hold of potential respondents because most did not reply to email communication requesting their participation. This did not only result in significant delay in data collection but also affected sampling as the author had to switch from purposive sampling to snowballing in order to obtain adequate data for analysis.

In sum, this chapter has presented the ontological and epistemological considerations that informed conceptualisations and empirical undertaking of this study. In line with the personal convictions of the author, this study is rooted in constructivist research paradigm. In addition, the research questions underpinning this study required the author to place this study within constructivism. One of the key principles of constructivism is the belief in the existence of multiple socially constructed realities. In view of this, the study adopted qualitative research methodology entrenched in grounded theory design. Grounded theory was selected as the most suitable research design in line with the author's desire to develop an empirical model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

In undertaking this study, the author used a combination of purposive sampling, theoretical sampling and snowball technique. Purposive sampling was allowed the author to identify relevant participants with adequate knowledge to answer the research questions posed in this study. In addition, theoretical sampling enabled the author to identify relevant participants who enhanced his conceptual understanding of pertinent issues pertaining to key dimensions of performance management in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The author adopted snowballing after struggling to get adequate participation through purposive sampling.

After selecting the research participants, the author used a semi-structured interview guide to collect empirical data while a document analysis matrix was used as a framework for thematic analysis of documents. In line with the prescripts of grounded theory, the author used in-depth interviews to collect empirical data. As widely reported in the literature, in-depth interviews are useful for generating rich information, which enabled the author to generate concepts and categories embedded in empirical data. For purposes of triangulation, the author used field notes and document analysis. In particular, field notes enhanced data analysis and allowed the author to use his own observations and experience to influence data analysis. On the other hand, document analysis was useful for generating secondary information that enhanced theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis. Last, the author outlined ethical considerations that informed this study from planning to empirical undertaking. The study also reported the strengths and limitations of this study.

CHAPTER 4 - FACTORS THAT ENHANCE OR IMPEDE PERFORMANCE IN TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY

The purpose of this chapter is to answer the first requestion related to factors that enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To this end, the chapter is divided into three Sections. The first Section presents the empirical research results (Section 4.1) followed by the discussion of the research findings (Section 4.2) before presenting conclusions in Section 4.3. Specifically, Section 4.1 consists of three components that highlight the empirical themes emerging from data. These themes are presented in Section 4.1.1 and are constructed in a manner that conveys the empirical meaning derived from the data. In order to place the empirical research results within the current body of knowledge on performance management, Section 4.1.2 presents the empirical evidence that answers the main research question while Section 4.1.3 compares this evidence with the findings of similar studies conducted in the past. This comparison is the basis for the discussion of research findings presented in Section 4.2. In the last Section, the author concludes by providing a summary of key research findings with particular emphasis on the relevance of the empirical data in answering the main research question. Drawing from the foundation laid out in Section 2.6, the last part of this chapter links the theoretical framework to the empirical results.

4.1. Presentation of empirical research results

The empirical research results presented in this Section represent the views obtained from research participants. Generally, the results are consistent with the findings of previous studies on performance management in South African Municipalities. Specifically, the results point to political interference as the root cause of poor municipal performance. A detailed discussion on how this phenomenon gives rise to poor performance is provided below.

4.1.1. Adequate performance management regime

Like all South African municipalities, Tshwane has a comprehensive legal framework that provides necessary tools and systems for ensuring effective implementation and achievement of its strategic objectives. In particular, Section 152 of the South African Constitution requires municipalities to deliver services in a sustainable and accountable manner. In addition, Section 153 allows municipalities to structure and manage their administration, budgeting and planning processes. In this regard, the Municipal Finance Management Act of 2003 provides a framework for management of municipal funds. The empirical results of this study revealed the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 as the most critical tool for translating the Constitutional provisions stipulated above into service delivery programmes. Specifically, the Municipal Systems Act provides for Integrated Development

Planning (IDP) as a strategic tool for development, implementation, and management of service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

The empirical research results pointed to the centrality of the IDP in effective implementation of performance management system in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, participants mentioned that the IDP defines the five-year service delivery programme containing performance targets and indicators for measuring progress towards achievement of established targets. The participants further noted that the targets expressed in the IDP are translated into Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP), which is the operational plan for implementation of the IDP. In this regard, the participants highlighted the importance of the SDBIP in linking the financial resources to the targets and outputs defined in the IDP. In addition, the empirical results identified the IDP as an important framework for effective individual and organisational performance. In this regard, the results revealed that the IDP is used as a tool for managing performance contracts for Section 57 employees. This category of staff includes the Municipal Manager and Senior Managers accountable to the Municipal Manager.

Generally, the participants agreed that there is adequate legislative framework that allows Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to achieve its service delivery objectives effectively. However, there were disagreements regarding the effect that this framework has on performance of the Municipality. For instance, some participants pointed to successful implementation of performance management for Section 57 employees. In this regard, participants mentioned that publication of performance contracts of Section 57 employees reflects good performance in as far as accountability and transparency is concerned. Despite this, the empirical research results revealed a host of factors that hamper performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As discussed in the subsequent Sections, performance impediments in the Municipality originate from a weak organisational culture that is entrenched in politics.

4.1.2. Political interference

The empirical results of this study point to political interference as the main performance impediment in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the participants traced the origin of political interference back to the practice of appointing political party loyalists in administrative positions in the Municipality. As most participants pointed out, this practice impedes performance in several ways. First, this practice has resulted in lack of adequate skills because political considerations often take precedence over meritocracy when it comes to appointment of senior managers in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Adding to this, the empirical results revealed that some managers are underqualified for positions they occupy hence unable to perform their functions effectively. Second, cadre deployment has created opportunities for political corruption, which according to Lodge (1998),

manifests in nepotism, patronage, and abuse of power. In this regard, the empirical results have revealed that these elements of political corruption are pervasive in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, most participants cited political interference in procurement of goods and services as the most common form of political corruption in the Municipality. On one hand, the empirical results of this study show that interference in procurement processes leads to expensive litigation and delays in implementation of service delivery programmes. On the other, it exacerbates the already fragile financial situation as the Municipality procures goods and services at inflated prices.

Third, the research participants pointed interference in staff appointments has weakened mechanisms for accountability and consequence management. In providing examples of how political interference has eroded accountability, several participants pointed to different incidents of misconduct such as perpetual late coming, which go unpunished. Related to this is the fourth aspect of low staff morale and lack of trust. In this regard, the research participants mentioned that staff morale is low as a result of different aspects of political favouritism such as positive appraisals for non-performers and promotions of the politically connected at the expense of hardworking and deriving employees. In terms of trust, the empirical results of this study revealed lack of trust between management and unionised staff. The main source of mistrust in this respect was the conflict between Management and Labour Unions regarding implementation of performance management for permanent staff. On one hand, management felt that staff was hiding behind Labour Unions to avoid accountability. On the other, staff expressed concerns that Management would abuse the system to settle personal scores. Last, the empirical results identified political interference as the main source of the chronic political and administrative instability in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, participants mentioned that on numerous occasions, coalition governments have collapsed on account of disagreements at political party level.

4.1.3. Lack of human and financial resources

The empirical responses to the question of what factors enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality revealed lack of human and financial resources as a key performance impediment in the Municipality. In terms of financial resources, the research participants mentioned that even though municipalities are the first point of contacts with the citizens in terms of service delivery, big budgets are allocated to the national and provincial governments. As a result, municipalities including Tshwane, often struggle to fulfil their service delivery mandate. Based on the empirical responses obtained from the research participants, the author argues that lack of financial resources in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is largely associated with political interference. In support of this argument, the empirical results point to reckless use of resources in

pursuit of political expediency. To explain this, several participants revealed a common trend where senior managers were removed from office because of factions within political parties governing the City of Tshwane. As several participants further pointed out, the Municipality has used significant amounts of money, which could have been used to provide services, to compensate people who had been illegally removed from office.

Another aspect of waste of financial resources is political interference in procurement processes. In this regard, the empirical research results revealed that politicians are deliberately deployed in administrative positions as a strategy to siphon funds earmarked for service delivery for implementation of political programmes. As noted earlier, there is empirical evidence of political interference in the area of human resources where politicians put pressure on professionals to appoint unqualified political loyalists. In this regard, the research participants noted that because of political favouritism, the City of Tshwane has a shortage of technical skills required for effective delivery of services.

4.1.4. Lack of a common vision

The empirical research results of this study revealed wide-ranging effects of political interference on performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, the results show lack of trust, lack of accountability, and poor consequence management combine to create lack of a common vision on how things should be done in the Municipality. Specifically, the research participants mentioned that political interference in different aspects of administration has intensified lack of trust between politician and administrators. Specifically, the participants pointed to fundamental differences on how politicians and technocrats approach service delivery issues. For example, administrator mentioned that politicians disregard public rules and regulations to channel service delivery to their constituencies whereas the Municipality is mandated to provide equitable services to all. In other words, the empirical research results revealed that political priorities are considered more important than the needs of the ordinary people. As revealed by the empirical research results, lack of trust affects accountability and transparency with negative consequences on staff morale and performance.

On a different note, the empirical research results revealed that inexistence of a common vision on strategic issues extends to other categories of staff within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the research participants pointed to different groupings that do things differently. One group consisted of the highly qualified staff who were perceived to be arrogant because of their superior knowledge. As some participants pointed out, this group wanted to do things their way. Another group consisted of those appointed through political connections who were perceived to be accountably only to their political masters. This group was perceived to be ill disciplined and disrespectful to authority. The third group comprised of Labour Unions and the last

group of Management, perceived this group to be disruptive. As one participant pointed out, differences between different formations within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality have created a hostile environment characterised by mistrust that makes it difficult for everyone to rally behind a common vision of promoting excellence in service delivery.

4.1.5. Inadequate use of information for decision-making

The empirical response to the question of what factors enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality revealed inadequate use of evidence for decision-making as one of the key factors that impede performance. In describing how this problem unfolds in Tshwane, some research participants mentioned that even when quality evidence is available to inform strategic decision-making, political interest takes precedence when it comes to decision- making. This notwithstanding, other participants acknowledged challenges that make effective use of evidence for decision-making difficult. In this regard, the participants mentioned pointed to lack of a coordinated approach and investment in generation and use of quality data to inform decision- making processes in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Commonly cited reasons for this included inadequate funding for monitoring and evaluation, shortage of adequate skills to ensure effective use of evidence, and a fragmented approach to performance management. Citing an example of fragmentation of different components of performance management, some participants mentioned that individual performance is not linked to organisational performance. In addition, others pointed to a partial approach in which only Section 57 employees were subjected to performance management.

Even though most participants mentioned that ineffective use of evidence for decision-making had a negative impact on performance, there were some who pointed to improvements in this area. Particularly, some participants mentioned that research information was used in the development of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP). In this regard, the participants mentioned that the office of the City Strategy and Organisational Performance was instrumental in ensuring use of research information to inform development of the IDP. In addition, some participants noted that the Municipality has adequate mechanisms for periodic performance reporting. However, others had reservations that the quality of periodic performance reports was not good enough to inform meaningful use for policy decisions.

In sum, this Section has presented empirical themes underpinning answers to the question of what factors enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The main takeaway from this presentation is that political interference is central to all performance problems in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To this end, the empirical results of this study revealed that political interference gives rise to a number of factors that characterise the culture of doing things in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. On the strength of empirical evidence pointing to the

centrality of political interference as a performance impediment, Tshwane was described as a Municipality with weak organisational culture. Therefore, the next Section presents empirical results that reveal different elements of this culture.

4.2. Answering the main research question

In order to understand factors that enhance performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author asked the participants "what works in Tshwane"? This open-ended question yielded a variety of responses with most participants pointing to the existence of an adequate legislative framework as an important factor that sets the Municipality on course to effective service delivery. In this regard, one participant said, "*we have an adequate legislative framework for us to effectively discharge our service delivery mandate..."* Other participants who concurred with this view mentioned that in particular, the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 provides the basis for the establishment of institutional mechanisms that provide a conducive environment for performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As one participant pointed out, "*locating the office of the City Strategy and Organisational Performance (CSOP) within the portfolio of the City Manager shows the commitment to service delivery improvement".*

In addition, some participants mentioned that the Municipal Systems Act provides for instruments that promote effective planning in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, one participant said,

> *Planning in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality starts from development of the City Vision, which is then translated into the IDP, which is implemented through SDBIPs. In turn, SDBIP is fully linked to individual performance agreements, which are used to measure individual performance. So, there is an alignment because departmental plans are also linked to the city vision and the IDP.*

Highlighting the significance of the IDP as a management tool, another participant mentioned that *"together with its supporting instruments, the IDP forms the basis for performance agreements that are used for managing performance of Section 57 employees in the Municipality".* Using accountability and transparency as performance measurements, another participant argued that *"performance contracts of Section 57 employees are published. This means that from accountability and transparency perspective, the City is performing well to the extent that the performance contracts of senior managers are open for public scrutiny".* Corroborating this view, one participant had this to say:

> *The positive [thing] is that we have a very operational Section 57 individual performance management system. If we had dropped the ball there and you can imagine at that level, things would be far worse than what we have now.*

Contrary to the revelation that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has a functional performance management system for Section 57 employees, other research participants painted a different picture regarding performance management for permanent staff. In this regard, one Senior Manager said,

"Labour Unions have been refusing to accept the proposed performance management policy because they want to protect their members. The problem is that people want to avoid accountability and responsibility". On the other hand, several employees and Labour representatives were fearful that Management lacked adequate understanding regarding the purpose of performance management and would appraise staff unfairly and abuse the system to settle personal scores. As one participant pointed out, the fear that management would use the performance management system inappropriately emanated from the fact that:

> *Some of these people were appointed on political considerations and for years they have failed to perform and nothing happens to them. Therefore, they do not have a legitimacy to subject us to performance appraisal. Again, we are not going to get anything for good performance.*

The empirical responses to the question of what factors enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality pointed to political interference as the root of performance problems in the Municipality. In this regard, the research participants noted that political interference gives rise to a range of issues that include corruption, incompetence, and lack of accountability. In relation to corruption, most participants mentioned that politicians put pressure on management to award contracts to particular individuals. Highlighting the consequences of bowing to political pressure, one participant mentioned that "*irregular awarding of contracts for procurement of goods and services leads to delay in service delivery because such contracts are often challenged at huge cost to the city".* Adding to this, another participant said:

> *Patronage, nepotism, and cadre deployment precipitate despondency among officials and leads to poor service delivery because unqualified people are appointed to strategic positions and when they get there they cannot perform and the city cannot deliver services*

The is another dimension of corruption that was revealed after the analysis of empirical responses to the question of what factors enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As noted in the following extract from one participant, this dimension involved a situation where politicians created a conducive environment for corruption.

> *You see, what is interesting within the city that we operate in is that, when a decision [to centralise funding] was taken [a while back], it was not even communicated to the operations manager. But when we look at it from our perspective, we realised that it was done deliberately so that senior managers, who are politicians by the way, can control big budgets which gives them the opportunity to dish tenders to their friends and loot money. Consequently, the corruption facilitated by politicians leads to political and administrative instability and the change of administrations that you have seen over the years is just politicians fighting over access to state money.*

Another aspect of political interference that emerged from the analysis of empirical responses to the research question under discussion relates to shortage of qualified and competent personnel in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Explaining the link between political interference and shortage of competency, several participants argued that cadre deployment had resulted in the appointment

of undeserving individuals to critical positions within the Municipality. Specifically, one participant said: *The issue of cadre deployment is one of the things that lead to poor performance in the sense that wrong people are appointed to wrong positions without requisite skills".* Adding to this, another participant mentioned that *"some cadres appointed to senior positions within the Municipality cannot even think strategically on the positions that they are placed on. This is the main problem because some of these people are untouchable".*

Another dimension of political interference related to shortage of adequate skills is the practice of purging senior administrative staff because of political factions. Describing this practice as administrative instability, one participant argued that in the past, factional political battles resulted in the purge of qualified and competent Executives. This participant described the consequence of political interference in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as follows:

> *…We have changed mayors almost 4 times in a five-year term. Because of this administrative and political instability, the Municipality was put under administration because everything had collapsed. Changes at the Mayoral level also cause instability at the Management level and in recent years we have lost very qualified and highly experienced Municipal Manager. Even now as I speak to you, we have many people who serve as Acting Heads of Departments and Divisions. This makes decision-making slow, which affects the pace of service delivery.*

On a slightly different note, while acknowledging that cadre deployment had resulted in the appointment of incompetent people, some participants rejected the view that there is incompetence at the level of senior management. In particular, one participant noted that:

> *Generally, senior management are skilled enough to do their work. We have people with PhDs but we do not have enough people at the technical level. For example, due to nepotism and political appointments, we have technicians who are not qualified to do their work. As a result, we cannot perform to our optimal level because these are the foot soldiers called upon to provide services and most of them do not have required skills and competency.*

The empirical research results further put cadre deployment and political interference at the centre of accountability problems in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the results. Articulating the problem of accountability and lack of consequence management, one participant mentioned that *"people do as they wish and no one makes them accountable for their actions and this behaviour hampers how effective functionality of the City".* In addition, another remarked that, *"too much political interference makes it difficult to implement consequence management thereby hampering service delivery".* Highlighting examples of impunity, one participant said,*" this political deployment has created a situation where even junior officials are not respecting authority".* The following narration provides an example of how lack of accountability and poor consequence management unfolds in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality:

> *I have been working here over 30 years now and when I was still a junior, I used to work hard. I would come to work in the morning and work until 6:00 -7:00 in the evening….But today, very young people who are at the early stage of their careers, come late and no one says anything. They leave work at 3:00PM and no one takes action. I mean the situation is out of control, there is no order.*

With regard to use of evidence for decision-making, the empirical research results revealed that use of evidence for decision-making is improving in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, some research participants pointed to an improved use of evidence during development of Integrated Development Plan (IDP) as a five-year strategic plan. Despite this improvement, some participants mentioned that there is a tendency for politicians to make political decisions even when reliable evidence is available.

The last item that is also connected to political interference relates to lack of a common vision in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, most participants traced the lack of a common vision on how things should be done to the time when several local municipalities were merged to create Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Highlighting the source of this problem, one research participant said:

> *When the City was amalgamated with other municipalities to create a Metro, the issue of what it meant to integrate different people was sort of left alone to take care of itself. This has created a situation where people do not share a common culture, a common vision and simply have different attitudes and orientations to work.*

Even though most participants concurred with this sentiment, some mentioned different reasons for lack of a common vision in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. For example, there were those who argued that the city has more than 20 offices each with its own way of doing things. On the other hand, others mentioned that the Management and Labour Unions do not see eye to eye with the most dominant reason for this being that management always reneged on collective bargaining agreements. Contrary to this assertion, one Senior Manager said, *"Labour Unions are disruptive and do not understand their role. Their first priority is to fight management and protect their members. People hide behind the Labour Unions to avoid accountability and responsibility"*. On a different note, the research results revealed subtle tensions within staff in different levels of education and professional responsibility. This revelation emerged from one of the participants who had this to say:

> *We have people with different levels of Education. Some have PhDs, while some have matric or no qualification at all especially in the general staff category. These groups also do things differently. For example, some PhDs who use what I may call professional bullying tactics. They want things to be done their way because they think they have superior knowledge.*

This Section has presented empirical results that answer the question of what factors enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, the Section some of the important factors that enhance performance. These include improved use of evidence in planning, a partially effective performance management system, and a comprehensive legislative framework for performance management. On the other hand, a range of factors that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality have been presented. In this regard, the results underscore political interference as the root of all performance problems in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

4.3. Comparing the empirical research results with similar studies

This Section advances the presentation of empirical results relating to factors that enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To this end, the author compares the empirical results with similar studies. This comparison is important for locating the empirical results within the existing body of knowledge on performance issues in South African municipalities. The first point of comparison is that South Africa has adequate legislative framework that provides for effective delivery of municipal services. On this issue, the empirical results of this study are consistent with several studies (Masiya, Davids, & Mangai, 2021; Manyaka & Sebola, 2015; Mngomezulu, 2020; Mofolo, 2012; Sebake & Mukonza, 2021) that have detailed the legal framework that provides for effective implementation of performance management in South African municipalities. On the same issue, the study revealed that South African municipalities have failed to use the available legal instruments to improve service delivery. A similar finding is expressed in a study highlighting that even though Section 152 of the Constitution urges municipalities to provide quality services, they find it difficult to comply with the requirements of the Constitution, thus plunging the country into protest actions (Mamokhere, Netshidzivhani, & Musitha, 2021). This issue is also similar to the findings of another study that established that South African municipalities largely use available laws and regulations more as instruments for compliance rather than using them as tools for effective delivery of services (Masiya, Davids, & Mangai, 2021). Further, the problem of inadequate implementation of available regulatory framework for municipal performance is related to lack of skills (Kariuki & Reddy, 2017) and incompetence arising from appointments of unqualified people in senior positions (Shava & Chamisa, 2018).

The results of this study identified the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) as an important tool for performance management in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the participants argued that the IDP outlines service delivery outputs and targets over the five years and provides for implementation of performance monitoring and evaluation. This result is similar to Mathebula's (2018) argument that an IDP is a framework for delivery of services in municipalities. In addition, this result is related to Munzhedzi,'s (2020) description of that IDP provides for monitoring and evaluation which, according to Abrahams (2015) as well as Kariuki and Reddy (2017), is a tool for improving municipal performance. Further, the results of this study are similar to the sentiments expressed in Phago (2009) and Seab (2020) that IDP is an instrument that facilitates planning in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Integrated Development Plan (IDP) also provides the basis for managing performance of Section 57 employees in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the participants mentioned that performance management system for this category of employees is working well. Contrary to this result, a study conducted by Sehoa(2015) in a particular municipality in Limpopo

revealed that lack of training and rewards to motivate senior managers who far exceed the set targets as the main challenges hampering effective implementation of performance management system for Section 57 employees. In explaining why the performance management system for Section 57 employees was functioning well, the participants pointed to two issues. The first issue was that Section 57 employees sign performance contracts and the second was that the contracts are published for public scrutiny, thereby enhancing accountability and transparency. To this end, the results contradict Munzhedzi's (2016) finding that accountability mechanisms in public institutions are not efficient and effective. In addition, the result contradicts a study conducted in the City of Tshwane, which found out that corruption, limited skills, political interference, and manipulation of recruitment systems adversely have eroded accountability mechanisms in the city (Shava & Mubangizi, 2019).

The results of this study highlighted tensions and lack of cooperation between management and employees with regard to implementation of performance management system for permanent employees. Specifically, the results showed that acting on behalf of employees, Labour Unions were rejecting implementation of this intervention on suspicion that management would use it to victimise employees. On the other hand, management had a perception that employees were using Labour Unions to avoid accountability for poor performance. The participants' responses pointed to politicisation of the municipal administration as the underlying cause of mistrust in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. These responses are similar to a recent study that found out that because regional political party structures appoint municipal managers and senior officials, the municipal council is not always convinced of the skills and intentions of the municipal manager and senior administrations, whose conduct, decisions and advice viewed with suspicion (Masiya, Davids, & Mangai, 2021). The empirical responses presented above are also consistent with the findings of two studies undertaken in two different municipalities in the Eastern Cape. In one study, Ndevu (2019) found out that the lack of trust between elected officials and administrators in the Municipality is directly and indirectly related to political factionalism. Similarly, the empirical results confirmed Maqoko's (2015) study that found out factional battles of the African National Congress (ANC) spilled over into municipal administration resulting in entrenched mistrust between politicians and administrators.

With regard to the perception that employees used Labour Unions to avoid accountability for performance, the empirical results of this study are similar to Mokhatso's (2008) finding that South African Unions focus more on protecting their members rather than engaging in constructive strategic issues that improve governance and service delivery in municipalities. On the issue that employees harboured fears that management would abuse the performance management system, this study is similar to recent studies conducted in different municipalities in South Africa. Specifically, the studies revealed that municipal managers lack adequate understanding on how performance management

system is used (Ndasana & Umejesi, 2022, Masiya, Davids, & Mangai, 2021). The fears inherent in the results of this study are consistent with the findings of another study conducted by Radebe (2015), which found out that performance appraisal system in one municipality in Gauteng was not effectively implemented because there was no mutual setting of performance criteria and objectives. In the main, the key result of this study is that cadre deployment is the root cause of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this respect, the research participants argued that cadre deployment gives rise to political interference, which in turn, creates mistrust, lack of accountability, and incompetence. These revelations are similar to previous studies that point to political interference as the main performance impediment in South African public institutions. In particular, the empirical responses on the issue of cadre deployment confirm Shava and Chamisa's (2018) as well as Twala's (2014) observation that cadre deployment resulted in the appointment of incompetent individuals who are unable to perform their functions effectively. In terms of accountability, the results of this study are similar to the Gumede's (2015) observation that ANC cadres deployed in government undermine established accountability protocols in public institutions and account directly to political structures that have deployed them. Related to the issue of accountability is corruption, which as per the results of this study, was found to be a direct consequence of political interference. On this particular issue, the results of the study confirmed Moeti's (2014) study, which revealed that politicians interfere in procurement processes giving rise to corruption.

Nepotism is another aspect of cadre deployment that was found to be detrimental to effective delivery of services in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the empirical responses from the participants are consistent with Kariuki and Reddy's (2017) who attributes lack of monitoring and evaluation skills to political nepotism. Although the participants pointed to lack of technical skills, the results of this study showed that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality have relatively qualified senior management. On this particular issue, the empirical responses emerging from this study are different from Makole's (2022) study that found lack of qualified and competent individuals at senior management level. Another dimension of nepotism raised by research participants is that political affiliation not merit is the main consideration that informs appointments and promotions in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the empirical results of this study confirm Weber's (1958) assertion that nepotism is discriminatory and detrimental to performance.

The results of this study reveal a different dimension to the lack of cooperation between management and employees in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This dimension points to the amalgamation of different municipalities to create the Metropolitan Municipality currently known as Tshwane, as the main cause of incoherent strategic vision between management and employees. In this regard, the participants argued that previous management of the Municipality did not make efforts to

integrate the cultures of different local municipalities to create a shared value system that defines the newly created Metropolitan Municipality. For this reason, the participants described the organisational culture in Tshwane as disjointed and characterised by different attitudes and orientations to work. This description is consistent with Thokozani's (2017) definition of weak organisational culture and inconsistent with Madu's (2012) argument that instilling a strong organisational culture requires concerted investments in improving attitudes of employees.

On the positive side, the empirical responses from research participants revealed some improvements with regard to reporting and use of evidence in decision-making. In particular, the respondents argued that formulation of the IDP was informed by research evidence derived from the South Africa Authority on statistics. This revelation is different from Cronin and Sadan's (2015) study that found out that South African public institutions do not use evidence for decision- making. On the same issue, another study attributed poor performance in a particular department in Gauteng Province to inadequate use of evidence for decision-making (Sidzumo & Wotela, 2016). On the other hand, the positive result on improved evidence use in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is consistent with the assessment that revealed improving use of evidence for decision- making in South African public institutions (Goldman, Deliwe, Taylor, & Ishmail, 2019).

4.4. Discussion of the research findings

After presenting the research results of this study and comparing them with other studies, the next task is to discuss the research findings. This comparison enabled the author to formulate opinions, reflections, and perspectives on various attributes emerging from the results of this study. The author's reflections and perspectives on these attributes constitute the research findings, which are the subject of discussion in this Section. In discussing the research findings of this study, the author draws from the theoretical framework presented in Section 2.6. Specifically, the author reflects on the relevance of bureaucracy, politics-administration dichotomy, New Public Management (NPM), and organisational culture in explaining key findings of this study.

As a point of departure, this study found out that South Africa has an adequate legislative framework that provides for effective and efficient delivery of services in municipalities. In particular, Section 155 of the South African Constitution provides for the establishment of municipalities while Section 152 and Section 153 define their objectives and developmental responsibilities. To this end, there is a series of laws aimed at empowering municipalities to achieve these constitutional obligations. Specific laws relevant for this study include the Municipal Structures Act of 1998, which provides for division of functions and powers between categories of municipality. In addition, chapter 5 of the Municipal Systems Act of 200 provides for adoption of integrated development planning while chapter 6 of the Act provides for performance management. Another piece of legislation that

regulates municipal finances is the Municipal Finance Management Act of 2003. These legislations are implemented through a series of regulations, guidelines, plans, tools, and systems. For example, the planning and performance management regulations of 2001 provides detailed guidance on the components, structure, process, and tools for performance planning, monitoring, and evaluation across all municipalities. In addition, the regulations for municipal managers and managers directly accountable to municipal manager outlines a process for recruitment of senior municipal staff and how their performance should be managed. Further, the municipal regulations on standard chart of accounts align municipal financial management activities to the national and provincial spheres of governance. Last, performance planning is facilitated through tools such as the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), which is operationalised through several instruments that include the Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP), Performance Management System (PMS), and Balanced Score Cards (BSC). In view of the legislative framework outlined above, coupled with empirical evidence that emerged from this study, it is clear that a comprehensive legislative framework to ensure effective and efficient delivery of services in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality exists.

The existence of the legislative and administrative tools described above shows that South Africa follows Weber's (1948) principle of legal rationality is as far as defining the structure, functions, procedures, and tools that promote efficient and effective delivery of municipal services. Akhakpe (2014) argues that by virtue of rules and pattern of authority it puts forward, bureaucracy has managed to control those under it to reach the expected goals. Adding to this, Thompson and Alvesson (2005) posit that the universality of rules and regulations introduces justices and fairness in the administration. On the issue of fairness, Weber (1946) introduced the principle of impersonality to ensure objectivity, consistency, and equality. Specifically, the principle advocates for use of established laws and regulations to separate official duties from personal interests thereby increasing predictability and professionalism. However, as found out in this study, political interference has eroded consistency and professionalism in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, the study has established politically motivated inconsistencies regarding the appraisal and promotion of bureaucrats. Consequently, these inconsistencies have fuelled mistrust between management and employees.

Another aspect of uniformity and fairness is the use of established laws, rules, regulations, norms and practices to reward good performance and punish transgressions. In support of the principle of fairness and impartiality, Hall (1963) maintains that the status or personality of a bureaucrat does not matter because all workers are subjected to equal treatment. However, this study revealed lack of consequence management, which is indicative of inconsistent or total lack of application of established rules to punish misconducts related to corruption. This inconsistency, as revealed in this study, has resulted in lack of accountability, which manifests in corruption, lax attitude

towards work, and outright disrespect of authority by junior but politically connected officials.

Out of the six principles of bureaucracy identified in Weber (1968), expert-officialdom is the most important because it is the foundation for institutional capacity. This concept promotes meritocracy as a principle for recruiting expert bureaucrats to ensure bureaucratic efficiency and effectiveness. In order to maintain high levels of knowledge within the bureaucracy, access to bureaucratic office is dependent upon lengthy training and education in the field of specialisation usually certified by the issue and possession of a university or college degree or diploma (Rauch & Evans, 2000). Again, as found out in this study, political consideration takes precedence when recruiting for strategic positions in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As a result, unqualified and incompetent people were employed in critical positions of leadership where they failed to performance thereby compromising the ability of the Municipality to provide quality services.

To sum up the discussion on the relevance of bureaucracy as an interpretive framework for this study, the author argues that bureaucracy is useful for understanding the structural make up of public institutions and how they function. Specifically, bureaucracy allowed the author to understand the functions of administrative and political structures in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as well as interrelationships that influence accountability and performance. This notwithstanding, bureaucracy does not offer much beyond this point as almost all its tenets are not applied in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the author argues that the greatest weakness of bureaucracy lies in its optimistic ideal that is reliant on the expectations of politicians and bureaucrats to act in good faith and adhere to the rules out of their own volition. In the case of this study, the failure of bureaucracy emanates from political interference that permeates all aspects of administration in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, bureaucracy is not conceptually designed to counter the influence of external factors on the behaviour of bureaucrats.

The above limitations notwithstanding, bureaucracy remains relevant in the context of South African municipalities. For example, meritocracy and professionalism remains more relevant as a key strategy to improve performance in South African municipalities. In addition, the principle of legal rationality has brought necessary predictability in terms of what South Africans can expect from municipalities. Last, given its long history as the preferred administrative model, bureaucracy is firmly entrenched in all aspects of the South African public administration. Therefore, uprooting it would be disruptive and nearly impossible. As a result, the author advocates for reforms aimed at improving not eradicating bureaucracy. One such reform is Wilson's (1887) notion of politics- administration dichotomy.

Understanding the relevance of politics-administration dichotomy as a theoretical framework may be difficult without defining the two concepts embedded in this principle. Therefore, the author points to Mafunisa (2003) who defines politics as a process towards attaining or retaining

power in order to allocate political values authoritatively to the community. This study understands political values as policies and mandate that political parties impose on people after winning the election. Consequently, these policies are translated into service delivery programmes administered through civil servants. This means that administration involves the provision of goods and services to members of the public using technically competent members of the civil service. In sum, politics is a subject concerned about mechanisms, systems, and processes for attaining or consolidating power for purposes of controlling state resources.

On the other hand, administration is preoccupied with instruments, processes, and systems for provision of public goods and services. Based on this definition, it is clear that politics and administration are different concepts. The separation model emerged as a direct critique of the politicised bureaucracy described above. Given the challenges of politicise bureaucracy widely documented in literature and confirmed in this study, calls for separation of politics from administration may be valid. For example, the study has revealed that political interference is the main constraint to effective delivery of services in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. There is no doubt that if the South African government is serious about improving service delivery, it should address this problem as a matter of urgency. Therefore, the politics-administration dichotomy is a useful framework for analysing how the internal party politics affect the efficiency and effectiveness of public institutions in South Africa.

Specific to this study, the politics-administration dichotomy allowed the researcher to map out how Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality became politicised. In reference to available literature supported by the empirical results of this study, it is clear that the path towards politicisation of South African municipalities was paved a long way before the advent of democracy. Using Cameron's (2010) definition of politicisation as attempts of controlling the functioning of government through the nepotistic systems of recruitment, it is clear that politicisation of the public service is not a phenomenon that came with the ANC as many authors think. In support of this finding, the study points to Marais (1993) who argues that the National Party appointed its own loyalists, particularly White males, to senior government positions to advance its ideology of separate development. Similar to what this study found out, this practice resulted in corruption, discrimination and poor service delivery especially in black communities.

Because of its close relation to bureaucracy, the principle of politics-administration dichotomy the notion of impersonal and political civil servant as envisaged in Weber (1947). This complementarity enhanced the author's understanding the ethical attributes necessary for employees of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to uphold in order to promote effective delivery of services. In support of this argument, the author points to evidence showing that Wilson valued the sanctity of public office (Uwizeyimana, 2013). In addition, by emphasising demarcation of roles between

politicians and administrators, the politics-administration dichotomy compliments Weber's division of labour. This means that this theory is useful for complementing the principles of bureaucracy. However, on its own, it does not offer anything useful for interpreting the empirical findings of this study. It is not surprising that the author found the politics-administration dichotomy less useful in interpreting the empirical findings of this study. There is evidence to show that the politics-administration dichotomy envisaged by Wilson and his supporters is neither practical nor possible in real organisations. To this end, several scholars argue that politics cannot be separated from the policy implementation process because policies are made and implemented by people who are by nature political (Demir & Nyhan, 2008). Adding to this, argue that policies are made and implemented through political institutions (Heywood, 2002). In light of these challenges, the author advocates for a model that balances politics and administration.

The complementarity model appeared in public administration as a compromise to the politics-administration dichotomy. This model recognises that good governance is a function of a joint effort where elected officials and administrators work together in the common pursuit of excellence. Specifically, the complementarity model entails separate parts, but parts that come together in a mutually supportive way (Svara, 2001). In other words, this model emphasises interdependence between politicians and administrators. The empirical findings of this study revealed that complementarity model was regarded the most suitable for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This finding is consistent with Ndevu's (2019) study on the relationship between trust and organisational performance, which revealed that politicians and officials in one municipality recognised that they need to work together in order to improve service delivery. Similar findings are reflected in study on the roles and structure of the South African senior public service (Maphunye, 2001). While the complementarity model may be desirable, the challenge remains on how to insulate the public service from the political process. The British and the American models of complementarity between politics-administration offer a glimmer of hope in this regard.

The British has adopted a permanent civil service in the sense that it remains in place on a change of government. Senior civil servants can be removed from office at the request of a minister, but this is extremely unusual, and will only happen if the Prime Minister and the Head of the Civil Service approve. Contrary to this model, the study has established that changes in political leadership in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality always result in changes in senior management. It has been found that this is common across the South African public service as factional political battles often lead the changes in top public servants. As Maqoko (2015) pointed out, this has come at a huge cost to the public because in most cases officials have to be compensated financially for being booted out before end of contract term. Unlike in South Africa, civil servants in Britain are not appointed be politicians and are not allowed an overt political allegiance. The career civil service is in direct contradiction with

the South African system in which senior civil service appointments are in the power of political office bearers from the governing party.

The American system is a combination of the politicised bureaucracy and complementary bureaucracy. For instance, Civil servants are recruited on merit and a performance management system is used as the basis for promotions. On the contrary, political considerations took precedence in recruitment and promotion of public servants in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Based on the lessons learnt from the British and the American models, a transition from politicised bureaucracy to a functional and complementary model of public administration is possible in South Africa. In particular, America managed to move from the spoils system characterised by rampant corruption, nepotism, inefficiency, and wastage of public resources. As Gruening (2001) points out, strong leadership and political will are fundamental to successful public service reforms. However, the author argues that South African introduced public sector reforms but lacked a committed champion to lead its implementation. In order to justify this argument, the following discussion explores the strengths and weaknesses of New Public Management (NPM) as a framework for interpreting performance issues in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

At the beginning of this Section, the author outlined specific legal and administrative instruments that provide a framework for effective delivery of municipal services. A careful analysis of these instruments revealed that in the main, key principles of NPM are embedded within the South African legal framework for service delivery. Specifically, the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 provides for Integrated Development Planning (IDP) process. According to Mathebula and Sebola (2019), the IDP is a tool for strategic planning and management of development programmes in a local government setting and its effective use is likely to promote service delivery. In addition, Gruening (2001) identifies strategic planning as a component of NPM. Therefore, the IDP is a vehicle for implementing key principles of NPM in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, this study confirmed Munzhedzi's (2020) view that IDP is a framework for implementation of performance monitoring and evaluation.

The significance of NPM in this study can be demonstrated through several ways. First, the themes used to structure the research questions reflected in the research instrument were drawn from strategic planning as a component of NPM. Second, attributes of performance impediments revealed through data analysis mirrored elements of NPM. For example, the analysis revealed the existence of adequate instruments for effective delivery of services. In addition, the analysis highlighted incompetence as a key impediment to successful implementation of available instruments for service delivery. The inability to use available legal instruments to ensure effective delivery of services confirms Rubakula's (2014) finding that lack of capacity is the main constraint to effective implementation of NPM in Africa. This is true in the case of Botswana where Dzimbiri (2008)

discovered that the personnel charged with this responsibility had no formal project management training. Therefore, this study revealed that effective implementation of NPM requires availability of adequately skilled and competent employees to navigate the complexities that come with NPM. Contrary to this and similar to Botswana, the study established that the culture of appointing incompetent political loyalists in key administrative positions has deprived the Municipality of adequately skilled and competent officials to drive NPM. The culture of politicising the public service extends beyond the problem of incompetence. In this regard, the study found out that over the years, the cadre deployment policy of the ANC entrenched a culture cemented in politics and characterised by lack of accountability, nepotism, despondency, mistrust, and poor performance.

Lotshwao (2009) describes the ANC as undemocratic and highly centralised and decision-making is dominated by the party leadership and at times, dominant individual leaders such as the party president even impose decisions and policies. This means that even though the ANC presents itself as a champion of democracy and good governance, its lack of intra-party democracy deprives supporters of the opportunity to influence decision-making and government policy. Gumede (2015) refers to this culture as democratic centralism. Based on the empirical evidence obtained from the research participants, the ANC's culture of democratic centralism has been entrenched within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, this culture was introduced through cadre deployment, which is an instrument used by the ANC to control (Twala, 2014) and micromanage government from its Head Office (Gumede, 2015). Through this policy, the ANC dominates all levers of power including Parliament and institutions of accountability. This has weakened democracy and accountability as the ANC-dominated Parliament fails to hold the executive accountable (Lotshwao, 2009). The lack of accountability has resulted in impunity and corruption (Shava & Chamisa, 2018) and created an impression amongst the ANC members that they are untouchable (Gumede, 2015).

Accountability is a key component of NPM espoused in Hood (1991). In this regard, the study found that NPM supported by principles of bureaucracy, is useful to explain factors that lead to lack of accountability in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. However, it does not recognise that organisational culture plays a significant role in influencing performance in South African public institutions. For this reason, Gumede (2015) attributes the failure of NPM in South Africa to its inability to transform the administrative culture of the South African public service. Adding to this, the author argues that the greatest weakness of NPM is that it advocates for change but does not emphasise the role of leadership as a determinant for change management. To address this limitation, this study proposes a model that highlights the significance of leadership in promoting performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Use of evidence for decision- making is another element of NPM that fulfils accountability functions. In line with the requirements of the Municipal Systems Act,

Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has an obligation of account to its stakeholders. In this regard, the study revealed mixed results with some participants pointing to improvements in reporting while others rejected this notion and pointed to poor reporting as the main reason for inadequate use of evidence for decision-making. However, the study established some improvements in this area with the finding that that the Municipality used evidence obtained from Statistics South Africa in formulating its current IDP. This improvement is consistent with the findings of the evaluation of the National Evaluation System, which revealed increasing use of evidence for decision-making in South African public institutions (Goldman, Deliwe, Taylor, & Ishmail, 2019).

To ensure accountability and use of evidence for decision-making, NPM advocates for implementation of Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E). On this issue, the study revealed that implementation of M&E in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is legislated and operationalised through the IDP. The study further revealed that lack of financial and human resources hamper effective implementation of M&E activities in the Municipality. This revelation is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Cronin & Sadan, 2015; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Umlaw & Chitepo, 2015) that link lack of resources for M&E to several issues that include lack of political will and inadequate technical skills. In this regard, the study found out that lack of resources is one of the reasons for poor generation and use of data to inform planning. In addition, the study established that shortage of technical skills for M&E has created a culture where evaluations are not conducted leading to inadequate use of evidence for decision-making and learning. Although the study revealed the need for more funding for M&E activities, this may be difficult in the context of the current financial crisis facing Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

In summary, NPM is partially useful for explaining factors that promote or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, it is useful for providing tools for performance improvement. However, effective implementation of these tools requires competent skills and adequate resources, which are not available in most African countries. Another major weakness of the NPM as a framework is that it does not recognise the significance of organisational culture as an impediment to performance as is the case in South Africa. As a result, it fails to offer appropriate remedies in this regard. Last, by its very nature, NPM advocates for change management but does not explicitly recognise the significance of leadership as a catalyst for change. For this reason, the author argues that NPM is not fully effective in resolving performance challenges in the South African municipal context. Therefore, the author explores the potential of organisational culture in augmenting the limitations of NPM.

Considerable differences between scholars on how organisational culture is defined makes it difficult and confusing for novice researchers to understand and use this concept to analyse organisational behaviour. After reviewing literature on different perspectives and models of

organisational culture, the author generated a list of more than 20 attributes of organisational culture. There is no adequate time and space to address all the attributes here but it is important to mention that the most common include values, basic assumptions, norms, ways to communicate, rituals, symbols, customs, and artifacts. Using these attributes, the author describes organisational culture as a shared value system that embodies these attributes and shapes the behaviour and attitudes of people in an organisation. An emphasis on organisational culture as a shared attribute is derived from Schein (2004) who argues that organisational culture as pervasive and influences all aspects of how an organisation deals with its primary task and its internal operations. This argument reinforces the author's previous observation that NPM is oblivious to the fact that organisational culture is an important ingredient in the institutional performance value chain. Having discussed organisational culture and its elements, the next step is to explore the relevance of these elements in explaining factors that enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

This exploration begins with the interrogation artifacts, which according to Schein (2004) represents the external physical manifestation of culture. There is consensus that artifacts consist of physical objects that can be heard, felt, and seen by individuals. There are as many artifacts as there are definitions of organisational culture but this study focuses on the mission and vision (Schein, 2004). This decision is informed by an observation that these attributes constitute strategic and cultural determinants. At the strategic level, mission and vision identify what works and what should be changed to improve performance (Ledoux, 2005) while at the cultural level build the identity and image of an organisation (Klemm, Sanderson, & Luffman, 1991). In view of this, it is clear that mission and vision statements play a critical role in determining strategic direction and cultural orientation of organisations. To this end, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality developed vision 2055 in 2013 and vision 2030 in 2017 as artifacts that shape its strategic direction and cultural orientation. Given its role in translating the vision into a short-term plan, the IDP also qualifies as an artefact. Mission is one of the four key determinants of performance as outlined in Denison (990) who argues that organisations that provide a clear sense of purpose and direction perform better. Contrary to this finding, the articulation of the vision and strategic direction in the form of vision 2053 and vision 2030, as well as the IDP, did nothing to improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Political instability, incompetence, and poor communication appeared to be the main causes for failure of this trait to improve performance as predicted in Denison model. In terms of political instability, the study established that vision 2055 developed by the ANC in 2013 was discarded in favour of vision 2030 developed in 2017 after the DA led coalition government assumed power in 2016. Most importantly, the review of these visions indicate a change of strategic direction. For example, the primary function of Tshwane Vision 2055 was to overcome fragmentation and ensure a coordinated approach that involves all structures of civil society,

community-based organisations and private business in the implementation of agreed short- to long-term priorities (Tshwane, 2013). On the other hand, the vision 2030 steers the city towards the path of economic growth and job creation.

The transition from vision 2055 to vision 2030 was characterised by poor communication and lack of involvement, which resulted in confusion and lack of consensus on the direction the Municipality should be taking. The lack of communication became apparent when employees displayed ignorance on which vision is operational. This reflects lack of competent leadership to develop and inculcate a shared vision within the Municipality. The finding that employees rejected introduction of a performance management system for permanent employees is a clear manifestation of lack of a shared vision on strategic issues in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality displays cultural traits of low performing organisations as stipulated in Denison model of organisational culture. A similar weakness was found in a study that applied Denison's model to investigate culture of work in a group of municipalities in the Eastern Cape. Specifically, this study found lower mission scores across all municipalities, which was associated with poor leadership (Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2013).

Involvement is another attribute of Denison model relevant for explaining cultural weaknesses that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Involvement is about getting people engaged and giving them a sense of ownership, commitment, and shared responsibility to achieve goals. In this regard, the study established that due to lack of trust emanating from political interference amongst other things, employees in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality were disengaged, despondent, and demotivated. This finding is similar to another study that attributes the entrenched organisation-wide lack of trust in municipalities to political interference (Masiya, Davids, & Mangai, 2021). In a study that used Denison model to assess culture of work in some municipalities, Nzewi et al., (2013) revealed low scores on leadership. The authors argued that this score reflects lack of involvement on the part of municipal leaders who could be busy managing internal squabbles and political tensions, which could have a ripple effect on employee motivation. In view of the empirical evidence obtained from this study supported by existing literature as pointed above, the author argues that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has characteristics of a weak organisational culture. Xanthopoulou, Sahinidis and Bakak (2022) state that a weak organisational culture finds it difficult to clearly communicate the expectations to employees giving rise to lack of cooperation, mistrust, and poor performance.

In sum, the author has discussed the significance of organisational culture in augmenting the limitations of NPM as a framework for improving performance in public institutions in South Africa. Specifically, the author applied Schein's (2004) principle of artifacts to explain the existence of strategic documents that articulate the vision and mission statements of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, the study found some aspects of Denison model especially involvement and mission, useful in describing cultural weaknesses that impede performance in the Municipality. The significance of Schein's (2004) theory lies in its bold recognition that culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin. This recognition strengthens the author's determination to use leadership as a key aspect of the envisaged model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

A decision to use elements of organisational culture drawn from Denison (2004) and Schein (2004) to augment the limitations of NPM does not make the two theories perfect. For example, Denison model is context neutral. Therefore, its utility and specific usefulness in addressing multinational cross-cultural issues is limited (Kabigting, Larissa, & Loures, 2019). In addition, the Model is a private commodity and may be unaffordable for South African municipalities, which are struggling financially. In addition, Denison model tests the relationship between different cultural traits using statistical techniques that are not appropriate in this study. Despite these limitations, Denison model complements NPM thereby providing a suitable framework for analysing factors that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

4.5. Conclusion

This Section has used bureaucracy, New Public Management, and organisational culture to explain the research findings of this study. In particular, bureaucracy allowed the author to understand the structural composition and function as well as interrelationships that influence performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. However, bureaucracy does not offer much beyond this point because it relies on the expectations of politicians and bureaucrats to act in good faith and adhere to the rules out of their own volition. As this study found out, this expectation is not practical and this makes bureaucracy ineffective as a strategy to address performance challenges in public institutions. For this reason, the author concludes that bureaucracy provides a useful framework for analysing the root cause of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality but falls short of offering practical solutions to this problem.

In view of the weakness of bureaucracy, the author considered New Public Management (NPM). Similarly, NPM provides a useful framework for diagnosing performance challenges facing public institutions. Unlike bureaucracy, NPM offers a range of performance management tools such as Monitoring and Evaluation, which was successful in other countries. However, the study found out that most conditions that made NPM interventions successful in developed countries do

not exist in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, despite its popularity and success in other countries, NPM is effective as a theoretical blueprint of what needs to be done to improve performance. However, it does not offer adequate solution for the empirical challenge of cadre deployment. For this reason, the author concludes that any attempt to make NPM more functional in South Africa requires a concerted effort to transform the culture of public institutions. To this end, the author considered organisational culture as a framework for augmenting the limitations of NPM.

This study identified change management as the key element of NPM. However, the ability of NPM to effect necessary transformation in South African public institutions is hampered by its lack of attention to the key role of leadership in facilitating transformation. To this end, the author used Schein's (1985) theory of organisational culture because of its recognition that leadership is critical for building a culture of performance. In this regard, the study pointed to the significance of leadership in resolving performance challenges confronting Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, chapter 7 proposes a model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In conceptualising this model, the author drew from several theories and models of organisational to highlight leadership as the key attribute for resolving the performance impediments established in this study. Before discussing this model, the next chapter explains how the performance impediments discussed in this chapter influence a performance culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Understanding the prevailing organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is an important step towards deriving a model for addressing the established performance impediments and inculcate a culture of performance in the Municipality.

CHAPTER 5 - MECHANISMS THROUGH WHICH ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AFFECTS PERFOMANCE IN TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY

The previous chapter has presented factors that impede or enhance performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, this chapter builds on these factors to answer the question on of how organisational culture influence performance in the Municipality. In answering this question, Section 5.1 outlines the organisational culture by clustering the empirical results presented in chapter 4 into major categories that define the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. From Section 5.2 through to Section 5.3, the author links the empirical results of this study to the existing literature. Establishing these linkages is important to demonstrate how the proposed theoretical framework links to the research questions posed in Section 1.4. These linkages are further expanded in Section 5.4 where the author discussed the research findings before concluding this chapter in Section 5.5.

5.1. Presentation of empirical research results

The main issue emerging from the empirical results presented in chapter four is that failure to separate politics from administration leads to poor municipal performance. This revelation is more relevant in view of Gumede's (2015) argument that the organisational culture of the ANC has a dominant influence on the culture of the South African public service. Although the ANC is not the primary focus of this study, it is important to note that from 1994 until 2016, it was the governing party in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the author concurs with Gumede (2015) that some aspects of the ANC organisational culture have found expression within the Municipality. This means that to a large extent, the ANC culture has shaped organisational behaviour in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Particularly, this study presents an empirical argument that cadre deployment, which is the ANC policy of deploying its political loyalists, has entrenched a culture of poor performance across South African Municipalities.

4.5.1. Cadre deployment

South Africa has a long history of politicised bureaucracy that began during the apartheid era and intensified through different phases of the democratic administration. For example, when the National Party (NP) came into power in 1948, it deployed its loyal members to different senior positions in the public service (Sebola, 2014). Adding to this, Mafunisa (2003) argues that officials deployed were those who would serve and advance the apartheid ideology of racial and ethnic discrimination. The literature shows that dismantling the apartheid bureaucracy and promoting equitable service delivery for all was at the top of the ANC's development agenda when it assumed power in 1994 (Gumede, Administrative culture of the South African public service: A finity of

transformation, 2015). However, the results of this study show that the ANC has actually entrenched the policy of cadre deployment thereby perpetuating the notion of political bureaucracy across public institutions. This empirical evidence supports the widely held view that the ANC policy of cadre deployment is an instrument for institutionalisation of pollicised bureaucracy in all spheres of South African public administration (Gumede, 2015; Mafunisa, 2003; Mlambo, Zubane, & Thusi, 2022; Sebola, 2014; Twala, 2014). On the strength of the empirical and theoretical evidence presented above, the author argues that cadre deployment is the root cause of poor performance that has become synonymous with Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In support of this argument, the empirical results revealed several manifestations of poor performance arising directly from cadre deployment. First, the results show that cadre deployment is a tool for enabling corruption and dispensing patronage. Second, the results indicate that once deployed in the Municipality, the cadres abuse their positions to derive personal and political benefits to the detriment of the financial and operational stability of the Municipality. Further, empirical evidence shows that a combination of corruption and nepotism has created what Warrick (2017) refers to as a weak organisational culture. In the case of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the notion of a weak organisational culture is displayed through lack of accountability, mistrust, and low staff morale.

Given the centrality of cadre deployment as a performance impediment in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author adopts the politics-administration dichotomy as a theoretical perspective for understanding the performance crisis in the Municipality. Specifically, this theory defines performance improvement as a function of separating politics and administrative roles and functions. Based on the empirical results presented in this study, it is difficult to achieve this task in South Africa. This theoretical and empirical contradiction is the subject of discussion in Section 5.3 and highlights the contribution of study towards advancing the ongoing debate on how to improve performance in South African public institutions. Having revealed the key elements that leads to poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the empirical results allowed the author to construct the organisational culture in the Municipality. Thus, the study defines Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as an organisation with a politicised bureaucracy underpinned by cadre deployment, lack of accountability, mistrust, and low staff morale. This cultural construction highlights the relevance of organisational culture in facilitating the analysis of bureaucratic issues that lead to poor performance in South African public institutions.

4.5.2. Employee motivation

This study describes motivation as a critical attribute that shapes and drives employees' orientation towards effective and efficient performance of the task related to their work. In line with this definition, the empirical results highlight lack of motivation as one of the key elements of weak organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In describing lack of motivation, the research participants defined the work environment in Tshwane as dysfunctional and politically toxic. For this reason, the participants felt despondent, fatigued, and unappreciated. In support of how they felt in relation to their work environment, research participants outlined factors underlying lack of motivation in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, political interference emerged as the main issue. Specifically, the participants pointed to discriminatory human resource practices involving appointments or promotions of underserving political loyalists at the expense of the experienced and qualified professionals. In addition, the results show that political appointment had resulted in lack of trust between politicians and administrators as well as within the general population of employees. As empirical evidence points out, the lack of trust is displayed through frosty relations between management and unionised employees. The results further indicate that the hostility between management and labour has led to lack of a common approach on strategic issues regarding the performance in the Municipality.

Based on the foregoing, the author maintains that the politics-administration dichotomy and the theory of organisational culture remain the preferred framework for interpreting factors that affect employee motivation in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, the politics-administration dichotomy explains how transcending politics-administration boundaries gives rise to abuse of human resource principles for personal and political gain. On the other hand, the theory of organisational culture identifies important values and principles required for creating a supportive work environment in which employees feel safe and motivated. These principles and values are discussed in detail in chapter seven where different theories and frameworks of organisational culture are presented.

4.5.3. Lack of accountability

Accountability is about answering to some authority or persons about actions or inactions of individuals or organisations in relation to established standards or expectations (Mafunisa, 2003). From this definition, it is clear that accountability occurs when one is answerable and responsible for actions (Mfene, 2013). However, the results of this study confirm Sikhakhane and Reddy's (2011) view that accountability remains an elusive concept and a challenge for politicians and officials within the South African public space. In order to provide the context for understanding the accountability

problem in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author refers to Sikhakane and Reddy (2011) who identify four accountability regimes. These are hierarchical accountability, professional accountability, legal accountability, and political accountability. The results indicate that political and bureaucratic accountabilities are prominent in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Also known as bureaucratic accountability (Lindberg, 2013), hierarchical accountability in municipalities emphasises the municipal managers' strategic role in signing performance agreements with senior managers reporting directly to them for implementing their relevant functional area of responsibilities (Tshishonga, 2015). Therefore, as part of hierarchical accountability, the managers are accountable to the municipal manager to deliver the results they have agreed upon (Ngqobe, Fourie, & Tshiyoyo, 2021). This means that in the context of South African Municipalities, hierarchical accountability involves two dimensions. The first dimension is about hierarchical relationships of managers and subordinates regulated through rigid administrative instruments. On the other hand, the results of this study indicate another aspect of accountability where municipal managers sign performance contracts with executive managers commonly referred to as Section 57 employees. In addition, the results show that these contracts are accessible to the public for scrutiny. Therefore, while power relationships between municipal managers and their subordinates reflects a hierarchical accountability regime, the emphasis on performance contacting brings a dimension of managerialism borrowed from New Public Management. This notwithstanding, Tshishonga (2015) defines performance contracting as a mechanism for hierarchical accountability. The study results highlight some challenges in the implementation of managerial accountability in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. For example, the participants reported that only few of the Section 57 employees have actually signed performance contracts.

When it comes to political accountability, the research participants identified different mechanisms. For instance, it was established that the Executive Mayor is politically accountable to the council on behalf of both the administration and the mayoral committees. In addition, the Municipal Systems Act provides for Section 79 committees which play an oversight role over the administration and the executive committee and report directly to the council. However, the empirical results show that political interference has rendered this accountability framework ineffective. The reason for this is that political deployed cadres felt more accountable to their political parties than the Municipality. As the results point out, this behaviour leads to corruption, mistrust, and unethical conduct on the part of those who are politically connected. Ethics is an important component of leadership that defines the principles, values, norms, and standards of acceptable behaviour. Therefore, employees who act outside the established ethical parameters must be held accountable through available administrative and legal instruments. Therefore, legal accountability is a mechanism that ensures adherence to established ethical standards. However, the results of this study point to lack of consequence management in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The results also shows that

corruption and poor performance are direct results of poor consequence management.

The last aspect of accountability reported in the literature is professional accountability. This type of accountability highlights the role of professional bodies in holding their membership accountable to the values and principles underpinning their profession. In other words, professional accountability is related to legal accountability in that it uses established administrative and legal instruments to hold officials accountable for their actions. Despite the importance of this type of accountability, the research participants did not mention this as one of the instruments of accountability.

4.5.4. Lack of trust

There is no debate on the value of trust as an ingredient for improving organisational performance (Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007; Hassan & Hatmaker, 2015; Ndevu, 2019). Therefore, absence of trust leads to poor performance and perpetual conflict. For example, Schwab (2017) attributes South Africa's worst ranking out of 137 countries on the relationship between employer and employee in both private and public sector to lack of trust. In addition, Twala (2014) puts lack of trust at the centre of violent protests that have become a common phenomenon in South African municipalities. In terms of the relations between management and staff, the results of this study are consistent with the literature. For example, the participants mentioned that management had a habit of reneging on collective bargaining agreements. Another indication of mistrust that emerged from the empirical data relates to political interference. On this issue, the participants indicated that managers give preferential treatment to their political allies employed in the Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This view is consistent with the previous study conducted in one District Municipality that found that lack of commitment from leadership exacerbates mistrust among employees (Ndevu, 2019). Another study on factors that affect performance in South African municipalities also points to political appointments as the source of an entrenched organisation-wide lack of trust in selected municipalities in four provinces of South Africa (Chamisa & Shava, 2018).

It emerged from data analysis that while political interference appeared to be the main cause of mistrust between employees and management in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, it was not the only issue. Poor communication and lack of participation in decision-making came out as key aspects underlying the notion of mistrust found to be existing in the Municipality. In terms of communication, the research participants mentioned that decisions on important issues that affect them are taken without their involvement. They further mentioned that decisions are often communicated electronically without proper consultations. These results are consistent with Ndevu's (2019) findings that a particular Municipality used a top-down approach to communication where electronic communication was a preferred mode of communication across all levels.

Data analysis further revealed that lack of trust results in poor implementation of the performance management in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the participants highlighted fear of potential abuse of the system by management as the main reason for employees' objection to the implementation of the performance management system. As the empirical data shows, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has two groups of employees. The first group consists of Section 57 employees who are engaged on a performance-based contract. As mentioned earlier, this group is subjected to performance management. On the other hand, there is another group of permanent and pensionable employees that are not subjected to performance management. This group is largely unionised and doubtful about the motive for performance management system. Specifically, the participants from this group mentioned that management uses performance management system as a tool to victimise them and reward their friends, family, and political comrades. On the other hand, the participants drawn from the senior management category dismissed this notion on account that staff is hiding behind unions to avoid accountability for poor performance and misconduct. These opposing views are indicative of a fragmented approach to performance management in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As several authors point out, a fragmented approach performance management system leads to a situation where individual performance is not linked to organisational performance (Cloete, 2009; Mofolo, 2012; Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016) thereby resulting in poor municipal performance (Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Mello, 2018).

In sum, this Section has presented empirical results on four critical issues that collectively define the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. These factors include cadre deployment, lack of accountability, mistrust, and low staff morale. The Section has also presented empirical evidence showing how these factors interface to create a culture of poor performance entrenched in political bureaucracy and displayed through lack of accountability, low staff morale, and mistrust. Therefore, the author suggest leadership as a key strategy to address key elements that shape organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In support of this suggestion, Ndevu (2019) states that leadership is important in developing strategies, plans and actions for cementing trust in an organisation. This and other aspects of leadership form the thread that defines the content of subsequent chapters.

5.2. Answering the main research question

As mentioned earlier, this chapter seeks to answer the question of how organisational culture affects performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As the first step towards answering this question, the author articulated determinants of organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. These determinants represent mechanisms through which Tshwane displays its culture of politicised bureaucracy underpinned by cadre deployment, lack of accountability, mistrust, and low staff morale. After presenting factors that shape the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality,

the next step is to present the empirical results that support this argument. The results underscore the significance of cadre deployment as the underlying cause of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, the research participants highlighted several challenges arising from the practice of appointing people on the basis of political considerations to senior positions within the Municipality. The first challenge that emerged from most participants is the problem of incompetence directly arising from deliberate appointment of unqualified political loyalists to strategic positions within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Elaborating on this issue, one participant said "*cadre deployment has caused the city a great deal in the sense that wrong people are appointed to positions for which they are not qualified. As a result, we end up with people who are incompetent.* On the same issue, another participant mentioned that *people are not able to deliver, some cannot not even think strategically on the positions that they are placed on. This is a huge problem for the city because we have senior executives who are clueless".*

Another dimension of cadre deployment in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality relates to the circumvention of established rules governing political appointments. In this regard, the results show that politicians are allowed to appoint their own support staff with the understanding that such appointments would automatically cease when the tenure of the appointing politician ends. Contrary to this expectation, the results point to a new phenomenon where politicians circumvent the rules to appoint their own people as permanent employees in violation of established administrative structure. In describing how this problem unfolds in practice, one participant mentioned that:

> *Once appointed, the politicians, and I mean those who hold political office like the mayor, or Members of the Mayoral Committee, appoint their own support staff. While this is understandable for purposes of confidentiality and trust, there is a new trend where politicians appoint support staff on a permanent basis even when the positions they are appointed to are not established in the organisational structure. As a result, the city is stuck with people who are unqualified and unable to perform their official functions.*

Another problem identified during data collection is that the Section 57 positions that are legally established as performance contracts, are now occupied by politicians on a full-time basis. However, the reasons for this are not clear and the author was unable to verify this with the human resource department. The last dimension of cadre deployment that emerged from the interviews is the common practice of purging competent professional senior managers. In this regard, most participants described cadre deployment as a mechanism through which inexperienced and unqualified officials are appointed in critical administrative positions within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, one participant had this to say:

> *We have had a number of incidences where talented and competent senior managers were persecuted for refusing political instructions that could have plunged the Municipality into a more serious financial situation that it is currently experiencing. In some cases, the ANC's factional battles have resulted in the removal of qualified municipal leaders who were replaced by inexperienced and unqualified officials who were appointed to advance the political interests of the ruling party.*

The participants were also in concurrence that the removal of qualified senior officials on the basis of political and their replacement by unqualified ones, has led to incompetence, instability, and poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. On the issue of instability, most respondents raised concerns about lack of continuity as a result of political squabbles within governing coalition partners. The following extract shows how political instability arising from political differences in policy and administrative matters has played out in the Municipality.

> *….Since 2016 we have changed mayors almost 4 times in a 5 year term. At the height of political turmoil in 2019, the Municipality was put under provincial administration. In the current administration, we have had 3 mayors already. Sometimes, when changes occur at this level, they affect the executive. As a result, we lost a few competent people and this had a negative impact on our ability to implement our service delivery programmes. Again, when political changes occur, they derail implementation of service delivery because everyone comes with a different agenda and demands changes to already approved plans.*

The political and administrative instability, coupled with political interference in staff appointments and promotions, has resulted in low staff morale. In describing the plight of qualified and competent employees who were overlooked for promotions on the basis of political considerations, one research participant said *"performance is not considered when promotions are made. What is important is political connections and favouritism"*. In support of this view, another participant mentioned that:

> *people are despondent. They lack motivation and the drive to chase targets because people know they will get promoted even when they do not perform. This has killed the morale of hardworking professionals.*

The above notwithstanding, the empirical results revealed other factors responsible for lack of motivation amongst employees in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Some of these include the absence of adequate performance incentives, lack of engagement, and lack of opportunities for career growth.

Almost all the respondents, from senior management to mid management and all the way down to the technical level, identified lack of accountability and consequence management as the main performance constraint in the City of Tshwane. There was also consensus amongst the research participants that lack of accountability is directly linked to political interference. Thus, one participant mentioned that "*too much political interference makes it difficult to implement consequence management thereby hampering service delivery*". Research participants used different expressions to underscore the extent of the accountability problem but the following extracts stands out because the participant had observed the erosion of accountability over his thirty years of service in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

> *At the early stage of my career, I used to come to work in the morning up until maybe 6 -7.00 in the evening. It was not only me, during that time people were committed but today very young people at the beginning of their career, come to work late and disappear in the afternoon. They know no one would say anything because there is no order.*

Similar sentiments were also revealed by participants who mentioned that cadre deployment has created a situation where junior staff does not respect authority because they account to political structures that had appointed them. Another issue that emerged during the analysis of empirical data is that *"people hide behind labour unions to avoid accountability for performance"*. In concurrence with this perspective, another participant mentioned that

> *Employees are protected by labour unions and people refuse to carry instructions from supervisors. When they are disciplined, labour unions always come through for them. It is frustrating because labour unions do not instil professionalism within their ranks and there is a sense that they promote anarchy and lawlessness*

In addition, the empirical results of this study attribute lack of accountability to inadequate mechanisms for managing under performance as well as lack of political will in holding people accountable. Highlighting the problem of inadequate consequence management, one participant had this to say:

> *The management is not interested in making people account for poor performance because they are also not accountable for their own poor performance. So as the union our responsibility is to ensure that our members are treated with respect and fairness. How do you expect our members to be subjected to performance management when there is no consequence management for poor performance happening at the highest level? The management has plunged this Municipality into a crisis and if there was accountability, half of them would be gone by now".*

The last consequence of political interference which emerged during the analysis of empirical data is lack of trust. As several participants pointed out, those who were close to politicians are viewed with suspicion because they receive preferential treatment. The results further show that politicians interfere with recruitment processes to get their people hired. As several participants pointed out, the politically tainted recruitments and promotions have created tension and mistrust amongst employees. The results also indicate two other sources of mistrust between management and staff. As some participants pointed out, one issue is that management has the habit of reneging on collective bargaining agreements. Particularly, one participant mentioned that *management had agreed to increase salaries but when the time for salary increment came, they reneged on the signed agreement.* Another point that emerged from the analysis of empirical data is lack of communication. In this regard, some participants mentioned that

> *Staff is not involved in decision-making and we just get informed about decisions through an email. I cannot remember the last time we had a face-to-face meeting with management to discuss important issues about the Municipality.*

In sum, this Section has presented the centrality of political interference in shaping the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Based on the strength of the empirical evidence presented above, the author argued that Tshwane has a weak culture entrenched in politics and characterised by lack of accountability, mistrust, lack of motivation, and incompetence. In other

words, these problems are actually symptoms of cadre deployment which, as the empirical evidence suggests, is the root cause of the organisational culture embedded in politics. Based on the literature review, the author describes these cultural manifestations as characteristics of poor leadership. Specifically, the leadership question became more evident in the attitudes of management towards staff. For instance, senior management regarded lack of accountability as a problem of staff not wanting to be held accountable for poor performance. This opinion seems to blame the other party and shows weaknesses in leadership.

5.3. Comparing the empirical results with similar studies

So far, the author has presented the empirical results on the question of how organisational culture affects performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, the first part of this chapter presented the empirical themes underpinning this question. These themes are precursor to the empirical answers presented and discussed in Section 5.1.1 through to Section 5.2. Therefore, this Section links the empirical answers presented in Section 5.2 to the literature and sets the tone for Section 5.4 which provides a detailed discussion on the empirical results of this study fit within the established theoretical principles of management.

The first point of comparison relates to the issue of cadre deployment, which was revealed to be an underlying factor in the construction of the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Based on the empirical results, cadre deployment gives rise to political interference, which amongst other things, leads incompetence, lack of accountability, low staff morale, and mistrust. The empirical argument that cadre deployment is the source of political interference in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is consistent with the findings of previous studies that acknowledge the role of cadre deployment in creating a culture of politicised bureaucracy in the South African public service (Shava and Chamisa, 2018; Twala, 2014). These studies advance the view that the African National Congress (ANC) adopted cadre deployment as a deliberate strategy to control the public service. In addition, the empirical confirmation of the practice of the entrenched practice of appointing politicians to strategic positions in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality corroborates a widely reported phenomenon captured in previous studies (Mafunisa, 2003; Makole, 2022; Masiya, Davids, & Mangai, 2021; Shava & Chamisa, 2018). Further, the empirical revelation of this practice is consistent with Masuku and Jili's (2019) argument that under the politicised bureaucracy, politicians dominate and lead administration.

The practice of appointing political loyalists in key positions in the municipal administration is reminiscent of the spoils system that led to the emergence of the politics-administration dichotomy. As Gruening (2001) points out, the spoils system was characterised by corruption and nepotism. Therefore, the results of this study indicate an entrenched nepotism arising from cadre deployment.

To this end, the results paint a picture of an entrenched practice of appointing unqualified and incompetent political party loyalists in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. On this issue, the research participants argued that politicians use cadre deployment as a strategy to get their relatives and friends appointed to cushy jobs in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This view confirms Sebola's (2014) argument that politicised bureaucracy in South Africa has created a public service administration that promotes nepotism. This revelation is also consistent with Kgatle's (2017) attribution of service delivery protests that engulfed the Municipality in 2016 to political interference and nepotism. The empirical results further show that nepotism results in incompetence. Specifically, the results indicate that some unqualified senior individuals appointed on political grounds were unable to perform their official duties because they did not have requisite skills. This empirical argument confirms Butler's (2010) finding that lack of qualified experts in technical fields inhibits the ability of municipalities to provide services. In addition, this argument aligns with Shava and Chamisa's (2012) finding that due to lack of skills, some political appointees have not been able to offer much beyond political loyalty.

The empirical results presented in this chapter highlight several consequences of cadre deployment. For example, the research participants mentioned that political interference in human resource matters has resulted in the removal of competent senior administrators in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This empirical observation is consistent with existing literature that found out that factional battles of the ruling party resulted in the expulsion of competent senior officials in Nelson Mandela Bay Municipality (Maqoko, The political and administrative interface on the local government sphere - Nelson Mandelay Bay Municipality , 2015). The observation also confirms the findings of Rolland's (2018) study that highlights the vulnerability of municipal managers to constant changes in political leadership. In addition, this empirical observation is similar to a study conducted by Maqoko (2015) in Nelson Mandela Bay, which revealed that a Municipal Manager cited political interference as the reason for resigning.

On a similar note, the empirical results of point to constant changes in government resulting from political squabbles within the ruling coalition partners. These results are consistent with the study that revealed that when management is preoccupied with political squabbles, they lose focus on strategic issues and this affects staff motivation negatively (Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2013). The issue of employee demotivation and disgruntlement revealed in this study is consistent with other studies that attribute lack of motivation in South African municipalities to too much political interference and lack of consequence management for poor performance (Masiya, Davids, & Mangai, 2021; Shava & Chamisa, 2018). The results further show that political squabbles in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality have created political and administrative instability that has a negative impact on service delivery. This empirical observation is consistent with the finding of a study that

found out that political instability affects the coherent provision of services to the community (Tsako, 2020). It also confirms Ramokgopa's (2018) finding that attributes the collapse of service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to political instability.

The empirical evidence on the involvement of politicians in administrative issues in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality confirms the notion that cadre deployment has destroyed accountability mechanisms and created a fertile ground for corruption. Elaborating on how this unfolds in practice, the participants mentioned that deployed cadres are untouchable and do as they please. This empirical view is similar to Gumede's (2014) argument that members of the African National Congress (ANC) deployed in government felt that they were accountable to political structures that had deployed them. In addition, the accountability problem revealed through data analysis confirms the argument that weak systems tend to have organisational structures that promote lack of accountability (Coetzee & Pauw, 2013). This theoretical argument of the existence of weak internal control systems is corroborated by the empirical narrative of a similar situation in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. For instance, one participant painted a picture of accountability mechanisms that have been diminishing over his thirty-year experience in the Municipality. This empirical narrative confirms Twala's (3014) finding that many senior civil servants openly run political party branches and canvass for their political parties in their spare time. The narrative is also consistent with Gumede's (2015) argument that ANC cadres deployed in government account to the political offices that appointed them.

Another aspect of accountability is reporting, which generated mixed results in that other participants highlighted improvements in reporting while others pointed to inadequate use of evidence as a result of poor reporting. In this respect, the results confirm the findings of several studies that have found inadequate use of evidence in South African municipalities (Cloete, 2009; Dlamini & Migiro, 2016; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Mello, 2018). Using evidence use for decision-making as an indicator of accountability, the empirical results of this study established that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality used evidence obtained from Statistics South Africa in formulating the IDP. This particular result is consistent with evidence that points to improving use of evidence in South African public institutions (Goldman, et al., 2014).

Corruption is one of the biggest issues that emerged from data analysis. In this regard, the research participants identified lack of accountability and corruption as direct consequences of cadre deployment. This revelation is in line with previous studies that found that politicised bureaucracy creates a fertile ground for corruption (Mafunisa, 2003; Sebola, 2014). In addition, the results confirm Shava and Chamisa's (2018) finding that that cadre deployment exacerbates corruption in South African municipalities. On the same issue, the empirical results are consistent with the argument that cadre deployment is a system that allows politicians to control who gets access

to tenders (Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016). Another interesting dimension is that the research participants link corruption to administrative and political instability in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the empirical evidence suggests that the chronic political instability in the Municipality is a result of political scramble for corrupt access to public resources. This empirical argument is similar to the view that conflicts and inconsistencies in municipal operations feed corrupt activities during the scramble for municipal resources and power (Ayeko-Kümmeth, 2015).

On the issue of mistrust, the empirical evidence highlights disagreements between management and employees regarding implementation of performance management for permanent staff. The main source of this disagreement is lack of trust between management and staff. As the empirical data shows, the source of mistrust emanates from the perception on the part of management that staff use labour unions to avoid accountability for poor performance and misconduct. On the other hand, staff harboured feelings that management would use the performance management system to victimise them. These empirical fears are reasonable in light of the previous studies showing that municipal managers and supervisors have inadequate understanding on the value and use of individual performance management (Maqoko, 2015; Mofolo, 2012).

The empirical evidence further shows that mistrust emanating from political interference results in employees losing confidence in the performance management system as underserving employees with political connections were promoted at the expense of more deserving employees without political connections. On this issue, the results are similar to the findings of a study showing that mistrust leads to lack of harmonious cooperation and coordination within an organization, which in turn, results in lack of motivation and poor performance (Wright & Pandey, 2010). On the other hand, management viewed unions as instigators of instability and lack of accountability. In this regard, the results are similar to previous studies that attribute low level of trust leads to frosty relations (Ndevu, 2019) and instability in public institutions (Bovaird & Loeffler, 2005).

Another element of mistrust that came out during the empirical undertaking is lack of a common vision between management and staff on strategic issues that may improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, the results indicate that management and staff did not agree on the strategic direction the Municipality should be taking. This empirical evidence is similar to a study conducted in several municipalities in the Eastern Cape, which revealed that lack of a shared vision results in disconnection between strategic objectives and daily operations (Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2013).

In sum, the empirical results presented in this chapter are consistent with the literature that highlights cadre deployment as the root cause of poor performance across South African Municipalities. Specifically, the results highlight different manifestations of cadre deployment namely, lack of

accountability, incompetence, political interference, mistrust, nepotism and many more. Based on the strength of the empirical evidence presented herein, the author argues that cadre deployment has turned Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality into an organisation that has a weak culture entrenched in politics. This argument reinforces Toor and Ogunlana's (2009) finding that abuse of political power is indicative of poor leadership. Therefore, the performance impediments presented in this study are consistent with Thokozani's (2017) definition of a weak organisational culture. As the empirical evidence suggests, the weak culture characterised by lack of accountability, mistrust, incompetence and other issues discussed above, leads to poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This empirical argument is supported by Denison (1990) who argues that organisations with weak organisational culture perform lower than those with strong organisational culture.

Even though the empirical evidence largely aligns with the existing literature, there are points of contradictions on some issues. For example, the results showing the entrenched politicisation of the administration in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality stands in contrast to the British system which, according to Fry (1985) is merit based. On the same breath, the empirical results showing that municipal officials openly engage in political activities is contradicts Pyper and Burnham's (2011) finding that senior civil servants in the United Kingdom cannot hold party office, canvass for candidates or express political views in public. These contradictions indicate the irrelevance of New Public Management as a framework for explaining performance challenges in South African Municipalities.

5.4. Discussion of the research findings

The purpose of this chapter is to answer the question of how organisational culture affects performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To answer this question effectively, the author needs to explore organisational culture as a concept and then establish its relationship to performance in the context of the research setting. To undertake the first task of exploring organisational culture, the author used three theories of organisational culture. First, Schein's (1985) three levels of organisational culture was applied to determine assumptions, values, and artifacts that shape organisational behaviour. The author selected this model for its popularity and diversity in diagnosing organisational culture in different settings. For example, different types of studies (Dimitrov, 2013; Kong, 2003; Weber & Martensen, 2021) in different contexts successfully applied Schein's approach to analyse assumptions and values that shape organisational culture. Because of its diversity, this approach complements Denison's (1990) model that was applied to determine specific traits that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should embrace in order to perform better. Last, Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework (CVF) was used for a similar purpose of establishing values that are critical for improving performance. Although the CVF and Denison

models use quantitative measures to assess the relationship between organisational culture and performance, their credibility, popularity, and versatility makes them suitable for use in all types of studies.

Using Schein's (1985) description of artifacts as visible objects that have cultural symbolism, the author reviewed long-term and short-term strategic documents to understand the values embedded in documents that provide strategic direction for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the study revealed that the African National Congress (ANC) developed vision 2055 in 2013 but this faded away after the ANC lost power. Therefore, the Municipality adopted vision 2030 in 2017, which provides the strategic direction of under the new coalition government led the Democratic Alliance (DA). This vision is implemented through the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) 2022-2026. Based on the empirical evidence obtained from the participants in this study as well as the review of relevant literature, the author made three observations regarding the strategic outlook of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

First, there were disagreements on which of the two long-term visions were operational. As a result, there was confusion even amongst some of the executives who were uncertain on which of the two visions was operational. This confusion was a result of inadequate involvement of all key stakeholders in strategy development in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Despite this confusion and lack of uncertainty, the study established that the IDP drew from vision 2030, which means that this is the strategic document operational in the Municipality. Another observation was that the strategic documents do not only represent artifacts as described in Schein (1985) but also represent an important attribute that an organisation should master in order to be effective (Denison, 1990). Third, the finding on lack of involvement of employees in strategic planning processes highlights that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality lacks a critical trait of involvement as outlined in Denison model of organisational culture. In particular, the findings of this study show that poor communication characterised by lack of face-to-face interaction results in inadequate involvement of staff in policy decisions.

Literature shows that the problem of lack of involvement in decision-making extends to other municipalities. For example, a study on culture of work in Eastern Cape municipalities revealed that municipalities recognised the importance of teamwork but lacked material ingredient for effective teamwork (Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2016). The same study also identified consistency as the key weakness across several municipalities in Eastern Cape as reflected by lowest indices scores on vision, goals, objectives and other attributes of the Denison framework. This finding is consistent with the empirical results of this study which indicates inconsistent application of organisational values and principles in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As the empirical data shows, the Municipality explicitly embrace openness, honesty, and transparency in their IDP 2022-

2026. However, the research participants indicated some dishonesty on the part of management concerning refusal to pay salary increment as agreed. With regard to openness, the study applauds the publication of performance contracts for Section 57 employees. This notwithstanding, accountability for performance remains a challenge in the Municipality and this is displayed through empirical observation of a lack of a common vision between management and staff regarding implementation of performance management tools. In addition, the empirical data revealed low staff morale and mistrust between management and staff. Further, the empirical results highlight political interference, nepotism, and poor communication as inherent causes of low staff morale and mistrust. Based on these empirical observations, the author argues that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has a weak organisational culture entrenched in politics and displayed through lack of accountability, low staff morale, incompetence, and mistrust.

The attributes that shape the culture of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality are consistent with Schein's (1985) categorisation of elements of organisational culture. Specifically, political interference arising from cadre deployment represents the category of underlying perceptions and beliefs of the ANC members. As noted in Gumede (2015) the ANC members have a sense of entitlement to state resources because they had fought for democracy. This is also confirmed through empirical findings that ANC members deployed in strategic positions in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality do as they please without any consequence. According to Schein (1985), underlying assumptions, beliefs, and perceptions are the source of values and actions. Therefore, the empirical data shows that the underlying sense of entitlement amongst ANC cadres deployed in strategic positions in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality leads to actions of corruption, nepotism, and disregard of rules for accountability. This means that Schein's (1985) framework is useful for explaining underlying assumptions that define mechanisms that display the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Organisational culture and leadership are tightly intertwined (Denison, 1990). Thus, Schein (1985) describes the two as sides of the same coin. This means that the existence of one is indicative of the other. Therefore, the negative factors underpinning the culture of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as discussed above, are indicators of poor leadership. As Jaskyte (2004) points out, leaders can transmit and embed organisational culture through deliberate mechanisms that include recruitment, selection, promotion, and other mechanisms. The empirical evidence presented in this chapter shows that leaders in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality have deliberately entrenched political beliefs, practices, and norms in the recruitment processes thereby creating a culture of nepotism and incompetence. This evidence confirms Schein's (1985) argument that beliefs, values, and assumptions of leaders form the core of the organisation's culture.

Denison's (2019) theory of organisational culture was also used as a framework for determining the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Known as the Denison Organisational Culture Survey (DOCS), this theory identifies mission, adaptability, involvement, and consistency as key performance determinants in any organisation. As a result, they form a framework for evaluating organisational performance. The mission represents a shared vision of the future that should be pursued by everyone inside the organisation. The adaptability trait requires a customer focus as well as creativity to adapt and create the necessary change while involvement is about cultivating a culture of ownership, commitment, and a shared responsibility to achieve goals. Last, consistency is a trait that relates to management of internal communication, agreement issues. In addition, consistency is measured by the alignment of actions to the mission, shared values, and principles. Drawing from Section 2.6.9 where different dimensions of leadership are articulated, the study appreciates the relevance of DOCS in enhancing the author's understanding of the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This understanding is further enhanced by the empirical evidence presented in chapter four which allows the author to fit performance impediments identified therein, within the DOCS framework.

Cycling back to Section 2.6.9, the author rejected the great man and the trait theories for their emphasis on the point that leaders are born with special characteristics. In addition, the author found these theories inappropriate to explain leadership in the context of contemporary institutions such as Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality where women occupy leadership positions. Most importantly, these theories were rejected on account of inadequate empirical evidence supporting their assumptions and claims. Even though the trait theory does is not appropriate for explaining personal attributes required for good leaders, it is useful for interpreting factors that enhance organisational performance. For example, the mission trait requires organisations to have a shared vision of the future supported by everyone in the organisation. Contrary to this requirement, the empirical findings presented in Section 4.1.4 show that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality does not have a shared vision. This became clear as the staff rejected implementation of the approved performance management system. This empirical evidence highlights the importance of the mission trait in explaining critical factors that impede performance in the City of Tshwane.

On the issue of adaptability, the author refers back to the situational theory of leadership discussed in Section 2.6.9. Specifically, this trait underscores the need for leadership in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to adapt their actions in line with the provisions of New Public Management which has been adopted as a framework for improved service delivery across all Municipalities. Therefore, this trait provides guidance on strategies that the current leadership in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should adopt to improve organisational performance.

The empirical evidence presented in Section 5.1.4 under the theme on lack of trust, reveals inadequate participation of staff in decision-making processes. Specifically, the findings show that poor communication and inadequate participation of employees in decision-making leads to lack of ownership, disgruntlement, and lack of support for shared organisational goals. The author connects these findings to the involvement and consistency traits expressed in the DOCS. A similar connection is made in another study that applied Denison's theory to understand the work culture in municipalities within the OR Tambo District Municipality in the Eastern Cape. This study established found a weak communication between management and employees across the municipalities in question (Nzewi et al., 2016). In addition, this study revealed political interference in the recruitment of staff. This finding highlights inherent inconsistency between the actions of management and the values of fairness and transparency espoused in the strategic documents (mission and value statements) of the City of Tshwane. Based on the foregoing, the author argues that Denison's (2019) theory of organisational culture is relevant for explain factors that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as presented in chapter four. In addition, this theory enhanced the author's understanding mechanisms that shape the organisational culture in the Municipality.

Another important theory that was used to determine the culture of doing things in the City of Tshwane is the Competing Values Framework (CFV). This framework identifies four types of organisational culture underpinned by two dimensions. As depicted in Figure 7.4, the four culture types namely, Clan, Adhocracy, Market, and Hierarchy constitute the four quadrants arising from a cross Section of horizontal and vertical axis. On the horizontal axis sits the two competing cultural attributes of internal focus and external focus while flexibility and control are opposing attributes located on the vertical axis. In their study on organisational effectiveness in the 1980s, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) as well as Quinn and Cameron (1983) discovered that some organisations were effective if they demonstrated flexibility and adaptability, but others were effective if they demonstrated stability and control. This discovery is relevant for this study in two ways. First, this study established that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality embraces an internally focused attitude where politicians are preoccupied with abusing internal processes for personal and political expediency. Second, as mentioned above, the findings of this study contradicts Bradley and Parker's (2001) view that organisations with an internal focus emphasise integration, information management and communication. The empirical findings of this study revealed political interference as the root cause for poor performance in the City of Tshwane. The author argues that this finding further contradicts the assumption that other organisations become effective if they demonstrated stability and control. Therefore, using the CFV as the test for organisational effectiveness, it is clear that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has failed in all the dimensions espoused in the framework.

The two dimensions of discussed above provide for four types of organisational culture. For example, human relations (clan culture) is a product of internal and flexible dimension while hierarchy (bureaucracy) is a function of the internal and control perspective. In addition, the open systems (market culture) is derived from the interSection of external and flexible axis while the goal-oriented culture is lies in the quadrant between control and external. As discussed in Section 2.6.9, no one culture is suitable for all occasions. This means that from time to time, organisations may switch between the four cultural models described in the CVF. However, the empirical findings of this study revealed that bureaucracy is the dominant culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As Bradley and Parker's (2001) point out, bureaucracy focuses is an internal process model characterised by a control/internal focus in which information management and communication are utilised in order to achieve stability and control. It is important to mention that this study did not find any empirical evidence on the use of information management and communication to achieve stability and control in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Instead, it found out that the ANC uses its policy of cadre deployment as a mechanism to control all aspects of municipal administration including procurement of goods and services. However, this practice has caused instability as competent officials are often purged for political considerations. This means that while cadre deployment is a mechanism of bureaucratic control, it has resulted in administrative instability that contradicts the assumptions embedded in the CVF.

Based on the analysis of Denison's model, the author argues that organisations that are control/internal oriented are not only stable but also consistent. As mentioned earlier, consistency relates to acting in accordance with established values and creating processes and systems of governance supported by everyone. Given its inclination to internal/control mechanisms, the author had expected Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to pass the test of consistency embedded in Denison's (1990) theory. However, the empirical findings of this study paint a picture of the Municipality that reneges on collective bargaining agreements. The empirical evidence further shows that failure to respect agreements causes conflicts between management and labour unions thereby compromising the principle of creating a governance system supported by everyone as proposed in Denison's theory of organisational culture.

So far, the author has located the empirical findings of this study within major theories of organisational culture. Doing so strengthens the theoretical and empirical argument that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is characterised by politicised bureaucracy. Understanding theoretical and empirical attributes of bureaucracy paves the way for answering the question of how organisational culture affects performance. This question continues to be the subject of intense debate. For example, a study on the relationship between bureaucracy and performance in the context of public schools in Texas, USA found that bureaucracy had a positive and significant impact on performance (Meier,

Polinard, & Wrinkle, 2000). In addition, Riccucci (2002) found that representative bureaucracy had a positive effect on policy implementation and policy outcomes but adds that it could be enhanced or hindered by the public managers through their values, attitudes, and behaviours. The latter part is consistent with the empirical findings showing that public managers in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality impede performance in several ways. As the findings point out, the main behaviour that impedes performance in the Municipality is political interference in recruitment which leads to incompetence, lack of accountability and poor performance. This empirical observation is consistent with the findings of the study on bureaucracy and performance in local authorities in the UK (Andrews, Boyne, Law, & Walker, 2005) which found that bureaucracy had a negative effect on all indicators of performance.

The empirical findings of this study revealed political interference weakened recruitment and promotion processes leading to lax attitude to work, lack of innovation, and outright disrespect and impunity where employees came to work late and left early without any fear of reprimand. These attitudes are consistent with Thokozani (2017) who argues that demotivated employees have detached attitude. Based on this empirical and theoretical evidence, the author argues that political interference leads to low staff morale which subsequently results in lack of interest and commitment to perform. By extension, lack of interest and commitment contradicts the principle of involvement advanced in Denison's theory but confirms the argument made earlier that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is inclined to a bureaucratic culture anchored on control and internal focus. Therefore, the Municipality lacks the element of flexibility and internal focus which, according to Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) is necessary to create a warm and caring culture of human relations characterised by cohesion and morale. For this reason, the author argues that political interference is the underlying mechanism through which the City of Tshwane maintains a rigid and inward-looking bureaucracy that pays little regard to creating a conducive environment for healthy human relations. This argument is consistent with the principle of impersonality which is one of the key tenets of bureaucracy propagated by proponents of bureaucracy. This study has presented empirical evidence showing that inadequate attention to staff welfare has created a toxic environment that does not motivate employees to perform to the best of their abilities.

Related to the issue of human relations is lack of trust which Ndevu (2019) found to be a problem in South African Municipalities. Recalling from the previous chapter, mistrust between management and employees emerged as the root cause of conflicts and disagreements between employees and management. These conflicts divert the focus away from service delivery and are indicative of the weak internal focus characterised by poor personal relations. Highlighting the importance of good personal relations, Šumanski, Kolenc and Markič (2007) posit that good interpersonal relations in an organisation are reflected in employee satisfaction. Schein's (1985)

principle of a shared values is dependent on proper communication where everyone in the organisation is inducted on organisational values. Therefore, the author argues that organisations should have a clear strategy of communicating organisational values to new employees. However, this study found no empirical evidence that a proper communication and induction of staff on organisational values exists in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This is not surprising because communication and trust becomes difficult in a situation where motivation and morale are low (Thokozani, 2017).

Although the study revealed mixed results regarding use of evidence for decision-making, there is evidence pointing to increased use of evidence for decision-making in South African public institutions (Goldman, Deliwe, Taylor, & Ishmail, 2019). There is consensus amongst evaluation experts that evidence-use is an important element of accountability. As noted in Hood (1991) accountability and evidence-use are critical aspects of New Public Management. After careful analysis of Denison's model of organisational culture, the author argues that institutions that value accountability and use of evidence have an external orientation characterised by strong mission and adaptability. Similarly, the Competing Values Framework categories organisations that are mission oriented as externally oriented. However, the Competing Values Framework is different from Denison model in that it argues that mission-oriented organisations value internal controls and bureaucracy. On the other hand, Denison model concurs with this categorisation only if mission-orientation is accompanied by consistency. Despite these differences, the study found that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality displays some elements of external focus in as far as its desire to be customer focused is concerned. However, its lack of accountability is indicative of inconsistent application of available rules to address corruption and poor performance.

In sum, the author has discussed different values that shape the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In the main, these values depict Tshwane as an entity that follows a bureaucratic, internal-oriented culture that emphasises stability and control through formal structures and enforcement of laws and procedures. As pointed out earlier, this culture is consistent with traditional public administrative culture entrenched in politics and characterised by lack of accountability, mistrust, and lack of employee motivation. This study attributes poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to a combination of these attributes. In particular, the empirical findings of this study confirm Ramokgopa's (2018) observation that political interference has collapsed service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The findings further confirm Kgatle's (2017) attribution of service delivery protests that engulfed the Municipality in 2016 to political interference. In terms of lack of accountability, the findings of this study reiterate Shava and Chamisa's (2018) view that political interference has increased corruption across South African municipalities. As noted in other studies (Masiya, Davids, & Manga, 2021; Ndevu, 2019) and

confirmed by the empirical evidence of this study, political interference gives rise to mistrust. In this regard, the study puts mistrust at the centre of disagreements and conflicts between management and staff regarding implementation of performance management. The study also confirms the findings of other studies that found lack of motivation and low job satisfaction as performance impediments in South African municipalities (Dzansi, Chipunza, & Dzansi, 2016).

Having articulated attributes that shape organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and their negative effects on performance, the next chapter presents empirical strategies for addressing poor municipal performance. Specifically, the chapter puts leadership at the centre of all efforts aimed at addressing performance challenges in the City of Tshwane. Before diving deep into this discussion, the author wraps up this Section by providing a summary of critical issues that emerged in the course of answering the question of how organisational culture affects performance.

5.5. Conclusion

This study revealed that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is an internally focused organisation with a culture entrenched in politics and underpinned by lack of accountability, mistrust, and low staff morale. In view of these characteristics, the author defined the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as a politicised bureaucracy. In order to understand manifestations of this culture, the author applied a combination of three popular theories. First, Schein's (1985) three levels of organisational culture allowed the author to identify political interference as the underlying factor shaping the behaviour and attitudes of senior managers in the City of Tshwane. Based on the empirical evidence presented earlier, the author argues that the behaviour and attitudes of management has created an environment conducive to corruption, nepotism, and lack of accountability. Second, Denison's (1990) model of organisational culture allowed the author to understand how lack of participation and involvement of employees affects performance. Third, the Competing Values Framework (CVF) identifies communication as one of tools that sustain bureaucratic organisational culture. Therefore, this study presented empirical evidence showing how lack of communication leads to conflicts that compromise the effectiveness of bureaucracy. Based on the foregoing, the author concludes that this chapter revealed the existence of a bureaucracy as the main culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The author further argues that this culture is expressed through much emphasis on internal/control mechanisms that have turned the City of Tshwane into an impersonal entity with little or no regard to human relations. Consequently, this has created a toxic environment characterised by low staff morale and poor performance.

During the process of linking the empirical findings to the established theoretical framework, the author observed some points of convergence and contradictions between different theories of organisational culture. For example, the empirical evidence indicates that organisational values of the

City of Tshwane are expressed in its vision and mission statements. Using Denison's theory, Tshwane is a mission-oriented organisation and Denison (1990) adds that such organisations thrive on consistency and involvement. This view is reiterated in Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) who suggest that mission-oriented organisations are internally focused and use control mechanisms to achieve performance. Contrary to this, the empirical findings revealed that although Tshwane is an internally focused organisation, it does not uphold values of involvement and consistency. Another point of inconsistency relates to the empirical finding that senior leaders in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality act in a manner that is inconsistent with the values of transparency espoused in the mission statement. This contradicts principles advanced in Schein (1985) that leaders should be role models and socialise organisational values. These contradictions aside, the three theories discussed in this chapter are relevant and useful for interpreting the empirical findings of this study.

CHAPTER 6 - STRATEGIES FOR AUGMENTING BUREAUCRACY IN TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY

In chapter four, the author argued that cadre deployment is the root cause of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This argument is enhanced in chapter five where the author discussed the role of cadre deployment in shaping organisational culture in the Municipality. Relying on empirical and theoretical evidence, the author described the City of Tshwane as a bureaucratic organisation entrenched in politics with an internally oriented culture characterised by lack of accountability, mistrust, and low staff morale. An empirical account on how these manifestations of bureaucracy affect performance in Tshwane Metropolitan is presented in chapter five. Moving closer to achieving its objective of deriving a performance improvement model, chapter six articulates strategies for addressing performance challenges emanating from the culture of political bureaucracy discussed in the previous chapters. Anchored on transformational leadership, these strategies underscore the need for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to transition from an inward-looking culture of political bureaucracy to a culture of performance underpinned by meritocracy and compassion. In line with the approach adopted in the last two chapters, the author kicks off the discussion by presenting the empirical themes underlying the proposed strategies (Section 6.1.). Thereafter, Section 6.2 presents empirical evidence to answer the question of what strategies are relevant for addressing political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In Section 6.3, the author links the empirical results of this study to the literature while Section 6.4 provides a detailed discussion of the research findings. In Section 6.5, the chapter concludes with a summary of key issues discussed herein and paves the way for the construction of the performance improvement model presented in chapter seven.

6.1. Presentation of empirical research results

De Jager and Steenekamp (2015) state that the early elite of the African National Congress (ANC) embraced values of moral improvement, individual responsibility and a sense of social consciousness. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the political liberation and social justice project that was led by the ANC was founded on these values. However, as discussed in the previous chapters, when the ANC assumed power in 1994, it abandoned its values of and adopted a new culture of cadre deployment. The empirical findings of this study show that cadre deployment is a vehicle used by ANC leaders to attain selfish political and personal interests contrary to the founding values of individual responsibility for attainment of public good. Thus, De Jager and Steenekamp (2015) describe the current culture of the ANC as inward looking, self-seeking and self-preserving. When the first democratic elections were held in 1994, the ANC as the liberation party attained an

overwhelming majority to form government. Since then, the ANC has been using cadre deployment as a mechanism to entrench its values of inward looking and self-preservation within the entire public service. Even though the ANC lost power in 2016, its legacy of excessive state control, coupled with a general lack of accountability, nepotism, incompetence, mistrust, and low staff morale, remains a key determinant of organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Borrowing from Toor and Ogunlana (2009), the author argues that the characteristics of bureaucracy outlined above are attributes of poor leadership. Therefore, any effort to transform the inward-looking culture of bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality requires a concerted effort to strengthen leadership. This is more so in view of Schein's (1985) description of leadership and organisational culture as two sides of the same coin.

6.1.1. Leadership

As noted in Section 2.6.9, leadership is a complex concept with many dimensions. As a result, there is no consensus on what it is but at least researchers across a broad spectrum of fields recognise the fact that no single dimension of leadership is appropriate for all situations. Nonetheless, the empirical findings of this study highlight the significance of leadership in addressing performance challenges in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, the previous chapter presented bureaucracy as the source of performance problems in the Municipality. Therefore, the empirical evidence gathered for this study points to the need for competent leaders to steer the Municipality away from a culture of politicised bureaucracy to the one that embraces meritocracy. In this regard, the participants were divided on how to promote principles of meritocracy in the City of Tshwane. On one hand, others called for the abolishment of the cadre system. On the other, some participants mentioned that it is difficult of abolish this system. As a result, they called for a merit-based cadre deployment system to ensure the appointment of ethical, competent, and qualified individuals to positions of leadership within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

The call for a merit-based cadre deployment is relevant in view of literature showing that the US managed to overcome the same problem of politicised bureaucracy. Commonly known as the spoils system (Gruening, Origin and theoretical basis of New Public Management, 2001), this system was characterised by nepotism, corruption, and poor performance. This means that it is possible to transform political assumptions, attitudes, and values underlying governance of public institutions in South Africa. However, as empirical findings of this study point out, this process of transformation requires competent and capable leaders with the ability to influence people towards achieving organisational goals. In the case of the City of Tshwane, the research participants highlighted the need for leaders with the ability to promote inclusive communication, improve accountability, and create a supportive culture that accommodates

diversity and promotes trust and a shared vision. The author equates these empirical leadership capabilities and functions to the four components of transformational leadership articulated in Burns (1978). These components include idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. Specific attributes of these components and how they playout in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is a subject of discussion in the next themes.

6.1.2. Creating shared values

The concept of shared values is an important tenet of Schein's (1985; 2004) theory of organisational culture. Despite this, the empirical results of this study highlight the existence of a disjointed value system where management and unionised labour are engaged on perpetual conflict regarding implementation of strategic performance management decisions. The absence of shared values was exposed by participants who mentioned that they joined the city some five years ago but had not been inducted on key values and principles underpinning strategic and operational orientation of the organisation. In addition, the results show that strategic and operational values and principles articulated in vision 2030 and the IDP for 2022/2026 were not translated into a shared vision. As a result, the participants described the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as fragmented, toxic, and political. In light of these findings, the participants suggested that the executive leadership should translate the core principles and values enshrined in different strategic documents into a comprehensive guideline. The participants added that this guideline should articulate practical steps for inculcating these values and principles to the rest of the employees in the Municipality. This suggestion is in line with the principle of idealised influence summarised in Bass (1999) who argues that idealised influence is displayed when the leader envisions a desirable future, articulates how it can be reached, and sets an example to be followed.

The empirical suggestion that management should develop a guideline for translating core values into practice is also consistent with Schein's (2004) argument that creating and inculcating shared values requires a process of socialisation where new members of the group are taught patterns of beliefs, behaviours, and rituals that define the identity of the group. The author argues that the process of creating and maintaining shared values is not a once off event but evolves over time through an intensive socialisation process that includes effective communication, building trust, and strengthening leadership capabilities at different levels of responsibility within the organisation. Most importantly, the author maintains that this process requires exemplary, determined, and highly ethical leadership. In support of this, Avolio, Yammarino, and Bass (1991) posit that transformational leaders are admired, respected, and trusted by their followers because of their high ethical standards and moral conduct. Drawing from general perceptions of the research participants, it is clear that the City

of Tshwane is in desperate need for transformational leaders who could restore trust and unity amongst staff while also upholding high ethical and moral standards required to deal with corruption.

The question of ethics is an important part of transformational leadership. Thus Engelbrecht, Van Aswegen and Theron (2005) posit that transformational leadership involves a process that allows the leader's vision of an ethical culture to filter throughout the organisation. In other words, transformational leaders use ethical conduct to promote shared organisational values. The need for ethical leadership in the City of Tshwane is more important in the context of the empirical evidence pointing to municipal leader who use their positions to advance political and personal interests. This evidence points to the need for transformational leaders who can use their ethical and moral capital to create a shared value system entrenched on altruism. As Engelbrecht (2001) as well as Kanungo and Mendonca (1996) point out, altruism is a core ethical value of transformational leadership. Other aspects of transformational leadership that emerged during the empirical undertaking of this study are discussed in the next Sections.

6.1.3. Open and inclusive communication

This study argues that communication is an important tool for advancing principles of transformational leadership. In addition, communication is critical for advancing Schein's (2004) principle of a shared organisational culture. Thus, Downs, Clampitt and Pfeiffer (1988) posit that if the communication is good, the probability of efficient organisational performance improves irrespective of how the goals and aims of the organisation are defined. True to this statement, the study revealed that lack of communication in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is one of the factors that hampers performance. In this regard, the research participants suggested several ways in which communication could be improved. First, the participant pointed to the need for management to shift from electronic communication to a more interactive and regular face-to-face communication.

Non-verbal communication is also an important aspect in organisational studies. In this regard, the study found that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has a set of strategic documents (artifacts) that articulate organisational values and principles. However, the attitudes and behaviour of members of the organisation were found to be inconsistent with the established values and principles. This means that management has failed to comply with the dictates of Denison's (1990) theory which identifies consistency as an important attribute of an effective organisational culture. To address this problem, the research participants called for the management of the City of Tshwane to act in a manner that is consistent with the established organisational values and principles. This call is consistent with the attributes of transformational leadership described in Section 1.6.1 and Section 1.6.2.

Another important element of effective communication is the involvement of all relevant persons in communication loops. In the case of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the study

established that electronic communication is the most preferred mode. However, this was not very effective as some employees at the general worker category did not necessarily have access to electronic communication at work. In addition, the union representatives mentioned that critical decisions affecting their members were often taken without proper consultations. This empirical evidence shows that the City of Tshwane does not uphold the key tenets of Denison's (1990) theory of organisational culture which recognises involvement as a critical attribute for staff motivation and improved organisational performance. For this reason, the author argues that the management of the city should develop or strengthen mechanisms for involvement of staff in key decisions within the organisation. The author further argues that the management should explore other means beyond electronic communication channels to ensure inclusive communication across the organisation. As the research participants pointed out, maintaining an open and inclusive communication is critical for improving trust between management and employees. This empirical argument is consistent with the theoretical observation that transformational leaders have an excellent communication skill and passionately communicate organisational goals. Coupled with a high standard of ethical and moral conduct, this sense of passion motivates and inspire followers to meet organisational goals.

6.1.4. Improving trust and motivation

Employee motivation is an important factor that influence organisational performance. As noted in the previous Sections, the main function of leadership is to influence followers towards achievement of organisational goals. In this respect, the author argues that one of the functions of transformational leaders is to create a supportive environment that motivates subordinates to achieve organisational goals. This argument is derived from the views of research participants who revealed that political interference in the human resource processes has created a situation characterised by lack of trust, demotivation, and disgruntlement. To address this problem, the participants pointed to the need for the leadership of the city to create an environment that is supportive to the needs and aspirations of staff. This empirical suggestion resonates with ideas of Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) who argue that maintaining collaborative human relations is a necessary ingredient for creating a performnce culture.

The empirical results of this study revealed lack of trust as one of the factors that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. There are several dimensions of trust identified in the literature but only two dimensions were found in the City of Tshwane. The first dimension is horizontal trust, which involves the relationship between co-workers. The other dimension is vertical trust and this refers to trust issues between managers and employees. This study found that employees were hostile and uncooperative to the management decision to introduce a performance management system. Therefore, in line with the understanding that cooperative behaviour is a manifestation of trust (Axelrod & Dion, 1988), the author argues that the hostile behaviour of

the employees in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality reflects lack of vertical trust. In addition, the research participants pointed to mistrust between employees appointed on political and personal considerations and those that were appointed on merit. As the research participants pointed out, those without political and personal relationships felt that political interference in human resources distorted the promotion system resulting in favouritism. Specifically, the participants mentioned that those with political connections are promoted at the expense of hardworking professionals without political or personal connections. Related to unfair promotions is the employees' perception that supervisors used the performance management system as a tool to settle personal scores rather than as a developmental tool. Consequently, this affects employees' motivation leading to poor individual and organisational performance.

Transformational leaders give special attention to the needs of subordinates for achievement of organisational and personal career aspirations. Bass (1991) defines this leadership function as individualised consideration. The need for leaders to pay attention to the needs of followers resonates with the principles of creating a warn and caring environmnet espoused in the Competing Values Framework. Contrary to the literature pointing to the need for maintaining a supportive environment underpinned by strong personal relations, the empirical results of this study revealed the opposite in relation to the City of Tshwane. Specifically, the participants pointed to a culture characterised by victimisation and lack of support for personal goals. Elaborating on how this culture plays out, some participants mentioned that their supervisors do not give them opportunies to advance their personal career goals while others expressed the fear the supervisors would use performance management system as a punitive rather than a developmental mechanism. This empirical evidence demonstrates the need for the managemetn of the City of Tshwane to adopt a new leadership approach that pays more attention to the personal wellbeing and career development of staff. This approach is necessary in light of the evidence showing that individualised consideration is practiced when new learning opportunities are created along with a supportive climate (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

According to Seloane (2010), the principle of inspirational motivation aligns individual and organizational goals, thus making the achievement of organisational goals an attractive means of achieving personal goals. In support of this argument, the research participants mentioned that staff can be motivated by leaders who have high moral standing, integrity and benevolence. This empirical suggestion is consistent with the argument advanced earlier that transformational leaders uphold high ethical standards and exercise compassion when dealing with employees. Another suggestion that emerged during the empirical undertaking of this study is the need for trained and competent managers. This suggestion resonates with literature showing that competence is a key factor in building trust (Biswas & Varma, 2007) and motivating employees. The next Section discusses capacity building as a strategy for enhancing leadership in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

6.1.5. Capacity building

The Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 requires that the employment of municipal managers as administrative heads or accounting officers, or managers reporting directly to the municipal manager must have the skills, expertise, competencies and qualifications as prescribed by the job description (Ndou & Sebola, 2016). Despite this requirement, the empirical results of this study indicate that some senior managers within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality do not have requisite skills and competencies to perform their leadership functions as expected. This empirical evidence is consistent with previous studies (Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Mello, 2018) that point to general lack of leadership skills across South African Municipalities. Therefore, the research participants identified the need for the City of Tshwane to institutionalise workplace leadership training. Particularly, the participants pointed to the need to channel more resources to support the Division of Learning and Development, which plays a critical role in building leadership and management capabilities in the city

The need to invest in leadership capacity building programmes is critical because transformational leaders are expected to stimulate intellectual capacity of their followers. According to Bass and Avolio (1993), intellectual stimulation is the ability of transformational leaders to unearth the innovative and creative capabilities of their subordinates. On its own, this task requires leaders who are competent and qualified, a situation that was found to be non-existent in the City of Tshwane. Therefore, the author proposes integration as the best approach to build the capacity of leadership in the city. Integration refers to bringing individuals in an organisation closer to each other to form a solid community that understands and share common purpose. According to Reinhartz and Beach (2004), establishing a solid community and enhancing human resources builds a cohesive and goal-oriented community that is capable of working together to accomplish objectives and fulfil the mission. The empirical evidence of this study shows that a similar approach exists in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality but appears to be ineffective. As some participants pointed out, this initiative involved a selected individuals who coordinated learning, coaching, and mentoring with the view to promote a culture of learning.

In sum, the empirical results of this study revealed the need for building the capacity of leaders in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This need is more important in light of the fact that transformational leaders are expected to stimulate intellectual capacity of their subordinates. As argued in this Section, this task requires highly educated leaders in the first place. Therefore, there is a need for the City of Tshwane and the ANC as the appointing agency for senior municipal leaders, to implement what has been termed a merit-based cadre deployment. Once qualified and competent leaders are in place, strengthening leadership capacity through integration may be possible.

6.1.6. Improving accountability

Accountability is about answering to some authority or persons about actions or inactions of individuals or organisations in relation to established standards or expectations (Mafunisa, 2003). From this definition, it is clear that accountability occurs when one is answerable and responsible for actions (Mfene, 2013). However, the empirical results of this study confirm Sikhakhane and Reddy's (2011) view that accountability remains an elusive concept and a challenge for politicians and officials within the South African public space. In order to provide the context for understanding the accountability problem in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author recognises four dimensions of accountability mentioned in Sikhakane and Reddy (2011). These are hierarchical accountability, professional accountability, legal accountability, and political accountability. The empirical results of this study revealed political accountability and bureaucratic accountability as dominant accountability types in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Also known as bureaucratic accountability (Lindberg, 2013), hierarchical accountability in municipalities emphasises the municipal managers' strategic role in signing performance agreements with senior managers reporting directly to them for implementing their relevant functional area of responsibilities (Tshishonga, 2015). Therefore, as part of hierarchical accountability, the managers are accountable to the municipal manager to deliver the performance agreement deliverables they have agreed upon (Ngqobe, Fourie, & Tshiyoyo, 2021). On this issue, the empirical results of this study revealed that Section 57 employees sign performance contracts with the Municipal Manager. The results further revealed that these contracts are accessible to the public for scrutiny. However, the results found mixed feelings about the effectiveness of performance contracting as an accountability mechanism for Section 57 employees.

Although Tshishonga's (2015) defines performance contracting as a mechanism for hierarchical accountability, the empirical results linked performance contracting of Section 57 employees with managerial accountability, which originates from New Public Management (NPM). In fulfilment of managerial accountability, municipalities are required to prepare and submit performance reports. In this regard, the empirical results of this study also revealed mixed feelings about the frequency and quality of reporting. For example, some participants felt that reporting has improved while others reported inconsistent and poor reporting that resulted in poor use of evidence for decision-making.

There are different mechanisms for political accountability in South African municipalities. For example, the Executive Mayor is politically accountable to the council on behalf of both the administration and the mayoral committees. In addition, Section 79 committees play an oversight role over the administration and the executive committee and report directly to the council. However, the empirical results of this study revealed that political interference has rendered this accountability

framework ineffective as politically deployed felt more accountable to their political parties. This empirical evidence points to the need for transformational leaders who adhere to the highest standard of ethical conduct and respect for rules. The need for adherence to established corporate rules and regulations is critical in view of the empirical evidence pointing to lack of consequence management for poor performance, corruption, and misconduct in the City of Tshwane. To address this problem, the Municipality should appoint courageous leaders who can apply the rules without fear or favour. So far, the author has presented empirical themes structured around key dimensions of leadership required for addressing bureaucratic challenges found in the City of Tshwane. Therefore, the next Section presents the data supporting the key attributes of transformational leadership discussed above.

6.2. Answering the main research question

As mentioned earlier, this chapter answers question 1.4.3 which seeks to determine strategies for improving the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To this end, the participants identified the need for transformational leadership with the capability to improve communication, motivate employees, and create a conducive environment for shared values. In terms of communication, most participants identified lack of communication as a performance impediment. Upon probing further, the participants mentioned that the Municipality has several offices across town and this makes inter-departmental communication and collaboration nearly impossible. Consequently, this creates silos that ultimately cause inefficiencies and duplications. In this regard, the participants suggested that the Municipality should institutionalise the organisation-wide communication approach in order to improve effectiveness in service delivery. As noted in the following extract, institutionalised communication approach is important for ensuring interactive communication and improved participation of employees in decision-making.

> *Management does not engage staff in critical decision-making. What happens is a one-way communication where management decides and then sends an email to inform staff about decisions. Therefore, there is a need for a more interactive and participatory engagement where employees could have a voice in decision-making.*

In light of the above, the research participants underscored the role of management in ensuring effective communication. In this respect, the participants mentioned that management should create an environment where all members of the organisation feel free to share feedback, ideas and even criticism at every level. Furthermore, the participants highlighted the need for use of face-to-face mode of communication instead of electronic mode that is not accessible to the majority of employees in the lower levels of employment. In this regard, the participants suggested that since it may be difficult for all staff face-to-face meetings because of the number of employees in the Municipality, supervisors and managers should be used as mechanisms for communicating policy

issues to subordinates in their respective departments, divisions, and units. Another suggestion is that the municipal management should use the existing platforms in a manner that promotes productive engagement with unionised labour. In this regard, one participant described the role of management in promoting open communication as follows:

> *Management should create a friendly environment where subordinates are encouraged to communicate ideas freely. If there is freedom of expression where feedback is given due consideration, employees would be motivated and trust, loyalty, and productivity would increase.*

In order to understand the role of communication as a strategy for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the participants were requested to justify their perception on the significance of communication. To this end, the participants mentioned that communication enhances transparency and serves as a deterrent to corruption. In answering the question of how communication achieves these, the participants mentioned that if communities have information, they are able to hold councillors accountable.

Lack of trust was found to be one of the factors that lead to poor performance in the City of Tshwane. Specific trust issues emanating from this study were discussed in chapter four. Without the risk of repetition, it is important to mention that the participants painted a picture of leadership that is reneges on collective bargaining agreements. Another issue that shows lack of trust between management and staff relates to lack of a shared vision on implementation of performance management system. In this regard the management had a feeling that staff does not want to account for poor performance and misconduct while on the other hand, staff were concerned that management would use the system to victimise them. To address this problem, the participants called for competent leadership with the ability to develop a culture where all employees share common values and work towards the same goal of delivering services in the best possible way.

The empirical results of this study also show that nepotism, poor communication and lack of trust have created a toxic environment where staff felt unsafe and unappreciated. In justifying this perception, some participants mentioned that they were disgruntled because some employees appointed on the basis of political and personal affinity often get promotions and other benefits while deserving professionals without political and personal connections are overlooked. The participants further mentioned that this practice creates mistrust amongst staff and contributes to a hostile relationship between management and staff. The participants added that this situation has created a toxic culture where staff feels unsafe and unappreciated. The participants were asked to express opinion on how the identified trust issues can be resolved. In answering this question, the participants identified the need for capable leaders with the ability to develop the vision, establish a strong organisational value system, and rally everyone behind the vision.

In chapter four, the author presented political interference arising from cadre deployment as the root cause of nepotism, corruption, and incompetence. The intention is not to discuss these aspects again but they are mentioned to draw the reader to the strategies that the participants proposed to deal with them. On the issue of nepotism, the participants mentioned that this issue is a result of political interference in the recruitment processes. To this address this issue, the participants highlighted the need for appointment of ethical leaders with the knowledge and experience of managing public institutions. The participants also added that appointing ethical leaders into strategic positions within the City of Tshwane will reduce corruption and promote the culture of excellence and responsibility to serve. To explain the need for ethical leadership, one participant had this to say:

> *The problem is that the city has unethical leaders who are specifically deployed in strategic positions not to serve the public but to steal from the public and advance the political interests of the ruling party. For example, we have leaders who are interested in ensuring that their friends get tenders. Therefore, we desperately need ethical leaders but again the issue of ethics and morality is a personal conviction, so we simply need people of demonstrated integrity to manage the city and we have plenty of them in this country. The problem is that politicians appoint people that they can control.*

The empirical evidence presented above highlights the importance of ethical leadership in transforming the current culture where leaders purse political and personal interest to the one that promotes public interest. The empirical evidence of this study shows that leaders who uphold high ethical standards are conscious about their roles and are likely to be more accountable. The empirical results of this study highlight an urgent need for improved accountability in view of the current situation where political interference continue to erode accountability in the City of Tshwane. Highlighting the accountability problem in the city, most participants mentioned that those who appointed to serve in the city on a political ticket tend to circumvent established accountability protocols and report to the political office that appointed them in the first place.

In response to the question of how accountability could be improved in the City of Tshwane, the participants proposed different strategies. For example, some mentioned that South Africa has a strong legislative framework to ensure accountability across the municipal landscape. To this end, several participants pointed to the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 as well as existing structures such as Section 79 committees that play an oversight role over the executive committee. Those who identified existing accountability mechanisms were quick to mention that the problem is that these structures are not performing their functions as expected. In this regard, the participants intimated that in most cases members of the Section 79 committees shield their political comrades from accountability. In addition, others indicated that performance management system provided for in the Municipal Systems Act is not implemented. In addition, the accountability mechanisms enshrined in the IDP development processes are not followed. On this issue some participants mentioned that community participation is not conducted in an effective manner and the city does not have effective

mechanisms to report periodically to the citizens as consumers of municipal services. For this reason, most participants pointed to the need for the City of Tshwane to strengthen monitoring and evaluation in two ways.

First, the participants suggested that the city should increase the budget for monitoring and evaluation. In support of this strategy, one participant said:

> *There is a need to strengthen financial and human resources capacity for monitoring and evaluation because we have thousands and thousands of employees and number of projects and programs which need to be followed up and evaluated. As it is, we only have two experts on monitoring and evaluation and we hardly conduct evaluations due to limited financial resources.*

Second, the participants pointed to the need to recruit qualified professionals especially at the strategic positions. In this regard, one participant mentioned said:

> *It is frustrating when you are a qualified monitoring and evaluation professional and your seniors are not competent at all about basic functions of monitoring and evaluation. This means every time you need to do your work you need to convince someone somewhere, who do not understand what you are talking about.*

Elaborating on the significance of strengthening monitoring and evaluation, research participants noted that a functional monitoring and evaluation system would allow the Municipality to generate and use quality data for decision-making. In addition, the participants mentioned that a good monitoring and evaluation system would improve the quality of Integrated Development Planning (IDP) by ensuring development of quality and measurable indicators. In a nutshell, the participants mentioned that improving accountability in the City of Tshwane is a function of having competent and bold leaders who can effectively implement existing administrative and legislative mechanisms to hold everyone in the city including politicians, accountable for their actions.

Capacity building is another strategy that was proposed to address performance challenges in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This proposal comes against the empirical observation that political interference has destroyed the ethos of a professional public service where officials are appointed on merit. The participants further mentioned that politicisation of the public service through active involvement of politicians in the recruitment processes has resulted in incompetence that has collapsed service delivery. For this reason, the participants suggested a two-way strategy to improve competencies. The first strategy involved the design and implementation of a leadership training programme targeting employees at the executive level. The second strategy involves the training of existing staff that may lack requisite skills. The need for training was revealed by participants who pointed to limited access to opportunities for professional development in the city. In cognisance of the precarious financial status of the Municipality, the participants proposed mentoring and coaching as well as online training as alternative mechanisms for building capacity and cultivating a culture of learning. In support of development and implementation of a comprehensive

capacity-building programme, one participant suggested that the Municipality should increase the capacity of the Division of Learning and Development to offer the organisation-wide training programme that is responsive to the training needs of the Municipality. Upon probing on the current role of this Division, participants mentioned that the Learning and Development Division focuses primarily on leadership training but it is not effective. In addition, it does not fully respond to the needs of employees who are not in managerial positions.

6.3. Comparing the empirical results with similar studies

Having presented the empirical results outlining the proposed strategies for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the next task is to compare the results of this study to the existing body of literature. The first point of comparison relates to the empirical suggestion that the Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should institutionalise the organisation-wide communication approach in order to ensure effective dissemination of strategic objectives of the Municipality to all employees. This suggestion is consistent with Herich's (2008) statement that the extent to which management accomplishes corporate goals depends on effective communication. In addition, the result is similar to Powell and Dodd's (2007) argument that clear communication of company mission, organisational values, as well as company objectives leads to higher commitment and increased consistency in employees' behaviour. The implied meaning inherent in the proposal that institutionalising communication leads to effective dissemination of strategic objectives is consistent with the view that ineffective communication between management and employees leads to disconnection between organisational goals and employees' work (Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2016).

The connection between effective communication and achievement of organisational goals and objectives gives rise to the issue of transformational leadership. For example, this connection is critical for advancing Schein's (2004) principle of a shared organisational culture. It also reinforces argument that if communication is good, the probability of efficient organisational performance improves irrespective of how the goals and aims of the organisation are defined (Downs, Clampitt, & Pfeiffer, 1988).

The proposal that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should use more face-to-face mode of communication instead of the preferred electronic mode differs from Mackenzie's (2010) study that point to the need for management to increase use of e-mail to supplement face-to-face communication. In as far as the implied use of face-to-face and emails as modes of communication is concerned, the results are consistent with the view that digital communication must not been seen as a replacement to traditional forms of communication but as supplemental (Petan & Vasiu, 2014).

Feedback is another important aspect of communication that was suggested as a strategy for

motivating employees and by extension enhancing performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. On this issue, the results revealed that management should create an enabling environment that allows employees to provide feedback. The absence of a conducive environment for effective communication implicit in this revelation is similar to a study conducted in selected municipalities in Eastern Cape that found that a two-way communication between management and employees is weak (Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2016). On the need for management to create an enabling environment for feedback, the results are similar to the view that management needs to ensure, at all times, that communication within the organisation is effective for attaining desired results (Zehir & Erdogan, 2011). In addition, the notion that effective communication creates an enabling environment for employees to provide feedback is consistent with Pigors' (1949) observation that effective communication can only be possible if management and employees collaborate and work together. The result displaying a positive relationship between employees' feedback, loyalty, and trust is consistent with Musheke and Phiri's (2021) study that maintains that effective communication in the workplace builds loyalty and trust which eventually attributes to greater job satisfaction. However, this result differs from Omilion-Hodges and Baker's (2014) opinion that open-door policies have been known to be largely ineffective. On the point that employees are motivated by an environment that allows them to provide feedback, the empirical results of this study are consistent with the research finding that interactive communication between top management and personnel makes officials feel part and parcel of the organisation and motivates them to achieve the objectives of the organisation (Pillay & Hoque, 2015).

Earlier, the study pointed to the need to improve the level of trust between management and employees as a strategy to improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, the study revealed that building trust is a management function that requires specific leadership competencies. This revelation is consistent with the view that transformational leaders should have the ability to create an atmosphere of trust and motivate employees to work for the organisation beyond their self-interests by mentoring and paying attention to personal development (Khorshid & Pashazadeh, 2014).

In terms of how Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should strengthen leadership competencies, the research participants recommended leadership training to equip managers with necessary skills to build trust by promoting fairness, integrity and open communication. In as far as the required attributes of leadership are concerned, the empirical results of this study are similar to the findings expressed in previous studies that mention that leadership training provides management with skills to act with honesty, fairness, transparency and integrity in order to ensure trust, increase motivation and job satisfaction among all employees (DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006)

Improving monitoring and evaluation is the last item that emerged as a strategy for enhancing

performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the research participants pointed to the need to increase the budget for monitoring and evaluation. The need to increase the monitoring and evaluation budget is similar to Mthethwa and Jili's (2016) study that attribute poor implementation of M&E activities in Mfolozi Municipality to financial mismanagement and corruption. In addition, the proposed strategy to increase funding for M&E activities is similar to the finding that M&E activities are not adequately funded in South African municipalities (Cronin & Sadan, 2015; Kanyane, 2014).

6.4. Discussion of the research findings

The previous Section has discussed empirical strategies necessary for creating a culture of performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Central to these strategies is the issue of leadership, which according to Schein (2004) is a fundamental attribute for creating and managing a performance-oriented organisational culture. In advancing the Schein's view, this Section applies organisational culture as a framework to highlight key attributes of leadership necessary for inculcating values and principles that promote accountability, trust, and increased motivation within Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the last Section presented a series of leadership attributes that include creating shared values, promoting open communication, improving trust and employee motivation, building individual capacity, and enhancing accountability. These attributes fit within three major categories that represent key tenets of organisational culture articulated by different scholars (Denison, 1990; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Schein, 1985).

The function of creating shared values represents the role of leadership expressed in Schein (2004) who argues that leaders should inculcate their personal values and principles into the organisation and create a shared vision. The need for creating a shared vision comes against the empirical observation that the City of Tshwane does not have adequate mechanisms for sharing the values and principles articulated in its strategic artifacts. In this regard, some research participants indicated that they joined the city some five years ago but had never been inducted on the organisational values. The participants further mentioned that as a result, they were not familiar with the acceptable values, principles, norms, and practices of doing things in the Municipality. The lack of a coherent value system, coupled with non-existent mechanisms for sharing the values and principles embedded in strategic artifacts, bear testimony to the fact that Tshwane does not have a clearly defined organisational culture. Based on the empirical evidence presented earlier, the author argues that the City of Tshwane has fragmented behaviours and practices straddling different cultural orientations (clan, hierarchy, and market) described in the Competing Values Framework. For example, entrenched political interference creates an impression of a clan culture because the Municipality operates in a manner that advances common interests of a network of politicians who support each other for

political and personal benefit. Despite an inclination to the clan culture, the hierarchical culture remains predominantly entrenched through formal structures that are managed through rules and regulations. On the other hand, the adoption of performance management with particular emphasis on strategic planning locates the Municipality within the culture of NPM. In addition, emphasis on strategic planning resonates with the market-oriented culture described in Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework and expounded in Denison's (1990) trait of mission.

A combination of these frameworks depicts Tshwane as an internally oriented and hierarchical entity that partially embraces aspects of a market-oriented and externally focused organisational culture. Contrary to the core principle of Competing Values Framework that values and principles underlying organisational culture are competitive and exclusive, this study found that the hierarchical culture in Tshwane is a mixture of remnants of competing values drawn from market-oriented culture and clan culture. Therefore, Tshwane needs a transformational leader to stitch together these fragments into a single, coherent, and shared value system. According to Schein (2004), sharing value system across the organisational as a whole involves teaching the patterns of beliefs, behaviours to new members of the group. Specifically, Schein believes that the leader should impose his or her assumptions and beliefs, thus establishing the culture of the organisation. However, imposition may not be the best idea in a politically contested space in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the Municipality needs transformational leaders who embrace principles of involvement, compassion, and intellectual stimulation to work together with everyone rather than a leader who imposes his beliefs on followers.

Communication is an important tool for ensuring effective transmission of the value system across different levels of management in a hierarchical organisation. However, this study revealed poor communication as one of the performance impediments in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This problem manifests in several ways that include inadequate involvement of all stakeholders in the communication loop and lack of frequent interactive engagement between management and employees. The consequence of this is misinformation, which fuels mistrust, conflicts and suspicions. Most importantly, ineffective communication of core principles and values espoused in strategic artifacts of the Municipality results in lack of a common vision on the strategic direction of the Municipality. It also leads to a lack of a common pattern of acceptable behavioural norms and standards required to achieve the strategic intends expressed in the municipal artifacts such as the vision 2030 and IDP 2022-2026. In view of this, the study revealed the need for competent leadership to facilitate effective communication of the already defined values and principles to the rest of the stakeholders in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, the study points to the need for the Municipality to move away from using a linear model mode of communication that relies overly on electronic communication. As the study pointed out, this

communication strategy is not effective because by the nature of their work, general workers hardly spend time in the office where they could access electronic communication. In addition, electronic communication does not create adequate space for feedback. Therefore, the sender of the email does not know how the message influences the reaction of the recipients. In view of these limitations, the study argues that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should prioritise face-to-face communication avenues while using electronic communication as a supporting mechanism.

The study revealed that the Municipality does not have a clear communication strategy. To this end, the study points to the need for the management of the Municipality to develop, review and/or implement a communication strategy built around key values and principles drawn from strategic artifacts of the Municipality. This would reduce the information gap between employees and management with regard to acceptable value system required to support implementation of the strategic and operational direction in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In support of this, assumption, the author points to evidence showing that internal communication enhances employees' identification with company mission, organisational values, and company objectives (James & Lahti, 2011). This means that internal communication is an important attribute that sustains organisational culture. Therefore, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality needs leadership that can define the mission and the necessary values and principles to drive the mission. It also needs a crop of leaders with adequate skills and competence to communicate the established mission and values and influence all stakeholders to embrace the established mission and underlying values. A combination of well-defined mission anchored in a clearly communicated and shared value system would shift Tshwane towards a mission-oriented culture defined in Denison (1990).

Bradley and Parker (2006) applied Competing Values Framework to assess organisational culture in Australian Public institutions. This study identified communication as a critical pillar upon which the hierarchical model of these institutions rested. Based on this study, the author argues that there is nothing wrong with the hierarchical model of organisational culture. However, its failure emanates from lack of innovative and competent political and administrative leadership, as is the case in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Related to communication are the issues of trust and employee motivation. As mentioned earlier, these attributes are in short supply in the City of Tshwane. The importance of communication in improving employee motivation is reflected in Rajhans (2009) who argues that effective downward communication allows decisions taken by the management of the organisation to be converted into action by employees boosts teamwork, promotes trust, and better relations. In addition, Chahal and Poonam (2016) posit that if the organisation has free flowing internal communication, it reduces the turnover rate and enhances relationship building. Further, upward communication leads to acceptance of decisions (Tyler, 2003) and helps managers to understand both business and

personal issues that affect employees (Rajhans, 2009). Despite these benefits, this study revealed lack of trust between management and employees in the City of Tshwane. The study established the source of this as poor communication that gives rise to misconceptions and suspicions that affect horizontal and vertical relationships. One of the key manifestations of lack of trust established in this study is that employees refused to support strategic interventions aimed at improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

In view of the communication challenges described above, the author argues that the Municipality needs transformational leadership with adequate skills and competence to transform the hierarchical organisational culture in the Municipality. Specifically, the leadership should promote a two-way communication that provides opportunities for employees to provide feedback while also creating space for management to incorporate the feedback into strategic decisions. As mentioned in the previous Sections, one of the main functions of transformational leadership is to inspire and motivate followers through clear communication. As noted above, upward communication strengthens vertical relationships and allows managers to understand personal needs of subordinates. This understanding would enable managers to assess subordinates objectively thereby restoring employees trust in performance management system. In support of this assumption, Ndevu (2019) argues that South African municipalities need the leadership and management that acts with honesty, fairness, transparency and integrity in order to build trust, enhance motivation and job satisfaction among all employees. The values of trust, motivation, fairness, and honesty resonate with the principles of transformational leadership expressed in Avolio, Yammarino, and Bass (1991). These attributes are also consistent with the human relations model expressed in the Competing Values Framework. However, the author argues that the human relations culture cannot function without enforcement of rules (hierarchical culture) and direct emphasis on attainment of goals and objectives (Market/Goal oriented culture). Therefore, the author reiterates an argument that it is possible for organisations to adopt a culture that draws values from different competing cultural orientations. This further enhances the view that there is a need for competent and transformational leadership that can use values and principles from a range of available models to augment the existing bureaucratic culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

As noted above, competent transformational leadership is key to augmenting the bureaucratic culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This statement is premised on key tenets of Bass (1997) and Burns (1978) who describe intellectual stimulation as a key attribute of transformational leadership. Although these scholars do not necessarily identify competence as an important element of transformational leadership, the roles and responsibilities espoused in the four components of transformational leadership described in their theory clearly require competent leaders. For example, the empirical evidence presented earlier indicates that the current crop of leaders

in the City of Tshwane may not possess requisite skills and capabilities to motivate followers through intellectual stimulation. Therefore, the author argues that effective performance of these leadership functions requires qualified and competent leaders. The need for technical competency in leadership is explicitly mentioned in Weber's (1948) principles of effective bureaucracy and reinforced by Hood (1991) who identifies meritocracy as a key principle of New Public Management. This means that in some respects, NPM complements traditional principles of bureaucracy. This notwithstanding, NPM provides an important framework to analyse managerial competencies and attributes required for augmenting the weaknesses of bureaucracy. In this regard, the author concurs with Reichard (1998) that implementing values and principles of NPM requires development of a new education and training programme to serve the new public managers. The need for a special training programme is in line with the view that new public managers require ethical competence, political competence and professional competence (Reichard, 1998).

Ethical competence requires leaders to uphold acceptable behavioural standards such as fairness, honesty, transparency, and accountability. In support of this statement, Avolio, Yammarino, and Bass (1991) posit that transformational leaders are admired, respected, and trusted by their followers because of their high ethical standards and moral conduct. For this reason, the author suggests that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality needs to appoint transformational leaders with high ethical standards. This suggestion is based on the argument that companies need ethical leaders in the wake of corruption scandals that led to the collapse of big international companies in recent years (Engelbrecht, Van Aswegen, & Theron, 2005). Based on this evidence, the author argues that ethical leadership in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is more urgent in light of the entrenched political interference that has destroyed ethical and moral obligation to act in the best interest of the public. Therefore, the author points to the need for concerted efforts to strengthen ethical competence of the leadership in order to enable them to embrace and instil values of accountability, transparency, and fairness, which are critical for reducing corruption and promoting effective delivery of services. The study acknowledges some aspects of transparency where performance contracts of Section 57 employees are made available for public scrutiny. Therefore, it is important for the Municipality to build on this and extend accountability across the organisation. This requires leadership that embraces the value of information-use as an instrument for accountability. In this regard, the leadership should strengthen monitoring and evaluation system and inculcate a culture of reporting and use of information to account for performance. The need for strengthening monitoring and evaluation is important because the empirical evidence presented earlier revealed that the current management lacks basic understanding of monitoring and evaluation functions thereby making it difficult for them to provide necessary guidance and leadership on this important issue. Hood (1991) and other proponents of New Public Management (NPM) describe

performance monitoring and evaluation as an important component of NPM. For this reason, NPM is an appropriate strategy for augmenting limitations of the bureaucratic culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

In the previous chapters, the study identified political interference as the root cause of bureaucratic inefficiency in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, it is important for leaders to be equipped with political competence. According to Vetter (2002), political competence is the ability to understand political facts and processes and to influence these with regard to one's own interests. Therefore, this study points to the need for strong and competent leadership with adequate skills to balance the political and administrative demands that characterise the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, the author argues that equipping leaders with skills to navigate the politics-administration interface is critical for restoring consequence management and enhancing performance. In support of this assumption, Madumo (2016) argues that improving performance in South African municipalities requires careful balancing of politics and administration because the politics- administration dichotomy is unrealistic in South Africa. In other words, political competence is an important leadership attribute required for addressing political interference, which has been found to be the main performance impediment in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In the case of South Africa, politically competent leaders should possess adequate skills to navigate the politics-administration interface by instilling values and principles that allow co-existence of political activity and organisational performance. Such values should allow the leadership to act professionally, in a goal-oriented manner that promotes accountability, trust, and motivation of employees within the context of a politically charged environment.

In sum, the author discussed key attributes of transformational leadership and their significance in augmenting the inwards and self-service culture of bureaucracy in the City of Tshwane. First, the author pointed to the need for ethical leaders with the ability to influence their subordinates by acting as role models. In this regard, the author presented literature showing that leaders that uphold the highest moral and ethical conduct command respect of their followers and are able to influence subordinates to work towards shared vision. Second, the attributes of inspirational motivation, individualised consideration, and intellectual stimulation proposed in Burns (1978) and advanced by Baas (1997) were found to be relevant for improving bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. For example, inspirational motivation requires leaders in the Municipality to inspire subordinates through communication and adherence to ethical and moral standards. In addition, the principle of individualised consideration is important for eradicating mistrust and increasing employee motivation. Further, the author argued that increasing staff motivation requires leaders who can stimulate intellectual abilities of their subordinates as proposed in Burn's (1978).
Based on the Schein's (1985) argument that leadership and organisational culture are two sides of the

same coin, the author discussed the role of different cultural models in promoting organisational performance. In this regard, the author argued that there is no single cultural model suitable for promoting performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the author argued that improving performance in the Municipality requires competent and qualified leaders with the ability to integrate different elements of available cultural models to create an appropriate organisational culture for the City of Tshwane.

6.5. Conclusion

This chapter has effectively answered the question 1.4.3 that seeks to identify relevant strategies for augmenting the current organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In answering this question, the author interrogated literature to understand different theories of organisational culture from the perspectives of prominent scholars (Denison, 1990; Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1983; Schein, 1985). Understanding the key attributes of organisational culture embedded in these theories exposed the author to the intertwined reality of organisational culture and leadership. Armed with this realisation and drawing from the empirical results of this study, the author was able to construct the prevailing organisational culture in the City of Tshwane. This construction depicts Tshwane as an organisational with an inward-looking and self-serving culture that resonates with the Competing Values Framework presented in Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983). To explain key manifestations of this culture, the author drew from Schein's (1985) principle of underlying assumptions to highlight political interference and self-serving motives as underlying factors that sustain nepotism, lack of accountability, and incompetence that define the existing culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, the author drew from Denison's (1990) principle of involvement and mission-orientation to explain lack of participation in decision-making and its consequence of creating a hostile environment characterised by lack of a shared vision.

After determining the organisational culture in the City of Tshwane, the author used empirical findings of this study to explore relevant leadership attributes for addressing characteristics of the inward-looking and self-serving bureaucratic culture. Therefore, the author interrogated literature to understand different dynamics of leadership. Doing so allowed the author to suggest transformational leadership as the best approach to address the weaknesses underlying the current organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the author used four components of transformational leadership (Burns, 1978; Baas, 1991) to advocate for competent leaders with requisite ethical and moral standards to transform the current organisational culture in the City of Tshwane. Using the principles of idealized influence and inspirational leadership, the author argued that transformation of the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality requires leaders with the ability to determine the vision and clearly articulate how it can be achieved. The author

further argued that visionary leaders are critical for developing a coherent vision that was found to be lacking in the Municipality. In addition, the ability to articulate how the vision should be achieved relates directly to the need for leadership that is capable for improving the problem of communication that was found to be the reason for lack of a shared vision in the City of Tshwane. Elaborating on the characteristics of the kind of leaders required for turning things around in Tshwane, the author points to the need for leaders with the ability to inspire employees to achieve organisational goals while also realising their personal and career goals. The need to motivate employees to fulfil their career goals is important in light of the empirical evidence pointing to lack of opportunities for career advancement in the City of Tshwane. In addition, the author argues that inspiring employees requires leaders who act in a professional and ethical manner within the established rules and regulations. This argument comes against the empirical finding that employees in the City of Tshwane were demotivated by nepotism arising from political interference in recruitment processes.

The last aspect of transformational leadership discussed in this chapter relates to individualised consideration. Based on the review of different theories of organisational culture, the author connects this principle to the human relations model proposed in the Competing Values Framework. Therefore, the author argued that the City of Tshwane needs leader with the ability to pay special attention to human relations. As literature points out, paying attention to the needs of the employees is critical for building trust and loyalty (Avolio, Yammarino, & Bass, 1991). The need to build trust and loyalty is necessary to address lack of trust that was found to be a problem within the City of Tshwane.

In a nutshell, the author argues that transformational leadership is the most appropriate strategy for addressing mistrust, lack of accountability, and lack of motivation underlying the culture of bureaucracy in the City of Tshwane. However, the author argues that transformational leadership requires high levels of competencies and the current crop of leadership appointed on political grounds, may not possess adequate qualifications and competencies to effectively perform key functions and roles of transformational leaders proposed in this chapter. Another important observation is that different attributes of organisational culture embedded in different cultural models discussed in this chapter are not mutually exclusive. While bureaucracy is the dominant culture in the Municipality, there are some aspects such as being a customer-oriented organisation, that are associated with key principles of market-oriented culture. In addition, the existence of strategic documents such as the IDP point to a goal-oriented and mission-oriented organisation. Therefore, the author's description of Tshwane as a bureaucratic and inward-oriented organisation does not mean that the author is oblivious of some positive aspects associated with other cultural models.

CHAPTER 7 - TOWARDS A MODEL FOR IMPROVING PERFORMANCE IN TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY

As mentioned in Section 1.3, the purpose of this study is to use organisational culture as a framework for deriving performance improvement model for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To achieve this objective, the author presented empirical results to answer the research questions stipulated in Section 1.4. So far, factors that enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality have been presented in chapter four. In addition, chapter five presented empirical evidence demonstrating how bureaucracy affect performance of the Municipality while strategies for addressing manifestations of bureaucracy were detailed in chapter six. Therefore, this chapter answers the last research question of determining theoretical and empirical assumptions and values relevant for deriving a model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In doing so, the first part of this chapter presents theoretical perspectives on the concept of organisational culture. This presentation lays the foundation for a detailed interrogation of key tenets of theories, models, and frameworks of organisational culture in relation to the empirical findings of this study. This interrogation is critical for identifying specific assumptions, beliefs, and values relevant for addressing key attributes of bureaucracy identified through the empirical journey underpinning this study. These weaknesses include lack of accountability, mistrust, incompetence, and lack of employee motivation.

In the previous chapters, the author argued that lack of accountability, incompetence, mistrust and lack of employee motivation as manifestations of poor performance emanating from entrenched politicised bureaucracy. Therefore, in advancing this argument, Section 7.4 draws from empirical solutions suggested in chapter six to derive a suitable model for addressing manifestation of poor performance outlined above. Chapter six locates transformational leadership at the centre of all empirical solutions proposed to improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, this model equally positions leadership at the pillar that holds the key elements of the proposed model together. As noted in Section 7.4, this model draws from different theories of organisational culture and its structural design is inspired by ideas drawn from Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework. After presenting the model, the author concludes the chapter in Section 7.5

7.1. Theoretical perspectives on organisational culture

Studies of organisational culture are varied and ubiquitous leading to a plethora of instruments, models, frameworks, and theories used for analysing different aspects of organisational culture at different levels. To reduce the confusion that may come with the diversity in approaches and tools for measuring organisational culture, Martin (2001) classified organisational culture research into three perspectives namely, integration, differentiation, and fragmentation. This classification scheme has brought clarity in an area that otherwise defies easy conceptualisation (Mumby, 1994). With the clarity provided in this regard, the author argues that scholars who follow the integration perspective describe organisational culture as a pattern of shared assumptions constructed on consensus and passed from one group member to another. Integrationists tend to be criticised for overlooking conflict and focusing on manifestations of a culture that have mutually consistent interpretations (Maximini, 2018). They are also criticised for overstating managerial influence in changing the culture (Smerek, 2010). Methodologically, this approach is criticised for excluding data that contradicts the shared conception of culture (Maximini, 2018). Despite these limitations, integration studies can alleviate the anxieties associated with ignorance and confusion that characterised organisational culture research (Martin, 2001). For this reason, this study applies an integration perspective. Most importantly, the model proposed in this chapter centres on leadership as a key attribute for transforming organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In light of this, the author specifically applies Schein's (2004) theory of organisational culture as the main framework for defining the role of leadership in creating and managing organisational culture in the City of Tshwane. In addition to being appropriate for this study, Schein is probably the most influential scholar within the integration perspective (Richter & Koch, 2004). To enhance the effectiveness of the proposed model, the author draws from key elements of transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) to complement Schein's ideas.

Even though the author settled on integration perspective, it is important to provide a brief overview of key tenets of differentiation and fragmentation perspectives. Outlining the theoretical principles of these approaches is important because the last chapter described the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as a product of assumptions and values drawn from multiple cultural orientations. Starting with differentiation, the author argues that it is a direct critique of integration in that it rejects the notion of the organisation-wide consensus and attributes less influence on leaders as creators and managers of organisational culture. Specifically, these researchers are sensitive to non-leader sources of cultural content and believe in multiple constructions of culture that coexist in organisations (Parker, 2000). The empirical findings of this study support the notion of multiple and coexisting cultures. However, its main weakness is that it downplays the significance of leadership as a critical ingredient in transforming organisational culture. For this reason, integration perspective remains the dominant view (Martin, 2001) hence the most preferred in this study.

The last perspective is fragmentation, which according to Martin (2001) adopts a critical posture instead of taking an explicit position. This perspective argues that consensus is temporary and issue based. Elaborating on this, Martin and Frost (1996) posit that under this perspective, there are short-term affinities among individuals that are quickly replaced by a different pattern of affinities as new issues arise. Even though a fragmentation approach may appear neutral, Maximini (2018) argues that it places ambiguity, rather than clarity, at the core of culture. In other words, it interprets culture as an ambiguous construction that changes frequently in line with individual interests. Due to its lack of a clear stance, this perspective is inappropriate to interpret political assumptions that shape the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The next Section presents models, theories, and frameworks that follow integration perspective, which as mentioned above, is aligned to Schein (1985) and Burns (1978) ideas. Interrogating different theories, frameworks, and models of organisational culture is important for revealing assumptions, values, and principles that are relevant for addressing weaknesses of bureaucracy presented in chapter six.

7.1.1. Frameworks and models for analysing organisation culture

Tierney (1988) conducted a study on organisational culture within the higher education sector in America to develop a framework for diagnosing culture in colleges and universities. Rooted in the integration perspective, this framework emerged as a tool to address managerial problems confronting institutions of higher learning. From the case study analysis of one institution, the author developed six concepts for understanding organisational culture in institutions of higher learning. These include environment, which looks at interface between the organisation and its external environment. The second is about defining the mission and using it for decision-making. Related to the issue of mission is strategy, which is concerned with how decisions are made and who makes the decisions. The fourth element deals with the question of what constitutes information and how it is generated and disseminated. The fifth aspect related to use of information is socialisation, which answers the question of how cultural attributes are passed from one person to another in the organisation. The issue of cultural socialisation is derived from Schein's (1985) argument that one of the main functions of leaders is to use their values and assumptions to develop organisational culture and embed it within the organisation. The last issue is about leadership, which relates to the question of how organisations choose leadership and what it expects from leaders. The question of how organisations choose leaders is consistent with attributes of leadership developed by Burns (1978) and expanded by Baas (1991).

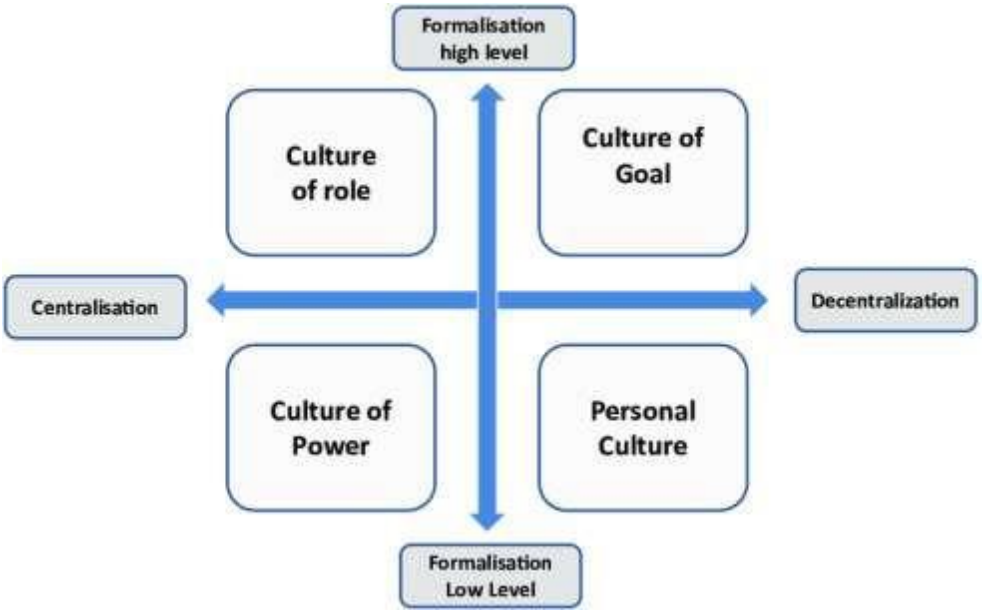
By his own admission, Tierney (1988) argues that although this model provides managers and researchers with a schema to diagnose their own organisation, its validity remain questionable because it is a product of a single case study analysis. In addition, the author argues that the

proposed schema identifies leadership and socialisation as important attributes but fails to define attributes of leadership required for creating appropriate organisational culture. In support of this argument, Smerek (2010) maintains that Tierney uses culture to describe nearly every aspect of organisational life, without linking the interpretations to deeper assumptions found in Schein. In concurrence with this criticism, Tierney (1988) mentions that his was an initial attempt to establish a framework for describing and evaluating various dimensions of organisational culture. This calls for more empirical research to explore each aspect expressed in Tierney's (1988) schematic outline of cultural dynamics. In view of these limitations, this model is not appropriate for this study. The main limitation that rules out the relevance of this schematic outline is that it presents leadership as an important aspect in the construction of organisational culture. However, it does not identify specific attributes of leadership required for this purpose. Most importantly, it not clear as to what type of leadership is useful for influencing organisational culture.

The above limitations notwithstanding, Tierney (1988) identifies the following strengths of his schematic outline. First, the model recognises the significance of mission and strategy as foundational pillars that embody organisational values and principles. On this issue, the schema is consistent with Denison's (1990) principle of mission and aligns to the cultural dimension of goal orientation expressed Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework. Second, the model underscores the importance of information in decision-making and aligns with Schein's (1985) view that communication is a tool for socialising cultural values and principles within organisations. Most importantly, Last, the author argues that Tierney (1988) provides a simple and clear framework that can assist researchers to ask direct questions to obtain relevant information to understand different aspects of organisational culture.

In addressing Tierney's (1988) inadequate recognition of underlying assumptions and values underpinning culture as a concept, the author points to Harrison (1972) who is one of the first to create a cultural model based on empirical data (Maximini, 2018). This model argues that organisational behaviour and its relationship with the external environment are functions of four underlying ideologies namely, power orientation, role orientation, task orientation, and person orientation. Figure 7.1 shows how these ideologies influence the four types of organisational culture.

Figure 7.1: Harrison model of culture



Harrison (1972)

In a later publication, Harrison (1987) made changes to the initial configuration of ideological factors underpinning organisational culture. For example, task orientation was changed to achievement culture and person orientation to support culture. As Harrison and Stokes (1992) point out, support culture is based on mutual trust between employees and the organisation. This reconfiguration is similar to the clan culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2006) or human relations model as referred to in other in the literature. This cultural orientation is based on family values and drives on close relations between employees and management across all levels of the organisation. In a supportive culture, leaders and followers collaborate towards achieving a common goal by shared values that define expectations and behaviour. As Harrison (1972) points out, such values include helping each other, caring for each other, and influencing each other through example. The notion of influencing each other through example is an important element of transformational leadership expressed in Burns (1978) and (Bass, 1985). In support of the views articulated by the pioneers of transformational leadership, Wiseman, Ngirande and Setati (2017) argue that the values of compassion embraced in the support culture motivate employees to work hard towards accomplishment of organisational goals leading to high performance. Even though this model is suitable for small companies (Harrison, 1972), it suggest important values for addressing the problem of low staff morale that was found to be one of the underlying factors of poor performance in the City of Tshwane.

Another ideology describes what Harrison (1972) refers to as the role culture. This model describes organisations that value orderly administration regulated by laws and procedures that define a hierarchical order with clearly defined roles and responsibilities. This culture represents key

principles of bureaucracy espoused in Weber (1947) and reflected in Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework. Corroborating the principle of security of tenure propagated in Weber (1947), Harrison and Stokes (1992) argue that role culture protects from job losses thereby creating stability. As mentioned in Section 2.6.8, stability is the main principle of the hierarchy culture reflected in the Competing Values Framework. Although role culture promotes job security, the empirical findings of this study revealed that the sense of job security comes with lack of accountability. This is demonstrated by permanent and pensionable employees who were unreceptive to implementation of performance management system in the City of Tshwane. The empirical findings of this study are also inconsistent with the notion that role-oriented organisations have highly formalised processes and regulations that prevent abuse of centralised power (Maximini, 2018). On this issue, the study found that political interference has created a situation where people abuse power through different acts of nepotism and corruption.

Closely related to the role-oriented culture is the power-oriented culture, which describes organisations where those with power strive to have absolute control over subordinates. Power is centred on an individual or few individuals in the organisation and the success is dependent on the leader (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). This means that organisations that embrace this culture do not value teamwork and participation in decision-making. For this reason, this type of culture is not appropriate in public institutions such as the City of Tshwane where participation in decision-making is provided for under collective bargaining.

The last type of organisational culture identified in Harrison (1972) is the task-oriented culture, later renamed achievement culture (Harrison & Stokes, 1992). This type of culture describes organisations that are performance driven. Denison (1990) describes such organisations as mission-oriented while Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) define them as goal-oriented. Under this culture, organisational structures, functions, and activities are evaluated in terms of their contribution to defined goals and objectives (Maximini, 2018). Based on the values of evaluation embedded in this culture, the author associates this culture with the key principles of New Public Management that were introduced in the City of Tshwane. For example, the empirical findings of this study revealed monitoring and evaluation as part of the performance management regime introduced under the auspices of New Public Management. Even though the City of Tshwane has legislative and administrative tools that align it to the principles of achievement-oriented organisations, this study established that these tools are not effectively implemented. The main reason for this was found to be unfettered political interference that has entrenched incompetence that impedes effective delivery of services. Therefore, the City of Tshwane operates within what the author refers to as politicised bureaucratic model.

In sum, Harrison (1972) provides a framework for classifying organisations in terms of ideological underpinnings that determine their cultural orientations. The significance of this framework is that it sets the tone for contemporary theories and frameworks of organisational culture. For instance, the four cultural orientations described in Harrison's (1972) original model are elaborated in subsequent theoretical frameworks such as the Competing Values Framework. In addition, the notion of achievement-oriented culture resonates with key principles of New Public Management. Most importantly, this model articulates important values that informed key elements of transformational leadership articulated in Burns (1978) and expanded in Baas (1985). Therefore, Harrison (1972) articulates important values required for transforming the current culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

A decade later, Deal and Kennedy (1982) identified risk and feedback as critical dimensions underlying corporate culture. These dimensions translate into four types of corporate culture described as the process culture, the work hard/play hard culture, the tough guy/macho culture, and the bet-your-company culture. These cultural models are derived from an underlying assumption that companies face different market realities depending on different factors such as products, competition, customers, technology, government influence, and so on. This assumption means that for Deal and Kennedy (1982), corporate culture is shaped by outside influences rather than by individuals within organisations. This assumption is contrary to Schein's (1985) emphasis that leaders shape organisational culture based on their personal values and influence followers to embrace it.

To explain the significance of risk and feedback as key dimensions of corporate culture, the author points to Deal and Kennedy's (2000:208) conceptualisation of process culture as "a world of little or no feedback where employees find it hard to measure what they do; instead, they concentrate on how it's done". Elaborating on this definition, the authors argue that how neatly and completely workers do something is often more important than what they do. This means that employees pay more attention to getting the process and the details right without necessarily measuring the actual outcome. Deal and Kennedy (1982) argue that the process culture involves low risk and slow pace of feedback. The empirical findings of this study show that the City of Tshwane is characterised by little feedback and high risk. For example, the participants' perception of lack of consultation and poor communication indicate a situation of little feedback and engagement between staff and management. On the other hand, while bureaucracy provides stability that may reduce risk, the findings show that political interference creates high risk of corruption and poor performance.

Coming to the work hard/play hard culture, Deal and Kennedy (2000) describe this culture as the world of small risks and quick, often intensive feedback. Employees themselves take few risks; however, the feedback on how well they are performing is almost immediate. As the authors point out, this culture recognises that one person alone cannot make the company.

This means that the work hard/play hard culture values teamwork. However, the authors argue that contests among employees are common here, as they drive everyone to reach new heights. This means that the model may promote unhealthy competition as opposed to a collaborative and supportive culture that make teams more effective.

On the opposite side of the work hard/play hard culture lies the tough-guy culture which according to Deal and Kennedy (2000), contains a world of individualists who enjoy risk and who get quick feedback on their decisions. The authors describe this culture as an all-or-nothing culture where successful employees are the ones who enjoy excitement and work very hard to be stars. The author argues that although the elements of high risk and speedy feedback are associated with high performance environment, the model does not value teamwork. suggests a high-performance environment, the individualistic nature of the model is counterproductive. Given its high pace, the tough-guy culture creates a difficult environment for individuals who blossom slowly.

As presented in Figure 7.2, the last type of culture is known as the bet-your-company characterised by high risk and slow feedback. Because the need to make the right decision is so great, the cultural elements evolve such that values are long-term focused and there is a collective belief in the need to plan, prepare and perform due diligence at all stages of decision making (Deal & Kennedy, 2000).

Figure 7.2: Deal and Kennedy culture model



Unlike Harrison (1972) but similar to Schein (1985), Deal and Kennedy (1982) identify elements that play a critical role in creating organisational culture. These include values, heroes, rites and rituals, and communication networks. The importance of values and beliefs in creating cultural identify is well articulated in Schein's (1985) three levels of culture. The first level consists of underlying assumptions, perceptions, feelings, and thoughts. Schein (2004) describes culture as a set of basic assumptions that define meaning, reactions, and actions that people take in various kinds of situations. The actions and beliefs derived from underlying assumption constitute the second level of culture known as espoused beliefs and values. According to Schein (2004), espoused beliefs and values should be congruent with the underlying assumptions and articulated into an operating philosophy that defines the identity and mission of the group. Deal and Kennedy (2000) refer to espoused beliefs and values as rituals, practices, or gestures that employees do on a regular basis. Explaining the importance of rites and rituals, Lunenburg (2011) states that organisations use rites and rituals to recognise achievement and reward employees accordingly. Even though the focus of this study was not necessarily to establish rites and rituals practiced in the City of Tshwane, the empirical evidence shows that employees were disgruntled and demotivated. These may be indications of inadequate recognition of the efforts of employees.

The element of heroic figures is about employees and managers who embody organisational values. These people serve as role models and inspire others to uphold organisational values. The notion of heroism is embraced in Burn's (1978) theory of transformational leadership. This shows that Deal and Kennedy's influence extends to the field of leadership. This is not surprising given the interSectionality between leadership and organisational culture. Deal and Kennedy's influence is also spread through the concept of communication network which describes mechanisms through which cultural values are protected and entrenched. Specifically, Deal and Kennedy (1982) identifies individuals who should play a key role in building and maintaining an organisation's culture. Identifying custodians and champions of organisational values resonates with the concept of idealised influence espoused in Burns' (1978) theory of transformational leadership.

Organisational history is another important element embedded in Deal and Kennedy's model of corporate culture. In this regard, the authors argue that a shared narrative of the past lays the foundation for corporate culture. Elaborating on this, the authors state that the traditions of the past keep people committed to the core values that the organisation was built on. In the case of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the study revealed historical events that impede development of a coherent organisational culture anchored on shared identify and values. For example, the research participants mentioned that the amalgamation of neighbouring local municipalities to create a Metropolitan Municipality in 2000 resulted in a disjointed culture.

The following extracts explains the views of one participant regarding historical events that shape the current culture in the Municipality:

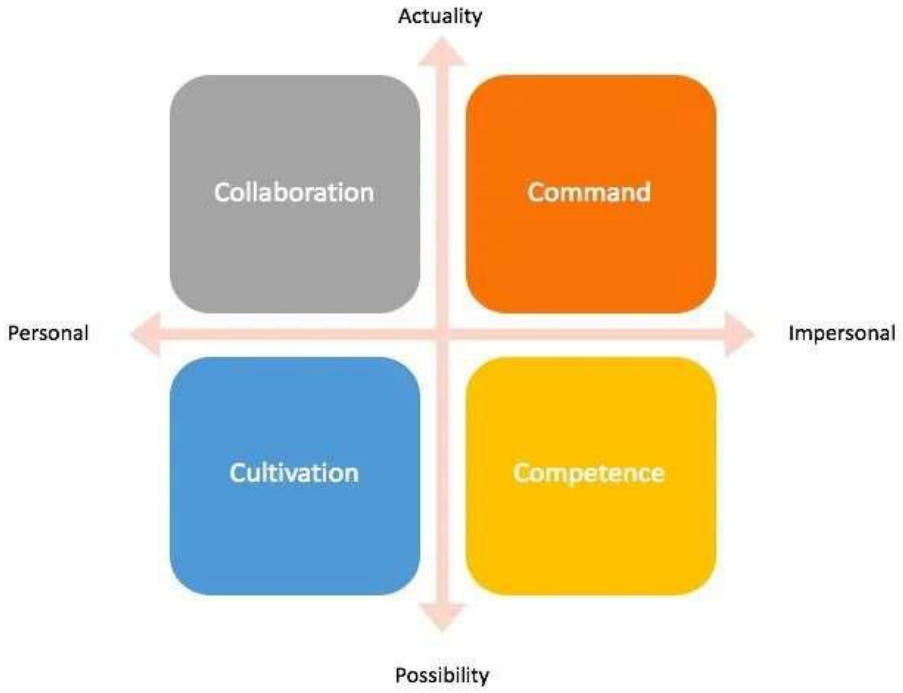
> *There was inadequate recognition that the merged entities had different socio-economic backgrounds and different orientations and attitudes to work. Therefore, there was no attempt to forge a uniform culture. As a result, the Municipality was not prepared to address underlying differences that resurfaced along the way.*

Deal and Kennedy's (2000) offer relevant lessons regarding elements of organisational culture that may enhance researchers understanding of important historical events that may influence organisational culture. For example, the historical narrative provided above confirms the argument advanced earlier that organisational culture is shaped by external forces. However, this does not mean the author is paying less attention to the significant role of individuals in determining the organisational culture. The second lesson is that the process culture as defined in Deal and Kennedy (1982) represents hierarchical culture expressed in the Competing Values Framework.

Schneider (1999) developed a 2x2 matrix that describes four types of organisational culture with similar features to cultural models expressed in Harrison (1972) and Deal and Kennedy (2000). According to Maximini (2018), this model emerged out of a desire to reconcile the two models discussed above and develop a generally acceptable and universal corporate culture model. The outcome of this reconciliation is a model anchored on two dimensions of decision-making. As reflected in Figure 3.7, one end of the spectrum represents personal approach to decision-making while the other represents impersonal approach to decision-making. Personal approach to decision-making involves a situation where opinion, gut feeling, subjectivity, and emotions form the basis for decision-making. On the contrary, impersonal decision-making uses data and facts as the basis for decision-making. The key tenet of this model is that decision-making has a direct bearing on organisational culture because it influences personal behaviour and attitudes.

The second dimension relates to the focus of the organisation, which also has two dimensions. One dimension is actuality, which according to Schneider (1999) describes organisations that focus on existing conditions or facts and try to make the best out of them. In other words, this represents organisations that are conscious of their environment and how it affects performance within existing realities. On the other hand, there are organisations that pay less attention to existing realities and focus more on harnessing unknown possibilities. This attribute represents organisations that have a high appetite for risk as described in the Harrison model. As reflected in Figure 7.3, organisational approach to decision-making as well as its overall strategic focus, give rise to four dimensions of organisational culture namely, command, collaboration, cultivation, and competence.

Figure 7.3: Schneider's culture model



Adapted from Schneider (1999)

Before discussing the four dimensions, it is important to reflect on the two dimensions of decision-making with particular focus on the City of Tshwane as the research setting. In this regard, the study found that in line with bureaucracy, decision-making in Tshwane is hierarchical and slow. As the research participants pointed out, this bureaucratic decision-making makes it difficult for the Municipality to provide effective service delivery. In addition, the study established low level of employee participation in decision-making, which leads to conflicts, mistrust, and lack of cooperation between management and employees on performance management issues. Last, the study revealed low but improving use of evidence-based decision-making when it comes to strategic planning. However, use of evidence for individual performance management is very weak because performance appraisals and promotions are based on political considerations, personal relations, and emotions thereby reinforcing mistrust. On the issue of focus, the study revealed that Tshwane has adequate mechanisms for performance management including a legislated planning framework. However, the study revealed that the Municipality pays attention to politics at the expense of service delivery to the detriment of service delivery.

Back to the four dimensions, the author kicks off the discussion with cultivation, which is a product of mixing personal decision-making with attention to possibility reflected on the bottom left corner of the grid. Cultivation pays attention to the growth potential and strives to realise what is possible but does not exist yet. The main characteristic of this culture is trust. Therefore, it relies

more on personal relationships as sources of information for decision-making rather than facts and scientific evidence. Therefore, organisations that embrace this culture are emotional and focus on empowerment and growth of employees. Organisations that drive under this model include religious enterprises (Schneider, 1999).

Contrary to the key principle of trust embraced in this model, the findings of this study revealed lack of trust in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, its reliance on opinion, gut feelings, and opinion makes this culture inappropriate for public institutions where decision-making is supposed to be based on facts and scientific evidence. This notwithstanding, the study revealed that in most cases, decision-making in public institutions are influenced by politics not scientific evidence. Despite its irrelevance in this study, this model is consistent with the Harrisons' support-oriented culture. Therefore, the author argues that cultivation is more suitable for small companies that have strong family bonds (Harrison, 1972). Related to cultivation is the culture of collaboration. The two cultures share similar personal values of trust, teamwork, and support and use a personal approach to decision-making. However, their differences lie in the focus continuum where collaboration leans more towards actuality while cultivation is on the opposite side of possibility. Collaboration and command are also different from competence and command cultures that rely on impersonal approach to information for decision-making.

As presented in Figure 3.7, the cultivation culture is diagonally opposite to command culture. This means that the two cultures differ significantly regarding the dimensions of decision-making and attention. The command culture is the culmination of impersonal decision-making and actuality attention (the top right corner of the grid above). This culture fosters reacting to problems at hand without wasting time in consensus-building activities (Schneider, 1999).However, this culture is very hierarchical. Therefore, it is not clear how it reacts quickly to problems when proponents of New Public Management point to the inflexibility and slowness of hierarchical culture. In addition, Harrison's (1972) model identified inflexibility and lack of responsiveness as the main weakness of this culture. Further, the findings of this study go against Schneider's (1999) assertion that the command culture is quick to respond to problems.

In describing the competence culture, Schneider heavily refers to McClelland's (1961) definition of achievement as the need to compete against a standard of excellence. This means that the competence culture is competitive, thus Schneider (1999) argues that being superior or the best is paramount in competence culture. This culture values knowledge and information and as depicted in Figure 3.7, it denotes flexibility and does not rely on emotions and personal feelings as sources of information for decision-making. According to Maximini (2018), organisations that fit within

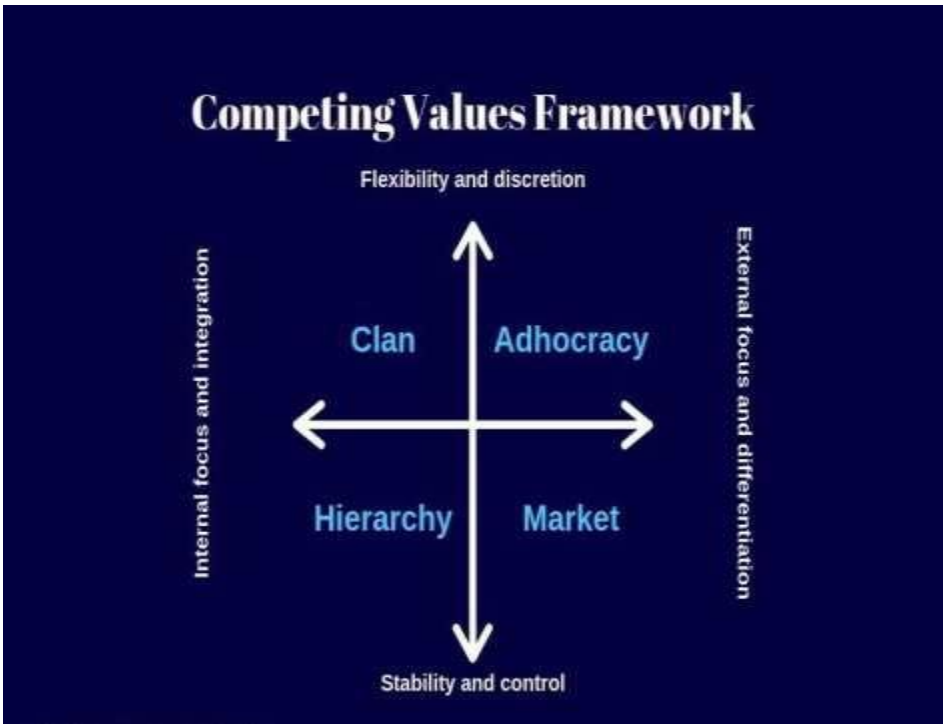
this culture include universities, research and development organisations, consulting firms, accounting firms, think tanks, and engineering construction firms. The author argues that public institutions should be added in the list of organisations that embody competence culture. This argument is based on the finding that politicised bureaucracy has eroded competence in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As a result, the Municipality has a pool of senior managers with inadequate skills to perform their service delivery duties. For this reason, competence culture is consistent with key principles of New Public Management, which forms part of the conceptual framework underlying this study.

Generally, Schneider (1999) provides a useful framework that outlines different dimensions of organisational culture and specific factors that influence them. However, presenting each dimension as independent creates an impression that assumptions and values underlying each type of organisational culture are static. This assumption goes against the findings of this study, which revealed that one organisation can have values that overlap across various dimensions of organisational culture albeit in varying degree. For example, this model fails to recognise that an effective organisational culture requires complementarity between competence and collaboration, which are pitted in opposite directions thereby creating an impression that the two cannot co-exist. Despite these limitations, Schneider (1999) recognises the power of decision-making and strategic focus in shaping organisational culture. In this regard, the author associates impersonal use of information as a critical value in maintaining the stability of organisational culture while personal use of information is critical in ensuring shared assumptions and values within organisations. In terms of focus, Schneider's notion of actuality provides an important lesson that some organisations are more risk averse and prefer to work within known existing conditions. On the other hand, the notion of possibility denotes organisations that are more externally focused and willing to take risks.

Schneider provides a questionnaire consisting of 20 items to classify organisations into the four types of organisational culture se into this culture model. However, he concedes that the questionnaire is not scientifically validated. In search of reliable instruments for assessment of organisational culture, the author points to the Organisational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). This instrument is based on the Competing Values Framework (CVF), a theoretical model that is now the dominant framework in the world for assessing organisational culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). The question of what factors define organisational effectiveness has been of interest to researchers for a very long time. Thus, Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) consolidated a range of indicators for organisational effectiveness that had been developed by other researchers into four clusters underpinned by two dimensions.

The first dimension consists of two elements with flexibility, which describes organisations that are adaptable and innovative on one hand and stability, which defines organisations that are predictable and mechanistic on the other. Examples of flexible companies include Google or Nike while universities, government agencies, and conglomerates such as Boeing, represent stability (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Based on these dimensions as well as the empirical findings of this study, the author classified Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as a stable and predictable entity in line with the argument that government entities are stable, predictable, and mechanistic. The second dimension differentiates companies in terms of focus with some companies described as being internally oriented while others have an external orientation. Similar to decision-making and strategic focus described in Deal and Kennedy's model, the continuum of flexibility vs stability and the scale of strategic focus give rise to four quadrants that represent four types of organisational cultures namely, clan culture, market culture, adhocracy culture, and hierarchy culture. The values underpinning these cultures represent the opposite or competing assumptions (Maximini, 2018). Therefore, they produce quadrants that are also contradictory or competing on the diagonal (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Figure 7.4 depicts the competitive nature of values underlying organisational culture.

Figure 7.4: The Competing Values Framework



Adapted from Cameron and Quinn (2011)

Hierarchy culture represents bureaucratic governments characterised by rules and regulations as described in Weber (1947). The rules and regulations are used as tools for ensuring integration and coordination as well as mechanisms for maintaining uniformity, order and control. Because of the orderly structure, hierarchy culture follows clear lines of decision-making, communication and accountability. As Cameron and Quinn (2011) point out, organisations that embrace these values are stable, predictable, and efficient. For many reasons, this culture is relevant for this study. First, hierarchy recognises the role of leaders in maintaining the efficiency and stability. However, in the case of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the study established that when leadership lacks necessary competencies, the hierarchy model fails. Second, the hierarchy culture emphasises effective communication and accountability as performance enablers. In this regard, the findings of this study revealed that hierarchy culture does not succeed in an environment characterised by poor communication and weak accountability mechanisms. Last, technical knowledge and expertise is one of the fundamental principles of bureaucracy articulated in Weber (1947) and reinforced in the hierarchy culture. In this regard, hierarchy model provides a useful framework for understanding factors that leads to incompetence and shortage of adequate skills in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In view of the above, it is clear that the hierarchy culture provides a framework for analysing factors that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

On the opposite site of a stable assumption of the hierarchical culture is the market-oriented culture. Organisations that uphold a market-oriented culture are oriented toward the external environment instead of internal affairs (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). This means that market- oriented organisations embrace principles of NPM that include use of external agents in the delivery of public goods and services. In the case of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, this study found out that NPM principles are applied for measuring individual performance towards organisational goals and objectives. However, the effectiveness of these principles in impeded by unfettered political interference and incompetence. This notwithstanding, the market-oriented culture is useful for elevating the role of leadership in facilitating achievement of results. For this reason, values entrenched in market culture provide insights that may be useful for constructing a performance improvement model for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Another type of organisational culture reflected in Figure 7.4 is the clan culture. Also known as collaboration culture (Schneider, 1999), this culture promotes family-like values described in Schneider (1999) and Harrison's (1972) supportive culture. These values include teamwork, loyalty, and empowerment of employees. This means that leaders hold the organisation together by loyalty and tradition, which leads to a high commitment (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) and the main function of leadership is to ensure teamwork, participation, and consensus (Maximini, 2018). With particular reference to the findings of this study, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is weak on these values

and this weakness manifested in mistrust and lack of motivation. Therefore, the clan culture presents useful insights on relevant assumptions and values that may improve trust and motivation in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. However, the downside of this culture is that it promotes consensus instead of a clearly defined decision-making chain of command. This may present challenges in situations where a crucial decision must be made quickly because consensus is not always possible. Its reliance on strong personal relations may make it dysfunctional if there is a split between employees on an important issue. Although this type of culture has been successful in Japanese firms (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) it may not be appropriate in public institutions, which by design follow a strictly hierarchical structured.

Adhocracy is the last form of organisation represented in the Competing Values Framework (CVF). The word adhocracy comes from ad hoc, which means something created or done for a particular purpose as necessary. According to Cameron and Quinn (2011), the main purpose of an adhocracy is to foster adaptability, flexibility, and creativity if uncertainty, ambiguity, and information overload are typical. Apart from being temporary, adhocracy culture may exist within an organisation with a different dominant culture. For example, Quinn and Cameron (1983) found an adhocracy subunit culture existing within a hierarchical organisation in New York. This strengthens the author's argument that cultures overlap to the extent that one organisation can display multiple cultures at varying degrees. Organisations that embrace adhocracy values include companies in the aerospace industry, software development, think - tank consulting, and filmmaking. These companies are similar to those described in Harrison (1972) under the person- oriented culture. Given the characteristics of adhocracy as defined in Quinn and Cameron (2011) and implied in Harrison (1972), the author argues that it is not appropriate of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, which is entrenched in stable and predictable bureaucracy.

In sum, the CVF offers a reliable empirical model that allows the author to understand different dynamics of organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As its founders point out, the four quadrants (Clan, Adhocracy, Hierarchy, Market) match precisely the main organisational forms that have developed in organisational science. Most importantly, they also match key management theories about organisational success, approaches to organisational quality, leadership roles, and management skills (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Despite these benefits, the CVF argues that values underpinning organisational culture are distinct and competitive. This argument does not apply in the context of this study, which found multiple and co-existing cultures in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This finding is supported by evidence showing that adhocracy co-existed with hierarchy in another organisation in New York (Quinn & Cameron, 1983).

Denison model of organisational culture is also one of the most popular approaches for analysing organisational culture. Similar to the Competing Values Framework, Denison model is a product of research using a survey questionnaire consisting of 60 to measure how the four traits of mission, adaptability, involvement, and consistency affect organisational performance as measured by achievement of goals, employee satisfaction, profitability, innovation and customer satisfaction. The results of the survey revealed that culture has a direct impact on organisational performance. In order to determine the relevance of this model in this study, the author interrogates the four traits of culture. First, the mission shapes the identity of the organisation. Specifically, the mission provides clarity on the strategic intent, goals and objectives, and the vision. Second, consistency relates to the creation and implementation of shared system of a shared system of beliefs, values and symbols that are widely understood by members of an organisation. Key elements under consistency include shared beliefs and values, consensus on key issues, as well as coordination and integration. The third aspect of involvement describes organisations that encourage employee involvement and create a sense of ownership and responsibility. This trait consists of teamwork, empowerment, and developing capabilities. The last trait deals with adaptability, which involves responding to external environment as necessary. Key aspects in this trait include creating adaptive strategies, timely response to customer needs, and organisational learning.

Based on the explanation provided above, the author argues that all the four traits of organisational culture are applicable in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, the study found out that some important values such as openness are outlined in key strategic documents. However, the empirical findings of this study revealed lack of clarity regarding on what vision was driving strategic operations in the Municipality. This is a clear indication that the Municipality did not have a shared vision. On the positive side, the findings revealed that employees were familiar with the goals and objectives of the Municipality as outlined in the IDP. In terms of consistency, the study established lack of a shared value system in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, the study revealed that employees perceived management to be untrustworthy. As a result, there was hostility between management and employees as evidenced by employees' refusal to support the performance management system for permanent employees. With regard to the attribute of involvement, the study established inadequate participation of employees in decision- making.

In summary, the Denison model is appropriate for explaining factors that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, the trait of involvement came out through the revelation of inadequate participation of employees in decision-making. In addition, the issue of consistency was revealed through lack of a shared value system while the issue of political interference portrayed the Tshwane as an entity with strong internal focus. The Denison model is also useful for complementing existing models of organisational culture. In this regard, a combination of

mission and consistency represents stability as defined in Harrison (1972) as well as in Cameron and Quinn (2011). In addition, a strong internal focus has been linked to higher levels of quality and employee satisfaction similar to Harrison's (1972) supportive culture, Schneider's (1999) collaboration culture, as well as Cameron and Quinn's (2011) clan culture.

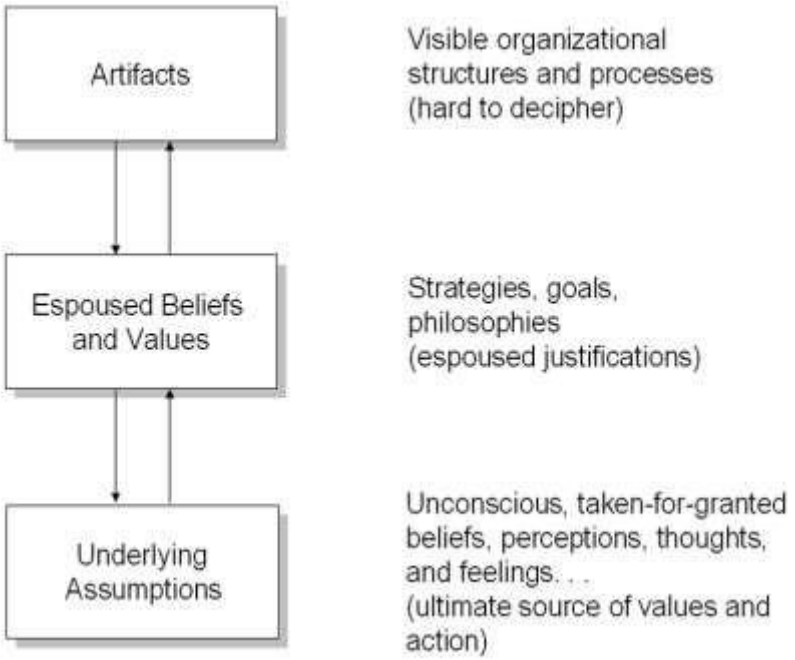
Schein (1985) describes organisational culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by the group as it attempts to solve its problems. Based on this definition, it is clear that the notion of assumptions and values is the heart and soul of organisational culture as defined in several models and frameworks of organisational culture discussed in this chapter. Elaborating on this aspect, Schein (2004) argues that members of the group share beliefs and values as they work together. In time, these beliefs and values are ingrained into the group members' subconscious minds and once they are accepted without debate, they become assumptions (Schein, 2004). The process embedding the beliefs and values and turning them into assumptions happens over a long time through a process Schein (2004; 1985) refers to as socialisation. In simple terms, socialisation means that once a pattern of beliefs, behaviour, and rituals has been established, it is transmitted to the group in a consistent manner such that even new members are taught the correct way of doing things in line with the established value system. The concept of socialisation gives rise to the notion of culture fit where members perceived to be holding different assumptions from those embedded in subconscious minds of the group members are ostracised from the group. In the second edition of Organisational Culture and Leadership Schein (2004) underscores the importance of leadership in creating and managing the culture of the organisation.

In terms of culture creation, Schein (2004) maintains that culture is created by shared experience, but it is the leader who initiates this process by imposing his or her beliefs, values, and assumptions at the outset. The process of managing culture involves socialising the beliefs, values, and assumptions of the leader into the rest of the group. To this end, Schein (2004) identifies six attributes of leadership that include how leaders react to incidents, how they allocate resources, how they reward staff, how they recruit, select, and promote staff, what they pay attention to, and how they teach or coach. Collectively, these attributes define the overall behaviour of the leader, which directly influence the perceptions, attitudes, and behaviour of the members of the group. Before discussing these behavioural attributes in the context of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, it is important to discuss the three levels of Schein's organisational culture.

The first level represents artifacts, which are physical manifestation of culture. These include vision, values and mission statements, organization charts, the physical workspace and executive offices, and dress codes, ceremonies and communication styles. In view of the behavioural attributes described above, the author adds them on the list of artifacts as they represent observable ways through which leaders interact with subordinates within the organisation. The second level is espoused beliefs

and values resulting from group learning. Group learning involves a process of applying and testing beliefs and values, discarding those that do not work, and adopting those that help the group to accomplish tasks or solve problems. Schein (2004) refers to this process as social validation. Once universally accepted within the group, espoused beliefs and values, which are in most cases unwritten, form the philosophy of the group such as the HP Way (Packard, Kirby, & Lewis, 1995), a philosophy entrenched in teamwork and collaboration. The last level of culture is the underlying assumptions described as beliefs and values that have been socially validated and widely acceptable to the members of the group. Values are accepted standards and principles that guide the behaviour of organisation members. Elaborating on this understanding, Lunenburg (2011) identifies two kinds of values namely, instrumental and terminal values. A terminal value is a desired outcome that organisation members seek to achieve while an instrumental value explains the desired mode of behaviour towards achieving desired organisational outcome. This means that underlying assumptions and values are important for defining organisational goals and objectives that are normally reflected in the cultural artifacts. In addition, underlying assumptions are a source of values and behaviour that guide the behaviour towards achievement of organisational goals and objectives. Figure 7.5 presents a hierarchy of key elements of organisational culture described in Schein (2004).

Figure 7.5: Three levels of organisational culture



Source: Schein (2004)

Based on the three levels of culture depicted in Figure 7.5, the author makes the following observations in relation to the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Starting with the artifacts, the Municipality has tools, systems and mechanisms that define its identify and operations. For example, vision 2030 is the main framework that drives the long-term vision of the Municipality while the IDP is the tool for implementation of this vision. These instruments are operationalised through Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP) as well as other administrative mechanisms including the performance management system. These strategic and operational tools represent visible processes that provides some limited understanding of how things are done in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. For instance, the vision and mission statements are not available on the website of the Municipality.

Another observable behaviour encountered during data collection is that people across different levels of the organisations did not respond to electronic communication. This initial encounter presents the Municipality as aloof and uncaring. Armed with these preliminary perceptions, the author applied the Schein's approach to understand the espoused beliefs and values as well as the basic assumptions underlying those beliefs and values. With regard to espoused beliefs and values, the study established lack of a shared belief and value system in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This is supported by empirical data showing that new members of the Municipality were not inducted on the beliefs and values of the organisation. For this reason, the research participants described Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as an entity with a distorted organisational culture. Last, the chronic instability makes it difficult for the leadership of the Municipality to develop its own set value system and socialise it within the Municipality. As a result, the study established that the Municipality does not have a coherent set of assumptions that influence the behaviour and attitudes of employees towards a pattern that identifies the way of doing things in the Municipality.

So far, the study has discussed different theories of organisational culture with the aim to identify a set of assumptions, beliefs, and values appropriate for improving the organisational culture in the City of Tshwane. Recalling from previous discussions, the empirical findings of this study led the author to a conclusion that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality has an inward-looking, self-serving culture entrenched in politics. The author went further to present lack of accountability, incompetence, low staff morale, and poor performance as key attributes underpinning this culture. Therefore, the discussion of different theories and models of organisational culture is a necessary exercise that allows the author to identify theoretical attributes of organisational culture. Subsequently, the theoretical attributes are constantly compared to empirical data properties to determine a set of assumptions beliefs, values, and principles that may improve organisational culture in the City of Tshwane.

7.1.2. Theoretical and empirical attributes underpinning organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

This Section presents assumptions, beliefs, values, and principles required for reconstructing organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. These items are generally defined as foundational attributes of organisational culture. Therefore, their determination answers the research question 1.4.4 that seeks to determine theoretical and empirical assumptions, beliefs, principles, and values relevant for improving performance in the City of Tshwane. In doing so, the author compared theoretical attributes of organisational culture discussed in Section 2.6.8 with the empirical data of this study. This comparison paved the way for developing an empirical layout of how the proposed model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should look like. To translate the mental conception of the performance improvement model into practice, the author interrogated different theories of leadership outlined in Section 2.6.9. During this interrogation, the author identified key attributes of leadership and compared them to the empirical categories that shape organisational culture in the City of Tshwane. Borrowing from Schein's (1985) description of organisational culture and leadership as two sides of the same coin, this comparison enabled the author to position leadership as a central feature of the performance improvement model proposed in Section 7.4.

Before discussing the foundational attributes of organisational culture, it is important to explain the rationale for this discussion. First, this study is premised on Gumede's (2015) argument that poor municipal performance is a result of the failure of New Public Management in transforming the administrative culture of the South African public service. The second argument underpinning this study is that improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is a function of augmenting its culture of politicised bureaucracy. Based on these arguments, the author believes that the first step towards augmenting the organisational culture in the Municipality is to determine theoretical foundations of organisational culture that may guide the empirical reconfiguration of key elements that define the existing organisational culture in the City of Tshwane.

Now that the framework guiding the structure of this Section is outlined, it is time to interrogate theoretical attributes of organisational culture embedded in different theories of organisational culture and leadership. In doing so, the author tries as much as possible to locate this interrogation within the context of the empirical findings of this study. This approach allows the author to answer research question 1.4.4 that seeks to establish empirical and theoretical assumption, beliefs, and values for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To this end, the author draws from prominent organisational culture theorists to define empirical attributes that shape the organisational culture in the City of Tshwane. Defining key attributes of the current culture in Tshwane is in line with the argument that diagnosis of culture is essential to achieve organisational

change and the long-term effectiveness successfully (Rukh & Qadeer, 2018). Therefore, the author underscores the importance of understanding specific norms, practices, attitudes, and values underpinning the current organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The author further argues that it is through this understanding that relevant strategies for addressing performance challenges engulfing the Municipality can be effectively resolved.

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) developed the Competing Values Framework (CVF) to assess factors that make organisations effective. Bradley and Parker (2001) used this framework as the basis for asking survey respondents to identify both their current and ideal model of organisational culture. Using the CVF as a guide, the author asked employees and managers in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to define the current organisational culture in their organisation. Generally, the participants described the City of Tshwane as a politically charged organisation characterised by lack of accountability, corruption, and a general lack of ethics. Upon further probing, the author established that key attributes of organisational culture emerging from participants' responses converge on *politicised bureaucracy*. Therefore, *politicised bureaucracy* emerged as the main theme or core category that defines the current organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In the next Section, the author articulates theoretical and empirical attributes that shape politicised bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

7.1.3. Politicised bureaucracy

The inability to transform the administrative culture is the root cause of poor performance in South African public institutions (Gumede, 2015). This argument may be informed by the view that administrative culture is related to the broader political culture, from which it derives (Henderson, 2004). This view is relevant in the context of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality whose administrative culture is constructed from the beliefs, traditions, attitudes, and values of the African National Congress (ANC). For example, literature shows that when the ANC attained political power in 1994, it introduced cadre deployment policy as an instrument to influence and control all aspects of the public service (Gumede, 2015; Makole, 2022; Mafunisa, 2003; Mngomezulu, 2020). Cadre deployment is described as a practice of appointing party loyalists to government departments and institutions by a governing party (Makole, 2022; Mngomezulu, 2020) with the purpose to circumvent public reporting lines and accountability and bring departments and institutions under the control and influence of a party instead of the state (Mlambo, 2023). To maintain the party control and influence, creates a parallel power-structure to a constitution (Mlambo, 2023), so that party members answer first to the party and second to the public (Gumede, 2015) while the party advances its own interests ahead of those of the public. In addition, party control and influence is enforced through a set of beliefs, traditions, and practices borrowed from Leninist assumption that loyalty to the party and

leadership is sacred (Gumede, 2015; Suttner, 2003). Therefore, the ANC uses cadre deployment as a tool to entrench these ideals within the South African public service thereby creating what De Jager and Steenekamp (2015) describe as an inward-looking, self- seeking, and self-preserving culture.

As mentioned earlier, this Section presents theoretical and empirical foundations of the current organisational culture in the City of Tshwane. It has also been mentioned that this presentation is an attempt to answer the research question 1.4.1 outlined in the introductory chapter of this thesis. To this end, theoretical assumptions, attitudes, beliefs, principles, and values giving rise to the culture of politicised bureaucracy in South African public institutions have been articulated. Therefore, the next step is to examine if the theoretical attributes that influence administrative culture of South African public institutions exist in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

7.1.3.1. Self-dealing

The author associates the notion of self-seeking behaviour with the concept of conflict of interest. In the case of this study, a conflict of interest refers to any situation where government officials use their positions, directly or indirectly, to achieve personal gain. The empirical results of this study indicate that self-dealing is the most common manifestation of conflict of interest. Self-dealing refers to a situation where one takes an action in an official capacity to deal with oneself in a private capacity for personal benefit or for the benefit of family, friends, and associates (Mafunisa, 2003). This means that self-dealing involves a range of activities that include nepotism. However, the empirical results of this study found that self-dealing arises more during is more prevalent in procurement processes. As one participant noted, *"we have senior managers who influence tender processes in favour of their family and friends*". In the same view, another participant mentioned that "*we know people who give tenders to associates and we also know that some of our senior officials receive kickbacks from tenders*". These results are consistent with Cooper's (1990) statement that self-dealing is a public employee who awards a contract to a company which he or she owns. In addition, the results confirm an example of an actual case where one employee responsible for awarding a particular tender in a government department in South Africa awarded himself a contract worth R2.6 million through his wife (Mafunisa, 2003).

The author probed further to understand manifestations of self-dealing in the City of Tshwane. Thus, the participants were asked to explain why senior officials engage in self-dealing. In answering this question, most participants pointed to creed and opportunism but the author was intrigued by the response of one particular responded who had this to say:

> *I think the main reason why people engage in corrupt activities that include awarding tenders to immediate family and friends is the entitlement mentality of the ANC members. Most of them were in exile and poor. So, there is an underlying belief that now it's out time as black people to eat, and they eat with impunity and arrogance.*

The extract above indicates that ANC members have an underlying assumption that their liberation credentials automatically gives them a corrupt access to state resources. In addition, the empirical evidence above shows that some of the ANC members employed in strategic decisions within the City of Tshwane harbour deep feelings of self-fulfilment due to their past experiences of poverty and racial discrimination. In explaining the deep-rooted sense of self-fulfilment Gumede (2015) states that because the ANC led the struggle against apartheid, many of its members argue that not only is it entitled to the spoils of government, but only its loyal cadres should be appointed to key positions in government. Based on this view, the author argues that ANC members in the City of Tshwane brazenly engage in corruption because they are protected by the ruling party. This argument is informed by a strong belief within the ANC that its leadership and members are above that of democratic institutions, and that the rules of the party have preference over the democratic laws or the constitution (Gumede, 2015).

In sum, the empirical evidence obtained during data collection shows that cadre deployment is a practice through which the ANC translates its deeply rooted assumptions, beliefs, and values into practice within the City of Tshwane. Therefore, the author describes cadre deployment as the main instrument through which the ANC has created an administrative culture of politicised bureaucracy. Based on the theoretical and empirical evidence presented above, politicised bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is rooted in the belief within the ANC that its credentials as a liberation movement gives its members an entitlement to employment within government. The empirical and theoretical evidence further shows that this sense of entitlement has entrenched the notion of self-interest that gives rise to a self-seeking and corrupt behaviour in the City of Tshwane. This behaviour is the root cause of poor performance in the Municipality.

7.1.3.2. Fragmented value system

In determining the value system that shapes the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author used Schein's (2010) theory that describes organisational culture in terms of three levels. The first level of artifacts and represents visible and feelable structures, processes, and behaviour. It is important to note that this study was conducted virtually at the height of COVID-19 restrictions. Therefore, the author's observation of artifacts that shape the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is limited to the review of the strategic documents of the Municipality. For example, the preamble of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) 2022–2023 states that the IDP guides the city on a new development trajectory that aims to amongst other things, create a culture of accountability, transparency, and good governance. The preamble goes on to list critical values that guides the city towards its development trajectory. A few that are important for this study

include merit-based appointments, separation of Party and State, zero tolerance for patronage, nepotism and/or self-enrichment.

According to Schein (2010), formal descriptions of how organisations work, and organisational charts fall into the artifact level. Therefore, the author argues that artifacts are an expression of organisational values. Beliefs and values represent the second level of Schein's (1985) model of organisational culture. These beliefs and values are normally espoused by the leaders (Schein, 1992) and serve the normative or moral function of guiding members of the group in how to deal with certain key situations, and in training new members how to behave. Espoused values are values that are expressed on behalf of the organization or attributed to an organization by its senior managers in public statements such as in the firms' annual reports (Khandelwal & Mohendra, 2010). This means that espoused values are different from shared values which are shared by all or a large proportion of an organisation's members (Van Reckom, Van Riel, & Weiringa, 2006). Based on this definition, the author argues that value system exists if espoused values are shared and implemented throughout the organisation. To test this assumption, the author compared the empirical data with key values espoused in the IDP as an artifact that guides the strategic direction of the City of Tshwane. As mentioned earlier, these values include merit-based appointments, separation of Party and State, zero tolerance for patronage, nepotism and/or self-enrichment.

The comparison yielded serious contradictions as the empirical data clearly shows that the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of senior management in are different from espoused values. Without repeating what has already been discussed, it is important to remind the reader that the organisational culture of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is influenced by the ANC's policy of cadre deployment that was found to be the source of incompetence, nepotism, and self-enrichment though corruption. Based on this inconsistency, the author points to the existence of a fragmented value system in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This statement is consistent with the view that a fragmented value system exists when there is inconsistency on how members of the organisation understand and translate the espoused values into practice (Van Reckom, Van Riel, & Weiringa, 2006). Based on the empirical results of this study, the author describes the lack of a shared vision regarding implementation of the performance management system as a key manifestation of a fragmented value system in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Another important observation is that the Municipality does not embrace values that are congruent with the principles of maintaining cordial human relations. As a result, the research participants painted a toxic culture characterised by fear and lack of motivation. For example, one participant mentioned that "it is difficult to openly discuss problems with senior executives because they do not like constructive criticism". On the same issue another participant pointed to a culture of *finger pointing where people are blamed for mistakes and often victimised as a result".* The culture of finger pointing

is also a result of a fragmented value system. For example, the empirical results of this research revealed that management blamed labour unions for not supporting the rollout of performance management system because they do not want their members to held accountable for poor performance. Based on the empirical evidence obtained during data collection, the author argues that the attitude of management was dismissive of genuine concerns and fears expressed by employees that management would use the system to victimise them. As Pearse and Williams (2009) points out, these fears were genuine because it is common for mangers in other municipalities to use performance management system as a tool to settle personal scores.

Schein (2004) argues that one of the primary functions of leaders is to create and manage organisational culture. Therefore, the author argues that the City of Tshwane needs to recruit competent and ethical leaders with adequate skills to translate the espoused values into practice. As noted in Schein (2004) one of the primary functions of leadership is to translate espoused values into practice through a process of socialisation that includes teaching these patterns of beliefs, behaviours, and rituals to new members of the group.

7.1.3.3. Unethical leadership

The relationship between leadership and organisational performance is well documented with Schen (1985) describing these concepts as two sides of the same coin. Based on this view, the author concurs with Binns and Nel (2014) that poor leadership adversely affects the enhancement of basic service delivery. The empirical results of this study are not different in that they point to unethical leadership, which according to Mbandlwa, Dorasamy and Fagbadebo (2020), is the biggest challenge facing the South African local government. Specifically, the study revealed that cadre deployment has led to the appointment of incompetent and unqualified leaders who do not possess requisite skills to motivate and inspire employees to achieve organisational goals. The following extract from one participant explains how cadre deployment affects performance in the City of Tshwane.

> *The greatest challenge is that the current top and senior managers were not appointed into these posts on merit but were selected on the basis of their political affiliation. As a result, we have incompetent colleagues who are unable to perform in senior positions that they have been appointed to. What is painful is that these people are arrogant because they think they know hence they undermine knowledgeable professionals in their divisions.*

The author describes the perceived attitude of arrogance and the tendency to undermine others as indications of unethical behaviour. In support of this view, Sebola (2014) states that political leaders continue to be arrogant and deceptive liars who fail to implement constitutional provisions they have signed an oath for. Therefore, the empirical evidence presented above does not only reiterate the significance of cadre deployment in institutionalising incompetence but also highlights the need for

ethical leadership in the City of Tshwane. This need is also reflected by Naidoo (2010) who points to irregular appointments and nepotism across the South African public service as well as by Ngubane (2012) who identifies political patronage, greed, and corruption as primary motives for unethical conduct in South African public institutions. In addition, Sebola, Moloto and Mamabolo (2024) attributes the rampant corruption across South African Municipalities to lack of ethics by those appointed to positions of authority.

South African has put in place some measures to oversee the implementation and monitoring of ethical compliance in the public sector. However, the increasing cases of favouritism and nepotism across the public service (Sebola, 2014) show that these measures are not effective. As most research participants pointed out, nepotism is a consequence of unethical leadership. This finding is consistent with the argument that hiring unqualified candidates for positions just because they know the right person in the hierarchy of the organisation disregards the principle of fairness (Sebola, Moloto, & Mamabolo, 2024).

Another finding that emerged from this study is the relationship between accountability and ethics. In this regard, the participants mentioned that cadre deployment has created a situation where senior ANC leaders employed in the City of Tshwane undermine existing accountability mechanisms and report to the political principals that appointed them to the city in the first place. This behaviour undermines the constitutional supremacy (Sebola, 2014), sets a poor example for the rest of the public administration organisational structure, and creates a culture where responsibility is not valued (Juarez-Garcia, 2020). According to Sebola (2014), without accountability, there is little motivation to improve quality service. Thus, the research participants mentioned that improving performance in the City of Tshwane would require competent and ethical leadership. Specifically, the participants emphasised the need to conduct ethical competence assessment as part of the recruitment processes. This suggestion is similar to the proposal that the security and ethical checks should not only be required in the security and intelligence agencies only but should be applied in all the recruitment processes in the public sector. the public sector appointments.

Generally, the empirical results of this study confirm the literature that traces the origin of poor ethical conduct in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to the appointment of incompetent and unqualified leaders. Further, the study shows that political considerations underpinning these appointments have institutionalised a culture of incompetence, nepotism, and corruption. The next Section highlights the role of leadership in the reconstruction of the current culture of politicised bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

7.2. The proposed model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

As mentioned in the previous Section, the author relied on theoretical and empirical evidence to describe Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as a politically charged organisation characterised by lack of accountability, corruption, and a general lack of ethics. These characteristics are underlying features of what (Van Riper, 1987) refers to as the spoils system that define traditional bureaucratic institutions. On the strength of the empirical evidence presented in the previous Section, supported by key tenets of traditional bureaucracy extracted from the literature, the author conceptualised the current model of organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This conceptualisation portrays the Municipality as politicised bureaucracy underpinned by several factors that include incompetence, lack of accountability, corruption, nepotism, and general lack of ethics. Based on the empirical findings of this study, the author describes these as causes of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, improving performance in the Municipality is a function of improving these factors. In this regard, the author identifies transformational leadership as the best solution to the many challenges that confront the South African municipal landscape. This argument is based on the popular view that transformational leadership is key to promoting organisational performance through creating a supportive environment that promotes employee motivation, an important element required for attaining organisational goals.

The emphasis on the role of motivation as a performance catalyst is derived from the argument that a key function of leadership is to transform attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours of followers to a higher realm of motivation (Burns, 1978). Adding to this, Khanin (2007) argues that transformational leaders inspire followers to be motivated to rise above and beyond current levels of achievement and performance to even higher levels of achievement and performance. As noted in Burns (1978), there are four strategies that transformation leaders use to inspire and transform the attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours of followers. These sources of motivation and inspiration consist of idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. Therefore, the proposed performance improvement model presented in the next Section shows how the author applied the four strategies of transformational leadership to create an empirically embedded supportive and performance-oriented culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

7.2.1. The role of leadership in augmenting organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

It must be noted at the very onset that the instrument used during the initial stages of data collection did not have a theme on leadership. However, the interest to pursue leadership issues came during the theoretical sampling and comparative analysis of the data. For example, the first stage of iterative comparison of different data properties generated several empirical categories consisting of lack of accountability, incompetence, corruption, nepotism, and many more. As the process of comparison and further data collection unfolded, these categories were collapsed into a major category named political influence. Ultimately, political influence was collapsed into the main theme called cadre deployment. After comparing several empirical attributes making up cadre deployment across the initial categories, the author developed another theme called leadership. This means that the initial empirical categories that involved lack of accountability, incompetence, corruption, nepotism, lack of motivation, and lack of a shared vision presented in chapter four, are indicators of poor leadership emanating from the practice of cadre deployment. To understand manifestations of poor leadership in the Municipality, the author prepared specific questions aimed at obtaining the perspectives and experiences on two issues. The first issue relates to the perceptions of the participants on how leadership could improve the current organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The second issue is about capturing views of the participants on what leadership attributes are required to improve performance in the Municipality.

Before discussing empirical results on the role of leadership in transforming the politicised, inward-looking, unsupportive, and inefficient culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, it is important to reiterate that this culture is a product of cadre deployment. While all the participants agreed on this point, they differed on what needs to be done to change this situation. On one hand, some participants mentioned that the ANC should abolish its policy of employing its members to strategic positions within the Municipality. While this suggestion is reasonable, the author concurs with Mafunisa (2003) who argues that in the South African situation, the politicised model is suitable for the government to redress the imbalances of the past discriminatory policies and practices. This view is supported by another group of participants who mentioned that cadre deployment is a useful strategy for ensuring that the government has a senior layer of executives who are loyal and committed to redressing the skewed policies of the apartheid. One participant who advanced this view mentioned that:

> *You cannot change the system with the very same people who created and maintained the system. It is important for our own trusted people to be appointed in senior positions, there is nothing wrong with that. It happens everywhere but the problem is that we appoint the wrong people. Therefore, I feel that we need to prioritise qualifications and skills rather than political loyalty and allegiance, we just need to make sure that we appoint the right people. That's all.*

The empirical evidence supporting implementation of cadre deployment in a manner that prioritises qualifications and skills resonates with what the author earlier referred to as the merit-based cadre deployment. The need for balancing cadre deployment with competency is also inherent in Mafunisa's (2003) statement that the politics-administration dichotomy, as traditionally conceived, is not practical in the South African governmental system. This statement reiterates the author's argument that New Public Management as conceived by Hood (1991) is not fully applicable in South Africa. Based on the strength of the empirical and theoretical evidence presented above, the author argues that efforts towards strengthening leadership in the City of Tshwane should be founded on the principle of merit-based cadre deployment. This argument is in line with Mafunisa's (2003) suggestion that South Africa should emulate Britain and America by adopting complementarity model with more emphasis on the merit principle. In the following paragraphs, the author explains the role of transformational leadership in creating and sustaining the proposed merit-based cadre deployment system in the City of Tshwane.

First, the author assumes that the ANC would embrace and implement the idea of merit-based cadre deployment system as a principle for appointing loyal but qualified, experienced, and competent political loyalists to strategic positions within the City of Tshwane. This assumption is inherent in the views of most research participants who embraced the idea of a merit-based cadre deployment system. For example, one participant had this to say:

> *South Africa is unique because of its long history of racial discrimination across all aspects of life. Therefore, the democratic government should appoint its own people who are loyal to the transformational agenda. However, these people should be professionals, they should be qualified and experienced and be given adequate space and resources to do their work without political interference. At the current moment, ANC people are appointed to senior positions without necessary qualifications and skills. This is why most municipalities in the country, including our own, are struggling to provide services to the people.*

The above extract underscores the centrality of competent leadership in creating a performance-oriented culture in the City of Tshwane. After interrogating literature on different dimensions of leadership, the author argues that transformational leadership is the most suitable for addressing performance constraints in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This argument is based on the observation that competence is a critical attribute inherent in the four components of transformational leadership (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration).

Idealised influence describes leaders who have extraordinary capabilities and high doctrines of ethical conduct (Bass, 1997). The high ethical and moral standards allow these leaders to act as strong role models to followers (Seloane, 2010) while the extraordinary capabilities enable them to articulate a clear vision and mission for their company (Chebon, Aruasa, & Chirchir, 2019). Elaborating on this, Avolio, Yammarino and Bass (1991) state that transformational leaders are

competent in communicating their vision to subordinates in a manner that they can understand and provide credible and sufficient information to make possible the attainment of the vision or objectives by subordinates. This statement supports the author's argument that competence is an important attribute that improves the quality of leadership. Most importantly, this statement is consistent with the views of most research participants who mentioned that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality needs competent, and qualified leaders with adequate knowledge and skills. This empirical evidence supports the argument that leaders should have knowledge in a particular context and use it effectively (Chebon, Aruasa, & Chirchir, 2019) and underscores the need for leaders to have adequate technical competencies. The following extract from one research participant demonstrates the need for leaders in the City of Tshwane to have adequate technical skills:

> *We have highly educated and competent people and these senior leaders who are appointed without qualifications due to their political affiliations, often feel threatened. Instead of harnessing the knowledge resident in these people, they frustrate them to a point of demotivation and resignation.*

The empirical results of this study show that leaders without requisite technical competencies are likely to be threatened by subordinates. This empirical evidence is similar to an observation that such leaders are not able to contribute to their followers' growth in a meaningful way and may be threatened by those who know more (Chebon, Aruasa, & Chirchir, 2019). Based on the empirical and theoretical evidence presented above, the author argues that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should invest in improving the competencies of the current crop of leaders most of whom were appointed on political grounds. This suggestion is based on the argument that idealised influence is an important element of transformational leadership that has a direct effect on the level of employee engagement in their work and the organization (Kark & Chen, 2013). Therefore, idealised influence is a requisite ingredient in achieving employee engagement and has a general positive outcome on employee performance (Chebon, Aruasa, & Chirchir, 2019). This means that idealised influence is an important attribute that could allow the current leadership in the City of Tshwane to improve staff motivation and performance. This leads to another component of transformational leadership known as inspirational motivation.

Inspirational motivation refers to the ability to motivate followers so that they are able to perform beyond the expectation. Elaborating on this, Bass (1985) describes inspirational motivation as providing followers with challenges and meaning for engaging in shared goals. In other words, inspirational motivation is about encouraging subjects in order to elevate their consciousness about the organisation's mission and vision (Chebon, Aruasa, & Chirchir, 2019). Thus, Barine and Minja (2014) describes organisational vision and communication as key indicators of inspirational motivation. As mentioned earlier, these indicators played out in the City of Tshwane as most participants pointed to lack of a shared vision between the management and labour. In addition, the

participants mentioned that the values, vision, and mission statements of the City of Tshwane are reflected in strategic documents but not effectively communicated to everyone. This highlights the need for Tshwane to have leaders with adequate qualifications and skills to effectively communicate organisational vision in an inspiring manner. In support of this statement, Popa (2012) defines inspirational motivation as an attribute that enables leaders to convert and communicate organisational vision. According to Simic (1988), this might be achieved through motivational speeches and conversations that display optimism, enthusiasm, and positive outcomes to stimulate teamwork. These are the attributes of leadership required in the City of Tshwane where this study established lack of teamwork between management and employees leading to negative outcomes regarding implementation of the organisational performance management system. To justify this argument, the author points to evidence indicating that these attributes allow transformational leaders to encourage their followers to imagine and contribute to the organisational vision (Avolio, Yammarino, & Bass, 1991).

Another important aspect of transformational leadership that requires high levels of knowledge and skills is the intellectual stimulation. This attribute describes leaders who encourage subordinates to be innovative and creative. These leaders empower their subordinates by encouraging novel techniques in task completion and discouraging the traditional thinking (Khan, Amin, & Saif, 2022). Even though specific attributes of intellectual stimulation did not emerge during data collection, the author argues that the concept of intellectual stimulation as described in the literature requires high levels of technical competence. For instance, encouraging novel technics requires critical analysis which is a skill that can be obtained through specialised training. This argument is supported by Al-Harthy and Yusof (2016) who state that leaders with the attribute of intellectual stimulation reconsider the assumptions to problem if they feel that these are not accurate and adequate. Based on the empirical evidence showing that leaders in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality are selected on political grounds, it is clear that they may not possess requisite skills and knowledge to motivate subordinates by arousing their creativity, innovation, and intellectual capabilities. For this reason, the author suggests that the City of Tshwane should invest in training the current leaders on critical aspects of leadership including how to enhance employees' creativity and innovation.

The last attribute of transformational leadership is individualised consideration. According to Tucker and Russell (2004), this attribute allows leaders to interact with followers by giving personal attention to their basic needs, aspirations and abilities. Similarly, Northouse (2001) argues through individualised consideration, leaders frequently provide training to their followers to help them in developing their personality. This argument resonates with the views of the participants in this study who mentioned lack of training opportunities as one of the demoralising factors in the City of Tshwane. Therefore, the author argues that the current crop of leaders in the City should embrace

the principle of individualised consideration which, in simple terms, means creating a supportive environment for the employees to realise their professional and personal goals. This environment can be expressed through a number of ways that include fair workload distributions, individualised career counselling, mentoring and professional development (Hay, 2006).

In sum, this Section has discussed the role of transformational leadership in promoting performance in the City of Tshwane. Specifically, this discussion places transformational leadership at the centre of the proposed performance improvement efforts in the City of Tshwane. To justify the centrality of leadership as a performance-enhancing attribute, the author used four interdependent components of transformational leadership. Drawing from empirical and theoretical evidence, the author presented competence as an important attribute that allows leaders to perform their functions as articulated in each of the four components of transformational leadership. Thus, the author argued that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality requires ethical leaders who are capable of influencing subordinates by doing the right thing. In terms of inspirational motivation, the author highlighted the need for the Municipality to have leaders with adequate knowledge and skills to articulate and communicate organisational values and inspire subordinates to embrace these values. Most importantly the author argued that the City of Tshwane needs to have leaders who have adequate knowledge and skills to stimulate intellectual capacity of subordinates to enhance innovation and creativity. Last, some reasonable level of compassion is required for leaders to create a supportive environment that motivates employees to achieve their personal goals while contributing to the achievement of organisational objectives.

As reflected in the discussion presented in this Section, motivation and competence are critical attributes that resonate across all the four components of transformational leadership. For this reason, these attributes form an important part of the proposed model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. For example, the concept of individualised consideration gives rise to a supportive culture where leaders are conscious of assisting, encouraging, and motivating employees to realise their potential and exceed performance standards. Issues of competence and motivation are also embedded in the notion of inspirational motivation, idealised influence, and intellectual stimulation. In this regard, the author points to the need for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to strengthen competencies of leaders to allow them to be role models who competently translate organisational mission into practice while providing adequate space for employees to be innovation and creative.

Based on the four components of transformational leadership, the author constructed an empirical model for improving performance in the City of Tshwane. As presented in Figure 7.6, leadership functions articulated in the four components converge on performance as a major component of the proposed model. In addition, the functions of leadership proposed in the four

components of transformational leadership culminate in performance as another component of the model. Another component of the model is a supportive environment while the last is hierarchy. The supportive environment is directly derived from the notion of individualised consideration and the clan culture presented in the Competing Values Framework. Last, the notion of hierarchy is directly linked to the empirical evidence describing Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as an organisation that embrace politicised bureaucracy. A decision to conceptualise hierarchy as one of the four components of the proposed performance improvement model is based on the previous argument that dismantling bureaucracy may not be feasible and desirable in South Africa. Therefore, the proposed model is founded on the principle that the existing culture of bureaucracy in the City of Tshwane should be augmented through a combination of attributes drawn from diverse theories of organisational culture.

7.2.2. Key components of the proposed performance improvement model

The empirical model for improving performance in the City of Tshwane to be articulated in the next Section is a product of combining four theories of organisational culture. The first theory is the Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). Out of the four components of the CVF, the author picked hierarchy and clan cultures as the most appropriate that resonate with the empirical findings of this study. For example, the notion of hierarchy allowed the author to define the City of Tshwane as an entity that embraces politicised bureaucracy characterised by lack of accountability, incompetence, nepotism, mistrust, and lack of employee motivation. On the other hand, the clan culture links well with the empirical evidence pointing to the need for the current leadership in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to acquire adequate knowledge and competencies to create an empowering and supportive culture. The third component of competence and the fourth component described as performance in Figure 7.6 are drawn from aspects of Schneider's (1999) and Harrison's models of organisational culture respectively.

As depicted in Figure 7.6, the four components are held together by two dimensions. The first dimension consists of two elements with flexibility, which describes organisations that are adaptable and innovative on one hand and stability, which defines organisations that are predictable and mechanistic on the other. The second dimension differentiates companies in terms of focus with some companies having an internal orientation while others focus more on the external environment. Anchored on leadership, these dimensions represent mechanisms underlying the functionality of the proposed model. Before articulating underlying mechanisms that makes the model works, the next paragraph outlines the empirical attributes embedded in the four components of the model.

7.2.2.1. *Hierarchy culture*

Hierarchy culture defines organisations that are internally focused and stable (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). This culture is common in organisations that emphasise application of rules and regulations to maintain order and control. This statement resonates with the empirical findings of this study in as far as the structure and functions of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality are concerned. For example, the Municipality is a product of a comprehensive legislative framework that informs tools, instruments, and systems that guide internal operations in the Municipality. As pointed in Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), rules and regulations are the foundation of stability in hierarchical institutions. However, this study revealed that stability fails when leadership lacks ethical and competent leadership to act as role models in upholding the law. As a result, Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is characterised by political interference that led to volatile labour relations and lack of consequence management for wrongdoing.

Meritocracy is one of the critical attributes of bureaucracy advanced in Weber (1947). However, the empirical evidence obtained during data collection reveals a practice where leaders are appointed on political considerations instead of competence as per the dictates of the theory of bureaucracy. This means that the current culture of bureaucracy in the City of Tshwane does not live up to the expectations of Weber's bureaucracy. Despite this weakness, dismantling bureaucracy is neither possible nor desirable in South Africa. Therefore, it is important to improve bureaucracy through creation of a supportive, competent, and performance-oriented bureaucracy.

7.2.2.2. *Supportive culture*

Different frameworks and instruments are available to analyse organisational culture and effectiveness. One such framework is the Competing Values Framework (CVF) developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) to identify dormant values that shape organisational culture. Drawing from this framework, Cameron and Quinn (2006) identifies four cultural types one of which includes the clan culture. Also known as collaboration culture (Schneider, 1999), or supportive culture (Harrison, 1992), this culture promotes family-like values such as teamwork, loyalty, empowerment, and trust, all of which lead to high commitment (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). However, as per the empirical results of this study, the City of Tshwane is weak in these values. For example, the participants painted a picture of the organisation that does not value personal development. Further, the participants were demotivated by rampant political interference in recruitment, performance appraisal, and consideration for promotions. As the participants pointed out, these practices have created lack of horizontal and vertical trust and leading to a toxic environment characterised by fear, low motivation, and disgruntlement. Therefore, a supportive culture is necessary to address these challenges.

7.2.2.3. *Cultural competence*

In a competence culture, being superior or the best is paramount and this may mean having the best product, service, process or technology in the marketplace (Maximini, 2018). Although it is premised on the values of knowledge and information, this culture does not use these values to create a supportive environment for employees. For example, evidence indicates that formalities and emotional considerations are not important compared to proven accomplishment and this culture values competition for its own sake even though it is not necessarily more competitive than other core cultures (Maximini, 2018). These values make competence culture as originally conceptualised in Schneider (1999) inappropriate for the envisioned model for improving performance in the City of Tshwane. Therefore, the author uses the phrase *cultural competence* not to define the type of culture but as a description of being qualified for the task of culture (Davis, 2020). This means that cultural competence as used in this study refers to the requisite skills, experience, abilities for interpreting behaviours, attitudes, and practices that make up the organisational culture. This definition allowed the author to identify leadership competencies required for augmenting the current organisational culture in the City of Tshwane. To this end, the author argues that the Municipality needs ethical leaders with necessary technical competencies and experience in managing public institutions. This argument is based on the empirical evidence that political affiliation prevails over meritocracy when it comes to the appointment of senior leaders in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. For this reason, the author considers competence as a necessary attribute for enhancing leadership and augmenting the politicised bureaucratic culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

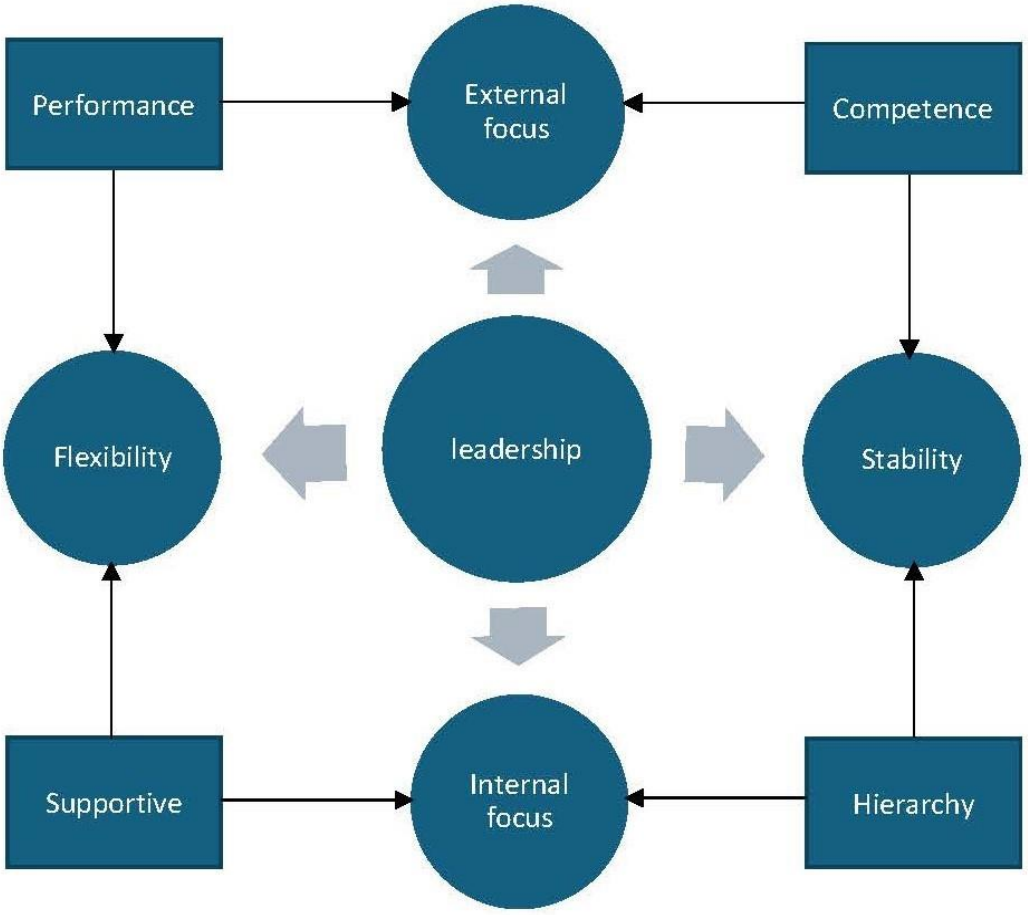
7.2.2.4. *Performance culture*

Part of the transformation of local government in South Africa has been the promotion of a culture of performance (Pearse & Williams, 2009). The creation of a performance culture requires the adoption of performance management reforms. These reforms consist of policies that require the collection, analysis, and dissemination of performance information for promoting accountability (Katharine, 2014). Therefore, evidence-use is an important value in organisations that embrace a performance-oriented culture. Contrary to this assumption, the bureaucratic culture in the City of Tshwane has created an environment that is hostile to accountability. For example, the respondents highlighted difficulties in the implementation of performance management in the Municipality. Thus, the author concurs with Pearse and Williams (2009) that effective implementation of performance management requires transformation of the bureaucratic culture. Therefore, the attributes discussed above paves the way for transforming the City of Tshwane from an inward-looking politicised bureaucracy to a flexible and efficient organisation that embraces meritocracy and accountability.

7.2.3. Mechanisms through which the proposed model may improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

Now that the critical components of the proposed model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality have been outlined, the next step is to explain underlying mechanisms and assumptions that make this model functional. In line with the primary objective of answering question 1.4.4, the assumptions and values underlying the mechanisms that make this model work are derived from theoretical and empirical evidence presented elsewhere in this study. The content that informs the values and assumptions inherent in the four components of the model are drawn from theories of organisational culture and leadership. As presented in Figure 7.6 below, the structure of the proposed model is inspired by the Competing Values Framework developed by Quinn Rohrbaugh (1983).

Figure 7.6 the proposed model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality



Source: Author

Having outlined the structure of the performance improvement model presented above, the next step is to describe how this model is expected to work in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The first component depicted in Figure 7.6 resonates with Weber's (1947) theory of bureaucracy that describes hierarchical organisations with standardised rules and procedures, strict control, and well-defined roles and responsibilities. Drawing from the value dimensions embedded in the Competing Values Framework, Figure 7.6 presents two value dimensions of organisational culture where one dimension represents values that define the organisational focus while another consists of values the define the organisational structure. In terms of organisational focus, Quinn and Cameron (1983) discovered that some organisations are effective if they maintain efficient internal processes while others are effective if they maintain a competitive external posture relative to customers. The author argues that the principle of external competition is more relevant to private companies that are motivated by profits. Therefore, the internal focus is the most relevant for the City of Tshwane.

As presented in Figure 7.6, the primary focus on internal processes resonates with hierarchy cultures characterised by clear lines of decision-making authority, standardised rules and procedures (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). As is the case in the City of Tshwane, rules and procedures are used as a mechanism for maintaining order and control by regulating people's behaviour to conform with established norms and practices. Contrary to this assumption, the empirical results of this study revealed that the cadre deployment policy has distorted accountability mechanisms. In this regard, the participants mentioned that politicians appointed to senior positions within the Municipality report to their political office instead of reporting to the administrative authority in the Municipality. In addition, the study found that this policy results in selective enforcement of rules and regulations to give way for nepotism and corruption. Another characteristic of hierarchy culture relates to security of employment which brings stability and predictability (Cameron & Quinn, 2011). However, as the research participants pointed out, job security comes with accountability problems as some permanent employees represented by the labour unions opposed efforts to implement the approved performance management system.

In sum, the author argues that hierarchy has limited success in the City of Tshwane. In this regard, the empirical findings of this study revealed that while this culture is successful in maintaining order and uniformity in terms of operational and behavioural matters, it has failed to create stability and improve accountability and efficiency. The main reason for this failure is the encroachment of politics into administrative matters leading to the appointment of incompetent and unethical leaders and managers. For this reason, the author proposes transformational leadership as a strategy to augment the established weaknesses of bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, the author advocates for a merit-based cadre deployment system that balances political considerations with qualifications, skills and knowledge in appointing municipal leaders. Most

importantly, as the participants pointed out, there is a need for the Municipality to appoint people with high ethical and moral standards to counter the underlying self-seeking behaviour that gives rise to nepotism and corruption. One of the weaknesses of bureaucracy that emerged from the empirical data is that employees were demotivated and disgruntled because of political interference in staff recruitments and promotions. Therefore, there is a need to build the capacity of the current crop of leaders in the Municipality on how to create a supportive environment in which employees are motivated to perform beyond expectations.

A supportive culture is an equivalent of what Quinn Rohrbaugh (1983) describes as the clan culture in the Competing Values Framework. Also known as collaborative culture, the supportive culture is founded on family values and Cameron and Quinn (2006) state that organisations that embrace this culture emphasise shared values, common goals, and mutual help. For this reason, the author concurs with Maximini (2018) that this culture reinforces internal relationships among employees, creates a sense of commonness, and a friendly working environment. As the empirical evidence of this study points out, these values are lacking in the City of Tshwane. Thus, Figure 7.6 highlights the need for adopting supportive values to improve the weaknesses of the current organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, supportive values mentioned above are critical for creating a work environment that promotes effective participation of employees in decision-making. As Cemeron and Quinn (2006) points out, one of the mechanisms for fostering a supportive work environment is when administrators act like mentors or facilitators who can be consulted easily by their employees. However, the research participants pointed to a weak culture of mentoring subordinates and inadequate opportunities for career development in the City of Tshwane. This means that the Municipality should adopt a systematic principle of mentoring as a strategy for inspiring and motivating employees to achieve their personal and career goals.

Another important element of the supportive culture is that it is internally focused and characterised by high degree of flexibility (Cameron & Quinn, 2006). Therefore, as presented in Figure 7.6, the author suggests that the element of flexibility, which is not a value provided for in hierarchical institutions, is necessary in the City of Tshwane. This suggestion is made against the empirical evidence indicating that participants preferred a flexible bureaucracy that balances personal needs while enforcing discipline and order. This means that the leadership of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should adopt practices and principles that balance flexibility and adaptation of rules and regulations to meet reasonable needs of the employees. The author believes that this approach would instil a sense of belonging required to motivate employees to work harder. In support of this conviction, Anya (2023:4) argues that "when employees feel connected and valued, they become more engaged in their work, leading to increased motivation and commitment".

In closing the discussion on the issue of how the supportive culture may augment the inherent culture of politicised bureaucracy in the City of Tshwane, the author highlight key attributes of leadership necessary to facilitate this improvement. As mentioned elsewhere, self-interest is an underlying factor that gives rise to excessive political interference in the City of Tshwane. For this reason, the author suggests that the Municipality should invest in strengthening and sustaining ethical values associated with family-like principles. As Maximini (2018) points out, doing so would address the problem of destructive behaviour and excessive self-interest. In addition, the adoption of family-like values would instil some sense of belonging and unity necessary for eradicating the problem of mistrust that characterise the work environment in the City of Tshwane. In a nutshell, the author underscores the importance of competent and knowledgeable leaders with adequate emotional intelligence and technical skills to drive the process of cultural transformation in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

So far, the author has discussed key values, principles, and practices of supportive culture and their relevance in augmenting the culture of politicised bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the focus turns to the last two components of the proposed model which are, competence and performance. Schneider's (1999) model identifies competence as one of the four components of organisational culture. Unlike the Competing Values Framework that articulates conflicting values and principles across different cultural models, Schneider (1999) is unique for combining possibility (external focus) and impersonal attributes associated with stability and control. As noted in Cameron and Quinn (2006) organisations that strive for maintenance of stability and control are impersonal and internally focused. Therefore, the author proposes competence as a strategy to repair the damage caused by values, principles, and practices that have created a culture where political affiliation supersedes meritocracy in the appointment of leaders in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The significance of competence culture is derived from its external focus which provides opportunities for sourcing adequate skills from the competitive market. Through this process, the City of Tshwane may attract talented professionals with adequate skills and experience to address current performance challenges emanating from a politicised bureaucratic culture. As depicted in Figure 7.6, the competence culture does not pursue external focus at the expense of stability and control. This means that bureaucratic principles that provide organisational stability are key to creating a stable, competent and efficient organisation as originally envisaged in Weber (1947).

Leadership is another important element of competence culture. To justify this argument, the author underscores the need for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to ensure that its leaders have adequate skills, experience, knowledge on issues that shape organisational culture. As Davies (2020) points out, being culturally competent means that one has the ability to understand and interpret one's own culture and that of others. Using the concept of transformational leadership, the ability to understand and interpret different cultural perspectives requires leaders who are sensitive to diverse

beliefs, language, interpersonal styles and behaviours of different individuals working in the Municipality. Therefore, there is a need for the Municipality to invest in building the capacity of current leadership so that they could have adequate knowledge and competencies to integrate these cultural sensitivities in their everyday professional lives.

The last component of the performance improvement model presented in Figure 7.6 is what is referred to as market-oriented culture (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) or goal-oriented culture (Harrison, 1972). These types of culture describe organisations that are performance driven. In this type of culture, organisational structures, functions, and activities are evaluated in terms of their contribution to defined goals and objectives (Maximini, 2018). The principle of evaluation embedded in performance driven organisations is derived from New Public Management (NPM). The empirical results of this study indicate inadequate use of monitoring and evaluation as a performance improvement strategy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, NPM advocates for use of private sector techniques in public institutions. The profit motive of the private sector makes it competitive, externally focused, competent, and flexible.

As depicted in Figure 7.6, these values are linked to competence culture and supportive culture. Therefore, the author argues that a combination of these cultures is appropriate to augment the limitations of the culture of hierarchy that exists in the City of Tshwane. For example, supportive culture is internally focused because it embraces family like values but also flexible enough to adapt rules and regulations to meet diverse needs of employees. Although not very explicit in the New Public Management, this aspect of flexibility and adaptation is common in private companies. Therefore, the author links it to the performance culture which for the purpose of this study, is conceptualised within the framework of New Public Management. Further, Figure 7.6 highlights the author's understanding of internal focus as an attribute that links performance culture and competence culture. In addition, competence is a principle that links the two types of culture. Collectively, these linkages are critical for improving the limitation of the existing culture of politicised bureaucracy in the City of Tshwane.

Combining elements of flexibility entrenched in supportive culture with the internal strategic focus embedded in the performance culture and competence culture is a task that requires transformational leadership. For instance, the lack of trust and motivation revealed in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality requires leaders who are compassionate and flexible to motivate employees while maintaining the discipline required to sustain the existing culture of hierarchy. In addition, the Municipality requires leaders with adequate skills to understand the external environment and internal dynamics within which the Municipality functions. This understanding is important to ensure that the Municipality maintains a balanced cultural orientation anchored on competent leadership that instils trust and motivate employees to achieve organisational goals.

In sum, the author has successfully used the literature review and the empirical results of this study to derive a model for improving performance in the City of Tshwane. Structured around the Competing Values Framework, this model consists of four components drawn from different theories of organisational culture. Using constant comparative analysis, the author matched the empirical findings to key attributes, assumptions, values, and principles obtained from different theories to conceptualise Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as the organisation that embraces a culture of politicised bureaucracy. In addition, the author used the same approach to conceptualise transformational leadership as a pillar supporting the four components underpinning the proposed model for augmenting the existing culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. By so doing, the study makes a significant contribution to the body of knowledge regarding the role of leadership in shaping the appropriate culture to improve performance in the City of Tshwane. This contribution notwithstanding, the author outlines some weaknesses embedded in the proposed model.

First, the model was not presented to the respondents for validation. As a result, it may be inaccurate in some respects. Second, the proposed model is anchored on assumptions, values, and principles drawn from a supportive culture. Although this type of culture has been successful in Japanese firms (Cameron & Quinn, 2011), it may not be appropriate in public institutions that are naturally hierarchical. In this regard, some aspects of transformational leadership may be difficult to apply in the context of South Africa where politics-administration interface is strong. Based on these limitations, the author calls for more research to validate the relevance of this model in the context of South African Municipalities.

7.3. Conclusion

In concluding this Section, the author circles back to key milestones underlying the process of developing the proposed model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. First, the author described theoretical perspectives undermining organisational culture research. To this end, the author divided organisational culture studies into three themes namely, integration, differentiation, and fragmentation. Integration perspective includes scholars who describe organisational culture as a pattern of shared assumptions constructed on consensus and passed from one group member to another. Schein's (1985) description of organisational culture as a function of shared values makes him a perfect leader of this tradition. The key tenets of integration perspective emphasises the role of leadership in creating organisational culture and sharing it amongst members of the organisation (Schein, 1992). On the other hand, integration perspective includes a group of scholars that believe that culture creation is not necessarily a function of leadership (Parker, 2000). The study revealed the need to strengthen leadership as an important strategy for transforming political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the author concludes that integration

perspective is the most appropriate for this study. Another perspective that was considered is fragmentation. According to Martin (2001), fragmentation is critical to principles of integration but takes a neutral position. For this reason, this perspective was not used in the process of deriving the model that specifically takes a position that transformational leadership is fundamental to improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Out of several integration theorists reviewed, the author settled for Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework and Schein's (1985) organisational culture, as well as Denison's (1990) model of organisational culture. In particular, the Competing Values Framework allowed the author to understand values and principles underpinning political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, this framework enabled the author to understand that political bureaucracy corresponds to what Cameron and Quinn (2011) refer to as hierarchical culture. In addition, this framework enhanced the author's understanding that hierarchical organisations are inward looking in terms of operational and strategic focus. In line with key values underlying Competing Values Framework, the author concludes that this framework reiterates key features of bureaucracy articulated in Weber's (1947) theory of bureaucracy. Therefore, the study concludes that the Competing Values Framework provides important options for the author to choose from to augment limitations of political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Despite its usefulness in this regard, the framework assumes that values underpinning organisational culture are distinct and competitive. However, this assumption may not be applicable in this study as the author proposed a multi-cultural framework to address performance challenges in the City of Tshwane.

Denison model of organisational culture is also one of the most popular approaches for analysing organisational culture. This model identifies four traits of organisational culture (mission, involvement, consistency, adaptability) that enhance performance in organisations. Based on the values underlying these traits, the study concludes that Denison model provides a comprehensive framework for analysing organisational culture in public institutions. This conclusion is derived from a study that effectively used this tool to diagnose the culture of several municipalities in South Africa (Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2013). In particular, this study identified that management was inconsistent in its values and did not effectively communicate values and principles required for successful achievement of strategic objectives. The consequence of this was lack of a shared culture across the municipalities. Based on these findings, the author argues that Denison model is a useful tool for identifying specific elements of organisational culture in public institutions. In particular, all the four traits of organisational culture identified in the model are applicable in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This notwithstanding, this model applies a quantitative approach to the analysis of organisational culture. As a result, it may not be effective in obtaining rich data for understanding underlying assumptions and attitudes that shape the behaviour of individuals within organisations. For

this reason, the author suggests that qualitative research instruments should be used to complement the weaknesses of this model.

A description of organisational culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by the group as it attempts to solve its problems (Schein, 1985), is a major contribution in the field of organisational behaviour. In the second edition of Organisational Culture and Leadership, Schein (1992) underscores the importance of leadership in creating and managing organisational culture. In another publication, Schein (2004) maintains that leaders create organisational culture by imposing their beliefs, values, and assumptions at the outset and socialise them to the rest of the group. To this end, Schein (2004) identifies six attributes of leadership that provide useful content that the author used to highlight the need for strengthening leadership competencies in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

The significance of Schein's theory is that it outlines three dimensions of organisational culture namely, artifacts, espoused beliefs and values, and underlying assumptions. These dimensions allowed the author to identify empirical assumptions, values, and principles for improving the culture of politicised bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the author identified IDP and its operational tools as key artifacts that define organisational culture in Tshwane. The study revealed inadequate expression of values and principles in strategic and operational documents of the Municipality. Therefore, the study suggests that the management of Tshwane should ensure that organisational values and principles are explicitly embedded in key artifacts that determine organisational culture. The notion of espoused values provides the opportunity for the author to suggest ways of improving norms and values that give rise to several consequences of political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In a nutshell, deriving a performance improvement model is a process that begins with understanding the overall perspectives underlying research on organisational culture. This understanding provides researchers with a theoretical framework that enabled researchers to identify specific assumptions, beliefs, values, norms, and practices that inform strategies for transforming organisational culture.

The last step towards constructing a model for improving performance involved teasing out the assumptions, beliefs, and values embedded in prominent theories of organisational culture. After identifying these elements, the author explored their relevance in augmenting the culture of political bureaucracy (hierarchical culture) in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To this end, chapter 7 points to Denison's (1990) trait of involvement, which underscore the significance of teamwork as an important value for employee motivation. Therefore, the study argues that teamwork is an important value for improving performance. This value in embedded in Schneider's (1999) collaboration culture, Harrison's (1972) supportive culture, as well as in Cameron and Quinn's (2011) clan culture. Collectively, these models embrace a supportive culture that values personal

relationships. Given the reported mistrust and frosty relations between management and employees in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author proposes an empirical model entrenched in a culture that promotes strong personal relations. In support of this proposal, Denison (1990) argues that teamwork and involvement of employees in decision-making promote trust. In addition, trust reduces disagreements and conflicts at the workplace (Jabeena & Rahim, 2021) and improves motivation (Kanter, 1989).

Leadership and organisational culture are two sides of the same coin (Schein, 2004). Therefore, the author argues that leadership is an important attribute that needs to be embedded in all efforts aimed at improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This argument is derived from empirical data showing the need to equip management of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality with leadership skills especially in the area of performance management. In particular, the author recommends specific training in transformational leadership, which is necessary for successful augmentation of the current organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As Schein (2004) points out, transformational leaders should have skills to define organisational mission and infuse their own beliefs and values in the organisational mission. Therefore, the author concludes that Harrison (1972) and Weber (1947) provide useful insights on how to build a competent bureaucracy. Thus, the study concludes with an argument that improving bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should be anchored around improving leadership competencies. In support of this argument, Schneider (1999) identifies competence as a specific type of culture in his four dimensions of organisational culture.

This study revealed lack of trust and motivation as key features of political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To address these challenges, the author used the principle of involvement espoused in Denison's (1990) model of organisational culture as well as in Harrison's (1972) supportive culture. In this regard, the author argues that supportive culture is complementary to performance culture. To support this view, the author points to empirical data showing that effective implementation of performance management tools can improve trust between employees and management and increase employee motivation. One of the key features of effective performance management is constant engagement between managers and subordinates throughout performance planning, monitoring, review and improvement. Therefore, an effective performance management system entrenched in constant communication between managers and subordinates would create a conducive environment of trust and motivation. As Harrison (1972) and Cameron and Quinn (2011) point out, trust and motivation are critical values of a supportive culture. Therefore, the author proposes supportive culture to strengthen the internally focused bureaucratic culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

There are two dimensions underlying the four pillars of the proposed model for improving organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The first dimension relates to the continuum of stability vs flexibility on one hand and internal vs external on the other. As reflected in Figure 7.6, leadership is a pillar that balances the overall cultural orientations emanating from a combination of different types of organisational culture. For instance, strong leadership is a requirement to maintain a stable and competent bureaucracy. In addition, leadership plays a critical role in promoting external focus arising from a combination of competency culture and performance culture. Furthermore, leadership is important for balancing accountability principles emanating from performance culture with personal values and empathy originating from supportive culture. This is more important in the context of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality where empirical data reveals that political bureaucracy has reduced trust and motivation. Therefore, leadership is key in ensuring a supportive and performance-oriented culture. Last, leadership is a glue that holds supportive culture and hierarchical culture together in a manner that maintains internal control and stability. As noted in the Competing Values Framework, hierarchical culture is not concerned is impersonal and Weber's (1947) bureaucracy is premised on the same principle. The consequence of this is that employees emotions and feelings do not matter. Therefore, the author argues that strong leadership is necessary to balance control and adherence to rules while also being sympathetic to the plight of the employees. Therefore, this study concludes that leadership is a critical component of the model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Finally, the proposed model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as presented above is an important contribution to knowledge. First, key elements underlying this model were derived empirically from the data using constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling. In this regard, the author has achieved the objective of demonstrating the significance of constant comparative analysis as a technique for generating empirical model for performance improvement in the context of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, the model itself shows the significance of leadership as a critical element of organisational culture. However, this model is context specific and may not be useful in other contexts. In addition, there was no time to validate this model empirically. Therefore, further research is necessary to empirically test the assumptions embedded in this model.

CHAPTER 8 - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This is the last chapter that marks the end of the discussion on the subject matter of this study. To provide a clear summary of key issues emanating from the study, this chapter is divided into four Sections. The first Section is this introduction which takes the reader through the content of this chapter. The second Section provides a summary of how this study achieved its objectives as set out in the first chapter. In the last Section, the author discusses the research findings with particular reference to the research questions stipulated in Section 1.4. The last Section presents recommendations for improving performance in the City of Tshwane and also points to areas for future research.

8.1. Research conceptualisation

Throughout the journey of undertaking this study, the author observed a severe shortage of empirical and theoretical studies provide guidance on how postgraduate students should conceptualise research. Out of the few studies available in this regard, the author borrowed from Wotela (2016) to describe research conceptualisation as the process of that involves the following tasks. The first task is to select the research topic, formulate the research problem and the accompanying research questions, as well as the research purpose. The second task is to interrogate literature to establish the research knowledge gap. The third task involves interrogating literature to understand the field of study and develop the theoretical framework. The last and the most important task is to interrogate literature to derive a conceptual framework that transitions the study from its conceptualisation to empirical undertaking.

As part of undertaking the first task of selecting the research topic, the author interrogated literature to understand different aspects of New Public Management (NPM) as the field of study. Armed with the understanding of key dimensions of NPM and after several iterations as the author improved his understanding of NPM dimensions, the author conceived the current research title. Embedded in the title are the two concepts of *organisational culture* and *performance* around which this study is conceptualised. In addition, the title draws the attention of the reader to the context of the study which is Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Thus, the author concludes that a correct research title should point the reader to key aspects of the conceptual framework particularly the research problem, the research context, and the research approach. For example, the research title of this study is "*using organisational culture to derive performance improvement model in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality*". As reflected in the title, *performance* is the research issue while *Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality* is the research context. Most importantly, the title shows that the author intends to use *organisational culture* as a theoretical framework for resolving the research problem through *deriving a model*. This means that this study is conceptualised around performance issues in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

The research problem statement discussed in Section 1.2 in the first chapter of this study, introduces performance challenges confronting the City of Tshwane. Specifically, the research problem statement advances the argument that current studies in South Africa address consequences not the root cause of poor performance that has become a common phenomenon in South African municipal landscape. In addition, the research problem statement highlights the author's argument that failure to transform the organisational culture is the root cause of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This argument points to the existing knowledge gap in the South African literature as most studies (Munzhedzi, 2020; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Ndevu, 2019; Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016) except Gumede (2015), do not recognise organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute. Thus, the author concludes that there is inadequate knowledge on how organisational culture affects performance in South African public institutions. To justify this conclusion, the author searched major academic online databases for articles that investigated the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance in South Africa. This search revealed that available studies (Gasela, 2022; Kokt & Van der Merwe, 2009; Naido & Martins, 2014; Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2013) used quantitative research methodology to investigate how organisational culture affects performance in private companies.

The inclination of researchers towards quantitative research highlights the need for qualitative research to explore the answer the question of how organisational culture affects performance in South African public institutions. In particular, the author recommends grounded theory research due to an observation that a few studies (Ndevu, 2019; Pretorius & Schurink, 2007) that have applied this design, do not provide effective and empirically grounded practical solutions to the performance crisis confronting South African municipalities. Therefore, the primary objective of this study is to generate an empirical model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In pursuit of this objective, the author formulated four research questions that provide the framework for undertaking the empirical part of this study.

The first question seeks to understand factors that enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Giving rise to this question is the literature attributing poor performance to a range of issues including corruption, nepotism and many more (Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Kgatle, 2017; Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016). Without negating these efforts, the study has concluded that failure to transform organisational culture of South African public institutions is the root cause of their poor performance. Therefore, the author argues that the issues presented above are merely consequences and not root causes of poor performance. To justify this argument that author argues that corruption, nepotism, lack of accountability and many other problems engulfing the City of Tshwane, are consequences of the culture of the politicised bureaucracy which has been entrenched

through cadre deployment. This argument is supported by several scholars (Makole, 2022; Masiya, Davids, & Manga, 2021; Ndevu, 2019; Shava & Chamisa, 2018) as well as the empirical findings discussed in chapter four through to chapter seven. Therefore, this study concludes that the problem of poor performance in Tshwane should be understood within the context of political dynamics that shape the culture of doing things in the Municipality. The second research question aims to how organisational culture affects performance in the City of Tshwane. Based on empirical data, the author described Tshwane as an entity with a politicised and inward-looking bureaucratic culture characterised by lack of accountability, incompetence, nepotism, and low staff morale. Collectively, these factors constitute mechanisms through which organisational culture affects performance in the City of Tshwane and are elaborated in subsequent Sections that provide a summary of empirical findings. After establishing how organisational culture affects performance in the City of Tshwane, the author moved on to answer the third question that aimed to establish empirical strategies for augmenting the bureaucratic culture in Tshwane. To this end, the author identified leadership as the most relevant strategy to promote open and inclusive communication while creating and maintaining a supportive environment characterised by trust and shared values. Identification of these strategies allowed the author to achieve the final objective of developing an empirically embedded model for improving performance in the City of Tshwane. As detailed in subsequent Sections, this model consist of four components anchored on leadership. The author concludes that collectively, these components are critical for addressing factors that shape the current bureaucratic culture that impedes performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

The last important aspect of research conceptualisation is to interrogate literature to justify the study and outline its boundaries. As noted earlier, the limited qualitative research on the topic of this study coupled with inadequate recognition of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute provide justification for this study. In terms of its boundaries, this study is located within the field of management particularly within the component of New Public Management. As defined in Hood (1991), New Public Management consists of seven components straddling across institutional economics and management. This study focused on the latter adopted in most studies on performance issues in South African Municipalities (Mofolo, 2012; Ndevu & Muller, 2018; Nzimakwe & Ntshakala, 2016). These studies discuss performance from different perspectives. For instance, Ndevu and Muller (2018) uses Balanced Score Card as a tool for assessing different aspects of municipal performance including financial performance. In addition, Mofolo (2012) approaches performance from the perspective of employee performance management. However, the scope of this study is confined to exploring performance as a function for achieving strategic goals enshrined in the Integrated Development Plan of the City of Tshwane.

So far, the author has summarised key elements of research conceptualisation which involve conceptualising the research problem statement, defining the research purpose, formulating the research questions as well as the research justification. Based on his experience during this study, the author concludes that crafting the research problem statement is the most important aspect in research conceptualisation. This is because the content presented in the research problem statement informs all aspects of the conceptual framework which according to Wotela (2016), is the outcome of the literature review.

8.2. The conceptual framework

Researchers confuse a conceptual framework with a theoretical framework and often use the two interchangeably. This caused confusion and anxiety during the early stages of conducting this study. For this reason, Section 2.7 clarified the similarities and differences between a conceptual framework and a theoretical framework. The two concepts are similar in that they are both products of the literature review but they serve different purposes. A theoretical framework is a collection of theories, frameworks, models, and concepts that interpret the empirical research results. On the other hand, a conceptual framework is a roadmap that shows research progression from conceptual stage to the empirical stage. As Bless (2022) points out, this roadmap involves interrogation of litearature to first understand the research problem within its context as well as for establishing the knowledge gap, the research attributes and the theoretical framework. The next paragraph provides a summary of the six components of the conceptual framework as conceptualised in Wotela (2016) and used in this study.

In developing the first component of the conceptual framework, the author interrogated literature to understand socio-economic, administrative and political factors that inhibit performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Administratively, Tshwane became a Metropolitan Municipality in 2000 following a merger of several neighbouring municipalities. In addition to making Tshwane the largest municipality in South Africa, this merger increased demand for services and stretched the financial resources beyond limits. As a result, the municipality is unable to fulfil its service delivery obligations. As noted earlier, this study adopted a narrow focus that explains performance from the effectiveness as opposed to efficiency perspective. Therefore, the conclusion that the merger stretched the financial resources of the Municipality beyond limits is an assumption that the study could not support with empirical evidence. Political instability is another critical factor that impedes service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, Ramokgopa (2018) argues that political instability has collapsed service delivery in the Municipality. The collapse of service delivery in the Municipality bears testimony to the failure of public management reforms in eradicating the legacy of inequitable service delivery of the apartheid regime.

Understanding the failure of public management reforms is the subject of discussion in the research problem analysis conducted as part of the conceptual framework. In this regard, the study argued that poor performance is a consequence of the failure of public sector reforms in transforming the administrative culture of the South African public service. This argument emanates from an observation that public sector reforms in Australia and New Zealand succeeded because public institutions adopted a culture of business management (Bradley & Parker, 2006; Halligan, 2003). Although international research shows that transforming administrative culture enhances organisational performance, South African scholars who have investigated municipal performance do not explicitly mention the need to transform the administrative culture (Dlamini & Migiro, 2016; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Malefane, 2010; Masiya, Davids & Mangai, 2021; Mello, 2018). The inadequate recognition of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute has resulted in dearth of knowledge on the role of organisational culture in promoting or inhibiting performance in South African municipalities. This is because most studies on this subject focus on private and public companies (Gasela, 2022; Kokt & Van der Merwe, 2009; Naido & Martins, 2014) and apply quantitative research methodology. Therefore, the study concludes that addressing the knowledge gap in this area requires use of qualitative research methodology to understand deep issues underlying poor municipal performance in order to derive effective solutions grounded in empirical data. This conclusion leads to the next component of the conceptual framework, which is interrogation of literature to establish the research knowledge gap.

In establishing the research knowledge gap, the author interrogated literature on past and current empirical studies on performance management issues in South Africa and other countries. The purpose of this interrogation was to understand the strengths and weaknesses of research strategies, designs, procedures, and methods used in these studies. This interrogation revealed that international and local researchers mostly used quantitative research methodology to investigate the relationship between organisational culture and organisational performance in public institutions. In particular, most authors undertook surveys based on random sampling techniques and used questionnaires derived from Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI) and Denison Organisational Culture Survey (DOCS). Based on this trend, the author concludes that there is lack of qualitative research on how organisational culture affects performance in South Africa and other countries. This revelation supports the earlier suggestion made in the summary of the research problem statement regarding the need for qualitative research that aims at understanding social issues that influence organisational behaviour. In recognition of this need, Ndevu (2019) conducted a grounded theory study to explore the relationship between trust and organisational performance in a District Municipality. In addition, Pretorius and Schurink (2007) applied the same to develop a model for improving service delivery. However, the main limitation of these studies is that they did not

effectively apply constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling. This means that the studies did not adequately ground their findings in data. Thus, the author concludes that there is limited grounded theory research on how organisational culture affects performance in South African municipalities. Further, the author concludes that those that have used this design have failed to demonstrate the significance of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling in deriving empirical solutions to poor municipal performance. Therefore, the contribution of this study to research knowledge lies in its ability to demonstrate the significance of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling to identify empirical attributes that shape organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In addition, this study contributed useful insights into the empirical and theoretical elements that define the culture of doing things in the Municipality. Despite its contribution in this regard, the study did not collect data on other stakeholders who could have provided additional information to enable a comprehensive understanding of other aspects that influence the organisational culture in Tshwane. These issues are detailed in a summary of the research findings later on.

After establishing the research knowledge gap, the author interrogated literature to understand the field of management as an academic home for this study. According to Wotela (2016), understanding the field of study provides for identification of attributes for data collection and assist researchers to construct a theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical research results. In order to determine appropriate research attributes, the author interrogated key aspects of performance management as a component of public management. Thus, Section 2.4 provided an overview of performance management reforms in Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom. These countries are case studies for successful implementation of performance management reforms (Wegrich, 2009) and offer important lessons for South Africa. As seen in Australia and New Zealand, transforming organisational culture is critical for successful implementation of public management reforms (Halligan, 2003). As noted in Cameron (2010), key elements of the South African approach to performance management are similar to those found in Australia, New Zealand, and the UK. Therefore, this study concludes that South Africa drew heavily from these countries. Based on the review of literature on implementation of public management reforms in the three countries (Bradley & Parker, 2006; Halligan, 2003; Harrison & Baird, 2015; Wegrich, 2009), the study further concludes that conditions that made public management reforms successful in these countries do not exist in South Africa. For example, South Africa did not have a consistent policy and conceptual framework for effective implementation of performance management. In addition, South African public service is characterised by politicised bureaucracy, nepotism, and corruption that has eroded accountability and entrenched a culture of non-performance. Therefore, this study recommends that South Africa should develop a

comprehensive conceptual framework for implementation of performance management reforms. However, this may be difficult because of a strong and political labour movement that is opposed to neoliberalism. Another recommendation is that South African politicians should learn from their counterparts in Australia and New Zealand who maintained a reasonable separation of politics and administration, which resulted in an independent and professional public service. After interrogating literature to understand key dimensions of performance management as well as challenges and benefits for its implementation, the journey towards deriving a conceptual framework proceeded to the next step of determining research attributes and the theoretical framework. In this regard, the management literature identified performance planning, performance measurement, monitoring and evaluation as critical attributes of public management. Interrogation of these attributes provided different items that the author used to inform the content of the semi-structured interview guide used for collecting in-depth data from the research participants. In addition, interrogating literature to understand management as the field of study enabled the author to identify important theories, frameworks, and models used for deriving a theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical results of this study. In this regard, the author adopted a combination of theories for interpreting various research questions.

The politics-administration dichotomy and bureaucracy were used to interpret factors that impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, these theories highlighted the politics-administration interface as the root cause of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. However, these theories did not provide adequate solutions on how to improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In fact, several management studies identified bureaucracy as a serious constraint to performance. Thus, the author used NPM as a framework to understand performance impediments emanating from bureaucracy. Although it was useful in this regard, NPM is not conceptually equipped to explain personal and organisational values, principles, norms, practices, and behaviour that influence organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the author used Schein's (1985) theory of organisational culture to understand espoused and practiced values in the Municipality as well as underlying assumptions behind these values. Based on Schein's approach, the author formulated an opinion about the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In order to validate his opinion, the author used Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework (CVF) and Denison Model of organisational culture to understand how the espoused values established through Schein's approach relate to dominant cultural traits defined in Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) and Denison (1990). Comparing the empirical values and principles underlying assumptions that influence organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality with theoretical attributes of organisational culture, the author constructed a model for improving performance in

the Municipality. Based on the foregoing, the author concludes that using the Wotela framework for interrogating literature allowed the author to demonstrate that a theoretical framework is an important component of the conceptual framework. The author further concurs with Bless' (2020) conclusion that literature review is a technique for developing a theoretical framework for interpreting the empirical research for public management research. For this reason, the author recommends that postgraduate students in management and other fields might benefit from using the Wotela framework for interrogating literature to conceptualise the conceptual framework.

So far, the author has summarised key elements of the research introduction namely, the research problem statement, the research purpose statement, the research questions, the research justification, and research delimitations. In addition, the author has summarised the conceptual framework as the outcome of the literature review. Two important issues have emerged from the summary of key elements of the underpinning the first and the second chapter. First, the research problem underlying this study is premised on the argument that South African scholars are yet to embrace the value of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute. Second, this resulted in dearth of knowledge on how organisational culture affects performance in South African municipalities. To justify the existence of limited knowledge in this regard, the author has established a pattern showing that most studied on the relationship between organisational culture and performance focused on private companies and used quantitative research methodology. These issues motivated the author to adopt a qualitative approach to explore how organisational culture affects performance in the context of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the author concludes that literature review is a technique for determining appropriate research strategy for undertaking empirical research. The author further concludes that literature review is a technique that allows researchers to transition from research conceptualisation to empirical undertaking. For example, the content discussed in the research problem statement (Section 1.2) feeds into Section 2.1 and Section 2.3. In turn, the content of Section 2.3 informs the whole of chapter three while the research questions articulated in Section 1.4 were answered through data instruments structured around research attributes identified in Section 2.5. In addition, the research attributes presented in Section 2.5 and the content contained in Section 2.6 are the basis for the empirical chapters summarised in subsequent Sections of this study. Before moving to the empirical part of this study, the author reflects on the strategy, design, procedures, methods, and tools used in this study.

8.3. The research strategy, design, procedures, methods and tools for data collection, analysis, and interpretation

The review of literature does not only end with research conceptualisation but forms the basis for empirical undertaking of this study. Particularly, the author interrogated literature to understand philosophical principles that inform qualitative research as the strategy underpinning this study. Out of different brands of qualitative research, the author settled for constructivist approach, which is consistent with the key objective of deriving a performance improvement model embedded in empirical data. In addition, the ontological, epistemological, and axiological principles and beliefs of constructivism are aligned with the author's personal and professional beliefs, values and principles when it comes the nature of reality. After settling on constructivism, the next step was to select the research design that fits within the realms of this paradigm. Thus, the author interrogated literature to explore various research designs including phenomenology, narrative, ethnography, case study, action research, and grounded theory. Out of these designs the author settled for grounded theory. This decision was informed by the following decisions. Frist, narrative research is concerned with a chronological description of a phenomenon (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). Second, phenomenology generates rich data on the lived experiences of research subjects but its purpose is not to create an empirically embedded theory (Asenahabi, 2019). Third, action research provides practical solutions to the problems without necessarily generating empirical knowledge (Asenahabi, 2019). Fourth, ethnography is more suitable for social anthropology and sociology (Starman, 2013) which are far apart from the field of study in which this study is located. Last, case studies obtain in-depth understanding of a particular case but does not generate empirical theory on the experiences of the participants (Mfinanga, Mrosso, & Bishibura, 2019). For this reason, the author adopted grounded theory over other qualitative research designs.

Out of different brands of grounded theory, this study applied constructivist grounded theory initiated by Strauss (1987) advanced by Charmaz (2000). Constructivist grounded theory acknowledges a strong interrelationship between the researcher and the participants. Although this study applied the constructivist approach to grounded theory, it relied on constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling, which characterise the classical grounded theory. Thus, the author concludes that when it comes to grounded theory, positivism and constructivism are complementary not opposing research paradigms. In an effort to justify use of constructivist grounded theory, the author interrogated empirical studies that have applied this design in the context of South African municipalities. To this end, the author came across a few studies (Ndevu, 2019; Mabasa, 2018; Pretorius & Schurink, 2007). What is common in these studies is that they did not explain how they applied constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling to generate empirical theory form the views of their research subjects. In light of this limitation, the author reiterates a conclusion made earlier

that there is lack of qualitative research that offers empirical solutions to performance challenges confronting South African municipalities.

The author followed an iterative process of data collection and analysis. In preparation for data collection, the author described research participants, determined the sample and developed an instrument for data collection. Research participants in this study were drawn from the general population consisting of all employees of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Out of this population, the author identified a small ground thought to possess adequate knowledge to answer the research questions posed in this study. This group included senior and middle managers, specialists from different portfolios, representatives of labour, and ordinary employees who did not hold managerial positions. Snedecor (1939) argues that in order to find knowledgeable and reliable informants, researchers need to prepare before undertaking sampling. Therefore, the author embarked on three critical steps that involved inquiring about procedures to get access to the research setting. After getting approval, the author requested a series of documents including a staff list indicating names, positions, departments, and contact details of senior managers and specialists up to the level of the Heads of Departments. Following established protocol allowed the researcher to get recognition and support he needed for conducting this study. However, the approval took longer than anticipated thereby delaying data collection. The second step suggested in Tongco(2007) was to set criteria for participation, which in this case was the perceived ability to answer the research questions based on functional roles as stipulated on the sampling frame. The third step involved the actual selection of the participants using the staff list as a sampling frame. Thereafter, individuals identified from the staff list were contacted using telephones and emails. The greatest limitation was that a significant number of identified individuals did not respond. A few that agreed to participate were mostly senior management. In order to address this bias, the author embarked on snowball sampling, which is a more specialised type of purposive sampling (Weisberg, 2005). Snowballing is useful in situations where other means of obtaining information are not feasible (Noy, 2008) and it proved useful in this study. At each stage of the sampling, the author analysed the data through comparative analysis and employed theoretical sampling. The downside of iterative and continuous data collection and analysis proved to be time consuming. In addition, other participants identified through snowballing declined to participate thereby making data collection and analysis longer than anticipated.

Through this iterative process, the study ultimately ended with a total of 24 participants from a sample of 30 participants originally selected from the staff list. Although there is no consensus on acceptable sample size for grounded theory studies, most studies argue that a sample of 20 to 30 participants is adequate (Aldiabat & Navenec, 2018). However, Thomson (2010) argues that grounded theory studies reach saturation around the 10th interview. The lowest sample size is reported in

Pretorius and Schurink (2007) who used 4 participants to derive a model for improving performance in a particular District Municipality in South Africa.

With a sampling procedure and sample size determined, the author proceeded to collect data. Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) posit that methodological implications of paradigm choice permeate the research questions, participants' selection, data collection instruments and collection procedures, as well as data analysis. Therefore, the author concludes that research paradigm informs all aspects of the research process including development of research instruments. As mentioned earlier, the content of the semi-structured interview guide used in this study interview guide was shaped by the research attributes articulated in Section 2.5. Consequently, the author used the research instrument to conduct in-depth interviews. This method was used because of its ability to generate rich data on the experiences of research subjects. Using Kvale's (1996) metaphor of researcher as a miner and knowledge as a buried metal, the author argues that in-depth interviews allow researchers to dig deep to discover buried thoughts and feelings. For this reason, this method is appropriate for grounded theory research (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Therefore, it is not surprising that scholars who have used grounded theory to investigate different aspects related to performance in South African municipalities used this method to collect data (Mabaso, 2018; Ndevu, 2019; Pretorius & Schurink, 2007). Because of its flexibility, in-depth interview is popular across all types of qualitative research designs. Despite its popularity, in-depth interview suffers from general criticism levelled on qualitative research methodology in general. For example, Brounéus (2010) argues that this method is subjective and biased. Therefore, the author adopted Morse's (1994) strategy of using field notes and document analysis to enhance the credibility and trustworthiness of in-depth interview method.

Mulhall (2003) argues that it is important to record field notes as closely as possible in time, to when the events occurred and were observed. Thus, the author began recording observations at the time he had first interactions with the key officials who helped with the logistics of getting access to the research participants. At this level, the author made notes on how long it took the officials to respond to requests for assistance and the manner in which they responded. Based on these notes, the author formulated preliminary ideas that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality had a negative attitude towards outsiders. This opinion was derived from an observation that a significant number of potential respondents ignored email requests for participation in this study. In line with the key tenets of constructivism, this observation influenced the author's approach to data analysis. Therefore, the author concludes that field notes is an important qualitative research method that allows the author to use personal and professional background to enhance qualitative research. Despite this benefit, effective application of this method was limited by COVID-19 restrictions that required the researcher to switch from face-to-face interviews to virtual interviews. As part of enhancing the

credibility of this study, document analysis was used as a strategy to triangulate data obtained through in-depth interviews and field notes.

Also known as framework analysis (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006), document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents, both printed and electronic material (Fischer, 2006). This method is a useful source of rich data for qualitative research (Charmaz, 2014). In applying this method, the author developed a data analysis matrix consisting of theoretical themes extracted from the research questions. These themes enabled the author to extract secondary data corresponding to the theoretical themes and categories the data in terms of similarities and differences. The similarities and differences between the documents formed the basis for triangulating the empirical data obtained from in-depth interviews and field notes. In line with key principles of grounded theory, the author applied a multi-level data analysis embedded in theoretical sampling and constant comparative analysis. The first level of data analysis involved open coding where the author used line-by-line review of the transcripts for events and incidents in the data. Consequently, the author assigned descriptive labels to the identified incidents and events in the data. Thereafter, the author compared and contrasted the descriptive labels for similarities and differences. Labels or codes with similar meaning were clustered together and where necessary new labels were created. The newly created labels were compared back to the data in order to validate their meaning and relevance. This process of comparing initial codes to the newly created codes and back to the data reduced the number of open codes and allowed the author to move to the higher level of abstraction where the open codes were turned into concepts. Using the same process of comparative analysis, the author compared the concepts against each other leading to reformulations and further comparison with the codes and the data. At every stage of comparison, more research participants were identified to provide data on the newly created concepts and the data was compared to the original data. The author followed this process until the categories were created from the concepts.

Using the same approach of constant comparative analysis, the author identified similarities and differences between different data properties to create core categories that were compared with the established concepts and codes. This process enabled the author to refine the core categories and apply theoretical sampling to collect more data on core categories. Ultimately, the process of constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling moved the analysis to the next level of focused coding. This type of coding merged core categories together to develop empirical themes that were further compared against each other and back to the existing data properties and the literature. This comparative process enabled the author to determine factors that shape the organisational culture in the City of Tshwane as well as the empirical attributes required to derive an empirical model for improving negative factors giving rise to this culture.

8.4. The empirical findings

The empirical results underlying this study emanated from four research questions outlined in Section 1.4. The first question relates to factors that enhance or impede performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the study revealed that the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 provides a framework for effective delivery of services in the Municipality. In particular, the Act provides for strategic and operational instruments that institutionalise performance monitoring and evaluation. In particular, the performance management system for senior management emerged as one of the mechanisms provided for in the Municipal System Act. However, participants were divided on the role of the performance management system for senior staff in enhancing performance. For some who used accountability and transparency as performance indicators, they argued that the system promoted transparency because performance contracts of senior management were published for public scrutiny. On the other hand, some participants pointed to lack of consequence management for poor performance as an indication that the system did not incentivise performance. In support of the argument that performance management was not functioning well, other participants pointed to a fragmented approach where performance management system was not extended to permanent employees from the Director level below.

Political interference emerged as the main reason for ineffective implementation of performance management system across the Municipality as a whole. In this regard, the study revealed that political interference give rise to a range of issues that included corruption, incompetence, and lack of accountability. In addition, the study revealed that political interference is a result of the ANC's policy of deploying political loyalists in strategic positions within the municipal administration. In this regard, participants mentioned that the practice of putting political considerations ahead of merit and capability has paralysed service delivery in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, this practice has resulted in mistrust between politicians and administrators. In this regard, the participants mentioned that the Municipality lost qualified and competent managers because of factional political battles. In addition, the study revealed lack of trust between management and employees leading to differences in policy direction. In this case, employees reported that they rejected the performance management because of the perception that management would use it as an instrument to victimise them. Another aspect of political interference revealed in the study is political and administrative instability arising from political differences within coalition government partners.

The empirical results also put political interference at the heart of accountability problems facing Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this respect, the participants argued that those who have political connections undermined authority and reported directly to political masters who had appointed them. Evidence-use in another important aspect of accountability that emerged during

data analysis. On this issue, the study established conflicting views with most participants pointing to poor use of evidence for decision-making while others mentioned that evidence-use was improving. Those who reported inadequate use of evidence pointed to lack of political will and poor reporting as the main constraint for effective use of evidence in decision-making. On the other hand, those who felt that use of evidence for decision-making was improving mentioned that evidence was used to inform the 2021/2022 Integrated Development Plan.

In an attempt to locate this study within the current body of knowledge, the author compared its results with the results of other studies. On the issue of legislative framework, the results of this study are consistent with other studies that point to the existence of a comprehensive legislative framework to enhance performance across South African municipalities (Masiya, Davids, & Mangai, 2021; Manyaka & Sebola, 2015; Mngomezulu, 2020; Mofolo, 2012; Sebake & Mukonza, 2021). Therefore, the author concludes that there is comprehensive legislative framework for facilitating effective performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. However, evidence from other studies indicates that incompetence arising from appointments of unqualified people in senior positions hampers effective implementation of the existing legal framework for performance management (Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Shava & Chamisa, 2018). In addition, other studies identify political interference as the main cause of lack of trust between management and employees (Masiya, Davids & Manga, 2021). Further, political interference is the main reason for lack of accountability in South African public institutions in general (Gumede, 2015; Shava & Chamisa, 2018; Twala, 2014). Consequently, lack of accountability creates opportunities for corruption and nepotism (Moeti, 2014). Based on the empirical and theoretical evidence presented above, this study argues that political interference is the underlying factor that gives rise to all performance challenges in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

After identifying political interference as the root cause of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author moved on to answer the question of how organisational culture affects performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Answering this question required the author to determine the existing organisational culture in the Municipality first. To this end, data analysis revealed political bureaucracy, lack of employee motivation, lack of accountability, and mistrust as critical factors underlying the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The study revealed that cadre deployment is the main driver of politicisation of the municipal administration. This revelation is consistent with other studies (Shava & Chamisa, 2018; Twala, 2014) that argued that cadre deployment has created a culture of politicised bureaucracy in the South African public service as a whole. The results of this study established that the culture of politicised bureaucracy permeates all administrative aspects including human resource management. In this regard, the study pointed to political interference in staff recruitments, promotions, and performance appraisals. Therefore, the author concludes that the results of this study are consistent

with the argument raised in other studies that politicised bureaucracy in South Africa has created a public service administration that promotes nepotism (Sebola M. , 2014). In addition, the study revealed that political interference is the source of incompetence in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality because appointments to senior positions was made on political considerations and not merit. Similarly, the result of this study confirms Masuku and Jili's (2019) argument that political bureaucracy is a system where politicians dominate and lead administration.

The study revealed several ways in which political bureaucracy affects performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. First, factional political battles have resulted in loss of qualified and competent municipal managers and senior executives. This revelation is similar to (Maqoko's (2015) study that found that factional political battles of the ANC was the main reason the municipal managers in Nelson Mandela Bay cited for their removal from office. In addition, Rolland's (2018) study found that municipal managers are vulnerable to constant changes in political leadership. Second, the study results showed that appointment of unqualified and competent political loyalists to strategic positions in the Municipality negatively affects service delivery because political appointees do not have requisite skills to perform their service delivery functions. On this issue, the results of this study are consistent with Butler's (2010) finding that lack of qualified experts in technical and management fields inhibits the ability of municipalities to provide services. This result also confirm Shava and Chamisa's (2012) argument that due to lack of skills, some political appointees have not been able to offer much beyond political loyalty. Adding to this, Sebola (2014) argues that politicised bureaucracy in South Africa has created a public service administration that promotes nepotism. Third, other studies take this issue further by arguing that political interference has created a culture characterised by lack of accountability, mistrust, and poor performance.

Last, the results of this study revealed lack of accountability and corruption as direct consequences of the culture of politicised bureaucracy. This revelation is in line with previous studies that found that politicised bureaucracy creates a fertile ground for corruption (Mafunisa, 2003; Sebola, 2014). In addition, the results confirmed Shava and Chamisa's (2018) finding that that cadre deployment has exacerbated corruption in South African municipalities. On the same issue, the empirical results linked political instability in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to corruption. In particular, the participants argued that the chronic political instability in the Municipality is a political scramble for corrupt access to public resources. In this regard, the results are similar to the view that conflicts and inconsistencies in municipal operations feed corrupt activities during the scramble for municipal resources and power (Ayeko-Kümmeth, 2015).

On the issue of accountability, the empirical results of this study revealed that political appointments have created a culture of unaccountability. In explaining how lack of accountability unfolded in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, research participants mentioned that deployed

cadres are untouchable and do as they please. This development is similar to Gumede's (2014) argument that members of the African National Congress (ANC) deployed in government felt that they were accountable to political structures that had deployed them. In addition, the accountability problem revealed in the empirical results confirms the argument that weak systems tend to have organisational structures that promote lack of accountability (Coetzee & Pauw, 2013). Another aspect of accountability is reporting, which generated mixed results in that other participants highlighted improvements in reporting while others pointed to inadequate use of evidence as a result of poor reporting. In this respect, the results confirm the findings of several studies that have found inadequate use of evidence in South African municipalities (Cloete, 2009; Dlamini & Migiro, 2016; Kariuki & Reddy, 2017; Mello, 2018). Using evidence use for decision-making as an indicator of accountability, the empirical results of this study established that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality used evidence obtained from Statistics South Africa in formulating the IDP. This particular result is consistent with evidence that points to increased use of evidence in South African public institutions (Goldman, et al., 2014).

Based on the foregoing, the author concludes that politics is the key attribute that shape the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In support of this conclusion, the author presented evidence showing that political interference permeates all administrative matters in the Municipality. For this reason, the author further concludes that political interference is the main reason why introduction of NPM reforms failed to improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the author argues that key tenets of NPM are not consistent with the prevailing culture of political bureaucracy in the Municipality. Therefore, the study suggests that any effort to improve performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality requires a fundamental transformation of the culture of political parties because they are the ones that conflate political and administrative functions. However, transformation of political party system may be difficult in the context of coalition governments that have increased political competition for power. Therefore, there it is likely that nepotism and corruption will increase as political parties attempt to consolidate their grip on power.

Chapter four outlined performance impediments in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality while chapter five articulated political bureaucracy as a key determinant of organisational culture in the Municipality. In this respect, the author concluded that the culture of political bureaucracy hampers the ability of the Municipality to achieve its service delivery objectives. For this reason, chapter six proposed empirical strategies for transforming underlying political assumptions and values that have entrenched a culture of poor performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. These strategies include improving communication, building trust, and strengthening individual and institutional capacity. Lack of communication emerged as one of the issues that lead to mistrust and

inefficiencies in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, the study revealed that interdepartmental communication and collaboration is nearly impossible because the Municipality has different offices scattered around the City of Tshwane. As the research participants pointed out, this lack of integration has created multiple cultures with each office doing things differently. For this reason, the participants suggested the need to institutionalise the organisation-wide communication approach in order to improve effectiveness in service delivery. Specific actions proposed in this regard included the need for use of face-to-face mode of communication instead of electronic mode that is not accessible to the majority of employees in the lower levels of employment. This suggestion is in line with argument that digital communication must not been seen as a replacement to traditional forms of communication but as supplemental (Petan & Vasiu, 2014). In view of this, the study concludes that face-to-face communication is fundamental to improving social distance between management and employees. As the participants pointed out, improving social distance between management and employees is necessary to improve relations between management and employees thereby enhancing performance. This suggestion is consistent with Herich's (2008) statement that accomplishment of corporate goals depends on effective communication. In addition, the suggestion is similar to Powell and Dodd's (2007) argument that clear communication of company mission, organisational values, as well as company objectives leads to higher commitment and increased consistency in employees' behaviour.

The empirical results revealed that building trust is a management function that requires specific leadership competencies. Therefore, the participants highlighted the need for leadership as a strategy to equip management with communication skills. This proposal is consistent with evidence showing that transformational leaders should have the ability to create an atmosphere of trust and motivate employees (Khorshid & Pashazadeh, 2014). In addition, other studies show that leadership training provides management with skills to act with honesty, fairness, transparency and integrity in order to ensure trust, increase motivation and job satisfaction among all employees (Bellé, 2014; DeNisi & Pritchard, 2006; Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Based on these attributes of leadership, this study concludes that building leadership capacity is fundamental to creating performance-oriented culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In particular, this conclusion comes against the observation that the role of leadership is to develop, disseminate, and instil necessary values for attainment of strategic goals and objectives (Nzewi, Ijeoma, Sibanda, & Sambumbu, 2016). The study further adds that developing shared values across the organisation requires competent management with adequate skills in transformational leadership. Thus, the study concludes that leadership training is a critical strategy for effective development and communication of strategic objectives. It is also an important strategy for improving trust between management and employees. Last, transformational leadership is a critical tool for developing and inculcating performance-oriented behaviour and

attitudes in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

In terms of addressing performance management challenges reported in the previous chapters, the empirical results revealed the need for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to strengthen monitoring and evaluation as a critical component of performance management. In this regard, the participants highlighted the need for the Municipality to recruit more staff to beef up the monitoring and evaluation unit. In addition, the participants pointed to the need for building capacity across the Municipality on generation and use of evidence for decision-making. The suggestion to increase funding for monitoring and evaluation came against evidence attributing poor implementation of monitoring and evaluation activities in municipalities to inadequate funding and lack of technical skills (Cronin & Sadan, 2015; Kanyane, 2014; Mthethwa & Jili, 2016). Feedback is an important aspect of a functional monitoring and evaluation system. In this regard, the author argues that monitoring and evaluation is another strategy for improving communication and trust between management and employees. In particular, the study revealed that employees are motivated by an environment that allows them to provide feedback. This revelation is consistent with the research finding that interactive communication between top management and personnel makes officials feel part of the organisation and motivates them to achieve the objectives of the organisation (Pillay & Hoque, 2015). Based on the above, the study concludes that improving monitoring and evaluation is an important tool for improving communication through feedback mechanisms that allow employees to participate in decision-making. In this regard, the author argues that monitoring and evaluation is a strategy for improved accountability (Abrahams, 2015). Thus, the study suggests that the Municipality should increase funding and strengthen technical capacity for monitoring and evaluation as a strategy for improving accountability, motivating employees and increasing their participation in decision-making. However, the author is cognisant that this recommendation may be difficult to implement due to the precarious financial state in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The need to improve capacity is not only limited to monitoring and evaluation unit but it is a need across the Municipality as a whole. However, the study revealed lack of a systematic approach to training. In this regard, the participant pointed to few training opportunities, which in most cases are not aligned with personal development plans identified during performance planning. In order to address the capacity limitations across the Municipality, the study recommends a skills audit to identify skills shortages and develop an appropriate training programme. This suggestion is based on available evidence that highlight training as an important factor in successful implementation of performance management interventions (Mthethwa & Jili, 2016).

Chapter six outlined empirical strategies for improving organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. At the heart of these strategies is the need to transform the culture of political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, chapter seven presented

organisational culture as a strategy for developing a model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The process towards deriving this model started by describing theoretical perspectives undermining organisational culture research. To this end, the author divided organisational culture studies into three themes namely, integration, differentiation, and fragmentation. Integration perspective includes scholars who describe organisational culture as a pattern of shared assumptions constructed on consensus and passed from one group member to another. Schein's (1985) description of organisational culture as a function of shared values makes him a perfect leader of this tradition. The key tenet of integration perspective is that it emphasises the role of leadership in creating organisational culture and sharing it amongst members of the organisation (Schein, 1992). On the other hand, integration perspective includes a group of scholars that believe that culture creation is not necessarily a function of leadership (Parker, 2000). The study revealed the need to strengthen leadership as an important strategy for transforming political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the author concludes that integration perspective is the most appropriate for this study. According to (Martin, 2001, fragmentation is critical to principles of integration but takes a neutral position. The study revealed strengthening transformational leadership as an important strategy for transforming political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Therefore, the author concludes that integration perspective provides an important theoretical framework for grounding the proposed model for improving performance in the Municipality.

Out of several integration theorists reviewed, the author settled for Quinn and Rohrbaugh's (1983) Competing Values Framework, Schein's (1985) organisational culture as well as Denison's (1990) model of organisational culture. In particular, the Competing Values Framework allowed the author to understand values and principles underpinning political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Specifically, this framework enabled the author to understand that political bureaucracy is Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality share similar attributes with what Cameron and Quinn (2011) refers to as hierarchical culture. In addition, this framework enhanced the author's understanding that hierarchical organisations are inward looking in terms of operational and strategic focus. In line with key values underlying Competing Values Framework, the author concludes that this framework reiterates key features of bureaucracy articulated in Weber's (1948) theory of bureaucracy. Therefore, the study concludes that the Competing Values Framework provides important options for the author to choose from to augment limitations of political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. Despite its usefulness in this regard, the framework assumes that values underpinning organisational culture are distinct and competitive. However, this assumption does not apply in the case of Tshwane where the study found multiple and co-existing cultures.

Denison model of organisational culture is also one of the most popular approaches for analysing organisational culture. This model identifies four traits of organisational culture (mission, involvement, consistency, adaptability) that enhance performance in organisations. Based on the values underlying these traits, the study concludes that Denison model provides a comprehensive framework for analysing organisational culture in public institutions. This conclusion is derived from a study that effectively used this tool to diagnose the culture of several municipalities in South Africa (Nzewi et al., 2016). In particular, this study identified that management was inconsistent in its values and did not effectively communicate values and principles required for successful achievement of strategic objectives. The consequence of this was lack of a shared culture across the municipalities. Based on these findings, the author argues that Denison model is a useful tool for identifying specific elements of organisational culture in public institutions. In particular, all the four traits of organisational culture identified in the model are applicable in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This notwithstanding, this model applies a quantitative approach to the analysis of organisational culture. As a result, it may not be effective in obtaining rich data for understanding underlying assumptions and attitudes that shape the behaviour of individuals within organisations. For this reason, the author suggests that qualitative research instruments should be used to complement the weaknesses of this model.

A description of organisational culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by the group as it attempts to solve its problems (Schein, 1985) is a major contribution in the field of organisational. In the second edition of Organisational Culture and Leadership (1992), Schein underscores the importance of leadership in creating and managing organisational culture. In particular, Schein (2004) maintains that leaders create organisational culture by imposing their beliefs, values, and assumptions at the outset and socialise them to the rest of the group. To this end, Schein (2004) identifies six attributes of leadership that include how leaders react to incidents, how they allocate resources, how they reward staff, how they recruit, select, and promote staff, what they pay attention to, and how they teach or coach. Therefore, the author concludes that this theory provides useful content for leadership capacity building programme. Thus, Schein theory provides useful insights on how to improve leadership competencies in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

The main contribution of Schein's theory is that it outlines three dimensions of organisational culture namely, artifacts, espoused beliefs and values, and underlying assumptions. These dimensions allowed the author to identify observable objects, acceptable behaviour and expressed values, principles, and assumptions important for improving the culture of political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the author identified IDP and its operational tools as key artifacts that define organisational culture in Tshwane. The study revealed inadequate expression of values and principles in strategic and operational documents of the Municipality. Therefore, the study

suggests that the management of Tshwane should ensure that organisational values and principles are explicitly embedded in key artifacts that determine organisational culture. In addition, the notion of espoused values provides the opportunity for the author to suggest ways of improving norms and values that give rise to several consequences of political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In a nutshell, deriving a performance improvement model is a process that begins with understanding the overall perspectives underlying research on organisational culture. This understanding provides a theoretical framework that enabled the author to identify specific assumptions, beliefs, values, norms, and practices that inform strategies for transforming organisational culture.

The last step towards constructing a model for improving performance involved teasing out the assumptions, beliefs, and values embedded in prominent theories of organisational culture. After identifying these elements, the author explored their relevance in augmenting the culture of political bureaucracy (hierarchical culture) in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To this end, chapter 7 points to Denison's (1990) trait of involvement, which underscore the significance of teamwork as an important value for employee motivation. Therefore, the study argues that teamwork is an important value for improving performance. This value in embedded in Schneider's (1999) collaboration culture, Harrision's (1972) person/supportive culture, as well as in Cameron and Quinn's (2011) clan culture. Collectively, these models embrace a supportive culture that values personal relationships. Given the reported mistrust and frosty relations between management and employees in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, the author proposes an empirical model entrenched in a culture that promotes strong personal relations. In support of this proposal, Denison (1990) argues that teamwork and involvement of employees in decision-making promote trust. In addition, trust reduces disagreements and conflicts at the workplace (Jabeena & Rahim, 2021) and improves motivation (Kanter, 1989).

Leadership and organisational culture are two sides of the same coin (Schein, 2004). Therefore, the author under argues that leadership is an important attribute that needs to be embedded in a model aimed at improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This argument is derived from empirical data showing the need to equip management of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality with leadership skills especially in the area of performance management, interpersonal relations. In particular, the author recommends specific training in transformational leadership, which is necessary for successful transformation of organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. As Schein (2004) points out, transformational leaders should have skills to define organisational mission and infuse their own beliefs and values in the organisational mission. Therefore, the author concludes that Harrison (1972) and Weber (1947) provide useful insights on how to build a competent bureaucracy. Thus, the study concludes that an effective model for improving bureaucracy in

Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should be anchored around improving leadership and technical competencies. In support of this conclusion, Schneider (1999) identifies competence as a specific type of culture in his four dimensions of organisational culture.

The study revealed lack of accountability as another feature of the weak organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. However, based on the review of different models of organisational culture used in this study, the author concludes that none explicitly identify accountability as an important organisational value. Even though this issue is not explicitly stated, it is implied in several cultures that embrace procedures and regulations as instruments for regulating hierarchical relationships (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Deal & Kennedy, 2000; Harrison, 1972; Schneider, 1999). Accountability values are also implied in Schein's (1985) notion of shared assumptions, which assumes that communication is a tool for sharing organisational values and holding members accountable to socially validated and acceptable behaviour. Despite its explicit mention, accountability is an important value that needs to be integrated into the model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

Based on the above, the study proposes a performance improvement model anchored in transformational leadership. The need to include leadership as an integral component of the model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is informed by Schein's (1992) argument that leaders define and promote organisational values and principles. Another role of leadership is to create a conducive environment for teamwork and involvement of employees in decision-making. As noted in Denison (1990) the cultural attribute of involvement is critical for performance because it improve motivation and trust. Accountability and capacity building are also critical issues that have to be embedded in practical efforts for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The author makes this statement against empirical evidence that highlighted lack of accountability and incompetence as key performance impediments in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

The author drew from several theories of organisational culture to derive a performance improvement model for Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This model consists of four types of organisational culture namely, hierarchical culture, competence culture, performance-oriented culture, and supportive culture. In addition, the author drew from empirical data obtained from the research participants to align theoretical aspects of organisational culture with the performance challenges and solutions that emerged from the empirical data. Through a process of comparative analysis, the author generated a model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. This model is premised on the argument that augmenting limitations of political bureaucracy is fundamental to improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the author concurs with Schein (1992) that leadership is central to successful transformation

of administrative culture.

As noted earlier, the proposed model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality is a product of a mixture of values and principles drawn from four cultural orientations. The first cultural orientation of hierarchy, also known as power culture (Harrison, 1972) or command culture (Schneider, 1999), represents values and principles of bureaucracy outlined in Weber (1947). Based on empirical data, the author described the organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as a political bureaucracy. This description emerged from the empirical data that put political interference at the heart of all performance challenges confronting the Municipality. In addition, the empirical data revealed incompetence and mistrust as key features of political bureaucracy. For this reason, the author proposed Schneider's (1999) cultural dimension of competence to address incompetence arising from political interference as established in the case of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. In this regard, the proposal is for Tshwane to put in place mechanisms for creating a competent bureaucracy anchored in strong leadership. The advantage of a bureaucratic culture as noted in several author (Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Schneider, 1999; Weber, 1948) is that it creates stability and predictability through adherence to rules and regulations. Therefore, the suggestion is that Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality should strengthen its bureaucracy by instilling values that promote competence and excellence within the boundaries of the exiting bureaucracy. As noted in Schneider (1999), competence culture is unique for combining possibility (external focus) with rationalism (stability and control). Therefore, combining hierarchical/bureaucratic culture with competence culture would allow Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to improve its strategic orientation by balancing internal and external focus. Competency culture embraces knowledge and information (Schneider, 1999) while hierarchical culture values (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) values regulatory compliance. Therefore, the author reiterates the suggestion that a combination of these values would allow Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to be externally focused while maintaining necessary control, stability, and predictability.

Closely related to the culture of competence is the achievement-oriented culture, which is also known as market-oriented (Cameron & Quinn, 2011) or goal-oriented culture (Harrison, 1972). The author argues that the performance-oriented culture draws its inspiration from New Public Management. Based on Cameron and Quinn's (2011) argument of competing values, hierarchical culture is a direct opposite of performance-oriented culture. In line with key principles of NPM, performance culture share similar values with competence culture. Therefore, the author argues that combining values of the two cultural perspectives would enable Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality to be improve its strategic orientation by using evidence the better serve its external stakeholders. In addition, combining elements of performance culture would improve accountability and transparency in the Municipality thereby addressing key performance impediments identified in chapter 4. Further,

embracing principles of accountability and performance would allow the Municipality to fulfil its external accountability obligations through quality reporting and use of information for learning and adapting to the external realities that affects its strategic and operational outlook. At the same time, performance-oriented culture would enhance internal accountability by delegating responsibility to managers thereby strengthening the effectiveness of bureaucracy. As Rubakula (2014) points out, leadership is critical for successful implementation of prescripts of NPM. This view supports Schein's (1992) argument that leadership is important for augmenting the bureaucratic culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

This study revealed lack of trust and motivation as key features of political bureaucracy in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. To address these challenges, the author used the principle of involvement espoused in Denison's (1990) model of organisational culture as well as in Harrison's (1972) supportive culture. In this regard, the author argues that supportive culture is complementary to performance culture. To support this view, the author points to empirical data showing that effective implementation of performance management tools can improve trust between employees and management and increase employee motivation. One of the key features of effective performance management is constant engagement between managers and subordinates throughout performance planning, monitoring, review and improvement. Therefore, an effective performance management system entrenched in constant communication between managers and subordinates would create a conducive environment of trust and motivation. As Harrison (1972) and Cameron and Quinn (2011) point out, trust and motivation are critical values of a supportive culture. Therefore, the author proposes supportive culture to strengthen the internally focused bureaucratic culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

There are two dimensions underlying the four pillars of the proposed model for improving organisational culture in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The first dimension relates to the continuum of stability vs flexibility on one hand and internal vs external on the other. As reflected in Figure 7.6, leadership is a pillar that balances the overall cultural orientations emanating from a combination of different types of organisational culture. For instance, strong leadership is a requirement to maintain a stable and competent bureaucracy. In addition, leadership plays a critical role in promoting external focus arising from a combination of competency culture and performance culture. Furthermore, leadership is important for balancing accountability principles emanating from performance culture with personal values and empathy originating from supportive culture. This is more important in the context of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality where empirical data reveals that political bureaucracy has reduced trust and motivation. Therefore, leadership is key in ensuring a supportive and performance-oriented culture. Last, leadership is a glue that holds supportive culture and hierarchical culture together in a manner that maintains internal control and stability. As noted in

the Competing Values Framework, hierarchical culture is not concerned is impersonal and Weber's (1947) bureaucracy is premised on the same principle. The consequence of this is that employees emotions and feelings do not matter. Therefore, the author argues that strong leadership is necessary to balance control and adherence to rules while also being sympathetic to the plight of the employees. Therefore, this study concludes that leadership is a critical component of the model for improving performance in Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

8.5. Contribution to knowledge

The thesis statement underpinning this study consists of two points of contention. The first is that with the exception of Gumede (2015), South African scholars are yet to recognise the significance of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute in the South African public sector. The lack of recognition in this regard is based on the author's observation that New Public Management is not conceptually cognisant of organisational culture as a performance-enhancing attribute. Therefore, this study locates organisational culture and leadership within the space of performance improvement in South Africa. By so doing, it contributes important empirical and theoretical knowledge on how to improve performance in South African Municipalities. The second point of contention is that researchers that have used grounded theory to explore performance issues in South African Municipalities have not adequately applied constant comparative analysis and theoretical sampling. Therefore, the study highlighted the significance of these techniques in deriving an empirical model for improving performance in the City of Tshwane. By so doing, the study contributes necessary information that may address existing methodological gaps on performance management research in South African Municipalities.

8.6. Recommendation for future research

As discussed in Section 2.5, stakeholder participation is one of the key attributes embedded in the legal framework governing performance management in South African Municipalities. Therefore, the study collected empirical data to understand how Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality involves its stakeholders in the IDP processes. Therefore, there is a need for more research to explore the role of external stakeholders in the performance management value chain in the City of Tshwane. Embracing a culture of evaluation is an important aspect of performance management and improvement. In this regard, the author had intended to understand if the City of Tshwane has a culture that is conducive to evaluation. Although the study established that the Municipality does not have adequate human and financial resources to entrench a culture of evaluation, the study did not pursue this issue thoroughly. Therefore, the author recommends more research to understand how the evaluation culture or lack thereof, affects organisational culture in the City of Tshwane.

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Appendix 1.1: Data collection instrument

I hereby agree to participate in the research on linking evaluation information use to governance in the City of Tshwane. I understand that my participation is free and I can terminate my participation at any given point in time if I so wish. I also understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally in the immediate or short term. I understand that my participation will remain confidential.

Finally, I understand that my participation and the information I provide during the research process will remain confidential. I also understand that the information obtained from me will be recorded electronically and retrieved and used at a later stage for purposes related to this research.

Signature of the Participant _____Date: _____

Notes to the researcher

(a) Request the participant to complete the consent form
(b) Assure the participants of the confidentiality
(c) Request permission to record the interview
(d) Explain the purpose of the study
(e) Give the participant a chance to ask questions
(f) Describe the interview setting

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Observe and note the following attributes

Name of participant:	
Sex	
Highest Qualifications	
Year of experience	
Number of participants	
Position (Job title)	
Interview setting	

Key aspects of performance management

Strategic planning

1. How would you describe the planning processes within your organisation?

Probes

- Who does what, how and with whom during each stage?
- Is the review of previous IDP done before developing the next one?
- How is the review done?
- How is the information from the review used?
- Who does the review?
- Who participates in the planning processes?
- How does the Municipality manage the participation process?

2. Generally, how does your organisation use evidence for strategic planning?

Probes

- What are the factors facilitating or constraining effective use of evidence for planning?
- How should your organisation address these constraints?
- What is your organisation doing to build on factors that enhance use of evidence for planning?

3. How would you describe the skills set required for effective planning?

Probes

- Does your organisation have appropriate skills necessary for effective planning? (explain)
- How does your organisation use available skills set for planning purposes?
- What should your organisation do to ensure optimal use of available skills to enhance planning?

Performance monitoring

4. How would you describe the process of monitoring service delivery programmes in your organisation?

Probes

- Who leads the monitoring activities?
- What resources are allocated for monitoring activities? (staff, funding etc)
- What tools are used for collecting monitoring data
- How would you describe the quality and relevance of monitoring data in your organisation?
- How frequent does your organisation collect monitoring data?
- How does your organisation use monitoring data?

Reporting

5. How would you describe the process of reporting on service delivery programmes in your organisation?

- Who is responsible for reporting on service delivery programmes in your organisation?
- Who is responsible for reporting on overall organisational performance in your organisation?
- How does your organisation report and disseminate performance information to different stakeholders?
- How would you describe the benefits of reporting performance to your organisation and its stakeholders?
- What challenges does your organisation encounter in the process of reporting to its stakeholders?
- How does your organisation address these challenges?

Performance evaluation

6. Please describe for me the available policy/legislative framework guiding the practice of evaluation in your organisation

Probes

- How is the evaluation process/activity linked to planning, monitoring and management?
- What is the process for commissioning and managing evaluation processes in your organisation? (who does what for what? how? With whom? When?)

7. What are specific purposes for which evaluation findings/information is used in your organisation? (who uses the findings and how?

Probes

- What is the outcome of use/non-use of findings?)
- What factors facilitate or hinder use of evaluation findings?
- How does your organisation address these challenges?
- How does your organisation build on positive aspects facilitating use of evaluation findings?

8. Generally, how would you describe the overall attitude of the Municipality regarding use of evaluation findings?

Performance management

9. How would you describe the role of management in promoting organisational performance in your organisation?

Probes

- What is the involvement of management in defining the vision and mission of the organisation? (how are these defined, who defines them with whom? What informs definition of these?)
- Specify exactly what different layers of management does to ensure achievement of the organisational vision and mission?
- Generally, what factors constrain the ability/capacity of management to promote organisational performance in your organisation?
- What are specific areas of improvement for management to consider in promoting organisational performance?
- What are specific managerial attributes required for improving performance in your organisation?

Organisational performance

10. What is your understanding of organisational performance in relation to Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality?

Probes

- Please specify key aspects of organisational performance
- How would you describe the performance of your organisation on these aspects?
- What factors facilitate or constrain performance in your organisation?

11. In your opinion, does your organisation provide services that meet the needs of the community? (explain)

Probes

- How would you describe the quality of the services provided by your organisation?
- How does your organisation measure quality of services?
- What mechanisms does your organisation hav to ensure continuous delivery of quality services?

12. Overall, how would you describe the organisational culture in your organisation?

Probes

- What specific aspects of organisational culture lead to improved performance in your organisation
- How do these aspects improve organisational performance?
- What traits of organisational culture inhibit performance in your organisation and how?

13. If you were to identify two/three most important things to do in order to inculcate a culture of performance within this organisation what would those be and why?

END OF INTERVIEW

Notes to the researcher

1. Thank the respondent
2. Provide him/her an opportunity to ask questions
3. Request if he/she will be available for follow up questions
4. Reassure him/her of confidentiality
5. Remind him/her that a copy of the interview may be provided upon request

Appendix 3.1: Short bio of the researcher

Basia Dennis Bless is a practising monitoring and evaluation specialist with a career spanning over ten years. He has worked for several organisations in Lesotho and South Africa where he has been involved in building monitoring and evaluation systems. During the course of his duties, Basia realised significant challenges regarding use of evaluation-findings and decided to investigate this issue within the context of South African public institutions.