

**CAPACITY BUILDING AS A MEANS TO ENHANCE EFFECTIVE
SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE: A CASE OF VHEMBE
DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY**

E.A MUKWEVHO

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

COMPLETED: AUGUST 2015

**CAPACITY BUILDING AS A MEANS TO ENHANCE EFFECTIVE SERVICE
DELIVERY IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE: A CASE OF VHEMBE DISTRICT
MUNICIPALITY**

BY

EDZISANI AMOS MUKWEVHO

**Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the *Doctor of Philosophy in Social
Studies in the Faculty of Commerce and Management* at the University of Fort Hare**

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR D.R. THAKHATHI

2015

DECLARATION

I, *Edzisani Amos Mukwevho*, hereby declare that the thesis for the Doctor of Philosophy in Social Studies degree at the University of Fort Hare hereby submitted by me has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or any other university, and that it is my own work in design and in execution and that all reference material has been duly acknowledged.

.....

E A Mukwevho

.....

Date

ABSTRACT

Capacity building is an important activity in all aspects of professional life. It is also important in all organizations, both private and public, regardless of size or complexity; since every organisation needs to have well-trained employees who are prepared to perform their job. In Vhembe District Municipality, many people enter the work force each year and need training to help them understand their specific roles within the municipality. However, the main challenge is that the majority of the municipality employees possess low-level work skills and knowledge which negatively affect service delivery significantly. This study was therefore investigated the mechanisms to be put in place to ensure that the capacity building objectives are achieved.

The scientific mixed mode research design for data collection was adopted in this study. Consequently, the tool for data collection in the form of the structured questionnaire and interviews was carefully designed and developed considering their reliability and validity as well as research ethical issues. Noteworthy, the stratified simple random sampling procedure was employed with the acceptable sample size of the respondents was selected. The data was processed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The frequencies and cross-tabulations analyses were computed to determine percentage trend on responses of the respondents in each question. The chi-square analysis to determine the association at 95% confidence level ($P > 0, 05$) between position and HRD work conducted was computed.

Furthermore, the findings of the study revealed that the Vhembe District Municipality did not have a well-coordinated HRD system regarding policies and plans. It was therefore recommended that

several policies be put in place to enhance the capacity of the employees within the municipality for improved service delivery. In the contrary, the policy formulation process excluded the full participation of the auxiliary staff with the top and middle management fully participated in the process. On the other hand, the results of the study further revealed that the majority of the staff members have undergone training since joining the district municipality with approximately 16 percent of the employees completely having not undergone the training. The findings of the study also revealed that induction is being conducted to the newly appointed employees in the Vhembe district municipality with both male and female respondents agreeing on this issue.

It is noted that despite the significant efforts made by the Vhembe District Municipality with regard to the employees' capacity building initiatives, personnel perceive significant imperfections in the management of the HRD processes, which tend to detract from its effectiveness. Notably, there are a number of areas of imperfections in the system that has been identified by the respondents. For the better designed and effectively managed HRD system, it is recommended that at least the municipality employees should attend training once a year to ensure that efficiency on the job is achieved. Similarly, the formulation of the training programme should consider the input from the wider range of stakeholders, including representatives of the personnel, such as the labour unions. In addition, the finding of the study suggest that the formulation and implementation of the training programme and its implementation principles and practices be subjected to the periodic review, and that those charged with its implementation should be held accountable for its performance. Lastly, to achieve the employees' capacity building initiatives effectively and efficiently, the HRD programme should be allocated sufficient funds to meet its capacity building objectives, and that the utilisation of such funds should be properly accounted for.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to take this opportunity to thank my supervisor Prof. D.R. Thakhathi, who guided me through my work. Also, I would like to specifically direct my sincere gratitude to my wife and children for supporting me during my studies. To all my friends, I would like to thank you for the encouragements you have given me, specifically Tshidzumba Ratsodo Phillip who supported and assisted me all the way through until the end.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my late parents, my father Johannes Tshikhudo Mukwevho and Mrs Takalani Mukwevho who relentlessly encouraged and motivated me to take my education serious. There are no words that I could thank my parents with since I am where I am today because of them. With this achievement I am actually reaping what you have sown in me.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	v
DECLARATION	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
LIST OF ACRONYNS	xii
CHAPTER 1	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY.....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND.....	2
1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM	4
1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	5
1.5 PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	6
1.6 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS	6
1.7 LITERATURE REVIEW	7
1.7.1 Introduction	7
1.7.2 Definitions of Concepts	9
1.7.3 Theories underpinning Human Resource Development.....	11
1.7.3.1 The psychological theory.....	13
1.7.4 Management Theories under Development.....	14
1.8 CAPACITY BUILDING WITHIN THE MUNICIPALITIES	15
1.9 Forms of Capacitating Human Resource	17
1.9.1 Formal Education Programmes	17

1.9.2 Assessment	18
1.9.3 Job Experiences	19
1.9.4 Interpersonal Relationships	20
1.10 THE BENEFITS OF CAPACITY BUILDING	20
1.10.1 Benefits for Employee	21
1.10.2 Benefits for the Municipality as the Employer.....	22
1.11 DELIMITATION OF STUDY	23
1.12 ETHICAL MEASURES	24
1.13 REFERENCING TECHNIQUE	25
1.14 PROPOSED STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY	26
CHAPTER 2	27
LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK WITH REGARD TO CAPACITY BUILDING	27
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	27
2.2 CAPACITY BUILDING AND RELATED LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK	28
2.2.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.....	28
2.2.2 The South African Qualification Authority Act No.58 of 1995.....	31
2.2.3 Skills Development Act (97 of 1998).....	38
2.2.4 The Public Service Act (103 of 1994)	46
2.2.5 White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service, 1997.....	47
2.2.6 The National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS)	50
2.3 CONCLUSION.....	57
CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW	58
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	58

3.2 THE STATE OF CAPACITY BUILDING IN LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN SOUTH..	59
3.2.1 The South African Local Government Association’s (SALGA) Strategic Plan	61
3.2.2 The state of Vhembe District Municipality	64
3.3 TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS	65
3.3.1 Organisational Analysis.....	65
3.3.2 Task Analysis	66
3.3.3 Person Analysis	67
3.4 HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY	69
3.4.1 Constitutional Background of the Human Resource Development Strategy	69
3.4.2 Why an HRD Strategy for South Africa?.....	71
3.4.3 The Human Resource Development Strategy for South Africa (2001).....	74
3.4.4 Brief Review of the 2001 HRD Strategy for South Africa.....	76
3.4.5 Key challenges that have shaped the revision of the HRD strategy	78
3.4.6 Goals of the New HRD Strategy	82
3.5 COMPONENTS OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT	83
3.5.1 Human Resource Development	83
3.5.2 Organizational Development.....	90
3.5.3. Principles of Employee Development	100
3.6 MAPPING CAPACITY BUILDING	102
3.6.1 Factors that Shape Capacity Building Process	103
3.7 ORGANIZATIONAL CAPACITY	109
3.7.1 Key Factors of Organizational Effectiveness	110

3.7.2 Steps in Building Organizational Capacity	110
3.8 CAPACITY BUILDING AS A PROCESS	115
3.8.1 Knowledge.....	115
3.8.2 Skills	117
3.8.3 Tool.....	119
3.8.4 Systems.....	120
3.8.5 Techniques.....	121
3.9 THE EDUCATION, TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROCESS IN CAPACITY BUILDING.....	121
3.9.1 Needs Analysis	125
3.9.2 The learning objective	127
3.9.3 Design.....	128
3.9.4 Delivery	131
3.10 TRAINING METHODS	131
3.10.1 High-Technology Methods.....	133
3.10.2 On-the-Job Training Technique.....	134
3.10.3 On-or-off the Job Techniques.....	136
3.10.4 Off-the-Job Training Technique.....	137
3.11 PERFORMANCE EVALUATION	138
3.12. POST TRAINING CHALLENGES	139
3.13 HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IMPROVEMENTS.....	139
3.14 MANAGING PERFORMANCE	142
3.15. THE PROCESS OF LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENTS.....	143

3.15.1 Learning and development as crucial in service delivery.....	143
3.16 ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING AND THE LEARNING ORGANIZATION	145
3.16.2 The learning Organization	148
3.17 PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENTS	149
3.17.1 The White Paper on Transforming Service Delivery, 1997	150
3.18 THE SERVICE DELIVERY PRINCIPLES OF BATHO PELE.....	151
3.18.1 Implementation of Batho Pele	157
3.19 INDUCTION.....	163
3.19.1 The objectives of induction and orientation	164
3.20 CONCLUSION	166
CHAPTER 4	167
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	167
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	167
4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN	167
4.2.1 Population and Sample	168
4.3 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS.....	168
4.3.1 Questionnaire.....	169
4.3.2 Documentary Analysis	169
4.3.3 Interviews	170
4.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OR MEASURES	171
4.4.1 Permission to carry out the Study	171
4.4.2 Informed Consent.....	172
4.4.3 Confidentiality and Anonymity	172

4.4.4	Protection of Respondents from Harm	172
4.5	DATA ANALYSIS	173
4.5.1	Qualitative Data Analysis	173
4.6.	CONCLUSION	174
CHAPTER FIVE	175
RESULTS AND EXPLANATIONS	175
5.1	INTRODUCTION.....	175
5.2	RESPONDENTS' PROFILE	176
5.3	NATURE OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME IN VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY	178
5.3.1	Human Resource Development Policy and Plans Responsibilities.....	178
5.3.2	Human Resource Development (training) work conducted in the Department	179
5.3.3	Development of HRD Policies and Plans.....	180
5.3.4	Participation in the formation of policy process.....	182
5.3.5	Focus of Human Resource Development Programme	183
5.3.6	Skills development training attendance frequency	185
5.3.7	Frequency of training measured on a yearly basis	186
5.4	THE APPLICATION OF THE HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT FUNCTION IN THE VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY	187
5.4.1	Induction Implementation.....	188
5.4.2	The Responsible Person for Induction Process in the Municipality.....	189
5.4.3	The Content of the Induction Program	192
5.5	ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT FUNCTION	195

5.5.1 Performance rating	195
5.6 EFFECTIVENESS OF THE HRD TRAINING FUNCTION	203
5.6.1 Introduction	203
5.6.2 Accessibility of the HRD programme	203
5.6.3 Effectiveness of the human resource development initiatives.....	206
CHAPTER 6.....	211
RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS.....	211
6.1 CONCLUDING REMARKS	211
6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS	213
6.3. CONCLUSION	215

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Population Distribution and Sampling in the Vhembe District Municipalities	3
Table 5.1: Respondents' profile in the Vhembe District Municipality.....	177
Table 5.2: Human resource development policy and plans responsibility	179
Table 5.3: chi-square analysis.....	180
Table 5.4: Responsibility for drawing up Human Resource Development Policy and Plans.....	181
Table 5.5: Employee's participation in the policy formation exercise or process	183
Table 5.6: Frequency of employees for undergoing skills development and training programme	185
Table 5.7: The frequency of training undergone by district municipality employees	187
Table 5.8: Implementation of induction to the respondents	188
Table 5.9: Induction content	194
Table 5.10: Rating of factors behind the performance of the employees in Vhembe district municipality	200
Table 5.11: performance rating after-training support system.....	202
Table 5.12: Coverage of personnel with skills development training (respondents' statistics)..	204
Table 5.13: General rating of staff job performance following training.....	206
Table 5.14: Preferred frequency for HRD training courses	208

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: The South African map indicating the location of Limpopo Province with a depiction of Vhembe District.....	4
Figure 5.1: depicts the multi-responses on the focus of human resource development programme	184
Figure 5.2: Illustration of the person who conducted induction process for newly employed workers in the municipality	191

LIST OF ACRONYNS

AD	: Auditor General
ETD	: Education, Training and Development
FET	: Further Education and Training
HR	: Human Resource
HRD	: Human Resource Development
HRDS	: Human Resource Development Strategy
HRM	: Human Resource Management
NQF	: National Qualification Authority
NSDS	: National Skills Development Strategy
QCTO	: Quality Council for Trade and Occupation
SAQA	: South African Qualification Authority
SDA	: Skills Development Act
SDF	: Skills Development Facilitator
SETA	: Sector Education and Training Authority
UNDP	: United Nations Development Program
VDM	: Vhembe District Municipality
QA	: Quality Assurance
RPL	: Recognition of Prior Learning
PMS	: Performance Management System
WSP	: Workplace Skills Plan
SALGA	: South African Local Government Association
LGTAS	: Local Government Turnaround Strategy

MTSF

:Medium Term Strategic Framework

CHAPTER 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Capacity building is an important activity in all aspects of professional life. Every day, people are confronted with new situations compelling them to respond appropriately. This can be achieved through training and education. Capacity Building is important in all organizations, both private and public regardless of size or complexity; since every organisation needs to have well-trained employees who are prepared to perform their job.

For organisations, capacity building may relate to almost any aspect of its work: improved governance, leadership, mission and strategy, administration (including human resources, financial management and legal matters), programme development and implementation, fundraising and income generation, diversity, partnership and collaboration.

(http://www.gdrc.org/uen/capacity_define.html)

In Vhembe District Municipality, many people enter the work force each year and need training to help them understand their specific roles within the municipality. The present employees also need to be capacitated, mainly because the rapidly expanding technology and growth of new knowledge require continual retraining of experienced workers to perform new and changed tasks. The growth of this municipality in large, complex operations whose structures are continually

changing make it necessary for managers, as well as employees, to be prepared for new and more demanding assignments – hence, service delivery within municipalities.

In previous years, much of the responsibility for providing training and education was assumed by educational institutions. In recent years, however, organizations have begun to assume a larger share of the responsibility for providing both specific job training and also education. Capacity building has become increasingly vital to the success of modern organisations as Bohlande, Snell and Sherman (2001:222) note that organisations compete on competencies. Training plays a role in nurturing and strengthening these competencies. In addition, rapidly changing technologies require that employees continuously hone their knowledge, skills and abilities to cope with new processes and systems.

1.2 BACKGROUND

Vhembe District Municipality is situated in the Northern part of Limpopo Province, sharing borders with Zimbabwe in the north, Mozambique through Kruger National Park in the east and Botswana in the North West.

Vhembe District Municipality with its headquarters in Thohoyandou was established in 2000 through the process of the transformation of Local Government. It was established in terms of the Municipal Structure Act 117 of 1998 as a demarcated sphere of government. According to Vhembe district IDP report (2001/02), Table 1.1 below shows the total population in each of the four local municipalities that constitute Vhembe district municipality, namely, Makhado, Musina, Thulamela

and Mutale. The municipality covers 21 407 km² and has a total population of 1,192,252 million. The amalgamated entities are the former Mutale/Masisi/Vhutswema, Elim/Hlanganani/Tshitale and Thohoyandou/Malamulele. The amalgamation was finalised by the issuing of Notice 308 of 2000. In terms of Section 12 of Local Government Municipal Structures Act No.117 of 1998, the then existing municipalities were disestablished to make way for the new four municipalities.

Table 1.1: Population Distribution and Sampling in the Vhembe District Municipalities

Municipality	% of population	Population per municipality
Thulamela	48.61	579,675
Makhado	41.62	496,198
Mutale	6.34	75,643
Musina	3.43	40,836
Total	100.0	1,192,252

(Source: Vhembe IDP Report, 2001/02)

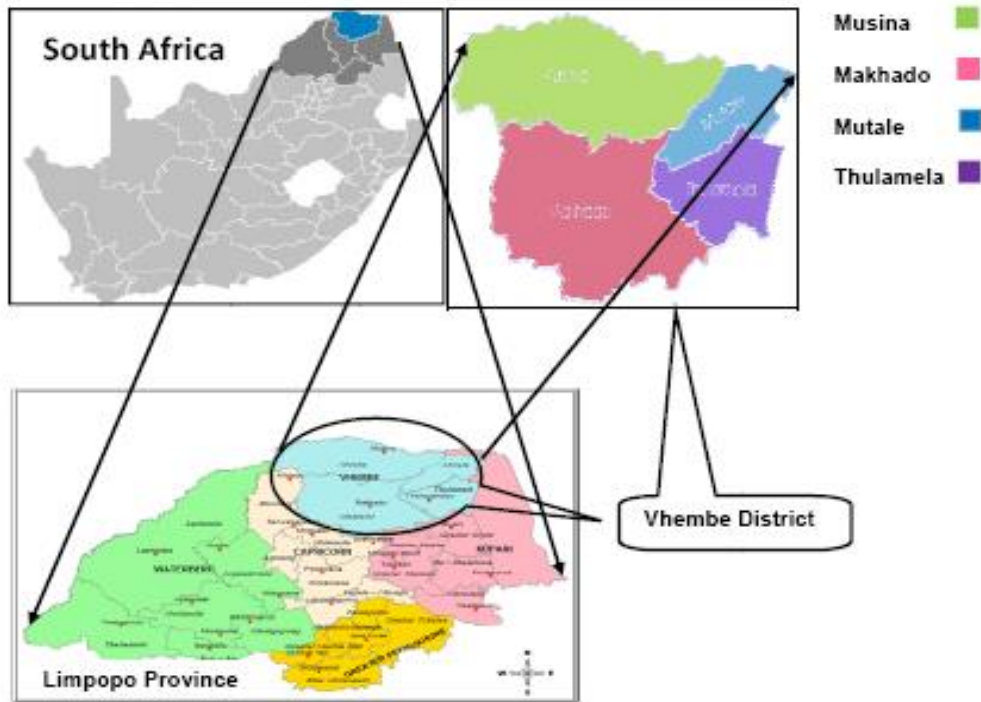


Figure 1.1: The South African map indicating the location of Limpopo Province with a depiction of Vhembe District

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The area of jurisdiction of the Vhembe District Municipality is predominantly rural with critical basic service delivery backlogs. However, the main challenge is that the majority of the municipality employees possess low-level work skills and knowledge which negatively affect service delivery significantly. The Vhembe District Municipality situation raises a few questions.

Firstly, what are the mechanisms put in place to ensure that the capacity building objectives are achieved? Secondly, to what extent have the managers and the employees accommodated the ideals and requirements of the capacity building function? Lastly, what are the main policies and operational challenges or obstacles to effective implementation of the capacity building as a means for enhancing service delivery in the public service?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This study aims to analyse the special role that human resources development is playing in service delivery in the Vhembe District Municipality. Specifically, the objectives of the research are:

- To examine the objectives of the human resource development strategy and specific legislation for improved service delivery within the Vhembe District Municipality;
- To investigate the application of the skills development function within the Vhembe District Municipality;
- To investigate the impact of the human resources development function on employee skills development and its application to service delivery in the District Municipality of Vhembe; and
- To investigate the problems with the application of the human resource development function and the impact these have on employee attitudes and service delivery performance.

1.5 PURPOSE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Effective application of the human resource development strategy with respect to achievement of its goals is of critical importance to South Africa in general and the Vhembe District Municipality in particular. Not only does this go a long way to reducing the historical racial inequities in building technical capacity among the various population groups, but also, it leads to a general improvement in the knowledge and skill capacity of [especially] the public service for public service delivery. As such, this study seeks to establish the extent to which the Vhembe District Municipality has sought to meet government expectations about human resource development efforts and their service delivery outcomes, especially among members of the historically disadvantaged population. Unfortunately, if such efforts and outcomes do not meet such expectations, it would be of interest to find out about the nature and origin of the practical constraints, for further action. Such a situation should be of academic interest as well, particularly in the context of an analysis of the application of such a function to a dynamic environment that South Africa represents.

1.6 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The research is guided by the hypothesis that work knowledge and skills development among employees are directly related to work performance. Therefore:

- There has been slow implementation of the human resource development function in the District of Vhembe Municipality.

- The low level of human resource development in the Vhembe District Municipality has continued to negatively impact on the overall quality of service delivery.
- There are human resource development strategy and specific legislation for improved service delivery within the Vhembe District Municipality.
- There are challenges with the application of human resource development function and the impact these have on employee attitude and service delivery performance.

1.7 LITERATURE REVIEW

1.7.1 Introduction

The South African Constitution of 1996 states that municipalities have the responsibilities to make sure that all citizens are provided with the services to satisfy their basic needs. Local government (municipality) is the sphere of government closest to the people. They are elected by the citizens to represent them and are responsible to ensure that services are delivered to the community. One way in which municipalities can do this is to provide the services themselves through the use of their own resources – human resources, finance and equipment. It is possible for a municipality to improve and expand the delivery of services by improving their own ability to do so. By improving a number of skills, municipalities may be better enabled to deliver services effectively and efficiently from inside.

Within the present South African labour dispensation, the major determinants of economic, political or social success are, beyond doubt, capacity building which includes education, training and development. South Africa in general and the Vhembe District Municipality in particular, are not yet endowed with the human skills they need for economic growth, employment growth and social development.

Vhembe District Municipality has an obligation of providing efficient service to the public. The majority of the people in the district are regarded as unskilled. For the district to succeed in its constitutional mandate of providing effective and efficient service to the communities, it needs to invest in capacity building.

Viewed within the context of the South African dilemma of overpopulation, inadequate education, scarce economic employment opportunities and poverty, training and development is the key to maintaining the subcontinent's workforce, provided it is effectively executed. According to Van Dyk *et al* (1992:4), "human resources training and development will thus, until well into the twenty-first century, be regarded as the majority success variable for a future prosperous South Africa in the African and international context". This is supported by Davis and Davis (1998:103) who indicated that "the skills of labour force are going to be the key competitive weapon in the twenty-first century even though brain power will create new technologies, but skilled labour will be the arms and legs that allow one to employ – to be the low-cost masters of the new product and process technologies that are being generated ... Skilled people become the only sustainable competitive advantage".

1.7.2 Definitions of Concepts

The concept that is critical to this study is capacity building. It encompasses training and human resources development. It is important to commence with a contextual definition of these concepts in order to provide a clear picture of the discussion.

1.7.2.1 Capacity building

The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) defined capacity building as the creation of an enabling environment with appropriate policy and legal frameworks, institutional development, including community participation, human resource development and strengthening of managerial systems.

(http://www.un.org/esa/coordination/public_multi.html. 2nd & 3rd entries)

Capacity building is the development of an organisation's core skills and capabilities, such as leadership, management, finance and fundraising, programs and evaluation, human resource management, service delivery and external relations in order to build the organisation's effectiveness and sustainability. It is the process of assisting an individual, organisation or group to identify and address issues and gain the insights, knowledge and experience needed to solve problems and implement changes. Capacity building is facilitated through the provision of technical support activities, including coaching, training, specific technical assistance and resource networking. It is the process by which individuals, groups, organisations, institutions and societies increase their abilities to:

- Perform core functions, solve problems, define and achieve objectives; and
- Understand and deal with their developmental needs in a broad context and in a sustainable manner.

Capacity building is the process of equipping all actors to perform affectively both in doing their own thing in their own field and level of operation, and in working in collaboration or partnership with others operating in other fields and at other levels. It is an essential component of both empowerment and enabling.

To be effective, capacity building must embrace all three aspects of development: human resource development; organisational development; and institutional development.

1.7.2.2 Training

Training can be perceived as the systematic process of changing the behaviour and/or attitude of people in a certain direction to increase goal achievement within the organisation (Van Dyk *et al*, 1992:148). Laird (1978), as quoted in Van Dyk (1992:148), defines training as “an experience, a discipline, or regimen which causes people to acquire new predetermined behaviour”. Davis and Davis (1998:44) support this conception by indicating that training is the “process through which skills are developed, information is provided, and attitudes are natured, in order to help individuals who work in organisations to become more effective and efficient in their work”. This is reiterated by Thomas (1992:10) who maintains that training is the process of equipping people with specific

attitude skills and knowledge needed to carry out their responsibilities. Training, therefore, refers to the acquisition of specific skills and/or knowledge about the work environment.

1.7.2.3 Human Resource Development

In its broadest interpretation, capacity building encompasses human resource development as an essential part of development. According to Dunn and Stephens (1972:209), human resource development is the process of increasing the knowledge, skills and capabilities of all the people in the society. It usually refers to more than just the specific development of a person, by including the idea of education at all levels, such as vocational training, rehabilitation and retraining programmes, on-the-job training, the removal of racial and other biases to the full utilization of manpower and the improvement of labour mobility.

Guthrie and Reed (1986:321) regard personnel development as an investment in human capital, while Main (1985:3) finds human resource development as an activity that involves the individual in the organisation, and the worker in the workplace.

1.7.3 Theories underpinning Human Resource Development

Human resource development is a complex phenomenon. There have been many different theories to studying this process in order to simplify it. Perhaps before attention is paid to the different approaches, it would be appropriate to understand the meaning of a theory. Torracco (1997:115) defines a theory as a “concept that explains what a phenomenon is and how it works.” In this regard

the historical background of the theories underpinning human resource development would need to be unpacked before different aspects are looked at. Some of the theories include the Classical Management theory (scientific management and classical organization theory), the Psychological Theory (structuralist, behaviourist, cognitive, social and experiential theory) and the Management Theories under development (systems theory and contingency theory). Some of these theories will be discussed hereunder.

1.7.3.1 The classical management theories

These theories were based largely on engineering and physiology. They emerged after the industrial revolution of the eighteenth and nineteenth century and took two focuses, the scientific management and the classical organization theory.

1.7.3.2 Scientific management

The scientific management theory was driven by Frederick Taylor (1856-1915), Henry Gantt (1861-1919), and Frank and Lillian Gilbreth (1868-1924 and 1878-1972 respectively). All these theorists sought to determine scientifically the best methods for performing any task in order to surpass the previous performance standard. Higher wages were paid depending on the productions. This theory is still used today even though it has some limitations. It is based on the assumption that employees are only interested in higher wages while ignoring their social being. The organization is seen as a machine and employees as parts to be fitted into it to make it run efficiently (Rawlins, 1991:16). They failed to recognize that employees also have social needs and

that working conditions and job satisfaction are more important than money (Hellriegee and Slocum, 1996).

1.7.3.1 The psychological theory

The psychological theory acknowledges human beings as brokers of productivity along with their cultural and behavioural nuances (Swanson: 2001). Different psychological theories tried to come with explanations of human resource development. The theoretical context through which people learn were developed; the structuralists explained the reflexive learning, the chosen behaviours from behavioural repertoire, nervous system through a method called classical conditioning; the behaviourist, through the operant conditioning method, gave an explanation of conscious learning, the recurrence of chosen behaviour as a result of reinforcement which follows it; the cognitive theory gives an explanation of the role of the mind in learning while the social learning theory focuses on the role of the environment in the learning process; the experiential theory explains the individual differences in learning by focusing on the learning styles (Rollinson *et al*:1998). However, most of these approaches have been developed in isolation and for this reason there has usually been no attempt to integrate one thought with the other theories.

Others like the human relations theory movement as pioneered by Elton Mayo (1949-1880) had its underlying assumption model which viewed humans as driven by both economic and social needs. Mayo led several experiments and came up with a concept of a social man (Rawlins, 1998). Even though the focus was still based on production, his conclusion led one to believe that employees would exert more efforts if they believed that their welfare was being taken care of.

The focus was on workers' social needs. Learning becomes meaningful and effective when the social set-up of the teaching situation is psychologically favourable. Employees "have social needs - they want to be accepted by the group and in the group they are profoundly aware of one another and develop common behavioural patterns, attitudes and goals" (Van Dyk, Nel, Van Z Loedolff and Haasbroek, 2001:154)

1.7.4 Management Theories under Development

1.7.4.1 The System Theory

The General System theory was developed by Kenneth Boulding in 1956. The theory argues that organizations are made up of multiple subsystems that interact with each other and with the external environment (Rawlins, 1992). In addition to this, Swanson (2001) maintains that this theory recognizes purpose, pieces, and relationships that can maximize or strangle systems and subsystems. Feedback is the key to systems controls. As operations of the system proceed, information is fed back to the subsystem.

Taking an enterprise as a system, a system should obtain inputs from the environment, (capital, raw materials, labour), process them (organizational process) and provide outputs in the form of products or services (Erasmus and Van Dyk, 2003:49). The systems approach fitness in training and development function is that it receives its input from the internal and external environment of the organization. In order to be sustainable, an open system must be able to adapt to changes in the environment. Some of the environmental changes the organizations must adapt to, are caused

by the organization itself. The implication of systems theory for managers is that all the factors of production are integrated and affect each other. Actions taken to correct malfunctions in one subsystem must be carefully analysed to avoid disrupting other systems.

1.7.4.2 Contingency theory

Most of the administrative and human relations principles identified by management theories are prescriptive. This approach sought to discover additional or intervention variables which might explain why a technique that works in one case will not necessarily work in all cases. According to Rollinson, Edwards and Broadfield (1998:21), the contingency perspective is “an approach to problem solving which assumes that there is no universally applicable solution to a particular type of problem and so remedies have to be tailored to the situation in which the problem exists.”

“What the contingency approach urges is that we avoid application of any principle as doctrine and remain open to the pragmatic question of “what work best?” in a particular situation,” (Rawlins, 1992:20-21). It can, therefore, be deduced that when training and development is done, attention should be put on the situation under which human resource is operating.

1.8 CAPACITY BUILDING WITHIN THE MUNICIPALITIES

Training and development within South Africa in general and the Vhembe District in particular, is currently in a state of flux. Legislation, such as the SAQA Act of 1995, the Skills Development Act of 1998 and the Skills Development Levies Act of 1999 have been promulgated to bring about

improvements to the effectiveness of learning initiatives within enterprises. The focus of this legislation is to address the weaknesses of the past training and development system, so as to build a “... work force equipped with the right skills to make the country competitive internationally and a system of developing, recognising and rewarding these skills which are coherent and understandable” (Tyers, 1995:28).

According to the constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, section 40(1), the government of the Republic “is constituted as national, provincial and local spheres of government which are distinctive, interdependent and interrelated”. Vhembe District Municipality falls under the local sphere of government of the Limpopo Province and has the developmental duties to perform. These priorities needs require human capacity in order to be achieved. Section 153 (a) of the constitution dictates that “a municipality must structure and manage its administration and budgeting and planning processes to give priority to the basic needs of the community and to promote the social and economic development of the community.”

This is what the Vhembe District Municipality is expected to deliver and in order to provide the services as listed in Part B of Schedule 4 and Part B of Schedule 5 of the Constitution, Act 108 of 1996, which include amongst others electricity and gas reticulation, firefighting services, municipal planning, municipal health services, water and sanitation services, and refuse removal, refuse dumps and solid waste disposal, the district must have the capacity to do so.

The Local Government Municipal Structure Act No.117 of 1998 section 83 (3) (c) clarifies this by indicating that it is the responsibility of the district municipality to capacitate local municipalities

in its area where such capacity is lacking. In addition, according to the Local Government Systems Act No.32 of 2000, section 68(1), a municipality has an obligation “to develop its human resource capacity”.

1.9 FORMS OF CAPACITATING HUMAN RESOURCE

Employees can be trained in different ways. The choice of methods may depend on various factors. These factors are dependent on how much time is available, the nature of training needed, the number of people to be trained and the money available (George and Cole, 1992).

There is more to development than one thinks. Different forms of skills development exist, which range from what Rae (1983:v) calls the lecture, self-development, training at work, learning groups, one-to-one interaction training, human relation training, apprenticeship to leaderships. Carrel and Kuzmits (1986:219) support this view by indicating that a variety of training techniques exists which may be in the form of on- and off-the-job training. These various forms of skills development are further elaborated.

1.9.1 Formal Education Programmes

Formal education programmes include off-site and in-house programmes customised for the organisation’s employees; short courses presented by universities and/or consultants; executive MBA programmes; and general public university programmes (Noe *et al*, 2006:389).

Smith (1999) emphasises the need for formal education programmes, such as those identified above, in equipping employees with the competencies necessary to cope with current business trends such as globalisation and competitiveness, the knowledge economy and knowledge management and the re-engineering of organisations.

Classroom training is another form of training that takes place away from the job in a set aside and equipped training room. In this kind of training, an attempt is made to duplicate work conditions, with machines and other equipment set up if needed. Classroom training is most frequently used where a large number of employees, such as, machine operators, word processor operators and bank tellers need to be trained (George and Cole, 1992: 339).

1.9.2 Assessment

According to Noe *et al*, (2003) assessment involves “collecting information and providing feedback to employees about their behaviour, communications style, or skills” (p 383).

Assessment is frequently used to identify employees with managerial potential.

Organisations vary in their use of assessment methods. Popular methods, however, include:

Benchmarks, Performance Appraisal and 360 Degree feedback Systems.

1.9.3 Job Experiences

Job experience, which is commonly known as on-the-job training is the most frequently, used method and as the word implies, it is done at the workplace. It is the responsibility of the supervisor to ensure that this activity is carried out. The supervisor may delegate this responsibility but whoever is assigned the responsibility must be able to know how to break the job down, how to teach it step by step and how to guide and encourage trainees as they learn the job. This kind of training is however most appropriately used to teach knowledge and skills that can be learnt on the job and may include clerical procedures and simple machine operations (George and Cole, 1992: 339)

Job experiences as Noe *et al.*, (2006) and Webb *et al.* (1987) share the same sentiments; refer to the relationships, problems, demands, tasks, or other experiences that employees face mainly in their work place. This is what Storey (1988) identified as the day-to-day experiences while Beach (1975) called it learning by doing. Job experiences may be used for employee development by municipality in various ways including:

- **Job enlargement:** Where the employee's existing job is expanded horizontally so as to include a greater variety of activities.
- **Job enrichment:** Gerber *et al.* (1987) defined job enrichment as the "rearranging of a task so that it can be more challenging, meaningful and interesting for the worker." The employee's existing job is expanded vertically so as to provide the employee with greater challenges and responsibilities.

- **Job rotation** is an approach to management development where an individual is moved through a schedule of assignments designed to give him or her a breadth of exposure to the entire operation ([en.wikipedia.org/wiki/job rotation](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/job%20rotation)). Noe *et al* 2006:398 says it is also an approach where the employee moves among jobs within a particular department while Webb *et al* (1987) maintains that it is the personal growth mainly in the workplaces.
- Other job experiences include Transfers, Promotions and Downward Moves. Temporary Assignments with Other Organisations also form part of job experiences.

1.9.4 Interpersonal Relationships

Development can also occur through the establishment of interpersonal relationships through mentoring and coaching programmes.

Mentoring is an umbrella phrase, and it encompasses a wide variety of associations, but on an essential note it is a developmental relationship in which a more experienced person helps a less experienced person. ([www.sagoodnews.co.za/.../the value of mentorship html](http://www.sagoodnews.co.za/.../the_value_of_mentorship.html)). On the other hand, a coach may be defined as “a peer or a manager who works with an employee to motivate him develop skills and provide reinforcement and feedback” (Noe *et al* 2006:404).

1.10 THE BENEFITS OF CAPACITY BUILDING

Capacitating Human Resource can be beneficial to both the employer and the employee. Zaccarelli (1988:8) reiterates this by stating that if done effectively, capacity building is good for everyone –

the employers, managers, employees and the customers. Zaccarelli (1988:12) further identifies the basis of capacity building, as being to train (orient) new employees, to upgrade the knowledge or skills of existing staff, to provide long-term professional development and to resolve operating problems.

It should also be borne in mind, as Davis and Davis (1998:44) indicated that learning is a process and not a programme to be completed. The essence of Human Resource Management is that employees are valued assets and that their value should be increased by a systematic and coherent approach to investing in their training and development (Armstrong, 1992:152). The resourcing is about providing the skills base needed by the organisation. Capacity building is therefore about enhancing and widening these skills by training, by helping people to grow within the organisation, and by enabling them to make better use of their skills and abilities. Therefore, it rests on the benefits that accrue to the stakeholders.

1.10.1 Benefits for Employee

Both new and old employees need training in their jobs. Since modern organizations are constantly changing methods and technology, each change means that additional training must be provided to ensure that the staff concerned is able to cope with the new circumstances. In addition to preparing employees for new jobs, training can improve the job performance of employees in their current job. Training reduces accidents, minimizes customer complaints and teaches new, updated skills or more efficient ways of doing the job. Employees personally benefit from training. Apart

from developing new skills, new abilities and new concepts, their earning ability is updated, thereby making them valuable to the organisation (George and Cole, 1992).

Peel (1992:5) indicates that Maslow's well known hierarchy of needs principle places self-actualisation firmly at the top of the pyramid as the goal to which all will, given the satisfaction of their more basic needs, aspire. The development of human resources and planning of career is therefore central to this self-actualisation. It will contribute at the deep level to working effectiveness, motivation, and personal fulfilment. This will not only improve working life, but spread into social, leisure and personal spheres. Lack of such satisfaction is one of the most potent causes of stress.

1.10.2 Benefits for the Municipality as the Employer

According to Kroon (1994:336), "training has the aim of greater productivity, greater effectiveness of workers in the present positions and development of employees towards accepting more responsibilities."

Training of employees gives an organisation an unexpected bonus by showing them that it is concerned with their welfare. Because of this, the employees' attitude towards the organisation and their morale improve. Morale indicators such as timekeeping, absenteeism and turnover reflect this (George and Cole, 1992)

The benefits are of equal importance to the employer. If the purpose of the municipality is to provide the best service, then the best-developed people will help it to produce the greatest service. Employees only give of their best when placed in the right job and are given the right development and training. An organisation that exploits staff and denies them development opportunities may prosper in the short term but will, sooner or later, be overtaken by those that make the fullest use of their human resources (Peel, 1992:5-6). This idea is supported by Castetter (1992:346) who maintained that organisations that fail to provide opportunities for human resource development jeopardise their ability to meet organisational goals. Protest actions against municipalities caused by lack of adequate service delivery, may be eradicated through capacitating the human resource.

1.11 DELIMITATION OF STUDY

This Research was limited to the experience with the application of the Human Resource Development function within the Vhembe District Municipality. Since Human Resource Development Strategy is a national programme, it is hoped that the regional experience will provide a picture of the phenomenon as it applies at the wider level – provincial and national. However, this is at least, for as long as the situation remains consistent with the personnel-based environmental conditions upon which the research is based.

1.12 ETHICAL MEASURES

A research of this nature is not particularly harmful to the physical and emotional health of the participants. Nevertheless, there are a few areas of ethical consideration, at least to ensure that the research process achieves its intended objectives. They include the following:

a) Permission to carry out the research

It was important that prior permission to conduct the research be obtained from the accountable officers of the Vhembe District Municipality, at all appropriate levels. That had the additional purpose of ensuring that respondents were made aware of the research, and that they had the official permission to freely participate in it.

b) Right of Self-determination

Participants were told that they had the right to voluntarily participate in the study without risk or penalty in doing so, and that if and when deemed fit, they had the right either to seek clarification about the purposes of the study, to withhold any information or to withdraw from participation at any stage.

c) Informed Consent

Participants were provided with full information about the nature and purposes of the research, to provide a basis for their decision on whether or not to [voluntarily] participate, or to what extent they felt they should participate in the research.

d) Right to Anonymity

The participants were assured that they had the right to remain anonymous, and that the purpose of the research was not to specifically name individuals who provided specific information, but to provide a statistical picture of the information obtained. They were also assured that the analysed information would be accessible only to the researchers and examiners. To further encourage provision of full and truthful information, the participants were assured that the information they had provided might assist in a better design and management of systems for human resources development that could directly benefit them.

1.13 REFERENCING TECHNIQUE

Use would be made of the Harvard system, both in the text and in the Bibliography.

1.14 PROPOSED STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The dissertation is organised into six chapters, as follows:

Chapter 1 introduces the study, including background information, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, purpose and significance of the study, the research hypothesis and the limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 provides a background of skills development legislations and other related policies.

Chapter 3 reviews literature related to the subject matter of human resources skills development, looking at both conceptual and applied aspects. It focuses on the South African experience, regarding policy, strategies, legislation, management, as well as outcomes.

Chapter 4 outlines the research methodology used, including data collection methods and sampling procedures, and methods of data analysis.

Chapter 5 provides a presentation, analysis and interpretation of the research data for deriving answers to the critical research questions.

Chapter 6 concludes the study by providing a summary of the findings and recommendations for a more effective system for human resource development in the public service.

CHAPTER 2

LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK WITH REGARD TO CAPACITY BUILDING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africa is a country with enormous potential for economic development and success. One of the potentials lies within its human capital. Well trained personnel are key to every country. It is no secret that South Africa is unable to compete successfully in the global economy that is growing so fast. The previous traditional education and training provided by the Apartheid government fundamentally caused this failure.

The education system provided by the colleges, technikons and universities has also not produced the learning outcomes required by today's competitive world of work. In most cases these outcomes were not linked to the technological and social requirements of the changing occupations in a changing world. As a means of addressing this anomaly of low quality of education and training and the inappropriate outcomes, the present government came in with new legislations. These legislations include amongst others:

- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act no. 108 of 1996)
- The South African Qualification Authority Act (Act no. of 1995)

- The Skills Development Act (Act no. 98 of 1998)
- The Skills Development Levies Act (Act no.9 of 1999)

Apart from legislations, the following strategies were also developed:

- The National Skills Development Strategy
- The Human Resource Development Strategy

The South African skills revolution therefore began with the skills legislation.

2.2 CAPACITY BUILDING AND RELATED LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK

2.2.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act no. (108) of 1996, as the main source of South African law, makes provision for public administration. The basic values and principles of public administration as indicated in the Constitution, Section 195, are also applicable to municipal authorities and state that:

“(1) Public administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution, including the following:

- a) *A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained;*
- b) *Efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted;*
- c) *Public administration must be development-oriented;*
- d) *Services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias;*
- e) *People's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making;*
- f) *Public administration must be accountable;*
- g) *Transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accurate and accessible information;*
- h) *Good human-resource management and career-development; and*
- i) *Public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, productivity, fairness and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation.*

(2) *The above principles apply to:*

- (a) Administration in every sphere of government;*
- (b) Organs of state; and*
- (c) Public enterprise.*

The above values and principles imply that all employees including those within the district municipalities, must be highly ethical; therefore doing away with corrupt-related activities. In its

co-business of providing basic services to the citizens of this country, effective use of human resources should be maximised through development orientated programmes. The development of human resource in this regard is very crucial. Once adequately capacitated, they would be conscious when executing their responsibilities that must provide services fairly, impartially and without bias; respond appropriately to the needs of the people and be accountable. It is therefore evident that the issue of service delivery cannot be addressed without fully developing human resource.

2.2.1.1 Developmental duties of municipalities

All municipalities have developmental responsibilities in areas of their jurisdiction. The Constitution prescribes that all municipalities will have developmental duties as stipulated in Section 153. These duties read as follows:

“A municipality must:

- (a) Structure and manage its administrations and budgeting and planning processes to the basic needs of the community, and to promote the social and economic development of the community, and
- (b) Participate in national and provincial development programme.”

From the provision above, the question that arises is, do municipalities like the Vhembe District have the human resource capacity to carry out this constitutional mandate? The mandate calls for the development of human resource and the ability to attract personnel that would be highly skilled and equal to the task.

2.2.2 The South African Qualification Authority Act No.58 of 1995

South Africa, a country with enormous potential for economic development and success, with mineral resources, environment, technological and financial infrastructure to become an economic giant, has in the past neglected to invest in the development of those human competences the country urgently needs for economically becoming what it has the potential of being. The education and training systems were disconnected.

“Although much of the problem of disconnectedness and how quality of education and training still prevail today, the turning point came in 1995 when the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) Act (Act No.58 of 1995) was promulgated as a law of parliament” (Ernst, 2000:5). This Act opened the door for integration of education and training. The SAQA Act further detailed the alignment of education and training qualifications and learning content with the competence requirements of the economy and the world. The Act also established a system for establishing and managing the quality of education and training delivery (Ernst: 2000).

The SAQA Act No.58 of 1995 provides a regulatory framework for the establishment of a national education and training qualifications Authority (SAQA) and the National Qualification Framework (NQF).

2.2.2.1 The South African Qualification Authority (SAQA)

The South African Qualifications Authority is a national statutory body which has been established through the promulgation of the South African Qualification Authority Act No.58 of 1995.

Section 3 of the Act provides for the establishment of a juristic person called the South African Qualification Authority which will consist of a chairperson appointed by the Minister of Education, various members and an executive officer. The purpose of the authority is to:

- Oversee the further development and implementation of the NQF; and
- To advance the objectives of the National Qualification Framework.

The various tasks of SAQA are to:

- Oversee the development of the National Qualification Framework in accordance with multi-year rolling strategic plan, budget and implementation framework;
- Formulate and publish policies and criteria for:
 - The registration of bodies responsible for establishing education and training standards or qualifications; and the accreditation of bodies responsible for monitoring and auditing achievements in terms of the standards and qualifications;
- Oversee the implementation of the National Qualification Framework which are:
 - The registration or accreditation of training standards or qualification bodies and the assignment of their functions
 - The registration of national standards and qualifications
 - Ensuring that steps comply with the provision of accreditation

- Taking steps to ensure that standards and registered qualifications are internationally comparable;
- Accept responsibility for the control of the Authority's finances; and
- Advises the Minister on matters affecting the registration of standards and qualification.

The SAQA framework therefore ensures the standard-setting process and the quality assurance process. The standard-setting process deals with the registration of bodies responsible for setting standards and registration of the standards. The quality assurance process deals with the accreditation of bodies and monitoring and auditing standards (Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk and Schen; 2005).

2.2.2.2 National Qualification Framework

The mechanism which is central to the changes within the South African training and development system is the National Qualifications Framework or NQF. The NQF is a structure which provides an integrated framework of learning achievements. It consists of eight levels and three bands: the higher education and training band, the further education and training band and the general education and training band. The NQF also lists types of qualifications and certificates.

However, as Erasmus *et al* (2010:71-72) put it, a set of principles is required to underpin qualifications and for the NQF to provide required and anticipated benefits. These principles are:

- **Integration:** This principle requires education and training to form part of a system of human resources development which provides for the establishment of an integrated approach to education and training expressed in terms of nationally acceptable qualification.
- **Relevance:** In this instance, education and training should remain relevant to national development needs.
- **Credibility:** Education and training should have international credibility and credibility in industry and service sectors, as well as amongst providers and learners with regards to being able to achieve nationally agreed aims for education and training.
- **Coherence and flexibility:** There should be allowance to coherent framework of principles and certification which may be established at national level, but should permit the flexibility of interpretation required to meet the needs of industry and service sectors, providers and learners.
- **Standards:** Education and training standards should be expressed in terms of a nationally agreed upon framework and nationally and internationally accepted outcomes that will be defined separately.
- **Recognition of prior learning:** This principle maintains that through assessment, education, and training should give credit to prior learning obtained through formal, non-formal and informal learning and (or) experience.

On top of these principles, others are legitimacy, access, articulation, progression, portability and guidance of learners.

According to the Human Sciences Council report, HRC (1995) in Van Dyk, Nel, Van Z Loedolff and Haasbroek (1997;20), three challenges were identified which South Africans faced in the field of education and training which led to the National Qualification Framework to be an equitable system of education and training which serves all South Africans well:

- that in order to achieve magnificent levels of economic growth and to become internationally competitive, the quality of education and training will have to be greatly improved; and
- that the perception has to be removed that education and training are not linked.

The NQF should allow learners to move between various areas and levels, taking with them recognized credits for the learning that has already taken place. Ernst (2000:16) states that “National Qualification Framework is therefore a new framework for the registration of national standards.”

With regard to the NQF, Van Dyk *et al* (1997) cited the principles underlying the framework as integration, relevance, credibility, coherence, flexibility, standards, legitimacy, articulation, access, progression, portability, recognition of prior learning and guidance of learners.

The NQF was partially aimed at achieving the following objectives as listed by Ernst (2000):

- To create an integrated National Framework for learning achievements;
- To facilitate access to and mobility and progression within education, training and career path;

- To enhance the quality of education and training; and
- To contribute to the full personal development of each learner and the social and economic development of the South African Nation.

The other objective is that of enhancing the quality of education and training. According to Erasmus *et al* (2010:69), the National qualification authority foundation is for people to achieve national qualification through formal and informal learning. In this way the governments' aims of equal and quality access to opportunities and redress of past inequalities could be addressed. The past was stated as characterised by the following:

- No national standard
- Varying quality
- Focus on inputs
- Learners rated against one another
- Ad-hoc reporting
- Examinations
- Institution-centred
- Once-chance education
- Non-recognition of prior learning
- Either academic or vocational streaming

On the other hand the present structure is characterized by the following:

- Registered national standards
- National quality management system
- Focus on outputs
- Learners assessed through the standard
- National record of data base
- Contextual assessment (moderated)
- Learner-centred
- Lifelong learning
- Recognition of prior learning
- Multiple learning pathways

The National qualification structure is composed of NQF levels (2-10), sub-framework (the general and further education training and higher education) and the types of qualifications and certificates.

2.2.3 Skills Development Act (97 of 1998)

The Skills Development Act of 97 of 1998 (Development of Labour 1998) was signed by the President of the Republic of South Africa on 20 October 1998. It repealed the following:

- *The Manpower Training Act (56 of 1981)*
- *The Guidance and Training Act (62 of 1981)*
- *The Local Government Training Act (41 of 1985)*

Skills Development Act (97 of 1998) encourages an investment in human resource skills for effective growth and development in the public service. The main purpose of the application of this Act in the public service within each government department is to provide capacity building initiatives that need to be realised for effective service delivery in the public service. Section 2 of the Act sets out the various purposes of the Act as follows:

- *To develop the skills of the South African Workforce*
- *To increase the levels of investment in education and training in the labour market and improve the return of investment.*
- *To use the workplace as an active learning environment, to provide employees with the opportunities to acquire new skills, to provide opportunities for new entrance to the labour market to gain work experience.*
- *To employ persons who find it difficult to be employed.*
- *To encourage workers to participate in learning programmes.*

- *To improve the employment prospect of personal previously disadvantaged by unfair discrimination and to redress those disadvantages through training and training.*
- *To ensure the quality of learning in and for the workplace.*
- *To assist work-seekers to find work, retrenched workers to enter the labour market and employers to find qualified employees.*
- *To provide and regulate employment services.*

However, these purposes of the Act can be achieved by the National Skills Authority; the National Skills Fund; a skills development levy grant scheme as stipulated in the Skills Development Levies Act (Section 2.5.2); Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs); Quality Council for Trade and occupations (QCTO); labour sectors; Department of Labour Provincial Offices; Artisan Development and or Institution of Sector or Occupational Excellence; a Skills Development Forum in each province; and a National African Moderating Body.

It should also be reiterated that human resource is the essential component of any organisation or institution both in the public and private sector. The Skills Development Act may provide answers to skills development as an interim measure where skills needed may bring some improvement in the available human resource in the Vhembe District Municipality in general.

Skills development is another way of providing support for any government program or policy that needs successful implementation in order for the set goals to be realised. Such skills development training can be carried out either through in-service training where service providers could be

invited through outsourcing processes or bursary allocation to the public service officials for them to study any of the programme they shall have chosen through universities and technikons. Employees of the district municipality could be provided with study bursaries to study at universities that offer either distance learning or short professional programmes that are beneficial to them as they will be related to their jobs in their organisation. One of the objectives of an annual assessment, through a training and development response in Performance Management System (PMS) or Performance Management and Development System (PMDS), is the provision of training and development to employees as indicated in their assessment forms so that they could be able to perform up to the expected standards set by their Departments.

(a) The Skills Development Facilitator (SDF)

The role of Skills Development Facilitator is to reflect on whether training met the desired objectives and also identifying what worked and what did not work. The SDF must call a meeting to discuss with all stakeholders the actual people trained and the effect of the budget on the people trained and those not trained. The SDF must report on the strength and weakness of the training conducted and he must indicate to the Skills Development Committee and Management if budget were enough or not enough to meet the training envisaged.

The SDF must also evaluate if trainings conducted have achieved the desired outcomes such as employees' performances have improved their attitudes and behaviours in terms of work. The SDF must outline his recommendation that the budget allocation to training employees must be increased and he must also indicate the areas that need improvement.

(b) The Workplace Skills Plan

The Workplace Skills Plan (WSP) is the mother document that shows the whole implementation of skills development in terms of the Skills Development Act. The WSP shows how many people were trained and how many employees were planned to be trained and how much such training will cost the company which is reflected on the WSP and which must be reported on the annual training report. WSP and training evaluation are linked together; the training effectiveness is derived from WSP. For effectiveness of the training as outlined in WSP recording and training report should be done. Learners trained must be indicated on the training report.

For effectiveness of training ETD, training providers must be evaluated for success of their training. This is done to measure the impact of such training. Evaluation and feedback from learners must be done. Quality Assurance committee must also do their work. The SDF or manager must then measure the learners' reactions towards training and how they link training to their job duties. To measure effectiveness of training, the HR manager must measure skills, knowledge or attitudes changes in behaviour on the job and specific application of the content on learning materials. The impact of training can be measured by the reduction of absenteeism and grievances and an increase in quality production and reduction of quantity.

(c) Steps to be followed by SDF in establishing quality assurance systems for management of WSP

According to Coetzee (2007) the following are the steps to be followed the SDF:

- i) Establish the quality assurance structure

The structure deals with the formulation of quality management policies that define what its function wishes to achieve and quality management procedures that allow ETD functions to practice its quality management policies. This structure also deals with review mechanisms. The structure must have the Manager responsible for ETD provision quality assurance (QA), assessors, ETD practitioners, coaches, moderators, RPL advisor, mentors, quality auditors, admin support and job profiles for all positions.

ii) Recruit, appoint and train quality assurance staff

This step aims to acquaint and familiarise the staff with relevant policies and procedures.

iii) Negotiate performance contracts and development plans with quality assurance staff.

The intention in this regard is to ensure effective and productive performance by the staff.

iv) Obtain physical, administrative and financial resources to operate the learning provisions of quality assurance function. Finance is important for a function such as quality assurance to be successful.

v) Draft strategies and operational business plans for learning provisions QA function

(including mission, vision, values, goals and objectives). The vision and mission give the direction of the company or organization.

vi) Identify the quality area to be managed.

Knowing where quality is needed is very important as it always maintains consistency within the organisation.

vii) Draft policies and procedures for each of these areas.

The drafting of policies and procedure will form the basis of equal management system which must be formally managed using ISO guidelines.

viii) Set up management information systems to review, on at least monthly basis, the established goals.

ix) Train stakeholders, management and staffing learning provision QA (orientation session) and ensure that they understand policy and procedure requirements.

x) Set up documentation and administrative systems that comply with SAQA standards.

xi) Design an internal quality audit (self-assessment and customer review system), identify main quality areas, draw up check lists, measurements scales and other tools and draw up quality audit procedures.

xii) Orientate stakeholders and involve staff in the quality audit process, ensuring standards and quality of service are met.

d) Various elements of quality assurance system for training and development in the workplace

Quality can be measured and defined when these requirements are known and defined.

i) Management systems

It is imperative to oversee the design of QA management system, compile department business plan, workforce plan, WSP, ETD plan and budget. Establish policies and procedures and specify standards of performance and service delivery. Management Systems also review performance and service delivery against set standards. The systems develop a strategy to achieve business goals and strategies. The systems develop a quality and service delivery culture.

ii) Personnel and Material resources

Management must provide sufficient and appropriate resources to implement the quality system and achieve the quality objectives. The motivation, competence and effective performance management system must be in place for all staff involved in facilitating the quality management system. Regular communication on quality performance is essential for improvement purposes.

iii) Administrative, Physical and Financial resources

This includes service equipment and stores, accommodation, transport and information system, quality assessment facilities. Operational and technical documentation are essential. Funding

of learning provision is also important. Admission, recording and storing of learner achievement, education, training and development documents is important. Employee biographical information, qualification, educational level and performance appraisal data should be maintained and updated on personnel administrative records.

iv) ETD records

ETD records are normally kept for making strategic skills development and keep track of status of skills in the department and organization. They enable HRD management and outside institutions. They also guide employees to reach their full potential in the organization by devising individual development plans that suit their needs.

e) **Types of records**

- WSP, ART, ETD plan
- ETD budget and expenditure
- Workforce planning data
- Records of learning programme attended
- Employees personal ETD records
- Assessment and moderation records of learner achievements
- Course evaluation records
- Quality audit and self-evaluation records.
- Quality Assurance element
- Communication system

Good communication allows an effective flow of information between parties involved in developing people. Eliminate blockages and obstacles interrupting flow of information and ensure that all information is available to all levels of staff within agreed time frames.

Quality assurance in ETD is the most important principle of NQF. Every unit standard qualification registered on NQF (all learning and assessment that take place) is subject to quality assurance process. This ensures that ETD providers, assessors, moderators and organisations adhere to best practices of ETD standards and continually improve ETD practices.

2.2.4 The Public Service Act (103 of 1994)

The Public Service Act (Proclamation No. 103 of 1994) is the regulatory framework through which the operations of the department in carrying out its mandate are underpinned. It is from this regulation that office based officials take their direction and mandate. Through the training and development institute, the South African Management and Development Institute and Training Fund, the Act has training and development mandate that should be provided to all the government Departments, including the Vhembe District Municipality. In terms of Section 4 (2) (a)-(b) the following tasks are expected to be carried out by the Act:

(2) The Institute-

(a) shall provide such training or cause such training to be provided or such examinations or tests or cause such examinations or tests to be conducted as the Head: South African

Management and Development Institute may with the approval of the Minister decide or as may be prescribed as a qualification for the appointment, promotion or transfer of persons in or to the public service;

(b) may issue diplomas or certificates or cause diplomas or certificates to be issued to persons who have passed such examinations.

If the District Municipality of Vhembe provides training to managers in different levels and directorates, good management plans for training and development of employees could be effectively drawn. Implementation plans of training and development could also be sketched out so that implementation becomes meaningful, effective and cost effective. The training that the South African Management and Development Institute and Training Fund provides helps in financial management training to managers' lack of financial management skills.

2.2.5 White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service, 1997

The White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service Policy, 1997 acknowledges the challenges that came about with the political changes in South Africa. There is a major shift from a centrally controlled Public Service to a Public Service that puts value on government employees, a valuable resource that provides service to the general public; hence according to this White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service, there is an attempt to provide “*a shift from personnel administration to human resource management*”. This is an indication of a paradigm shift from personnel administration as one of the generic administration functions or principles that focus on the recruitment of personnel or employees of

the organisation. Human resource management on the other hand goes further than just the acquisition of the personnel (employees) in personnel administration as it gives emphasis on the maximum utilisation of these employees effectively so that the organisation could achieve its set objectives. These employees, are utilized in such a way that their collective skills, experience, knowledge and positive attitudes are used maximally for the benefit of the Department of Basic Education and the public it serves. "Employees" here does not mean those employees at a low level of the employment ladder. Employees is according to Nel *et al* (2004:9) inclusive of all the employees within the organization who are in the management responsible for its functioning on daily basis who usually do not want to associate themselves with this concept of being employees. This study takes into cognisance general workers, support staff, middle management and senior management in the various sections of the District Municipality as employees.

One of the purposes of this White Paper is outlined as the provision of *"a policy framework that will facilitate the development of human resource management practices which support an effective and efficient Public Service, geared for economic and social transformation...."* It is against this background that one of the principles of managing the performance of the Public Service is training and development which should be responding to the strengths and weaknesses that shall have been identified after the performance of employees has been assessed. The employees' weaknesses that would have been identified would help in building up future training content for these employees. Training and development programmes that are informed by the results of performance assessment form the base for intervention strategies that are geared towards the educators' assistance.

Training and development becomes a transformational tool to provide capacity building to the employees of the organisation for change, adaptability and performance improvement. These are skills that are critical to the success of quality and effective management that have to be developed. All these will dictate the training and development needs that eventually form the content of training and development.

The importance of capacity building is entrenched by this White Paper as it gives the mandate to the Department of Public Service and Administration of assisting both the national and provincial administration in conducting capacity assessment that will help determine the kind of skills and capacity needed. As a result, the skills and capacity that shall have been identified will determine the kind of training needed by the Public Service affected. In the light of the provisions of the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service, the District Municipality of Vhembe is also expected to develop and train its human resource so that capacity and skills are provided.

The general workers, support staff, middle management personnel at various sections of Vhembe District Municipality are part of the human resource that is referred to in this White Paper whose skills and capacity need to be developed so that the objectives of the District could be achieved. Johnson (1993: xi) maintained that many organisations spend large amounts of money in management training while leaving out the people who produce products and services. Employees who do not receive training and development are likely to produce inferior products and services. This means that the District personnel who do not receive training and development for the purpose

of capacity building towards the effective service delivery will fail to achieve the desired goal which is providing effective and efficient service of delivery that will satisfy the public.

2.2.6 The National Skills Development Strategy (NSDS)

According to the Department of Labour (2001) the two big aims of the strategy are to improve the skills in the country so that people and the economy as a whole produce more and better, and to make South Africa a more equal place for everyone. The first cycle of the National Skills Development strategy ran from February 2001 to March 2005. This strategy had five objectives and twelve success indicators.

The five objectives were:

- a) To develop a culture of high quality lifelong learning;
- b) To foster skills development in the formal economy for productivity and growth;
- c) To stimulate and support skills development in small business;
- d) To promote skills development for employability and sustainable livelihoods through social development initiatives; and
- e) To assist new entrants' development.

The success indicators were set for each objective. Some of the success indicators are:

for objective (b), by March 2005, learnerships should have been available to workers in every sector; for objective marked (a) by March 2005, 70% of workers should have at least a level one qualification on the National Qualification Framework. The success of objective marked (c) would

be evident if by March 2005, at least 20 per cent of new and existing registered small businesses should have been supported in skills development initiatives and the impact of such support to be measured is achieved. The objective (e) would be a success if by March 2005, a minimum of 80 000 people under the age of 30 would have entered learnerships.

By 2005 for most of the targets specified in the strategy, significant progress was made in their attainment even though there were challenges to achieve them as set up. The second cycle, of the National Skills Development Strategy which had to run from April 2005 – 31 March 2010 has also been put in place. Like the 2001 – 2005 NSDS, the 2005-2010 has five objectives but differ in that it has twenty success indicators. The objectives for the National Skills Development strategy 1 April 2005-31 March 2010 are the following:

- Prioritizing and communicating critical skills for sustainable growth, development and equity;
- Promoting and accelerating quality training for all in the work place;
- Promoting employability and sustainable livelihoods through skills development;
- Assisting designated groups, including new entrance to participate in accredited work, integrated learning and work-based programmes to acquire critical skills to enter the labour market and self-employment; and
- Improving the quality and relevance of provision.

2.2.6.1 Setting of standards

The government provides public support for basic further and higher education. Minimum standards for training have been set. The role of the government is seen as setting the economic climate in which the enterprise can flourish, and providing or encouraging the creation of supportive institutional arrangements in terms of education and training. The key feature of the government should be focused on national training standards. These standards should be explicitly founded on the actual competences required to perform specific jobs. According to Johnson and McClelland in Prior (1994:6), “such standards of competence need careful expert definition; must be nationally recognized, must be set and owned by employers, and are relevant de jure to occupational needs”.

For this reason the South Africa Government introduced legislations like the South African Qualifications Authority Act No. 58 of 1995 and the Skills Development Act No. 97 of 1998.

The main purpose behind the South African Qualification Authority (SAQA) Act was to create a new framework for education and training by creating a single, unified system of education and training qualifications in the country. The National Qualification Framework (NQF) was set up by the Act. In this way the Act sets up ways of ensuring that the quality of education and training in South Africa is good and that it provides many different entry, exit and re-entry points.

The framework is made up of eight levels of learning and pathways for learning specifications. Different qualifications fit into the framework according to their focus and how difficult they are. The level of qualification is based on the exit level - on what a person will know and do when

he/she finishes their qualification. This way of recognizing learner's achievements applies to all qualifications, giving education and training the same status. It measures what a person knows and can do, rather than where and how the person learnt. Through giving credit for relevant competence, this in principle encourages career switches and multiskilling. It also enable employers to see how their workforce competence can be extended and expanded to cope with every changing demands (Johnson & McClelland, 1994).

(a) Standards, qualifications, credits and recognition of Prior Learning in South Africa

The other purpose of the South African Qualification Authority Act (No. 58 of 1995) is creating the institutions to ensure that these qualifications are of high quality. The Act establishes a special institution, the South African Qualification Authority, in charge of the National Qualification Framework. This institution has been tasked to register qualification and standards on the National Qualifications Framework. Another responsibility assigned to this body is to ensure that the education and training that is delivered helps learners to reach the set qualifications and standards.

The South African Qualification Act (No. 58 of 1995) clarifies the interlink amongst the standards, qualification, credits and the recognition of prior learning. This Act prescribes that all skills must be written as learning outcomes which means what a learner will know and can do when they are competent. These outcomes will be recognized through national standards and qualifications. The South African Qualifications Act also maintains that a qualification is made up of standards each of which carries a number of smaller parts called credits. Each credit is equal to an average of about ten hours of learning.

When it comes to the recognition of prior learning, it indicates that people can learn their credits without going to a course if they can show that they already have the skills and knowledge required in the standards and qualifications. This recognition of prior learning means that people's skills must be recognized even if they have learnt it simply through doing, rather than through a formal course.

The South African Qualification Act (No. 58 of 1995) also provides the basis for lifelong learning by bringing together all forms of education and training which happen in different forms at different situations. Lifelong learning means that people must not get stuck after finishing their formal education – there should be an opportunity to continue learning through their lives whether through formal institutions (schools, colleges, technikons or universities) or at work. Learning must not be confined to young age.

The National Qualification Framework has classified all education and training according to eight levels to this effect. They range from level 1-8. This gives people the opportunity to progress through these levels no matter what age they are through life-long learning. The National Qualifications Framework has outlined seven critical cross-field outcomes for training and education which are the skills built into all qualifications which are necessary to all types of work. They are:

- Identifying and solving problems;
- Working together with other people;
- Collecting and analysing information;

- Communicating well;
- Using science and technology and being aware of their effects on people and the environment; and
- Realizing that we – and all problems we tackle in learning and doing are part of a bigger society and work.

(b) Standards Generating Bodies and National Standards Bodies

The South African Qualification Authority Act (No. 58 of 1995) says that standards must be agreed upon in a democratic way so that everyone will recognize them and that they be transferable from one place to another and from one provider to another. This is done in a standard Generating Body (SGB) to agree what the learning outcomes should be. The agreed upon qualifications by the Standard Generating Body are sent to the National Standard Body for the agreed upon learning outcomes or qualifications by the Standards Generating Bodies. They are then sent to the National Standards Bodies (NSB) for registering on the National Qualifications Framework as recommendations amongst others.

The National Standards Bodies meet regularly to keep qualifications up to date. Twelve NSB'S are in place and each covers a different area of learning:

They are:

NSB 01: Agriculture and nature conservation

NSB 02: Culture and Arts

- NSB 03: Business, Commerce and Management Studies
- NSB 04: Communication Studies and Language
- NSB 05: Education, Training and Development
- NSB 06: Manufacturing, Engineering and Technology
- NSB 07: Human and Social Studies
- NSB 08: Law, Military Science and Security
- NSB 09: Health, Science and Social Service
- NSB 10: Physical, Mathematics, Computer and Life Sciences.
- NSB 11: Service
- NSB 12: Physical Planning and Construction.

(c) Accrediting standards and qualifications

Once standards have been agreed upon, there must be a way to make sure that they are achieved. So, one of SAQA's jobs is to approve, or accredit institutions as Education and Training Quality Assurance Bodies (ETQA). Each ETQA is applicable to a particular set of qualifications and standards. Learners who achieve standards and qualifications are issued with certificates by the ETQA. The ETQA also checks the service provider's courses and accredits them provided these providers can show that they have the staff and systems needed to support successful learning. In this way the service provider is quality assured. Quality assurance includes ensuring that there are assessors who can see that the standards are met even when they have been learnt outside the course. Assessors are registered by the ETQA to perform this task.

2.3 CONCLUSION

In order to address the skills shortage and the wide gap that existed within the South African population groups, it was therefore essential that such legislative framework be developed. The development of all the above mentioned legislations helps to redress the past imbalances that South Africa experienced. It has to start with the constitution and hence the development of other legislation, like the Skills Development Act. These legislations paved the way for the employees and public institution arranged with the responsibility of developing their employers of students' responsibility, to address the issue of skills development as anticipated by the government.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The interest in improving the performance of institutions is neither new nor revolutionary. Whether it is called organizational development, leadership training, technical assistance, management improvement or capacity building, the main objective behind each of these is to increase the institutional performance (Light and Hubbard 2002).

Fortunately, there is more than just talk about capacity building. When it comes to the understanding of how the term capacity building is operationalized, interviews conducted with non-profit leaders, funders, researchers and consultants show that there is confusion. As Light and Hubbard (2002:2) put it, “one researcher would say, in the simplest form, it is staff development while a non-profit executive is saying it is meeting the needs of the community. While a grant maker says it is anything that strengthens the organization as an organization, as opposed to those things that strengthen its programs and services, a scholar suggests that it is developing networks, which in turn leads to social capital, which in turn increases the community’s capacity to provide services.”

As Ricketts in www.emi.org puts it, “capacity building seeks to improve the performance of work units, departments and the whole organization. He further states that it is a system-wide, planned effort to increase organizational performance through purposeful reflection, planning and action.

Capacity building looks in depth at where an organization stands in comparison to where it hopes to be in the future, and develops the skills and resources to get there.

The issue of capacity is critical and the scale of need is enormous, but appreciation of the problem is low. The link between needs and supply is weak. There is a lack of funding. There is need for support for change. Training institutions are isolated while communications are poor. Development of teaching material is inefficient. Alternative ways of capacity building are not adequately recognized (<http://www.gdrc.org/uem/capacity-define.html>).

3.2 THE STATE OF CAPACITY BUILDING IN LOCAL GOVERNMENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

One of the main reasons that is attributed to recent protests in South Africa is seen as the lack of service delivery. Some of the grants from the national treasury to the municipalities are sent back not spent. If not, financial procedures would not have been followed during procurement process. By virtue of them being the closest service delivery agencies to the people, municipalities should therefore position themselves in a manner that will see all citizens benefiting from the service they provide.

“Every organization needs to have well trained and experienced human resources to enable it and effectively execute its activities” (Ndevu et al. 2007: 159). For municipalities to achieve this, it is essential that they train their staff.

Through training, municipal officials acquire knowledge and skills on specific municipal matters. This provides them with the opportunity to explore and use new ideas and ways of performing tasks, thus creativity is developed. Minaar and Bekker (2005 : 148) refer to creativity as the ability to instantly interpret situations and provide solution that add maximum new value.

The 2013/14 SALGA annual report identified many challenges that municipalities are faced with. Lack of human resource capital to ensure professional administrations and positive relations between labour, management and councils has been cited as one of the challenges. Other identified challenges are as follows:

- Leadership and governance challenges relating to responsiveness and accountability;
- Financial and fiscal management including the Inter-Governmental Fiscal Regime;
- Co-operative Governance especially Inter- Governmental Relations;
- Varied performance across municipalities in delivering basic services;
- Varied performance across municipalities in growing local economies;
- The continuation of apartheid spatial development patterns and inequity;
- The absence of a differentiated approach to support and govern municipalities that recognises the differences in the nature and character of municipalities and how this is critical in the challenges that municipalities face.

Most of these challenges that municipalities are faced with require resources in order for them to be addressed, the major one being highly skilled human resource. Vhembe District municipality is no exception to these challenges, hence the development of its human resource.

3.2.1 The South African Local Government Association's (SALGA) Strategic Plan 2012-2017

In 2009, government adopted the Local Government Turnaround Strategy (LGTAS). The strategic plan asserts the notion that local government must be empowered, resourced and capacitated to assume its role of service delivery and development to the people of South Africa. Cabinet also adopted The Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) with twelve outcomes. Those outcomes are:

1. Quality basic education.
2. A long and healthy life for all South Africans.
3. All people in South Africa are and feel safe.
4. Decent employment through inclusive economic growth.
5. A skilled and capable workforce to support an inclusive growth path.
6. An efficient, competitive and responsive economic infrastructure network.
7. Vibrant, equitable and sustainable rural communities contributing towards food security for all.
8. Sustainable human settlements and improved quality of life for all households.
9. Responsive, accountable, effective and efficient local government.
10. Protect and enhance the environmental assets and natural resources of the country.
11. Create a better South Africa, a better Africa and a better world.
12. An efficient, effective and development-oriented public service and an empowered, fair and inclusive citizenship.

Vhembe District municipality also has to contribute towards the achievement of all outcomes. Outcome number five and nine are pertinent to Vhembe District Municipality as far as this discussion is concerned.

The challenge of skilful municipality employees has also been highlighted in the National Development Plan. The National Planning Commission, with its mandate being to draft the National Development Plan, argues that the problem of uneven capacity and varied performance is particularly acute at the local government level. No wonder there are so many service delivery protests affecting different municipalities, Vhembe District Municipality being no exception to this. Even though the current local government system has been in place for about two decades, there are significant challenges that still need to be addressed, particularly the human resource with capacity to deal with such challenges.

SALGA 2013/14 annual report noted that from the various municipal performance reviews done, greater attention needs to be given to the obstacles that prevent the worst performing local and district municipalities from fulfilling their core functions. In particular, one of the elements suggested is the closer consideration of the varied capacity of municipalities and the need to achieve a better fit between the capacities and responsibilities of municipalities.

The SALGA strategic plan directly relates to the achievement of the objectives as stated in the National Development Plan 2013. The plan seeks to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality by drawing on the energies of the country's people, growing an inclusive economy, enhancing the capacity of the state and promoting leadership and partnerships throughout society.

On the other hand, the 2011-12 Auditor General's financial report regrettably revealed that the rest of the country's local government audit results were not that exemplary. Overall, the municipal audit outcomes had regressed, with only 48% of the auditees being able to obtain financially unqualified audit opinions, most of whom did so by correcting the mistakes identified through the audit process.

Chief among the root causes of the poor audit results in the 2011-12 financial report, the AG cited the lack of capacity in local government, which affected its ability to account for the public resources it has to administer on behalf of society. At 73% of the auditees, vacancies in key positions and key officials without the minimum competencies and skills continued to make it difficult for these auditees to produce credible financial statements and performance reports. In order to fill this gap, 71% of the auditees depended on consultants to assist with financial reporting. Although capacity building and the professionalisation of local government is an ongoing, multi-year project, the Auditor General said he was concerned that municipalities were not using all the opportunities available for skills development.

However, in the 2013-14 financial year the auditor-general reported a noticeable increase in the number of municipalities and municipal entities that received financially unqualified audit opinions with no findings (commonly known as "clean audit"). This is a laudable step towards wholesale good governance for South Africa's public sector. The AG said that those municipalities and entities that progressed to, or maintained their previous year's, clean audits had "adopted or gone back to the basics of clean governance". These include rudimentary tasks such as:

- Introducing basic accounting and daily control disciplines

- Enforcing compliance with all legislation
- Employing and retaining staff in accounting and financial management positions with the required level of technical competence and experience
- Allowing the chief financial officer to be in charge of the financial administration function and report thereon to the municipal manager.

3.2.2 The state of Vhembe District Municipality

According to the financial year ended 30 June 2012, Vhembe District Municipality incurred an average distribution losses of 18 071278 KL due to water leakages. Under capital commitments, as far as infrastructure is concerned, the council approved R279, 512, 717, which was not contracted.

The VDM annual report 2010/2011 highlighted the challenges that led to the development of a plan of action to address the aspects raised in the audit report. Some of the audit findings highlighted that the finance department needed attention with regard to cash and cash equivalents (bank reconciliations and incomplete project register), procurement and contract management (suppliers in the service of the state, non-compliance like failure to sign a contract with the service provider), movable and immovable assets (different locations of assets register, revaluation not correctly valued) and insurance of assets.

Looking on the inventory, the report found that there was no vat compliance and extension of insurance contracts. It further revealed fruitless and wasteful expenditure, payments after 30 days and no control over conditional grants.

In payables, the project register was found to be inaccurate and in the receivables inadequate debt management procedures were detected while in revenue it was revealed that there was weakness on internal controls. As far as taxes are concerned VAT returns were not properly done.

In the Department of corporate services, the audit findings also revealed that leave approvals were done after the employees had already gone on leave and the sick leave taken were not captured. Weaknesses on leave management were also identified. The employees were not provided with code of conduct and at worst, there has been incorrect calculation of pension fund. It was also revealed that new appointments were effected with no background checks not done in order to verify their qualifications.

3.3 TRAINING NEEDS ANALYSIS

The most prevalent framework for considering training needs continues to be McGehee & Thayer's (1961) categorization of organisational, task and analysis. It is therefore appropriate to make a detailed analysis of training if one needs a competent workforce.

3.3.1 Organisational Analysis

The intention of organisational analysis as described by McGehee & Thayer (1961) was to provide information about where and when training was needed in an organisation. As (Goldstein 1991) indicated over the last several years, organisational analysis has been conceptualized as an

examination of system wide components that determine whether a training program can yield behaviour change back on the job.

It is therefore important to draw attention to the fact that there is a need to link training and organisational strategy ((Sonnenfeld & Peiperl, 1988). “Training courses should support the strategic direction of the organisation and training objectives should be aligned with organisational goals” (Tannenbaum and Yukl, 1992:401), and an organisation undergoing downsizing should have a different training and development focus than an organisation actively involved in geometric expansion, product development or quality enhancement.

3.3.2 Task Analysis

A task analysis identifies the nature of the tasks which need to be done on the job and the knowledge, skills and abilities which are required to perform these tasks (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). However, technological changes that are growing so fast can modify task requirements which without any doubt could have an effect on knowledge, skill and ability requirements. The rapid changes in job requirements are increasing the importance of cross-job retraining (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992: 402). Different methods have been designed to facilitate planning by assessing how easily employees can be trained to assume new responsibility. Lance et al (1991) examined the methods for estimating cross-job retraining times for different tasks while Mumford et al (1987) examined the validity of a measure of occupational learning difficulty. On the other hand, Sparrow (1989) reported on the use of a measure of position Analysis Questionnaire profile similarly to predict the transfer of learning across jobs.

Howell and Cooke (1989:123) draw attention to threat work requirements at all levels which are becoming cognitively more demanding. However, Howell and Cooke further called for the expanded view of task analysis which should include an examination of the cognitive processing and learning requirements necessary to perform job tasks.

In Tannebaum & Yukl (1992:402) Campbell (1988) put emphasis on the need for a better understanding of what is meant by competent or expert performance. Kraiger (1998) on the other hand identified the differences in the way in which experts and novices approach a task and process information could yield insights valuable in determining what should be included in training and how it should be presented.

3.3.3 Person Analysis

Tannebaum and Yukl (1992:403) are of the view that “person analysis focuses on identifying who should be trained and what training is needed by an individual”. Where analysis is inadequately done, it may result in training directed to the wrong people.

Training should be for both older employees and new ones. Dickinson (2002:4) elaborates by pointing out that in the emerging knowledge economy, there are growing numbers of adult learners who need to constantly update and extend their knowledge and skills. Addressing the 90th Anniversary of the African National Congress, President Thabo Mbeki pointed out that one of the tasks that will have to be attended to is that “.... (Ne) we will have to attend to the improvement

of the state machinery on a sustained basis so that it is both responsive to the needs of the people and accessible to the masses. Among other things, this requires that those who serve within the public service should have the necessary skills to provide the required goods and services as well as commitment to serve the people.”

Skills development seen in this context is therefore not only a way to improve capacity for individual employees of the state but it constitutes the strengthening of the most important vehicle available to the state to achieve its goals and has to be aimed at making people more effective at the roles that they play in the developmental state (Nel et al, 2004).

New employees have unique training. Formal training for such employees often fails to present material at the appropriate level of difficulty and job specificity (Feldman 1988). When the diagnosis of recruits strengths and weaknesses are inadequate, many organisations provide training at the lowest common denominator, which result in sub optimization of training effectiveness (Feldman 1989). Added to determining who needs to be capacitated, person analysis can be used to assess whether employees have the prerequisite attitude, knowledge and motivation to benefit from training (Tannenbaum & Yukl 1992). Individuals who lack basic skills or motivation prior to training are less likely to succeed and may require remedial preparation prior to entering a specific training programme (Tannenbaum 1992).

3.4 HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY

3.4.1 Constitutional Background of the Human Resource Development Strategy

The Preamble to the Constitution of South Africa adopted in 1996 as the supreme law of the Republic states among others that it aims to:

- Improve the quality development of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person

The Constitution further, in Section 29, the section on the Bill of Rights, states with regards to education that:

1. Everyone has the right:

- a. to a basic education, including adult basic education; and*
- b. to further education, which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible.*

2. Everyone has the right to receive education in the official language or languages of their choice in public educational institutions where that education is reasonably practicable.

In order to ensure the effective access to, and implementation of, this right, the state must consider all reasonable educational alternatives, including single medium institutions, taking into account:

- a. equity;*
- b. practicability; and*
- c. the need to redress the results of past racially discriminatory laws and practices.*

3. Everyone has the right to establish and maintain, at their own expense, independent educational institutions that

- a. *do not discriminate on the basis of race;*
 - b. *are registered with the state; and*
 - c. *maintain standards that are not inferior to standards at comparable public educational institutions.*
4. Subsection (3) does not preclude state subsidies for independent educational institutions.

Thus, Human Resource Development is critically important in South Africa's development agenda. The importance of HRD demands a response that has a sense of urgency. It demands a comprehensive and determined response from Government. However, the scope and importance of the HRD project extends beyond Government as it demanded:

- The collective will and purposeful action from *all* stakeholders in society.
- The determination, commitment and accountability of individuals to invest time and effort in their own development.
- The commitment of all enterprises and organizations to invest time and resources in HRD toward the public good.

It is only through concerted efforts in HRD in the country as a whole that one can create suitable foundations for institutional and corporate missions. The urgency of the challenges and priorities, and the importance of the outcomes one seeks to achieve, obliges one as a South African to forge a social compact which will promote demand-driven HRD in the country.

3.4.2 Why an HRD Strategy for South Africa?

Human resources development has featured very prominently in the international discourse on development. Most countries are implementing a systematic strategy for human resources development in support of economic growth and development.

The growing complexity of work – accelerated through the dynamic impact of globalization on national economies, production, trade and the world of work – has put the question of HRD at the heart of contemporary public policy and development strategies. Developments in the global context make it imperative for all countries to respond effectively to the dynamic and competitive forces that impact on how national economies relate to the global economy.

With regard to HRD, economic competitiveness is measured not only by the aggregate skills of a country's workforce, but – perhaps more importantly – by the flexibility and capacity of the workforce to adjust speedily to the rapid changes in technology, production, trade, and work organisation. Consequently, the ability to respond to these changes with speed and effectiveness has now become the area where many countries seek competitive advantage. According to Ziderman (1995, p.352):

There has been a move from primary reliance on policies that emphasised capital investment in plant, machinery and infrastructure, or export-led growth strategies, to a broader approach that assigns a central role to investments in human capital. Expenditures on improved education, training and health are now no longer

regarded solely (or mainly) as benefits stemming from economic growth and rising incomes; increasingly, they are also seen as investments in human capital that make this sustained economic growth possible. This approach is shared not only by national governments but is endorsed in the investment policies of international aid agencies.

Most countries and multilateral institutions acknowledge the need to give systematic attention to the role of HRD in supporting national economic growth and development programmes. This global acknowledgement of the importance of HRD is illustrated by the response of the United Nations which formally inserted it on its agenda through Resolution 33/135 in 1978, following discussions on the subject over many years. The 1989 General Assembly resolution 44/213 declared:

... human resources development is a broad concept ... requiring integrated and concerted strategies, policies, plans and programmes to ensure the development of the full potential of human beings ... so that they may, individually and collectively, be capable of improving their standard of living. (Cited in United Nations Programme in Public Administration and Finance, 1995, p. 5).

Below is the summary of the evolution of thinking on HRD within the United Nations General Assembly. The United Nations makes an emphatic case for HRD as follows:

It is generally agreed that if overall human conditions are to improve, there must be increasing emphasis on human resources development. Appropriately, such

development provides for increases in productivity, enhances competitiveness and supports economic growth. However, the process, by definition, is very complex.

(Cited in United Nations Programme in Public Administration and Finance, 1995, p.3)

The contribution of education and training to economic and wider development has been demonstrated in varied national contexts. However, experience and systematic research has also emphasized an important qualification: HRD is a *necessary* condition, but it is not a *sufficient* condition for economic growth and development. (This qualification has been taken into account when formulating the HRD Strategy for South Africa).

Thus, if HRD is to create the desired development outcomes, it needs to be integrated with the whole range of development strategies currently being implemented. Without doubt, the lack of adequate human resources severely constrains social and economic growth and development. Almost all countries have therefore identified HRD as a key policy and development priority.

There is both anecdotal and empirical evidence of skills shortages in a number of occupations and economic sectors within South Africa. Importantly, this fact co-exists with a relatively high level of unemployment. It also contributes to individuals' low levels of success in finding employment after successful completion of education and training.

It is clear that there is a tangible problem arising from the mismatch between the supply and demand for skills in the South African labour market. The best way to address this mismatch, and

to ameliorate the implications that flow from it, is to implement a successful, comprehensive, and credible HRD strategy.

A wide range of activities is being implemented by the public and private sectors that are focused on HRD. This HRD Strategy cannot, and indeed does not, seek to include all of these activities in the public and private domain. It seeks instead, to implement a key set of strategic priorities that aims to address the most pressing imperatives for HRD. In this way, it will stimulate other HRD-related activities in the country.

In view of the current and projected economic and social development activities and objectives, it is necessary to adopt a short-term as well as medium-term perspective. There are certain areas of priority economic growth, which require us to overcome skills shortages which are constraining growth and investment in the short-term, but effective and credible HRD cannot depend entirely on short-term measures. The focus of this Strategy is equally on medium- and long-term perspectives. This HRD Strategy is therefore explicitly designed to respond to the twin imperatives of urgency and sustainability (HRD Strategy, 2001).

3.4.3 The Human Resource Development Strategy for South Africa (2001)

For a country to enhance its economic growth and provide the anticipated service delivery, it would need to utilize its human resource as effectively as possible. For this reason, the Department of Labour published a Human Resource Department Strategy (HRD) in 2004. The Human Resource Development Strategy has its origin in the Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP). The

RDP identified the people of South Africa as the most important resource. The HRD strategy would have to be supported and co-ordinated by the following institutions created by the legislation:

- *Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAS)*;
- *Skill plans* and learnership;
- The Council on Higher Education and Training;
- The National Board for Further Education and Training; and
- The South African Qualification Authority.

The Human Research Council has been assigned the responsibility of monitoring and identifying indicators and to report to cabinet.

The vision of the HRD strategy is “A nation at work for a better life for all” while its mission is “to maximize the potential of the people of South Africa, through the acquisition of knowledge and skills to work productively and competitively in order to achieve a rising quality of life for all, and to set in place an operational plan, together with the necessary institutional arrangements, to achieve this”. There are three broad goals set for this strategy. They are:

- To improve South Africa’s position on the Human Development Index
- To improve South Africa’s rating in the Gini Coefficient (reduce disparities in wealth and poverty and develop a more inclusive society); and
- To improve South Africa’s position in the International Competitiveness League in absolute terms

This HRD Strategy realises that to achieve this mission it is crucial that public service education and training initiatives be directed towards inter alia.

- Improving the foundation for Human Resource development;
- Improving the supply of high-quality skills (particularly scarce skills) which are more responsive to society and economic;
- Increasing employer participation in lifelong learning;
- Supporting employment growth through industrial policies, innovations, research and development; and
- Ensuring that the four strategic objectives of the HRDs are linked.

Erasmus *et al.* (2007:62) maintain that for the strategy to be successful there is need for efficient management, governance and support structure. There should also be coordination of the HRD strategy at the levels which are National, provincial and local.

3.4.4 Brief Review of the 2001 HRD Strategy for South Africa

The 2001 HRD Strategy for South Africa detailed a number of Strategic Objectives, Indicators and Indicative Actions, which assigned clear responsibilities to specific departments and entities. In addition, targets were assigned for priorities for 2001/2002, which was the first year of implementation.

A review of progress in respect of the indicators and targets contained in the 2001 HRD Strategy for South Africa was undertaken. The following are some of the findings of the review:

- For most of the targets specified in the strategy, significant progress was made in their attainment.
- Monitoring and evaluation was not optimally done – due, in large measure, to the fact that no clear framework and institutional measures were in place to do this effectively, and due to the absence of sufficient indicators and targets that would make this possible.
- The collection, management and utilization of data necessary for planning and monitoring of the HRD strategy were, in general, not commensurate with the demands that flowed from the strategy.
- The role of social partners was not sufficiently catered for in the strategy.
- Many important institutions and policies that impact on the role of HRD and implementation of the strategy emerged only after the finalization of the strategy – which means that they were not sufficiently accounted for in the strategy.
- The mechanisms for integrated planning, coordination and reporting on the strategy did not seem to find traction since the inception of the strategy.
- There was no effective mechanism in place to identify and address the demands for priority skills supply in the short-term.

While it is evident that progress has been made, one cannot be satisfied that the 2001 HRD Strategy has been successful. There are clear lessons from this experience that indicate what needs to be done better to move forward more effectively. There need to be a focus on the impact of globalisation and the portability of skills. There need also to be sophisticated tracking mechanisms to monitor the movement and scarcity of a skilled workforce, given “the 2001 HRD Strategy struggled to interpret and anticipate the demand side of labour”. There is a clear need for a revised

Strategy that will overcome the shortcomings listed above, and to respond to the new challenges that have arisen.

3.4.5 Key challenges that have shaped the revision of the HRD strategy

HRD on a national scale is an enterprise of considerable scope. It embraces the work of a number of line departments within all spheres of Government; public entities; non-governmental organisations and the multitude of private enterprises in the country. Almost the entire population is the target of HRD, and the outcomes of the strategy will shape the conditions we create for future generations.

The purpose of “strategy” is to systematically identify and implement a set of focused actions that would create sufficient leverage for the full scope of HRD inputs and activities to promote the outcomes that favour the country’s development priorities. The strategy should, therefore, be limited in scope and focused on maximizing mission-enhancing leverage within the HRD system. The challenges and priorities, listed below, served as the basis for the formulation of this revised HRD Strategy for South Africa:

- The need for credible and effective institutional mechanisms for the stewardship, implementation, coordination and monitoring and evaluation of the HRD-SA.
- The need for credible capability to identify the demand for priority skills and to formulate effective short-term strategies to ensure supply in a manner that mitigates the negative

impact of any shortages on growth. Supply to include development of talent within timeframes.

- The need to ensure optimal responsiveness of education and training activities to the country's development agenda, and the demand for skilled human resources in the labour market.
- The pressing challenges related to the quality of learning attainment and competency acquisition within the skills development pipeline, starting from basic education.
- The effectiveness of public education and training institutions, in general, has yet to reach optimal levels. The current challenges with regard to effectiveness have made it difficult for the country to reap the returns that are comparable with international levels of public and private investment in education and training.
- While planning capacity has grown significantly since 1994, it has not yet reached levels across the HRD system that are commensurate with the levels required for effective implementation of HRD interventions in the country. In addition, the SETA Sector Skills Plans, the Higher Education and FET enrolment planning; and the immigration quota list are not informed by a common, credible and consistent modelling of skills supply and demand projections. These problems militate against integration, and confound responsiveness of education and training provision to the demands of the labour market.
- Most provinces and some local government entities have developed HRD strategies. While most of these efforts have sought to locate their respective strategies within the broader HRD-SA, there have not been sufficient guidelines for their actions.
- The formulation of clear and credible indicators and targets are vital to the success of any strategy. The scope and formulation of indicators and targets were clearly not satisfactory

in the 2001 HRD Strategy for South Africa. Implementation and the measurement of progress are extremely difficult under such circumstances. In addition, all activities identified within the strategy need to be supported by a credible implementation or project plan.

- While there has been progress in the development and integrity of the various data systems related to HRD, certain important challenges persist. The need to improve these data systems to more optimal levels is a key priority within the HRD-SA, as many of the functions and activities are contingent on the existence of credible and utility-focused data systems.
- The emergence of new development strategies such as ASGISA, NIPF, and the Anti-poverty strategy, in particular, have generated very significant implications for HRD-SA. These strategies collectively address the most pressing strategic priorities within South Africa's development agenda. The implications of these strategies need to be carefully analysed if the HRD-SA is to be optimally responsive to the country's development agenda.
- There is a need to look at how various institutions, including JIPSA, can be integrated into the institutional arrangements of the HRD-SA in a manner that gives rise to institutional coherence, and maximizes the benefits that these institutions bring to the HRD mandate.
- The 2001 HRD Strategy (like most national HRD strategies throughout the world) has struggled to interpret and anticipate the demand side of the labour market and how it shapes policies and activities that impact on supply. This situation needs to be addressed through stronger involvement of Ministries that impact on economic policy and development, and private sector employers in the HRD-SA.

- The primary driver of supply is undoubtedly the output generated by various education and training activities in the country. However, numerous other factors – such as those that determine the way the labour market operates – also play a significant role in shaping supply. It is important for interventions focused on these factors to be brought within the scope of HRD policies and strategies. Some notable examples in this regard relate to:
 - immigration (quota lists to be informed by credible and consistent modelling of skills and demand projections and emigration);
 - labour market and career planning information;
 - the match between skills and qualifications, on the one hand, and the demands of the workplace, on the other;
 - perceptions on the demand side that may lead to a failure or even refusal to recognize and utilise existing supply of skills that could meet demand;
 - morbidity in the working population resulting from illness and disease; and
 - questions of productivity.

- There is a need to use the lessons that accrue from experience to simplify institutional arrangements and policies which will improve efficacy of skills development enterprise in the country. The review of SETAs and new policy directions in FET must be geared toward this outcome.

- The sudden and rapid growth in funding for education and training in recent years (occasioned largely by the successful implementation of the Skills Development Act) has resulted in an increase in the demand for training. However, the capacity on the provider

side of the market has not always met these elevated levels of demand. This situation has, in some instances, spawned an entrepreneurial and certification culture that is often questionable. The private provider market, across the system, has yet to reach maturity. The cost of training is relatively high in South Africa, while the quality and outcomes of training do not always justify the level of costs. We urgently need quality assurance and other measures that will promote the growth in efficiency of the training market.

- Despite many important initiatives undertaken by Government, capacity to deal effectively with priorities that transcend current and traditional departmental boundaries remains a serious challenge. In particular, the effectiveness in dealing with the conditions and barriers that confront youth, women, and children who should be receiving early childhood development, and people with disabilities, remain unsatisfactory.

3.4.6 Goals of the New HRD Strategy

The HRD strategy is explicitly intended to contribute to the attainment of the following national goals:

- To urgently and substantively reduce the related scourges of poverty and unemployment in South Africa;
- To promote justice and social cohesion through improved equity in the provision and outcomes of education and skills development programmes; and
- To substantively improve national economic growth and development through improved competitiveness of the South African economy.

In pursuance of the above goals, this HRD strategy is designed to complement the range of purposefully developed development interventions to achieve the following:

- An improvement in South Africa's Human Development Index and the country's position in global HDI ranking;
- An improvement in the measure and ranking of South Africa's economic competitiveness;
- A reduction in the Gini coefficient (corresponding to a reduction in the inequality of wealth in the country); and
- An improvement in the measure of social cohesion as measured through specific social surveys.

3.5 COMPONENTS OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

Capacity Building is much more than training and includes the following:

- Human Resources Development
- Organizational Development
- Institutional and Legal Framework Development

3.5.1 Human Resource Development

Human resource development has been elaborated in different ways. It has been explained as “the process of equipping individuals with the understanding, skill and access to information,

knowledge and training that enables them to perform effectively.”
(http://www.gdrc.org/uem/capacity_html).

Gilley *et al* (2002) identified four fundamental areas of human resources development. They classified them as individual development, career development, performance management and organizational development.

3.5.1.1 Individual development

Individual development refers to the development of new knowledge, skills and improved behaviours that result in performance enhancement and improvement related to one’s current job (training). The concern is on employee’s efforts to improve their knowledge, competencies, skills and appropriate behaviours for current jobs. It includes learning in both formal and informal settings. The delivery system in individual development includes on-line learning activities, computer-based instructions, performance support tools, instructor-led training, individual, self-directed learning and on-the-job training (Gilley *et al*: 2002).

Individual development is a short term orientation to performance improvement which results in a lower level of organizational enhancement. Its improved knowledge, skills or behaviours affect single jobs or group of jobs.

According to Cole and George (199: 354), “individual development is conceptual and skills training in management and supervision techniques such as planning, problem-solving, decision

and business finance, and is interpersonal and other people's skills such as communication, performance counselling, negotiation and conflict management." It is therefore evident, from the explanation given above, that individual development is for both the employee and the supervisor. It cannot be limited to one category only.

Depending on the position that one holds, development of employees should focus on specific skills. The supervisors training should focus on critical techniques such as problem solving, decision-making and planning, as well as people's skills such as leadership and interviewing while those at the lower level require technical job-related training.

3.5.1.2 Career development

Career development can be defined as an organized planned effort comprised of activities or processes that result in mutual and career plotting efforts between employees and the organization Gutteridge and Otto (1983) in Gilley *et al* (2002: 59) suggested that within this system, the employee is responsible for career planning and the organization is responsible for career management.

Career development focuses on providing the analysis necessary to identify the individual interests, values, competencies, activities and assignments needed to develop skills for future jobs.

Career development includes both individual and organizational activities.

Individual activities are much focused on career awareness, utilizing career resources centre, while organizational activities focus on job posting system, mentoring system, career resource centre development and maintenance, using managers as career counsellors, providing career development workshops and seminars, human resource planning performance appraisals and career pathing programs. (Gilley *et al*: 2002).

The Employees and the organizations working together as a team are necessary to guarantee career development success. Career development is more long-term than individual development and proves more complex. It provides employees with continuous development opportunities that reach ever-increasing levels of competency which impact the total operation of the organization.

Career development can therefore reduce the performance problems with the organization. It is of utmost importance for institutions like municipalities to have career development programs. It helps employees to analyse their abilities and interests to better match human resource development needs. Educational activities provide a means of career advancement and mobility and developmental activities enable employees to reach their full potential.

Willis (1997:100) classified two ways in which training can be part of a person's career development which include training as a profession and training as part of development. Both these ways help keep training in touch with reality.

3.5.1.3 Individual and organization responsibilities in career development

The employee's career development responsibilities include career awareness, career planning, organizational awareness and individual awareness. Organizational responsibilities designed to enhance career development include establishing a job posting system, development mentoring program, using managers as career counsellors, planning and implementing career development workshop, developing a long-time human resource planning process, performance appraisals into developmental evaluations, instituting employee growth and development plans and creating a developmental culture.

Within the system of career development, employees are responsible for career planning while the organization is responsible for career management. Career development is a critical tool via which organizations can increase productivity, improve employee attitudes, work and enjoy work satisfaction (Walton, 1999).

3.5.1.4 Performance management

Performance management is a comprehensive approach used to identify performance breakdowns within an organizational system and appropriate interventions useful in achieving the desired performance results. Performance management is therefore a system wide approach used to improve organizational performance. It can be used to monitor and facilitate improved organizational performance. The goal of performance management is to guarantee that the right

individuals have the knowledge, skills, motivation and environmental support to do their jobs effectively and efficiently (Fuller & Farrington, 1999 in Gilley *et al.*, 2002:15).

This system relies on performance, causal and root-cause analysis to identify current and desired performance. Performance management is often used to produce short-term gains needed by organizational leaders to demonstrate their personal leadership effectiveness. According to Sangweni (2003:20), performance management is a systemic process in which an organization involves its employees, as individuals and as members of a group, in improving organizational effectiveness in the accomplishment of their mission and goals. Cummings and Worley (2001:381) view performance management as an integrated process of defining, assessing and reinforcing employee work behaviours and outcomes while Layton (2003:26) is of the opinion that it is the systemic data-oriented approach to managing people at work that relies on positive reinforcement as the major way to maximize performance.

Simeka (2002:16) defines performance management as a process of harnessing available human resources within an organization and ensuring that they perform to the maximum in order to achieve the desired results. Performance management therefore, involves building processes, systems, cultures and relationships that facilitate the achievement of organizational objectives.

Performance management is, according to Meyer and Botha (2000:380), geared towards influencing employee's behaviour for the achievement of the organizations strategic goals. It involves the following interventions:

- daily meetings

- weekly/monthly staff meeting
- twice monthly meetings
- performance appraisals (Meyer and Botha, 2000:380).

The constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996 stipulates that public administration should adhere to a number of principles. Within these principles it is included that:

- a high standard of professional ethics be promoted and maintained;
- services be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias;
- resources be utilized effectively and economically;
- people's needs be responded to;
- the public be encouraged to participate in policy-making; and
- it be accountable, transparent and development-oriented.

It is however necessary to obtain precise measures of performance with regard to some activities whilst in others there are useful indicators of performance (Van der Waldt, 2004:8-9).

- **The Performance Agencies**

As a way of promoting good governance, the Department of Public Service and Administration, Executive authorities, Heads of departments, organized labour and the Public Service Commission have been put in place under the new Constitution (Act 108 of 1996). The Department of Public Service and Administration is responsible “for all policy (national norms and standards) matters relating to human resource management for the whole of the public service; decides on measures

to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of public institutions; and decides on all requests for deviations from and relaxation of policy (national norms and standards) in those instances where executing authorities have not been empowered” (Van der Waldt, 2004:9).

The executing authorities include the Minister, Premiers, and Members of the Executive Committees (MECs). They are empowered within the norms and standards to deal with:

- Organizational structure ;
- Creation and abolition of posts ;
- All career incidents; and
- Certain deviations from and relaxation of prescribed norms and standards (Van der Waldt, 2004:9).

The Heads of Departments in consultation with the executing authority are given the latitude to establish departmental policies on human resource management at macro level only. The organized labour through the Public Service Bargaining Council are given a more direct link to the system to ensure that constitutional principles and norms and standards are adhered to in the execution of human resource management activities and in respect of organization and establishment matters (Van der Waldt , 2004 : 10).

3.5.2 Organizational Development

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1998:569) a pair of organizational development experts defined organizational development as a process that is:

“Concerned with helping managers plan change in organizing and managing people that will develop requisite commitment, coordination and competence.” According to Beckhard (1969:9), organizational development is “an effort, planned, organization-wide and managed from the top, to increase organizations’ effectiveness and health through planned interventions in the organization’s process, using behavioural-science knowledge.”

Chumming and Worley in <http://www.managementhelp.org> maintains that an organization’s development is “a system-wide application of behavioural science knowledge to the planned development and reinforcement of organization’s effectiveness.” This has been regarded as a new definition of organizational development. The common aspect in both definitions is that their objective is to result in organizations’ effectiveness.

Its purpose is to enhance both the effectiveness of organizations and the well-being of their members through planned interventions in the organization’s human process, structures and systems, using knowledge of behavioural science and its intervention methods.”

An organization’s development is directed at constructing new creative organizational solutions to performance problems and organizational inefficiencies. It provides the highest level of organizational efficiency. It also requires the greatest skills and the most commitment to human resource improvement. It often requires a more comprehensive analysis of performance difficulties and other factors affecting results. This approach incorporates a variety of techniques to improve performance and organizational efficiency, which may not necessarily include learning activities.

Organizational development therefore, looks at how the organization and its employees work together. It focuses on the needs of its employees and ensures that they work effectively to make the organization a success. The emphasis of organizational development is placed on the human factors and data inherent in the organization-employee relationship.

It should be noted that organizations are not static. Their natures and needs keep on changing. It can therefore be helpful to consider what organizational development is. It is further noticed that there is an on-going process known as both a field of optical behavioural science which is focused on understanding and managing organizational change and as a field of scientific study and inquiry. It is therefore within this context that it is regarded as interdisciplinary in nature and draws on sociology, psychology and theories of motivation, learning and personality (<http://www.referenceforbusiness.com>).

3.5.2.1 Organizational development basics

Even though the field of organizational development is broad, it is differentiated from other organizational change by its emphasis on process rather than problems. Traditional change groups systems focused on identifying behaviour that creates the problem in organizations and then tried to change that behaviour. But according to Margaret, Naele and Gregory Northaraff in <http://www.answers.com> “organizational development initiatives focus on identifying the behavioural interactions and patterns that cause and sustain problems. Then, rather than simply

change isolated behaviour, organizational development efforts are aimed at creating a behaviourally healthy organization that will naturally anticipate and prevent problems.”

The small Business Encyclopaedia listed the following basic characteristics that are shared by different organizational programs in <http://www.answers.com>

- In most cases they are considered long-term efforts of at least one to three years;
- Organizational development stresses collaborative management (managers at different levels cooperate to solve problems);
- Organizational development recognized the uniqueness of every organization and that the same solutions cannot be necessarily applicable to all companies;
- It focuses on research and feedback; and
- Emphasis is placed on the value of teamwork, small groups or even individuals as a vehicle to implement broad organizational challenges.

3.5.2.2 Managing change and organizational development

The traditional approach in organizational change had to commence with stating a vision, followed by mission statement. In essence, this was supposed to result in behavioural change which led to action, then followed by a new organizational culture. According to Ho (1999), the contemporary approach should commence with action followed by behavioural change which will then result in a new vision. This is followed by a mission statement after which a new organizational culture is developed. Change is therefore introduced by way of action.

Considering this new approach, it is clear that challenges should be treated where they arise. There should be regular adaptations introduced instead of singular major changes (Thornhill: 2002).

Kroukamp (2004: 27) is of the view that it can generally be accepted that training is not a miracle cure by which all management and administrative problems can be solved. It is, however, one of the human resource development practices which, in an integrated manner, can be used to obtain meaningful change and renewal. Training will assist the government to develop the professional capacities of politicians/public servants and to promote institutional change. In this manner, training can contribute to

- equip all public servants with the necessary knowledge, skills and competencies to carry out their jobs effectively in pursuit of the vision and mission for the public service;
- enhance the process of making the public service more representative;
- the reorientation of the values and practices which officials might have acquired under a previous dispensation; and
- the anticipation and facilitation of the introduction of institutional changes within the public service, if properly conceived and structured. Training should thus become a key component of the institution-building process and for this reason, cannot be developed in isolation and must be integrated within the overall strategic plans of public service organisations (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service 1995, 64 & Kuyeh 2001,5).

Such skills and competencies to be acquired to deal with these changes will not only be occupational, technical and professional in nature, but should also relate to problem solving and

leadership, to enable public servants at all levels/ spheres to take advantage of the opportunities for open and participative management, team building and decision making.

When dealing with the South African situation in this regard in this regard, Kroukamp (2004:28) indicated that the views below should be taken into consideration:

- South Africa has a severe shortage of professional managers and technicians, compared with industrialised countries, as there are only 3 million skilled people, as opposed to the 7 million in semi/unskilled work (Westcott 2003,7);
- Of the 4 million people who are unemployed, some 50 per cent are young people who have completed more than nine years of schooling. Youth unemployment is aggravated by the inadequate provision of technical and vocational education and training opportunities. In the Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, 50 per cent of secondary school students are in technical and vocational education programmes;
- Many small businesses in South Africa are informal and fall outside regulatory and taxation arrangements. In practice, many are trapped at the low-value-adding end of the production spectrum. The challenge is to assist these enterprises to climb the value chain and this will require skills;
- Public services at national, regional and local spheres of government need the skills to implement the policies and programmes that have been introduced to improve living standards and reduce levels of poverty, inequality and exclusion; and
- Although skills development opportunities are provided for staff, a commitment to training has not characterised the South African labour market (Kroukamp 1998:90). An International Labour Organisation (ILO) Country Profile of South Africa reported that

although 87 per cent of a sample of manufacturing companies claimed to provide skills development opportunities, 70 per cent in practice offered only induction and initial training. The same report suggested that 40 per cent of employers provide no training at all (Mbere 1999, 7). Unemployed people as well as employers seeking skilled workers furthermore seldom turn to training as the answer – they want their needs met immediately and they do not want to wait for the returns on training to materialise. Besides, from the employers' point of view, if a person is trained, he or she could leave and find other and better paid employment with a competitor. From the viewpoint of individuals, it is often felt that the market has failed them – they are demotivated. Employers and workers need to be persuaded that training today is an investment in tomorrow. Whilst the returns may not be immediate, they will be substantial and are worth the investment and the wait (Skilling SA 2001, 3).

- **Change as experienced by individuals**

All living organisms are subject to a process of change. This process is normally characterized as a life cycle consisting of birth, growth, development and death (Stewart, 1996:12). The environment has a significant influence on individual change in this regard. It provides much of the experience which influences one's physical, intellectual and emotional development. However, individuals are also capable of exercising free will and independent choice. They are therefore inextricably involved in determining their own environments. The social environment in which individuals develop plays a role in this instance. One of the levels in which it is constituted is within the work organization. The development and change that has to do with intellectual and

emotional characteristics occur through learning. The underlying point in this regard is the key to individual change (Stewart: 1996).

- **Change as experienced by organizations**

According to Stewart (1996:14) “work organizations are literally peopled by individual members of the human species.” It is therefore neither possible to understand human beings nor manage organizational change without that understanding. Changes within organizations are focused on two things: the location of change and the cause or intent associated with the change. With regard to the location of change, an attempt is made to manage either external or internal change. On the other hand, the dimension which has to do with the cause or intent associated with the change focuses on two possibilities, that is, change can be deliberate, intended or desired (planned). It therefore implies that change may be unintended or unplanned and arises out of the nature of the world and therefore is dynamic (Stewart, 1996). Whether planned or unplanned, decided internally or imposed externally, organizations should have the flexibility and adaptiveness to respond to these dynamic changes.

- **The change agents**

Organizational development process can either be initiated or facilitated by a group or an individual known as change agents. The change agents can either be internal consultants or external ones. Stout (1993:67) is of the opinion that internal consultancy requires expertise as an advisor, motivator and diagnostician – with a high degree of interpersonal skills. As an internal

consultant, that person must be able to promote understanding within the organization; ascertain what problems or needs exist; identify those needs in relation to individuals or the organizations; help discern what is preventing the achievement of organizational targets and acts as a problem solver. Expertise as analytical skill and learning methods are essential in identifying problems and proposing a way forward to solve them. These skills are comprised of a consultant as a trainer and play a major role in adopting what is essentially a catalyst role.

Outside consultants with experience in managing organizational development programs may be utilized where the need arises. According to Stout (1993:132), external consultants can often be utilized where the internal team of consultants lacks manpower, expertise, experience, time and credibility. The advantage of bringing in outside organizational development consultant is that they often provide a different perspective and have a less biased view of the organization's problems and needs. There are challenges which are associated with outside change agents. They include amongst others that they may have trouble in securing the trust and co-operation of key players in the organizations and that they may lack an in-depth understanding of key issues of the particular organization (<http://www.answers.com>).

In order to minimize the drawbacks that might be brought about by the implementation of the two approaches, some organizations employ what the Small Business Encyclopaedia in <http://www.answers.com> called external-internal team approach which seeks to combine the advantages of internal and external change agents while minimizing the drawbacks associated with the two approaches.

- **Implementing the organizational programme**

The implementation of organizational programmes marks the beginning of organizational change.

Programme implementation entails two groups of activities: action research and intervention.

- **Action research**

Action research has been elaborated as “a process of systematically collecting data” (<http://www.answers.com/topic/organizational-development>). Three steps and processes are applicable in change that is brought about by action research as explained by Lewin in http://www.wikipedia.org/wiki/organization_development. The first stage entails the collection of data, results feedback and joint action planning. Stage two is the action or transportation phase where actions relating to learning process in behavioural changes are executed. During the last stage which may be referred to as the output or results phase, actual changes in behaviour occur.

- **Interventions**

Organizational development has been explained as a “contractual relationship between a change agent and a sponsoring organization entered into for the purpose of using applied behavioural science and other organizational change perspectives in a systems context to improve organizational performance and the capacity of the organization to improve itself.” (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/organization_development). In this context the change agent is not a technical expert skilled in functional areas such as engineering auditing, but a behavioural scientist

who knows how to get people involved in solving their own problems. The change agent's main strength is therefore a comprehensive knowledge of human behaviour, supported by a number of intervention techniques.

Before getting into intervention techniques, it should be taken into consideration that organizational development deals with a total system. Within this system there are individuals, cliques, structures, norms and values which are interdependent. The change in one part would also affect the other parts of the system (http://wikipedia.org/wiki/organization_development)

Interventions have been classified into interpersonal, group, intergroup and comprehensive. The aim of interpersonal intervention is to enhance individual skills, knowledge and effectiveness. Group interventions ensure that teams and groups become more effective and also assume that for groups to be effective they must communicate well and facilitate a healthy balance between personal and group needs. Their functions should be consensus-based as opposed to autocracy or majority rule. Through intergroup interventions, cooperation and efficiency between different groups within an organization, change is facilitated. Comprehensive intervention is used to directly create change through the entire organization. Comprehensive interventions include the survey feedback, structural change interventions, sociotechnical system design intervention and the total quality system (http://www.answers.com/topic/organizational_development).

3.5.3. Principles of Employee Development

The studies conducted by the managers, psychologists and professors at General Electric concerning the growth and development of people resulted in five principles of employee

development. Even though these principles are broad, they provide a basis from which the trainer can help to establish an understanding, proper climate, and active support programme for the employees within the department (Eckles et al, 1974:409).

One of the principles is that development is a personal matter and should be tailored to a particular individual. This principle emphasises the difference that exists among people. Even though group training is effective where common group needs are to be addressed, individual development should not be compromised.

Another principle focuses on self-development as the basis for development. In this regard, development is seen as something that starts within an individual. It is therefore the responsibility of the individual to develop himself. Motivation plays a significant role in this regard. The role of the supervisor is limited on stabling a conducive environment for the employee to develop suggestions, providing opportunity, information and direction.

The third principle that Eckles (1974:410) cited is that “the day-to-day experiences are the most important part of person’s development.” It is believed that the contacts that an individual make every day play a major role in his personal development. The daily interaction that the worker encounters with his immediate supervisor and the relation they have, coupled with the environment in which he works play a significant role to ward his personal development.

Development opportunity should be available for everyone emerged is another principle. People do not have the same potential, but they should all be given equal opportunities to develop. By so

doing the morale of every worker may be lifted so that more production or expected service delivery may be experienced.

The last principle that Eckles (1974: 410) mentioned focused on the supervisor as directly responsible for the development of people who work under his direction. The fact is, the responsibility of developing an employee by the supervisor cannot be delegated to someone else, hence the principle of ‘delegere non potes’. It is the responsibility of every supervisor to make sure that the job is done by working with and through people. His responsibility is to guide, direct and support each individual’s development.

For every organization that looks forward to providing efficient and effective service delivery or produce the products it desires, these principles should be taken seriously.

3.6 MAPPING CAPACITY BUILDING

There are dozens, if not hundreds, of approaches to strengthening the capacity of organizations, from training programs to strategic planning, board development, management system, leadership, and recruitment, organization restructuring and fundraising, each of which can be sorted again by cost, durability, portability and impact.

All capacity building engagements share common elements. Focusing on the discrete elements that comprise capacity building activities it is admittedly reductionist – it suggests that capacity

building is simply the sum of its parts rather than a dynamic, complex process (Light & Hubbard, 2002:4).

3.6.1 Factors that Shape Capacity Building Process

According to Light and Hubbard (2008:5) four key elements play a role in determining the size, shape and ultimate success of engagements. Even though other factors such as the external environment or stakeholders can also influence capacity building process, the most universal and readily identifiable components of any capacity building engagements are the desired outcome, change strategy, champions and resources.

3.6.1.1 Desired outcome

The desired outcome can also be known as the defining goal. Capacity building engagements within any organization should commence with the classification (categorization) of desired outcomes. Light and Hubbard (2008:5) identified four areas which the organizational life may seek to effect. These are:

- External relationships
- Internal structure
- Leadership
- Internal management system

- **External relationship**

External relationships involve the organization's interactions with the outside world and often involve issues related to organizational survival. These relationships, volunteer recruitment, sudden growth or decline in demand and challenges related to mission defining, are a focus of outcome and organizational isolation (Light and Hubbard, 2002).

- **Internal structure**

The internal structure focuses on the basic shape of the organization and often involves issues related to internal communication and work style. These may include the distance between the top and the bottom of the organization, incentives for internal collaboration, delegation and access to adequate technology. Financial cushions such as rainy day funds and efforts to increase diversity among the staff, be it racial, gender, age and professional also play a role. Structural challenge can also be related to the need to recruit talented board members, leaders, staff and volunteers (Light and Hubbard; 2002:6).

- **Leadership**

Leadership focuses on the overall direction of the organization by its senior leadership and board. Challenges include lack of clarity in the respective responsibilities of the staff and board, issues surrounding the basic permission to take risks and make mistakes. The general question that arises may be about the executive director's ability to raise funds, motivate people, make decisions, encourage collaboration and communicate. Sometimes problems arise due to mismatches between

leadership style and the needs of the organization at a particular point in its life cycle (Light and Hubbard, 2002:6).

As a leader, the manager identifies, secures commitment for, and facilitates the accomplishment of group goals (Russel, 2015). The extent that group goals and organizational goals are accomplished; the manager is an effective leader. The manner in which one exercises leadership reflects perception of a wide array of features: philosophy of human nature, inherent attributes or personality of leader and followers, nature of goals and tasks etc. Proper consideration of leadership variables may make the behaviour and style of the leader those that will have a higher probability of leading an effective integration of human and organizational needs, and the accomplishment of their diverse goals sets (Light and Hubbard, 2002).

- **Leadership style**

The changing nature of the workplace and workforce highlights the need for effective leadership. Goldstein and Ford (2002: 305) maintain that leaders have to structure activities that enhance productivity at a time when jobs are becoming more intense. It should also be that instead of the changing expectations of a more educated workforce towards increased responsibility and empowerment, it places pressure on leaders to be out of the box and more creative in the utilization of human resources.

It is important to recognize that leadership is exercised in all groups. In most cases, there will be a formal leader, e.g. a manager in relation to a work group or a trainer in relation to a learning group.

Where no formal leader exists, leadership will be exercised by some or all group members. The style adopted is a critical process issue. An autocratic style is unlikely to create the conditions necessary for identification with the group. A democratic style and one which allows leadership to be shared is considered to produce more effective or higher quality group processes (Stewart, 1996:91).

In relation to this explanation, the type of leadership displayed by the manager, would determine the motivation level of the staff. A leader who maintains sound relationship with his/her staff is more likely to get the maximum efforts exerted towards work than the one who does not go well with the subordinates.

- **Internal Management System**

The internal management systems focus on the mechanism that organizations use to integrate external relationships, internal structure and leadership. Challenges may exist in systems throughout the organization: in personnel and pay, accounting and financial management, technology, training and strategic planning. In terms of information systems, organizations often seek to improve their ability to systemically measure what they do, make data-based decisions and red flag potential problems in the other areas of organizational life.

Together, these four areas which the organizational life seeks to effect provide a general portrait of the overall culture and operating style of an organization. Although culture is more than just the sum of four parts, it is embedded in the goodness of fitness between the environment, structure, leadership and systems. It could be for example, that an organization's leadership does not fit with

its environment, or that its systems are no longer in line with its hierarchy. Hence, along with problems in the four individual areas, one must also look for problems between and among the four areas (Light and Hubbard, 2002:6).

3.6.1.2 Change strategy

The change strategy selected would help to realize the desired outcome or defining goal. The change strategies may include purposes like supporting professional development, including a combination of staff training and mentoring; undertaking bylaw revisions; supporting the board and staff conducting an organizational assessment and developing the initial elements of a strategic plan, ensuring the successful transfer of leadership at the executive level and supporting the continuing upgrade of the accounting system.

The organizational change strategies may fall into two categories: they are directed toward either clarifying “what” an organization does or improving or “how” it functions. “What” strategies focus on defining the organization’s mission and purpose, determining the best means of accomplishing its mission and seeking alignment and commitment from stakeholders.

“How” strategies tend to be more technical in nature and focus on discrete aspects of an organization’s performance, like more staff training, technology upgrades and new financial management system (Light and Hubbard, 2002:7).

The kind of change an organization may be seeking depends upon a number of factors beyond its own history, experience and immediate needs, including the environment in which it operates and its stage of lifecycle development.

3.6.1.3 Champions

Champions guide the effort to implement change strategies. Champions play a crucial role in tailoring the solution to the organization's problem and seeing it through to implementation. They also play a key role in helping focus people's attention on the problem-solving process. Capacity building champions can either be internal champions from the staff or board who help drive the change strategy forward or external consultants or providers who offer assistance and expertise. In the case of municipalities, the council should play a significant role in this regard of initiating and implementing change.

Researchers and academic centres should perhaps be included in this category. Even though capacity building is growing at a considerable rate, it would be difficult to call it a profession given the lack of standards, norms, best practices and accreditation that exist in the industry (Light and Hubbard 2002:7).

3.6.1.4 Resources

Capacity building involves a number of resources, including money, energy and time invested in the process. Available funds affect not only who is hired as a consultant, but also the depth and

duration of the problem solving engagements. The size and shape of any given engagement is often influenced more by available resources than by need; time and energy devoted to the capacity building and engagements that are also crucial resources. Capacity building involves change in:

- Identifying what needs to be changed;
- Determining how to change it; and
- Incorporating those into the daily routine (Light and Hubbard: 2002: 8).

Any type of change requires time and energy. Within any organization, if the directors and staff do not have the time to focus on the capacity building process, it is unlikely that any meaningful change will result - even if a capable consultant has devoted hours and hours to the process.

3.7 ORGANIZATIONAL CAPACITY

The development of every organization is dependent on its capacity. The question that arises is what capacity is. According to the Oxford Dictionary, capacity is the ability to contain or accommodate something. What is it that every organization should accommodate? This may depend on the purpose, nature and content of a particular organization. The family resemblance that organizations share has also an effect. Capacity building can, to some extent, be defined differently from one organization to another ([http:// www.gm.org/ research/ cabuild.htm](http://www.gm.org/research/cabuild.htm)).

Rickets in [http://.www.gmi.org /research/capacity](http://www.gmi.org/research/capacity) building maintains that there are basic capabilities that an organization must have in order to fulfil its purpose. This may amongst others include a responsible board of directors, sound financial practices, effective fund raising,

meaningful international programs, and first-rate technical and administrative skills. However, there is much more to organizational capacity than the aspects mentioned above. It is not all that an organization needs to build that is capacity. The relationship between the structure, strategy, system, style, skills, staff and shared values is also needed.

Capacitating the organization can also be seen as a process of facilitating organizational learning, performance and change through organized (formal and informal) interventions, initiatives and management actions for the purpose of enhancing an organization's performance capacity, competitive readiness and renewal (Gilley, England and Gilley 2002:6-7).

3.7.1 Key Factors of Organizational Effectiveness

A study of American business by Mckinsey & Company in collaboration with the Harvard School identified seven key factors of organizational effectiveness. This study proposed that effective organizational change is the relationship between structure, strategy, systems, style, skill, staff, and shared values. The alignment of all these seven elements makes any organization self-renewable.

3.7.2 Steps in Building Organizational Capacity

Building organizational capacity involves the following steps:

- (a) Diagnosing what is missing or needed in the organization;
- (b) Planning strategies to change the situation;

- (c) Educating personnel to carry out change; and
- (d) Evaluating results.

- **Diagnosis**

Diagnostic steps involve gathering of information. This may take the form of interviews which may either be face-to-face or telephonic. Depending on the need, observation may also be used to gather information. The use of available documents and records can be of great assistance in this regard.

- **Strategy**

According to Johnson *et al*, 2005 in (Creasley 2006:26), strategy is the direction and scope of an organization over the long term: ideally, which method its resources are to its changing environment, and in particular, its markets, customer or clients so as to meet stakeholder expectations. Strategy planning is concerned with developing a plan for organization improvement based on these data. The process typically identifies problem areas in the organization and outlines steps to resolve the problems. Thus, strategic decisions occur as a result of an evaluation of the external and internal environments.

It is therefore essential to note that the success of every organization depends on the strategies employed successfully. What has been learnt during that time can also be applied under the new

strategy (Solomon and George, 1999). It should therefore be taken into consideration that the forces that have driven the organization to select a new strategy are instead down.

- **Educating personnel**

Educating personnel consists of involving the people most affected by the problem in diagnostic and strategy planning steps. This makes implementation easier as changes are not imposed upon people but rather invented by them. In some cases the educating step involves sharing the information obtained in the diagnosis with the people who are affected by the problem and helping them adopt the planned change.

Human (1991:171) is of the opinion that formal training programmes are often reluctant to getting involved in the messy problems of training and developing people; it is easier to send them on courses. “It is in fact true that many formal training programmes and many organizations and institutions offering management education offer products of high quality which, when and correctly used, can assist with the process of development.”

It should therefore also be noted that in respect of the purpose of educating and training personnel, self-discovery and construction of knowledge should be elicited, rather than being the transfer of knowledge to students. In this regard, learning should produce learning, not merely the provision of instruction. Powerful learning environment should be created, as opposed to the offering of programmes and courses (Kroukamp 2004, 29).

If this does not happen, the rapidly changing nature of the environment and the rate at which knowledge can become outdated, are not taken into consideration (Barr & Tagg 1995, 16-17).

- **Evaluation**

Evaluation is the process of placing value. A value is turn, in a belief about what is good or bad, important or unimportant. Evaluation is therefore the process that places value on the results. Evaluation may be formative (occurs at the end of a small-scale (pilot) try out process); concurrent (occurs during the implementation process) and Summative (occurs after the implementation) (Rothwell, 2005:272). Rothwell (2005:272) further cited reasons for carrying out evaluation:

- It yields information about what changes resulted from the process;
- It provides information about how much change resulted from the process; and
- It suggests what value can be placed on those changes.

The evaluation step is similar to the diagnostic step. Once changes have been implemented, data are gathered to determine the effects of the planned change. This information informs the cycle of planning and action ([http://www.gmi.org/ search/capbuild.htm](http://www.gmi.org/search/capbuild.htm)).

However, (Wessels 2000: 314) is of the view that the characteristics of the specific teaching and learning structures should be externally and not only internally evaluated. He went further to say it should constitute pre/ during/ post-assessment and not end-of-course assessments.

- **After Care Programme**

It is therefore necessary that the training programmes be supplemented with the aftercare programmes. This requires the implementation of a step (undertaken by training providers themselves) that goes beyond the traditional monitoring and evaluation of training. It is about performance, not only focused on the trainee, but at the component where the work is done (Kroukamp, 2004:31)

Aftercare programmes could be useful by taking corrective measures in instances where goals were not achieved. The apparent lack of courage to undertake such measures is, in many instances, caused by a result of the strong degree of “politicking” in the public sector and the absence of clear definition of the roles of politicians and public servants (Bekker 2003:16).

It is also useful in that they indicate whether the training needs analysis was done properly. In other words, whether the identified needs were indeed those that caused the employees not to perform or that caused short comings in the service delivery. Furthermore, aftercare programme could provide proof of the ability of training providers, not only in terms of the subject knowledge, but, in essence, of the ability to make it relevant to the world of work, thus, serving as the mechanism to distinguish between professional training providers and fly-by-nights (Kroukamp 2004: 31).

3.8 CAPACITY BUILDING AS A PROCESS

Capacity building is a process and as such, it must be managed. The management of capacity building process is the ensemble of activities of planning and monitoring the performance of a process. The process management of capacity building is the applicability of knowledge, skills, tools (resources), techniques and systems.

3.8.1 Knowledge

Knowledge is defined by the Oxford English Dictionary as (i) expertise, and skills acquired by a person through experience or education; the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject; (ii) what is known in a particular field or in total; facts and information; or (iii) awareness or familiarity gained by experience of a fact or situation.

Life-long learning should be regarded as a tool for education and training. The development of new approaches goes hand in hand with innovation, which in turn depends on the sharing of knowledge, skills and commitment of multiple groups and role-players (Scarborough, Swan & Preston 1999:56). Innovative process, thus become increasingly interactive, requires simultaneous networking across multiple participants (Gibbons 1998, 4). In the field of public administration, the South African Management and Development Institute (SAMDI) is currently charged with building capacity of public servants in the work sphere (Soobrayan 2003, 2).

Knowledge acquisition involves complex cognitive process; perception, learning, communication, association and reasoning. The term knowledge is also used to mean the confident understanding of a subject with the ability to use it for a specific purpose as appropriate (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/knowledge>).

For any institution to be said to be fully capacitated, the entire workforce should be knowledgeable. Each employee must have knowledge specific to a particular work he/she does. Partial understanding of other sections is also needed. In most realistic cases, it is not possible to have exhaustive understanding of an information domain, so then; people have to live with the fact that their knowledge is not complete. Most real problems have to be solved by taking advantage of partial understanding of the problem context and data.

Knowledge is obtained through learning. It is therefore significant that each institution must be a learning organization and can utilize that to improve performance. It should also be noted that learning of individuals within the organization should be integrated into the practices, procedures and processes of the organization. The transfer of knowledge from individuals to organizational systems means that the knowledge becomes independent of the individual and is processed by the organization and is replicated by individuals within that organization (Scarborough, Swan & Preston 1999).

3.8.2 Skills

A skill is the learned capacity to carry out pre-determined results often with the minimum outlay of time, energy or both (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/skills>). This is a feature which is particularly emphasized by Kreightner and Kinicki (1995:94) as “a specific capacity to physically manipulate object.”

Within institutions people need a broad range of skills to contribute to a modern economy and take their place in a technological society of the twenty-first century. The skills required by employees for any institution to be fully capacitated include amongst others the skill of learning to learn. This skill of knowing how to learn is a must for every employee and the key to acquire new skills and sharpening the ability to think through problems and to surmount challenges. Productivity, innovation and competitiveness depend on the employees learning capacity acquired through the foundation skills.

Basic skills competence which includes reading, writing and computation (simple mathematics) is essential for new employees. Many of the new employees fail to meet this standard. The majority of them are literate and numerate but frequently cannot use this skill effectively simply because they must use the skill within a context different from the one in which they originally learned them or because they do not understand how to expand or apply the skill. The emergence of sophisticated management and quality control approaches demand higher levels of mathematical skills. Brock, (1987); Kirsch and Jungeblut (1986) and Semerad, (1987); in <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/skills> put it in this way “ironically, as occupational skill level

requirement climb, higher educational dropout rates and worsening worker deficiencies in computational skills are appearing.” Employees are expected to calculate correctly to conduct inventories, complete accurate reports of production level, measure machine parts or specifications. This implies that medium –to– high level of Mathematics is required across job categories.

The benefit of improving one’s skill as described by Welter and Egmon (2006:139) is something that takes time and energy but the benefits being worth the efforts. Communication skills are the key to service delivery. They encompass oral and listening skills. Employees who can express their ideas orally and who understand verbal instructions make fewer mistakes, adjust more easily to change, and more readily absorb new ideas than those who do not. Thus career development is enhanced by training in oral communication and listening because these skills contribute to an employee’s success in all of the following areas: interviewing, making presentations at or conducting meetings; negotiating and resolving conflicts; selling; learning; being assertive; teaching or coaching others; working in a team; giving supervisors feedback about conversations with customers and training.

Employees with problem-solving and creative thinking skills help the institutions to move towards strategic goals. Problem solving skills include the ability to recognize and define problems, invent and implement solutions, track and evaluate results. On the other hand, creating thinking that transcends logical and sequential thinking, making the leap to innovation. In the workplace, unresolved problems create dysfunctional relationships.

Self-esteem, is another key to effectiveness in an institution which results in good personal management. Self-esteem together with motivation or goal setting and career development skills, are critical because they impact on individual morale which in turn plays a significant role in an institutions ability to achieve bottom line results. Motivation, which is the combination of desire, values and beliefs that drive one to take action, is the root of why people behave the way they do. When motivation originates from an internal source and is combined with a realistic goal and circumstances, the odds of a good outcome are generally increased (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/skills>).

Interpersonal skills, through training, help the employees to recognize and improve their ability to determine appropriate self-behaviour, cope with undesirable behaviour in others, absorb stress and deal with ambiguity, structure, social interaction, share responsibility and interact more easily with others. Negotiation and team work influence, organizational and leadership, are also skills required for effective service delivery in an institution.

3.8.3 Tool

An institution may have knowledgeable employees with skills, but if it doesn't provide the necessary tools, production would still be low. Broadly defined, a tool is an entity that interfaces between two or more domains that facilitate more effective actions of one domain upon the other (<http://wikipedia.org/wiki/Tool>).

In every institution, tools are the most important items through which employees are able to accomplish tasks their bodies could not. The tools which institutions should provide for the provision of services they target to provide should time and again be improved. Tools must directly help to perform the work. The use of tools dates back to the stone age when hominis began manufacturing tools at least 2.6 million years ago (<http://wikipedia.org/wiki/Tools>).

3.8.4 Systems

A system is a set of interacting or interdependent entities forming an integral whole. (<http://wikipedia.org/wiki/systems>). The term system may also refer to a set of rules that governs behaviour or structure. The concept of integrated whole can also be stated in terms of systems embodying a set of relationships which are differentiated from relationships of the set to other elements, and from relationships between an element of the set and elements not part of the relational regime.

The scientific research field which is engaged in the study of general properties of systems include systems theory, cybernetics, dynamical systems and complex systems. They investigate the abstract properties of the matter and organizations, searching concepts and principles which are independent of the specific domain, substance, type or temporal/scales of existence (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/systems>).

The most common characteristics that systems share are the structure (which is defined by parts and their compositions); behaviour (which involves inputs, processing and outputs of material,

energy or information), interconnectivity – the various parts of a system have functional as well as structural relationships between each other, and that systems have by themselves functions or groups of functions (<http://en.wikipedia/wiki/system>). From this explanation, it now becomes evident that any organization that is geared towards service delivery shares these characteristics.

3.8.5 Techniques

Any organization that has the knowledgeable staff with relevant skills provides necessary tools to carry the tasks and having good systems in place has the potential of meeting its obligation. To accomplish this, there must be a way of bringing forth the intended outcomes. Therefore, techniques for accomplishing a task that is not immediately obvious need to be in place.

3.9 THE EDUCATION, TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT PROCESS IN CAPACITY BUILDING

Stewart (1996:9) refers to training and development as “the organization function which has the aim of ensuring that the contribution of individuals and groups to the agreement and achievement of organizations objectives is maximized through the development of appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes”. The contribution of training and development to organizational performance and effectiveness is primarily through the development of people as individuals, as work groups and as members of a wider organization.

Education may be defined as activities which aim at knowledge, moral values and understanding required in all works of life rather than knowledge and skill relating to only a limited field (Van Dyk *et al.*, 1992:147). All people should therefore undergo some form of education. In fact, all started their education the day they were born. The components enlisted in this definition include knowledge, understanding, values and thinking, which together lead to acquiring of skills and eventually to experience. This is what is needed in the working situation to ensure proper service delivery. The only way through which this can be achieved is through training.

The concept of training as explained by Van Dyk *et al.*, (1992:148) says that it can be seen as the systematic process of changing the behaviour and/or attributes of people in a particular direction to increase goal achievement within a particular community or institutions. Gerber *et al* (1996:461) added by indicating that training refers to the “use of specific means in order to inculcate specific learning techniques that can be identified and continually improve a deliberate effort to teach specific skills, knowledge or attitudes to serve a specific purpose”. Training must be result-orientated. It must, furthermore, be measurable and must make a real contribution to improving goal achievement and internal effectivity and efficiency in the community or institution.

The most important components of training are:

- Changing behaviour
- Changing attribute
- Acquiring of knowledge
- Acquiring of skills (Van Dyk *et al*; 1992).

All the components form a learning process with the ultimate result of goal achievements. Training must therefore be result orientated that will lead to affectivity and efficiency. To achieve this, training must be measurable. Training should be a vehicle with which to achieve a goal and should not be a goal in itself.

Development is, according to Ndlela and Du Toit (2001:66), a process through which an individual, a community or a state optimally utilizes, without waste, all available resources and positive influences from the environment to move away from one situation to a more desired situation.”

Development is, therefore, a concept which is aimed at community members or employees of a company who are community leaders or managers. The aim of development should be to prepare leaders or managers for leadership positions or promotion and to accept a higher level of responsibility. Through development process, these leaders or managers obtain or gain necessary knowledge, experience, skills and attributes to become or remain successful leaders or employees of the institution. In order to fulfil this obligation effectively and efficiently, these managers or leaders must be up to date with new developments in technology, economic developments and legislative developments (Van Dyk. *et al*, 1992:148-149).

From this explanation, it has become evident that development goes beyond training. This is supported by Du Toit and Van der Waldt (1997:22) who maintained that education and training leads to development, a process that depends on the success of individual training in both individual and organizational context.

Change and growth are the two important components that are considered in development. Change refers to the ability to accept new ideas, changing attributes and behaviours. Growth, on the other hand refers to the acquiring of knowledge and the ability to perform required tasks.

The organizational development process is initiated when there is a need, gap dissatisfaction within the organization, either at the upper management level or within the employee body. Ideally, the process involves the organization in its entirety, with evidenced support from upper management and engagement in the effort by all members from each level of the organizational development. Consultants are often utilized in this regard. These consultants may be internal to the company or external with the cautionary understanding that internal consultants might be too enriched in the existing company environment to effectively coordinate and enforce the action plans and solutions required for successful change (<http://www.referenceforbusiness.com>). Jerling (1997) suggested that the education, training and development process has five stages which are:

- Analyzing needs
- Learning objectives
- Design
- Delivery
- Evaluation

3.9.1 Needs Analysis

The identification of training and development needs is the starting point for managing this process. Many organisations have training departments which help supervisors in identifying and meeting the training needs in their departments. This process also involves a procedure to determine whether training needs will indeed redress the problem which has to be identified. The needs analysis process begins with the identification of pressure point such as poor performance, new technology or job design. This pressure point prompts the conductivity of needs analysis, which involves the following:

- Organizational analysis where aspects of the organizational context (such as firm's strategic impact, the training resources available and the support of managers and peers) are considered (Noe *et al* 2006:282);
- Proof analysis where the employees who require training are identified (Noe *et al*, 2006:262); and
- Task analysis which involves identifying the tasks, knowledge, behaviour and skills which need to be emphasized in conducting research.

This is a very important phase in the education, training and development process. When properly done, it forms a strong base of effective education, training and development process. Different types of needs assessment may be employed in this regard. They include organizational needs assessment, group needs assessment and job needs assessment (Jerling: 1997). The utilization of different needs assessment method in relation to different types of needs assessment. They are differentiated by Jerling (1997) as questionnaires, forces groups, interviews and performance

analysis. Stout (1998:46) indicated that the training needs often begin with an assessment of job description and should be based on knowledge, skill and attitude as the basic key areas. However, the fact that an individual has to be able, willing and allowed to perform and develop and that other aspects apart from job knowledge or ability can lead to underperformance has been raised. The diagnosis of performance problems is thus crucial to the process of development and the potential identification of training needs.

Data analysis through task forces, interviews and questionnaires can illuminate likely causes for disconnects through an organization. These gaps can then be analyzed, and action plans and solutions required for successful change be taken (<http://www.referenceforbusiness.com>).

In identifying the needs of an organization, it should also be considered that there is continuous intervention between the organization and the internal and external environment. As a result, a number of factors generate the needs of the enterprise and the employees. These factors include change in the product or in the service provided; change in equipment and rules, and new product or service (Erasmus *et al*, 2006:14).

George and Cole (1992:343) are of the opinion that although training may not be the solution to all the problems that may be encountered, there are many signs that indicate the need for training. These signs indicate both the employee and the supervisor's training needs. Cole, 1992:343) lists them as follows:

“Indicators of employee training needs

- High scrap or re-work
- Low production
- High accident rates
- Need for excessive overtime
- Excessive customer complain
- Excessive absences

Indicators of supervisory training needs:

- Too many resignation or dismissals
- Unusual lateness
- Need for excessive overtime
- Poor employee morals
- Lack of employee co-operation” (George and Cole 1992:343)

3.9.2 The learning objective

According to Van Dyk, Nel and Loedolff (1992:197), once the education, training and development needs have been assessed, identified and verified, they must be translated into useful terms for the purpose of design of the education, training and development process. It is essential that needs are translated into goals, which in turn are translated into objectives. There are different types of objectives, some of which may relate to knowledge (cognitive objectives) skills (psychomotor objectives) and other to attributes (affective objectives) as defined by Bloom’s taxonomy in the three domains of learning (Rothwell and Kazanas, 1992; 131-136)

3.9.3 Design

Once the learning objectives have been finalized, it becomes evident what knowledge and skills the learner must have to perform effectively and to close the education, training and development gap. What needs to be done is to select the content of the course and it must be directed at mastering the learning objectives. Various learning opportunities that may help learners to master the content can be decided. They range from lectures, role-playing, demonstration and group activities. Other developments with regard to learning events are action learning, self-development, open learning and distance learning. Eventually this information must be structured in a lesson plan (Jerling: 1997).

After the training needs analysis is completed and training objectives have been identified, the next step is to determine how training will be accomplished. Design of training should take into account learning objectives, trainee characteristics, current knowledge about learning process, and practical considerations such as constraints and costs in relation to benefits (Tannenbaum & Yukl. 1992: 403).

Much of the research was conducted on learning principles like identical elements, stimulus variability and conditions of practice was done with college student on short-term memory tasks and simple motor tasks in a comprehensive review of the organizational training literature (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). As a result, these learning principles have limited utility for designing training to develop the complex skills required in most organizational jobs (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992: 404). Similarly, Campbell (1988) also concluded that the current state of the art regarding training principles does not provide precise guidelines for design of training.

However, there are training guidelines that would contribute significantly to training effectiveness. As a guideline, the instructional events that comprise the training method should be consistent with the cognitive, physical, or psychomotor processes that lead to mastery. In addition, the learner should be induced to produce the capability actively. (like practice behaviours, recall information from memory and apply principles of doing a task). On top of that all variable sources of relevant feedback should be used, and feedback should be accurate, credible, timely and constructive. Furthermore, the instructional process should enhance trainee's self-efficacy and trainee expectations that the training will be successful and will lead to valued outcomes. As an example, training should begin with simple behaviours that can be mastered easily, then progress to more complex behaviours as trainees become more confident. Lastly, the training methods should be adapted to differences in trainee aptitudes and prior knowledge (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992: 404).

3.9.3.1 Insights for training design

In guiding the design of training, cognitive approaches to learning are very useful especially on tasks that involve cognitive processes such as monitoring, problem solving and decision making. Some of the insights for training design from understanding the nature of cognitive processes, involved in learning complex tasks such are described by Howell and Cooke (1989). Automatic processing is one of the insights. As far as automatic processing is concerned, performance in a complex task with mix routine and non-routine elements can be enhanced by having a trainee who overlearn the routine task element in the beginning. Repeated practise of only these elements under correct conditions causes the behaviour to shift from conscious to automatic control. Routine

elements that are not initially automatized compete for attention with the complex elements and inhibit learning of these elements. Repeated practices therefore conserve mental capacity to perform the non-routine tasks that require more mental capacity and cannot be automated easily. Likewise, the routine elements that are automatized early but are learned incorrectly will inhibit development of competence in performing the task (Howell and Cooke, 1989).

With regard to mental models and schemata, learning of a complex task can be facilitated by assisting the learner to develop an accurate and efficient mental conceptualization of the material that must be understood before the task can be executed in the right way. Retention in this regard is facilitated by the use of encoding methods. These coding methods include mnemonics, imagery, and cues that relate information to the learner's existing knowledge. Cognisance should be taken to the fact that the manner in which materials are presented can foster the formation of appropriate mental models (Caplan & Schooler 1990).

Metacognition and learning skills are other insights in which learning of tasks that require analytical processing is facilitated by helping learners monitor their own progress and evaluate what they know and don't know. Learning can be facilitated by showing learners how to seek and utilize relevant feedback about their strategy for doing a task. Meta-cognitive skills along with other learning strategies would distinguish proficient from non-proficient learners. As stated by Clark (1988) there is some evidence that these skills can be taught or learning can be facilitated by embedding within the training diagnostic probes and clues to help the learner analyse and interpret performance feedback.

3.9.4 Delivery

After the course has been designed, the next phase involves actual delivery. Course delivery aims at distributing information and facilitating structured learning opportunities related to the learning objectives. The facilitators will play three roles when delivering the course. These roles are instructional, interpersonal and administrative (Jerling: 1997).

3.10 TRAINING METHODS

Having determined how training would be accomplished, appropriate training methods need to be selected. Different training methods are in place and could be variably applied. According to Ann. Rev. Psychol. (1992, 43 : 407), all of the well-known training methods have been shown to be effective for some learning objectives, but demonstration studies do not reveal why a particular method or combination of methods facilitate learning or how the method can be used more effectively.

Different training methods are in place and are used. Among these methods are simulation and games, high technology methods and behavioural role modelling. It is therefore essential to determine what training methodology should be used.

Simulation is yet another training methodology that can be utilized. Simulation is basically just walking an employee through the motions of a skill in a controlled environment until they master the skill. Aspects of simulations, that may influence the scope of training include the complexity

of the simulation, size and composition of teams, scheduling activities, type of preliminary preparation and conceptual learning, type of feedback and debriefing, use of decision support systems and tutoring aids based on expert systems, and the quality of game administration (Tannebaum and Yukl 1992 : 407). The benefits of this training methodology are that they train employees to perform specific skills needed for their job. Simulations further help to train employees to respond appropriately to unexpected events in a controlled environment.

Even though simulation is becoming widely used with growing research literature, there are many research questions which are unresolved. There is a need for more research to determine what type of learning occur and the conditions that facilitate it (Tannebaum and Yukl, 1992 : 408). When simulation research was reanalysed, (HSU, 1989) concluded that most studies of multi-team and large scale behavioural simulations fail to evaluate the types of learning for which these simulations are most appropriate, which are problem solving and interpersonal skills. The drawbacks of simulation are again based on money. In certain cases where simulating machines are needed, the cost can be extraordinarily high. Simulation exercises that utilize these kinds of devices are therefore at times limited to larger companies that are located close to companies that lend out simulators.

3.10.1 High-Technology Methods

This method deals with a variety of high-technology training. High-Technology methods involves computer-aided instruction, interactive videostic instruction and equipment simulators.

Computer-aided instruction allows individuals to work on their own. Its main advantages are that the trainee can work at his own pace. He can practice actively while at the same time getting enough time for rehearsal. Immediate feedback can be obtain of learning problems can be detected easily while remedial assistance could be obtained when needed (Tannenbaum and Yukl, 1992: 409). It is also noteworthy to indicate that computer aided instruction has its own setbacks. Even though the computer software has been developed to simplify and speed up the design process and facilitate programming, one major disadvantage of computer-aided instruction is the extensive development time and the expenses involved (Tannenbaum and Yukl, 1992: 409)

Apart from the setbacks, some innovate strides have been done with regard to computer-aided instruction. Improvement has been made with respect to incorporating artificial intelligence (Lippert, 1989). Another innovation is the linking of videodisc players with microcomputers to create interactive videodisc instruction. The way videodisc players present information is in the form of text, still photographs, videotaped pictures, computer graphics and multi-track sound recordings (Tannenbaum and Yukl, 1992: 409).

A comprehensive review and meta-analysis of 47 studies of evaluating interactive videodisc instruction in the military, industry and higher education was conducted by Fletcher (1990) in Tannenbaum and Yukl (1991: 411). It found that “the training content of these studies was very

diverse, including instruction in equipment maintenance, equipment operation, medical procedures, military operations, science education, and interpersonal skills. Videodisc instruction was substantially more effective than conventional instruction (e.g. lecture, videotaped demonstration, text programmed text, on-the-job training) with respect to both knowledge acquisition and job performance. The more the videodisc instruction included interactive features such as tutorials, the greater its effectiveness. Within-group variability in criterion scores was lower for videodisc instruction than for conventional instruction, which indicates that the benefits were widespread rather than attributable to large improvement in a few “star” trainees. However, Fletcher (1990) noted that aside from the question of interactivity, the studies provide little insight into the relative contribution of the various features of interactive videodisc technology to learning. He concluded that more research is needed to identify design alternatives that contribute to various learning objectives”.

Apart from the method discussed, a number of training methods cover a wide range of subjects. Some of them take place on-the-job while others take place off-the-job while others in both. It becomes the responsibility of the manager to be cognisant of the various training courses and programmes which could best meet the training needs and objectives that have been identified.

3.10.2 On-the-Job Training Technique

Coaching: This a method by which a leader who is proficient in certain skills and knowledge, teaches a subordinate specific job knowledge and skills either in the job or simulated environment (Amos et al 2008:327). As a person-to-person technique which is designed to develop individual

skills, knowledge and attitude, it could be more effective if it takes place informally as part of the normal management or team leadership (Armstrong 2009 : 896).

Mentoring is another technique or method in which selected and trained individuals are specially selected to provide guidance and advice which will help to develop the careers of those individuals allocated to them, mentoring complements learning in the job and formal training by providing those who benefit from it with individual guidance from experienced managers. The mentors advices in drawing up self-development programmes and further provide guidance on how to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills to do a new job (Armstrong, 2009:898). Tabbron, Macauler and Cook, (1997:6) added by indicating that mentoring helps individuals learn and develop and that it takes a longer-term perspective which focuses on the person's career and their development.

Job rotation should be a planned experience. It involves transferring individuals from job to job on a systematic basis to develop his knowledge and skills beyond just his initial job (Amos et al, 2008:328) is of the view that "it is better to use the term planned sequence of experience rather than job rotation to emphasize that the experience should be programmed to satisfy a learning specification for acquiring knowledge and skills in different departments and occupation". The whole exercise could be futile if there would be no programme designed which would spell out what the trainees are expected to learn. Follow up should also be done as a means of checking what is being learnt.

3.10.3 On-or-off the Job Techniques

Job Instruction Techniques: Job instruction techniques should be based on the analysis of skills and learning theory. There are tested techniques with practical methods to guide the supervisor in instructing a new employee on job. It is also applicable on a present worker who is on a new job or a new skill.

Job instruction follows a sequence of four stages which are preparation, presentations, practice and testing and follow-up. In the first step, adequate preparation of the trainer, the work place, and student is emphasized. This means that the trainer must be prepared to apply appropriate teaching methods, visual aids and demonstration aids. At the same time the trainees should not be left behind. They must be prepared for the instruction that is to follow. They should be pursued to want to learn and must perceive that learning would be relevant and useful to them personally (Armstrong 2009:900).

The second step, which is presentation, deals with explanation and demonstration. The trainer should ensure that the explanation is as simple as possible. When explaining, the trainer should note that he should also start from the known to the unknown, the simple to complex, the concrete to abstract, the general to the particular, the observation to reasoning and whole to the parts and back to the whole again (Armstrong, 2009).

Practice and testing is the third step. It involves the practice-use aspects of learning in which the trainee learns by doing. The role of the supervisor is crucial in this aspect because he could offer

support, encourage and correct errors (Eckles, Carmichael & Sarchet, 1974). The trainee would therefore be imitating the instructor and constantly repeating the operation under guidance.

Feedback of the learning sequence is performed with the follow-up and frequent check on the trainee's performance. During this stage the trainee would continue to need help with particular difficult task. Where the trainees seem not to have mastered certain aspects, the trainer may be forced to repeat the presentation. As explained by Eckles et al. (1974:408) the emphasis of this method is that "the learner's failure to learn is the fault of the teacher".

Other on- or off-the-job techniques include assignments, projects and guided reading. Assignments could be used at the end of training as a test.

3.10.4 Off-the-Job Training Technique

The success of the on-the-job training method is dependent on the supervisor. If the supervisor provide effective guidance, directing and supporting each individual, the effectiveness of this technique can be realised (Karve, S, 2013).

Opportunities for development offered off the job could also lead to an increased productivity. The development opportunities that could be enhanced by off-the-job method have been cited by Eckles et al (1974:412) as formed education, company sponsored programmes and short courses.

Some of the specific off-the-job include lecture method. As far as this technique is concerned, little or no participation takes place. A question and answer session might be provided for at the end of the session. The effectiveness of this technique depends on the ability of the speaker to present.

Apart from lecture method, talk, discussion, case study, role play and simulation are some of them.

3.11 PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

The last phase in the education, training and development process cycle involves evaluation. Improvement of education, training and development program to the learners and environment of the value of education, training and development have been cited by Sheal (1994:183) as the three main purposes of evaluation. According to Jerling (1997:220), “these three purpose[s] of evaluation are reflected in the different types of evaluation (formative and summative) and different levels of evaluation (reaction, behavior, learning and results)”.

Evaluation should be coupled with feedback as it must be regarded as continuous process to be executed in each step of training process. This will ensure accurate execution of each step (Erasmus et al, 2006).

3.12. POST TRAINING CHALLENGES

One of the aims of training is for the organization to deliver on its mandate. However, training has been conducted, there is no guarantee that it would yield the anticipated outcomes and solve all the problems and challenges just like what is the case with an institution like Vhembe District Municipality. A number of post training challenges inhibit the application of what an employee might have learnt. The following are the constraints that are detrimental for applying new learned knowledge and skills as listed by Ndevu et al. (2007 : 167):

- job changes
- lack of support from managers
- resistance to change by some individuals; and
- unavailability of resources to apply new learned skills; and
- absence of the right opportunity to apply new skills.

3.13 HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT IMPROVEMENTS

For HRD to become a core business process, performance is the key. The performance perspective of level, variables, and measures help to clarify the concept of performance. (Swanson 1995: 209)

According to Davenport (1993), Remmler and Brache (1990) and Wimbiscus (1994) in Swansons (1995: 209) with regard to performance levels and variables, the three levels of performance, which are organizational, process and individual, remind us that organizations view and value performance in a hierarchy and that multiple variables influence performance. Performance

variables include mission or goal, systems design, capacity, motivation and expertise while performance levels include organizational, process and individual ones as illustrated in the figure below:

PERFORMANCE VARIABLES ↓	PERFORMANCE LEVELS ↓		
	Organizational Level	Process Level	Individual Level
Mission/ Goal	Does the organizational, mission/goal fit the reality of the economic, political, and cultural forces?	Do the process goals enable the organization to meet organizational and individual missions/goals?	Are the professional and personal mission/goals of individuals congruent with the organization's?
Systems Design	Does the organizational system provide structure and policies supporting the desired performance?	Are processes designed in such a way as to work as a system?	Does the individual face obstacles that impede job performance?
Capacity	Does the organization have the leadership, capacity, and infrastructure to achieve its mission/goals?	Does the process have the capacity to perform (quantity, quality, and timeliness)?	Does the individual have the mental, physical, and emotional capacity to perform?
Motivation	Do the policies, culture, and reward systems support the desired performance?	Does the process provide the information and human factors required to maintain it?	Does the individual want to perform no matter what?
Expertise	Does the organization establish and maintain selection and training policies and resources?	Does the process of developing expertise meet the changing demands of changing processes?	Does the individual have the knowledge, skills, and experience to perform?

Source: Swanson, 1994, p. 52.

As far as the measures of performance are concerned, if HRD is aimed at specific performance requirements and is an appropriate intervention, units of worthy performance are identifiable (Swanson 1995: 209)

On the taxonomy of learning, organizations experience a concurrent need for control and innovation. Thus, the performance requirements in today's workplace can often be separated. One

category is concerned about maintaining the existing system while the second one has to do with improving the system. The Taxonomy of performance and its five tiers in the figure below provides additional insight into performance requirement for these two separate categories and the role HRD can play in improving performance (Swanson 1995: 211).

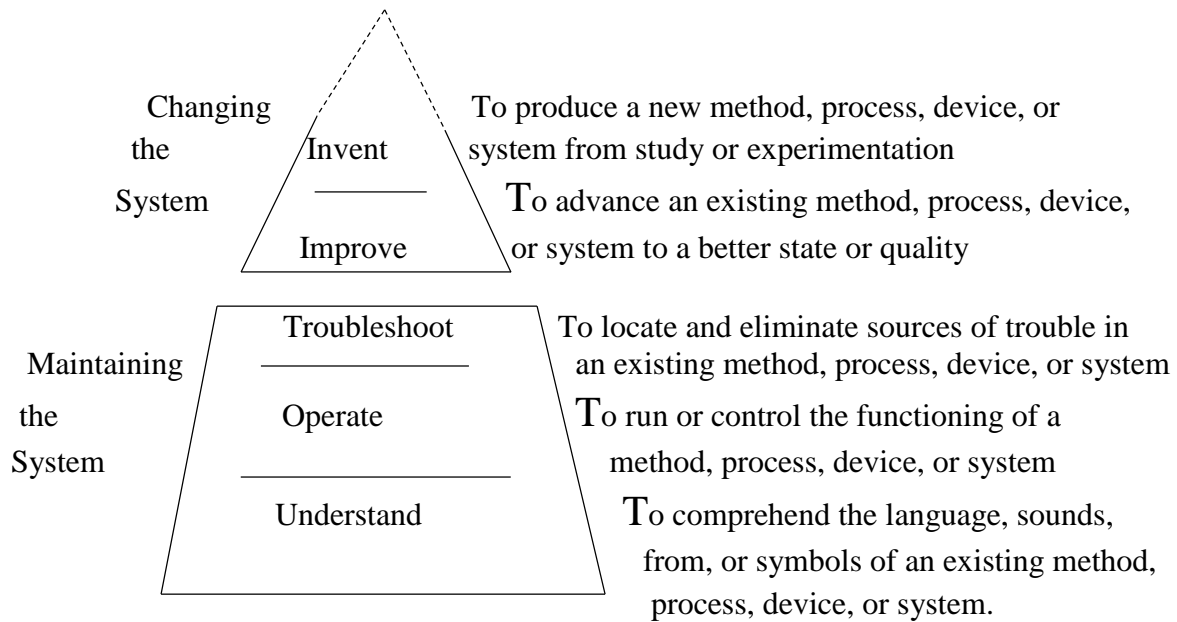


Figure 4. Taxonomy of Performance (Source: Swanson, 1994, p. 57)

HRD can be regarded as a major business process. In this regard, the standard system model is as follows: (input → process → output). As a major business process, HRD's contribution is directly connected to the external customer and most likely serves internal customers and parallel processes to achieve core performance output of the organization (Swanson 1995: 211).

However, as a value-added or optional activity, the HRD that connects to the internal customer (not the external customer) is not systematically positioned to be a major business process. Under this condition, as a supporting subsystem, HRD has the potential of being aligned with the strategic

goals and this adds value to the organization. Without this alignment, the HRD is viewed as an optional activity that is totally dependent on the integrity of the internal customer it serves (Swanson 1995: 211). This system model performance as displays an orderly process in which HRD acknowledges performance as the key in the struggle to retain the integrity of the individual, process, and organization.

3.14 MANAGING PERFORMANCE

The performance management process remained the primary framework for performance assessment of SALGA staff, with individuals performance contracts aligned to the organizational scorecard to ensure operationalization of organizational strategies. The IPMS (Individual Performance Management System) function was integrated into the HR Department with effect from October 2013 in order to ensure that performance management also gets integrated with the other related processes such as Learning & development, Recruitment etc.

Within the parameters of the Remuneration Policy, which allows for organizational reward rather than individual performance rewards, a specific Remuneration Panel approval was obtained for the payment of performance bonuses to SALGA employees. Good performance has contributed to clean audit achieved for SALGA during the year under review. The IPMS will, going forward, be done on an electronic Performance management System acquired. All employees have been trained on the automated system which will be effective from the 2014-2015 financial years, i.e. the first formal performance assessments of the next financial year.

3.15. THE PROCESS OF LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENTS

Learning and development focuses on employee's development. It also puts emphasis on management and executive development as well as succession planning. On the other hand it pays attention to career management tools and resources, learning methodologies as well as learning networks, competency models, competency assessment and competency development. New employee's orientation also forms part of learning and development (Christensen, 2006: 113).

3.15.1 Learning and development as crucial in service delivery

As Christensen (2006: 13) puts it, "hiring gifted people makes sense as a tactic but not as a strategy ... this approach falls apart because of the scarcity of highly talented individuals." This calls for the development of a talent. It is a fact that the creation of all valuables should be credited to talent but products and services are conceived, designed, manufactured and sold by people. This can be achieved through the individual's skills, knowledge and abilities.

In capturing the primary elements of learning and development, Christensen (2006: 167) presented a framework found to be very useful for learning and development. The process of learning and development, as he puts it, consists of five key components, which are ongoing cycle of individual learning and development. These components include performance assessment, development planning, skill development, succession planning and career planning.

3.15.1.1 Performance Assessment

Performance assessment assures that people have the ability to honestly assess the need for development. Assessment should focus on what the employee is expected to do and how to do it. Assessment tends to pay attention to the activities done and lose focus on the results expected. As an addition to the results, it is also imperative to assess how people work in terms of competencies. Some inputs that an employee can get are about how he works and how he accomplishes what he does (Christensen 2006: 168).

3.15.1.2 Development Planning

The development plan should be derived from the performance and competencies review process. Performance should be assessed against goals and expected competencies or values. If a good performance assessment is done, there would be tremendous input for a quality development plan. The plan should be clear about what the actual objective is and on the behaviours expected to be observed as the objectives are being accomplished. On top of that the plan should also be clear about the person one can sign up to in order to be helped and on identifying specific things that one could do for one's development (Christensen 2000: 168-169).

In conclusion, development plan is therefore directly linked to the process that assesses performance against goals and against competencies.

3.15.1.3 Skills Development

Many approaches exist for the actual development of the skills. Even though training plays a significant role when it is targeted at specific skills needed, there are other approaches like coaching and job rotation that are often more successful. Most of the skills acquired are more thought by the managers rather than simply enrolling someone in a training course. From the view point of Christensen (2006: 169), skills development strategies can be obtained from the experienced managers. When asked, these managers rarely cited great courses that they attended as the most important experiences in their careers. Most of them talked about combination of having great assignments, being part of a turnaround effort and working cross-functionally. They further mentioned receiving executive coaching, mentoring, participating in internal assignments, being a member of committees, being given the needed authority to get the job done, and perhaps taking an effective skills training course some of the most developmental experiences in their careers.

3.16 ORGANIZATIONAL LEARNING AND THE LEARNING ORGANIZATION

Organizational learning and learning organization may be assumed to be synonymous processes, yet they are not. The following paragraph could detail how each concept functions.

3.16.1 Organizational Learning

The global economy is shifting away from a manufacturing base to a service base. This is further rapidly effecting the work place and hence the need for employees to be developed in terms of knowledge, skills, and ability to cope with technological advances. Without any doubt, knowledge and learning are enjoying increased knowledge in many organizations (Amos, Ristow and Pearse, 2008: 339).

Knowledge has been defined by Davenport and Prusak (1995:5) as “a fluid of framed experience, values, contextual information and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the minds of the knowers. In organizations, it often becomes embedded not only in documents or repositories, but also in organizational routines, processes and norms.

The theory of organizational learning is concerned in the manner in which learning takes place in the organizations. Its main focus is on collective learning but it should also be taken into account that it is not the organizations that perform the actions that produce the learning, but individual members of the organization who behave in ways that lead to it. The role of the organization in this regard is to create conditions that are conducive to facilitate such learning. The context of the organization together with its culture would determine the ways in which organizational learning is effected.

The focus of organizational learning is on the development of new knowledge and insight that have the capability to influence behaviour (Mabey and Salaman, 1995). The organization would

therefore be influenced by the manner in which it interacts with other organizations, how it acquires understanding, techniques and practices of any kind. It is within this context that organizational learning theory examines how individual and team learning can be translated into organizational resource and is also linked to processes of knowledge management (Armstrong, 2003:530).

One of the outcomes of organizational learning is its contribution to the development of a firm's resource-based capability. This is in line with one of the basic principles of human resource management which Armstrong, (2003: 530) indicated "that it is necessary to invest in people in order to develop the intellectual capacity required by the organization and thus increase its stock of knowledge and skills."

As stated by Dale (1994), the process of organizational learning can be characterized by three intricate stages. These stages consist of knowledge acquisition, dissemination and shared implementation. From Armstrong (2003:531) point of view, "knowledge may be acquired from direct experience, the experience of others or organizational memory." As suggested by Argyris (1992), the two conditions under which organizational learning occurs are when an organization achieves its intention and when a mismatch between intentions and outcomes are identified and corrected.

3.16.2 The learning Organization

According to Serge (1990) in Armstrong (2003:533) the learning organization is described as the one “where people continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning how to learn together.” Learning is therefore an essential ingredient for learning organizations to survive. The role of the management in this regard is therefore to create an environment in which all staff can learn continuously. The learning organization should be able to adapt to its context and develop its personnel in order to match the context (Burgoyne, 1994).

A six factor of learning organization has been produced. This model, as advocated by Kandola and Fullerton (1994) indicate that the learning organization should have a share vision and an enabling structure which facilitates learning. They further maintained that such organizations should have a supportive culture and an empowering management where managers genuinely believe that devolved decision-making and better team-working result in improved performance. Lastly they maintained that a learning organization should have a motivated workforce which is eager to learn continuously and an enhanced learning in which processes and policies exist to encourage learning amongst all employees.

When developing a learning organization, focus should be on collective problem-solving within an organization using team learning and what is called a soft systems approach. Through this approach all possibilities that may be the cause of a problem are considered in order to define more clearly those which can be dealt with and those which are insoluble (Armstrong, 2003:534). It is

therefore necessary that managers develop learning abilities as individuals, and work and learn as teams. Activities that are developmental such as job enlargement, job enrichment, monitoring and other different forms of team work should be used (Garratt, 1990).

The learning organization concept also has its own challenges. It pays less attention to what individuals want to learn or how they learn. The fact that individuals should invest in their own development is not taken into consideration by the learning organization theorists. Their focus is more inclined on the imposition of learning by the organization than creating an environment that is conducive to collaborative and self-managed learning (Armstrong, 2003:535). However, Armstrong (2003:536) further indicated that learning organization incorporates miscellaneous ideas about human resource development, systematic training, action learning, organizational development and knowledge management with, with infusion of the precepts of total quality management which do not add up to convincing whole.

3.17 PERFORMANCE IMPROVEMENT IN LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

The local government has the responsibility of ensuring that all citizens, wherever they live in South Africa, should have good quality public services. This requires the public servants that are committed and responsive to the needs of the citizens they serve. The Municipal systems Act indicates that a municipal council must administer its affairs in an economical, effective, efficient and accountable manner and must for this purpose:

- Give effect to its Integrated Development Plan;

- Give effects to its transformation programmes;
- Establish a performance management system commensurate with its resources and best suited to- its circumstances; and
- Promote a culture of performance management among its members, committees and functionaries and its administration.

3.17.1 The White Paper on Transforming Service Delivery, 1997

Transforming service delivery is one of the eight priorities identified in the White Paper on the Transformation of the public service, states that; “a guiding principle of the public service will be that of service to the people, and service delivery, in accordance to the affirmative or corrective action principles, will focus on meeting the basic needs of 40% or more South African citizens living below the poverty line in urban and rural areas, as well as other groups (including people with disabilities) who have been previously disadvantaged in terms of service delivery” (white paper on transforming service delivery, 1997). Blem (1995: 6) described this service delivery as “delivering on time and attending promptly to customers’ needs.”

The White Paper on Transforming the Public Service Delivery 1997, urgently sought to introduce a fresh approach to service delivery – an approach which puts pressure on systems, procedures, attitudes and behaviours within the public service and reorients them in the customer’s favour, an approach which puts the people first (<http://www.polity.org.za/govdocs/white-paper/transform.html>).

3.18 THE SERVICE DELIVERY PRINCIPLES OF BATHO PELE

The Batho Pele principles provide a framework for reorienting the public service towards customer first attitude and behaviour. The customers are the citizens of this country. To treat citizens as customers implies:

- Listening to their news and taking them into account when making decisions about what services should be provided;
- Treating them with respect and consideration;
- Ensuring that the promised level and quality of service is always of the highest standard; and
- Responding swiftly and sympathetically when standards of service fall below promised levels.

According to (The Batho Pelo Handbook, 2003) the Batho Pele Principles are:

- **Consultation**

This principle dictates that citizens should be consulted about the level and quality of the services they receive and where possible, should be given a choice of services offered. There will often be more than one group of customers, who may have differing needs and the service delivery programmes will have to recognize and deal with all of these.

- **Service Standards**

According to the service standards principle, citizens should be told what level and quality of public services they will receive so that they are aware of what to expect. Service Standards are public commitment to be delivered. The national, provincial and local departments must publish standards for the levels and quality of services they will provide, including the introduction of new services to those who were previously been denied access to them.

- **Access**

The access principle of Batho Pele tries to address that all citizens should have equal access to the services to which they are entitled. All national, provincial and local departments are required to specify and set targets for progressively increasing access to their services for those who did not previously receive them. In setting these targets, institutions which promote interests of previously disadvantaged groups and representing the disabled should be consulted.

When the local departments draw up their service delivery programmes, they must develop strategies to eliminate the disadvantages of distances which affect access to public service by, for example, setting up mobile units and redeploying facilities and resources closer to those in greatest need. Service delivery programmes should therefore specifically service the needs to progressively address the disadvantages of all barriers to access.

- **Ensuring Courtesy**

The “Courtesy” principle is there to ensure that citizens are treated with courtesy and consideration. This concept goes much under than asking public servants to give a polite smile to say “please” and “thank you” although there are certainly required. The national, provincial and local departments must specify the standards for the way in which customers should be treated. These are to be included in their departmental codes of conduct. These standards should cover amongst other things:

- Greeting and addressing customers;
- The identification of staff by name when dealing with customers, whether in person, on the telephone or in writing;
- The style and tone of written communications;
- Simplification and customer-friendliness of forms;
- The maximum length of time within which responses must be made to enquires;
- The conduct of interviews;
- How complaints should be dealt with;
- Dealing with people who have special needs such as the elderly; and
- Language.

- **Providing more and better information**

All citizens should be given full accurate information about the public services they are entitled to receive. It is the responsibility of the national, provincial and local departments to provide full, accurate and up-to-date information about the services they provide and who are entitled to them. This must be done actively, in order to ensure that information is received by all those who need it, especially those who have previously been excluded from the provision of public services. The information must be provided in a variety of media and languages to meet the differing needs of different customers. This is essential to ensure the inclusion of those who are – or who have previously been disadvantaged by the physical disability, language, race, gender, geographical distance or in any other way. Written information should be plain and free from jargon should be supported by graphical material where this will make it easier to understand. There should always be a name and contact telephone number for obtaining further information and advice.

- **Openness and transparency**

The “Openness and transparency” principle dictates that citizens should be told how national, provincial and local departments are run, by whom and at what cost. In terms of public service delivery, openness and transparency are fundamental to the transformation process, and their importance lies in the need to build confidence and trust between the public sector and the public they serve. A key concept of this is that the public should know more about the way national, provincial and local departments are run, how will they perform, the resources they consume and

who is in charge. The mechanism for achieving this will be an annual report to citizens published by each national and provincial department setting out inter alia the following:

- Staff members employed, and the names and responsibilities of senior officers;
- Resources consumed, including salaries and other staff costs, and other operating expenses;
- Any income such as fees for services;
- Targets for the following year; and
- A name and contact telephone number for further information.

The aim of reports for citizens is to provide the public with key information they are entitled to know.

- **Redress**

This principle deals with remedying mistakes and failures. If the promised standard of service is not delivered, citizens should be offered an apology, a full explanation and a speedy and effective remedy. When complaints are made, citizens should receive a sympathetic, positive response. The Batho Pele principle of redress requires a completely new approach to handling complaints. Where complaint procedures exist, they are lengthy and bureaucratic, aimed at defending the department's actions rather than solving the user's problem. Public sector organizations frequently underestimate the level of dissatisfaction that exist. National and provincial departments are required to review and improve their complaint systems in line with the following principles:

- Accessibility: Complaint systems should be easy to use and should include more than only written complaints, for example, face-to-face or over the telephone complaints should be welcomed.
- Speed: Where delay is unavoidable in responding to a complaint, the complainant should be kept informed of progress and told when an outcome can be expected.
- Fairness: wherever possible, an independent avenue should be offered if the complainant is dissatisfied with the response received the first time round.
- Confidentiality: The complaint's confidentiality should be protected so that he/she is not deterred from making complaints by feeling that he/she will be treated less sympathetically in future.
- Responsiveness: The response to a complaint should take full account of the individual's concerns and feelings. Where a mistake has been made or service has fallen below the promised standard, the response should be immediate, starting with an apology and a full explanation, an assurance that the occurrence will not be repeated, and the necessary remedial action should be taken.
- Training: Complaints handling procedures should be publicised throughout the organisation and training should be given to all staff members so that they know what action to take when a complaint is received.

- **Value for money**

Public services should be provided economically and efficiently in order to give citizens the best possible value for money. Improving service delivery must be achieved alongside the government's Gear (growth, employment and redistribution) strategy for reducing public expenditure and creating a more cost-effective public service. The Batho Pele initiative must be delivered within departmental resource allocations, and the rate at which services are improved will therefore be significantly affected by the speed at which national, provincial and local departments achieve efficiency savings which can be ploughed back into improved services. As part of their service delivery improvement programmes, all national, provincial and local departments will be required to identify areas where savings can be made and the service delivery improvements resulting from these savings.

3.18.1 Implementation of Batho Pele

Although the Batho Pele principles are written in broad terms, implementing them will require a concrete and specific response. For example, every national, provincial and local department will in future be required to consult with both existing and potential "customers" about the services that should be provided. The departments will be required to publish an annual statement of the specific standards of service that the public can expect to receive and they will also be required to improve their complaint systems and methods of remedying mistakes and failures so that when services are not delivered to promised standards, some remedial action can be taken. According to the White Paper on Transforming Service Delivery (1997: 25), there are numerous actions that

individual components within departments can take immediately to improve the services they provide, for example, speeding up response times for answering letters and telephone calls, or introducing a courtesy campaign.

Improving service delivery is a continuous, progressive process, not a once-off task. As standards improve, so higher targets must be set. Implementing service delivery improvement programmes can best be illustrated as an eight-step cycle:

- Identify the customer;
- establish the customer's needs and priorities;
- Establish the current service baseline;
- Identify the "improvement gap";
- Set service standards;
- Gear up for delivery;
- Announce service standards; and
- Monitor delivery against standards, and publish results.

3.18.1.1 Recruitment

According to Milkovic and Boundreau (1988) in Gerber *et al* (1987), recruitment is defined as "activities to identify and attract a pool of candidates for changes in employment status, from which some will later be selected to receive offers." Noe *et al* (2006:194) further defined it as any

practice or activity carried on by the organization with the primary purpose of identifying and attracting potential employees.”

The sources from which an organization recruits potential employees are a critical aspect of its recruitment strategy. When recruiting, the forces that can be used for this purpose can either be internal or external, depending on where the required skills can be obtained. The internal sources are those in which the organisation will turn inward when recruiting candidates for vacant posts.

The sources that can be used in this way are:

- Present employees;
- Personnel records; and
- Skill inventories (Gerber *et al*, 1986: 114-115)

However, Kroon (1990) supported this idea by indicating that promotion from within and recommendations from present employees are internal sources from which suitable manpower can be detained.

The needs of the organizations with regard to vacancies to be filled shall determine the external sources that can be used by a particular organization to that effect. In this regard the organization may use employment agencies, head hunting, walk-ins, referrals, professional associations, advertisements and campus recruitment (Gerber *et al.*, 1986).

As indicated above, manpower can be obtained from either internal or external sources.

Kroon (1990:327) provided different techniques that can be used to exploit the above sources.

They are:

- Advertisement in daily newspapers, weekend newspapers and professional magazine;
- The radio;
- Recruitment officers who visit schools, colleges and universities
- Pamphlets and brochures that are distributed particularly at career exhibitions;
- Recruitment and personnel agencies;
- The provision of bursary to students; and
- The provision of vacation work to students which can lead to permanent appointment.

The growth of information superhighway has also opened up new vistas for organizations trying to recruit talent. Organizations are now making use of the internet in this regard. Apart from using the organization's own website, it is beneficial for small organizations to interact with the large, well-known job sites like HotJob.com. These are the sites that attract a vast array of applicants that can be electronically searched (Noe *et al*, 2006)

Recruitment should therefore be viewed as an important function through which an organization can recruit employees who are equal to the task through which it can be highly capacitated and be effective and efficient in delivering its co-business.

3.18.1.2 Selection

An organisation that needs to be highly effective and efficient must take the utmost care with how it chooses its employees. It is obvious that personnel provision does not only mean providing for particular human resource requirements. The emphasis is on the provision of the kind of human resource. Selection is defined by Livy (1998) in Gerber *et al*, (1987; 127) as “a process of job matching, and must begin with a description of personal qualities necessary for the field of candidates by progressively eliminating those who do not measure up to the specification.” Kroon (1990: 327) added by citing that selection is “the process that divides the candidates for employment into those to whom the work opportunity will be offered and those who will not receive an offer,” while Ivancevich (1998: 227) takes it as selection should, according to Noe *et al* (2006: 219-234), meet certain selection method standards. Amongst the several generic standards, the following were identified:

- Reliability
- Validity
- Generalizability
- Utility
- Legality

In order to get the most competent employees who would add value to the organisation, one needs to apply different selection methods including the interview. The interview is “a procedure where

applicants are confronted with specific issues, questions or problems that are likely to rise on the job” (Noe *et al*, 2006: 235).

It is during the interviews where an interviewer gets to know more about the applicant’s background, experience and interests. The applicant also gets the opportunity to ask questions about the job or the organisation. The employment interview can take the following forms:

- The structured interview;
- The semi-structural interview; and
- The unstructured interviews (Gerber *et al*, 1996: 141).

Other selection methods include references checking, medical examination and testing which include assessments to measure cognitive, psychomotor, job knowledge, work sample, vocational interest (Noe *et al*, 2004: 239-240)

Care should be taken when making use of tests as they are governed by legislation. Willliam (1996: 27-30) indicated the significant impact of Labour Relations Act on the manner in which an organisation should conduct selection activities. The Labour Relations Act stipulated that an organisation that either directly or indirectly discriminates against a job applicant will be regarded to have committed an unfair labour practice. The selection practice should therefore be consistent and equitable and do not discriminate against applicants.

3.19 INDUCTION

Hall and Goodale (1986) in Gerber, Nel and Van Wyk (1996:56) defined induction “as the process through which a new employee learns how to function efficiently within a new organisational culture by obtaining the information, values and behavioural skills associated with his or her role in the organisation.

Again Vancerich and Glueck (1986: 448) regarded induction “as the human resource management activity that introduces employees to the organisation and to the employees’ tasks, superiors and work group” (Net *et al* 1996: 156).

Induction process therefore provides an opportunity for any new employee to be familiarised with the environment in which one would be working. It is important that candidates should be effectively inducted and orientated into the institution.

The duration and extent of orientation can differ from one organisation to the other, but will, as Kroon (1994: 335) says it, usually consists of new employee being introduced to the organisation, his colleagues, his superiors and the work as such. George and Cole (1992:334) maintain that “at some time during the first few days of employment, new recruits need to be told something about the organisation’s history, what its products or services are, its employee benefits and activities, the way the organisation is structured and where the menu recruit will fit in, rules and regulations and any special duties and responsibilities involved in the job.”

It is necessary to provide advanced training, offer refresher courses, or to familiarise newly-appointed officials on legislation relevant in their organisations. The anticipation is that if officials within the municipalities are well conversant with what is expected of them and their municipalities, they can establish their roles and perform accordingly. (Reberts 2003: 233).

3.19.1 The objectives of induction and orientation

People, as the most valuable resources in the organisation, deserve to be carefully introduced to their new jobs. The induction programme should be done with a purpose in mind. Some of the objectives that may be achieved include:

- Creating a favourable impression with the employee;
- Developing positive attitudes and a feeling of identification;
- Promoting teamwork;
- Reducing turnover;
- Preventing grievances;
- Saving the time of supervisors; and
- Generally allowing the new employee to make a productive contribution to the enterprise as soon as possible (Kroon 1994: 335).

However, Gerber *et al* (1996) added to this idea by indicating that a well-planned and effective induction programme can yield positive results towards the attainment of objectives.

They identified the following objectives:

- To make a new employee more productive;
- To reduce fear and insecurity;
- The reduction of labour turnover;
- Creating job satisfaction and positive attitude towards the employer; and
- Saving the time of supervisors and colleagues (Gerber *et al*, 1996:157-158)

George and Cole (1992) further indicated that good induction would keep the new recruit a favourable possession of the new job; affording the supervisor an opportunity to establish a good working relationship with the person and to let him/her explain the person's job in relation to others in the organisation. It is during this time where the organisation's rules and regulations can be explained carefully, thereby minimising subsequent misunderstandings; to remove the uncertainty that everyone has in going to a new place of employment and to reduce the time spent ineffectively by new employees by providing a sensible programme to follow during the first few days on the job.

An induction programme that is assigned with such objectives in mind shall help the new employees to find their feet and to get answers to all the anticipated questions they would need answers, as this may be frustrating and destroy confidence.

3.20 CONCLUSION

Capacity building makes a major contribution towards the attainment of every institution's objectives. It ensures that the people of a particular institution possess the required knowledge, abilities, skills and attitudes to do what is expected of them in terms of their job requirements. Investing in it benefits all the stakeholders of the institution. The plans and the programmes of human resource development should be integrated with the achievement of the business and human resource strategies. This however, means that human resource development should be always performance related. It should be designed to achieve improvements which are specified in corporate, functional, team and individual performance and make a major contribution to bottom-line results. This could also be influenced by the manner in which an institution assesses the training needs and planning, conducting and evaluating training interventions and learning interventions and learning programmes to enable people to acquire the specific knowledge and skills required to carry out their roles. Training methods are also very essential in the endeavour. They should be carefully selected to meet each individuals need. The whole process cannot be said to be complete if evaluation is not done.

With the changes happening in the economy and rapid pace of change in organizations, knowledge has become more important and so, organizations need to learn how to create and use such knowledge through organizational learning.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The data collection steps, according to Crosswell (1994;148), involve setting the boundaries for the study, collecting information through observation, interviews, documents and visual materials, and establishing the protocol for recording information.

It was considered that the study could benefit from a combination of three main methods of data collection. Those are the interview, the questionnaire (both of which involved a sample of respondents) and documentary analysis. The sections which follow provide an elaboration of those processes together with other methodological functions.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2006:54), the research design acts as a bridge between the theoretical discussions of the opening chapter and the sub-subsequent chapters. The research design refers to a plan for selecting subjects, research sites, and data collection procedures to answer the research questions (Schumacher *et al*, 1993:157). Denhere (2009) describes research design as basically the overall approach used to investigate the problems of interest, i.e. to shed

light on, or answer the question of interest or to test the intended hypothesis. Research design comprises tools and techniques like population and sampling strategies.

4.2.1 Population and Sample

The study adopted a mixed-mode design that include quantitative and qualitative data. On that note, in order to ensure the representativeness of the responses from the respondents (Kelly *et al.*, 2003), the study adopted the probability sampling design. In particular, the stratified simple random sampling was used. Using the sampling size determination formula and sampling table by Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the sampling size of 60 Vhembe district municipality employees were selected from three different categories. Randomization was computed using the online randomizer software for identification of the respondents to be interviewed during questionnaire administration.

4.3 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Questionnaires and interviews are the most common instruments for data collection in research (Borg and Gall, 1989:430). However, in this study, the desktop research, questionnaires and structured interviews were employed for the collection of data. These instruments were carefully designed and developed to ensure reliability and validity of the data from the respondents.

4.3.1 Questionnaire

On the other hand, the questionnaire is an instrument which is commonly used to obtain data beyond physical reach of the observer. Leedy (1985;35) described questionnaire as “the technique whereby the researcher believes that an impersonal approach will surface according to which he puts his questions on paper and submits them on the respondents, asking them in turn to write their answers on paper.” The standard structured questionnaire was used to collect data focusing on the respondents from the three purposively selected categories, namely, top management, middle management and auxiliary staff. The rationale for using the structure questionnaire was to ensure that consistency during data collection and the data collected from the respondents is reliable. In order to determine the validity of the data collection instrument, the pre-testing of the study questionnaire was conducted. Subsequent to the pre-testing, the researcher conducted a final face-to-face interviews with each respondent independently.

4.3.2 Documentary Analysis

In order to obtain a broad overview of the study, general literature related to the subject was reviewed to set the framework for analysis of human resources development function in South Africa in general and the Vhembe District Municipality in particular. Such literature pertains to issues such as education and training, and skills development, with respect to both their theoretical and applied aspects. For South Africa, among the most relevant documentary sources were the various pieces of legislation and policy documents. They include the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act No.108 of 1996); the South African Qualification Authority Act, 1995,

(Act No.58 of 1995), and the Skills Development Act, 1999 (Act No.97 of 1999), as well as the National Skills Development Strategy and the Human Resource Development Strategy.

Those are official documents which according to Barley (1994:294), mean documents that are compiled and maintained on a continuous basis by legal institution of which the government is no exception.

In addition, documents containing primary data on the specific action (plans, procedures and outcomes) by Government Departments, especially the Local government and traditional Affairs, at national, provincial and District levels were also studied.

This was done in order to get different perspectives and to avoid replication of previous research and to enable the researcher to interpret the significance of the observations and recommendation made. These views are shared by Leedy (1993:87) who cited that “when you know what others have done you are better prepared to attack the problem you have chosen to investigate with deeper insight and more complete knowledge.”

4.3.3 Interviews

According to Kvale (1996:11) an interview is an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest; sees the centrality of human intersection for knowledge production, and emphasizes the social situatedness of the research data. Laing (1967:53) describes interview as not exclusively either subjective or objective, it is inter-subjective as it enables participants –

be they interviewers or interviewees – to discuss their interpretation of the world in which they live and to express how they regard the situation from their own point of view.

The interview is described by Betir (1983: 144) as “the method of obtaining information in a face-to-face situation.” The method enables the researcher to get close to the respondents in order to get reliable information.

4.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OR MEASURES

According to Schumacher *et al.* (1993:183), ethics are a set of moral principles that deal with what is right or wrong, proper or improper, good or bad. Denhere (2009) describes ethics as the rules that bind the researchers as they conduct their research. Critical ethical issues such as anonymity, informed consent, privacy, voluntary participation and confidentiality were considered in this study.

4.4.1 Permission to carry out the Study

The researcher obtained permission to enter the field and approval to conduct research in the District Municipality of Vhembe.

4.4.2 Informed Consent

Participants are free to decline to participate or withdraw from the study at any time (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2006:50). Consistent with this ethical requirement, the researcher and the research assistants informed the participants about the purpose of the research and its benefits.

4.4.3 Confidentiality and Anonymity

According to Schumacher *et al.* (1993:184), it is the researcher's ethical responsibility to consider the respondents' identity as strictly confidential. In this investigation, this ethical requirement was adhered to as the questionnaire instrument was anonymous to conceal the participant's identity.

4.4.4 Protection of Respondents from Harm

According to Denhere (2009), it is the responsibility of the researcher to protect the dignity of the participant. It entails protecting them from harm and unnecessary risks. As such, questions that could cause psychological harm, such as embarrassment and emotional distress were avoided.

4.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is an important stage of the research. According to Schumacher *et al* (1993:148), it is when researchers interpret data using rules of inference that build on standard statistical techniques but are not the same.

4.5.1 Qualitative Data Analysis

Data collected through interviews with the employees of the Vhembe District Municipality was summarised and analysed together with a summary of responses to the open-ended questions on the questionnaires.

4.5.2 Quantitative Data Analysis

In this study data was analysed quantitatively through the use of the SPSS package version 17. The frequencies and cross-tabulations analyses were computed to determine percentage trend on responses of the respondents in each question. The chi-square analysis to determine the association at 95% confidence level ($P > 0, 05$) between position and HRD work conducted was computed.

4.6. CONCLUSION

Research methodology in this study served a major purpose as it provided the researcher with tools and approaches on how the study should be conducted. This section provided tools for data collection and analysis of the data gathered from the respondents while at the same time determined the sample size of the study. This study also considered mixed mode research design which included qualitative and quantitative approach.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS AND EXPLANATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a presentation of research findings and their analyses geared towards deriving answers to the critical research questions. It focuses on the manner in which Vhembe District Municipality in Limpopo Province has sought to implement the national human resource development framework to achieve its objectives. The critical elements examined include the extent to and manner in which the District has:

- Facilitated the personnel's knowledge about the national framework;
- Developed and communicated an appropriate human resource development programme;
- Selected personnel for the training courses; and
- Provided a support system for the post-training processes.

These issues are considered to be critical to the effectiveness of the human resources development initiatives. Therefore, the chapter also analyses the main practical problems faced and challenges implied in this context.

5.2 RESPONDENTS' PROFILE

As shown in Table 1 below, those who had acquired diploma qualifications accounted for 31.7 percent while those with degrees accounted for 28.3 percent. Only 10 percent of the respondents had attained post graduate studies at an honours level. It is quite clear that in the whole Vhembe District Municipality no respondent had acquired qualifications beyond masters. In the end the total number of the respondents who went through tertiary studies accounted for 70 percent in the whole of Vhembe District Municipality. The rest of the respondents had not gone beyond secondary education with some having not received any formal education, (those accounting for 30%). This implies that there were employees within the Vhembe District Municipality who were unable to read or write. Furthermore, the study established four categories of employees, comprising top management, supervisory (middle management) staff, auxiliary staff and non-categorised staff. This structure is also graphically presented in Appendix 1. The majority of respondents (50%) were in the mid-age category of 31-50 years followed by those in the range of over 50 years accounting for 40%. None of the respondents was below 20 years of age, while those below 30 years accounted for 10%.

Table 5.1: Respondents' profile in the Vhembe District Municipality

Respondents' profile		Frequency	Percentage
Institutional status category of respondent's position	Top management	2	3.3
	Supervisory	10	16.7
	Auxiliary Staff	22	36.7
	Other (staff)	26	43.3
	Total	60	100.0
Gender	Male	28	46.7
	Female	32	53.3
	Total	60	100.0
Age category of the respondents	20-30	6	10.0
	31-40	14	23.3
	41-50	16	26.7
	Over 50	24	40.0
	Total	60	100.0
Respondents' highest Educational Qualification	Primary	8	13.3
	Secondary	10	16.7
	Diploma	19	31.7
	Degree	17	28.3
	Hons.	6	10.0
	Total	60	100

5.3 NATURE OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME IN VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

5.3.1 Human Resource Development Policy and Plans Responsibilities

The results in Table 5.2 below depict the extent to which each employee is responsible in the Vhembe District regarding HRD policy and plans development and implementation. A total of 42.4 percent responses agreed that top management was responsible for HRD policy and plans in the Vhembe District Municipality while as little as 15.2 percent represented the responsibility shared by ordinary staff. Overall, the management (that is, both top management and middle management) team took the responsibility of the HRD policy and plans accounting for 68.1 percent.

The depiction of commitment of the management team in bringing up change within the HRD department is presented below. Most importantly and encouraging is that both the representatives of the staff or unions and staff have their responsibility in the process of HRD policy and plans. This provides a good picture when it comes to the working relations between the management team, staff and staff representatives or union. Moreover, the results of the policy and plans implementation are most likely to become positive with unprecedented success. This may be as a result of an integrated effort from all levels of employees within the management team.

Table 5.2: Human resource development policy and plans responsibility

Position	Responses	
	N	Percent
Top management	56	42.4%
Middle management	34	25.8%
Staff	20	15.2%
Staff rep/unions	22	16.7%
Total	132	100.0%

5.3.2 Human Resource Development (training) work conducted in the Department

Table 5.3 below presents the relationship between the respondent's position and HRD work conducted in the department. The chi-square results indicate that there is an association between position and HRD work conducted. The $X^2 = 16.613$, $P > 0.001$ was calculated at significant level of 0.05.

Table 5.3: chi-square analysis

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	16.613 ^a	3	.001
Likelihood Ratio	17.685	3	.001
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.651	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	60		

a. 3 cells (37.5%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .73.

5.3.3 Development of HRD Policies and Plans

The results in the table below (table 5.4) reveal that top management and external stakeholders were responsible with the drawing up of the policies and plans. Both accounted for 43.3 percent and 26.7 percent respectively while 3.3 percent and 6.7 percent accounted for unions and middle management respectively. However, looking deeply at Table 5.4 below the female respondents have no idea as to where the unions and middle management are dependently or independently involved in the process of drawing up policies and plans. Contrary to that, they strongly believed that the top management and external stakeholders took the lead in the process of policies and plans development.

Table 5.4: Responsibility for drawing up Human Resource Development Policy and Plans

		Gender		Total
		Male	Female	
Top management	Count	10	16	26
	% within gender	35.7%	50.0%	43.3%
Top and middle management	Count	4	4	8
	% within gender	14.3%	12.5%	13.3%
Top and middle management, staff and unions	Count	4	0	4
	% within gender	14.3%	.0%	6.7%
Top management, middle management and unions	Count	2	0	2
	% within gender	7.1%	.0%	3.3%
Middle management	Count	2	2	4
	% within gender	7.1%	6.3%	6.7%
External stakeholders	Count	6	10	16
	% within gender	21.4%	31.3%	26.7%
Total	Count	28	32	60
	% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

5.3.4 Participation in the formation of policy process

In Table 5.5 below, all the respondents revealed that top management team participated in the formation of the policies within the Vhembe District Municipality accounting for 100% while in contrary 100 percent of non-categorized staff did not participate in the policy formation. Interestingly, the respondents indicated that there was a low percentage of supervisors participating in the process of policy formation accounting for 40 percent compared to those who mentioned that supervisors did not participate in the process. Moreover, the respondents revealed that only 18.2 percent of the auxiliary (supporting staff) staff participated in this process. The lessons that could be drawn from this analysis are that policies and plans formulated by top management without firm participation of other employees result into poor implementation. This further depicts a negative picture regarding employee mobilisation. On the other hand, resistance by employees may also result into unprecedented poor service delivery. It is also clear that the unions were also not highly represented which may crop up further arguments within the Vhembe District Municipality.

Table 5.5: Employee’s participation in the policy formation exercise or process

		Occupational category				Total
		Top management	Supervisory	Auxiliary staff	Other	
Yes	% within	100.0%	40.0%	18.2%	.0%	16.7%
	ISCYP					
No	% within	.0%	60.0%	81.8%	100.0%	83.3%
	ISCYP					
Total	Count	2	10	22	26	60
	% within	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	ISCYP					

5.3.5 Focus of Human Resource Development Programme

Figure 5.1 below indicates the male and female understanding of what the department of human resource development programme involves. As shown by figures, both male and female respondents agree on the fact that the HRD programme in the Vhembe District focuses on the objectives while on personal improvement areas and policy matters female respondents provided more responses than their male colleagues. On the other hand, male respondents revealed that the HRD programme focused on the target groups.

The results in Figure 5.1 below, show that women are getting more involved in the matters regarding the HRD programme than men do in the Vhembe District Municipality.

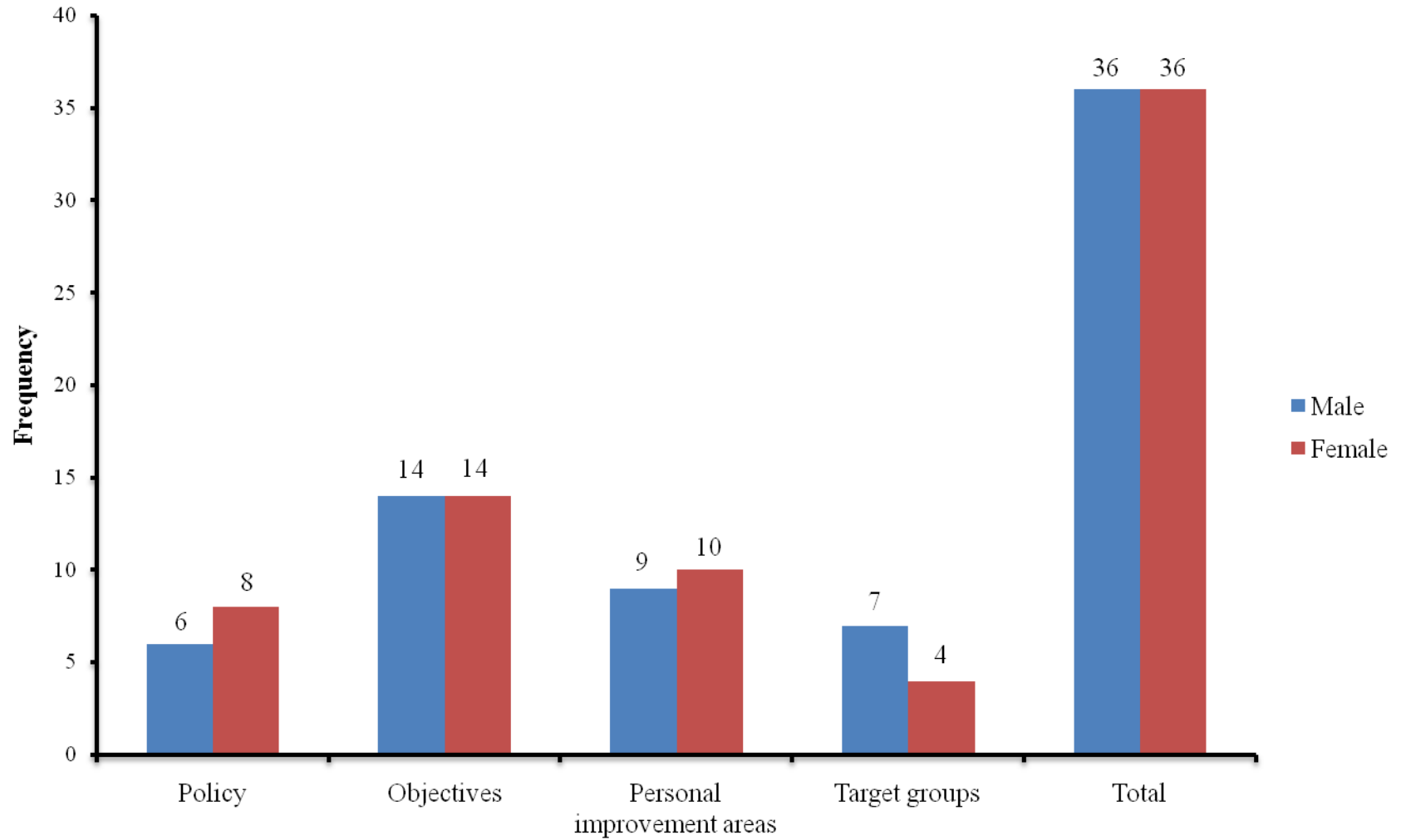


Figure 5.1: depicts the multi-responses on the focus of human resource development programme

5.3.6 Skills development training attendance frequency

Based on multiple-responses analysis, the table below (table 5.6) reveals that the majority of respondents underwent training since they had joined the Vhembe District Municipality those accounting for 47.5 percent while 27.5 percent did so since joining the department. The quarter of the total respondents, accounting for 25 percent had since attended training over the past five years. This finding brings up a distressing factor regarding the capacity that employees require to discharge their duties effectively and efficiently. Without doubt, employees who lack training may become redundant in the sense that they remain quite undeveloped skills-wise and that results in poor service delivery.

Table 5.6: Frequency of employees for undergoing skills development and training programme

	Responses		Percent of Cases
	N	Percent	
Since joining Vhembe	38	47.5%	90.5%
Since joining Department	22	27.5%	52.4%
Over the past 5 years	20	25.0%	47.6%
Total	80	100.0%	190.5%

5.3.7 Frequency of training measured on a yearly basis

In Table 5.7 below, respondents indicated the frequency at which training has been conducted in the Vhembe District Municipality. The majority of the respondents revealed that training was conducted once a year accounting for 33.3 percent while 6.7 percent of the respondents mentioned that training occurred more than once a year. The rest of the respondents revealed that training in the Vhembe District Municipality was conducted twice a year; among these respondents some mentioned that training was never conducted while others did not respond, all of these accounting 20 percent.

Considering results presented above, it is quite clear that some of the employees amongst the respondents had never attended training at all. Based on that, one may conclude that perhaps nepotism or favouritism played part in selecting who should attend training. This is because it seems there is a consistent pattern with regard to attendance of skills development. This may also suggest that there is no skill development programme in place.

Table 5.7: The frequency of training undergone by district municipality employees

	Frequency of Training	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Once a year	20	33.3	41.7	41.7
	Twice a year	12	20.0	25.0	66.7
	More than twice a year	4	6.7	8.3	75.0
	None of the above	12	20.0	16.7	91.7
	No response	12	20.0		
	Total	48	80.0	100.0	
Total		60	100.0		

5.4 THE APPLICATION OF THE HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT FUNCTION IN THE VHEMBE DISTRICT MUNICIPALITY

Induction process is an essential practice at the work place in order to familiarize the newly employed staff who joined an organization or institution in order for them to easily understand and adapt in the new environment. This is also enables them to be more efficient in their respective duties mandated by their positions. The detailed analysis is interpreted and discussed in this section revealing how induction is being implemented in the Vhembe District Municipality. Most importantly to note is that implementation of induction requires a well-planned program if results are to be attained with profound objectives.

5.4.1 Induction Implementation

Table 5.8 below presents the understanding of implementation of induction between male and female respondents. To a large extent (84.6 percent), male respondents agreed that induction was being implemented with only 15.4 percent disagreeing. On the other hand, female respondents also endorsed the fact that induction was being implemented in the Vhembe District Municipality accounting for 75.0 percent with 25.0 percent not supporting that fact. In total, 79.3 percent of the respondents agreed to the question whether induction was implemented or not while 20.7 percent felt induction was not implemented. These results can be referred to in Appendix 1.

Table 5.8: Implementation of induction to the respondents

			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
C1	Yes	Count	22	24	46
		% within GEN	84.6%	75.0%	79.3%
	No	Count	4	8	12
		% within GEN	15.4%	25.0%	20.7%
Total	Count	26	32	58	
	% within GEN	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

5.4.2 The Responsible Person for Induction Process in the Municipality

The results in Figure 3 below reveal that 33.3 percent of the respondents were inducted by their colleagues while the other 33.3 percent had nothing to say about induction conducted to them. Only 16.7 percent of the respondents confirmed that they were inducted by their immediate senior staff members while another 16.7 percent indicated that they were inducted by the staff from another section different from theirs.

These findings imply that there was no induction strategy and/or programme in place in the Vhembe District Municipality for the new employees since the expectation are that the supervisor must carry out the induction process. Moreover, these findings give the impression that new employees had to find their way out in search of how they must carry out their work effectively. Considering that newly appointed employees were inducted by their colleagues, this gives an impression that the supervisor shifted their responsibilities to the juniors. This is in contrast with the definition of induction as outlined by Hall and Goodale (1986) in Gerber *et al.* (1996:56), which indicates that the newly appointed employees require to learn the organizational culture by obtaining the information, values and behaviour skills associated with their role in the organisation. This definition simply indicates that supervisors are critical during the induction of newly appointed employees as they are the ones who provide the leadership role within their unit in the organisation. Moreover, supervisors are also well positioned to understand the organisational culture to be imparted to the new employees rather than depending on colleagues and other section's staff members.

Leaving the responsibilities of induction to the juniors and other section's staff members may lead to poor performance of the tasks that the newly appointed employees are supposed to carry out in the section. This may by far has a greater negative impact to the service delivery objective of the whole municipality. Hence, George and Cole (1992) concluded that induction affords the supervisor an opportunity to establish a good working relationship with the person and to let that person explain the job in relation to others in the organisation. In addition, the opportunity is further afforded to the supervisor to explain the rules and regulations carefully, thereby avoiding subsequent misunderstandings, removing the uncertainty that everyone has when going to a new place of employment. Consequently, this will minimize the time spent ineffectively by the new employees by providing a sensible programme to follow during the first few days on the job.

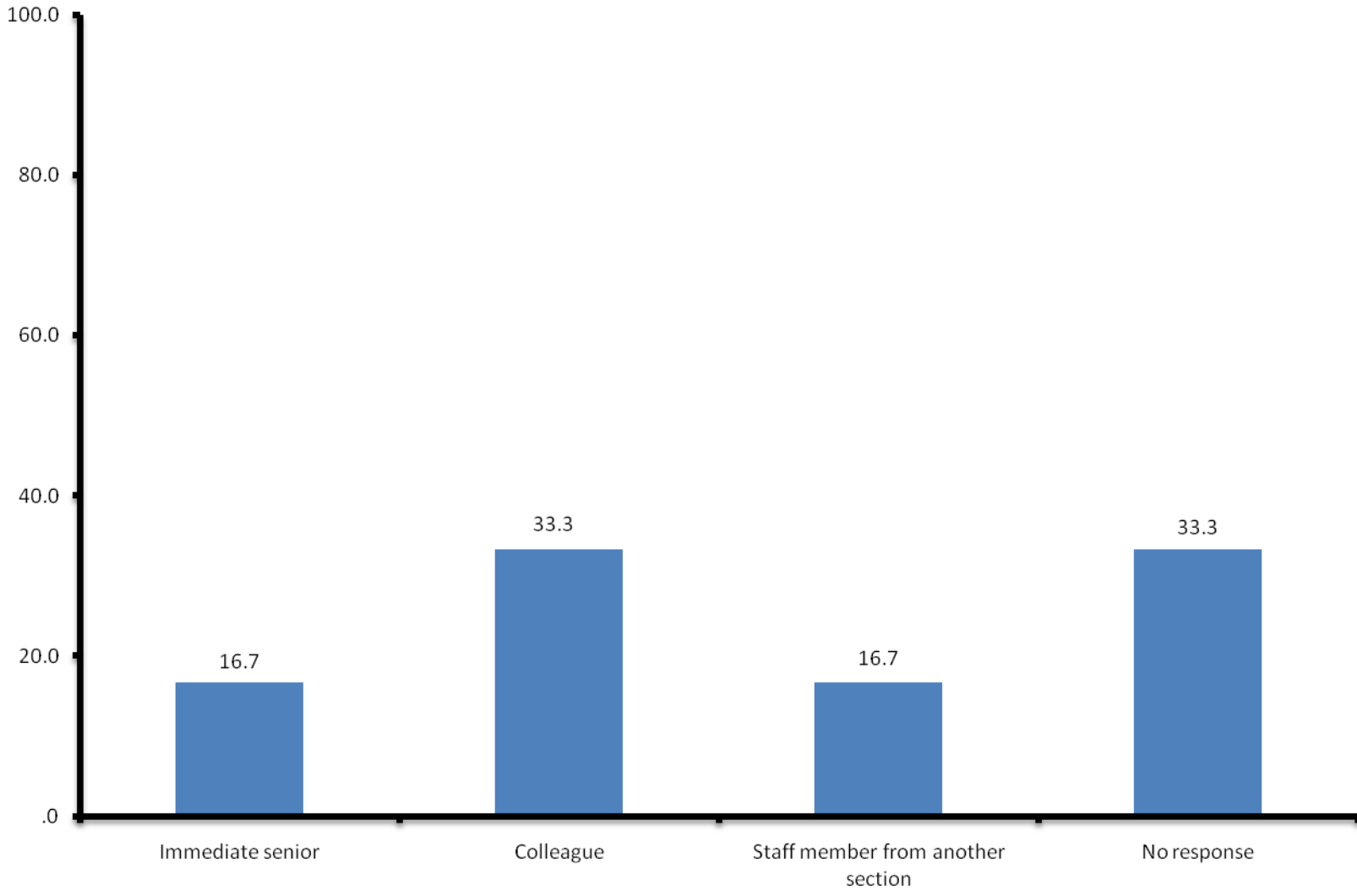


Figure 5.2: The personnel who conducted induction process for newly employed workers in the municipality

5.4.3 The Content of the Induction Program

Table 5.9 below reveals that the majority of the respondents (53.3 percent) understood induction as training that is carried out to familiarise the newly employed staff on specific job role. On the other hand, 46.7 percent understood it differently. In contrast the respondents did not support the fact that induction comprised content such as safety training (76.7 percent), guided tour of the building (80.0 percent), legal and compliance requirement (76.7 percent), introduction to the terms and conditions e.g. holiday entitlement (80.0 percent) and introduction to the key members of the staff (56.7 percent).

In order to run a proper induction programme, it is important to include the contents that will contribute to strengthen capacity and work environment for the employees in question. In this case, it is clear that Vhembe District Municipality staff members are not well-informed about what induction programme is all about. Furthermore, this finding concurs with the argument that Vhembe District Municipality does not have a proper well-organised programme for induction. Without doubt, induction programme is vital to improve the working conditions which could enable the environment for service delivery. According to Kroon (1994:33) and Gerber *et al.* (1996:157–158), it has been recommended that induction should be conducted in order to achieve the following objectives of which the majority of the respondents have shown no support of.

However, the objectives of induction and orientation as illustrated by Kroon (1994: 335), support the idea of enhancing effective and efficient service delivery. These objectives are stated as follows:

- Creating a favourable impression with the employee;
- Developing positive attitudes and a feeling of identification;
- Promoting teamwork;
- Reducing turnover;
- Preventing grievances;
- Saving the time of supervisors; and
- Generally allowing the new employee to make a productive contribution to the enterprise as soon as possible.

In support of the induction program, Gerber *et al* (1996) also identified the following objectives of induction and orientation:

- To make a new employee more productive;
- To reduce fear and insecurity;
- The reduction of labour turnover;
- Creating job satisfaction and positive attitude towards the employer; and
- Saving the time of supervisors and colleagues (Gerber *et al*, 1996:157-158).

Table 5.9: Induction content

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Safety training	14	23.3	100.0	100.0
No response	46	76.7		
Total	60	100.0		
Guided tour of the building	12	20.0	100.0	100.0
No responses	48	80.0		
Total	60	100.0		
Introduction to the key members of the staff	26	43.3	100.0	100.0
No responses	34	56.7		
Total	60	100.0		
Introduction to the terms and conditions e.g. holiday entitlement	12	20.0	100.0	100.0
No responses	48	80.0		
Total	60	100.0		
Legal and compliance requirement	14	23.3	100.0	100.0
No responses	46	76.7		
Total	60	100.0		
Specific job role training	32	53.3	100.0	100.0
No responses	28	46.7		
Total	60	100.0		

5.5 ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT FUNCTION

5.5.1 Performance rating

The results in Figure 5.2 below strongly reveal that despite all the training sessions undergone by the Vhembe District Municipality staff, the majority of respondents still indicated that training had on average improved their performance in terms of competency and overall efficiency accounting for 56.7 percent. About 3.3 percent of the respondents were unable to judge whether the training undergone by staff had an impact on their performance towards making them competent and overall being efficient while concerning completion of job tasks (time) and dedication, commitment and motivation only 6.7 percent of the respondents revealed that they were unable to judge.

According to the results above, it can be concluded that training should be done with the purpose and service standards in mind as this will guide the employees or trainees on the objectives of the training in terms of the outcomes expected. In order to bring awareness of the service standards to the staff members of the Vhembe District Municipality, reference must be made to the government gazetted service standards. In addition, the principles of Batho Pele may also be helpful to enlighten the focus of the staff members in as far as performance is concerned. It shows that Vhembe District has not published its service standards as outlined and recommended in the Service Delivery Principles of Batho Pele. However, if the service standards exist, the greater

possibility is that it is not being enforced. On the same note, guidance is provided in the White Paper on Transforming Service Delivery (1997:25) that there are numerous actions that individual components with departments can take immediately to improve the services they provide. Noteworthy, staff members after undergoing training could improve their performance to achieve competency, dedication and commitment with respect to the set service standards, meaning that the Vhembe district municipality should strive towards continuously alerting their staff members on White Paper on Transformation Service Delivery as this substantially improves their individual performance.

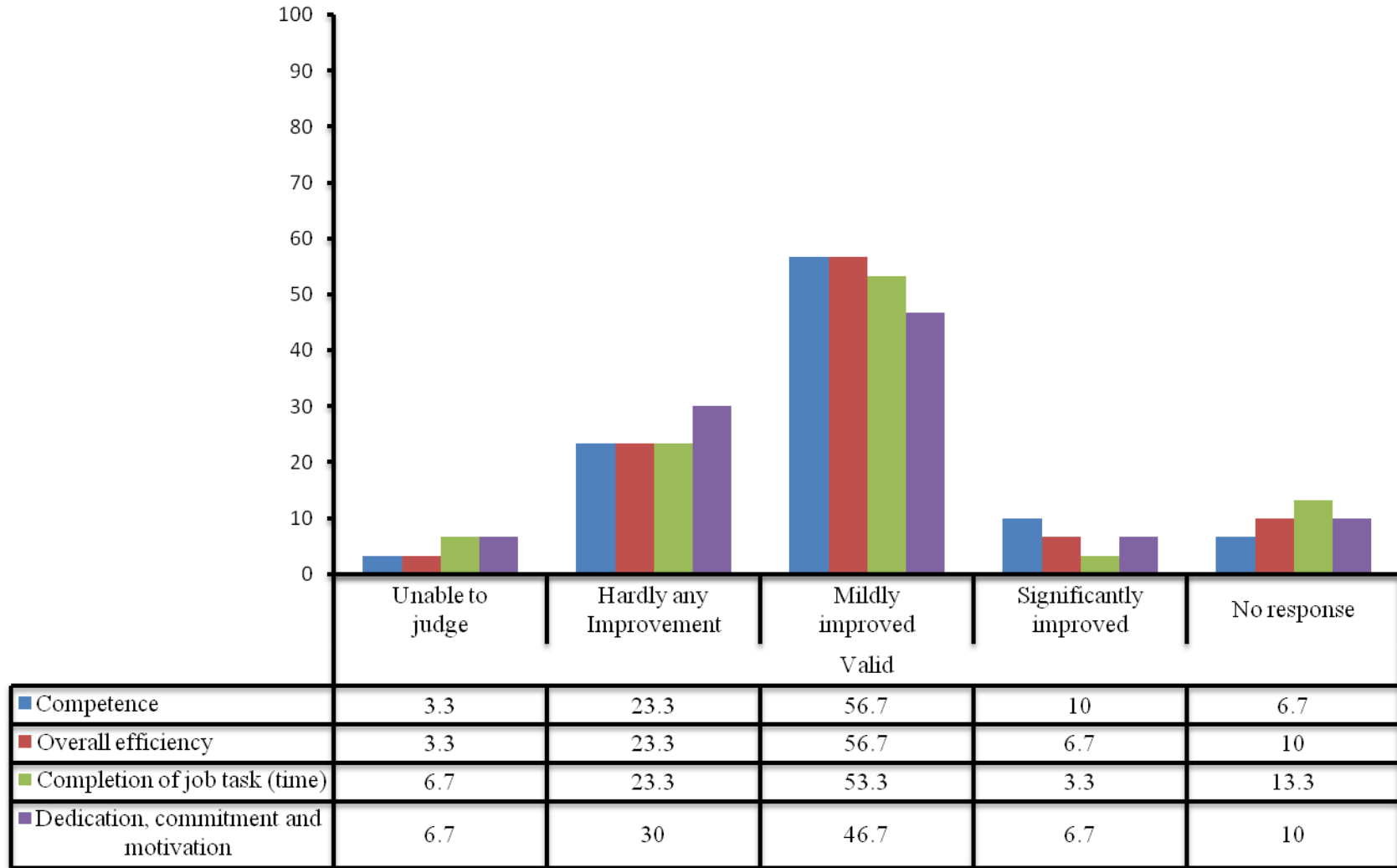


Figure 5.2: Performance rating of the Vhembe District Municipality staff after having undergone the HRD programme training

5.5.2 Factors influencing performance of the respondents

In Table 5.10 below, approximately 6.7 percent of the respondents revealed that the relationship of the training to job requirements is an excellent factor behind the performance after training. The other 3.3 percent of the respondents indicated that the quality of after-training support systems, staff professional attitudes and the quality of job supervision are also excellent factors behind the performance on a specific job. Moreover, the quality of training and staff professional attitudes were rated as good factors behind staff performance after training (20.0 percent respectively) while the relationship of the training to job requirements and quality of after-training support systems were also believed to have a good impact on performance of the employees (16.7 percent respectively). All the other factors were rated fair, accounting for 43.3 percent of the respondents, except the quality on job supervision which accounted for 33.3 percent overall. Arising from the analysis in the table below, a conclusion can be drawn that there were disparities in understanding regarding the factors that were influencing performance after training. This further indicates that the municipality might not have had a programme of skills development. Van der Walt (2004:38-39) clearly outlined the factors that influence performance of the staff members in the public sector as follows:

- Personal factors: the public manager's skill, confidence, motivation and commitment;
- Leadership factors: the quality of encouragement, guidance and support provided by public managers;
- Team factors: the quality of support provided by team members in a project or programme;

- System factors: the system of processes, resources and facilities provided by the organisation to the project or programme; and
- Contextual (situational) factors: internal and external environmental pressures and changes on the project or policy development”.

However, the results above reveal that there was still a lot to be done in the Vhembe District as few respondents were of the view that quality of after-training support systems, staff professional attitudes and quality of job supervision were also excellent factors behind the performance on a specific job.

Table 5.10: Rating of factors behind the performance of the employees in Vhembe district municipality

		Quality of Training	Relationship of the training to job requirements	Quality of after-training support systems	Staff professional attitudes	Quality of job supervision
Valid	None	23.3	23.3	26.7	23.3	26.7
	Fair	43.3	43.3	43.3	43.3	33.3
	Good	20.0	16.7	16.7	20.0	26.7
	Excellent	-	6.7	3.3	3.3	3.3
No response		13.3	10	10	10	10
Total		100	100	100	100	

5.5.3 Staff training area of focus

The majority of the respondents in the table below revealed that staff training must be targeted to job focused workshops (group) and on-the-job training (coaching); Learnerships (individual) and self-study (while on the job) (individual) accounting for 66.7 percent. About 63.7 percent of the respondents revealed that academic training (higher education (individual, with study leave - diploma/degree/postgraduate) as training that is imperative for staff development and 60 formal training courses (certificate - group/individual) alike. This indicates that the Vhembe District Municipality staffs had taken note of higher education's qualification significance on personal development. Moreover, it is only through education that a country's economy can be transformed. Hence perhaps that is why VDM staff value education the way they do.

With good quality academic qualification and formal training there is no doubt that performance of the staff members will also improve leading to improved service delivery.

Table 5.11: performance rating after-training support system

Current system	Rating	Frequency	Percent
Follow-up by trainers	Satisfactory	14	23.3
	Not satisfactory	42	70.0
	Total	56	93.3
Missing	System	4	6.7
Total		60	100.0
Internal support mechanisms	Satisfactory	16	26.7
	Not satisfactory	38	63.3
	Total	54	90.0
Missing	System	6	10.0
Total		60	100.0
Attitudes of managers/supervisors	Satisfactory	12	20.0
	Not satisfactory	42	70.0
	Total	54	90.0
Missing	System	6	10.0
Total		60	100.0
Other issues	Satisfactory	4	6.7
	Not satisfactory	32	53.3
	Total	36	60.0
Missing	System	24	40.0
Total		60	100.0

5.6 EFFECTIVENESS OF THE HRD TRAINING FUNCTION

5.6.1 Introduction

There are several bases for assessing an institution's effectiveness in achieving the objectives of the human resources development function. In the case of the Limpopo Provincial Department of Public Works, five criteria were chosen. One category of criteria comprises the proportion of the personnel that have so far been selected for and undergone an HRD programmes, personnel rating of relevance of the training based upon improvement in job performance and the quality of the post-training support system. The other category consists of the personnel's views about the problem of the current HRD process and recommendations about how better to organise it, including a more appropriate frequency for training courses.

5.6.2 Accessibility of the HRD programme

Table 5.12 below indicates the number of staff that have undergone an HRD training programme and the number of times each has undergone such a programme. This issue is significant in assessing the extent to which Departmental personnel have acquired appropriate levels and types of knowledge and skills required for job performance, both for the posts filled and for career development.

Table 5.12: Coverage of personnel with skills development training (respondents' statistics)

1. SINCE JOINING THE PUBLIC SERVICE										
No. of times	0	1	2	3	4	6	8	15	20	TOTAL
Number	20	6	3	4	1	3	1	1	1	40
Percentages (%)	50	15	7,5	10	2,5	7,5	2,5	2,5	2,5	100
2. SINCE JOINING THE DEPARTMENT										
No. of times	0	1	2	3	4	5	TOTAL			
Number	28	2	5	2	2	1	40			
Percentages (%)	70	5	12,5	5	5	2,5	100			
3. OVER THE PAST 5 YEARS										
No. of times	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	8	TOTAL	
Number	24	6	1	3	2	2	1	1	40	
Percentages (%)	60	15	2,5	7,5	5	5	2,5	2,5	100	
4. DURING 2003										
No. of times	0	1	2	3	4	5	TOTAL			
Number	32	7	-	-	-	1	40			
Percentages (%)	80	17,5	-	-	-	2,5	100			

Table 5.12 above indicates that 60 percent of the respondents had undergone some HRD training since joining the public service, and had done so while being within the Department.

It also suggests that much of the HRD training had been undertaken during the past five years (80% of the respondents who had received some training), especially in 2003 (half of them). This suggests that although a significant proportion of personnel have received no skills development training at all, the HRD initiative is gaining momentum and is likely to cover a large proportion of personnel within the next few years. Nevertheless, this picture must be weighed against the tendency for favouring particular members of staff for selection for training. The Table suggests that the principle of coverage of staff for training benefits is compromised by having particular staff being selected to undergo skills development courses repetitively. Thus, while the majority of personnel have not benefited from any HRD training provision, quite a number have done so several times. This raises the question as to what types of HRD training courses are favoured by both the public service and the Department in particular, and what criteria are applied for selection of staff for such training.

The components of the HRD training provided to personnel cover a wide scope of knowledge and competency development. These range from sensitisation to the legislative framework, through generic management and service delivery principles to upgrading of general and specific technical skills. Management-related courses include those focusing on aspects of the labour relations framework, performance management, quality management, personnel management, leadership and team-building. Those addressing general competency development include computer literacy, service delivery improvement as well as Adult Basic Education and Training. Courses involving such aspects as tyre fixing, auto-electrical and electrical management, building, plastering, painting, tiling and roofing address development of specific technical skills. Training also addresses issues such as general safety and HIV/AIDS, aimed at sensitising personnel to life-related knowledge and skills.

5.6.3 Effectiveness of the human resource development initiatives

Respondents were asked to comment on the effectiveness of the HRD training undergone with respect to a number of performance bases. Table 5.13 provides a picture of this, based on views about own performance and the performance of colleagues.

Table 5.13: General rating of staff job performance following training

Performance area	Rating								Total
	Significantly improved		Mildly improved		Hardly improved		Unable to judge (+ not responded)		
1. Competence	17	44,7%	15	39,5%	-	-	6 (2)	15,8%	38 (40)
2. Overall efficiency	16	42,1%	17	44,7%	1	2,6%	4 (2)	10,5%	38 (40)
3. Completion of job task	18	46,2%	13	33,3%	5	12,8%	3 (1)	7,7%	39 (40)
4. Dedication & Motivation	23	58,9%	7	17,9%	6	15,4%	3 (1)	7,7%	39

Almost all respondents were able to comment on the outcomes of the HRD training that the personnel had undergone. The one or two that had not responded are assumed to have been “unable to judge”. Overall, the majority of respondents (about 79%) felt that the training undergone had led to some improvement in job performance by staff, across the four selected performance areas. This is whether such improvement is viewed as “significant” or “mild”. With respect to *competence*, slightly more than half of these respondents (53% of them) felt that the improvement has been “significant”, while in terms of *overall efficiency*, the view is reversed (with 48.5% of them thinking there is “mild improvement”). It is in the areas of

dedication and motivation and *completion of job task* that a much greater proportion of these respondents felt the improvement has been “significant” rather than “mild” (77% and 58%, respectively).

The above generally positive rating of the HRD programme was attributed to several factors. Almost all respondents (about 94%) attached the performance improvements to a good relationship of training to the requirements of the job, which they saw as making a good attempt to target, identify and address the required skill shortage. The other was the post-training support system that the trainees received. The staff members were seen as generally well-motivated particularly due to being provided with necessary tools or equipment for applying the new skills that they might have acquired. This, together with a good professional attitude and quality of job supervision, is considered to have contributed to a higher level of job dedication and task completion.

In spite of the generally positive rating, respondents felt that performance improvement could have been higher if issues in some areas had been better attended to. Some respondents (about 50%) felt that service providers were less competent than they ought to have been. About 13% of them felt that generally, the training was not well related to job requirements, while about 80 per cent felt that the training was not always applicable to the day-to-day work they did. With respect to the quality of post-training system, the respondents cited lack of facilities necessary to enable them to demonstrate the acquired skills as a major obstacle. They also felt that supervisors lacked performance management skills, which tended to compromise staff motivation.

The above assessment indicates that generally, the implementation of the skills development programme had positive results. But the process requires improvement in specific areas. The differences in views also suggest that there is lack of uniformity in the application (management) of the HRD function, with some personnel (in some sections) appearing to have benefited more than it has been the case with others. Table 5.14 gives an idea as to how frequently personnel would like the skills development training courses to be mounted in order to be more effective, and the reasons they give for such preference, while Table 5.15 provides the respondents' rating of the performance of the post-training support system.

Table 5.14: Preferred frequency for HRD training courses

NUMBER OF TIMES	Quarterly	Twice a year	Once a year	Once in two years	No response	TOTAL
Frequency	4	6	18	1	11	40
Percentages (%)	10	15	45	2.5	27.5	100

Just fewer than three-quarters of the respondents bothered to offer any suggestion as to the preferred frequency for mounting skills development training courses. Amongst those who offered a response, the overwhelming opinion is that the courses should be conducted more frequently. The majority (62%) preferred once a year, with much fewer respondents suggesting twice a year (21%) or on a quarterly basis (14%). It appears that the staff considered offering training courses mounted on a less than annual basis to be insufficient for purposes of achieving the HRD objectives. On the other hand, preference for the annual basis is for practical reasons, as it allows time for staff to practise what they would have learnt while being able to keep

abreast with global changes and developments. Additional reasons cited are that they need to spend more time doing their work than in training/workshop sessions and to get the opportunity to learn from others' experiences. In addition, more training courses would mean increasing coverage of personnel for training opportunity.

Table 5.15: Respondents' assessment of the post-training support system

CURRENT SYSTEM	Excellent		Good		Poor		Total
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
Follow-up by trainers	8	22	9	25	19	52.7	36
Internal support system mechanism	10	27.7	11	30.5	15	41.6	36
Attitude of managers/supervisor	11	30.5	17	47.2	8	22.2	36

The majority of the respondents (90%) responded to this aspect of the enquiry. Of these, less than half (47%) felt that *follow-up* by the trainers was satisfactory (either at “excellent” or “good” level), while more than half (58%) felt the same for the internal *support system*. A much higher positive view applied to the *attitude of the managers/supervisors*, where about 78% of the respondents expressed satisfaction about the performance. This suggests that while the positive attitude of the superiors goes a long way to supporting the process of the application of the training benefits, the staff would prefer this to be sufficiently supported by the more tangible support systems directly related to the application of their training benefits. As the respondents suggested, these primarily include trainers undertaking an assessment of the

outcomes of the training and, where necessary, providing appropriate guidance in the trainees' application of the knowledge and skills acquired during the training. Another aspect of the support system considered critical to appropriate application of the knowledge/skills is the availability in the work place of appropriate equipment or tools to be used, as used or recommended during the training process. Respondents strongly felt that the absence of such work aids tended to compromise the benefits of the training.

CHAPTER 6

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

6.1 CONCLUDING REMARKS

In conclusion, the findings of the study indicated that despite significant efforts made by the Vhembe District Municipality, personnel perceive significant imperfections in the management of the HRD process, that tend to detract from its effectiveness. There are a number of areas of imperfections in the system that the respondents identified.

The major one pertains to the criteria used or practiced in the selection of personnel for training. Personnel perceived that preference or focus was given to those that have attained at least Grade 12 level of education (except those that presumably are specifically favoured by those connected with the selection process). Perhaps this is based on assumptions that the level of educational attainment determines ability to comprehend the training process. Nevertheless, such a selection basis tends to exclude (and to de-motivate) the majority in the auxiliary staff that have lower educational qualifications, who see such training as a means of improving their career development opportunities through skills upgrading. The second factor relates to the quality or work-relevance of the training. Some respondents felt that the training offered was somewhat either below standard or was not always consistent with the work functions (or facilities) of the staff, in terms of direct utilisation of the knowledge and/or skills gained. For instance, training in computer literacy would have no direct or immediate functional benefit if staff members did not have access to, or did not normally make use of the computer in their day-to-day functioning. The third aspect was the rather unsatisfactory post-training support system, for assessing, monitoring and guiding correct application of the knowledge and skills

gained by staff during the training. Fourthly, respondents felt that the training programme was not located within a properly formulated scenario and managed annually.

In light of the above impressions, the respondents felt the problems might significantly emanate from some structural imperfections. The first of these is the fact that hardly any efforts are made to actively involve the labour unions and general staff in the HRD function at all its critical stages of its formulation and implementation. The second contributory factor is the *Redeployment and Rationalisation* process. A member of staff might be transferred to another section soon after training, to a position with a job description that is unrelated to aspects of the training received. Fourthly, the training function is not located in a well-structured yearly programme. This tends to give a picture of a rather haphazard pattern for the formulation and selection of training courses, which is exacerbated by lack of a review framework in terms of policy, programme and specific projects. All these issues, together with insufficient funding for the HRD function, result in a level of effectiveness for the HRD function that is significantly lower than it is required to be.

Perhaps of greatest concern is the observation that training is very often of doubtful relevant, rarely focused on carry-through impact, rarely accompanied by post-course support and implementation, and often facilitated or taught by people who have a very limited understanding of the public sector.

6.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

For a better designed and managed HRD system in the Vhembe District Municipality, the following is recommended:

- That efforts be made at institutional level to ensure that the entire workforce, including unions and general staff, is aware and knowledgeable about the national framework and issues relating to the human resources development function, such as policy, applicable legislation, purposes and objectives. Furthermore, all stakeholders be actively involved in the development process of policies and plans thereafter. Also, the top management should make any amendment of policies from the national departments readily available to all stakeholders. In addition, that it becomes imperative for the top management to provide clarity where required by stakeholders in the form of workshops and other related forums to capacitate the employees.
- That all personnel have a clear knowledge about the Department's HRD policy, programme and specific training courses at the beginning of the year. This programme would therefore be based on the skills development audit and needs analysis conducted. This should also be included in the induction policy, which seems non-existent in the Vhembe District Municipality. It is therefore highly recommended that induction policy be developed and made available. In this case, all new employees would have a clear knowledge about different aspects of the Vhembe district municipality. This would include amongst others, safety training, guided tour of the building, introduction to the key members of the staff, introduction to the terms and conditions of service, legal and compliance requirements and specific job role training.
- That the Department's HRD programme be well structured by means of an annual plan of action, involving a package of training courses. This is, in large part, so as to enable staff to plan for readiness to undergo specific training courses mounted at any particular time.

- That the criteria for selection of staff for training (within appropriate functional categories) be made clear and be sufficiently publicised, so that individual staff know about how and when to be selected. This minimises misconceptions about favouritism, nepotism and other unwarranted undertakings related to selection of trainees.
- That training courses be formulated in such a way as to cover as wide a range of functional areas applicable and appropriate to Departmental functioning, and organised as frequently and as regularly as possible so as to facilitate adequate coverage of personnel within the shortest possible time-frame.
- That training courses be designed in such a way as to enable personnel to keep up to date with developments in management knowledge and technology, and to enable them to remain competitive on the wider job market.
- That training make a direct attempt to address the specific functional aspects of the beneficiaries, even where it addresses the wider knowledge and competency issues for longer term personnel development. There is therefore a great need for follow-ups on training conducted, as well as improvement on internal support mechanisms.
- That the formulation of the training programme, including its post-training implementation process involve input from the wider range of stakeholders, including representatives of the personnel, such as the labour unions.
- That the formulation and implementation of the training programme and its implementation principles and practices be subjected to periodic review, and that those charged with its implementation should be held accountable for its performance.
- That the HRD programme be allocated sufficient funds to meet its objectives, and that the utilisation of such funds should be properly accounted for.
- That each of the service providers must have the necessary competencies and qualifications allocated to them. In the interest of upholding quality, it is essential that all service

providers be duly accredited to perform the functions that are assigned to them. It is therefore further recommended that the service providers should also be empowered to effectively deliver high quality, job relevant skills based on national standards.

6.3. CONCLUSION

Capacity building has played a critical role to enhance effective service delivery within public and private institutions. However, it is solely in the control of the managers and/or leadership to consider developing the skills of their subordinate so as they could deliver to their full potential. Most importantly, the government has introduced a training framework under which training has to be aligned and conducted. Continuous empowerment of the employees in the Vhembe district has been evident, but a lot more is still required in order to achieve efficiency on any work done.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Amos, T.L. Ristow, A. Ristow, L. Pearse, N.J (2008) *Human Resource Management*. Juta. Cape Town. 3rd edition.
- Armstrong, M. 1992. *Human Resource Management: Strategy and action*. London.
- Armstrong, M. (2003) *A handbook of Humana Resource Management Practice*. Kogan – page. London 9th edition.
- Baldwin, T.T., Magjuka, R.J. 1991. Organizational training and signals of importance: effects of pre-training perceptions on intentions to transfer. *Hum. Res. Dev.*2(1):25-36.
- Beach, D. S. 1975. *Managing People at Work*. New York: McGraw –Hill.
- Beckhard, R. 1969. *Organizational Development: Strategies and Models*. Reading, M.A: Addison Wesley.
- Bohlande, G. Snell, S. and Sherman, S. 2001. *Managing Human Resource*. Australia: South Western College.
- Borg, W. and Gall, M. 1989. *Educational research*. New York: Longman.
- Campbell, J. P. 1988. Training design for performance improvement. In *Productivity in Organisations*, ed. J. P. Campbell, R. J. Campbell, and Associates, pp. 177-216.
- Campbell, J.P. 1988. Training design for performance improvement. *In Productivity in Organizations*, ed. J. P. Campbell, R. J. Campbell, and Associates, pp. 177-216.
- Carrel, M.R. and Kuzmits F.C. 1986. *Personnel: Human Resource Management*. Toronto: Merril Publishing Company.
- Castetter, W.B. 1992. *The Personnel Function in Educational Administration*. New York: Macmillan.
- Christensen, R 2006. *Roadmap to strategic HR: Turning a great idea into a business reality*. New York. Amacom.

- Coetzee, M. 2007. Managing ETD in the workplace. In Coetzee M (Editor). (2007). Practising education, training and development in South African organizations (Pp.164-211). Cape Town. Juta.
- Cohen, L. and Manion L. 1987. *Research Methods in Education*. London. Croom Helm.
- Crosswell, J.W. 1994. *Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Research Approaches*. California: Sage Publications.
- Davenport, T. & Prusak, L. (1996) Working knowledge. Boston, MA : Harvard Business School Press.
- Davenport, T.H. (1993). *Process innovation: Reengineering work through information Technology*.
- Davis, J.R and Davis, A. B. 1998. *Effective Training strategies: comprehensive Guide to maximizing Learning in Organisation*. San Francisco: Berret-Koeeehler Publishers.
- Dickinson, R. 2002. E-learning: A market opportunity for tertiary? IT @ UPE, Information Technology Newsletter for UPE Staff. Issue 2. August.
- Du Toit, D.F.P. and Van der Walddt, 1997. Public Management the Grassroots. Cape Town. Juta & Company Limited
- Dunn, J .D. and Stephens, E .C. 1972. *Management of Personnel: Manpower Management and Organization Behaviour*. Toronto: McGraw-Hill.
- Eckles, R.W. Carmichael, R.L. Sachet, B.R. 1974. Essentials of Management for First-line supervisors. London. John Wiley and Sons.
- Erasmus B.J., Loedolff, PVZ; Mda, T., Nel, P.S., 2006. *Managing training and development in South Africa*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press South Africa.
- Erasmus, B.J., Loedolff, P.V.S, Mda, T., Nel, P.S., 2007. *Managing Training and Development in South Africa, 4th ed*. Pretoria: Oxford University Press South Africa.
- Ernst, E.A., 2000. *Skills Development, Handbook for SETA's, Employers and Employees*.

- George Jnr C.S, Cole, K. 1992. *Supervision in Action: the act of Mananging*. Printice Hall: London.
- Gerber, P.D, Hel P.S, Van Wyk P.S. 1996. *Human Resources Management*. International Thomson Publishing (Southern Africa) Johannesburg.
- Gerber, P.D. Nel, P.S. and Wyk, P.S. 1987. *Mannekragbestuur*. Johannesburg. Southern.
- Goldstein, I. and Ford, J. 2002. *Training in organizations*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Goldstein, I. L. 1991. Training in organisations. *In Handbook of Industrial/ Organisational Psychology*, ed. M. D. Dunnete, L. M. Hough, Vol. 2. 2nd ed. In press.
- Guthrie, J.W. and Reed, R.J. 1986. *Education Administration and Policy. Effective Leadership for American Education*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall.
- Hellriegee, D. Slocum J.W.jr., 1996. *Management* . South Western College. Ohio. Kogan Pag in South Africa. College for competence 2000. Pretoria, South Africa.
- Howell, W. C., Cooke, N. J. 1989. Training the human information processor: a review of cognitive models. Scc Goldstein 1989, pp. 121-82.
- Howell, W.C., Cooke, N.J. 1989. Training the human information processor: a review of cognitive models. Scc Goldstein 1989, pp. 121-82.
- Hsu, E. 1989. Role-event gaming and simulation in management education: a conceptual framework. *Simul. Games* 20:409-38.
- Jerlin, K., 1997. *The Education, Training and Development Process*. Pretoria: Kagiso Publishers.
- Johnson, and McClelland, 1994. *Learning to achieve*. Foresman.
- Karve, S. (2013). *Planning and Organization Training Events*. American Society for Training and Development. Issue 1308.

- Kelly, K.; Clark, B.; Brown, V. and Sitzia, J. (2003). Methodology matters: Good practice in the conduct and reporting of survey research. *International Journal for Quality in Health Care*. Vol. 15, No. 3. pp. 261-266.
- Kraiger, K. 1988. Implications of research on expert/novice differences for training assessment and design. Paper presented at the Annu. Meet. Soc. Indust. Org. Psychol.
- Kreitner, R. and Kinicki, A. 1998. Organizational behavior. Boston, Mass.: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.
- Krejcie, R.V. and Morgan, D.W. 1970. Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*. Vol. 30, 607-610.
- Kroon, J.K. 1994. *General Management. HAUM Tertiary*. Pretoria.
- Lance, C. E., Mayfield, D.L., Gould, R. B., Lynskey, M. C. 1991. Global versus decomposed estimates of cross-job retraining time. *Hum. Perform.* Vol. 4:71-88.
- Layton. T. (2003). Performance management as a strategic tool. Public Service Commission – Service Review. 1 (3): 26-30
- Leedy, D.P. 1985. *Practical Research. Planning and design*. New York: Macmillan.
- Leedy, D.P. 1993. *Practical Research. Planning and Design*. New York: Macmillan.
- Light, P.C., Hubbard E.J. April 8, 2002. *The capacity building challenge*
- Lipperr, R.C. 1989. Expert systems: tutors, tools and tutees. *J. Computer-Based Instr.* 16:11-19
- Mabey C, and Salaman G, (1995). *Strategic Human Resource Management*. Blackwell Business Oxford.
- Main, A. 1985. *Educational Staff Development*. London: Croom Helm.
- McGehee, W., Thayer, P.W. 1961. Training in 1961. *Training in Business and Industry*.
- Meyer, M. and Botha, E. 2000. *Organisation development and transformation in South Africa*. Durban: Butterworths.

- Mumford, M. D., Weeks, J. L., Harding, F. D., Fleishman, E. A. 1987. Measuring occupational difficulty: a construct validation against training criteria. *J. Appl. Psychol.* 72:578-87
- Ndlela, L.T and Du Toit, A.S.A. 2001. Establishing a knowledge management programme for competitive advantage in an enterprise. *International Journal of Information and Management.* 21 (2), 151-165.
- Nel, H., Ngambu M, Williams, B. 2004. *Journal of Public Administration.* Vol 39 No 3. New York. Wiley.
- Noe, A.R., Hollenbeck, J.R., Gerhart, B. and Wright, P.M. 2006. *Human Resource Management.* New York. McGraw-Hill.
- Owen, R.G., 1987. *Organisational Behaviour in Education.* Third edition. Englewood cliffs: Printice-hall.
- Peel, M., 1992. *Career Development and Planning.* London: McGraw–Hill
- Prior, J. 1994. *Gower Handbook of Training and Development.* Gower Publishing Company. Hampshire.
- Rae, L., 1983. *The Skills of Training: A Guide for Managers and Practitioners.* London. Gower Publishing Company Limited.
- Rawlins, C., 1992. *Introduction to Management.* California. Harper Perennial.
- Rollinson, D., Edwards, D., Broadfield, A. 1998. *Organisational Behaviour and Analysis.* Addison Wesley Longman. New York.
- Rothwell, W.J. and Kazanas, H.C. 1992. *Mastering the Instructional Design Process.* San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass
- Russell, L. (2015). Leadership Training. Association for Talent Development workshop series.
- Sangweni, S. and Balia, D. 1999. *Fighting corruption.* Pretoria, South Africa: Unisa Press.
- Sangweni, S.S. 2003. Performance management as a Leadership and Management Tool. *Public Service Commission – Service Review.* 2 (3): 20-23

- Schumacher, S., McMillan, J., Singh, J. and McMillan, J. 1993. Study guide to accompany McMillan, Schumacher [s] Research in education, a conceptual introduction, third edition. New York, Harper Collins
- Senge, P. 1990. *The Fifth Discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. Doubleday. London.
- Sheal, P. 1994. *Staff Training Causes*. London. Kogoni Page.
- Simeka Management Consulting. 2002. Performance Management System (PMS) Information Manual. Polokwane: Limpopo Provincial Government.
- Solomon, J. and George, C. 1999. Attachment disorganization. New York: Guilford Publications.
- Sonnenfeld, J.A., Peiperl, M. A. 1988. Staffing policy as a strategic response: a typology of career systems. *Acad. Manage. Rev.* 13:588-600.
- Sparrow, J. A. 1989. The measurement of job profile similarity for the prediction of transfer of learning: a research note. *J. Occup. Psychol.* 62:337-41.
- Stewart, G. (1996). *Communicating for the professions*. Kenwyn, South Africa: Juta
- Stout, S. 1993. *Managing Training*. Kogoni Page. London.
- Swanepoel, B., Erasmus, B., Van Wyk, M, Schenk, H., 2005. *South Africa Human Resource Management: Theory and Practice*. 3rd ed. Juta. Pretoria.
- Swanson, R.A. 2001. *The theory challenge Facing Human Resource Development Professions*. Innovative session 8. (AHRD conference, 2001).
- Tabbron, A. Macauley, S. Cook, S. 1997. Making mentoring work. *Training for quality*, 5(1), 6-9.
- Tannenbaum S.I., Yukl, G. 1992. *Training and Development in the work organisation*. State University of New York. Albany.

- The Batho Pele Handbook: A Service Delivery Improvement Guide. 2003. Pretoria: Department of Public Service & Administration - Civil service.
- Thomas B. 1992. *Total Quality Culture and Quality Trainer*. Sydney: McGraw-Hill and Toronto: Merrill Publishing Company.
- Tyers, R. 1995. Implications of EU expansion for European agricultural policies, trade and welfare. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Van Dyk P.S, Nel PS, Van Z Loedolff P, Haasbroek 1997. *Training Management: a multidisciplinary approach to Human Resource Development in South Africa 2nd ed.* International Thomson Publishing (Southern Africa). Johannesburg.
- Van Dyk, P.S., Nel P.S and Loedolff, P.V.Z. 1992. *Training Management: Multi-Disciplinary Approach to Human Resource Development in South Africa*. Halfway House: Southern Africa.
- Van Dyk, P.S., Nel PS, Van Z Loedolff & Haasbroek, C.D. 2001. *Training Management*. Oxford. Cape Town.
- Walton, 1991. Academies and society in Southern Sung China. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press
- Webb, L.D., Greer, J.T., Montello, M.S. and Norton, M.S. 1987. *Personnel Administration in Education. New Issues in Human Resource Management*. Columbus (Ohio): Merrill Publishing Co.
- Willis, S.L. 1997. Societal Mechanisms for Maintaining Competence in Old Age. New York: Springer publishing.
- Wimbiscus, J. (1994, Mar.). *The classification and description of performance improvement Scholars: A comprehensive view of human resource development* (Report No. 63). St. Paul, MN: University of Minnesota Human Resource Development Research Center.

Zaccarelli, B.H.E. 1988. *Training Managers to Train: A Practical Guide to Improving Employee Performance*. California: Crisp Publications.

Ziderman, A. and Albrecht, D. 1995. *Financing universities in developing countries*. Washington, D.C.: Falmer Press.

Electronic Media

http://www.un.org/esa/coordination/public_multi.html. Internet

http://www.gdrc.org/uen/capacity_define.html. Internet

[www.sagoodnews.co.za/.../the value of mentorship.html](http://www.sagoodnews.co.za/.../the_value_of_mentorship.html). Internet

www.wikipedia.org/wiki/job_rotation. Internet

http://www.alumnus.caltech.edu/rouda/T3_OD.html

<http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/knowledge>

http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Process_Management

<http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Systems>

<http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Tool>

<http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/skills>

http://www.gdrc.org/capacity_define.html

<http://www.gmi.org/research/capabuild.html>

<http://www.gmi.org/research/capbuild.htm> (Daniel Richett, Global mapping Instructional)

http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/management/Ob-Or/Organizational_Development

http://www.managementhelp.org/org_chng/od_field/OD_defn.htm

<http://www.answers.com/topic/organizationaldevelopment>

<http://www.polity.org.za/polity/govdocs/white-papers/transform.htm/>.

LEGISLATION

Department of Labor. 2001. *National Skills Development Strategy: Leadership park 2001*.

Pretoria.

Department of Labor. 2004. *Human Resource Strategy for South Africa. A nation at work for a better life for all*. Pretoria (www.labor.gov.za)

Development of Labor. 2004. *National Skills Development Strategy*. 1 April 2005 to 31 March 2010. Pretoria (www.labor.gov.za)

George Jnr C.S, Cole, K. 1992. *Supervision in Action: the act of Managing*. Printice Hall. London

RSA. 1998. *Local Government: Municipal Structures Act (No. 117 of 1998)*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA. 1998. *Skills Development Act (No. 97 of 1998)*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA. 2000. *Local Government: Municipal Systems Act (No. 32 of 2000)*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA. 2005. *National Skills Development Strategy 2005-2010*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

RSA. 1997. *White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery*. Government Printers. Pretoria.

RSA. 1995. *South African Qualification Authority Act (No. 58 of 1995)*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PERSONNEL OF VHEMBE DISRICT MUNICIPALITY

Introduction

This Questionnaire seeks to find out your views, perceptions and experiences about the **Human Resources Development** (*staff training and skills development*) function in your Department.

Your response will be used in providing an elevation of such important function, in order to provide a basis for informed decisions to improve upon this function.

1. Please feel free to provide honest answers to the best of your knowledge experience and opinion.

- Some questions require that you simply place an “x” against the item/issue that applies in your case.
- Some questions request both an “x” and further clarification, or a statement.
- Please feel free to provide more details to provide clarity for the answers you give any question.

2. It is **not** necessary that we know your name in order to achieve the objectives of this study. We are more interested in finding out about your knowledge, experiences and views about the human resources development function in your Department.

Whatever information you might provide shall remain confidential and the late collected shall be destroyed after the research.

3. This questionnaire does not contain offensive material.
4. We sincerely thank you for your assistance in this study.

A: YOUR DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Please indicate with an “X” in the last block against the correct answer.

1	Institutional status category of your position	1	Top management	
		2	Supervisory	
		3	Auxiliary Staff	
		4	Other (staff)	
2	Gender	1	Male	
		2	Female	
3	Your Age category	1	Under 20 years	
		2	20-30	
		3	31-40	
		4	41-50	
		5	Over 50	
4	Your highest Educational Qualification	1	Primary	
		2	Secondary	
		3	Diploma	
		4	Degree	
		5	Hons	
		6	Masters/ Doctorate	

Other (Specify) _____

B. NATURE OF YOUR DEPARTMENT’S HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

Please mark with an “X” that which applies. Provide any additional information in the last block.

				Please Explain
1	Are you aware about the National Skills Development Strategy?	Yes	No	
2	Are you aware about the Human Resource Development Strategy?	Yes	No	
3.1	Is there any policy in your Department that addresses Human Resource Development that you know of?	Yes	No	
3.2.	Is it accessible?	Yes	No	
3.3.	Do you understand the content of the policy?	Yes	No	
4	Is there any <i>skills development plan</i> in your Department?	Yes	No	
5	<p>If “Yes”</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • When was the Plan drawn? <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is it in line with the National Skills Development Strategy 	Yes	No	
6	Does your department have a training section?	Yes	No	
7	Does your Department have a human resources development facilitator?	Yes	No	

8	Do you get any briefing on human resources development policy and plans	Yes	No	
9	Is there any human resource development (training) work conducted in your Department?	Yes	No	By whom?

10. Who is responsible for drawing up Human resourced development policy and plans in your Department? (You can tick more than 1)

1	Top Management	
2	Middle Management	
3	Staff	
4	Staff representatives/Unions	
5	All of the above	
5	None of these	
6	External body	Provide the name/s

11.1. Do you participate in such policy

Yes	No
-----	----

 formation?

11.2. If NO, provide reason for not participating

12. What does your Department's human resources development programme involve?

(Mark the appropriate spaces)

1	Policy	
2	Objectives	
3	Personnel improvement areas	
4	Target groups	

13. How often is personnel training and development is undertaken in your Department ?

1	Once a year	
2	Twice a year	
3	More than twice a year	
4	None of all	
5	Other (specify)	

14. How many times have you undergone skills development and training?

	Skill development and training	Number of times
1	Since joining Vhembe District Municipality	
2	Since joining your Department	
3	Over the past 5 years	

C. APPLICATION OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT FUNCTION.

1. Were you inducted when you joined VDM?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

2. Who inducted you?

4.1.	Immediate senior	
4.2.	Colleague	
4.3.	Staff member from another section	
4.4.	None of the above	

Specify _____

3. What did the program entail? (tick the appropriate spaces)

3.1.	Safety training	
3.2.	Guided tour of the building	
3.3.	Introduction to the key members of the staff	
3.4.	Introduction to the terms and conditions e.g. holiday entitlement	
3.5.	Legal and compliance requirement	
3.6.	Specific job role training	
3.7.	Other(Specify)	

4. Were you given the timetable program for your induction program?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

4.1.If yes, was the program completed?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

5. How long did the induction program take?

5.1.	1 Day	
5.2.	2 Days	
5.3.	1 Week	
5.4.	2 Weeks	
5.5.	1 Month	

Other (Specify)_____

6. Is there any structured informal learning program within your department?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

7. Is there any structured formal learning within your department?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

8. Are there bursaries for the employees?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

9. How are the beneficiaries selected?

By the management	
Through merit	
By unions	

Other (Specify)_____

10. Are you comfortable with the method used for selection?

Yes		No	
-----	--	----	--

10.1 If no, why?_____

D: ASSESSMENT OF THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT FUNCTION

1. How would you generally rate the job performance of the staff after undergoing training and skills development course/programme? (Mark the appropriate space)

PERFORMANCE AREA		RATING			
		Significantly improved	Mildly improved	Hardly any improvement	Unable to judge
		4	3	2	1
1	Competence				
2	Overall efficiency				

3	Completion of job task (time)				
4	Dedication ,commitment and motivation				

2. What are the factors behind the above performance?

Issue	Excellent	Good	Fair	None
	4	3	2	1
Quality of Training				
Relationship of the training to job requirements				
Quality of after- training support systems				
Staff professional attitudes				
Quality of job supervision				

3. What areas of staff training and development would you like to see your Department focus on more, in order to achieve the greatest level of capacity development impact? (Please rate in order of importance-i.e.

1: Very Important 2: Important 3: Not Important

	AREA	Very important 3	Important 2	Not important 1
1	Job-focused workshops (group)			
2	Generic job performance workshops (group)			
3	On-the-job training [coaching, etc.] (individual)			
	Learnerships (individual)			
	Self-study (while on the job) (individual)			
4	Formal training courses (certificate)(Group/individual)			
5	Academic training (higher education (individual, with study leave) [diploma/degree/postgraduate]			
6	Other			

4. How do you rate performance of the after-training support system, and how would you like it to be done better?

Current system		Rating		How better to be done
		Satisfactory	Not Satisfactory	
1	Follow-up by trainers			
2	Internal support mechanisms			
3	Attitudes of managers/supervisors			
4	Other issues			

5. Please provide any additional comments (views/opinions) with regard to the following:

(You may answer in your mother tongue)

a.

<p>The main challenges about the current system for human resources development</p>	<p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>
---	---

b.

The main reasons the current system are not as effective as they should be
--	---

c.

Suggestions/ recommendations for a better designed and managed system for human resources development
--	---

d.

Any other comment
-------------------	----------------------------------

	<p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>
--	---

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION AND CO-OPERATION

<p>The main challenges about the current system for human resources development</p>	<p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>
---	--

Any other comment	<p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>
-------------------	--

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION AND CO-OPERATION