Human Resource Management in African Public Sector: Current State and Future Direction

Gelase Mutahaba
Editor

A Tool for Developing Capacities for Managing the Human Resource in Africa’s Public Sector Institutions
This Tool for Human Resource Management Capacity Development in Africa’s Public Sector Institutions has been compiled from papers presented during the Workshops organised by the African Public Sector Human Resource Managers’ Network (APS-HRMnet). Its Publication has been made possible through funding from the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) to whom the APS-HRMnet is greatly appreciative.

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Preface and acknowledgements

Human Resource Management (HRM) is an area that has suffered much neglect for over five decades of reforming the public service in the post-colonial Africa. African countries did not recognize the strategic position of the human resource manager in the formulation and implementation of organizational strategies. The role of staff responsible for managing people in work places was confined to routine functions about staff entitlements, pay increments, maintaining discipline and the like. In many African Public Services, the human resource was not treated as a valuable asset but a cost center and human resources managers were, and in many respects continue, to be marginalized. This neglect has had disastrous consequences on various public sector reform interventions that African countries have been embarking on.

The need to strengthen the HRM function in African countries had been recognized by many fora, including the Seventh Africa Governance Forum (AGF 7) which took place in Ouagadougou (Burkina Faso) at the end of October 2007; and the Roundtable Conference of the Africa Association for Public Administration and Management (AAPAM) which was held in Accra Ghana from 6th to 10th October 2008. AGF 7 recognized the need for institutional capacity development, complemented by human resource development to be at the center of the process of making States capable of meeting their citizens’ developmental aspirations. On the other hand, the AAPAM conference issued a communiqué calling for competent, knowledgeable, well-motivated, and innovative human resources in the African public service. With the increasing need to modernize and professionalize the human resource function in the public service, human resource managers took initiative to establish an Africa Public Sector Human Resource Managers’ Network (APS-HRM-net) and urged African governments to accord it the required support. Similarly on 23rd-27th February 2009 in Arusha Tanzania, delegates attending a training workshop on “Enhancing Professionalization of Human Resource Management in the Public Service in Africa” recommended for the strengthening of HRM function in the public service.

This book is a critically needed tool for developing the management of HR in the African Public Service. It is a continuation of several initiatives undertaken to professionalize HRM in the public service in Africa. It is an output of series of workshops presentations by key experts and senior practitioners and leaders of civil service departments in Africa and beyond mobilized by the APS-HRMinet. Most of the workshops and conferences were held between 2007 and 2013. They were organized by the APS-HRMinet in collaboration with the various host countries in Africa with support from the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), AAPAM, Africa Management Development Institutes Network (AMandin), and Africa Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF).

The editor is extremely grateful to all contributors and various organizations and Governments of African countries for supporting workshop proceedings in which the papers that led to the birth of this book were delivered. I am most grateful to UNDESA for accepting the request of the APS-HRMinet to provide funding for the publication process. Finally, thanks are due to my two PhD students Mr. Parestico Pastory and Mr. Edwin Babeiya for their invaluable role in the preliminary editorial process and compilation of this book draft.

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Foreword

Human Resource Managers must be competent and equipped with negotiation skills to effectively listen to the needs of public servants and their leadership and help public sector institutions meet those requirements within available means. The Public Service and its leadership must bear in mind that Human Resource Managers help Public sector institutions comply with labour laws, safety concerns, health issues, and other public service related laws, regulations, and policies that change regularly. In this way, the Human Resource Managers are champions of rule of law, respect for human rights, and boosters of morale and productivity in the Public service if they carry out their functions effectively. They hold influential power in the public service be it in Ministries, in local governments, in government projects, and in all public sector institutions. They can lead to recruiting competent public servants or poor ones. They can plan and conduct training and other staff development programs that will develop a transformational and innovative public servant or create a bureaucratic sluggish and demoralized work force in the public service. That many African countries have for long neglected the development of a highly strategic competent Human Resource Management cadre was a mistake that we have realized and resolved to address.

Africa is on an unprecedented development trajectory that is witnessing transformation in many respects. To sustain the process of positive change, each country requires an innovative transformational and development oriented public service at regional, national, local and community levels. The public servants manning this innovative public service must be in the hands of very competent and capable human resource managers. Therefore one of the areas of Africa’s public service that must undergo radical transformation is the management of human resources beginning with the Human resource managers themselves. They are critical not only because they manage the most important resource (public Servants) but they also are at the vanguard of shaping the leadership capabilities, professionalism, ethics and integrity in the Public Service. Public Service leaders are not only in Ministries. They are in local governments as well. They are in hospitals and small clinics and health centers. Public Service leaders are in schools, universities, commissions etc. They are in the smallest community level projects. And all of Public service leaders and public servants are under the management and administration of Human Resource Managers.

It is clear then that Human resource managers must assume a more vital strategic role inside the Public service in order to be able to play the role of promoting innovation and transformation in the public service. They need to be at the forefront of building and strengthening capacities and competences that can give the public service an impetus for innovation and developing a mix of resources, processes, and value systems in the public service that make it possible for innovation, change, and transformation to take place and be sustained. Driving creativity and innovation should be number one concern for Africa’s Public sector human resource managers.

Critical things Human Resource Managers should do in order to promote innovation in the Public Service on a sustainable basis include; building a culture of innovation, recruiting creative and innovating people in the public service, training and developing staff to be creative and innovative, rewarding efforts and results of innovation, and designing and operating a system of performance evaluation that is based on the search for innovation. They need to create organisational arrangements or structures that are conducive to innovation. And in order for all this to take place effectively there must be a strategy for innovation. This book is part of the tools of Africa to develop a dynamic capable human resource management cadre that will continue shaping the continent’s public service to remain in line with the transformations that are required for Africa’s future. I have been privileged as Minister and Matron for the APS-HRMnet, to have been associated with the processes that have given birth to this important tool. It is commendable to those that will seek to develop the Human Resource management Capabilities in Africa’s Public Service.
Ms. Prisca Sezi Mbaguta (Hon.), Matron of the Africa Public Sector Human Resource Managers’ Network, Minister of State, Ministry of Public Service, Republic of Uganda
Introduction

Gelase Mutahaba

Despite the pivotal role that human resources play towards promoting improved public services delivery, human resource functions in public services of many African countries is accorded a peripheral status such that it features very little in strategic decision making.

Since 1960s when most African countries attained independence, there have been concerted efforts by African governments to bring about socio-economic development. Such efforts have involved, among other considerations, the formulation of various courses of action in form of policies, strategies, development plans as well as national development visions all aiming at promoting economic growth and poverty reduction. The formulation of these courses of action has also involved the creation of administrative structures for overseeing, supervising and coordinating their implementation. Historically, an overemphasis on expanding the administrative machinery of the government immediately after independence was influenced by a need to fill huge administrative gaps that were left by the colonial state, which had paid little attention to establishing the administration that would cater for the interest of the citizenry. It was, for instance, on this basis that in the post-independence era many African countries found themselves with an excrescence of public bureaucracies such that instead of being an engine for socio-economic development, these bureaucracies became a burden to taxpayers especially with regard to wage bills.

Owing to these challenges, the adoption of civil service reforms in early 1990s, later to be known as public service reforms became inevitable. It is worth noting that the early phase of the reforms focused primarily on downsizing the government; but also underscored the need to rationalize African public services. It is through the civil service reforms that many African countries such as Tanzania, Ghana, Kenya, Zambia, just to mention some, experienced a significant reduction in the size of their civil service departments. The adoption of public service reforms has proven to be fruitful to the functioning of bureaucracies in the continent in many respects. For instance, it has promoted the inculcation of the meritocracy culture in the public service in areas such as recruitment and selection, promotion, record keeping, performance appraisal as well as employees’ compensation. This is a big step towards modernizing the continent’s public service.

While numerous achievements have been realized since the adoption of public service reforms, there are still major challenges within African public service systems which reduce the efficiency and productivity of the civil service. One of the major challenges is related to an enhancement of professionalization in managing human resource. While there is a growing consensus among managers, academics and human resource practitioners across the continent that human resources are the key and potential resource for effective delivery of public services and implementation of development initiatives such as national visions and poverty reduction strategies, experiences from public services in most of African countries suggest limited application of professionalism in managing human resources. Despite the pivotal role that human resources play towards promoting improved public services delivery,
human resource functions in public services of many African countries is accorded a peripheral status such that it features very little in strategic decision making. Weaknesses are also commonplace in the manner human resource managers handle human resource obligations in aspects such as attracting and retaining potential human resources. Given the growth of the private sector in the continent, which implies that the government is no longer the only destination for university and college graduates, there emerges a challenge to human resource managers in the continent of ensuring that the public sector maintains its attractive image to the best brains. It is imperative to note that the efficiency of the public sector in the continent depends, inter alia, on the efforts by human resource managers to ensure that the public sector is staffed by best talented and motivated human resource who can spearhead government commitment of promoting quality delivery of public services.

This book underscores the significance of enhancing professionalization in managing human resources in African Public service. It attempts to highlight the trends and progress in professionalizing the management of human resources, the existing challenges, but also the book proposes remedial measures and necessarily steps that ought to be given due consideration in making African public service an effective engine in promoting the delivery of quality public services. The book is organized into three parts. Part one provides a comprehensive overview of the state of human resource management in Africa's public sector and the changes it has gone through overtime. It is organized in five chapters.

In chapter one Benson Bana traces the evolution of human resource management model, highlights some of the key roles and competences of public service HR-Managers as well as the challenges they are facing in Africa. The chapter shows that the philosophy and practice of managing staff have been changing overtime and so is the case with the roles of people entrusted with management of employment relationships. The author insists that Human Resource Management model is distinctive from previous models due to its strategic orientation, comprehensiveness in managing people and its emphasize on striving to winning employees commitment than compliance. Bana argues that for the HR-Managers to contribute effectively in transforming the public service, they need to be informed by these key defining features of the HRM-model. He also identifies and elaborates a number of roles for public HR-managers including strategic, consulting, research and developmental roles. The author further maintains that human resource management (HRM) is not the every “tom, dick and harry” job but a profession in its own place. Therefore, people responsible for managing employment relationships should possess necessary expertise and competences in managing employees. This is however not yet the case in many public services in Africa. In winding up the chapter, the lack of institutionalization of HRM-model and continuing dominance of personnel management practices in many public services is cited to be among the key challenges undermining the contribution of HR-managers in transforming the public service.

In contract to the preceding chapter, Neil Reichenberg examines in chapter 2 the transformation of HRM across the globe. The author argues that although there is a remarkable progress towards HRM, with notable shift from service to process and strategic
orientations, there is much work remaining to be done. The chapter is affixed with the International Public Management Association for Human Resources (IPMA-HR) HR-transformation framework to enable the people responsible with managing staff to transform HR-function.

In chapter 3 John Lavelle discusses the trends and challenges for HRM in the broader public sector in the International Arena. The chapter adopts a hybrid approach: in part it offers a practitioner’s perspective of what is known to be happening – what works and what falls short of expectations - and; in part it touches on what is emanating from academia and the professional human resource (HR) journals and magazines. The author shows that the gap on employment models in public and private organizations is increasingly becoming blurred especially in OECD countries with the public services adopting employment practices that blend career-based employment systems (traditionally private) and position-based system(traditionally public). Also in this chapter the author scrutinizes the undertaking of four HRM practice areas in the public sector including: Compensation and Grading Systems; the Performance Appraisal Process; Rewards & Recognition Schemes; and the Appointment Processes for Senior Civil Servant.

Chapter 4 presents a longitudinal assessment of the extent to which African countries’ efforts to reform the public service over five decades have given attention to HRM issues. In so doing the author, Gelase Mutahaba, deviates from the previous chapters that have primarily focused on broader theoretical/conceptual and practical issues on HRM transformation by giving a practical experience of the HRM function. While acknowledging the efforts that have been made by African countries towards ensuring that the public services provide quality services, the author reveals that for over the five decades since most African countries attained independence and started taking measures to reform their public services, there has been a blatant weakness, either by design or by default of not giving adequate and appropriate attention to human resource management issues. The author’s main plea is that as most African countries continue reforming their public services, human resource management function needs to be given the same weight as other considerations so as to address human resource-related challenges which affect, in several ways, the attainment of the main goals of public sector reforms in the continent.

In the Chapter winding up the first part of the book (chapter 5) the authors, Odette Ramsigh& Ogochukwu Nzewi highlight some aspects of HRM in the Africa’s public service which lead them to an argument that HRM environment in Africa is challenging, both in terms of dealing with people as well as the institutional, political and social environment. The authors thus contend that with these environmental challenges, HR practitioners find themselves in the middle of frustrations of management in one hand and the dissatisfaction of employees on the other. Ramsigh & Nzewi finally maintain that while it is acknowledged that there have been efforts in many African states to strengthen HRM in the public sector, the successes and outcomes of these efforts will ultimately be when service delivery and development goals and policies become reality for the teeming population of African citizens.
Basing on the philosophy that human resources are the most precious resources towards ensuring the efficiency and effectiveness of African public service, Part Two of this book (consisting of six chapters) echoes the need to promote professionalism in African Public Services. This part reiterates the virtues of a professional civil service by insisting that having African Public services that are characterized by professionalism is key to delivery of quality services to the public. Driven by the dire need of developing and institutionalizing the culture of professionalism in the continent’s civil service, Chapter six, authored by John-Mary Kauzya provides some reflections on strengthening capacities for professionalism in African Public Sector. He notes that despite the fact that there have been some attempts to make African public services professional, that ambition is far from being realized as the public sector is yet to be an enviable body whose practices can be cherished not only by the general public, but also by other actors such as the private sector. His position is that in order for professionalism to be part and parcel of African Public sector, various elements such as competence, character, attitude, conduct and excellence ought to be given much attention. Kauzya’s appeal is also that while incorporating the above virtuous elements into African Public service, it is equally important that supportive institutional arrangements such as structures, laws, rules and regulations be strengthened. He winds up his chapter by advocating for the developing of professional bodies on the basis that they will play a crucial role in promoting the application of professionalism in the public sector.

Chapter 7, authored by Florence Wachira, calls for the use of African Public Service Charter in the promotion of professionalism in African civil service and proposes strategic considerations through which professionalism can be bolstered in African Public Services. In addition to discussing the ways through which public sector human resource managers can promote professionalism in the implementation of the charter, she maintains that the African Public Service Charter is a very useful tool, which if effectively implemented, could facilitate modernizing the public service thereby making it more efficient and effective. The author concludes by proposing strategic actions which, if taken, would help human resource professionals to play their rightful roles in making the implementation of the Africa Public service Charter more meaningful. These include: matching rhetoric with action, decentralizing policy making ‘think globally, act locally’, refashioning delivery of key HR services, paradigm shift in training and development and continuing research to inform policy.

In chapter 8, John Lavelle also discusses the need to professionalize African Public Service and his discussion centres mainly on the notions of hard and soft power, which he construes as the secret to more efficient, effective and professional African Public services. His submission is that making African Public services professional involves leadership that can appropriately set a clear dichotomy in the application of both soft power, which involves influencing and shaping the behaviour of others; and the use of hard power which entails the promulgation and enforcement of policies and rules, deepening analytical capacity and strengthening the use of metrics to gauge performance.
Chapter 9, authored by Issa Faisal directs its attention to a link between professionalizing Human Resource Management and Implementing the Public Service Charter in the Public Service in Africa, using lessons from Tanzania. He argues that there have been parallel developments in professionalizing Tanzania’s public service which have involved in one hand the incorporation of the African Public Service Charter and the adoption of public service reforms on the other. As regards to the latter, the author cites various initiatives that have been introduced with the purpose of professionalizing the country’s public services. He identifies such initiatives as: Public Service Management and Employment Policy (2008), Public Service Act No 8 of 2002 and the Public Service Regulations of (2003) and the adoption of Open Performance Appraisal System (OPRAS). He also shows that following the 2008 amendments of the Public Service Act, new bodies were created whereas the roles of other organs were redefined. He identifies the recruitment secretariat as new body that was created but also shows that Public Service Commission’s role was redefined to that of an oversight body. In this chapter, Faisal also argues that despite all the efforts highlighted above, there are still various challenges (facing especially human resource managers) in implementing African Public Service Charter and promoting professionalism. The main challenges identified include: coping with the rapid expansion of services and employment, ensuring egalitarian perspective on pay, linking pay to performance, promoting leadership capacity in public services, limiting the dependence on external financial support in funding public service programmes and making human resource management a strategic function in the public service.

Like all preceding chapters in part two, Chapter 10, authored by Adebabay Gebrekidan also discusses efforts to promote and strengthen professionalism in the civil service, with a focus on Ethiopia. The author points out that 1960s was a remarkable period in Ethiopian civil service history as it was this period that modern personnel orders, policies and directives; together with the Central Personnel Agency were introduced. He shows that these reforms aimed at establishing uniform and rule-driven civil service in Ethiopia and that the reforms focused on establishing uniform personnel management system throughout the country, introducing western type of merit principles as well as the principle of equal pay for equal value of work. Gebrekidan argues that these reform efforts were shattered in 1974 following the Ethiopian revolution which led to the establishment of a socialist state that abused many of the merit principles.

Gebrekidan thus shows that it was up to 1991 when the incumbent government seized power that meritocracy principles in the public sector were revived and that since then Ethiopian government has been engaging in civil service reform for the last ten years in various areas such as Top Management System Reform Sub-program ; Human Resource Management System Reform Sub-Program ; Service Delivery improvement Reform Sub-Program and Government Expenditure and Control reform Su-Program. As regards promoting professionalism in the Public Service, the author cites three main interventions namely the Business Process Reengineering (BPR), the Result-oriented Performance Management Change Initiative and HRM reform initiative.
Gebrekidan however argues that professionalism is yet to be institutionalized in Ethiopian civil service and that for this to happen there are key issues that need to be addressed. He outlines these issues as fighting corruption in the public sector, installing effective performance management systems and implementing a comprehensive merit principles framework, just to mention some. He concludes by charting the way forward in which he gives emphasis on increasing the capacity of the ministry responsible for civil service so as to enable it play a pivotal role in inculcating professionalism in the public sector, improving the capacity of HR officers and line managers as well as strengthening strategic planning and management.

Chapter 11, authored by David Ssonko also advocates for professionalism in the civil service by discussing ethics, accountability, transparency, integrity and their link with professionalism in the Public Service in Uganda. Apart from emphasizing the importance of the above aspects towards promoting professionalism in the public sector, he argues that there are some practices and behaviours such as corruption, conflict of interest and human resource management malpractices which undermine the efforts to professionalize Uganda’s Public Service. Ssonko notes that despite some efforts that have been made by Ugandan government such as the creation of Inspectorate of Government, Directorate of Ethics and Integrity; the Auditor General; Directorate of Public Prosecution; and Public Accounts Committee, the success of such measures will largely depend on the serious implementation and enforcement mechanisms which the government must put in place.

Part three of this book looks at some HRM aspects which are key, not only to promoting professionalism in African Public service, but also to ensuring a more flexible, effective and efficient African Public Service. It is made up of five chapters.

In chapter 12, Issa Faisal discusses performance management in the Public Service while drawing experiences from Tanzania. He examines the manner and extent to which performance management has been embraced as a key aspect in promoting a more efficient and effective public service, especially following the country’s embarking on public sector reforms. He thus gives an overview of implementing performance management systems in Tanzania’s public service by highlighting the results obtained so far and challenges faced in managing performance in the public service. Issa posits that since the installation of performance management components into the country’s public service notable progress has been made especially in areas such as: the establishment of executive agencies and that Strategic Planning and MTEF have been harmonised and integrated. He thus argues that these developments have eventually paved way for successful implementation and use of performance management systems in MDAs. Issa then argues that these achievements notwithstanding, performance management systems still faces many challenges especially in aspects such as strategic and operational planning, service delivery surveys, self-assessment programs, Client Service Charters, Open Performance Review and Appraisal System (OPRAS), and Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) systems. Lastly, the chapter maintains that the major lesson that can be learnt from the installation of performance management systems in Tanzania’s public service is that since the installation and effective use of the PMS
components involve behavioural change, it should be designed as a long-term enterprise that is focusing not only on a broader integrated PMS, but also on trying to sustain the momentum of change.

Chapter 13, authored by John-Mary Kauzya makes a strong argument by maintaining that a mere recognition that human resources are the most valuable assets for African public services is not enough and that it is imperative that measures for ensuring that such resources are attracted and retained be in place. The author therefore adopts a strategic outlook in discussing the mechanisms for increasing the pool of talent in Africa, how the Public Service can beat the competition with the private sector for the best talent and the reasons why the Public Service needs to attract and retain the best talent. Also discussed in this chapter is the influence of governance on the ability of the Public Service to attract and retain the best personnel, the kind of talent that is needed by the Public Service in Africa, the need to provide institutional and systemic support to efforts of developing the human capacities and strengthening the human resource capacities in the Public Service in Africa.

George Yambesi’s contribution in chapter 14 is an overview of the practise of human resource development (HRD) in the Tanzania’s public sector and the way HRD is linked with other efforts for economic transformation. His main thesis is that there is a close link between the country’s efforts to attain socio-economic development and human resource development. Drawing experiences from the early years of the country’s independence period, the author establishes that significant achievements were realized in terms of socio-economic development between 1960s to late 1970s but that such developments were seriously affected by the economic crisis of 1980s. While appreciating current efforts to steer the country’s development agenda such as an expansion of the education sector, Yambesi reiterates the need to integrate such efforts with human resource development, arguing that lack of such connection might negatively affect the attainment of anticipated aims. While giving a special attention to the country’s education sector as one of the key HRD defining features, Yambesi insists that there are various challenges in the sector such as increasing the participation of female students in higher education and increased students’ enrolment in science subjects that need to be addressed if HRD has to stand as a key element in fostering socio-economic development.

Chapter 15 which is authored by Tiyesere Jamali raises a very good debate on one of the HRM issues that have remained very controversial—Work-Life Balance Policies and women in leadership positions in Malawi’s education sector. The author argues that the failure of the public sector to recognize the business case for work-life balance has been negatively affecting women employed in the public sector. Tiyesere laments lack of efforts within Malawi’s public sector to recognize the significance of letting employees enjoy work-life balance. The author notes a lot of discrepancies in the handling of work-life balance cases in which many public servants in the education sector face difficulties in convincing their superiors to allow them to, for instance, accompany their spouses for studies abroad, a situation which has resulted in most of them being terminated or being subjected to stringent procedures before they are reinstated. Tiyesere however argues cautiously that ensuring
work-life balance is a very challenging task as there are direct costs which are associated with parental leave, payments or providing equipment to telecommuters for example. She similarly notes that there are indirect costs associated with temporarily filling the posts of absentees and temporary reductions in productivity arising from disruptions. Tiyesere concludes by emphasizing that apart from the tensions stemming from the need to address the challenges resulting from the costs associated with work-life balances, there is a need to have clear regulations that can help in resolving or easing such tensions.

Chapter 16, authored by Vitoria Dias Diogo, and which is the last chapter of this book, discusses innovation and performance management in Mozambique’s public service. Diogo adopts a historical approach to highlight the reforms that the country has adopted since mid 1970s and acknowledges the role of the 1990 public service reforms in creating grounds for innovation in the public service. These reforms are lauded for their insistence, among other aspects, on democracy and rule of law, public-private partnership, stakeholders’ participation, building a competent public and the culture of integrity in the public service. Diogo concludes her chapter with a submission that while notable achievements have been realized since Africa in general and Mozambique in particular embarked on public service reforms, performance management and innovation in the public service are yet to be institutionalized and that these aspects will continue to dominate the discussions on improving the performance of African Public services.

This book is a timely intervention especially in the ongoing reforms of the public sector. The three parts of the book have shed light on both the theoretical and empirical issues related to the HRM function in the public sector. Most importantly, authors in this book have succinctly given a sketch of the ongoing HRM-related reforms in the public service in which issues such as progress made, existing challenges as well as the possible solutions to these challenges have been accorded a bird’s eye view. From the very interesting discussions and observations that authors have made, there are at least three main lessons that can be learnt by African governments and other stakeholders as they continue with their struggle to make their public services the organs that effectively deliver public services to the citizenry. One such lesson is that the recognition that human resources are key to the success of the reform intervention in African Public services needs to be a material thing that is not only at the heart of the heads of the public services, but also has to be felt by the employees at all levels, for they are the ones who are routinely involved in the execution of these reform programmes.

The second lesson to be learnt is that, while it might be unfair to condone some acts of maladministration in the continent’s public services, it is equally unfair to always blame the public servants for not meeting their presupposed goals, given the fact, as correctly observed in this book, that the HRM function has for more than five decades been largely neglected. Before pouring a lot of blame to civil servants, it will be important to scrutinize the environment within which these employees perform their functions.

The third lesson that can be drawn from the contributions made in this book is that appeals for effective implementation of public sector reforms have to go hand in hand with the
measures to let Africa own the reform interventions such that public servants as well as the citizenry understand the merits of the expected changes from the reforms. As some contributors have shown, there is still limited ownership of the reform agenda across the continent.
Part One:

The State of Human Resource Management in African Public Sector
Chapter 1


Benson A. Bana

An effective HR policy must be a tool not a burden, a collection of guides, not a handbook of rules or a ‘box’ of control devices.

Introduction

The field of human resource management has a long history right from the Eighteenth Century during the days of the social reformers in the dawn of the industrial revolution in Europe up to the current era of incipient Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) reform initiatives in the public services. Consequently, there has been tumultuous moment and instances of profound changes in the management of employment relationship in public service entities overtime. Moreover, a shift of role and responsibilities of the staff entrusted with the management of employment relationship has been a characteristic feature in the management of employment relationship in organizations, including public service entities.

This chapter focuses on the role and responsibilities of Human Resource Managers in transforming the public service globally and Africa in particular. It starts by examining how the roles of people entrusted with the management of employment relationships in organizations have been changing overtime. Next the chapter interrogates developments at theoretical and conceptual levels related to the changing roles of staff vested with responsibilities for overseeing employee management functions in organizations, including the public service.

Third, the major tenets of the Human Resource Management (HRM) model that distinguishes it from other approaches to the management of employment relationship are examined. The chapter further highlights the distinctive roles which human resource managers should play to earn their claim to be professionals. Fifth, we demonstrate that human resource management as one of the strategic functions in organizations deserves a professional status. Moreover, we demonstrate that HR managers and practitioners with the right qualifications and demonstrable competencies must be identified as professionals per excellence.

Sixth, the chapter explores the role that HR managers should play in formulating policies and strategies for strengthening institutional and human capabilities in the public service. We also show the context, including the constraints within which HR managers in the public service carry out their roles and responsibilities. Seventh, we point to the challenges and problems afflicting HR managers in executing their professional and transformative roles in the public
service and, lastly, by way of conclusion, we suggest the way forward to professionalizing and enhancing the role of HR Managers in transforming the public service.

**Antecedents on Shifting Roles of Staff Management Practitioners:**

The chronology of developments in the history of the management of employment relationship reveals that dominant roles of staff entrusted with staff management in organizations have been changing overtime. This has been due to a number of factors, including developments and innovations in science and technology as well as philosophical thoughts and new knowledge in human psychology.

Drawing from the historical development of the employment management at least in Europe, we recall the era of the Utopian Social reformers¹ and their attitude against de-humanizing labour practices which preceded the period of “welfare officers”. This period is referred to by Sisson as the “acolyte of benevolence” in which the welfare officers acted as a buffer between the organization and its employees². The role of the welfare officers were limited to canteen services, sick-visiting, hiring, grievance handling and clerical duties. The phase of employment manager usually referred to as the period of the “Humane Bureaucrat” came after the welfare officers in the early 1900s. Their dominant role was largely on wages and salary administration, collective bargaining and ensuring that employees are tightly controlled.

Employment management paved the way to a new title for the employee management function, namely “personnel management” or personnel administration in organizations. The roles of personnel managers and personnel officers were, by and large, confined to collective bargaining, which made them equated to “consensus negotiators.” Their key responsibilities also included recruitment and selection, job evaluation, training as well as employee control to ensure compliance to set policies and procedures.

From the 1960s to early 1980s the personnel management function acquired a “professional-cum-specialist status”. The major role and responsibilities of the personnel professionals focused more on recruitment and selection; performance evaluation; training and development, compensation and benefits; personnel auditing and legalistic control of the management relationship. The bodies such as the Institute of Personnel Management (IPM) in the UK pioneered the stimulus for the ‘professionalization’ of personnel management. The IPM also served as an agent for the occupation proselytizing the professional cause (Tyson and Fell, 1986). Taking into account the roles and responsibilities that the “personnelists” carried out, they were labeled “organizational men” or “manpower analysts”. Large public sector bureaucracies, including the public service with more complex structures, had such

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¹ The social reformers included Lord Shaftesbury and Robert Owen which are regarded as fore fathers of orthodoxy personnel management.

personnel officers. The personnelists adopted more purposive policies aimed at either enhancing their power, or enabling them do good by stealth.

The titles of staff entrusted with the role of employee management in organizations got a “face lift” since the 1980s to the current era. The personnelists and personnel management model paved the way to Human Resource Managers and the Human Resource Management (HRM) approach to the management of employment relationship in organizations. The HRM model which is quite distinctive from personnel management creates new roles and responsibilities to the staff vested with the staff management authority in the public service. The role of people management staff must also be understood in the light of available theoretical and conceptual premises. The paper now turns to discuss that issue.

**Theoretical and Conceptual Foundations for HR-Managers’ Role**

In this part of the chapter efforts will be made to trace the evolution of theories and conceptual frameworks aimed at understating and charactering the changing role of people responsible for managing staff in organizations overtime. It is suggested that, to a great extent, changes in conceptualization and characterization of role and functions performed by people responsible for managing staff were conditioned by the traditions that obtained at particular junctures as the staff management function evolved.

In describing the changes that evolved, Tyson and Fell (1986) used the “building site” metaphor drawn from engineering profession to delineate three distinctive roles of HR staff which they labeled as the “clerk of works”; “contract managers”; and “architect”. Although each of the three models may have different variants, they help to illuminate the corresponding roles of human resource managers. The three roles are described in detail below.

**The Clerk of Works Role of HR Managers**

All authority regarding HR roles is vested in the line managers and essentially the HR Manager serves the line managers, and does not report directly to the Chief Executive Officer in the organization. All that is expected of HR Manager is the day-to-day operation kept on schedule, a ‘clerk of works’ approach is all that is required, where representation of the client line managers interest is total and unquestioning. The “clerk of works” ensures the fulfillment of the routine and immediate tasks. There is no interest in looking at the long term needs of the organization. HR policies are formed after the actions which demonstrate the need. The policies are not pre-set nor are they seen as an integral part of the organization policy. Personnel systems are created in ad-hoc way. The HR Department will administer basic routines undertaking record keeping; first-interviewing some applicants for employment; preparing letters and documents on instructions; providing standard letters etc.
HR officer reports to senior manager for example the Finance and Administration Director or Chief Accountant. They do not need to have specialist qualifications. The most likely career path is from another junior post in the organization. In the light of the ‘clerk of works’ model, the role of HR Manager is largely passive, reactive and somewhat of little value to the organization. In some organizations, they play a role of sick-visiting and interviewing employees with personal and social problems. These roles are analogous to those carried out by the ‘welfare officers’ in the 1840s. The role of the personnel office is merely regulatory, and indeed assumes a “clearing house function” (Condrey, 1998). Such roles have minimal managerial significance and lack the strategic input. Such a situation was observed long ago and it is well documented, that:

In most developing country governments, personnel departments play a relatively passive (sometimes even negative) role, administering these (mostly outdated) rules rather than actively developing and pursuing policies for improving public sector management (Osgediz, 1983:42).

The preceding observation if further attested and echoed by Taylor whose empirical study in three African countries namely Kenya, Tanzania and Zimbabwe in the early 1990s revealed that:

Staff responsible for human resources played a restricted, bureaucratic and restrictive role, confined by and large to routine decisions about staff entitlement to pay increments and the like, very many of which could be ‘read’ off the administrative regulations governing staff behavior. They had little or no real input into strategic decisions about staff management, let alone decisions on how to achieve the overall core objectives of the government (UNDESA, 2005:78).

These findings, to a great extent, reveal that the role which the staff managers played in the public service could be equated to the “Clerk of works” metaphor in an attempt to explain various roles of people in-charge of employee management in public organizations.

**Contracts Manager Role of HR Managers**

This role is expected to dominate in well-established organizations such as the public service. The personnel specialists and professionals perform the main industrial relations activity. The personnelists by virtue of their roles and responsibilities are equated to “consensus negotiators.” They must have grown up and developed within the system. Employment relationships are very controlled with the accent on procedures for the resolution of discipline problems, grievances and disputes. There are formal bargaining and consultation systems,

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with an “espoused” and an “operational” employee relations policy. The game of the old hand practitioner is to achieve the latter without compromising the former. The staff manager’s role is mainly in the interpretation of existing procedures, agreements and contracts, although they may make minor modifications to these, adapting to new circumstances. The “personnelists” serve as reactive paper processors.

The personnel officers are usually highly qualified and their main achievements are in the pragmatic resolution of day-to-day problems. They are rewarded for their technical skills in negotiation and abiding by the “rule books” as well as keeping the existing system intact and operational. They are not risk-takers or entrepreneurs and strive to maintain the status quo.

The “clerk of works” and “Contract Manager” roles sits down well with what Condrey refers to as the “traditional model” of public human resource management, which focuses on a central personnel organization dictating rules and procedures, ostensibly to achieve fairness and equity in public sector organizations. The HR profession is viewed as a stilted and isolated administrative function under the clerk of works and contract manager models.

**Architect Role of HR Managers**

This role gives opportunity to HR managers at senior level to take critical organizational decisions in the light of the consequences for the management of people. There is often senior representation of specialized HR management at the highest decision making level in the organization. As such, key decisions take into account people management issues, bearing in mind that the human resource is the valuable asset of the organization. The organizational or corporate strategic plan is prepared with people consequences in mind. Explicit links are made between the organization’s strategic plan and human resource management function, including its key practice areas/levers. Human Resource Planning (HRP) is designed into the organization’s strategic or corporate plan.

A creative role is expected from the specialist HRM staff. The policy initiation and development role is in the hands of the HR department. The HR Managers are expected to scan the internal and external environments and then foresee how likely changes will affect the organization in terms of job satisfaction, the psychological contract, attracting and retaining the core staff and talents. The HR Managers are further expected to foresee connections between proposed actions and likely reactions of employees. The HR role is used fully when changes are planned and HR managers act as partners with senior line managers to produce orderly changes. The HR managers initiate, drive and champion the cause for change in the organization.

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4 This includes instruments such as the Standing Orders, Employment Regulations, Terms and Conditions of Employment and other staff management policies.

The HRM managers strive to build and maintain harmonious relationships with the trade union. The individualistic tactic to employee relations and negotiations is more preferred to collective bargaining approach. The HR manager regards himself as a ‘business manager’ first and as a professional manager second. The “architect” role requires HR managers to decentralize authority and decision making to the line managers in various organizational units, allowing them to make crucial decisions concerning employee recruitment, selection, classification and remuneration and the like.

There is, however, a profession application to HR work, hence technical competency is one of essential necessities. The HR managers are responsible for creating the vision and mission involving long-term HR strategic goals for the organization, taking into account the fact that HRM takes place throughout the organization, and should support, not hamper or subvert, the organization’s overall strategic goals. The architect role corresponds to the “reform” and “strategic” models explicated by Condrey (1998: 6-8). A number of distinguishing features in the three archetypes of the HR are summarized in Table 2.1 taking into account the findings revealed in the seminal works of Tyson and Fell (1986) as well as Condrey (1998; 2005).

**Professional and Job Titles Matching HR Role Models**

In the light of the preceding, it seems plausible to delineate three lessons related to the role models of HR managers. First, the ‘clerk of works’ model corresponds to the personnel administration role. It has the major hallmarks of the “welfare officer” era in the history of HR function in organizations. The HR role is reduced to the maintenance of personnel records, administering conditions of service, monitoring manpower levels and devoting attention to employees’ welfare. The title for HR befitting this kind of HR role is “Personnel Administrator or “Establishment Officer”.

Second, the ‘contract manager’ model largely resembles the period of the personnelists-cum-‘consensus negotiator’ in which the major HR role is mainly confined to industrial relations”. The suitable job title for people engaged in HR work consonant with the model is “Personnel Manager” or “Industrial Relations Manager.”

Third, the “architecture” model and its associated roles sit down well and bear a resemblance to Human Resource Management model, which is quite distinctive from the rest. The HR practitioner subscribing and conducting HR professional role and responsibilities in accordance with the principles enshrined in the “architect” model deserves the title “Human Resource Manager”. The roles of HR manager worth a name are fundamentally derived from the major tenets of HRM model. We cannot understand the roles of professional HR managers unless we are very much aware of the “nuts and bolts” of HRM rubric.

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Hallmarks of distinctive HRM Approach to Staff Management

The roles of Human Resource Managers in the public service, like in any other organization, largely depend on the interpretive criteria used to facilitate understanding of the HRM model. The HRM model has its “dos and don’ts”. The model has distinctive features which must inform the formulation of HR policies, strategies and implementation of the key levers of human resource management. These are worth paying attention to.

HRM is about ensuring that the policies and practices of managing people in the organization are all directed at achieving the organization’s mission, strategy, strategic goals and objectives.

The HRM model presupposes “strategic integration” or “strategic fit” of HR policies and practices both at the macro and micro levels. This entails, on the one hand, the strategic linkage between the organization’s overall strategy and the HR strategy. This is what we refer to as ‘vertical integration’ at the macro level. On the other hand, strategic integration refers to the linkage between different key practice areas or components of HRM in such a way that they are implemented in a manner which ensures that they cohere and are mutually supportive and reinforcing or complementing each other. This is what we refer to as ‘horizontal integration’ at the micro level. For example, the recruitment and selection strategies must support training and development strategies and the reward strategy must reinforce performance management plan and vice versa. The horizontal integration of HR practices enables the organization to attain the most aspired synergy in HR work. Most writers on HRM such as Beer et al, (1984); Fombrun, et al, (1984); Mabey and Salaman (1995); McCourt, (2003) believe that strategic orientation is the heart and soul of HRM that is why it is dubbed ‘Strategic Human Resource Management’ (SHRM).

Human Resource Management model places more emphasis on winning the “hearts and minds” as well as the commitment of employees, rather than striving for optimal control and compliance through the “rule books” and rigid personnel management procedures, policies and practices. HRM advocates for the policies that generate employee commitment to the immediate job they face, the current goals and strategy of the organization, and values that the organization promotes.

Effective implementation of the HRM model presupposes certain structural arrangement. A decentralized structure is one of the pillars upon which HRM model rests. Consequently, a devolved HR management function is more preferred to centralized staff management structures and systems. As such, the HRM framework requires the devolution of staff management authority to the line managers rather than concentrating employee management power in the hands of HR specialists. Given the fact that the human resource is the most
valuable asset for the organization’s success, then HR function is a vital strategic requirement, which is too important to be left solely in the hands of HR specialists. Hence
Table 2.1: Comparison of Three Models on the Role of Human Resource Managers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role dimension</th>
<th>“Clerk of Works”</th>
<th>“Contract Manager”</th>
<th>“The Architect”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main role of HR Manager</td>
<td>Enforcer of merit&lt;br&gt;Guardian of the merit principle</td>
<td>Diminished authority and control</td>
<td>Organizational consultant and advisors, change agent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception of HRM Profession</td>
<td>Hindrance to effective organizational functioning</td>
<td>Adjunct collection of skills</td>
<td>Full managerial partner</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of Education</td>
<td>Public personnel administration</td>
<td>Adjunct to managerial skills</td>
<td>HRM, general management, practical focus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal Orientation</td>
<td>Uniform enforcement of rules, policies and procedures</td>
<td>Manager centred</td>
<td>Respectful of HRM and organizational goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value Orientation</td>
<td>Merit</td>
<td>Consensus builder</td>
<td>Effective organizational functioning coupled with respect for effective HRM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policies</td>
<td>Not-preset nor integrated to the organizational strategic objectives. Stem from the Chief Executive</td>
<td>Well established, often implicit, heavy employee relations emphasis, employer association derived</td>
<td>Explicit policies giving effect to organizational strategic plan, concept of HRP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy/ Planning Horizon</td>
<td>Short term, immediate, emphasis on budget not on corporate plans</td>
<td>Short-term possibly one to two years</td>
<td>View of tactical and strategic horizons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authority</td>
<td>Vested in line Managers</td>
<td>Vested in senior line Managers</td>
<td>HR presence at highest levels, people as business resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power and Influence of HR function</td>
<td>Nil or very low</td>
<td>Usually low but high in times of crises</td>
<td>Consistently high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems</td>
<td>Ad hoc, related to legal requirements, payroll based</td>
<td>Sophisticated systems to help with negotiation and manuals of rules, etc.</td>
<td>Sophisticated and procedurized, concepts of HRP and HRIS are used extensively. Not focused on relationships.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.1 continues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role dimension</th>
<th>“Clerk of Works”</th>
<th>“Contract Manager”</th>
<th>“The Architect”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Line managers wholly control subordinates</td>
<td>High trade union density</td>
<td>HR managers and line managers move towards extensive integration, rational decision taking obviates need for traditional idea of control.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR activities</td>
<td>Largely routine, person not business-centered, routine administration, welfare, selection of junior staff</td>
<td>Support to senior line management, act as “buffer” between management and employees, high interpretative role, involved in formal relationships but not power-brokering</td>
<td>HR Manager as business manager looks for opportunities which make optimal use of available competencies. Technically competent in diagnosis and analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR reporting</td>
<td>To senior line manager, works manager, company secretary, Director of administration and Finance</td>
<td>Likely to senior line manager, policeman role</td>
<td>To the Chief Executive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR Career path</td>
<td>From another post likely on promotion clerks, senior secretary trainer</td>
<td>Junior HR staff still drawn from other functions, selection on the basis of day-to-day crisis management skills resolution of immediate problems, narrow base of operation</td>
<td>Both Full-time career professionals and a sufficiently high status function to attract line managers permanently or for a spell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication pattern</td>
<td>Top-down</td>
<td>Two-way</td>
<td>Multi-directional</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
HRM is a central concern of top management in terms of strategy, and a central concern of line managers in terms of its implementation. The HR specialist then is left in the role of an internal consultant –cum- facilitator. As such, HR managers should serve largely as strategists, experts, stimulators and change agents.

HRM stresses on the approaches to the staff management which cultivate avenues for the creation of a healthy psychological contract on all parties involved in the employment relationship. Consequently, regular workforce attitude surveys are encouraged. Unhealthy psychological contract breeds the undesirable behavior, including distrust, demotivation and, indeed, poor retention of staff and therefore increased employee turnover rate.

The HRM model suggests that in order to achieve high performance levels, efficiency and effectiveness in organizations, specific “bundles” or set of HRM practices should be implemented simultaneously. These are usually referred to as High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs). Emphasis should not be placed on a single practice area of HRM in isolation. The examples of HPWPs are outlined in Table 2.2.

HRM encourages flexible work practices, including numerical flexibility which entails alterations in work hours, job sharing or the number of workers; functional flexibility which presupposes empowering employees in order to enable them perform a wide variety of tasks; pay flexibility which entails linking pay to performance; and outsourcing which involves identification of core and non-core employees and tasks.

**Transformative Roles of HR Managers in the Public Service**

The roles of HR Managers in transforming the public services should be informed by the key defining features of the HRM model. The transformation of the public service in Africa and other developing countries, among other things, requires HR managers who are very much aware of the “nuts and bolts” of the HRM model which is fundamentally different from its predecessor the ‘personnel management’ approach to staff management in organizations. A classificatory matrix of 27 points of difference between personnel and industrial relations practices and HRM has been developed ant it is available in the mainstream HRM literature. The managers in the public service who play the strategic staff management roles

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7 The concept ‘psychological contract’ refers to the perceptions of both parties to the employment relationship, of the reciprocal expectations, promises and obligations implied in the relationship. The contract is not generally written down and cannot be enforced in a court of law or tribunal.
8 The acronym “HPWPs” stands for, and denotes the High Performance Work Practices.
9 This entails subcontracting, using part-timers and short term contracts. In such a situation employment contracts are replaced by contracts of service.
consonant with the HRM model will need to be specialists, advisers and consultants, and in our own context, government business partners.

**Strategic Role of HR Manager in the Public Service**

The HR managers must play the role of formulating the Vision, Mission and Values (VMV) and strategic goals and objectives for the public service. They must serve the public service as proactive partners or strategists in the strategy formulation process. The HR managers must be part of the hierarchy which is vested with the authority and responsibility to devise the public service strategy and ensuing strategic plans.

The word strategy is of Greek origin and has always had military connotations, including maneuvering in order to execute plans for conducting offensive and defensive campaigns against the enemy. The following definition appears to shed much light to understanding the concept strategy. Thus strategy denotes:

> A decision or series of decisions made by or on behalf of an organization or organizational sub-unit which determines its medium to long term objectives, priorities and overall direction; and which repositions the organization in relation to its changing external environment, including competitive pressures and the availability of key resources (Walton, 1999:16)

In our context, strategy denotes a conscious plan or course of action directed toward definite goal. It is a sense of what the organization such as the public service is trying to achieve over the long term that will direct its actions. It is a process adopted for getting the public service from here to there. Strategy can, therefore, be seen as a link between what the organization wants to achieve-its objectives and the policies adopted to guide its activities (Bowman, and Asch, 1987).

The involvement of professional HR managers in the forum for strategy formulation permits them to ensure that people management issues feature predominantly in the public service strategy. Moreover, HR managers should play the role of formulating specific HR-VMV and strategy for the public service which should be derived from, and nested into the overall strategic objectives of the service.

Human Resource Managers in the public services should play a critical role in all stages of the strategy development process and subsequent activities (Figure 2.1). This includes taking a leading role right from the articulation of the public service VMV and those of the HR department; delivery of the strategies as well as evaluation and review or reformulation of the strategies. In this process, the HR Manager must ensure that the HRM objectives and goals are derived from the overall strategic objectives of the public service, hence achieving what we refer to as vertical integration. The strategic plan of the HR function in the department or ministry with HRM portfolios must be well derived from the overall strategy of the public service.
Moreover, the HR managers must ensure that strategies are developed for various key practice areas in HRM. They must lead the team of line managers in the public service to develop the human resource planning strategy, recruitment and selection strategy; training and development strategy; remuneration strategy; performance management strategy (including performance appraisal), employees relations strategy; etc. In addition, they must ensure that various the key levers in HRM are implemented strategically in order to realize the overall strategic goals and objectives of the public service.

**Professional Role of HRM Managers in Public Service**

Human resource management is a profession function as it meets the essential requirements of the interpretive criteria attached to the concept profession. The HRM as a profession performs an essential function in organizations, including the public service. Moreover, HRM is founded on a systematic body of knowledge which is acquired through a lengthy period of prescribed academic training and practical experience.

It is important to recognize that HRM as an occupation has an accreditation system and professional associations; codes of ethical conduct; mechanisms and structures for enforcing ethics; and it is a function which is held in high esteem by informed organizational management. The role of HR managers in the public service is to perform their duties and responsibilities in a professionally acceptable manner, which entails abiding by the code of HRM professional conduct as well as promoting and enforcing ethical behavior in HR work.

They have also a role of making sure that their professional role deserves respect, and it is as important as other professional cadres in the public service. They must enhance the image of the HR profession, not only in the public service, but also to the public in its entirety.

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11 In other countries such as the UK there are HRM professional associations such as the Chartered Institute for Personnel and Development (CIPD), International Personnel Management Association (IPMA), Society for Human Resource Management, etc. These are professional bodies for HR Practitioners.
Consultant Role of HRM Managers in the Public Service

Human resource managers need to serve as consultants in their respective public service institutions. They have the responsibility of offering professional expertise and advisory services on how well to implement a plethora of human resource management activities including strategic selection, strategic training, strategic performance appraisal, handling of grievances, disciplinary matters, to the line managers, to whom the HR work is devolved. They must as well serve as organizational experts and champions of change in the transformation processes of the public service into a continuous learning organizations and
result-focused entity. All in all, they must empower the line managers so as to enable them take ownership of the HR strategy, implementation of the key practice areas in HRM and related activities.

**Research Role of HR Managers in the Public Service**

Research is one of the most important but often the most neglected component in the management of staff in the public service. One of the major roles of HR managers is to conduct research in order to generate useful information which facilitates rational and informed decisions for effective implementation of the public service strategic goals and HR strategy. Some writers argue convincingly that models of HRM developed elsewhere have little or no value in the African organizations, including the public service. It is through research that alternative HRM models for the public service could be designed. Anecdotal evidence reveals that organizations which regularly carry out employees’ attitude surveys are dynamic, proactive and responsive to the HR needs and interests. HR managers should conduct regular surveys of attitudes of the employees toward the public service and its management.

Moreover, through research, organizations are in a position to create harmonious relationships because the surveys generate information on the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats for both management and staff. The HR Managers must conduct regularly such useful surveys in the public service. The findings of surveys should be used, on the one hand as basis for formulating new HR policies and practices or revising the existing ones. On the other hand, the HR research findings should be used to advise on the need to change the legal regime, including the law, regulations, rules and standing orders governing the management of staff in the public service.

**Innovative Role of HR Managers in the Public Service**

The public service is not a static organization. Public servants, specifically HR Managers, should play an innovative role in order to enable the public service introduce good and dynamic people management practices which are most likely to enhance performance. Research evidence reveals that the implementation of specific bundles of HR practices has a positive correlation with the performance levels of the organization. The role of HR managers is to identify a set of bundles, which are sometimes referred to as High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs) which, if implemented appropriately, may pave the way for enhanced and superior performance in the public service.

The findings from empirical researches reveal that specific sets of good HR practices (HRM bundles) shown in Table 2.2, if implemented properly, tend to lead to superior performance in organizations. It is the role of HR Managers in the public service to identify specific HR
bundles which are most likely to enhance performance and institute them in the public service in order to deliver the public service strategic plans, and the ensuing goals and objectives.

Thus, HR Managers are valuable sources of innovation in the public service. Through research, they must identify areas which need to be transformed and, consequently initiate appropriate reforms and champion them for the betterment of the public service. HR Managers, by virtue of their duties and responsibilities, should be change initiators or triggers in the public service and champions of the reform cause. They must play a pivotal role in the management of change.

Table 2.2: High Performance Work Practices (HPWPs)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employment security</td>
<td>Work teams</td>
<td>Self-directed work teams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selective recruiting</td>
<td>Problem solving groups</td>
<td>Job rotation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High wages</td>
<td>Employee suggestions</td>
<td>Problem solving groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentive pay</td>
<td>Job rotation</td>
<td>TQM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee ownership</td>
<td>Decentralization</td>
<td>Suggestions (received/Implemented)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information sharing</td>
<td>Recruitment and hiring</td>
<td>Hiring criteria (learning vs current job)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>Contingent compensation</td>
<td>Contingency pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment</td>
<td>Status differentiation</td>
<td>Status barriers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>Training and development</td>
<td>Information sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-utilization</td>
<td></td>
<td>Job analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolic egalitarianism</td>
<td></td>
<td>Hiring (internal vs External)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wage compression</td>
<td></td>
<td>Attitude survey</td>
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<tr>
<td>Promotion from within</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

HR Managers’ Developmental Role in the Public Service

There is a consensus in the HR literature and, indeed on the fact that employees in organizations including the public service must be viewed as valuable assets rather than costs. HR managers have a noble role of identifying competency gaps in the public services and devising appropriate ways and strategies for reducing competency (skills and knowledge) gaps among the public servants. They should serve as agents of continuous development;
they must act as advisors and consultants on matters pertaining to development of staff, management and leadership competencies. They should ensure that both the non-professional and non-managerial public servants access training and development opportunities to meet the needs of the public service. HR managers should also serve as advisers on organizational development matters; including making sure that the public service has appropriate structures for implementing its strategies, including the HRM strategy. By creating opportunities for employee training and development, HR Managers will gradually transform the public service into a continuously learning organization.

**HR Managers’ Monitoring and Evaluation Role in Public Service**

The HR function in the public service must be planned in such a way that it adds value in terms of enabling the public service meet its strategic goals and objectives. The HR strategy must be implemented in a manner that is cost-effective and demonstrably justifying the concept of “value for money”. As such, HR managers must continuously monitor and evaluate the efficacy and contribution of the HR function to the overall public service strategic goals and objectives. They must monitor the implementation processes of the HR strategy, ensuring that different components of HRM are mutually supportive and structurally reinforcing each other in order to attain synergy. Moreover, they must ensure that the HR strategy is aligned to, and supports the overall public service strategic goals and objectives.

HR managers must play an auditing role of the HR function using both the hard and soft measures and real or proxy indicators. They must be able to engage themselves in “number crunching” tasks, including tracking expenditure on staffing; staff training days and cost; as well as calculating Returns on Investment (ROI) in training and development function; and determining annual employee turnover (turn over analysis) and stability analysis (retention rate). They must analyze the absence rate trends, number of grievances and time spent to fill vacancies; HR managers must evaluate the extent to which the senior and line managers in the public service are satisfied with advises and services they get from the HR department.

HR managers have also the responsibility of ensuring that the strategies for the key practice areas of HRM are carried out efficiently to a successive end. As such, their role is to monitor and evaluate the implementation of the key practice areas in the public service. In doing so, they must be in a position to suggest areas of improvement, revision of strategies and even discarding those which are unable to deliver results for the betterment of the public service.

**Necessary Competencies for HRM Managers in Public Service**

In the light of the preceding context, it seems plausible to point out that the employees who should be vested with roles and responsibilities of managing the HR function in the public service should be specialists, advisers, consultants and partners in the business of the public service. They must be HR professionals not amateurs. The HR department in the public
service should not become an enclave of the “cult of the generalists”. Professional HR managers should have a solid knowledge on the “nuts and bolts” of the HRM model; and they must have a broad understanding of the internal and external environment, including the legal and institutional contexts within which the public service operates. HRM scholars and practitioners (Redman and Wilkinson, 2001; Ulrich, 1998; Ban Carolyn, 2005): have identified the key competencies of HR professionals as shown in Table 2.3.

The role of HR Managers in the transformation of the public services requires different competencies which are, by and large, compatible with the major tenets of the HRM model. The competencies outlined in Table 2.3 are the most efficacious tools of the HR Managers in their endeavors to transform and modernize staff management function in the public service. The formulation of policies and strategies for strengthening institutional and human capabilities in the public service requires competent HR managers who are equipped with essential competencies for the HR work.

Table 2.3: Competency Model for Human Resources Professionals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Business Partner</th>
<th>HR Expert</th>
<th>Leader</th>
<th>Change Agent</th>
<th>Advocate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mission-oriented</td>
<td>Knows HR principles</td>
<td>Takes risk</td>
<td>Manages change</td>
<td>Values diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understand culture</td>
<td>Customer oriented</td>
<td>Ethical</td>
<td>Consults</td>
<td>Resolves conflict</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic planner</td>
<td>Applies business procedures</td>
<td>Decisive</td>
<td>Analyses</td>
<td>Communicates well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System innovator</td>
<td>Manages resources</td>
<td>Develops staff</td>
<td>Uses coalition skills</td>
<td>Respects others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Uses HR tools</td>
<td>Creates trust</td>
<td>Influences others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


**HR Managers’ Role in Formulating Viable Policies and Strategies**

The transformation of the public service in African countries requires the formulation of deliberate but reliable policies and strategies to guide actions and inform decisions. HR managers are required to participate effectively in all stages of the policy and strategy formulation *fora* and processes. Their participation is very important in order to ensure that people issues are adequately addressed and accommodated in the policies and strategies which are formulated to transform the public service. We learn from the policy management literature that there are five mutually supportive stages in the policy process (Anderson, 1984; Anderson et al, 1978). The HR managers in the public service are supposed to play and active role in each of the policy stages. In the following sections we discuss the role of HR managers in specific stages of the policy process.
Initiation of Policies and Strategies

HR managers are duty bound to ensure that they take part in the policy and strategy initiation process. They are supposed to issue technical and professional advice during the agenda setting stage or initiation. They are supposed to aggregate diverse interests, concerns and demands as articulated by different stakeholders or constituencies regarding HRM issues in the public service. This may entail bargaining consultations and consensus building on HR issues which, in the opinion of stakeholders, deserve attention and possibly new policy and strategies. Developments in science and technology and the staff opinion expressed through their participatory organs, and employee surveys are the major drivers or initiators of policy agenda in the public service.

HR Managers analyze and filter the problems, complaints and concerns they receive from employees, trade unions, senior managers, consumers of public services and the public in its entirety, which may necessitate the formulation of policy actions and subsequent strategies. The HR Managers in the public service should be able to filter the stakeholders’ demands by identifying the real policy issues and matters of opinion and value judgment regarding HR function in general and particularly the specific key practice areas. They must be able to define accurately a policy problem, and devise strategies to get it on the agenda of senior management forum and government. It is imperative to note that not all problems afflicting the public service are policy problems. Thus at the policy agenda setting stage, the HR managers are responsible to identify the actual policy problem which calls for a definite policy and strategy. The HR manager has to guide the decision making process on HR matters in the public service which require a new policy and strategy.

HR Managers’ Role in Policy Formulation Stage

Once a decision has been taken to address a specific problem, policy or strategy must be formulated. The HR managers’ role is to use his/her expert HR knowledge to systematically search for the most efficient and effective means of achieving the anticipated goals. The managers should weigh the efficacy and implications of available policy options resulting from a compromise or even contradictory goals of different actors or demand articulators.

The HR manager must formulate clear options and weight the outcomes and impact (consequences) of each policy option before deciding on the most cost-effective and cost-efficient policy measure. This exercise is usually referred to as Cost-Benefit Analysis (CBA). The manager must give a monetary value (positive or negative) to every consequence of choosing each option and then select the option with the highest net benefit. This is the exercise which requires knowledge on policy formulation models, particularly the rational (synoptic) and incremental models12 of policy making. It is imperative to also recognize the

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fact that policy and strategy can be formed for any of the key practice areas of HRM in the public service. It is the role of HR manager to ensure that the policy formulated to address a felt need or problem in the public service is supported by stakeholders in order to ensure that the policies and strategies are legitimized or authorized by government.

The HR Managers must ensure that an appropriate Monitoring and Evaluation (MandE) system for the public service and HR policies and strategies are designed in order to ensure that useful information is generated to justify whether the intended objectives and goals are being achieved. The MandE system is one of essential prerequisites for effective management of the public service and HR policies and strategies. The system should specify a set of indicators for tracking the results of the policy and strategies, data sources, key information products and tools for data collection.

**HR Managers’ Role in Policy Implementation**

The implementation of policies and strategies in the public service requires the active participation of HR Managers. They must apply the approved policy to HR related problems. The HR managers must make sure that the prescriptions embodied in the formulated policy and strategies are interpreted correctly. They must also ensure that the required resources are made available and used in a cost-effective way in order to achieve the intended strategic goals and objectives. The managers must make ascertain that appropriate structures are created in order to facilitate the implementation process of public service policy and strategy. The managers must follow-up or monitor closely the implementation process of the policies and strategies. They should ensure that an appropriate Monitoring and Evaluation (MandE) system of policy is designed and used as meaningful tool for monitoring the implementation process of HR policies and strategies both at the macro and micro levels.

**HR Managers’ Role in Policy Evaluation**

The HR Managers should ensure that useful information is generated using the Monitoring and Evaluation system regarding the policy implementation process and the extent to which the policy and strategy are achieving the intended goals and objectives. The HR managers must collect information on the implementation of the public service and HR policies and strategies from different data sources, including surveys; routine component level monitoring reports; and routine activity-level monitoring reports. Appropriate tools should be designed for collecting the required data on activities designed to implement policy and strategy in the public service. The gathered data should enable HR managers to generate key information products which include baseline reports; semi-annual progress reports; annual progress report; mid-term evaluation reports; phase completion reports; and impact evaluation reports.

The information generated must enable different stakeholders to determine whether the public service policy and strategies have achieved the intended strategic goals and objectives.
or not. These are in terms of outputs, outcomes and impact of the public service policies and strategies. Policy outputs are what the public service does in terms of the planned and actual implemented activities. These are policy deliverables which are tangible and somewhat easy to measure. Policy outcomes are what the public service achieves. The outcomes are both the intended and unintended (i.e. unforeseen) effects and consequences. The HR Manager should be able to distinguish outputs and outcomes of the public service’s policies and strategies, including those pertaining to HR function. Evaluation has to be predicated on wide and full collaboration of all policy and strategy stakeholders of the public service, including agents (funders, implementers), beneficiaries (target groups, potential adopters) and the public in its entirety.

**HR Managers’ Role in Policy and Strategy Reviews in the Public Service**

Once the HR Managers have evaluated the policies and strategies in use in the public service, they must, under normal circumstances, enable the appropriate authority (the government) to make rational and informed decisions. On the basis of reliable and valid information generated at the policy evaluation stage, the government ought to make some critical decisions. The decision may culminate into three possibilities, namely the continuation, revision or termination of the policy and strategy. The HR managers’ role in this regard is to enable government make a correct decision in the public interest. Thus HR manager must serve as an advisor and facilitator during the decision making process.

**Challenges Facing HR Managers in the Public Services in Africa**

The HR managers’ role is very important in the transformation process of the public service in Africa into a vibrant, vigorous and value-adding institution; as well as the engine for economic growth and development of the people. At the heart of a public service institution are the roles of HR managers. Research evidence show a positive correlation between dismal performance levels in the public service in Africa and the efficacy of the staff entrusted to oversee the management of human resource function in the service. However, the HR managers in the public service in Africa face a number of challenges which undermine their roles, professionalism and contribution to transforming the public service into an effective organization.

In most African countries, the dominant model upon which the management of staff in the public service rests is, by and large, the personnel management and its prescriptions. Research evidence and experience has proved that personnel management model can no longer inform accurately the management of staff in the public service in the contemporary era. It has outlived its usefulness and it can no longer stand the test of time. By-gone is the era of the “clerk of works” and “contract managers”, the contemporary era is for the “architects” to carry out HR work. HR managers should accept this reality, and they should
make effort to adopt, adapt and institutionalize the strategic HRM model and its subsequent principles in the management of staff in the public service. This presupposes new orientation to HR work, including acquisition of new competencies for HR managers, if at all they have to contribute meaningfully in the transformation of the public service through HR interventions.

Human Resource Management in the public service is not carried out in a vacuum. It is a function that is influenced by the country’s legal and institutional frameworks as well as other factors in the socio-economic and political milieu. HR managers, by themselves cannot change the legal and institutional frameworks which govern the HR function in the public service. They must work with the constraints posed by the constitution and other relevant primary and subsidiary legislation. Some of the institutional and legal frameworks may undermine the institutionalization of the HRM model. For instance, individual sectors in the public service domain, including Ministries independent Departments and Agencies (MDAs) have no or little jurisdiction to design their own or context-specific HR systems. Moreover, most heads of government have excessive powers on HRM matters in the public service.

In most African governments, the HR or rather personnel department was, for a long time (in some cases even today) confined to the role of serving a supportive-cum-administrative role to other departments. The HR managers were neither regarded as core staff nor accorded a professional status. The HR function is still regarded as a function which is at the periphery, not at the center of government business. The HR managers in the public service have a challenge to demonstrate beyond reasonable doubt that they are professionals per se, and their role is as strategic as other departments in the public service. They must demonstrably elevate their role to a strategic level and enhance the image of the HR function in the public service. They must claim a position in the central policy and strategy decision making organs in the public service. In order to achieve this end, the HR managers must first transform their own departments by institutionalizing a new HR management regime consonant with HR model before they can be trusted to transform the public service in its entirety.

In most African countries the advent of HRM model was received with anxiety. The first reaction in most organizations, including the public service, was changing of titles and names of department, job and professional titles, names of institutions and colleges, titles of courses, office labels from personnel management to human resource management. This was simply done in order to capture the emerging fad. There was no deliberate effort to interpret the model and adapt it to the realities of the public service. A comprehensive and thorough understanding of the “nuts and bolts” of HRM model is acutely lacking among the many HR managers and practitioners in the public service. Human Resource managers have a challenge of understanding thoroughly the “dos and don’ts”, principles and the requirements of the Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) model before they can effectively implement it in the public service.

Human resource management is the professional discipline much as engineering, accountancy, law and medicine are. The HR function and competent HRM managers deserve
a professional status. Staff who play the HR role in the public service should be specialists, advisers, consultants, and conduct themselves as partners in government business. They must seriously consider the need for the accreditation system and the importance of creating networks in order to facilitate the sharing of knowledge and experience in HR work. The managers should demonstrate and defend with vim and vigour their professional status. HR managers have a challenge of devising means and strategies which will enable other senior officials as well as political leaders to appreciate the fact that HR managers play a sensitive, critical and strategic role in the public service.

Concluding Remarks

Human resource managers are valuable assets for the public service in Africa and elsewhere. The smooth-functioning of the public services and, indeed, governments depends partly but significantly on the role of human resource managers. HR managers are expected to serve as critical drivers and champions of change in the public service. The transformation of the public service depends entirely on a reformed and modernized HR function. It is important to note that the role of HR Managers should be dynamic and responsive. In the current epoch, the role of the HR function and HR managers should be to support the strategic mission of the public service. This presupposes a re-orientation of the HR managers and their departments in order to enable them carry out their duties consonant with the HRM model. HR managers should become full-fledged members of the public service’s senior management team capable of linking human resources and HR policy and strategies to the public service’s vision, mission as well as its strategic goals and objectives.

To meet the challenges outlined in the previous section, HR managers and practitioners will need broad-ranging professional development, multi-skilling and a comprehensive understanding of the roles associated with the HRM approach to the management of employment relationships in the public service. The HRM model is relatively new in Africa, and its core knowledge is still being formulated and gradually unfolding. Universities and public service colleges must attune their HR learning packages to the basics of the HRM model. Professional associations for HR Managers and practitioners must provide continuous professional training much as they endeavor to promote and enforce ethical conduct and accountability in HR work.

The HR managers must play a pivotal role in helping organizations to formulate HR policies and strategies which are relevant to the felt needs of the public service. The creation of enduring HR policies and strategies should not suggest a search for a holy grail of policy or an immutable mission. Policy that endures means policies and policy making machinery that recognizes and adapts to ever changing challenges; policies that recognize the need to adapt to evolving reality and the need for change. The policies, strategies and mission of HR function and department must respond to the needs of the public service they serve. HR policy must be living, developing tool, not something to get tangled in and tripped over. An
effective HR policy must be a tool not a burden, a collection of guides, not a handbook of rules or a ‘box’ of control devices.

References


Chapter 2

Changing from Personnel Administration to Human Resource Management: An Imperative in African Public Services

Neil Reichenberg

Gurus of HR have posited that transformation of HR is leading to having those responsible for HR within organizations demand a high place at the corporate table; and push for "people" issues to be given the same level of recognition as finance, marketing and production in organization’s corporate agendas.

Background and an Introduction

The role of human resource management (HRM) in organizations has been an ongoing source of discussion for many years. The World Public Sector Report on Unlocking the Human Potential for Public Sector Performance (UNDESA, 2005) underscores the need for staff responsible for managing human resources (HR) to take a more strategic role in the overall management of their organizations by providing inputs on how staff management will contribute to achieving the core strategic objectives of public. This is particularly so with regard to public organizations.

Ed Lawler, a noted authority on human resource management has also shown that many organizations are increasingly recognizing their employees to be a fundamental building block in creating an organization capable of innovating and change (Lawler, 2008). However, the drawback is that, often organizations do not go out of the way to identify talented staff and invest in their development.

Managing and developing the talented staff of an organization throughout their careers is of paramount importance if public organizations are to achieve their missions and make a positive impact on the citizens that they serve. This heightens the need for human resource managers to shift their focus to those strategic activities that will add the most value to their organizations and ensure that their organizations have the right people, with the right skills in the right positions at the right time. To truly transform itself, the public sector needs to change both its behaviors and outputs and avoid falling into the trap of changing names and delivery mechanisms that result in providing the same HR services.

In making this transition, human resource managers should not lose sight of the need to continue providing the basic human resource services on which their organizations depend. Recruitment, selection, classification, compensation, performance management, employee relations, and employee and organizational development will always form the foundation for those who work in HRM. If this is not done well, the human resource department will lose credibility and it will be more difficult to step into the more strategic roles that will add value to the organizations.
Finding time to move to a more strategic role, while continuing to provide high quality HR transactional work has proven to be a significant challenge for those working in HRM. There has been some movement towards the creation of shared services centers, in which a separate organization is created to handle the HR transactional work. In some organizations, the transactional works are performed within the operating HR departments, which may make it easier for the central HR department to move to a more strategic role.

All too often, human resource management is viewed as the work of the HR department and its staff. However, management of human resources should be the responsibility of all line managers and supervisors in the organization who should take care of the day to day HR needs of their employees, with HR professionals providing technical advice. To perform this role effectively, it is imperative for HR professionals to understand the business of the respective line organizational units.

In terms of strategic functions, the HR department has as its primary mission-treating people as capital by ensuring that they are developed, nurtured and kept motivated. The department has to also ensure that employees are treated fairly and appropriately. A delicate balance needs to be maintained by the HR department between being a champion for employees while simultaneously remaining part of management. The need to maintain this balance has been demonstrated in the past couple of years as a result of the global recession. Many organizations have made cuts that have had impact on employees. This has created a necessity for HR managers to play a crucial role in ensuring that those employees whose positions are eliminated are treated with respect and dignity and provided with all possible assistance. In the context of this nature, HR manager also needs to make sure that the organization is not solely focused on the current economic challenges but also looks to the future when the economy has recovered. Important programs such as workforce and succession planning should not be abandoned due to the short-term needs to cut costs.

This chapter is organized as follows: part one provides a background and introduction, next part provides an overview of the changing role of the Human Resource Manager, part three discusses features of transformation of human resource, models for achieving it, and reviews the current state of human resource transformation and projections for the future. An appendix containing information on the competency model designed to assist organizations with the HRM transformation, developed by the International Public Management Association for Human Resources (IPMA-HR) is attached.

The Changing Role of the Human Resource Manager

It is now acknowledged that a shift has taken place with regard to how people in organizations are managed. Gone are the days when those with responsibilities for managing staff are referred
to as staff welfare officers, establishment officers and personnel administrators. The nomenclature used is now human resource managers and for those who are more current, human capital managers. The question is whether the changes in nomenclature are being translated in the way organizations and managers deal with staff and whether the practices are reflected in policies. In the developed world, the human resources management policies and work place practices are changing on the ground and many organizations, including in the public sector, have taken positive action in that direction. However, in Africa there are concerns that the changes may be more in nomenclature than in practices.

The roles of those who worked in personnel administration was often perceived by other members of the organization to be akin to ‘policing’. Often the personnel professionals were viewed to be focusing too much on enforcing the rules and regulations than devoting attention on what needs to be done to have the human resource contribute effectively in assisting the organization meet its overall objectives. As a result, in many countries, the personnel departments tended to have adversarial relationship with other parts of the organization and was viewed to be simply a cost-center, that was not adding much value in achieving the overall organizational objectives. Over the years, therefore, the perceptions that organizations could do without personnel departments spread beyond corporate bodies to include the press. For example an Online article which appeared in the Times of London with a caption “Human Resources Departments: I’ve Never Understood the Point of Them”, the author posited that:

“…… HR is shrinking and we should embrace its demise ...and get rid of 90% of HR policies, 90% of HR people and then wash your hands of it.” (Sanghera, 2009)

Calls for changes in how people entrusted with the responsibility of managing staff should conduct themselves in a more professional manner by shifting from being personnel administrators to human resource managers came from other quarters, including academics. Thus David Ulrich (1997), an HR professor, suggested that for HR professionals to keep their jobs and increase their influence, they should focus less on “what they do” –processes and systems and focus more on the “value they can add to the business”.

**HR Transformation**

Transformation of HR is the act of significantly improving the processes associated with specific HRM functions. Gurus of HR have posited that transformation of HR is leading to having those responsible for HR within organizations demand a high place at the corporate table; and push for ‘people” issues to be given the same level of recognition as finance, marketing and production in organization’s corporate agendas. In the same vein, Jackson and Mathis (2009) have argued that many organizations are focusing on involving HR in strategic planning at the onset, redesigning organizations and work processes, and accounting and documenting the financial
results of HRM activities. Their conclusion is that the net results on performance of those organizations are impressive.

These changes have had a major effect on what HR managers do and how they spend their time. Research on this subject indicate that previously HR managers spent 50% of their time on administrative tasks, 30% on operational and employee advocacy activities, and 20% on strategic HRM activities. With transformation HR, it is suggested that there has been a significant shift, with strategic HRM occupying 60% of the time, operational and employee advocate work remaining at 20% and administrative tasks being reduced dramatically to 10%.

The transformation has also affected the perceptions of people on what HR management functions entails. David Ulrich (1997) has given his understanding of changes in perceptions of what HR practitioners do, that have taken place over time. He summarizes the past and current perceptions in Table 3.1 below.

**Table 3.1: HRM: Myths and Realities**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Old Myths</th>
<th>Current Realities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>People go into HR because they like people.</td>
<td>HR departments are not designed to provide corporate therapy or serve as social or health-and-happiness retreats. HR professionals must create the practices that make employees and the organization more competitive, not more comfortable.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anyone can do HR.</td>
<td>HR activities are based on theory and research. HR professionals must master both theory and practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR deals with the soft side of a business and is therefore not accountable.</td>
<td>The impact of HR practices on business results can and must be measured. HR professionals must learn how to translate their work into financial performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR focuses on costs, which must be controlled.</td>
<td>HR practices must create value by increasing the intellectual capital within the organization. HR professionals must add value, not reduce costs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR’s job is to be the policy police and the health-and-happiness patrol.</td>
<td>The HR function should not own compliance—all managers should share this responsibility. HR practices do not exist to make employees happy, but to help them become committed to the organization and to excel at their current assignment. HR professionals must help managers develop employees and administer policies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR is full of fads.</td>
<td>HR practices have evolved over time. HR professionals must see their current work as part of an evolutionary chain and explain their work with less jargon and fact-based research and authority.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR is staffed by nice people.</td>
<td>At times, HR practices should compel vigorous debates. HR professionals should be professionally confrontational and challenging as well as supportive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR is HR’s job.</td>
<td>HR work is as important to line managers, as are finance, strategy, and other business domains. HR professionals should join with managers in championing HR issues.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to Becker and Huselid (2006), a major distinction between the traditional approach to HRM and the transformational approach is that the former focuses on individual performance while the latter is concerned with performance at the organizational level. Transformation HRM emphasizes the role of HRM systems as solutions to organizational problems rather than individual HRM practices in isolation. The study by Becker and Huselid also sought to establish the extent to which senior HR and line managers felt well designed and implemented HRM systems could make significant contribution to their organization’s performance. They also wanted to establish whether organizations can secure improved performance through transformational approaches rather than focusing on the individual staff. Their conclusion was that there are clear benefits in using the transformational approach.

The transition from traditional HRM to transformational HRM has had a number of challenges, most of which are related to defining the HRM roles in the transformational approach. The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) in Great Britain undertook a research study to describe the evolution and current state of the human resources function, with a particular focus on HR transformation. The survey results were published in a book titled “The Changing HR Function: Transforming HR?” The CIPD survey found that defining HRM roles was the most frequently selected challenge in restructuring the HR function. One structure that was analyzed in this report was the model developed by David Ulrich that consists of HRM being organized around 1) business partners, 2) centers of expertise, and 3) shared services. Of those who have restructured the function, 57% reported implementing this model either partially or fully (CIDP, 2007).

The primary benefit identified for the establishment of business partners is allowing HRM to become a more strategic contributor and engage with managers through an increased business focus. Challenges cited in the business partner role centered around business partners: 1) not knowing whether they are agents of the corporate HR function or agents of the business unit, 2) over-promising since implementation is left to someone else, 3) ending up doing operational work since line managers ask them and not the centers of expertise, 4) being held accountable for poor delivery although others are responsible for delivering the work, 5) not engaging sufficiently with business executives in determining what good practices are to be found elsewhere or finding out what the competition is doing, and 6) managers not understanding the role that business partners can play (ibid.).

Centers of expertise become involved in the formulation and execution of policies, providing advice both to business partners and line managers, and to assist call centers with difficult questions. Work areas that are most likely to have their own centers of expertise are training and development, recruitment, and rewards. The primary benefits that result from centers of expertise...
are: 1) deeper professional expertise, 2) HR becoming a more strategic contributor, and 3) higher quality advice being given to HR partners. Primary problems cited with centers of expertise include: 1) difficulty in separating out transactional work, 2) communication with the rest of the function, and 3) recruitment of high quality staff.

The shared service centers are where transactional tasks are handled. One company’s shared service center is described as being “responsible for the execution of common, standardized, transactional HR activity which cannot be achieved through automation alone.” As noted in the report, significant time is spent by organizations in HR administration and failure in this aspect of HR work will create a negative perception of the entire function. Cost reduction and improvement in service quality were the top benefits cited from shared service centers while boundary disputes and gaps in service provision were the most common problems that have been encountered with shared services. Only 4% of the survey respondents with an HR shared services operation said that they wholly outsourced it. Over the next three years, 11% expect HR shared services to be outsourced, while half expect to partly outsource some of their shared services.

Ed Lawler (2008) believes there is a need to establish human capital centric organizations that are designed and managed to optimize talent attraction, retention, and performance. This would entail a shift from the bureaucratic, structure centric manner in which most organizations today are managed. He believes that if the performance of employees is the critical factor in determining whether the organization is effective, a human capital centric approach is important. He criticizes those organizations that say people are their most important asset, but then they do not treat them as valuable assets.

According to Ed Lawler, the major features of a human capital centric organization include: 1) strategy is determined by talent considerations, and it in turn drives human capital management practices, 2) every part of the organization is focused on talent and talent management, 3) performance management is one of the most important activities, 4) the information system gives the same amount of attention to measures of talent costs, performance, and condition as it does to measures of equipment, materials, buildings, supplies, and financial assets, 5) the HR department is the most important staff group and has the best talent and IT resources, 6) organizational leadership has both the expertise and the information it needs to understand and provide input on talent issues, and 7) leadership is shared and managers are highly skilled in talent management.

**HR Transformation: Progress Made, but the Journey Continues**

For a number of years, the HRM function has been focusing on how it can become more strategic and add value to the organization. Studies show that while significant progress has been
made, the journey is not yet complete and more work remains to be done (CIDP, 2007; IPMA-HR, 2006; Deloitte Consulting LLP, 2007).

An examination of a survey conducted by the CIPD, which was discussed in the previous section, will form the basis for a review of where we are today on this transformational journey. Reference also will be made to a survey on HR transformation undertaken in 2006 by the International Public Management Association for Human Resources (IPMA-HR) and a 2007 survey conducted by Deloitte Consulting LLP.

CIDP survey was conducted in 2007 and involved 787 respondents; 60% from the private sector and 40% from the public sector. 88% of all respondents were either heads of HR department or board members. Nearly half of the respondents came from organizations with over 1,000 employees. The IPMA-HR survey had over 200 respondents from public sector HR executives in the United States. Of those responding, almost two-thirds were human resource directors. The survey examined the current state of HR transformation in public sector organizations, including the key impediments and enablers in pursuing transformation and the tools and techniques being utilized to pursue transformation. Deloitte Consulting undertook a survey of more than 150 global companies each having more than $2 billion in revenue with a view to understanding how global companies in the 21st century were transforming HRM.

The CIPD survey results found that HRM plays multiple roles within an organization. When asked what the primary purposes of the HRM function are, the top five answers were:

1. Recruit and retain key staff;
2. Develop employee competencies;
3. Improve the way in which people performance is managed;
4. Maximize employee involvement/engagement and
5. Improve employees’ focus on key business goals.

A key theme that emerged in the CIPD survey was HRM as a deliverer of services. HRM contributes by getting the right people in the right place and develops their skills. A second HRM role was the facilitator of the people responsibilities of the line management. The survey results found that cutting costs was a much lower priority and had fallen considerably since a similar 2003 CIPD survey. HRM needs to perform its administrative activities properly if it is to add value at a more strategic level. However, many HRM functions want to reduce the administrative workload to allow time for higher-level tasks. The survey found some progress with respondents reporting they are spending less time on administrative tasks than they did four years ago. While only 5% thought that administration was one of the three most important HR tasks, half thought it was one of the most time consuming functions.
There were 81% of the respondents to the CIPD survey who reported that the structure of the HR function within their organizations has changed within the past five years. Similarly, the Deloitte Consulting survey found that 84% of respondents were either currently transforming HR or intended to do so. The top reason for changing the HR structure cited in the CIPD survey was the desire for the HR function to become a more strategic contributor. Other reasons cited were the need to improve services, an increased business focus, and cost reductions. By contrast, the Deloitte Consulting survey found that the primary reasons for HR transformation were cost savings or efficiency. Only 30% of the respondents said that transformation was driven by the need to free HR to undertake a more strategic role.

As compared to a similar survey of three years ago, the CIPD survey revealed that HR staff has cut by a quarter the amount of time they spend on administration and almost doubled the amount of time devoted to strategic matters. However, when asked to identify the three most important/most time consuming activities, the results indicate that the HR function is still mired in transactional work. Developing HR strategy and policy was seen as the most important activity by 64% of the respondents, but only 28% said they spent the most time on it. Similarly, business strategy was seen as the most important activity by 58% of the respondents, yet only 14% said it was the most time consuming activity. Providing support to line managers was identified by only 37% of the respondents as the most important activity, yet 71% said it occupies the most time. Only 5% identified HR administration as the most important activity, yet 52% said it was the most time consuming. The survey authors concluded, “structural reform may not be sufficient to reposition HR” (CIDP, 2007)

Most of the respondents in the CIPD survey believed that the CEO’s of their organizations view the HR function positively. Similarly, the IPMA-HR survey respondents ranked the overall quality of HR staff and processes high. On a 1 – 5 scale, with 5 being high quality, HR staff had a mean rank of 4.4 and HR processes had a mean rank of 3.8. There were 48% of the IPMA-HR survey respondents who said that HR is not viewed as a strategic partner within their organizations. It should be remembered that the vast majority of the survey respondents work in HR.

The ability to offer an independent perspective was the strongest contribution HRM made, according to the CIPD survey respondents. There was improvement as compared to the 2003 survey in the contribution that HRM makes to business performance, its influence on board decisions, and the closeness to the business. The quality of HRM processes was the lowest rated response. Some survey respondents commented on the lack of appreciation of the contribution that the HR function can make and an absence of a shared vision towards people management.

The HR department has been trying for a number of years to shift more activities to line managers. Both line managers and HR staff have resisted this effort, with some HR staff being concerned with losing power and control as well as job security. The CIPD survey found that
since 2003, there has been a limited shift in the division of responsibility for HR function among line managers and the HR department. HR takes the lead in compensation and implementing redundancies. Work organization is more likely to be the responsibility of line managers. Areas such as recruitment/selection and training and development are more likely to be shared. Almost three-quarters of the survey respondents want to pass more responsibility to line managers. The obstacles appear to be the priorities of managers and their skills and available time.

The CIPD survey authors recommend that HR has to assess the people management capability of line management and be prepared to: invest in skills training, offer practical day-to-day support, coach and encourage their contribution, and transfer them back to specialist roles.

The authors of the CIPD survey noted that there is growing interest in the measurement of human capital, but limited practical application. There are few organizations that assess the strategic contribution of people management and link it to organizational performance. Measurement tends to be confined to assessing operational efficiency. An earlier survey was cited in which 40% of respondents did not see measuring human capital as an organizational priority. If HR wants to become a true strategic partner, it needs to develop better measures of its effectiveness and impact.

The CIPD survey results indicate that HRM is moving in the right direction, although more needs to be accomplished. Almost all of the organizations that responded to the survey are measuring the performance of HRM. There is more measurement of HR efficiency through functional costs and the HR/employee ratio. Efficiency was measured in a number of ways that included: 1) business performance, 2) surveys of managers or employees, and 3) customer satisfaction metrics. There was acknowledgment that it can be hard to measure the effectiveness and impact of the HR function and its contribution to business performance, since it can be difficult to establish the cause and effect.

The CIPD survey found that the most important competencies needed by HR staff are: strategic thinking, influencing/political skills, and business knowledge. Compared to a similar survey from four years ago, both strategic thinking and business knowledge have increased in importance. Other competencies needed by the HR staff included: ability to deliver against targets, leadership ability, understanding of HR practices, integrity, willingness to innovate, empathy/communication/listening skills, and negotiating skills.

The CIPD survey results indicated that the most difficult aspects of managing HR transformation are defining roles, insufficient resources, skill gaps, and ineffective technology. The top three barriers to transformation cited by the IPMA-HR survey respondents were lack of funds, lack of management support and poor information technology systems. There was a cautionary note in the CIPD survey that HR should avoid adopting solutions that have worked elsewhere, since each business is different and HR structures should reflect this.
Key to a transformation effort is obtaining senior management support at the beginning and sustaining it through implementation. The IPMA-HR survey respondents agreed that management support is critical in pursuing HR transformation. However, the IPMA-HR respondents believed that management often does not recognize HRM as a priority for change or as a strategic asset to the organization as a whole.

People issues are at the forefront of agendas for leaders within all organizations. The three surveys present a picture of an HR function that is undergoing significant changes that are likely to continue. The CIPD and IPMA-HR surveys present a more positive picture of HR transformation, which may be influenced by the fact that vast majority of respondents are HR leaders. The Deloitte Consulting survey indicates that reducing costs remains the primary focus of transformation. Even in the Deloitte Consulting survey, both business and HR leaders want the HR function in the future to become a strategic business partner within the company. The challenge for the HR profession is to continue to make positive strides in transforming the HR function.

The Future

The HRM function needs to continue evolving and focusing on the important contributions it can make to organizations. There is neither a simple answer nor a one-size fits all approach that will work across organizations. This section juxtaposes a study talking about HRM moving to the next step by becoming an insight-drive function with a study that says HRM either evolves or risks being diminished and absorbed into other functions.

The CIPD (2010) issued a report designed to stimulate debate about how HR will develop over the next five to ten years. The report notes that while many HRM functions have gone beyond simply being the people function into overall performance, there is a crucial need for HRM to support short-term performance, but also to put driving sustainable performance at the core of its purpose (CIPD 2010). The authors found that throughout their research, it was apparent that simply looking at the structure, roles and activities that HR is engaged in provides a limited understanding of what delivers impact in the organization in the eyes of the senior executives of the organization.

The authors call for an insight-driven approach to HRM; the ingredients of which are business savvy, organizational savvy, and contextual savvy. The authors believe the outcomes of insight-driven HR are: 1) HR strategy becomes more responsive and relevant, 2) HR moves beyond being a service function towards establishing a proactive agenda, as it offers insight into things that others in the business may well not be seeing or acknowledging, 3) HR can act as an early warning system where the organization is not alert enough to the changing demands placed on it,4) HR can provide insight into how to make the difficult things happen, given their
understanding of how to mobilize the organization and what is really happening, and 5) HR is an integral part of the organization where it would be inconceivable to think about driving the business forward without their involvement and perspective. The authors believe that in the insight-driven world HR “is able to provide new insight into how to tackle the challenges of the day and has an innate feel for how to pay attention to the long-term health of the business while delivering today.”

The authors believe that as HR becomes more insight-driven, the relevance and impact of HR will increase and the function will be seen as “trusted advisers, partner, and provocateurs. If we can create a cadre of leaders who want to take the profession in this direction, then there is little doubt that HR will be able to spotlight the value it can make to organizations.”

The Institute for Employment Studies (IES) in Great Britain issued a report titled *The HR Agenda for 2010: Ten Top Trends as We Come out of Recession*. Peter Reilly, IES Director, HR Research and Consultancy noted that as a result of the global recession, cost reductions have become the primary goal of current HR transformation. He cited an emphasis on standardization of policies, processes and systems as a way of saving money and allowing for internal benchmarking, the spread of organizational or external good practices and reducing HR numbers. He cautions against one size fits all models of policy and practice in an increasingly diverse world.

Mr. Reilly believes that HR shared services is very common for large complex organizations. The challenge is to make shared services work effectively and to connect all the elements of the delivery model so that there is an integrated approach. He cites public sector organizations as now focusing on how to get economies of scale, not just within their organizations, but by combining with others. He also makes a reference to smaller civil service departments that have transferred their HR administrative work to one of the big HR shared service centers being run by central government departments. The goals of these efforts are to reduce costs, boost quality, and share benefits. Devolution of HR work from the HR department to the line managers is another trend cited by Mr. Reilly. He stated that there can be resistance on the part of managers to this effort since they believe that HR manager is employed to do these activities and they object to having their workloads increased at a time when they are under pressure to do more with less. He states that “if HR does not improve the quality of its HR community by building capacity and capability for the future, it will not be able to drive change in the organization, develop employee engagement, push performance management, etc.”

In a 2009 study issued by Deloitte titled *Shaping Up: Evolving the HR Function for the 21st Century*, the authors conclude that:

*HR is at a turning point. For a decade now it has been undergoing a process of transformation. But for many, it has been a process that has increasingly failed to produce the results expected of it. During these times of rapidly changing economics, we believe HR is faced with a stark choice.*
It can either evolve and make a significant contribution, or be diminished and dispersed into the business (Deloitte, 2009).

The authors believe that enabling the HRM function to become a more strategic contributor has been the most common objective of efforts to transform the HR function. The conclusion of the authors is that the transformation process has failed to deliver, with only 23% of organizations in another Deloitte study saying that HRM currently plays a crucial role in strategy formulation and operational results. The strategic people agenda of organizations is not being addressed by HRM. The authors call on HR departments to continue transforming themselves into a function designed to get the best out of their organization’s people. To do that, the authors believe that the transactional skills of the HR managers and professionals need to become secondary to their strategic understanding of the organization.

**Conclusion**

The HRM function has moved from being a service function to a process driven function to being a more strategic function. Organizations are at different stages of this evolutionary process. Significant progress has been made, but there is much work remaining to be done. The HR departments in some organizations have been accused of being an overhead function that doesn’t add much value and may actually hinder operations of the organization. In other organizations, HRM plays a strategic role and the HR leadership serves as key members of the leadership team. However, many organizations are still somewhere in between.

To move forward, HRM needs to develop better measures of its effectiveness and impact and should ensure that the measures have meaning both for organizations and those that work within them. HRM also needs to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of core HR products and services. HRM needs to find the proper balance between providing services and programs while addressing the important strategic people issues.

In the public sector, there are rules and traditions that may make transformation more difficult to implement. However, the people needs of organizations today are critical and the HR managers and professionals need to be the ones leading the talent efforts of their organizations. Progress may be slow and incremental, but HR managers and professionals should not lose sight of the importance of continuing to move forward. HRM also has an important role to play as the conscience of the organization and they should not shirk responsibility in this area.
References
IES (2010). The HR Agenda for 2010: Ten Top Trends as We Come out of Recession. Brighton: The Institute for Employment Studies (IES)
Institute of Personnel and Development
IPMA-HR(2006)HR Transformation Survey
Appendix

IPMA-HR Model

To assist HR professionals to transform the HR function, the International Public Management Association for Human Resources (IPMA-HR) established a competency model containing 20 competencies that serve as the foundation for human resources professionals as they execute their work inside four major roles. These roles include: HR Expert, Business Partner, Change Agent, and Leadership. Only one of the twenty competencies deals with HR expertise, since human resources professionals generally excel in this traditional role. IPMA-HR has developed a training program, “Developing Competencies for HR Success” that provides training to assist HR professionals to become strategic business partners, change agents, and to exercise a leadership role within their organizations. The 20 competencies contained in the IPMA-HR model are assigned to the four major roles as shown in the Chart below.

The HR Business Partner serves as a management partner who shares accountability with line management for business and organizational results. When acting in this role, the HR professional works actively with the manager to devise effective solutions to organizational or performance problems and is involved in business strategic planning and working toward results that are clearly aligned with the organization’s mission and strategic goals.

In the role of a Change Agent, the HR professional would assist in the management of the change process in an enlightened and collaborative manner. The expectation is that the HR function will lead the organization through a change effort. When acting as a change agent, HR professionals would champion the change process so that it becomes part of the climate and culture of the organization and lessens the anxiety that typically accompanies change.

The Leadership role involves balancing the concerns for the satisfaction and the welfare of the overall workforce with the organizational requirements and both short- and long-term business goals.
The chart below contains the competencies and the roles to which they are assigned.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competency</th>
<th>Change Agent</th>
<th>Business Partner</th>
<th>Leadership</th>
<th>HR Expert</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated understanding of the organization’s mission, vision, and values and the business plan for execution using these attributes as its foundation for meeting the organization’s service goals.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to be innovative, creating and sustaining a positive environment that supports calculated risk-taking.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to apply organizational development principles.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to link specific human resource initiatives to the greater organization’s mission and service deliverables.</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to design and implement change through the altering of systems and procedures.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to use return on investment and information technology strategies in the practice of human resource management.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to effectively design, develop, and implement human resource and organizational processes for all customers, including in the context of organizational and/or political resistance.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to design and deliver marketing programs related to sourcing and selection.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated understanding and ability to effectively utilize the current and potential contributions of a workforce that is maximized in terms of all aspects of diversity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated practice of integrity and ongoing ethics-based leadership behavior in all circumstances, including those that may jeopardize the professional future of the human resources leader.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated understanding of Business Process and How to Change to Improve Efficiency and Effectiveness.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated knowledge of Human Resource Laws and Policies.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated understanding of the Public Service and Private Sector Environments.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated understanding of team behavior and ability to lead teams toward high performance.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to successfully communicate, verbally and in writing, including the use of persuasive public presentations on behalf of the human resources function.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to assess and balance the competing values found within the organization (i.e., the greater mission and vision, various department values, and values as demonstrated by executive and mid-management leadership).</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to exercise the use of business systems skills, including the ability to think strategically and creatively.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to analyze all presenting issues, recognizing the needs of all stakeholders in terms of collaborative solutions.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to use negotiating skill sets, including consensus-building, coalition-building, and dispute resolution.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated ability to build and sustain trust-based relationships, both individually and collectively over time.</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Emerging International Trends in Human Resource Management: Implications for the African Public Sector

John Lavelle

while there is a generally accepted body of HRM policy and practice, application needs to be culturally sensitive.

Introduction

This chapter attempts to survey Public Sector Human Resource Management Policies and Practices in the international arena (HRM), which is a daunting undertaking. The chapter adopts a hybrid approach: in part it offers a practitioner’s perspective of what is known to be happening – what works and what falls short of expectations - and; in part it touches on what is emanating from academia and the professional human resource (HR) journals and magazines. It needs to be stated at the outset that the relationship between HR practice and research is a problematic one. Unlike other professionals and functional areas, HRM is unique in the extent to which practice and research fail to connect or mutually inform in any meaningful way. As recently pointed out, there seems to be a wide chasm between what is published in the monthly professional practitioner-oriented publications and what constitutes a more scholarly work.13

No pretense is made that the chapter constitutes an exhaustive survey of international practice. Country-specific examples are, of necessity, selective but hopefully representative of broader trends. There is, in any event, a certain repetition in practice and thinking, irrespective of location. The chapter is organized as follows: Firstly, some observations are made about the current status of HRM and the challenges it faces. The premise is that HRM applies equally to both the public and private domains, even if the particular challenges and priorities differ somewhat by industry, location and across the public/private divide. The chapter will reference but not enter the fray on these possible distinctions. Secondly, a brief look is taken at HRM at the national policy and legislative level. Labor laws tend to hold considerable sway over HRM, particularly, though not exclusively, as it applies to the public sector. Labor negotiations at the national level also have significant ramifications for public sector HRM, transferring important discretion out of the hands of HRM professionals. Both national legislation and negotiations can be significantly affected by political considerations and political ideology as can the very scale, scope and prestige of the Public Sector.

Next, a deliberately critical look is taken at some core areas of Public Sector HRM. While conceding that progress has been made, and pilot testing new approaches in deliberative ways is an inherently good thing, the chapter will argue what much of what passes for innovation is little more than “old wine in new bottles” leaving familiar trails of unintended consequences

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and recidivism in their wake. The areas selected for scrutiny are: Compensation and Grading Systems; The Performance Appraisal Process; Rewards and Recognition Schemes; and the Appointment Processes for Senior Civil Servants. Finally, three: “in vogue” HRM tools actively being promoted in the professional journals (and marketed aggressively by the large HR consulting practices) are touched on briefly. They are: 360 Degree Feedback; Executive Coaching, and; Staff Engagement Surveys. The lesson is “caveat emptor”: each has potential to add value but proper use needs to be situational and, in the case of staff engagement, no proven link to individual or organizational effectiveness has been established.

Penultimately, some contextual observations are made about the impact of national culture on the efficacy of HRM practice. The argument presented is that, while there is a generally accepted body of HRM policy and practice, application needs to be culturally sensitive. This is particularly so in locations, such as China, where HRM is still emerging. And finally consideration is given to the possible future when HRM in the public sector turns its attention to Human Capital Management, begins to think strategically about workforce segmentation as its priority and, in so doing, begins to advance up the ladder of organizational influence and impact.

Trends in Public Sector HRM

Two, inter-related trends in Public Sector HRM are worth taking stock of: first the traditional distinction between the Public Service model of employment and career and its Private Sector counterpart is being seriously rethought in many countries. The long accepted belief was that working for government is so significantly different than working for other employers, that it requires a special employment system, offering a high level of job security and the guarantee of a lifetime career. In recent years, belief in this fundamental distinction between the two models has been eroding in a growing number of countries and convergence of the employment models is underway. Table 1 below adapted from a quite recent OECD (2005) study summarizes the scale and scope of employment reforms various governments have been adopting to bring about convergence between public and private sector employment.

Current thinking revolves around the distinction between career-based employment systems and position-based system. In the former, public servants are typically hired at the beginning of their career and remain in public service throughout their working lives. Initial entry is competitive, based on academic credentials and/or a civil service entry examination. In some countries, the entry level examination is accorded considerable stature. In Taiwan, for example, an entire arm of government, the Orwellian sounding Ministry of Examinations, is dedicated to this particular task. Once recruited, people are deployed depending on the needs of the organization and are assumed to be highly fungible.

Position-based systems are premised on the principle that recruitment is on the basis of skills and competencies required for specific positions or area of work. Recruitment can be
conducted internally or externally, with no guarantee of subsequent promotions but with still an expectation of tenure and employment security.

No civil service is a pure example of either the career-based or position-based system, although some countries clearly emphasize one set of characteristics over the other. There is a growing tendency for countries to adopt practices from both types of systems in an attempt to mitigate the weaknesses to which each system is prone. For instance, the Public Service of Canada operates under a job-based model, but also uses a career-based approach for senior managers, economists, and an identified pool of future senior leaders. Similar to Canada, most countries are now effectively operating under a hybrid regime that combines some aspects of career-based and job-based models. It is important to note also that an increasing share of public employment is not career-based and is instead genuinely contingent. Finally, Table 4.1 also demonstrates that the trend is towards extending national labor law to all workers, public and private, including those who would have enjoyed separate protections under older civil service statutes. This may appear radical at first blush and to a degree it is. However, it is worth noting that countries which are trending in this direction tend to have robust national labor laws that enshrine considerable protections to workers in general. Loss of employment security for civil servants is effectively at the margin.

Table 4.1: Trends in Public Sector Employment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Trends in Public Sector Employment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>The ratio between “ongoing” and non-ongoing’ employees unchanged since 1996. Life-time employment not guaranteed for either category</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>Six-year “mandate” system for managers (Director General, and two levels below).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>The ratio of term/casual employees is increasing against employees on indeterminate terms.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>Significant reductions expected in the number of civil servants. Temporary employment becoming more popular in hiring at the managerial level. In 2001 about 19% of all heads of divisions had fixed employment contracts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Permanent contracts/employment relationships used extensively but, no tenure. Fixed-term contracts can be used when warranted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Contract employment on an ad hoc basis and only at lower levels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Temporary employment becoming more popular in hiring at the managerial level. In 2001 about 19% of all heads of divisions had fixed term contracts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>93% of public sector staff on open-term contracts. Remainder fixed-term.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>With the exception of very few positions (judges). Swedish Government employees on permanent contract basis subject to universal employment protection legislation. Civil Service status and protections abolished in 2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>Civil servant status abolished in 2002. All federal staff has employee status with the exception of a small category of personnel such as members of federal appeals commissions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>The civil service makes use of both fixed-term and casual appointments alongside its permanent staff</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Authority for human resources management (HRM) policy is centralized in most OECD countries, but, as Table 2 below illustrates, in many of them the design and implementation of these policies is now decentralized. Although the scope and pace of decentralization vary from country to country, most OECD countries have moved towards delegating responsibility for HRM to departments and agencies to give managers more flexibility and freedom. In general, there appears to be three strategies of delegation:

- Transferring responsibility for human resource management from central bodies to line departments;
- Simplifying rules and procedures;
- Developing more flexible policies.

One other matter under debate is where the locus of central policy authority, whether in a highly centralized Public Service HRM system or a more decentralized one, should best reside. As Table 4.2 shows, the choice tends to be either the Ministry of Finance or separate Public Management/Service ministries. There may be no one best location but developments gradually unfolding in the US are revealing.

### Table 4.2: HR Policy location in OECD countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HRM Ministry/Agency</th>
<th>Location in Central Government</th>
<th>Country Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Central Ministry/Agency</td>
<td></td>
<td>Belgium, Sweden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single Ministry/Agency</td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>Finland, Denmark, Portugal, Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single Ministry/Agency</td>
<td>Public Service/Management</td>
<td>Australia, Austria, France, Norway, New Zealand, US, Germany</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single Political Location</td>
<td>Prime Minister/Cabinet</td>
<td>Czech Republic, UK, Poland, Slovak Republic, Mexico</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fragmentation of Authority:</td>
<td></td>
<td>Japan, Korea, Ireland, Canada, US</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple Ministries/Agencies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Formally, Public Service HRM policy authority in the US lies with the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) but in recent years the Office of Budget Management (OBM), the keeper of the Federal purse strings, has been exerting considerably more influence,
particularly over the more substantive decisions and initiatives, while OPM’s sphere of influence has been shrinking markedly (Mills, 2010). This slow demise of OPM may not be entirely its own fault, for at least two reasons. The first one is that nearly half of the government workforce is already beyond OPM’s policy purview because they work in exempted areas where OPM holds no policy or fiduciary sway. Secondly, with the creation of departmental Chief Human Capital Officers, more day to day policy decisions have been devolved to the local level (or have been usurped). One lesson from the above is that, in a more fragmented workforce environment, government HRM control may better be served by linking responsibilities for HR policy with responsibilities for overall budgeting and expenditures.

HRM at the National Level

HRM is typically elevated to the National level in one of two ways, both with significant implications for HR practice at the local level: Binding labor laws and employment legislation and; National Public Sector pay agreements. Labor laws are relatively ubiquitous and serve up different combinations of employee protection and proscriptions on certain employer behavior. Sometimes, the mix greatly favors the employer as it does in the US private sector and in certain sections of the US public sector, known as Non-Title 5 or exempted organizations, where “At Will” employment status is permitted. Roughly 50 percent of Federal employees belong to exempt agencies. “At will” means “at the employer’s will”: permitting summary dismissal without cause or recourse, except for certain procedural violations. (Regrettably the sitcomish scenario of a terminated employee being escorted off the premises in indecent haste moments after being fired is not a myth. It happens frequently.) There are other exceptions and protections provided by other legislation such as the American Disability Act of 1990, but the categories of staff offered protection is restricted – hiring bias against disabled persons as an example. On the extreme other hand, Federal employees in non-exempted agencies effectively enjoy bullet proof employment protection courtesy of the Pendleton (Civil Service Reform) Act of 1883, which was originally passed into law to curb rampant cronyism and patronage in 19th century Washington by setting recruitment standards and procedures. Its original drafters, however, never intended that it would become the legal basis of Federal worker lifetime job security.

In many parts of Europe – Sweden and Germany being particular cases in point – employment legislation tilts strongly towards the rights of employees. The process for terminating employment is onerous and as was discussed earlier, increasingly both workers in the public and private sectors enjoy the protections of an omnibus set of labor laws. Employment protection is strong but so too are rights of employees to take, under certain circumstances, extend breaks or leaves of absence from their jobs with guaranteed rights of reentry and full reinstatement. Sometimes the hiatus from the workplace can be several years in duration. Enabling legislation clearly provides a social benefit: for one thing, it gives parents important degrees of freedom to strike work-life balances of their choosing at crucial
stages in family life. But this social benefit also comes with a countervailing social cost. It effectively disenfranchises the workers who fill in for employees on extended leave and inadvertently creates a category of contingent/pro tem worker. Demographics compound the matter as retirement ages are raised in Europe and older workers tarry longer in the workplace. This makes it more difficult for younger people and those entering the labor market to gain open-ended employment and ultimate tenure under the labor laws: their senior counterparts are exercising property rights to employment under the same laws and shrinking the pool of available job positions.

Generous (to the employee) labor legislation also curbs the freedom of HR functions to align staffing needs with business of public sector agency strategic needs. And it confines HRM to a role of enforcer of legislation rather than creator of business solutions.

**Unintended consequences: The experience of China’s Labor Contract Law**

Employment legislation does not always achieve its intended goal. The 28th Conference of the People’s Congress, PRC approved China’s first comprehensive labor protection legislation in June 2007. The law was subsequently enacted in December of that year. The law covered many facets of employment and was a deliberate step in swinging the pendulum from the completely laissez faire employment regimen that was obtained previously, to one in which employment was subject to regulation and employees were afforded some protection and compensation (redundancy payments) in the event of losing employment.

Three categories of employment were specified: fixed-term; non-fixed term, and; project-based. The law stipulated correctly that after a period of years in fixed-term appointments (the threshold was set at 10 years continuous employment), a staff member was effectively in open-ended employment and deserved the corresponding benefits and protections of same. Critically, continuous service was to be applied retroactively on the enactment of the law. This led to wholesale terminations of staff that were approaching the 10 year service mark as organization, both public, government and private sought to evade potential redundancy payment obligations. In many cases, staff was hired back by the same employer but now as contract-in fixed-term employees of what are known as “talent agencies” in China and “body shops” elsewhere. Not only did the staff not succeed in obtaining improved rights and securities; their employment status regressed as an unintended consequence of the new law.

**National Pay Bargaining**

The recent South African public sector pay imbroglio will doubtless be a topic for discussion and reflection. It is important to note that, while some of the tactics employed during the bitter stand-off between government and trade unions were beyond the pale, South Africa is not alone in facing problems with national pay negotiations. A general observation, illustrated by other country experiences is that, left unchecked, national bargaining will trend towards the unsustainable and create serious and potentially intractable downstream problems for the countries in question. And, as a byproduct, it serves to disempower HRM in the public sector because discretion to negotiate at the local level is removed.
The Greek debt fiasco and the Papandreou government’s draconian response to the threat of imminent default pulled back the curtain on a practice of public sector employment which had caused the country to slip clear of its fiscal moorings. Greek public sector expenditures amount to 40 percent of GDP. All employees are covered by National Central Labor Agreements. And yet strong arm union negotiating tactics may be only part of the problem. The trade union movement is actually relatively decentralized and not inherently combative. (After initial violence protests, the unions quickly changed course and rallied round the government austerity program.) It seems that runaway public sector employment and a “jobs for life” ethos may also be linked to Greece’s difficult recent history and a government’s desire to extend a middle class lifestyle and job security to as broad a cross-section of citizens as possible. Still, the scenario of legions of idle workers in secure jobs is hardly the backdrop for innovative, hard-charging HRM in the public sector. A strong entitlement sentiment and general organizational inertia clearly prevailed.

Ireland is in some ways a more interesting case study of what can go array with national bargaining. The Irish economic and debt situation has also ended shockingly badly but, before calamity struck, many of the fundaments – including strong fiscal management, a booming economy and a powerful public sector HRM arm – were in place, attracting extensive plaudits and imitation. The lesson from Ireland’s current woes is that while national pay bargaining tends to push the boundaries beyond what is prudent in general, it can be a particularly roguish process during economic boom times. The Irish economy underwent rapid and genuine growth in the past decade, ushering in a period of shared prosperity never before enjoyed: a nation of emigrants metamorphasized over night into a land of immigrants for returning citizens and skilled professionals from the more recent EU members such as Poland and the Czech Republic. Prosperity also attracted many economic asylum seekers from the poorer Eastern European EU member countries as well as many from the African sub-continent.

Public Sector pay levels were set by a succession of National Public Sector Pay Agreements, negotiated by the Department of Public Service (the central HRM arm of government) and the powerful central Trade Union Congress. Public Sector trade unions happen to be very active and combative and boast overwhelming Public Sector employee membership. As a result of the national agreements, public sector pay more than doubled in the space of 6 years. A growing economy and fiscal hubris effectively neutered the budgetary checks and balances normally present in Public Sector pay bargaining. By the time of the crisis, Public Sector pay was estimated to have moved ahead of the Private Sector (which had also surged) by as much as 25 percent, this without factoring in the discounted present value of a suite of very generous long-term benefits including defined benefit and indexed pensions. The fully discounted differential was, in effect, much higher than 25 percent.

Public service has always been prestigious in Ireland and been a career destination for highly talented individuals, even if not traditionally as well compensated as other countries such as Singapore and Korea with envied government systems. The rapid advances in public pay and benefits effectively rendered the public side of the labor market the “Employer of Choice” for
many top graduates and skilled workers who would not previously have considered public employment. There seemed to be no downside until the public debt crisis exploded\textsuperscript{14}. In the past year, Public Sector pay has been slashed by 20 percent on average (up to 25 percent for senior civil servants and managers) by a combination of direct pay cuts and making a previously non-contributory pension scheme fully contributory. Interestingly, the reaction of the workforce has been muted. After some desultory resistance from the trade unions and token protests in the street, an air of resignation set in. Ireland had been for too long a net exporter of people and the boom had been too ephemeral to allow a collective entitlement mindset to have taken hold – in sharp contrast to Spain, Portugal, Greece and France. Sobering as the experience has been, a clear lesson to emerge is the importance of maintaining constraints on Public Sector pay increases even (or especially) when the good times are rolling. The HRM professionals in the Department of Public Service must accept much of the blame for what happened. We now turn to the next section where a sample of HRM practices and policies, of interest to Public Sector HRM practitioners, are examined critically.

**Compensation and Grading Systems (The Pitfalls of Broadbanding)**

Increasingly in the Public Sector, Broadbanding is seen as the answer to all compensation and grading difficulties. The theoretical advantages of pay banding are several folds. They are supposed to greatly simplify some dreary aspects of HR administration, most particularly job classification. Fewer levels mean fewer decisions (and bureaucratic battles) about where particular jobs belong in the pay structure. In intensely broadly banded systems, classification is rendered pro forma and relegated to clerical task status. Fewer grades or levels also mean fewer promotion decisions to make, with resulting lowering of administrative and transactional costs. Banding is often cited as a means of facilitating skills acquisition and career development, by easing restrictions (real or imagined) on occupational or functional mobility within an organization. Proponents also point to the worth of eliminating artificial distinctions between levels of work and downplaying hierarchical distinctions.

But, as we will see with the World Bank sobering experience with Banding, some of the above “benefits” are illusionary. According to the literature, the system lends itself to organizations in a constant state of flux, be it caused by intense competition from rivals, rapidly changing technology or altering market conditions. Organizations confronting such volatility need workforce flexibility: the twin pillars of bureaucracies – specialization and hierarchy are dead weights. Some parts of a particular public sector may meet the conditions above but most do not. The more stable operating environment of a Weberian bureaucracy and Banding has proven to be a lethal cocktail, as much of the US Federal Government, which embraced Banding with a passion in the past decade, can attest.

\textsuperscript{14} Caused primarily not by reckless public expenditure but by the staggering burden of the exchequers efforts to underwrite the crippling losses of the Irish Banking sector which did behave recklessly in fueling a property sector bubble.
The traditional US Federal grade structure, the General Service (GS) consisted of fifteen grades with overlapping pay ranges of approximately 30 percent. When Pay Banding was widely introduced, two, three or sometimes more grades were combined. Over time, studies by the Office of Management and Budget (OMB), the US Federal watchdog agency on budgeting and expenditure of public funds began to sound the alarm that salary increase discipline was breaking down. The structure of incremental grade steps which placed checks on increases had been removed with nothing substituting for it. Over time, various ameliorative measures were taken to reassert restraint, for example, by inserting “control points” or “speed bumps” setting ceilings on annual salary increases. The problem is that this simply creates, de facto, a shadow traditional multi-layered grade structure, negating the fundamental rationale for embracing pay banding in the first place.

But the issues are not just technical in nature. As the case study of the World Bank’s experience below illustrates, there are important behavioral and motivational factors that can be ignored at an organization’s peril.

In 1998, as part of a comprehensive HR Reform agenda, the institution cut its Hay-based grade structure by 50%. The new structure was inaccurately dubbed “Broad banding” though it more accurately resembled what IDB is planning. The rationale for the new structure was two-fold: the proliferation of grades compromised ability to make meaningful distinctions between levels; and it compressed salary bands for particular grades. As a result, annual salary increases played out across a narrow range with little differentiation between outstanding and average performers. It was assumed that fewer grades with longer salary ranges would allow managers to make bolder distinctions between staff and truly reward the top performers. While the rationale may have been impeccable, the new structure failed to meet expectations and is viewed in retrospect as a mistake.

Put simply, the collapse of grades was not accompanied by the necessary change in management behaviour. Annual salary increases continued to regress towards the mean, robbing the process of the potential to differentiate aggressively. This was attributable, for the most part, to managerial caution, particularly the deep-rooted inclination to shy away from singling out poor performers. (It also stemmed from the complicated design of the annual salary increase system which has a built in zero-sum dimension: stretching the rewards of the outstanding performers means taxing those of the average performers.)

Much more damaging, however, was the fact that attitudes to promotion remained unchanged with the unintended consequence being that the pace of annual promotions continued unchecked. Grade bloat was the predictable result over time. What was not factored into the original design was the fact that, in an institution like the World Bank, minor differences matter and promotion is one of the few symbols of recognition available to managers; there is considerable pressure to promote staff over time, regardless of formal policy, particularly when annual salary increases are bunched in the middle of the award range.
Performance Appraisal Systems

Many performance appraisal programs suffer from a subtle but significant problem – confusion about what exactly is being appraised (and ultimately rewarded). Is the performance metric about results? Is the focus on competencies, or “behaviors” or knowledge or potential? The truth is, paradoxically, that, as performance appraisal engineering grows more intensive, the outcomes become more convoluted and confusing to all concerned. Most, so called “sophisticated” systems are freighted with random and incoherent combinations of the above metrics options, adding considerably to the transaction costs of managing the process and delivering consistent messages to staff. Other factors at play generally but most particularly in the public sector include:

- The intractable problem of combating subjectivity in assessing performance, particularly in the kind of knowledge work performed in the Public Service.
- True Performance outcomes often do not match the annual performance appraisal cycle. Time span of discretion can be much longer. Appraisal, as a result, focuses excessively on means rather than ends.
- Finding common performance definitions can be challenging in the Public Service. As an example – Responsive as a desired performance indicator: Is it about speed alone? What about the softer qualitative aspects of service, or some elusive combination?

Rewards and Recognition (The Pitfalls of Performance Bonus Schemes) The literature is split on the value of performance reward and recognition systems. Those who believe that people are intrinsically motivated to perform to high standards of their own setting, see performance rewards as getting in the way and sending sub-textual signals that, without tangible rewards, performance would fall out – that staff cannot be trusted in other words. Others see it differently. A sizeable component of HRM is predicated onto the belief that there is a causal link between external rewards and performance. (For what it is worth, the author is squarely in the former camp.) Too big a topic to do justice to here but worth making a few points based on experience. Again, the World Bank’s sobering experience is worth sharing:
A Performance Award Scheme was launched with much fanfare in 1998 only to be quietly abandoned in 2001. The scheme provided managers with a pool of money enabling them on an annual basis to award up to 10% of their staff up to 10% of salary as a non-pensionable performance bonus. The scheme wasn’t an abject failure but was judged as adding insufficient value given the considerable administrative costs associated with it. And it was unpopular with both managers and staff, if for different reasons. It failed to take proper hold and become institutionalized for a number of reasons:

Firstly, and as mentioned above under Grading, aggressive differentiation of performance was (and is) something managers in the institution typically found difficult to do. A scheme that permitted sizeable monetary rewards to be given to a small subset of staff compounded this difficulty.

The literature indicates clearly that bonus schemes work when the criteria are transparent and clear cut – sales force bonuses as an example – particularly to non-recipients in a given period.

The intangible nature of much of the Bank’s world makes the scope for interpretation of performance wide and the allocation of rewards harder to justify to staff at large.

In much of the institution, performance is a long-term phenomenon: true results can take years to emerge. An annual reward system is almost by definition out of sync with the true performance cycle and prone to recognize means rather than ends.

Since most work is carried out by teams of interdependent staff members, individual bonus awards were perceived as divisive and injurious to team esprit.

Eventually the pressure on managers to justify rewards led to a shift towards rewarding teams rather than individuals and to bureaucratizing the decision-making process with the formation of reward committees. The former was plagued by problems of defining team membership correctly whereas the latter takes ultimate accountability out of the hands of individual managers and dilutes both message and symbolism.

After three unhappy years of experimentation, the scheme was mothballed.

Special attention to senior management in the Public Service is currently becoming a common theme in many countries around the world. Many countries have created or restructured the senior civil service group in an effort to manage their senior managers in a different manner from the rest of the civil service (OECD, 2005). These countries have established this differentiated group for several reasons, including the need to induce a performance oriented civil service culture, to promote policy coordination between departments and to cultivate a sense of cultural cohesion between high level civil servants. These points are particularly important at a time when there is some concern about possible erosion in public service values and a greater need to adopt a whole-of-government approach to public management.

Filling positions at the pinnacle of the non-political public service and the roles and relationships of cabinet ministers and their civil service counterparts attracts ongoing attention. For the purposes of this survey of international practice, the experiences of Canada and the United Kingdom are singled out for attention: both share a common public service tradition but each part ways in important respects –most specifically Canada’s increasingly lax stance on strict separation of political and civil service career paths (Halligan, 1997). In both countries, average time in role has decreased – in Canada average
time in role in a mere 1.5 years – and roles, employment rights and protections and performance expectations have been increasingly formalized.

In Canada, the top departmental civil servant is the deputy minister. Appointments are effectively made by the cabinet on the recommendation of the prime minister – with adjunct involvement of the Privy Council. Appointments are open-ended but “at pleasure”: deputy ministers have no statutory job or employment security and can be terminated by the prime minister at any time without recourse or process (except in the cases of misconduct or documented poor performance which trigger a formal review process by the Privy Council). Security of tenure thus hinges on the ability of the deputy minister to adopt a policy mantle highly in sync with that of the cabinet minister. In practice, removal from office tends also to be less draconian than theoretically possible: “defrocked” deputy ministers are by convention found soft landing alternative posts, nudged towards comfortable early retirement or offered the option of reaching a negotiated settlement.

The genesis of the current UK appointment system is the 1968 Fulton Report which pried power to unilaterally recommend permanent secretary appointments away from the head of the civil service and transferred it to a Senior Appointments Selection Committee (SASC), drawn from a roster of rotating members heavily representative of the ranks of permanent secretaries (The SASC makes recommendation to the head of the civil service who relays them to the prime minister for disposition). The committee’s autonomy was tested somewhat during the Thatcher years when the then prime minister was more explicit in her expressed preferences without seeking to wholly politicize the appointment process.

Following the creation of the Next Steps Program in 1988, the concept of executive agencies was systematically applied across the Whitehall departments. Following the publication of the 1994 White Paper, The Civil Service: Continuity and Change, recruitment to the senior civil service – while by competitive internal promotion in the main – meant a shift to individualized compensation and acceptance by the appointees of written contracts of service. Interestingly, the paper explicitly rejected, as a general proposition, the notion of fixed-term or rolling contracts except for “newly recruited senior managers” (confusing time-bound employment needs with probation). The White Paper also tried hard to balance the twin but potentially competing needs of supporting merit-based competitive appointment with that of the cabinet minister in question to have input into the SASC winnowing process.

In the case of chief executives of agencies, the presumption – but, strictly speaking, not requirement – is for open competition orchestrated by the civil service commissioners. In that of permanent secretaries, four options exist: (1) open internal competition; (2) external advertising or headhunting combined with an internal service-wide canvass; (3) a closed more targeted internal canvass; (4) or simply deployment of an existing permanent secretary. Internal competition or targeted internal canvass tends to be the preferred mode-in-use.

As with Canada, permanent secretaries and agency CEOs can be terminated with notice and severance. In practice involuntary exits or coaxed early retirement are uncommon – a testimony, perhaps, to the diligence of the SASC.
It is worth acknowledging another explicit and quite different tenure model: permanent secretaries in the public sectors of Ireland, Australia and New Zealand hold non-renewal fixed-term appointments which require them to retire from public service when their contracts expire. This draconian-on-the-surface contractual stipulation is designed to accomplish several things: (1) Ensuring that ambition to reach the pinnacle of the career civil service is clear-eyed and purposeful and not based on a “Buggin’s Turn” entitlement mindset; (2) fostering independence and principled behavior since all future options within the service are nullified; (3) and, by engineering turnover, creating a constant stream of opportunities for the up-and-coming ablest in hot pursuit of the top positions – the corollary bring that, after a while, the demographics of the permanent secretary cadre shift downwards, and secretaries begin to retire at an age when it is possible to start a new career.

Returning to the UK, the appointment processes to extra-governmental organizations and “quangos” – collectively ABC (agencies, boards and commissions) - has also been the focus of attention in recent years. A 2002 OECD study found that ABCs can account for 50-75% of both public expenditure and public employment and that appointments to boards and senior management positions of such bodies in developed economies were typically highly unregulated and prey to political patronage (Flinder (2009). That changed with the publication of the first report of the Committee on Standards in Public Life (CSPL) which advocated strongly for the creation of an independent public appointments commissioner to oversee key appointments to extra-governmental bodies. This led directly to the establishment of the Office of the Commissioner for Public Appointments (OCPA).

The CPA is an independent crown appointment. The office’s mandate is not to usurp the long-held prerogatives and reach of cabinet ministers in making appointments, but rather to ensure that such appointments observe high standards of rigor and principle. It modus operandi involves promulgating standards and auditing and reporting on practice. See Table 4.3 below for a summary of Principles of Public Appointments, taken from the OCPA website.

The original purview of the OCPA was initially quite limited. Under the “New Labor” reforms of the 1990s, it was considerably expanded to encompass ministerial appointments to nationalized industries, public corporations, and utility regulators. By all accounts, the role and actions of OCPA help engender greater public faith in the integrity of the public appointment processes.
Table 4.3: OCPA Principles of Public Appointments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Office of the Commissioner for Public Appointment’s Principles for Public Appointments</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Ministerial</td>
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<tr>
<td>The ultimate responsibility for appointment rest with ministries.</td>
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<td>2. Responsibility</td>
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<td>3. Merit</td>
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<tr>
<td>All public appointments should be governed by overriding principle of selection</td>
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<tr>
<td>based on merit, by the well informed choice of individuals, who throughout their</td>
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<tr>
<td>abilities, experiences and qualities match the needs of the public policy in</td>
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<td>question.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Independent Security</td>
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<tr>
<td>No appointment shall take place without first being scrutinized by a panel that</td>
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<tr>
<td>must include an independent assessor.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Equal Opportunities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Departments must sustain programs to promote and delivery equal opportunities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Probity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Board members must be committed to the principles and values of public service</td>
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<tr>
<td>and perform their duties with integrity.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Openness and Transparency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The principle of open government must be applied to the appointment process, its</td>
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<tr>
<td>working must be made transparent, and information must be provided about appointments</td>
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<tr>
<td>made.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Proportionality T</td>
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<tr>
<td>The appointment procedures need to be subjected to the principle of “proportionality”</td>
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<tr>
<td>“proportionality”, that is, they should be appropriate for the nature of the post</td>
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<td>and the size and weight of its responsibilities.</td>
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Source: [http://www.ocpa.gov.uk](http://www.ocpa.gov.uk)

What is in Vogue?

Finally a few brief observations on several HRM processes which are very much in vogue in corporate America and increasingly in Europe also: **360 Degree Feedback; Executive Coaching; and Staff Engagement Surveys.** The literature is replete with articles and papers extolling their respective merits. The HR consulting world is also full of positive marketing materials on same. Still, as the signs are that each in different ways is being variously taken up by Public Sector HRM, it may be useful to quickly look at what is emerging from the practitioner side of the house.

**The 360 Degree Feedback.**

On the credit side:
Considerable upside potential if used judiciously. Affords managers a unique perspective on how their styles impact colleagues in reporting, supporting and supervisory relationships.

Particularly valuable when individuals have recently assumed new sets of responsibilities, especially for the first time.

Confidentiality of feedback sources typically not a problem if handled in a common sense and entirely honest way.

On the potential debit side:

- Institutionalizing the process can quickly lead to diminishing return in terms of novel actionable feedback (the feedback becomes formulaic and tedious).

- Rater fatigue can soon set in if process becomes a regular feature (this compounds the problem of formulaic or pro forma inputs - raters default to generic shorthand to save time).

- Potential for “gaming” the process exists, particularly at the peer-to-peer level. Can be used to damage a rival, for example, or positive feedback reciprocity can set in.

- Biggest mistake organizations can make is to link 360 with performance management. Should be strictly developmental only.

**Executive Coaching**

- Clearly can be of benefit to individual managers if circumstances are right.

- Often the best coaches are senior personnel or retirees in good standing.

- The fast growing coaching professional lacks professional accreditation or agreement on ethical standards or other modus operandi.

- Admission to a program must be on a strictly voluntary basis. Compulsory participation is self-defeating and leads to compliant behavior and defensive routines.

- Chemistry between coach and coachee is a vital ingredient. Either party must have the latitude to declare the relationship as not working and opt out.

- Evidence strongly suggests the coaching is much more effective when used for positive developmental purposes and not as a remedial exercise.
Staff Engagement Surveys

Tends to be something HRM enjoys getting involved in. Lots of interesting data to pour over and speculate as to cause, but

- While it is intriguing to discover how well or otherwise staff fell engaged, often difficult to identify concrete action steps to ameliorate a suboptimal situation
- There is no evidence that engagement is a causal determinant of individual or unit performance. Positive scores are prey to the halo effect particularly in the Public Sector where contentment with benefits and job security spill over into other unrelated areas.
- And, like all survey exercises, engagement surveying can mutate into an administratively heavy cottage industry.

A Word on Culture

Much has been written about the alignment of public sector HRM with stages of national development. It was, inter alia, a major theme of the 2005 World Public Sector Report (WPSR). The debate continues on whether HRM in the developing World context is a converging or diverging topic. The WPSR conclusions and recommendations were cast in universal terms. That was unquestionably correct in certain cases - purging public sectors of corruption, for example. From a successful implementation point of view however, socio-political context also matters. To take one clear example, the implication that new public management (NPM) may be better suited to certain socio-political settings. The report notes that the best known examples of NPM in action (even when the long-term benefits remain open to some debate) are to be found in Anglo-Saxon countries—chiefly Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom, each of which has energetically embraced far reaching initiatives to devolve public sector managerial responsibility, closely track performance outputs and outcomes, impose internal market discipline, contract out, aggressively recover costs and promote semi-autonomous agencies.

Some of this gusto is traceable to political ideology; it is hardly coincidental that privatization of public services gained real momentum in the UK during the Thatcher era. Some may also be attributable to stages of economic development: successful privatization and imposition of market-based rules of service delivery depends on the existence of a strong private sector available to take up the transfer of ownership of services. Some, though, may also be cultural. In addition to a shared political destiny; all three of the Anglo-Saxon countries mentioned are remarkably similar on the Hofstede (1991) ratings of national cultural differences, being relatively unhierarchical, individualistic and tolerant of risk; the perfect cultural disposition for a devolved, flexible but highly accountable model—NPM, in other words.

This leads to a question, pertinent to this chapter: to what extent should national cultural attributes or others such as, say, religious beliefs be factored into decisions as to what HRM should look like in a particular country Public Service context?
The Hofstede national culture dimensions are set out to the left. Many readers will of course be very familiar with them.

To take some example of where culture and/or other factors play a role in shaping an appropriate HRM system, Malaysia offers an interesting case study.

Major reforms have been underway in the Malaysian public sector and wider economy since the 1980s. The desired paradigm is one of an innovative public sector which anticipates global change, is strongly customer oriented and supportive of the private sector in its efforts to compete globally and manage successfully an open economy (Malaysia is currently the 17th largest trading nation in the World).

Intriguingly, this model of the public sector as an agent of change has been imposed by prime ministerial fiat and is credited in part to the stability of the Malaysian economic and social order since the 1980s: a paradox of change emanating from the wellspring of stability and order. It also reveals a willingness to blend the old with the new; to at once look outwards and inwards with the “Look East Policy” and “Malaysia Incorporated” focusing attention on lessons from other Asian economic success stories (Japan and South Korea for example) and the embrace of Islamic Values and the so called “Twelve Pillars” (a set of work ethic values rooted in Islam) that spawned the 1989 Excellence Culture initiative launched by the then prime minister.

The resulting public sector HRM model is one that places emphasis on values and behaviors-in-use— respect for public sector customers and emphasis on continuous knowledge acquisition. Reinforcing the latter objective is the public sector remuneration system which has a competency-based merit component in contrast to a NPM narrow performance-based one. So this entails a collective instilling of the centrality of innovation in the public sector ethos, imposed softly from above in a nation where hierarchical power difference is accepted as the norm and reinforced by HR systems which emphasize the upholding of shared values rooted in religious belief and the imperative to stay open to the world beyond.

15 Intriguing that is until one discovers that Malaysia ranks number 1 on Hofstede’s Power Distance dimension.
A similar reliance on Islamic principles can be found in the management and performance management systems of the Sharia banking sector in the Arabian Peninsula and in organizations such as The Islamic Development Bank. Failure to factor in the import of these immutable guiding principles in the design and application of any HRM system dooms it to disappointment.

Singapore offers another interesting case study, particularly in the way a forceful public sector agency has managed to provide deep strategic support to the private sector in the execution of a dynamic economic development blueprint. Edgar Schein’s (1997) fascinating assessment of the culture of Singapore’s Economic Development Board (EDB) reveals the successful blending of a centralized Confucian-based managerial culture of authority and mutually understood responsibilities and positions with HR practices that are strongly meritocratic and long-term in orientation, concentrating on identifying and grooming talent while being resigned to the fact that much of this in-house talent will ultimately migrate to the private sector—an “up and out” approach, in a sense. EDB alumni occupy strategic positions in the indigenous and multi-national private sectors and the shared bonds reinforce strong working relationships between EDB and clients. The EDB investment in human capital ultimately pays dividends to its clients in both direct and indirect ways. Schein fittingly titled his book Strategic Pragmatism.

Of course in the longer terms, this model of a public sector as the driver of economic development can have its limitations. Schein noted (and others have risen similar alarms more recently) that the emergence of a highly qualified Singaporean managerial and technocratic cadre may have suppressed the emergence of a companion entrepreneurial class or venture capitalist esprit, public sector values being inevitably somewhat risk averse. In a gloomy scenario in which foreign direct investment and multi-national presence atrophies, a virtuous HR strategy could quickly mutate into a vicious one.

More generally, the HRM model in use has largely been developed in the US and Europe, particularly the UK where - again falling back on Hofstede’s dimensions of cultural difference - high degree of individualism, relatively moderate power difference and moderate to high masculinity. In such cultures, HRM policies and practices, whether public or private sectors, which focus on individual performance and competitive differentiation of reward and recognition will not be second guessed. But HRM is finding a footing in places with very different cultural characteristics. All of Asia displays high power difference, strong collectivism and, with the notable exception of Japan, moderate masculinity. A couple of examples of misalignment between current HR best practice and cultural context might include:

- HRM systems such as 360 Degree Feedback are problematic in a high power distance culture because they essentially demand staff to suspend their habitual fealty to authority and their immediate bosses in providing honest (and critical bosses) feedback. Strong collectivism also calls into question the veracity of peer feedback. Conclusion: 90 degree feedback but on a strictly top-down basis.
In the Chinese public sector where bonus awards are being used, it is expected of the person receiving an award that he or she will use the money to treat coworkers to a celebratory banquet. In other words, an individual rewards quickly turns into a collective celebratory event in a sense defeating the HRM design intent.

In conclusion, the argument advanced here is that culture, faith and possible other factors merit attention in designing and implementing HRM systems and processes.

**Toward Public Sector Human Capital Management**

So to what direction should Public Service HRM be heading? One elegant way of charting the evolution of HR and its future course is illustrated below. HRM can be thought of as having three roles, two firmly established, and one still largely on the drawing boards. Firstly there is what is now considered traditional Personnel Management, focused on Control through conformity with rules and policies, keeping staff records, maintaining job descriptions and profiles and so on. It is facile to dismiss these functions and responsibilities as staid or obsolete but it is an error to do so. Policy compliance is the vital bedrock upon which consistency, fairness and order rests. This is particularly true of the Public Service.

However, these are also custodial functions: they may bring order and guarantee internal equity but they are static and thus incapable of being influential. Their strengths also define their limitations.

Over the past few decades, a second set of HRM roles and functions have emerged and constitute what is now thought of as the Human Resources panoply or HRM to all extent and purposes. The Human Resources Function (HRM) delivers Services to organizational clients: recruitment, performance management to managers; training development, career management or counseling to staff. Most of these services are essential but they come with some limitations:

- Firstly, some of them could be purchased from without rather than being kept in-house.
- Secondly, they are delivered and at sometimes removed from the strategic priorities of the institution.
- Thirdly they do not impact senior management decision-making.
Fourthly, measuring their absolute effectiveness is problematic. The length of the recruitment cycle can be measured but whether the process yielded up the best candidates really cannot be; HRM metrics tend to get stuck at the means rather than ends part of the outcomes range.

And finally, it is impossible to connect HRM activity with overall organizational effectiveness (many HR consulting practices would argue differently, naturally.)

In summary, HRM, the service provider is useful, arguably essential, but again not truly influential.

And so to the still inchoate third set of roles and responsibilities. To become influential, HRM must impact organizational decision-making: to achieve this, it must become much more analytical and comprehending of which elements of the workforce are most critical and most value creating. To accomplish this, a more sophisticated workforce planning approach will be called for; one capable of making distinctions between required skills and areas of expertise which are “business critical” from those which are needed but less critical.

One taxonomy, developed by Corning Glass, a pioneer in workforce planning, is described briefly below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corning Glass: Four Key Roles</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strategic</strong>: critical to business growth and/or innovation/speed to market. These roles require unique capabilities that are difficult for competitors to copy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Core</strong>: essential to delivering consistently high-quality services and products, sustainable results and improvements in business processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Requisite</strong>: support business performance but that could be staffed differently to reduce costs while maintaining quality and consistency. Could be outsourced or readily filled from the labor market</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Noncore</strong>: roles that are not aligned with the strategic direction of the business and could be eliminated or redirected</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above is offered for illustrative purposes only. Different organizations employ different approaches to workforce segmentation but nevertheless share a common goal: developing means to think dynamically about current and future staffing and skills needs. The key point made forcefully earlier and supported empirically (OECD, 2005).

The natural, reflex reaction is that workforce segmentation is unworkable in the Public Service, for legal, equity, mission and precedent reasons (and perhaps a host of others). But as has been demonstrated earlier in the chapter, most Public Sectors, and more narrowly, Public Services, are already segmenting staff with gusto – career, professional, fixed-term,
casual - even if in ad hoc way and perhaps only because of exogenous pressures, be they budget-driven or ideologically based. Strategic segmentation moves extant practice to a different level.

Lastly, a more strategic segmentation of the workforce and future needs will enable Public Sector HRM to move beyond gap analysis staff planning which tends to reinforce the status quo, to a planning model capable of providing direction on how best to secure and retain talent—often described as the Build-Buy-Borrow options approach. Build is a strategy of growing talent from within; Buy is a strategy of competing in the external labor market for fully developed talent, and; Borrow is one that focuses on using non-career or possibly fully contingent staff for significant amounts of work. In Most other organizations, some combination of all three strategies is in play. The key question is whether they add up to a coherent and cost effective means of securing the skills and expertise required. Often strategies are misaligned. The challenge is to align them.

References
Chapter 4

Human Resource Management:
A Neglected Element in African Public Service Reforms

Gelase Mutahaba

The weakness of the service was moreover accentuated by shortcomings in the rules, regulations and procedures, all of which had been established for managing a public service with different objectives – a colonial service.

Introduction

This chapter examines the underlying causes behind the poor condition of the human resource management function in African public services. That understanding is necessary, to be able to place in a proper perspective, the diagnosis of the problems currently afflicting the performance of the function within African public services, as well as suggesting appropriate prescriptions.

It is worth noting that in the realization of a democratic and developmental state by African countries would significantly depend on the capacity and capability of African countries’ public service systems. That capacity and capability would be required to organize elections, provide sound technical advice on measures needed to stimulate growth, address inequality and reduce poverty, attract foreign investment, and at the same time avoid over-dependency. That public service will also have to maintain national sovereignty and fiscal stability without overlooking issues of stimulating employment. At a mundane level, it is the same public service that ensures that law and order on the street is maintained, children are taught in school, land ownership certificates are issued, roads and water supply systems are constructed and maintained, and wrong doers are punished. It is also the public service that mobilizes resources from the public (taxes) required to finance all the above mentioned functions in a modern state.

The author also noted that some commentators had suggested that many African countries’ public service systems do not yet have the capacity to efficiently and effectively handle even the mundane functions mentioned above, let alone the more complex functions of supervising elections in countries torn by ethnic and political conflicts, as well as preparing economic packages to stimulate recovery in the current global crisis. This is despite considerable efforts to reform the public service systems.

While one may not be comfortable with generalizations on the condition of African public services due to variations in performance among countries, many analysts tend to agree that African public services have low capacity and capability despite considerable investment in strengthening them over a period of close to five decades.
It is contended that the low fortunes of African efforts in reforming public services are significantly linked to the failure by African countries to recognize that public service reform is, to a great extent, reform of “how people” are managed in the public service. We are suggesting that over the five decades since most African countries attained independence and started taking measures to reform their public services, they failed to give adequate and appropriate attention to human resource management issues, in addition to whatever other problems they may have encountered. That neglect has had disastrous consequences on the results of the various reform interventions.

The chapter, therefore, is a longitudinal assessment of the extent to which African countries’ efforts to reform public services, over five decades have given attention to human resources management issues. As part of the review, it addresses various phases/episodes of public service reform over the five decades, paying particular attention to explaining differentials in success attained among countries, and between periods.

The chapter is divided into six sections besides the introduction and conclusion, in section one and six respectively. In section two we review the characteristics of the colonial public administration systems, paying particular attention to the HRM issues and how this impinged on the capacity, capability and effectiveness of the public administration systems that emerged as African countries attained independence. Section three is devoted to assessing the measures (reforms) taken by Governments of the early independence period to develop the capacity and capability of the public administration to respond to the challenges of independence and the place that was given to HRM.

Section four covers the period between the early 1980s and mid-1990s, when African public administration, like other jurisdictions worldwide, faced a major crisis. In the section we identify the characteristics of the crisis, its causes and measures taken to contain/redress it and its impact on HR. In section five the paper addresses how African public service systems are being affected by globalization in its various facets, and in turn how they are coping, paying particular attention to the “New Public Management” reform Agenda. We conclude by charting out a way forward- the Imperatives of Putting People Issues First in public service reform.

**Historical Legacies**

There is a debate concerning the root causes of African countries’ current administrative malaise. On the one hand, some analysts suggest that value systems and socio-cultural milieus in these countries, which emphasize on empathy and well nitted support kinships, militate against the institutionalization of Marx Weber’ principles of bureaucracy. Therefore, one hundred years of effort to graft western derived public administration models on Africa has been a fruitless exercise (Hyden, 1983). On the other hand, others dismiss such lines of argument by asserting that colonialism has dented and in some cases completely destroyed the underlying foundations of African value systems, especially in so far as they relate to
systems of governance. Therefore, if the introduced Marx Weber-based administrative systems are not working, the explanation may lie elsewhere, including their having been introduced in a half-hearted manner (Mutahaba, 1989).

While this debate is important, for purposes of this chapter, we will defer discussions on it and address the characteristics of Africa’s governance before colonialism. The literature is clear that Africa had well-articulated and thriving governance systems that were very well developed, with many of them having hallmarks of Marx Weber’s attributes of a rational bureaucracy, (Henry Barlow, 1984). Africa had empires and kingdoms like the Ghana Empire, the Songhai Empire, the powerful Fulani Emirates of Northern Nigeria, the strong kingdoms of Buganda, Bunyoro, Rwanda, and Bukoba; the democratically controlled Elders Councils in most of present day Tanzania and systems of administration based on Age sets.

The scramble for Africa by the colonialists and related parceling of countries into colonies indiscriminately cut across all these varying systems of administration and proceeded to rule and administer Africa in ways that were not only different from indigenous systems, but were on the basis of whether the colonizing power was British, French, German or Portuguese. Some of the colonizing powers made some use of indigenous systems of administration, while others destroyed them or ignored them. For example, the British colonial system of “indirect rule” was used by Lord Lugard in Northern Nigeria and Uganda in respect of the inter-lucustrine Kingdoms of Buganda, Bunyoro, Ankole and Toro. In Uganda, the Kiganda administrative system was imposed on the rest of Buganda and Baganda chiefs were used by the British colonial government to enforce the system. Where indirect rule was practiced, the ethnic groups on which it was applied had their native systems strengthened and entrenched, giving rise to feelings of superiority and to demands for federal constitutions.

Irrespective of whether direct or indirect rule was used to administer the territories, to great extent colonialism supplanted or suppressed the various traditional administrative organizations, and replaced them with administrative set-ups styled after the system in the mother country. Even then, invariably the emerging administrative infrastructure in most colonies was limited in scope, function and size, concerning itself mainly with pacifying the natives for purposes of facilitating exploitation of natural resources. Variations in terms of complexity of the administrative infrastructure in a given country depended on the requirements for pacifying the natives, on the one hand, and the structure and complexity of the economy and level of investment, on the other.

The goals of the colonial system naturally dictated the governance arrangement that were put in place. Given that the goals were to maintain “law and order” and collect taxes, the public administration system was highly legalistic and emphasized much on processes, procedures and precedence. Rules and regulations were the main instruments for eliciting compliance and discipline. The organization was highly hierarchical, inhibiting lower level participation in decision making. It was also highly suppressive and did not respond to public demands. These attributes contributed immensely to the evolution of an administrative culture that was
conservative, unresponsive and antidevelopment in orientation. However, in so far as the interests of the colonial state remained limited to the goals mentioned earlier, on the surface the administrative systems seemed to operate effectively.

The evolving public administration culture manifested itself more significantly in three important aspects: management styles, management of financial resources, and management of information. The systems for managing personnel/human resources, which is our main interest in this chapter, were built on rigid rules with over revelation of personnel practices and policies; classification of personnel was usually in terms of duties rather than tasks, and people were paid for what they were rather than what they did. Furthermore, the systems were characterized by vague job descriptions, and performance appraisal systems that valued compliance more than productivity.

With regard to professional competence, colonial policy deliberately excluded natives from being appointed to professional positions, as these were reserved for colonial officers. In the case of Kenya and Tanganyika, Asians could be appointed to junior level professional positions. For that reason, little, if any, investment was put in tertiary education and training for the natives either in-country or by providing scholarships for training abroad.

Thus, at independence all African public services suffered from a paucity of indigenous public service personnel, a lack of other administrative resources, weak administrative infrastructure, and potentially explosive relations between bureaucrats and politicians (Mutahaba, 1989). The paucity of indigenous public service personnel is indicated by the data provided below. When Tanganyika became independent, the country had a total of 68 nationals with University degrees, and it did not have a University. This was also the case in Zambia and Malawi. Similarly, education facilities at lower levels were equally under developed. Using Tanganyika again as an example, the country had, as it became independent, only 10 secondary schools with a total student population numbering 2400. Thus, the pool of secondary school graduates from which to recruit even junior and middle public officers was very limited.

Given the foregoing, it is not surprising that the capacity and capability of the public services in terms of size of the service in relation to tasks at hand; competence levels, and level of administrative penetration was very low.

The low numbers of indigenous personnel occupying senior public service positions meant that senior levels of the public services were staffed by colonial/expatriate officers, raising issues of whether the senior public service could be trusted. The enormity of this problem is indicated by the following data: In Nigeria, at independence in 1960, only 15 percent of established super scale posts were held by Nigerians, 0.7 per cent by other West Africans, and 83 per cent by Europeans. In Zambia, the composition of the upper civil service in 1964, when she became independent, was as shown in Table 5.1 below.
Table 5.1: Composition of Zambian Upper Public Service by Race, 1964

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division grade</th>
<th>European</th>
<th>African</th>
<th>Others</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>1,256</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>2,692</td>
<td>1,882</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4,585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3,948</td>
<td>1,021</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5,883</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mutahaba, 1989:150

In Swaziland, established posts stood at 3,062 at the time of independence and of these about 500 were senior civil service positions. Of the latter, Europeans accounted for more than 90 per cent, with Swazis accounting for the remaining 10 per cent. Furthermore, many of the countries could not address the numbers problem by training potential public service personnel because of the absence of tertiary training facilities. Tanzania, Zambia, Swaziland and, Malawi, to mention a few, did not have a university of their own. They had to rely on universities in neighboring countries. Only Nigeria, of all the countries in English-speaking Africa, had an institute for training senior administrators.

The weakness of the service was moreover accentuated by shortcomings in the rules, regulations and procedures, all of which had been established for managing a public service with different objectives – a colonial service. While it would take some time to change the inherited rules and regulations for managing the human resource function, for the indigenous personnel who had to operate under them the rules and procedures were considered to be illegitimate, which tended to undermine their efficacy. This was true for example of rules for hiring, firing and disciplining public service employees which might not have been strong enough to withstand pressures coming from the social and cultural milieu.

Responding to the Challenges of Independence

The attainment of independence had ushered in great expectations on the part of the citizens of the new independent states. Independence called into question the appropriateness of the entire machinery of government, which had been designed by the departing colonialists. There was an emotional attachment to the need for changing the colonial machinery even if only for its own sake. Also, the objectives, and consequently the functions, of government were to change considerably with the attainment of independence,

Thus government activities increased in number, scope, and size and the order of importance attached to the various activities also changed. The function that was completely new was the maintenance of sovereignty, this function having been exercised by the colonizing country. The furtherance of socio-economic development, though previously part of the functions of
the colonial government, was until then accorded low priority. It was now to be a major function of the newly independent governments, and the requisite machinery for this activity had to be devised. Another issue that until then had not come up was the maintenance of national integrity. During the colonial period, the different ethnic groups comprising the territory were not committed to the colonial territorial unit for their linkage to it was a matter of administrative convenience. Independence transformed the situation: all ethnic groups falling within the boundaries of the newly independent state were claimed by it as its citizens, and they were expected to feel a commitment to it as their country—a commitment transcending the one they held for their tribe. Machinery for carrying out this new activity had to be developed.

These new and expanded functions would tax any administrative system, let alone one that had been developed for purposes of shouldering less diversified and simpler functions. Meeting all of them at once, in most uncertain circumstances and with no past experience as a guide, the newly independent states could only grope their way through, reacting to events rather than controlling them according to an overall master plan.

While it is true to say that there were variations with regard to the various countries’ experiences with reforms in the early independence period, these can nonetheless be grouped into several discernible patterns (Mutahaba, 1989). On the one hand, the countries can be grouped according to their propensity toward reform; while on the other, they can be grouped on the basis of the types of reforms they adopted.

With regard to the former, four patterns can be identified. At one extreme are a few countries that showed little or no propensity toward reform. Such countries made no pretense at administrative reform at all, either because the inherited colonial administrative machinery were deemed adequate for the tasks thrust upon them, or because, like the departing colonial masters, they did not see the need for much change. A second group improvised reforms when the occasion warranted, adopting an approach that was pragmatic, relying on hunches and improvisation. Examples under this group include Malawi, and very often Kenya is cited. A third group includes those countries that consciously planned reforms and established formal machinery for the initiation and evaluation of reforms. Such countries established commissions of inquiry or ministries of administrative reform or invited outside consultants to review overall administrative conditions. Examples of such countries include Tanzania, Zambia, the Sudan, Ghana, Nigeria, and at times Kenya. At the other extreme is the fourth pattern, consisting of countries that showed the greatest propensity toward reform. Many of these countries established completely new institutions and machineries of government mainly because the previous bureaucratic apparatus simply collapsed. Cases in point are Mozambique, Angola, Ethiopia, and Guinea. It is not in any way being suggested that these four patterns are tight compartments; they represent fluid positions on a continuum, and a country's reform efforts can indeed be grouped under more than one pattern.

For the countries that showed some propensity toward reform, the choice of reforms adopted could be divided into two broad approaches. The first category placed emphasis on
undertaking major internal organizational changes and using modern management tools and techniques to improve performance. Under this approach, administration tends to be defined narrowly: it is deemed to have its own internal logic, malperformance should be corrected internally. Broad societal reform was not only considered irrelevant to administrative reform but there was also a bias in favor of maintaining the status quo in that regard.

Many African countries adopted this approach as an official doctrine both on their own initiative as well as through coercion or persuasion by donor agencies such as the United Nations and USAID. Public administration principles and practices were imported many times wholesale from the developed world. Programs of technical assistance in development administration multiplied. U.S. government project funding in this field, for example, totaled $85 million between 1963 and 1970. With regard to addressing HRM issues, much of the focus was on setting up local training institutions in public administration, with staff, training philosophies, methodologies, and teaching material being imported and having little semblance with the tasks and responsibilities of the public services in question.

It also included training top-level practitioners and their potential successors at western based institutions. Liberally distributed scholarships attracted a whole generation of students from African countries for education in universities and specialized management institutions in America, followed by attachments in private and public organizations. In terms of outputs, many countries were able to train large numbers of professionals and by the mid-1970s dependency on colonial/expatriate personnel had declined significantly. The substance of most of the training reflected a public administration discipline based essentially on the "principles" enunciated by Woodrow Wilson, Luther Gulick, and Frederick Taylor. This point was articulated most succinctly by Milton Esman:

> It consisted of a set of politically neutral techniques that could produce economy, efficiency and effectiveness in implementing policies and programmes sanctioned by responsible political leadership. It was not addressed to the controversial substance of policy, to politics, but to the most efficient process for carrying them out. As codified in the PODSCORB framework, American public administration was a technocratic science (1) universally applicable to all cultures, and (2) committed to rationalizing structures and procedures within the bureaucratic institution of the state (Milton, 1969:)

In general, there was an optimism concerning the practical contribution of this approach to administrative improvement in the new states. This general optimism is underscored further by a document released by the United Nations in the early sixties:

> In order to accelerate the pace of development, a concerted advance on all fronts, i.e., governmental organization and procedures, personnel management and training, budgeting and financial controls, fiscal policy and administration, etc., is more fruitful than a piecemeal approach on individual sections” (1967).

The second approach toward reform was adopted by those countries that placed emphasis on the need for broad societal development as opposed to the development of the administrative
system. To this group, the administrative system is only a part of a wider system consisting of many interdependent subsystems. Each subsystem performs functions that affect and are, in turn, affected by the other subsystems.

The advocates of this approach believe that in the underdeveloped countries the administrative bureaucratic system is already overdeveloped in relation to the other subsystems and that it possesses a disproportionate share of skills and modern technology, which make it overshadow other social sectors. It is further argued that whereas in developed polities the increase in bureaucratic strength, which results from administrative improvements, is counterbalanced by strong extra-bureaucratic subsystems, the absence or weakness of such subsystems in new states makes administrative improvements reinforce the imbalance. In the absence of these balancing mechanisms, bureaucracies in these societies tend to behave unpredictably, and generally "irrationally; irrespective of whether they have been reformed or not.

Under these circumstances, stress should therefore be placed on the development of extra bureaucratic institutions, such as a strong political system, organized interest groups, a healthy economic system, as prerequisites for the emergence of an effective administration. The first few years of independence saw some African countries take efforts to develop and institutionalize these sets of institutions. Most effort went into the development of the party system or, indeed, to be exact, the single party system (Mutahaba, 1989). Thus from Guinea, Ivory Coast, Ghana, and Sierra Leone on the west coast, to Tanzania, Zambia, Kenya, and the Sudan on the east coast, the ruling party became the sole political party; and administrative bureaucratic institutions were subordinated to it. The countries where this was attempted with the most vigor, however, are those that attained independence following long periods of revolutionary activity and had during the struggle relied foremost on social mobilization and the development of institutions for that purpose. The most typical examples were Mozambique; Angola; and, to some extent, Guinea, during the period of Sekou Toure.

Irrespective of the reform approach adopted, after two decades of reform most African public administration systems could be described as weak in terms of capacity and capability in relation to the tasks at hand, and some were in crisis. It is our view that, in as much as the continued weakness of the administrative systems could be ascribed to many factors including underlying external environmental pressures which made the post-independence reform effort inadequate, a major factor was that the management of the human resource function was not given the attention it deserved in the reform agenda and the people issue continued to be neglected. We address this point in the next sub-section.

The foregoing review addressing approaches to public service reforms during the first two decades of independence in Africa suggests that irrespective of the approach to reform adopted, in many countries the measures did not adequately address HRM related issues. Given the inadequacies in HR management systems as countries attained independence, one would have expected interventions related to improving HRM to be prominent in the public service reforms. Unfortunately, few countries even developed a personnel policy statement.
outlining how the HR resource would be obtained, harnessed and deployed for purposes of accelerating development. One had therefore to distill government position/policy on public personnel issues from circulars on various subjects of the HR function.

Another important issue related to Governments not paying attention to constituting appropriate organizational mechanisms through which the functions of managing HR would be carried out. The organizational mechanisms that were inherited at independence- the Establishment Secretariats and the Civil Service Commissions remained un-reformed tending to be staffed by people who are not HR professionals and many times the jurisdictions between the Commissions and Establishment Secretariats with regard to recruitment, discipline, promotion as well as between these central agencies and the line organizations are often not clearly outlined. The failure by Government to deal with the issue has affected the management of HR adversely.

Another HR function that remained untouched during the post-independence reform period was employee appraisal. A common tendency was that supervisors were often making opinionated judgments on the employee, without the employee getting feedback as to how he/she had been reported on. This made the assessment irrelevant to the whole question of improving the performance of the individual staff.

One HR issue that was given some attention during the early post-independence public service reforms was skills development. As the absence of skilled personnel was so stark and leaders of the newly independent countries could not deliver on the promises made during the independence struggle without skilled people, the first decade saw many countries make great strides in this area. Thus while in 1961 English speaking Africa had less than six universities and many of them were concentrating on the liberal arts, law and social sciences, by mid 1970s countries such as Nigeria had more than six universities which concentrated on a whole range of disciplines from computer science to hydrology.

While those efforts went to some extent to increase the number of indigenous skilled personnel and made it possible to reduce dependence on colonial personnel, their impact on the capacity and capability of the public services was limited. This was partly due to the fact that skill development was addressed as an isolated issue rather than as part of an integrated HR reform package. Training can only have an impact on an organization's performance if it is linked to improvements in recruitment practices, HR planning, employee appraisal as well as pay and reward systems. Unfortunately, those elements were not given the necessary attention.

The neglect of the pay and rewards function within African services was ill-fated and among all the HR issues, it has had disastrous consequences on the health of African public services. During the first decade of independence (and even into the second) public service pay levels were relatively good. There was no doubt that the pay structures in place then were sufficient to recruit retains and motivates the best brains in the country for public service. For example, graduates entering the public service did not only receive good pay, they were also assured of a car loan and access to government pool housing at a low and fixed proportion of salary.
Most of these officers felt they had taken the first step up a ladder of promotion to status, authority and an assured standard of living. Salaries broadly held up until the oil price shocks of the early to mid-1970s, and somewhat longer in a country like Zambia which enjoyed an offsetting but temporary mineral boom.

The problem of low pay only came to the fore from the late seventies and early eighties as economies slowed, revenues faltered, and staffing numbers continued to rise, driven by expanding social services and a paradigm of development that envisaged government playing the dominant role in many sectors. The erosion of pay was to intensify in most countries to the extent that by the mid-eighties officers retiring from public service were contemplating how they could cope with a pension far less in purchasing power than anticipated at entry. At the lower end of the pay spectrum, daily paid unskilled workers earned slightly better than a subsistence wage. This is illustrated in figure 5.1 below.

This collapse of pay destroyed the employment contract between government and its public service employees. Although the public service outwardly maintained many of its formal routines, informality mushroomed, and performance plummeted. Ordinary civil servants in almost all African countries adjusted for the collapse of the formal reward structure by a series of survival strategies. These ranged from taking second jobs, within and outside office hours, manipulation of travel allowances and per diems, extracting private fees for public services, commissions on office procurement contracts, to outright theft of public assets. Professionals with scarce skills left to work in the private sector or even overseas. Donors seeking to maintain operational effectiveness of their projects, paid supplements, often large
ones. These had the effect of drawing skilled staff out of departmental structures into project units, further undermining core administrative capacity. Aid dependence increased and the management of aid programs moved in the hands of donor agencies. Also training budgets evaporated, training institutions atrophied and trainers lost skills and relevance. Systemic corruption became ingrained and formal rules in many public services were turned into a shell in which huge informality was practiced. Consequently, public interest and the merit principle were relegated to second place.

The foregoing section has demonstrated the neglect of HR by African Governments as they designed and implemented the first set of public service reforms (1960-70). It has also shown how such neglect came to have a negative impact on public service productivity and performance, thereby contributing to the crisis in public administration which African countries experienced during the early eighties. In the next section, we devote attention to the African countries’ initial response to the public administration crisis, under what is called Structural Adjustment Program reforms, paying particular attention to the effect of those reforms on the people factor.

**First Wave PSR Reforms: Cost Containment and Stabilization**

We suggested in the foregoing section that the neglect of HR issues had seriously affected the health of the public administration systems and in some cases reversed the gains made as a result of the post-independence public service reforms. Because of the strains on the economies, most countries took the view that the crisis was caused by an expansion in the size and cost of government as opposed to the fact that Governments had weakened and were now in crisis. The response was to adopt Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs) that focused on cost containment and shrinking the scope and size of the public sector. The SAPs reforms sent the HR function in the public service reeling and made it the executioner of the public service, as it was in charge of the retrenchments and indiscminent reduction of staff without taking into account the needs. That was the time when issues of HR planning, training and development, recruitment as well as staff welfare were put in the deep freezer and the status of HR managers in public service organizations reached its lowest ebb.

Fortunately this phase did not last long, although by the time countries abandoned the interventions a lot of damage had already been done to the fabric of African public services. Many African countries, as well the donor community, came to realize that the structural adjustment related reforms were not sufficient to bring about a reversal in the decline of the public service. The measures did not only have disappointing results in terms of intended objectives, they had adverse and in some cases disastrous impact on the health and capacity of the public service. By starving public agencies (particularly, those responsible for health, education, water and sanitation, employment generation, law enforcement and justice administration) of personnel and financial resources, it became difficult to maintain tolerable standards in the delivery of the services. Also, besides destroying the incentives and motivation structure, the cost-cutting aspects of SAP measures aggravated the ethics and
accountability crisis confronting the African public services. It was at the height of SAP reforms that the services witnessed increasing cases of moonlighting, inflation of contract prices, bribery and corruption. SAP has also been accused of dismantling public service institutions without leaving behind any viable alternatives (Adedeji, 1992).

**Second Wave Reforms: Service Delivery Improvement**

The disappointing outcomes of SAP reforms led to the development of what have been termed as second wave Public Service Reform Programmes (PSRP) (Mutahaba and Kiragu, 2006). These broadened the reform agenda and began to explicitly address some of the causes of poor public service performance. Many of them explicitly adopted concepts of New Public Management (NPM), drawn from the experience of OECD countries with a similar administrative tradition. Implicitly, the designers of these programs appeared to believe that a traditional public service could no longer be the goal and that there was a need to re-think the model.

First, the reforms placed an emphasis on improving delivery of public services. This entailed a focus on performance. At the level of individual employees, this meant the overhaul of human resources management practices to emphasise on assessing performance based on results and rewarding personnel based on those results. At the institutional level, performance would be measured based on the extent to which an institution has achieved agreed targets in the strategic and annual plans. In several countries, special incentives such as performance improvement funds, were established to encourage public institutions to re-engineer existing processes to make them faster and more efficient (so called “quick wins” programs). Emphasis is placed on making public institutions more transparent by requiring them to publish annual reports describing how budget resources have been used, and the results obtained from them.

Second, the reforms continued the focus on rationalization of the role of the state and its functions, which had been started during the SAP era reforms. However, the redefinition of roles was to be based on objective conditions in the country, including the capacities of the various players in development, including the state, rather than being on a doctrinaire basis. Increasingly governments would come to focus on classic public goods functions such as law and order, development and maintenance of infrastructure, regulation of the private sector, macro-economic management as well as the provision of social services in areas where there are large “externalities” such as primary education and health care.

In public management terms, one dimension of this trend is to reassess the governance framework for particular policy functions. This entails in several countries the creation of autonomous agencies to deliver key programs, in particular subjecting them to a governance framework which gives managers greater freedom from government regulations in return for the achievement of specific performance standards and targets. Alternatively, if agencies already exist (as in Tanzania and Ghana, for example), the aim is to streamline and improve the management and oversight of those remaining in regular public administration
institutions. These moves were informed in part by New Public Management reform ideas (Ademolekun, 1999).

This wave of reforms also seeks to reverse the centralization of government which occurred under the centre-led development paradigm, when the mandates of local governments were sharply curtailed, including their virtual abolition in some countries (Olowu, 1999). Guided by the principle of subsidiarity, the thrust is to push service delivery down to the local level, where there is more information and, hopefully, greater scope for community action to hold local government service providers accountable. In regard to power distribution between the central government, local authorities and other actors, appreciable changes have taken place in some countries such as Uganda and Tanzania. Power has continued to be decentralized to local authorities in the context of the Local Government Reform Programmes (LGRPs). The ongoing decentralization by devolution (D by D) in some countries has seen substantial hiving of responsibilities, resources and decisional power to local authorities.

The reforms have also seen placing of fresh emphasis on the rehabilitation and modernization of office equipment, enhanced use of information technology, and improvements in record management systems across government.

During this wave of public service reforms, Governments have paid more attention to HR management issues than had been the case since African countries attained independence. Increasingly, the public service reform programs include policy statements on management of HR stating the principles to guide the management of each of the HR functions, including recruitment, training and development, conditions of service, promotion and career development, staff performance review and a host of other issues.

The reforms have also tended to include measures to strengthen and rationalize organizational arrangements for managing the HR function, including decentralizing the administration of HR to line organizations and treatment of the HR functions in an integrated manner. In many countries, there is increased focus on reforming pay and compensation out of a realization of its pivotal role in enhancing productivity and performance of the public service.

In Tanzania for example, the Public Service Reform Program, Phase 1 which was launched in 2000 was preceded by the issuance by the Government of a major policy paper called Public Policy Management and Employment Policy in 1999 in which it articulated the principles to guide the reforms. The principles recognized that the success of the reforms would hinge on the attention given to managing the people in the public service.

Seven years after, when Government developed and launched PSRP Phase 2, HR issues have been given even greater prominence. Thus out of the six substantive key result areas to be focused on in the reform program three (3) key result areas are on HR issues-i) managing people in the public service, ii) pay and rewards reform and iii) leadership development. It is also worth noting that more than 40% of PSRP Phase 2 funding, over the five year period are to be spent on HR related issues.
Tanzania is not alone in moving in this direction, many other countries including Kenya, Ghana, Botswana and South Africa are taking similar measures in recognition of the critical role of people in ensuring public service delivery is improving on the continent. In the next section we discuss how to ensure that the momentum is maintained.

**Conclusion and Next Steps**

While the recent reform measures have gone, in some way, to move African public service in the direction of a concern for efficiency and effectiveness and quality of service delivery, while giving attention to improved management of the human resource, there are concerns that some of the reform interventions that give autonomy to managers, including decentralizing HRM to the respective institutions, could erode the traditional means of ensuring public service accountability through parliament, executive political leadership (ministers) as well as the regulatory institutions, such as Public Service Commissions. This is especially so given that consumers of public services either do not know their rights or they are too weakly organized to defend themselves, especially given that local level democracy is still weak. As Africa moves these reforms forward, care should be taken to strengthen the counterbalance institutions that give voice to the citizens at the centre and the local level.

With regard to HR, there is need to strengthen even further the regulatory institutions (the Public Service Commissions) on the one hand, to have them perform their standard setting and regulatory roles efficiently and effectively. This requires giving them more autonomy as well as greater financial and staff resources. On the other hand, the central institutions for coordinating the MDA actions in HR management variously called Public Service Management Department, Ministries of Civil Service/Public Service or establishment Secretariats need also to be given greater capability and prominence in the line of ministries, by doing what has been done in some countries- placing them under the Office of the President or Prime Minister. This will help in ensuring that the autonomy given to the institutions in managing the HR function is monitored on a regular basis.

For the above to work smoothly there is a need to have the HR personnel in all countries to operate as professionals and exercise self-regulations the way other professionals such as doctors, engineers and accountants, for example, operate. They will have to set standards, work with training institutions to develop standard curriculums and ensure that entry into the profession is based on merit. That cannot happen when there are no professional associations at national, regional and world levels.

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Chapter 5

Effective Management of Human Resources in the Public Service in Africa: Issues, Challenges, and Prospects

Odette Ramsigh and Ogochukwu Nzewi

The future of HRM in Africa requires confronting the challenges discussed through sustained partnerships and networks across Africa. The African public service network needs to be strengthened and capacitated for knowledge sharing and transfer as well as exchange of best practices.

Introduction

In June 2010 the World Cup was hosted by an African country for the first time in the history of International Football Association (FIFA). Central to the success of this effort was the role of the Public Service, which is the primary planning and implementation arm of the State. Long after the ‘bells and whistles’ of this momentous occasion, the demands on the African Public Service take on more frightening connotations when seen against the impact of the global recession and the increasingly close deadline to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Intertwined in all of this, is the inexorable challenge to meet the development and security demands of Africa’s teeming population. With the growth of emerging democracies in Africa, governments are seeking pragmatic ways to alleviate poverty and provide services. The responsibility over decisions that affect the poor always rests on the state, and the ability of the African Public Service to execute all its responsibilities depends on the availability and effective management of its human resources.

This chapter attempts to give an overview of the human resources management in Africa. With such a vast table of experience in Africa, each unique in their own right, it will be almost impossible to capture the multi-dimensionality of efforts, prospects and challenges of human resources management in Africa. To begin to do some justice to the topic, the chapter limits itself to human resources management within the context of public sector reform, drawing from experiences in three African countries: South Africa, Nigeria and Southern Sudan. While the political, historical and social character and context of African states differ, there are however some shared experiences and challenges resonating across the continent. The chapter is organized into six sections including this introduction and the conclusion. The subsequent section situates human resource management (HRM) in Africa in the context of public service reforms. This is followed by a discussion on historical and institutional dimensions impinging on HRM practices in the continent. The chapter then focuses on the socio-political dimensions of HRM, the role of effective management of the human resources in realizing MDGs and in the last section, the challenges and opportunities for HR potential for African public services are discussed.

Public Service Reform in Africa and the changing face of human resource management

The process of globalization has made it almost impossible for African states to resist global trends. This is particularly so with regard to trends peddled by international aid agencies and
financial institutions, which often demand that, countries receiving aid adopt particular reforms.
Firstly, in an effort to utilize limited and in some cases shrinking human and financial resources, it has become necessary for governments to reengineer and reinvent the administration of government. For more than 50 years, public service has been undergoing changes to strengthen government delivery. The burgeoning of innovation and research in public service management has also resulted in adoption of human resources management practices which emphasize employee training and development, performance management, effective labour relations and revised remuneration standards to mention but a few. Secondly, as society changes and knowledge expands, the degree of consensus on the need for public service reform has grown. Thus as society develops, public service management has adapted orthodox prescriptions into more ingenious principles. By default, human resources management in the public sector has also been undergoing a transformation process. For instance, the distance between politics and public administration has blurred as public administrators have become more involved in the formulation of state policy (Miller, 1995). Weber’s hierarchical control has given way to new human resources management developments such as devolution of authority and more flexible HR management.

Finally, the main objective of reform is to improve efficiency and effectiveness in the delivery of services through the search of workable and sustainable service delivery options. However, as will be seen in the next section, public service reform and by implication human resources management in Africa is encumbered by multiple layers of issues. Thus, challenges of public sector human resources in Africa should be considered within the context of the overall institutional, socio-political and cultural realities, economic development as well as levels of services such as health care, infrastructure and education.

Historical and institutional dimensions of Africa’s burgeoning human resources development regime

The institutional makeup of the public sector in post-colonial African states was inherited from colonial government systems. For Anglophone Africa, it was the British model of government at the time and for Francophone African states, the public sector was modeled along the lines of French government systems. Nevertheless, it is important to note that British and European models of the public service have themselves organically modified over the years in response to social and political change. For instance, the Second World War resulted in a great reliance on planning. Additionally, the workforce was highly self-motivating, driven by nationalistic sentiments (Collier, 2009). However in the years after the war, as personnel attitudes began to change and with the priority of supporting a war out of the way, the public service began to move from rules and planning as a form of control towards performance and management contracts relying largely on market competition and driven by costs. This shows that public service is adaptable to changes and reform and applicable to contexts and environment.
By contrast, public service and management practices in many African states have been straining under an institutional culture still reminiscent of colonial institutional systems. In this case, the public service is governed by unremitting and rigid rules which govern every aspect of behavior and depends on conformity to strict hierarchical dictates. Despite attempts to rationalize the civil service state, institutions and organizations are outsized and cumbersome with poor job design, rigid work procedures and weak span of control. The institutions inherited from colonial times produced a bureaucratic system which has allowed for weak accountability and responsibility in the development and implementation of government policies and programs. In Nigeria, the colonial structure of the public service was structured to benefit colonial interests in its highly hierarchical two tier structure of senior and junior cadres. Like in most African states, developing a strong public service became a major focus of post-colonial reform in Nigeria. Review of salary structures, conditions of service and training were part of reform focus 10-15 years after independence in 1960. However, right after independence, in many African states efforts to rationalize the public service inherited from colonizers was continuously undermined by political instability and wars.

From the 1990s, globalization and regionalization, and its forced neoliberal prescriptions demanded less government and greater efficiency in government. For African countries the challenge was even greater. Compounded by the excesses of a colonial structured public service, pressures to conform to the neoliberal dictates from donor communities, human resources in the public sector also suffered under the weight of political instability, economic deprivation and dependence. For instance, Nigeria had initiated considerable public service reform processes over the years, however the malady of military rule post-independence from the 1960s to the 1990s, seemed to undermine efforts made towards improving human resources management through public service reform.

The transition in South Africa in 1994 from apartheid to post-apartheid was a transition from an outdated colonial paradigm of social interaction to a more appropriate mode which is more in tune with prevailing norms and practices world-wide (Cloete and Mokgoro, 1995). The democratic government of South Africa inherited an oppressed society where persons were treated in a discriminatory way based on the colour of their skin, and Human Resource Management (HRM) practices were designed to enforce oppression and marginalize persons representing the majority of South African citizens. There were many inequities in terms of race and gender, and the policies were largely designed to favour the white elite. Different salary scales applied to educators in white and black schools, and there were 300 salary scales which were arbitrarily determined. HRM transformation had to be viewed from the perspective of the transformation of the Public Service and the South African society as a whole. These conditions paint a picture of the historical and institutional challenges that the transformation of public service human resources management in South Africa has had to grapple with. Unlike countries in East Timor where no public service was in place and Somalia where the public service had collapsed (Katorobo, 2008), functioning public service structures were in place in South Africa, albeit serving the interests of the white elite.
From the late 1990s into the new millennium, politically, there seemed to be a level of stability taking hold in many African states. Rwanda emerged from a civil war of genocidal proportions into democratic government in 2003, the Nigerian elections in 1999 ushered in a democratically elected President, the signing of the Comprehensive Peace Agreement between the government of Sudan and the Sudanese Peoples Liberation Movement (SPLM) in 2005 ended the longest civil war in Africa and there was relative stability in the Democratic Republic of Congo through the South African mediated peace process. The emergence of democratic leadership seemed to signal good prospects for the public service and public servants in these African states as internal and external pressures necessitated the move towards the restructuring of moribund and ineffectual public services. Thus one sees that in discussing public service and human resources management in Africa, practices, challenges, efforts and issues are informed by a range of issues from the historical and institutional to the socio-political as will be discussed subsequently.

The socio-political dimensions of human resources management in Africa
This section focuses particularly on the politically charged environment of conflict and war in Africa. Political instability on one end and outright war on the other can render severe impacts on human resources in Africa. Examples can be drawn from the state of civil service human resources in recent post conflict states like Sudan and experiences from Nigeria, rocked with political instability for more than 30 years after its independence until recently in 1999 from when it seems to be enjoying a certain level of political stability.

The initiatives from donor agencies and communities in post conflict states like Southern Sudan have concentrated on public service reform. The dearth of skilled personnel in Southern Sudan had necessitated the importation of skills from other African countries. The UNDP and the World Bank in Southern Sudan have thus undertaken massive human resources capacity development programmes and projects. The UNDP in 2008 initiated a project to build capacity for decentralized government in Southern Sudan through the realignment of central ministries to a decentralized context and building the capacity of state training institutions (UNDP, 2008). Largely the development of human resources in the public sector in post conflict states is impacted by the unique and fragile nature of governance and systems such as the destruction of physical and social infrastructure and the loss of human life. These states are heavily dependent on donor sponsorship of reforms and capacity building initiatives. However, this dependency also raises some institutional reform implementation problems. In a meeting with World Bank African region vice president, Ministers from Liberia, Rwanda and the DRC noted the following as some of the challenges:

- donors prioritizing support for primary and secondary education, and not higher education;
- donors pressing a “one size fits all” approach on countries, trying to replicate programs that were successful elsewhere;
the failure by expatriate advisors in civil service posts to transfer their knowledge and skills to local counterparts;
• tension among returning members of the Diaspora and local populations that stayed behind, partly around incentive structures for civil service; and
• an urgent need to deliver skills-training and create job opportunities for young ex-combatants (World Bank, 2009)

What these identified challenges from these countries indicates is that there seems to be a general disconnect between the needs of individual states under reconstruction and the agenda of donor and funding communities. Collier (2009) argues that reform approaches to human resources management which may have been successful in Europe are unsuitable to post conflict African states in particular. This is because the norms and values of public service is sometimes a product of time and circumstance. For instance whereas there may be a bigger capacity for self-motivation in other political and social contexts, in post conflict states, capacity and resources constraints mean that rewards and other incentives are limited and thus its application may indeed be overtly politicized, a recipe for the breakdown of built up trust in a fragile political environment.

The Nigerian Civil war was a telling milestone in Nigerian public service history. After the war there was a rapid expansion of civil service as states were created to pacify post war sentiments of ethnic marginalization. Between 1960 and 1995 Nigeria had 7 public service review commissions or committees set up by successive military governments and dictatorships. Although far reaching, these reviews were not well received by government employees for whom there was little incentive to effect change. Moreover there was modest effort and resources put into the promotion of these reforms which ranged from issues around professionalization of the civil service, authority, responsibility and accountability in the public service and decentralization and delegation. Military rule in Nigeria ultimately amounted to the slow deterioration of early post-colonial efforts towards growing a career based, professional and visible public service in Nigeria. Draconian laws and an equally harsh penalty based system of government created a brand of civil servants, who were very limited in innovation and strictly bound to conform.

By 1999, Nigeria once again turned to a democratic rule and the 4th republic was born. The Obasanjo administration, like administrations before it, made efforts to initiate an overhaul of the public service. Obasanjo’s reform plan also included human resources targeted objectives such as the downsizing of government, capacity building, and innovative government through encouraging the decentralization of decision making processes, privatization of public enterprises, and performance management and public service pay reforms.

16The fourth republic represents the 4th effort towards democratic elections and consolidation in Nigeria since independence
Nevertheless public service is a slow and sometimes drawn-out process. While there have been efforts towards the overhauling of public human resources management in Nigeria, the impact of these reforms on human resources challenges in Nigeria such as skills acquisition and retention, low productivity and a disincentivized work force should be contextualized from the complex history of reform in Nigeria. Thus, while there have been reforms introduced from 1999 geared towards ensuring effective human resource management in the public sector, so far, these efforts have been met with challenges. Likewise, twenty years since former President Nelson Mandela was released from a 27 year stint in prison, and 15 years since the advent of democracy, the South African public service is still beset by human resource challenges, and compounding the challenge is the lack of capacity in human resource management. Despite a range of legislative frameworks and policies that were put in place since the advent of democratic rule in 1994, the South African Public Service says that “sadly Public Service is not at a point today where it can confidently say that most of its managers are adequately competent in HRM. A permeating reason for many of the challenges that still exist is the low status accorded to the HR function with human resource management not being taken on board as a key management function” (Republic of South Africa, 2009). For states coming out of protracted civil war like Southern Sudan, the challenges as mentioned above are greater and more nuanced.

**Considerations for HRM in the context of the approaching MDGs target deadline**

There is an acknowledgement of improvements in the development indicators identified for reaching the MDGs in Africa. For instance, the 2009 MDG report shows that levels of people living in extreme poverty has been reduced from half of the developing world population to slightly more than a quarter (United Nations, 2009). Additionally, there were substantial improvements in education levels in the developing world, especially in sub-Saharan Africa where primary school enrollment increased by 15% between 1990 and 2007. These developments are significant for the future of effective Public Human Resources management in Africa. This is because while the achievement of most of the MDGs is largely reliant on developmentally focused, equitable and effective government, the process of formulating and ensuring the implementation of appropriate policy towards the attainment of these goals is highly dependent on a skilled and motivated workforce. Equally, milestones such as mentioned above (reduction in poverty and child mortality, achievements in universal primary education) attained towards the achievement of MDG goals, will in turn maintain a skills and labour base for governments to continue to deliver services.

Despite these achievements, the MDG report however acknowledges that there needs to be added momentum towards the achievement of these goals as more is yet to be achieved. This means that political office bearers, state institutions and public service must improve performance to push for the achievement of these goals. This is especially so in the face of the current global recession and its possible impact on fragile democracies in Africa. Although there have been political and economic reforms being witnessed across African states since the 1990s, corresponding good governance principles and practices such as responsive and accountable government are still lacking. The Economist’s Economic

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Intelligence Unit 2008 democracy index shows that half of the 44 states in sub-Saharan Africa were still classified as authoritarian, despite the fact that many of these states may be considered ‘democratic’ on the basis of undertaking a democratic electoral process. Moreover, public perceptions of states institutions in Africa still show a considerable percentage of Africans being disappointed with levels of services and the conduct of public officials. The Afro-barometer surveys of 12 – 18 countries across south and west Africa between 2004-2005 show that while about half of Africans place a lot of responsibility on the state to take care of them, few view state policy responses and institutional effectiveness as poor (Afrobarometer, 2006). This is especially in areas that have to do with public service delivery such as welfare, water, electricity and so on.

In an environment of an approaching MGDs target date, the global efforts to emerge from one of the harshest recessions in recent history, the erosion of public confidence on state agency and the essentiality of accountable and transparent leadership, the challenge of managing public human resources effectively becomes imperative.

**Challenges and opportunities of HRM essential to African development objectives**

This section explores challenges and opportunities for HRM which are essential to development in Africa. By way of introduction, this section first provides a global view of HRM challenges in Africa. It then focuses on four aspects of HRM in the public service which we see as central to the achievement of the development goals of Africa as enumerated in the MDG goals. These are recruitment and selection, compensation management and conditions of service, performance management and corruption in the public service. It is suggested that within the challenges facing the HRM terrain lays the recipe for its future success. Achieving good human resource management is primarily about applying sound processes to employ appropriate people, develop them, reward them properly and keep them motivated.

In 6.1 figure below, the cylinders depict responses to a survey conducted in 2005 by Pricewaterhousecoopers regarding HRM challenges for Africa over a period of 7 years. The third cylinder makes predictions on challenges that will be facing HRM in 3 years. In other words, the last barrel would reflect today’s challenges as foreseen then. Based on the findings of this survey, change management seems to be the challenge of the past and the future in HRM in Africa. The monitoring of effectiveness of HR, learning and leadership development and succession planning seem to feature as areas of great concern with the public service HRM.
Figure 6.1: Responses from African region to HR challenges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3 Years ago</th>
<th>Today</th>
<th>Next 3 years</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Change management</td>
<td>Change management</td>
<td>Organizational effectiveness</td>
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<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>Benet costs: Health and Welfare</td>
<td>Leadership development</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HR effectiveness measurement</td>
<td>Change management</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author based on Price Water House Coopers (2005)

Significantly the, challenges identified in the 7 year period as seen in all 3 cylinders are similar to the challenges highlighted in the 2009 Knowledge Survey and in a most recent report in the South African Public Service on the assessment of the state of HRM in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 2009). In this case, just like the above survey, change management, succession planning, skills development, employee health and wellness are identified as key challenges which also need prioritization. This suggests that the challenges of HRM management in the past 7 years have changed very little. More importantly, the fact that these same challenges are being highlighted four years after the survey, point to the fact that contrary to the predictive data on HRM by the survey, the challenges of HRM at least in South Africa have indeed remained the same.

Undoubtedly while there are countries in Africa that are still grappling with more ‘mundane’ issues like dearth in human resources, what the survey clearly represents is the rapid growth of HRM practice and reform. It also shows that for Africa in particular, there is a double barreled challenge which is to consolidate the basic applications of HRM management in the public service while at the same time incorporating the growing global demands to conform to HRM best practices.

Moreover, the above priorities and challenges indicate the breadth and complexity of the challenge facing human resource management. Juxtaposing the challenges with the priorities indicate that sufficient attention to the priority areas should overcome the challenges experienced. However, with the many juggling priorities in the African public service, the sustainable holistic focus becomes challenging, often demanding that HR practitioners focus on the transactional administrative functions rather than more strategic ones. However, attention to transactions should not be viewed as negative (Reilly and Williams, 2006). They
are integral to the foundational aspects of sound human resource management. Having given
an overview of the challenges in the subsequent discussion, the chapter takes a closer look at
some of these challenges in detail. Human Resources Management is such a vast area in both
practice and discipline that to attempt to cover all of its aspects in the public service will be
difficult.

Recruitment and selection
Essential to the human resource value chain is effective recruitment and selection. Failure at
this stage erodes the rest of the human resource value chain: bad appointments will inevitably
lead to poor performance down the line, as well as inadequate service delivery. Governments
around Africa have realized the importance of recruitment and in many cases succession in
the overall management of human resources in the public sector. More than this, the
appropriate recruitment and selection of public employee is a good step towards the
achievements of the goals of the public sector. Tied to this is the issue of skills production
and retention, which is a huge problem in a continent in dire need of requisite skills for
meeting MDGs by 2015. The irony is that given its population, which guarantees abundance
of human resources base, Africa has skills potential. However, the challenge of human
resources management and development in Africa lies on how to effectively tap this
potential, develop skills and competencies and retain them for the benefit of the development
in the continent.

This will depend on the capacity of state institutions to identify vacancy needs, fill post and
positions timely and in a transparent manner. However, recruitment and selection priorities,
challenges and efforts will differ depending on country specific needs in this area. Staff-
turnover is one of the most persistent challenges that the Public Service faces and must be
seen in the context of retention, associated vacancy rates, and skill shortages. Combined
effects make it difficult to recruit and retain staff. Apart from the huge monetary cost of
losing staff, associated with the loss of skills and institutional memory, the impact on service
delivery is often immeasurable: a factor Africa public services can ill- afford. Both the
Nigerian and South Africa public services are the largest employers of labour in their
respective countries. However, one in five of all posts are vacant in the South Africa Public
Service (Table 6.1). It goes without saying that in a country with high unemployment rates
and huge service delivery backlogs, where the public service is the largest employer, this is
highly problematic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6.1: Number of posts filled and vacant in South Africa’s Public Service as at October 2009</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National Departments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posts filled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posts vacant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
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Source: Republic of South Africa (2009)
After its democratic elections in 1999, the high levels of staff redundancy and an imbalance in terms of the mix of skills and competencies in Nigeria, meant that priorities of public service human resources management was geared more towards issues of rightsizing or ‘service cleansing’, succession planning and the management of redundancy (Adegoroye, 2006). In South Sudan, a new state under reconstruction after a protracted civil war, there is the issue of chronic lack of skills. Employees working on government/donor funded projects, like the Multi-Donor Trust Fund for Southern Sudan (MDTF-SS) were recruited from other East African countries. In this case unlike in South Africa and Nigeria, where the challenges tended more towards systemic and process based issues, the major issue was a chronic lack of human resources. For South Sudan, emphasis in recruitment goals will be geared towards short, medium and long term strategies to build up a skills pool that will feed into the fragile public service. While the issues of training and human resources development are important in terms of recruitment, for South Africa and Nigeria a greater skills pool means that efforts should also be made towards developing recruiting and selection systems that can attract the appropriate skills for the job.

There are many obstacles to the proper management of the recruitment and selection process. Poor selection processes and procedures have major implications such as: failing to place people with the right skills and competencies in the right places, non-delivery on mandate due to failure to attract/source suitable skills, work overload, capable employees ending up demotivated and resigning to find work in high performance environments (Republic of South Africa, 2009). All this serves to strain the value chain further, and escalate problems to other HRM focus areas. Apart from some of the ones mentioned above, one of the long term HR challenges for Africa rests in the area of education. Research has shown that education institutions (Universities, Schools of Technology and training colleges) are prominent sources for new skill entrants into the public sector (Chankova et al., 2006). In Nigeria alone 83 percent of total new incoming staff to the Health sector in 2005 came from Universities. The 2007 Mo Ibrahim index on human development based on indicators such as primary school completion rates, progression to secondary school and tertiary enrollment rate shows that many African states are making moderate scores on education. However, when matched with the levels of sustainable economic opportunities, there is a serious shortfall of opportunities in relation to talent. High staff turn-over and vacancy rates clearly show that the

17Sudan Tribune World Bank trains young Southern Sudanese in administration, Thursday 2 April 2009

http://www.sudantribune.com/spip.php?article30732

18The Mo Ibrahim index on human development which uses a combination of indicators from different data and statistical sources to rate levels of good governance in African countries
public service finds it difficult to attract and retain staff. Thus going into the future, we will need ‘smart recruitment’ policies to effectively utilize skilled human resources. Additionally, more than ever before, there is a need to continuously interrogate the how best to make public services across Africa learning spaces to nurture, refine the raw talents coming in from the Universities, technology and training colleges. This is critical especially in reconstructing states as the issue of transfer of knowledge in the public service was one of the challenges identified by Ministers from Liberia, Rwanda and DRC (World Bank, 2009).

Finally, African public services need to increase their existing skills pool to ensure continuous and enhanced service delivery. Better emphasis must be placed on advertisements to recruit staff with required skills and competencies, and marketing the public service in such a manner that it is regarded as an employer of choice (Republic of South Africa, 2009).

**Compensation Management and Conditions of Service**

Remuneration and conditions of service play a very important part in recruiting and retaining employees with the right skills. This becomes even more acute in an increasingly volatile market where premiums are paid for scarce skills. However, the current economic uncertainty makes forecasting of salary movements problematic, and the possible decline in employment prospects will have marked impact on pay levels, resulting in increases less than predicted. This current environment requires a comprehensive view on remuneration vis-a-vis market comparisons and market segments, and developing a reward strategy and philosophy that adopts a consistent approach to making pay decisions and serves to attract and retain high calibre employees. This requires of HRM to actively change the paradigm from a narrow focus on annual increases to one in which there is a holistic view of the remuneration benefits within the business.

The South African transformation agenda placed a huge responsibility on public managers, and the state recognized the critical role management plays in the effective and efficient functioning of the Public Service. In addressing the remuneration and conditions of service, a senior management service (SMS) was ‘developed out of the recognition of the critical role that senior management plays’ and that ‘the challenge for the Public Service is to recruit, develop and retain competent leaders and managers and to reward them for good performance(Republic of South Africa, 2003). In addition to the challenge of the current economic climate, another critical challenge in this area is the growing powers of labour movements. The South Africa public service is highly unionized with a progressive labour rights legal framework, remuneration and conditions of service that are subject to negotiation, and conclude with multi-year salary agreements providing some basis for labour stability.

Addressing the specialized groups, an Occupation-Specific Dispensation has been introduced which, amongst others, creates career paths and salary progression possibilities for various occupational categories. The holistic view of remuneration is made up of fairly attractive pension and medical benefits for state employees. For example, through the Government
Medical Scheme (GEMS) lower paid government employees have access to 100% government subsidized medical aid (Republic of South Africa, 2003).

**Performance management**

Performance management is a strategic management tool which serves the purpose of tracking employee strengths and weaknesses and it is also a means for identifying and rewarding good performance and managing poor performance. The concept of performance management is drawn from a theoretical base that views employee motivation as critical in human resources management (McGregor, 1960; Kreitner, 1998; Bateman, and Zeithalm, 1993). By linking goal setting to motivation, performance management aims to strategically align individual employee task and work to the goals of the organization. Nevertheless, although performance management is touted as supportive and responsive supervision, where it is not properly introduced, there is a tendency for poorly performing employees to view it negatively or see it as a tool for punishment rather than reward (Harper and Vilkinas, 2005).

In the context of the approaching MGDs target deadline, performance management is seen as a strategic tool for management in the public sector. Performance management will ensure an organized, focused approach to implementing public sector goals towards the delivery of services and achieving the targets of the MDGs. However, performance management as the experience in South Africa has shown, is not only a complex process but one whose implementation is fraught with challenges.

Performance management has enjoyed some longevity in the South African public service, thus some South African perspectives in terms of lessons will suffice. President Zuma in his 2010 State of the Nation Address promised a performance-oriented state with improved planning and performance monitoring and evaluation where “Government must work faster, harder and smarter”. President Zuma promised to use performance contract with his Ministers to improve service delivery. This has however been an uneasy task, especially given that the culture of performance management in the South African public service has not been satisfactory up to now. Findings had shown widespread failure to uphold the performance management system’s underlying principles (Republic of South Africa, 2007). Many managers appear not to have a thorough grasp of the constituent elements of the system and lack the necessary time, dedication, and skills to make it work. There is hardly any ongoing monitoring of performance, with resultant absence of regular manager-employee communication, performance feedback, guidance, coaching and mentoring. These challenges will have to be addressed if the true benefits of performance management are to be reaped.

At the most senior administrative level, Directors-General have either not concluded performance agreements or do so long after the due date, and much of the blame for this behaviour must rest at the door of the Executive (Republic of South Africa, 2008). One can only hope that the elevation of performance contracting will introduce a seriousness lacking up to date. Performance of senior managers has a direct bearing on the service delivery mandates and is directly related to the governance challenges. The special focus now promised in this area should assist in defusing the mounting pressure to improve public...
services delivery and realize a more citizen-centric orientation. This can only be achieved through raised performance standards and good leaders within the state machinery. Failure to do so will increase criticism about poor service and lack of responsiveness. A comprehensive performance management system for the public service is seen as an important instrument to enhance service delivery, provided it is implemented properly.

In 2004 after the Nigerian government established the Bureau for Public Service Reform (BPSR) as one its goals in reforming Human Resources Management, the BPSR focused on an ‘installation of a new Performance Management Scheme’ (Adegoroye, 2006). Also, advocacy for the implementation of performance management strategies is growing from public service experts in Nigeria (Bassey and Benjamin, 2009). Although the aim of human resources management in reconstructing public services in post conflict states is centred mostly on the issue of training and building competencies, the issue of motivation of public service employees is also a growing concern (World Bank, 2009). Apart from developing appropriate remuneration standards and building skills, performance management with its elements of incentive and learning should also be stressed as part of an integrated approach to human resources development in re-constructing fragile states.

**Combating Corruption**

An overview of two continental governance surveys (the Mo Ibrahim Index and the Afro Barometer) targeting expert based assessments and statistical based data and citizen perceptions respectively shows that corruption is one of the biggest drawbacks in implementing public service goals and public policy in Africa. The accountability of public service employees is paramount as public perception of corruption in the public service is high. An Afrobarometer survey of public opinion in local government in Nigeria shows that only 22% of Nigerian citizens see local government as using public revenues for service delivery and not personal gain (Afrobarometer, 2008).

The vulnerability of reconstructing states to this corruption malaise is all the more challenging. Issues such as the tensions between returning citizens in the Diaspora and the local population and the fate of young ex-combatants necessitates that human resources management be handled in the most transparent and equitable way. Indications from the Mo Ibrahim index\(^\text{19}\) shows that post conflict states score very low rates in the area of safety and the rule of law of which public accountability and corruption in the public services are indicators. Although the possibility of these low scores is dependent on corresponding indicators which measure levels of safety and rule of law, the general low scores (DRC 31.43, Sudan 23.83)\(^\text{20}\) also show that in these states, there is the big challenge of balancing underlying tensions and the good governance goals of reconstructing the state. However,

\(^\text{19}\) [http://www.moibrahimfoundation.org/](http://www.moibrahimfoundation.org/)

\(^\text{20}\) These scores are taken from a 100 percentile bases
countries where state reconstruction has been managed over longer periods like Rwanda (55.53) and Liberia (45.74) seem to score higher.

Combating corruption has emerged as a strong component of public service reform across Africa. And recent trends across Africa in terms of public perceptions of corruption show that perceptions of official corruption are sharply down (Afrobarometre, 2006). Curiously, while it seemed that perceptions of the public on corruption had declined, perceptions of state institutions’ efforts at combating corruption were still seen as ineffectual (ibid.) This finding implies that some of the institutional and policy interventions to combat corruption across Africa may be bearing some dividends.

In Nigeria for instance, one of the main components of its public service reform strategy was the issue of corruption, an endemic governance problem in the country. This reform process has seen the institutionalization of accountability and anti-corruption measures through the Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC), Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC), the Code of Conduct Bureau and Code of Conduct Tribunal. For eternal skeptics of government reform in Nigeria, there were doubts as to how effectively these measures will help in re-invigorating the Nigerian public service towards improving performance, adapting and adopting laudable public ethical practices and stamping out the cancer of corruption within the public service. However, it can be argued that unlike the environment of past reforms, the democratic climate of Obasanjo’s reform provided the opportunity for some of these reforms to make some impact. However these efforts have been met with challenges. Ten years later, it seems that corruption remains a huge governance problem in Nigeria. Institutional factors may include the lack of clarity and distinction on some of the roles, jurisdictions of the government’s major anti-graft agencies. Additionally, poor public participation mechanisms at all levels of government as well as the endemic culture of public service corruption has tended to even undermine anti-corruption agencies of the state.

Conclusion: redefining the HRM service and role to overcome the challenges
This chapter has attempted to highlight certain aspects of HRM in the Africa’s public service. From the discussions, it has been established that the HRM environment in Africa is challenging. This is not only because it deals with people issues, but also because of the institutional, political and social environment that HRM function has to contend with. Invariably HR practitioners find themselves facilitating the frustrations of management and the dissatisfaction of employees. The outcomes of these tensions often find a convenient scapegoat in HR. When the HRM service is not meeting public satisfaction, blame becomes easier and often at times these may be justified. The future of HRM in Africa requires

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21 An example is the graft allegations and counter allegations including nepotism, misappropriation of funds and bribery leveled against heads of national anti-corruption agencies like the EFCC. Nigeria News Service, ‘massive looting at EFCC, Waziri fingered findings messy 20th May 2009 www.nigerianewsservice.com
confronting the challenges discussed through sustained partnerships and networks across Africa. The African public service network needs to be strengthened and capacitated for knowledge sharing and transfer as well as exchange of best practices. There have been varied attempts to bolster the status and role of HR components and HR practitioners. This has been encouraged by the United Nation’s World Public Sector Report, ‘unlocking the Human Potential for Public Sector Performance’ where it discussed the critical role of human resource management and the fact that human resource management is causing organizational effectiveness (UNDESA, 2005). It is acknowledged that there have been efforts in many African states in strengthening HRM in the public sector. For instance, South Africa introduced specific interventions in an attempt to strengthen the HRM function in departments, which includes a generic organizational structure and post establishment model for HRM components, a competency framework for improving HRM functions, the alignment of training programs on HRM with the competency framework, and a framework of key performance indicators against which departments can assess the functioning of their HRM components (Republic of South Africa, 2008b). While laudable, the successes and outcomes of these efforts will ultimately be when service delivery and development goals and policies become reality for the teeming population of African citizens.

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Part Two:

Professionalizing Human Resource Management in the Public Sector in Africa
Chapter 6
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Strengthening Capacities for Professionalism in African Public Sector:
Some Reflections

John-Mary Kauzya

In many respects in African public services, restoring professionalism is an urgent requirement for improvement of performance and delivery of services.

Introduction:

Meeting at the United Nations Headquarters in New York for the MDG Summit, World Leaders reiterated that they are “convinced that the Millennium Development Goals can be achieved, including in the poorest countries, with renewed commitment, effective implementation and intensified collective action by all Member States and other relevant stakeholders at both the domestic and international levels, using national development strategies and appropriate policies and approaches that have proved to be effective, with strengthened institutions at all levels, increased mobilization of resources for development, increased effectiveness of development cooperation and an enhanced global partnership for development”. This chapter is urging African governments to add another condition which is “public servants working with professionalism” to effectively deliver public services. Protecting and advancing the public interest ahead of individual interest; the maintenance of public confidence in the integrity and objectivity of our governance; openness to public inspection; transparency and accountability; and the ceaseless concern to fight against poverty are critical in Africa’s struggle for development. However, they require a highly professional public service, among other things.

The capacity building workshop held in Addis in March 2011 had direct linkage to the provision of the constitution of the Africa Public Sector Human Resource Managers’ Network (APS-HRMnet) which, among its objectives, tasks the network to: Promote excellence, integrity and professional standards in the practice of human resource management in the public sector in Africa, and support continental and regional efforts in the continent to implement harmonized public service commitments such as the Charter for Public Service in Africa\(^\text{22}\). The Charter has been revised in both its content and title since it is now referred to as the “African Charter on Values and Principles of Public Service and Administration. It should be easy to understand the work of supporting efforts to implement the African Charter on the Values and Principles of Public Service and Administration, promoting professionalism. However, owing to the ambiguity of the terms “professional” and “professionalism” it is not as straightforward to understand what is involved in promoting professionalism. Thus during discussions at the AAPAM Round Table Conference in Mbabane, Swaziland in 2008 there was debate focused on what professionalizing HRM entails. On the one hand, one group took the view that professionalizing was inculcating a

\(^{22}\) See the Africa Public Sector Human Resource Managers’ Constitution
sense of knowledge, skills, expertise, creating pride in one’s work and care for one’s service and clients. On the other hand, professionalizing was referring to creating a professional body with stringent criteria for admission of Members. It is therefore important to develop a common understanding that will guide the work of the Africa Public Sector Human Resource Managers in promoting professionalism in the management of human resources in the Public Sector in Africa.

This chapter aims at contributing to the discussion that will help to develop such a common understanding. It highlights the various elements that need to be touched on in developing professionalism in the public service as: competence, character, attitude, conduct and excellence. However, emphasis is put on strengthening supportive institutional arrangements including systems, structures, laws, rules and regulations as well as professional infrastructure such as associations as necessary for professionalism to be developed. The chapter puts a high premium on leadership as critical in supporting the growth of professionalism.

A working understanding of “professionalism”

There is a huge difference between being an expert, being qualified and being professional. Professionalism goes beyond having extraordinary mastery over knowledge and skills of a subject matter. It has to do with character, attitude, striving for excellence, competency, and behavior as well as ethics. Working in a specific profession (medicine, engineering, law, teaching, accountancy, public service, e.t.c) does not really make one a professional. There are many well qualified experts in fields such as these but who are disdained as professionals, their high positions, knowledge, skills and high pay notwithstanding. This chapter takes professionalism in the public service as the ability and practice of performing a function in a systematic manner with commitment, selflessness, and concern for the general interest, adhering to agreed fundamental principles and values, laws, rules and regulations, to provide the best possible efficient, effective and innovative public services to the community all the time. The following are what we believe will distinguish a professional in any field:

The Decagon of a paradigm of Professionalism

- Striving for Quality and excellence, not once, not twice but all the time and in all circumstances
- Sustained Maximization of knowledge and sharing it, which implies a constant search for more knowledge and a propensity to always propagate the knowledge through

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23 Reedthe GOALS Institute: Professionalism is for Everyone: Five Keys to Being a True Professional, 11th Printing 2011 (Scottsdale, AZ USA).
communication among things. A professional therefore has an instinct to teach and to learn new things: “The *sine qua non* of professionalism is specialized knowledge, and not just any sort of specialized knowledge. It is an accumulated and ordered knowledge, built up over time by the experience, analysis, and insight of predecessors in the field. It is knowledge that penetrates to the root of the matter and gives its possessor an understanding not only of *how* things are, but *why* they are that way. It is also hard-won knowledge that requires time and effort to possess, the knowledge that many people cannot achieve.”

- Persistent innovativeness which implies questioning existing ways of doing things, existing knowledge about things and a readiness not only to accept new ways and new knowledge but also to propagate them.

- Constant improvement in performance: A professional rarely gets satisfied with their work. Professionals always believe that even when they are doing well, there is a better way and they search for it.

- Seeking responsibility: Professionals believe that without responsibility to do things their knowledge, skills, and enthusiasm for better performance will lay to waste. They therefore always seek for responsibility.

- Learning from losses/ failures: Professionals do not waste time grudging over failure and/or losses. They use failure/losses as opportunities for learning and improvements.

- Valuing communication and clients: Professionals always emit a glow of professionalism. It is like when you meet a professional, it shows. And this is through the way they communicate, the way they treat people/clients, the way they present themselves.

- Concern for positive personal image and attitude.

- Respect for ethics, laws, rules and regulations: Where would professionalism be without respect for order? Chaos has no place in professionalism. The first sign of a professional is orderliness, ethical behavior, respect for rules and regulations. Even when they strive for change in knowledge, skills, techniques, etc, professionals do it in an orderly way.

- Respect for diversity: Professionals normally know that they are not the only ones on the block. There are other professionals who may hold opinions that are different from theirs. They know that their profession thrives in a world of diversity. And therefore they do not indulge in trivial and parochial limitations in outlook.

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24 Robert G Kennedy, PhD: *Why Military Officers Must Have Training in Ethics*: (Department of Management University of St Thomas, USA, January 2000) read from [http://isme.tamu.edu/JSCOPE00/Kennedy00.html](http://isme.tamu.edu/JSCOPE00/Kennedy00.html)
• Humble confidence: the most impressive quality in professionalism is 'humble confidence.' Humble confidence shines as knowledge, humility, skilled verbal and written communication, friendliness and appreciation. It is the gamut of everything to make a professional dressed in a gown of humbleness and opposed to arrogance!

Professionalism among public officials

It would be difficult to set a priori the specific standard of professionalism expected from all public officials. Already, the definitions of the concept found in the literature remain very general. Moreover, updating professional behavior depends on the situation and the context. That is why I will simply answer a question by borrowing this image from Alain Chanlat: Almost everywhere, evaluation criteria are vague, lending themselves with difficulty to practical application and measurement. They are so unclear that even the outlines of the concept of professionalism are lost. However, if professionalism refers to the ongoing search for excellence in performance and quality of work in all its dimensions, respect for the client, a love for the product, a concern for detail, a taste for beauty, moral concerns, mutual assistance, updating of knowledge and skills, attention paid to tools and especially, the full development of the human being, then I propose that professional behavior of African civil servants should be evaluated based on the model which identifies six main dimensions which characterize professionalism:

• A passion for excellence;
• Competence;
• A professional awareness (sense of public service in terms of rendering service to the public);
• Experience in the field;
• Effectiveness (individual performance);
• Personal qualities (inherent abilities, acquired skills).

In addition, this model has the advantage of describing what makes up each of the dimensions of professionalism, in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes. Let us comment on each of these:

• A passion for excellence: There is an aspect of professionalism which cannot be enforced through rules or even developed through training or other forms of skills or knowledge building. It is inherent in an individual public servant. Some people naturally search for the achieving the best. This passion once it exists can be tapped and supported so that it its glow does not flicker or die due to external circumstances. It is the job of managers in the public service especially the human resource managers.
to identify such passion for excellence and encourage it to benefit excellent delivery of public service and uplift the image of the public service.

- **Competence**: Competence does not hide behind any word or abstract terms. We see a competent person not through knowing what they can do but through what they have done or what they are doing. Competence is not just the possession of skills and knowledge, but the application of the skills and knowledge in real work place to accomplish specific tasks and achieve specific objectives. Many public servants claim to have competence for the jobs they do. They support this with the training they have undertaken, the diplomas, certificates and degrees they have obtained and the number of years they have spent in the service. But these simply don’t add up to competence. A person is competent not just because of what they can do but because of how they apply that ability in the workplace. As part of professionalism, competence is action and achievement oriented. It is not a claim to ability to achieve. It is action and achievement. Competent public service does not claim its competence. A competent public servant does not claim to be competent. It is visible and obvious to every one who gets in contact with the public service or with individual public servants. The reality check for the public service in Africa is how to ensure that the public service environment provides the requisite support and stimulation for those who are competent to deploy their competence to uplift the performance of the public service and enhance the delivery of public services.

- **A professional awareness**: To serve the public is not just being aware that one has a job they have to do and earn their salary. It is more importantly awareness that there is a public out there who have to be served and whose wellbeing and livelihood, sometimes even survival depends on the performance of public servants. This awareness of the criticality of serving the public coupled with the commitment to actually doing it is probably the single most important aspect of professionalism in the public servants. We see it among medical workers working on hungry stomachs to provide health and medical services to the public under difficult conditions. We see it among police officers trying to keep law and order even where their own life is in danger. We see it in bus drivers going out to provide transport services even in situations where other people think it is dangerous to get out due to insecurity. We see it in school teachers who continue operating schools in zones of insecurity where they would be expected to abandon the schools. The practical issue here is to what extent is this level of professional awareness recognized and promoted to grow in the public service.

- **Experience in the field**: Knowledge and skills can only be actualized when they are put to work in the field to be translated into experiential achievement. Experience in the field is not just the number of years one spends working. It is what one is exposed to in terms of hands on and achievement. Many public servants claim experience in terms of number of years and the variety of organizations or agencies in the service they have worked in. However this cannot be the only determinant of experience in
the field as an aspect of professionalism. It depends what one does during the years and in the variety of organizations and agencies. Some public servants are shifted from organization to organization, from job to job not because of their successes but because of their meager performance. In this case, their experience cannot add up to professionalism. To the contrary, it points to the lack of it. The message for human resource managers on this issue is that moving public servants from job to job should not be a matter of trial and error but should base on matching job-related competences and individual public servants’ portfolios to improve performance.

- **Effectiveness (individual performance):** As an aspect of professionalism, achievement is a relentless pursuit of achieving objectives, accomplishing tasks, meeting deadlines, sometimes irrespective of hindrances especially in terms of inadequate resources and obstructions. It involves improvisations where resources and instruments are found wanting. It involves running faster when it is realized that the allocated time will not be enough. It involves avoiding giving excuses for nonperformance. In fact sometimes individual performance as an aspect of professionalism may be seen in trying, in not giving up more than in achievement.

- **Personal qualities (inherent abilities, acquired skills):** Finally, we should not forget that a professional is a person. And people are not made up of just acquired knowledge and skills. They have inherent attitudes and abilities that they can deploy to enhance performance. There are people who simply cannot steal. There are people who get extremely agitated by the possibility of being late to work or missing a day of work. There are people who get extremely disappointed when they do not manage to provide the service they are supposed to provide. There are people who cannot stand poor quality work. There are people who have a natural tendency to learn and invent new things and new ways of doing things. In other words, there are people who are inherently predisposed to professionalism. If this is true, then the task of human resource managers in the public service is to identify such people, select them, recruit them, develop them deploy them and motivate them correctly to tap their inherent professionalism to the betterment of the Public Service.

- **Traits of professionalism**

  Professionalism sounds like a universal value. And it has aspects such as those outlined above which are universal. However, research shows that different organizations specify its traits differently. Therefore, in promoting professionalism there should be caution about fitting traits of professionalism across organizations. For example; the United Nations in its competence for professionalism indicates that an official who behaves with professionalism: Shows pride in work and achievements, Demonstrates professional competence and masterly of subject matter, Conscientious and efficient in meeting commitments, observing deadlines and achieving results, Is motivated by professional rather than personal concerns, Shows persistence when faced with difficult problems or challenges, and Remains calm in stressful situations. The National Science Teachers’ Association (USA) in promoting professionalism
among science teachers emphasizes the following principles: Promoting the Growth of All Students, Taking Personal Responsibility for Professional Growth, Being Leaders in the Profession, Upholding Personal and Professional Ethics, and Support for Professional Teachers of Science. The Maryland Judicial Taskforce on professionalism in the Judiciary identified the following traits of Professionalism in the Judiciary: compliance with the Rules of Professional Conduct, civility, courtesy, and respect for colleagues, trust among colleagues, competence as attorneys, dignity, punctuality, and concern for client welfare, candor with the court, honesty, integrity, and fairness with both court and counsel\textsuperscript{26}. What is clear though is that professionalism has two sides to it: the individual side concerning the public servants each of them being an individual; and the organization side which is the public service as a collective entity. From each of these, there is an internal side that cannot be easily visible and an external side with things that can be done to exhibit professionalism. From the individual public servants externally, professionalism can be seen in their behavior and practices. But internally they must have the professional knowledge, skills, attitude, awareness, and values. Normally if these are professionally correct they will be reflected in their behavior and practice.

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Symbiotic Relationship between Ethics, Professionalism and the Implementation of the African Charter on the Values and Principles of Public Service and Administration

\textsuperscript{26}see Principles of Professionalism for Science Educators (http://www.nsta.org/about/positions/professionalism.aspx)
Adopted by the NSTA Board of Directors, June 2007; Re-adopted, November 2010)
The African Charter on the Values and Principles of Public Service and Administration includes Professionalism as article 9 in chapter 3 on Rules of conduct binding public service employees. The Charter outlines three things in respect to professionalism; namely:

- Public service employees shall carry out their assignments and duties with professionalism and diligence.
- Public service employees are required to be civic-minded and courteous when dealing with users.
- Public service employees must behave responsibly and respectfully towards their superiors, colleagues and associates.

In Article 10, the Charter links professionalism to ethics and rules of conduct specifying that:

- Public service employees shall display integrity, full and total adherence to ethical rules and values.
- Public service employees shall not solicit, accept, demand or receive, directly or indirectly, any payment, gift or other advantage, in return for performing their obligations.
- Public service employees shall not use their posts, functions or responsibilities for political or partisan purposes. They shall in all circumstances be impartial and loyal in performing their duties.

In this way, the Charter implies that professionalism and ethics are so linked that it is not conceivable to have one without the other. But one important thing the charter implies is that while it seeks to reinforce professionalism in the public service and administration in Africa, it is only a professional public service that can successfully implement the Charter. For one to understand how professionalism in the public service has become a central issue to public administration and public service in Africa, one needs to read the whole Charter. Taken in its comprehensive meaning as discussed in the opening sections of this chapter, professionalism in the public service is the central theme running through the African Charter on the Values and Principles of Public Service and Administration. The question at this point becomes how to develop and sustain professionalism in the public service in Africa.
Where did professionalism go wrong?

If decline in professionalism leads to decline in the delivery of services, we may want to study this phenomenon beyond corruption against which everyone is crying about in the Public Service in Africa. This brings us to discuss the challenges related to overcoming “silent corruption”.

“Quiet Corruption” and Decline in Service Delivery

There has been for long a general view that the delivery of public services in many African countries has largely declined due to big corruption in the public sector, which has siphoned away funds and other resources that would go to the provision of essential public services. Indeed, big and petty corruption is very detrimental to the delivery of services as it erodes the image and trust of government and public sector in general. However, the view of the author on this issue has been and still is that in daily practice of the public service, there are public servants whose behavior, though not termed as corruption, is as detrimental, if not more detrimental to the delivery of services than grand corruption. In its flagship report entitled Africa Development Indicators 2010, the World Bank raised the issue of “quiet corruption” defining it as the failure of public servants to deliver goods or services paid for by governments, adding that quiet corruption is pervasive and widespread across Africa and adversely affects Africa’s development.

The report points out “various types of malpractice of frontline providers (teachers, doctors, inspectors, and other government representatives) that do not involve monetary exchange.

27 Read How quiet corruption is hindering Africa’s development
These behaviours include both potentially observable deviations such as absenteeism, but also hard-to-observe deviations from expected conduct, such as a lower level of effort than expected or the deliberate bending of rules for personal advantage. For example, recent findings indicate that primary school teachers in a number of African countries are not in school 15 to 25 percent of the time (absenteeism), but, in addition, a considerable fraction of those in school are not found teaching (low effort). Frontline provider deviations from expected behaviour that meet these requirements broaden the scope of corruption. The phenomenon has been for long known by those close to the public service in most African countries. So, what is surprising is not that the World Bank raised the issue in March 2010. The concern is what is it that is making silent corruption topical having been dealing with public sector performance in Africa for a long time. The view of this chapter is that the highest manifestation of decline in professionalism in the public service is the raise of what is termed.

Quiet corruption has direct and indirect consequences. The World Bank report elaborates “both the direct consequences, such as the limitation of the productivity potential of households, firms, and farms, and the indirect consequences, such as distrust of public institutions and the notion that frontline provider malpractice is inevitable and omnipresent. As an example of direct consequences, we might think how poor service delivery caused by absenteeism or low effort on the job might hamper a child’s development, with potential permanent effects on adult educational attainment, cognitive skills, and underlying health”. The point needs no belabouring. A professional public service would not engage in neither grand, nor petty, nor quiet corruption. The efforts that have for long been put on highlighting corruption in the public service should have included (or even emphasised) restoring professionalism in the service. In many respects in African public services, restoring professionalism is an urgent requirement for improvement of performance and delivery of services. It is more imperative especially since the delivery of public service such as education, health, agricultural extension, e.t.c have a direct linkage with the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), or more specifically for Africa, the development objectives stipulated in the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) or National Development Strategies. We do not need to mince words on this issue. Africa’s development requires professionalism in its public service.

Developing Professionalism in the Public Service

It has been for long assumed that once one is an “expert” in one’s field of study, one becomes a professional. Consequently professionalism has not been taught. I believe that professionalism needs to be taught in its principles, practices, and conduct. However, since “teaching” is not the same thing as “developing” even if the two are linked, the challenge we have on our hands is how to develop professionalism if we understand it in its broad terms. If professionalism is an amalgam of character, attitude, conduct, excellence, and competence, the question is: of these, what can be developed and how. What needs to be done and how in
order to develop professionalism in the public service? This is a critical question for Ministries responsible for public service, human resource managers in the public service, and management development institutions by whatever name called and indeed all stake holders and key actors involved in developing the capacity of the public service in Africa. The various elements that need to be touched on in developing professionalism in the public service are presented in the diagram below. They are: competence, character, attitude, conduct, excellence. However, this chapter asserts that supportive institutional arrangements including systems, structures, laws, rules and regulations as well as professional infrastructure such as associations, are necessary for professionalism to be developed. Above all, leadership is critical in supporting the growth of professionalism.

Elements that need to be touched on in developing professionalism in the Public services

Therefore, the task of developing professionalism in the public service in Africa will entail:
• Assessment of the type of leadership that is spearheading the public service in Africa and how it can be developed to ensure that it favors and champions the growth and development of professionalism in the public service;

• Analysis and assessment of the institutional set up in the public service including organization structures, systems, laws, rules, and regulations as well as professional bodies and associations to see to what extent these provide incentives for and support the development of professionalism. In this case, institutional development becomes part of developing professionalism.

• Ensuring that the training infrastructure with various training institutions right from kindergarten inculcate professionalism. There is need to realize that the development of appropriate professional values, attitudes and behaviors is a continuum that starts when a student joins a specific training institution and as such professionals in any field need to be exposed to the essence of professionalism. There is work for human resource managers in the public service to advocate for the inclusion of professionalism in all training in the country so as to produce a population that is pre-disposed to provide public services professionally.

• Analysis and assessment of competence of the public servants vis-à-vis the tasks they have to perform to effectively and efficiently serve the public and ensuring that the necessary competences are developed through training and other staff development activities;

• Emphasis on pursuit of excellence in every field of the public service ensuring that excellence is determined, not only by the public servant, but also by the users of the services provided. In addition, there has to be a strong emphasis on sustained research and creation of continuous learning to achieve and sustain excellence.

Ensuring that the recruitment processes avail to the public service staff who have character and attitude that is pre-disposed to serving the public.

• **Developing service and development oriented leadership:** Developing professionalism in the public service in Africa requires public sector leaders capable and with creativity to play the role of leading the crusade for shaping the future of public services that ensures, not only development and achievement of MDGs, international development objectives and national development strategies, but also and probably most important, that the vulnerable communities are not left out of the development process. The development of such a leadership is a challenge but it must be addressed because it is part of the key to developing professionalism in the public service on the continent.

• **Training and an on-going commitment to learning and improving skills:** Continuous learning through continuing education and other self-development activities will contribute to the development of knowledge and skills that are part and
parcel of the competences of professionalism. Therefore, governments need to put a high premium on training public servants. However, we need to bear in mind that professionalism does not come from just schooling and certification. Professionalism is not so much of what is acquired externally through education. It is also about what is evoked from deep within their conscience. Therefore, efforts of developing professionalism must include approaches of training and education that touch the ignition of an individual’s motivation. Such approaches include mentoring, experiential learning staff exchanges and study visits etc.

- **Motivation and Incentives:** Motivation is a humane value, an inward drive to serve. Incentives, on the other hand, can be regarded as rewards that an individual values so much that he/she will work hard in response to them. It is now a well-known fact in many African countries that incentives such as pay are very poor. It is not useful to pretend that professionalism exists outside the influence of pay. Therefore, the strategies for developing professionalism in the public service must include progressive improvements in the remuneration of public servants to ensure that they do not get the temptation to behave unprofessionally under the pressure of unmet critical needs such as food, housing, education and health for themselves and their dependants. Most public servants who have the propensity for professionalism do not aspire to be rich. They aspire and are happy to serve. However, it is understood that to serve to the best of their abilities they need to be alive. And being alive is not just a matter of biology! Being alive is a social and economic phenomenon as well!

- Professionalization infrastructure,( Professional bodies bringing public servants together such as with their counterparts in the same profession like lawyers, accountants, public administrators, teachers, health workers, architects, e.t.c.) offering each other civility and respect rather than elitism and disdain constitute an infrastructure through which professionalism can grow and should therefore be promoted as part of the efforts to develop professionalism. Within such an infrastructure, “professionals” could have a fiduciary relationship with clients, and an obligation of trust and compassionate concern for the client’s welfare that takes priority over other concerns. Moreover, deviation from the agreed norms and codes of conduct within each profession could be checked or reprimanded by the professional body. This would minimize the burden of the public service of being the sole controller of public servants. This works out best when one believes that a profession is an organized calling in which men and women pursue a learned art and are united in the pursuit of it as a public service.

**Benefits of professionalism in the Public Service**

While the main argument of this chapter is that enhancing professionalism in the public service will contribute greatly to the improvement of performance in terms of the delivery of
public services and development in general, there are intermediary benefits which are equally important. They include: inculcating positive values in the public service and aligning them with those of the population, building trust, and enhancing transparency and accountability.

- **Inculcating positive values:** The Professionalization of public services will serve as one of the generators and guardians of positive values in the Public Service. As governments in Africa strive to regain the trust of the citizens, they need to realize that the African context currently is one where the shift of values is an important dimension of changing culture, processes, systems, and relationship between the public service and the public. In the final analysis, professionalism has a critical role to play in the development process of the country.

- **Building trust:** A public service that has fully or at least to a large extent embraced professionalism will project an image of a government that has concern for the citizen, that respects public resources and uses them for the benefit of the general interest, that is ethically competent to address the socio-politico-economic challenges facing the population, and ensures the wellbeing of everyone. This will generate and build trust on several levels including: trust between the government and the public, trust between the political and the bureaucratic sides of government, and trust among the public servants themselves. Ideally this should create harmonious development or at least minimize conflicts that detract development efforts.

- **Enhancing transparency and accountability:** Professionalism puts a premium on respect for the needs of the clients/customers by whatever names they may be known (patients in hospitals, students in Universities, pupils in schools, parents, consumers, voters, tax payers, users, etc). This encourages openness, collaboration, involvement, and reporting on results. Professionalism promotes self-control either through individuals behaving according to the dictates of their profession or professional bodies providing incentives for public servants belonging to them to behave according to their codes. Eventually, transparency and accountability get enhanced. It is difficult to conceive professionalism without accountability.

**Recommendations:**

The following recommendations are made on the assumption that African Governments are taking professionalism in the Public Service as a major concern and one of the most critical contributors to the development process on the continent. They are made also on the assumption that Ministers responsible for Public Service, Senior Managers in the Public Service including those responsible for human resources are resolved to promote professionalism in the Public Service.
• Ministries responsible for Public Service, Ministries responsible for Education, Public Service Commissions and other Appointing Authorities, Universities, Management Development Institutes, a Tertiary Institutions, professional bodies, representatives from Private sector and Civil Society Institutions should be brought together into a Commission or a Taskforce or a Committee to spearhead the development of Professionalism in the Public Service. Such a Committee or whatever name it is called will first and foremost propose how to integrate professionalism in education and training curricula and programs, Public Service selection and recruitment processes, and advocacy activities for cultivating demand for professionalism from the population. Proposals from such a committee could strengthen the institutional infrastructures for professionalism.

• The above recommended Committee should conduct research and hearings on Professionalism in the Public Service in the country and use the findings to identify indicators and indices of professionalism in the Public Service and develop standards of professional conduct to guide the practice of professionalism in the public service, including periodically monitoring and evaluating it. The standards and indicators should be published to the Public Service and indeed the Public itself. Some countries have codes of conduct, but what we are recommending goes far beyond just codes of conduct.

• Leaders at all levels in the Public Sector must become effective role models by adhering to the highest levels of professionalism in rendering service of whatever nature to the Public and community and by holding all public servants practicing under and with them to high standards of professionalism. The entire governance structure must be engaged in this endeavor.

• The Committee on Professionalism should develop professionalism guidelines and sanctions for adoption by the Public Service reflecting the expectation that Public Servants will behave with professionalism in serving the Public.

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Chapter 7

Promoting Professionalism in the Civil Service in Africa:

Strategic Considerations

Florence N. Wachira

Human Resource managers will have to ‘remove the log in their eyes’ with regard to professionalism for them to see the log in others eyes and remove it. The hallmark of professionals is their commitment to doing things right and in their continuing development along with others. This is what HR managers should aspire for.

Introduction

The Charter for Public service in Africa was adopted at the Third Pan African Conference of Ministers responsible for the Civil service in Windhoek, Namibia in 2001. It defined a framework to guide Public services in Africa in taking such legislative, regulatory, technical and practical measures as would be necessary to make adjustments to the way in which its services are organized and operated in order to respond on a sustainable basis to changing needs and the demands of the public at large. Article 10 of the Charter provides that Public service in Africa shall ensure that effective services of the highest quality are provided by making optimal use of resources at its disposal and must be informed by best practices in the application of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs).

As the public sector modernizes to become more efficient and cost effective, the strategic importance of human resources and their management continues to receive increased attention. Research by academics including Huselid, (1995); Ruona and Gibson (2004) has provided convincing evidence of the link between Human Resource Management practices and the profitability and economic value to an organization in the private sector. This has led to increasing acceptance of the fact that HR professionals play a key role in making a business successful (Ulrich, 1998; Cooke, 2004). This acceptance has spread to the Public sector which now refers to the strategic role its human resource is likely to play in the achievement of National goals and objectives.

The Public Service Charter states that fundamental values of a public servant shall be based on a Public service rooted in professionalism and ethics. It defines professionalism as residing in how skilfully and how well public servants perform their duties. Professionalism is therefore not a technical skill. It has been described as a set of internalized character strengths, attitudes and values directed towards high quality service to others through one’s work. A professional views his/her work as a statement of personal commitment to excellence of performance and has respect for experience of others and an on-going need to learn and improve. The mark of a professional is the ability to maintain and enhance professional competences throughout a career. According to the CIM (2002), professional
discharge of duties entails application of expertise and judgement; the motivation and direction of others and a positive contribution to the achievement of the objectives of the organization.

This paper describes how public sector human resource managers can promote professionalism in the implementation of the Public service Charter. The author adopts the stance that implementation of the Public service Charter is about modernizing the public service to make it more efficient and effective and suggests factors that can facilitate or inhibit HR managers in this role. The author concludes by proposing strategic actions which, if taken, would help human resource professionals to play their rightful roles in making the implementation of the Africa Public service Charter more meaningful.

**Human Resource Managers promoting Professionalism**

According to the CIM (2002), professional discharge of duties entails application of expertise and judgement; the motivation and direction of others and a positive contribution to the achievement of the objectives of the organization. The key role of Human resource managers in the Public sector is to ensure that organizations meet their goals and objectives through their employees. This means ensuring that organizations have the right employees at the right time in the right deployments and that these employees are empowered with the requisite competences, skills and attitudes to do what they are expected to do in their work. Their role in promoting professionalism also entails making sure that they are professional themselves before influencing others to do the same. ‘One cannot empower others if he/she is not herself empowered’. Similarly, one cannot promote professionalism if he/she is not or does not respect professionalism.

This *log in your eye paradigm* implies that HR managers must focus on their practice before they can attempt to assist others. Through a heightened sense of self-autonomy and self-control, empowerment will offer the HR professionals prospects of sustaining good performance and reinforce their dedication to learning, growing and self-engagement (Erstad, 1997). Only then can they role model the art of being a professional. They should ensure they have the expertise and skills in HR and can apply this expertise in the performance of their work and continue to pursue their own growth processes and seek development opportunities to surface, experiment, challenge and adapt to their work expectations (Barker and Camarata, 1998). Their commitment to empower themselves must stem from a belief in and acceptance of the goals and values of the Charter and of their organization so that it may translate into willingness to exert effort towards its accomplishment (King and Erhard, 1997).

The HRM professionals must collaborate effectively through the use of the existing networks and also establish others to empower themselves, connect people and encourage sharing of knowledge about issues that are important. Networking for them should be an ongoing process of reaching out and getting in touch with other managers and employees to get tasks done. This is because collaborative people are always thinking of new patterns of working
and connecting. By promoting networking, HR managers will be able to participate in setting standards for all cadres working at various levels in the organization. They will improve relationships with other departments and also improve communication within the organization and thus help in the integration of functions for better results. Their responsibility to others in the organization is to ensure that others are aware of their responsibilities for human resource management issues and to encourage and assist them to develop their potential for it. By becoming nodes in the network, HR professionals will be able to tap into available knowledge and increase their effectiveness.

Business impact is less about title, position or hierarchy and more of mind-set, influence and skills. Instead of being confined by the chain of command, HR managers can go directly to sources of knowledge whether inside or outside the organization (Savage, 1996). Professionalism will entrench itself only when people in organizations accept that one does not have to be a senior manager or necessarily an expert to shape policy or to share knowledge in the organization. HR managers must encourage a shift from thinking of experts as the primary source of knowledge to thinking that everyone engaged in work tasks has knowledge someone else could use to advantage (Dixon, 2000).

According to Wenger (2000), the knowledge that drives an organization does not reside in its formal procedures but in communities of practitioners who on daily basis negotiate meaning. Though people are given job titles and assigned to separate departments, work is essentially a social process; the practice of which brings different functions together to fulfil a mandate and goals. This is the thinking in the private sector where though organizations are hierarchical just like in the public service, work processes have been used to ‘flatten’ the structures to enhance efficiency and increase productivity.

Professionalism for HR managers is about adopting systemic thinking to learn better about the interdependence within the organization. They must ensure they know what keeps their non-HR colleagues awake at night and then decide and market what HR can do to help them sleep more easily. They must reach out to other managers to show them what HRM can do for them towards achieving their goals and objectives. HRM must adopt a more proactive role and not to limit itself to a reactive and administrative role through interpreting and applying government rules.

**HR Managers Role in the Implementation of the Charter**

‘Fundamentally, man is the key to all problems not money. Funds are valuable only when used by trained, experienced and devoted men and women........ Dag Hammarskjold-UN Secretary-General 1953-1963

The underlying aim of the Charter is to reconcile the perspectives of the citizen as customer with those of the Government and the Public employee. The Charter has clear obligations on employees to use their competences and professionalism to offer efficient services. The role
of HR managers is to provide services to internal customers. Successful provision of HR services requires HR managers to play all the four roles of: employee advocate; functional expert; human capital developer and strategic partner and a leader in HR issues (Ulrich and Brockbank, 2005; Martin and Hertick, 2007). As employee advocates, the HR managers should care for and listen to the employee. In addition, they should respond with more attention on stakeholders’ (citizens) interests so that they stay responsive and customer-focused in service delivery. Changing work conditions are increasing civil servants’ vulnerability as traditional job security associated with civil service jobs is increasingly being eroded by requirements for performance contracts and appraisals linked to rewards and sanctions etc. The psychological contract, together with commitment and loyalty, have been broken. HR managers must work to sustain the psychological contract between employers and employees. This requires managers to develop specialist knowledge and skills in core HR practices like recruitment, promotions, deployments, training and development and work design. They should continuously seek better ways of doing things and develop employment practices that promote high employee commitment in a system where extensive re-structuring is quickly eroding anticipated career paths for many employees and challenging traditional forms of employee commitment (Harris, 2005).

As functional experts, the HR managers should focus on having the right people in the Public service and ensure they are motivated and professional in their approach to work. By adopting use of ICT, HR managers can ease some of the routine operational procedures, encourage flexibility, focus on individual performance and reduce formalization within the public sector. Use of ICT would facilitate speedy recruitment and retention of valued staff; enhance organizational cost effectiveness and encourage a performance driven culture (Truss, 2003; Kessler et.al. 2000; and Farnham and Horton, 2000).

As developers of human capital, they should seek to address organizational issues about management and development of people and employment relationships. They should influence line managers to develop strategies that make best use of core competences of the organizations’ human resource. HR managers should seek to develop a proactive orientation towards learning and develop mechanisms which support and utilize the learning of individuals. People must be given the opportunity to change the way they think and interact through increased training and development and through new management methods (Senge et. al., 1999). This will help to ensure that employees in key roles have the right skills, expertise and freedom to use them for more engagement and involvement in efforts to achieve organizational goals.

According to Buyens et al (2001), development initiatives should move from a reactive isolated function towards assuming a more strategic input in which: human capital development is not just about training but focuses instead on supporting the learning process throughout the organization; everyone in the organization should be involved in supporting the learning process, in an environment where learning is seen as part of everyday work and not a separate activity. HR managers must similarly ensure that training and development contribute to and are integrated with rewards and recognition, information flow, vision and
strategy. They should further contribute towards effective talent management through such processes like Workforce Planning, employee appraisal and learning needs analysis.

As strategic and business partners, HR managers should be able to see the whole picture and understand how Human Resources can help in the achievement of the organization’s mandate. They should focus on the future while dealing with the present and seek to develop capacities of individuals and teams. They should play a role in formulating the Vision, Mission and strategic objectives of the organization. They should bring know-how on change management and partner effectively with line managers to develop and implement strategy. As Business Partners, they must be Part of strong HR Function, Participate in strategic initiatives, provide consulting services to internal clients and co-operate closely with clients to bring innovative ideas. They should share responsibility for people management with line managers and ensure that they take people management issues seriously and that their management of staff allows for discretionary behavior to spur creativity and increase productivity (Purcell, et al 2003).

As HR leaders, they should become experts at effective organizational communication and executive leadership processes, then set standards and influence compliance by collaborating with other functions. They should break down ‘silos’ and integrate action towards achievement of goals. They should be Change Agents, to facilitate change in organization, protect employees against the side effects of constant changes, align different projects together and minimize their impact. Their greatest challenge will be to build capacity for change. This requires them to be more innovative and to continuously review and introduce new working practices that improve the performance of people so that they deliver the goals of their organizations. Buchanan and Body (1992) identified five competence clusters required for people to be effective change agents. These include: Team building abilities; networking skills; communication; negotiation and management and leadership skills.

**Factors facilitating HR managers in their roles**

*Strategic positioning*

The leadership of HR in many countries has been elevated to senior management level and even to Policy level. This requires HR managers to stop watching from the sidelines and concentrate on all-round excellence as they sit at table with other managers. It gives HR a forum to negotiate ownership of the HR agenda and an opportunity to adopt a strategic role. By building their credibility and being proactive, HR managers can utilize innovative strategies to demonstrate an understanding of business and gain the trust of line managers. Gaining trust and credibility is a by-product of doing things right. It requires them to change their thinking and acquire appropriate skills especially in employment relations, team building, interpersonal skills and negotiation skills. They should develop a HR strategy to ensure people issues are kept at the heart of business decision making.
To raise the profile of HR in the organization, HR managers must challenge their thinking and change their mindset. ‘It is impossible to develop new ways of organization and management while continuing to think in old ways (Morgan, 1993). What HR practitioners need is the kind of knowledge they can apply to their behavior in the midst of ongoing events in order to help them inquire more effectively with other managers about their common purpose and about how they can produce outcomes congruent with such purpose. By learning to change the frame they use to make sense of the world (mindset), they can change meaning and when meaning changes, their behavior will follow suit (Cope, 2001). By demonstrating knowledge of what the organization does, they will give line managers a credible reason to consult them.

As strategists, they should direct the thinking within the organization from the traditional ‘doctor-type’ thinking to the more innovative ‘architect-type’ of thinking. A doctor examines a patient and on noting the symptoms goes ahead to make a diagnosis, and a line of treatment. He thus identifies a problem, analyses it, and identifies the cause and prescribes treatment based on past experience. An architect on the other hand asks the client questions like; ‘where is your land?’, ‘how much do you want to spend?’, ‘what’s your need?’ and then goes on to design something. A good architect does not go through a book of patterns or relate to what happened in the past to help his client, he acts more like a consultant who guides the client through a process in which he is able to come up with solutions suitable to his unique problem.

**Transformative leadership**

People in an organization have a position and experience different levels of access to and understanding of the evolving and changing external context of which they are part, but do not have access to sharing their perspective with senior decision makers. Traditional notions of hierarchy are intolerant to views from below because of well ingrained ‘junior is ignorant’ unspoken philosophy. There is need for an enabling leadership which creates the right conditions to optimize learning, exploration of different perspectives and problem solving. Leader’s roles must be less about driving performance against a pre-determined vision and more about creating a process of sharing the wisdom of many different and contrary perspectives (Stacey, 2007)

**Continuing professional development:**

The skills that made one get a job won’t probably be the same to sustain that job forever. It pays to actively seek opportunities to develop new skills, gain different experiences and expand your networks. Otherwise, your speciality is at risk of being outdated soon. Practitioners must keep updating their knowledge and skills required for their roles in the organization. Organizations must facilitate development of their HR managers for them to be effective. Building capacity of HR managers is not so much about traditional training programs. It should be more about developing intellectual capital and promoting organizational, team and individual learning. It is about planning approaches to encouragement of self-development; self-managed learning with appropriate support and
guidance from within the organization. It is about reshaping attitudes. Training has tended to focus on skills and recently on customer focus. There is need for a pragmatic approach towards attitudinal focused training (ECA, 2004).

HR managers must demonstrate value in what they do. Value is a measure of efficiency and effectiveness. A value chain is a way of looking at an organization’s processes as a chain of activities meant to convert inputs into public services. Value to customers results from activities that differentiate the service, lowers cost and meets needs quickly. According to Cheal (2006), HR managers should operate in a way that increases public value generated by their organizations. Moore (1995) proposes that value can be increased when the level of service provision increases in quality, equity and fairness and when it is sustainable and enhances the level of trust between the Government and its citizens.

Factors inhibiting HR managers in performing their roles

Heritage

We are often mediocre because of our conformity to past solutions or ways of behaving. The big danger in conforming to any pattern that is accepted is that we do not even question why the pattern is accepted or by whom it was accepted in the first place. -Unknown

There are distinctive features of the Public sector context that have inhibited the development of the HRM function and encouraged an essentially administrative role with limited influence. Traditionally, the function was characterized by low credibility, a narrow operational contribution and a peripheral position. The influence of this Public sector ‘heritage’ has coloured people’s perception of HR roles. Again, over the years, Public service has been characterized by job stability, routine jobs handed down from the top in a well-organized hierarchy. Decisions were made at the top and all that was expected of those in lower ranks of the ladder was to implement the decisions without question. HR managers are now expected to take decisions and to offer leadership in strategy making which is far from what they are used to and this poses a challenge.

Lack of visibility:

Lack of HR visibility in organizations is related more to their skills and their capacity to keep other departments informed of what they do and the relationship between HRM and other managers in the organization. There is lack of specificity about what it means for HR to be strategic and what they are meant to be doing on a day to day basis in their jobs. Ulrich (2008) argues that while HRM practitioners may now have access to the senior management, meaning that they are at the table with others, it is still doubtful if ‘getting to the table was just about ego and status? He proposed that it should be more about what they bring to the table -if all they talk about is HR, they are missing the point. They must talk …globalization, strategy and customers-issues that affect HR and the organization.

Inconsistencies between tradition and best practice

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People management in the Public sector is in transition from personnel administrative / management preoccupied with basic record keeping and compliance with the law, performance records and recruitment criteria to strategic HRM which focuses on business partnering or professional practice (Epan, 2005). Inconsistencies exist between best practices to pursue and the traditional models. For example, best practice models emphasize Performance management and performance related pay in a system where traditionally salaries are determined centrally. Again, civil service has always paid attention to equal opportunities, diversity HR and issues of ‘demonstrable’ fairness in HR practices. This inconsistence prevents institutionalization of best practice. The balance between operational and strategic roles is still an unresolved issue. HR managers are still kept too focused on operational issues. The strategic input they can make is too constrained by the time they have to commit to administrative duties, lack of skills and lack of incentives.

Stakeholder expectations

The role of HR Managers is contingent on expectations of its stakeholders. These act as mediating mechanisms in generating meaning and sharing about what effective HR managers should be doing. However, if somebody is used to seeing you in one role, then all of a sudden, they are trying to accept you in another that could be a challenge. Senior managers do not often involve HR managers in mainstream decisions and planning. People issues are therefore not accorded sufficient attention at an early stage in the decision making process. While senior management profess that people are strategic assets, the HRM systems have not been integrated with the operational systems. Therefore, HR managers cannot be used to leverage the business perspective (Becker et al, 2001)

Lack of alignment

Since the onset of reforms, most issues HR managers have to deal with such as retrenchment and other cost cutting measures of early 2000’s have been externally driven thereby making HR managers have very little input in their undertaking. In many instances, Africa Public services have implemented strategies designed by outside experts with questionable knowledge of Africa environment. Now, a lot of innovations from the private sector have been brought into Public sector. Asmost of the issues require rapid organizational responses and effective decision making without reducing quality (Stewart, 2005), the challenge is that the HRM function in Africa is least prepared for this change.

Lack of alignment between National priorities and Government policy, planning and budgeting and delivery and implementation leaves HRM hanging in the balance. HR issues tend to be an “add on” in reforms in the Public sector. Thus, while HRM function is still structured the same way it was in pre-reform days, it is doubtful whether it is possible to transfer the body of sound HR practice in the private sector to the public sector. With limited resources often at its disposal, it is also not possible for the Public sector HRM manager to combine all the four roles of Business partner; change agent; administrative expert and employee champion conceptualized by Ulrich(1997) to deliver desired results.
Declining Values

Lam (1997) noted that declining civil service morale is an impediment to the implementation of New Public management initiatives. Human resource managers are expected to enhance commitment of employees who are increasingly being fearful of being measured in case it translates to a job loss; increased workloads and changing work environments. Harris (2005) found that in a sector offering less job security than before while facing growing levels of employment regulation, litigation and resource constraints, it is becoming more difficult to enhance commitment (ibid.)

Human Resource managers are expected to be paragons of virtue in an environment of declining values. A study done by Agere and Mendaza (1999) for Commonwealth Secretariat found that social values of integrity, honesty, dependability, helpfulness, impartiality and fairness etc. are fast disappearing from the Public service in Africa. Corruption, meaning behavior that deviates from the normal duties of a public servant because of pecuniary or status gains (McCormack, 1997) is now a pervasive phenomenon in Africa and has its impact in terms of capacity to enhance effectiveness of service delivery. This is making it extremely difficult to enhance efficiency of systems of management and accountability.

Recommendations for Strategic Action

i) Match rhetoric with action

Thomas (1996) proposed that this catch-phrase features prominently in the vocabulary of civil service reforms all round the world. However, the generals of administrative reforms prefer to match in action behind a protective advance guard of rhetoric. The rhetoric draws on whatever ideas are internationally fashionable resulting in many statements of intent with no corresponding action to back it up. For Africa, implementing the Charter must be through matching the rhetoric and the reality in the area of HRM; between HRM theory and practice; between what the HRM function says it is doing and that practice as perceived by employees; and between what senior management believes to be the role of HR professionals and the role it actually plays (Gratton et al, 1999).

ii) Decentralize policy making ‘Think globally, act locally’

Success stories of reforms in Africa include the ‘corporatization’ of public enterprises by converting civil service departments into free standing agencies as has happened with many income tax departments. These enterprises’ good performance has everything to do with the management of their human resources. Perhaps there is need to refashion the delivery of human resource management services at national levels to allow each Ministry to develop policies that are feasible in the context of its mandate. This requires decentralization of policy making and to adopt a more context-specific approach. Then each Ministry / Department can develop their own HR systems that support alignment with organizational strategies to deliver generic outcomes of HR: strategy execution, administrative efficiency, employee contribution and capacity for change (Ulrich, 2001). This will allow borrowing of best
sectoral policies and practices globally, analyzing the implications in order to implement only what can work locally to produce desired results.

**iii) Refashion delivery of key HR services**

The prime Minister of Sweden was quoted in a Newsweek article “Sweden is so tough” in 2006 saying that he believed they were doing relatively well because they had developed policies that facilitated structural adjustments e.g. those that facilitated change for individuals meaning they provided people with opportunities to learn new things and to move or change jobs even late in life.

HRM reforms are not automatically transferable from one setting to another. Shifting towards more strategic models of HRM require repositioning of HR organization, its structures, processes and boundaries. There may be need to review how Governments recruit, reward and punish errant workers by reviewing the role of Public service Commissions in Africa. In this era of performance contracting, there is need to enhance flexibility of public service managers in the hiring of staff to meet their contractual obligations; improve their ability to reward and motivate their employees to perform better and strengthen their ability to purge underperformers from their ministries/Departments. There is also need to increase discretion in the management of people by eliminating many procedural restrictions on deployments, transfers and appointments in the civil service.

**iv) Paradigm shift in training and development**

There is a significant challenge for HR staff if they are to fulfill their role of providing advice on strategic organizational development since current development initiatives may not be sufficient. A lot of training in the public service has been more on development of skills and acquisition of knowledge. There is need for a paradigm shift to focus more on changing of mindsets. To do this effectively, each country should specify a competency framework for their HR professionals to guide their development. The frameworks would indicate expected Professional standards of HR practice and therefore act as a guide in the recruitment of HR managers. This has happened elsewhere e.g. in the UK, where they have defined HR professional standards under four key areas: knowing the business; demonstrating HR expertise; acting as a change agent and building personal credibility (http://www.psg.civilservice.gov.uk/). There is need in Africa to move towards this competency-based training and proactive use of other developmental initiatives like coaching, mentoring; job shadowing; internships e.t.c.

**v) Continuing Research to inform policy**

There is need to institutionalize research on HRM practice in the civil service to inform on how re-positioning of HR has affected HR organization, its structures, processes and boundaries. This would ensure that HR is not assigned a more proactive role while it remains enslaved in a reactive administrative role focused on personnel matters- ‘like putting new wine in old wineskins’. Research should inform the adoption of innovative HRM practices
from the private sector so that they have similar positive impact on performance in the public service (Pichault, 2007).

Conclusions:

The more Africa adopts new Public management ideas, the more it will require strengthening the management of its Human Resources. Human Resource managers will have to ‘remove the log in their eyes’ with regard to professionalism for them to see the log in others eyes and remove it. The hallmark of professionals is their commitment to doing things right and in their continuing development along with others. This is what HR managers should aspire for.

Implementation of the Charter for Public service requires HR managers to offer leadership in people issues and to pay attention to their multiple roles as employee champions; business and strategic partners and developers of human capital. Networking and effective partnering with line managers facilitates HR managers to perform their roles while lack of skills, low credibility and failure to align their activities to address strategic needs of the organizations tend to inhibit their effectiveness. Governments in Africa should purposefully decide what they want HR managers to be able to do and then refashion the structures and delivery of HR services to match needs for modernization in the various sectors. It is not enough to borrow from the private sector if no empirical research is done to determine how well the borrowed practices will situate within the civil service. Research will help to match the rhetoric of HRM transforming Public service delivery to the reality of making it play its transformative role effectively.

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Chapter 8

Hard and soft power: The Secret to Human Resource Influence and Impact

John Lavelle

how HR can increase its influence and impact within institutions by employing a judicious mix of Hard Power (promulgation and enforcement of sensible policies and rules, deepening analytical capacity and strengthening the use of metrics to gauge performance) and Soft Power (influencing the attitudes and actions of institutional actors by modeling standards of behavior and adhering to espoused values while also endeavoring to speak to the better angels of its clients, both management and staff).

Introduction

At a APS-HRMnet, workshop held in Addis Ababa in 2011 there was general agreement the HR function needs to play a pivotal role in fostering professionalism in the Public Service in Africa. In this chapter it is argued that to achieve this goal, HR must master the art of exercising power in all its subtleties and complexities. Specifically, it must find ways to be truly exemplary in the institutional setting: influencing the behavior and attitudes of others by what it does. Too often, HR, in both the public and private spheres, has failed to measure up and the function is always reduced in the eyes of its internal clients to a loose assembly of disjointed tools and processes, or a nuisance compliance constabulary. Where it matters most, it can be seen as impotent and powerless. That need not be: many of HR’s wounds, it is argued here, are self-inflicted and thus perfectly avoidable.

How should power be defined in this context and how should it be exercised? Certainly not the way Machiavelli mused about it in the Prince when he famously recommended that, “It is better to be feared than loved if one cannot be both.” Probably sound advice in his era (and depressingly still the mode of choice of despot in some troubled corners of the World), but more recently and with respect to organizational life, a more encompassing attitude to the exercise of power has been advocated. Charles Handy, for one, has written extensively and eloquently about the distinction between coercive or legally derived power and influence (Handy, 1993). In a somewhat similar vein, the title of this chapter Hard Power: Soft Power is plucked from the influential work of Joseph S. Nye, former dean of the Kennedy School of Government at Harvard. Professor Nye’s primary focus has been on the exercise of power at the nation state level but his ideas also resonate at the institutional level. In a recent paper he had this to say about soft power:

“Leadership and power are inextricably intertwined. Broadly speaking, power is the ability to affect the behavior of others to get the outcomes you want, and there are three basic ways to do that:
You can coerce them with threats.
You can induce them with payments
Or you can attract and co-opt them.

Soft power rests on the ability to shape the preferences of others. At the personal level, we all know the power of attraction and seduction. In a relationship or a marriage, for example, power does not necessarily reside with the larger or richer partner, but in the poorly understood chemistry of attraction. Smart executives know that leadership is not just a matter of issuing commands, but also involves leading by example and attracting others to do what you want. As a former CEO once told me, you cannot run a large multinational by commands or threats alone. Many things in a large organization are outside the leader’s span of control. Your power is greater if you can get others to buy in to your values and vision.” (Nye, 2010).

This seems apt in the context of HR Management. All three ways of exercising power are at HR’s disposal. The challenge is to find ways to use them so that they are mutually reinforcing and proportional. The chapter discusses how HR can master the art of exercising hard and soft power. The examples and subject matters are solely illustrative: the confines of a discussion paper do not permit a full or comprehensive treatment of the subject.

The author is reticent about launching hortatory prescriptions at the African HR Public Service community, partly because of lack of deep understanding of what is happening in the sector and partly because of an aversion to discourse which may be construed as intellectual neo-colonialism. Some questions will be raised about HR in Africa but they should be interpreted as just that: questions and speculation.

The chapter is structured as follows: We begin with a brief look at strengthening professionalism: what does this mean in the context of the African Public Service? The role and impact of the HR function is the exclusive laboratory for examining power and professionalism but the lessons learned have wider import. On the assumption that HR must lead by example, we then explore the question: to what extent does HR itself meet the standards of being a true profession? Several examples of how HR can exercise requisite hard power are then examined. And finally, key ways in which HR can leverage soft power are offered up for consideration.

Professionalism in the Public Service (HR as a case study)

A 2000 UNDESA report laid out a sensible set of criteria for gauging professionalism in the public service. It stated that: “The public service as a profession, as it developed, espoused the values of probity, neutrality, and fairness, among many others. It has embraced the merit
principle in setting up career structures from recruitment to promotions. By running the administrative machinery that supports decision-making and implements the policies and programs of the government-of the day, public servants play an indispensable role in the sustainable development and governance of a nation. Further, as an institution, the public service ensures the continuity of administration between transitions of power, which are the hallmarks of modern day democracy. Given these crucial roles, a country expects its public service to demonstrate professionalism and ethics………..

Based on the above, we recommend the following actions:

- Each country makes the commitment and takes the necessary measures to regenerate professionalism and promote ethics in its public administration by:
  - Creating managerial structures and mechanisms;
  - Reforming civil service codes to introduce principles of neutrality, transparency, flexibility and stressing ethics and integrity;
  - Implementing a system of recruitment, career development and remuneration based on merit; Improving and modernizing methodologies and programs for training civil servants.”

The chapter does not delve any deeper into the formal characteristics of professionalism, yet it’s hard to quarrel with the general proposition. And as we will see later, the recommended espoused values of probity, neutrality, and fairness are quintessentially soft power values.

The term **professionalism** has a number of casual meanings in the vernacular, some of them quite tautological: “being good at what one does,” as an example. More formally, however, professionalism can be described as typically exhibiting the following features:

- It is associated with effort which is remunerated as opposed to amateur or pro bono enterprise.
- It connotes possession of expertise and specialized knowledge and efficacious use of same
- It is about the existence of established and recognized standards
- It is governed by a code of ethic
- And individuals take pride and are intrinsically motivated to live up to their shared standards in the act of delivering excellence

The question this begs is: to what extent does HR in the African Public Service exhibit professionalism and to what extent, indeed, can HR be regarded as a true profession? Again there is no single accepted definition of what constitutes a profession, but the following features are posited:

- It is an occupational calling requiring specialized knowledge that can only be acquired through intensive and protracted study;
Expertise is subject to accreditation;

Accreditation and/or legal requirements constitute “high barriers to entry;”

Knowledge acquisition and retention is dynamic: what is “cutting-edge” today may not be tomorrow;

There are most likely a number of career stages and distinct echelons of professional seniority;

Clients have a vested interest in the adherence of the above conditions. There is varying degrees of risk associated with the discontinuance of these conditions.

Lessons from the Guild System

In many respects, the modus operandi of professions owe a debt to the guild system - associations of craftsmen which flourished in Europe in the middle ages but whose antecedents can be traced as far back as the Gupta period In India (AD 300), the Han and Sui Dynasties of China and even ancient Greece. Mature guilds protected the arts and secrets of their respective crafts and conferred gradations of status on their members, beginning with the apprentice stage and culminating in the master stage.

Guilds regulated two not necessarily fully compatible activities: husbanding knowledge and skills to which only guild members were privy; and guarding the exclusivity of the membership itself and its supply to the labor market. In key respects, this combination of processes can be found in latter day professions which display varying permutations of rigor and steepness of accreditation on the one hand and ease of access to membership on the other. To illustrate, the location of a sample of professions and “quasi-professions” are mapped against these two dimensions. The Medical profession serves as a blue ribbon benchmark for what an authentic profession should look like. Knowledge and skills are profound, always evolving, difficult to acquire and non-substitutable. The barriers-to-entry to each professional echelon or specialization are high and the consumer market for medical services has a powerful vested interest in seeing that these standards are maintained, knowing the risks involved if they collapse or can be circumvented: no one wants to have the attention of a quack brain surgeon visited upon them, for example. And medical quackery in most countries is not only a serious professional breach of trust but also a punishable offense. There are perfectly sound reasons why this is so.

The legal profession, in contrast, arguably owns a less impenetrable, though still onerous, body of knowledge and expertise than medicine (think “barrack room lawyer”?) but barriers-to-entry to the profession in most countries are nevertheless tightly policed both by the local professional
associations, and in many jurisdictions by state or local legislation. (Lawyers in the USA, for example, are required to pass state bar examinations if they want to ply their craft across state line, even though the body of the law is identical.)

In contrast, other quasi-proessions with relatively low accreditation thresholds still find ways in many countries to keep a firm grip on membership as a means of controlling market supply. The regulation of realtor licenses in the USA is a good case in point: acquisition of a license is de rigueur in order to practice but the body of knowledge is quite shallow. This particular variant may have had its heyday in the unsavory practices of the British Trade Unions back in the 1960. The pejorative term “closed shop” described an all too familiar scenario in which trade unions (arguably mutations of the old guild system) had a strangle hold over supply of labor to certain occupations or work, frequently without any associated set of occupational standards or shared body of expertise. “Guild-lite” in other words.

Where does HR fit on the professional map? Rather lowly if truth be told: accreditation is typically a relatively low bar and barriers-to-entry are practically non-existent. There are many means of acquiring HR credentials –SHRM in the USA, CIPD in the UK and AHRI in Australia, as premier examples. The development programs leading to certification can be comprehensive and rigorous (the figure below outlines AHRI’s impressive professional development model) and yet lack of accreditation typically does not preclude association membership and, in any event, access to HR work and career opportunities is wide open. In more developed markets, absence of accreditation or association membership may militate against a candidate’s hiring prospects in a tight labor market but it does not constitute an absolute prohibition. Additionally, there is often considerable overlap between the content of accreditation curricula and what is taught in third level social science, psychology or business studies programs.

In summary, HR accreditation and/or association membership serves a number of softer purposes— a quest for continuous learning, say, or a yearning to “belong” professionally. It does not, however, regulate who gets to work in the HR field or what professional standards they are held to.

The problem of HR professionalism
tends to be exacerbated in the public service, where many HR positions are filled by generalists and where HR constitutes an assignment rather than a career path. In an ideal world, this would somehow be rectified and indeed the very existence of APS-HRMnet gives expression to a different mindset and purpose. However, it will not change fundamentally unless or until the prevailing incentive systems encourage or at least allow and reward individual public servants who wish to pursue a career in HR.

One final weak link in the HR professional chain, worth mention in passing, is the relatively low risk attached to HR outcomes. Take recruitment as an example. While, in theory, selection techniques and practices aim to and are touted as assisting in identifying the best and most qualified candidate for every job, the reality is quite different. Firstly, there exists an unresolved debate about what are the surest predictors of future job performance. Raw IQ is strongly favored in some academic circles whereas competencies, attitudes, behaviors and so on hold sway among the practitioner/HR consulting ranks. They can’t both be right. And secondly, amateurs don’t necessary cause horrible outcomes. Even the most blinkered member of a selection panel may be able to peer long enough through the fog of his or her biases and certitude to locate a candidate who, if not the best, is good enough and at least meets the requisite standards of the job. Unsuccessful candidates never get a chance to prove their worth but no feedback loop exists to invalidate the choice of a “good enough” candidate.

Notwithstanding the problems associated with HR as a full-fledged profession and with the high flux in the HR ranks in the public service, HR can do a better job and garner more influence by attending to key aspects of hard and soft power.

**Hard Power: Rules, Analytics and Metrics**

Three aspects of HR Hard Power are singled out for attention. Firstly, how the compliance function of HR policies and rules can be used in positive ways in the public service. Secondly, how attending to thorough analysis and projections of the workforce can provide insight into optimal staffing. And lastly, how expanding the use of HR metrics can yield information critical to institutional decision-making.

**Policies and Rules:** Sound policies and staff rules constitute the foundation of public sector HRM. Without policy and rules compliance consistency, fairness and order are at risk. But, equally, policies and rules must have concrete meaning and serve a clear business purpose even, or especially, when the business is the business of government.

Too often, however, compliance is an end in itself and rules which make no sense add to the administrative burden or impose avoidable costs on institutions, are left unchallenged. Frequent turnover of HR personnel – particularly in the public service and for the reasons outlined above -
compounds the problem: why invest energy in tinkering with rules when one is likely to move onto another assignment outside the HR function: safer to hew to the status quo.

Best practice suggests that HR policies and rules need to be subject to periodic scrutiny and, where necessary overhaul, if they are not to ossify. A number of principles can aid this work:

- The underlying purpose of a policy or rule should be transparent, readily understood and not perceived as capricious;
- Policies and rules should serve a business purpose (here understood to mean the business of government) and not merely be imposed to regulate the behavior and rights of staff;
- They should be attuned to prevailing cultural mores while not abandoning universal values of equity and responsibility;
- They should align with efficient use of institutional resources. A perverse by-product of rules meant to regulate behavior in bureaucracies is that they sometimes morph into justifications of entitlements – travel policies as a case in point.

**Workforce Analytics (in the context of the changing nature of public sector employment)**

Analysis and judicious use of data are at the heart of HR’s exercise of hard power. Traditionally, the function has stood alone as the one not in possession of robust data capable of swaying institutional decision-making. In the past decade, considerable strides have been made in what was traditionally termed ‘manpower planning.’ Most fresh thinking has emanated from the private sector but the new approaches and models are equally relevant in the public service domain.

**Increased Attention to Segmentation of Talent and Work**

Traditional HR practice and workforce planning in particular tends to fuse work and worker: work that is important is carried out by employees, and the more important the work the more secure and tenured the employment and better the career prospects. The model hasn’t always cooperated too well of course, particularly in tight labor market pockets or when public service compensation is uncompetitive with the private sector. The perennial challenge of attracting and retaining Information Technology (IT) professionals in the public sector are a case in point, as the challenge in the African public service is of retaining high-end professionals such as doctors and lawyers. It also touches, however, on another less examined though critically important issue: difficulty or ease of attracting and retaining talent, may or may not equate with how critical the skills being sought are to a particular public sector and its mission. A dogged
preoccupation with competing for talent can in fact be a strategic distraction if the talent in question is required but not necessarily mission-critical or organization-specific. Workforce segmentation (a set of HR thinking and practices still in its infancy) confronts this danger by distinguishing explicitly between what is needed and how it is obtained. Segmentation of work addresses the different roles and requirements of a given organization, with particular reference to those that are core and most mission-critical. Segmentation of talent, on the other hand, addresses the different ways the organization may attract and retain skills and people based on a strategic analysis of work. It helps open up thinking about alternative approaches of procuring skills and expertise in the most cost effective way possible and, perhaps more controversially, distinguishes between staff who must be retained and developed—who must belong, organizationally—and others whose skills and services can be secured on a more arm’s length or contingent basis. Later in this chapter, a workforce segmentation model will be presented in detail.

The Wharton School’s Dr. Peter Cappelli, a leading academic thinker on the changing nature of employment, envisions the employee relationship as an open-ended negotiation driven by market processes. The “new deal at work” is a more variable contract, based on mutual expectations that are dynamic and prone to change: it is contingent on the employer’s changing requirements and the employee’s lifestyle/life stage needs and intentions. How true or important is this for managing the future public sector workforce? As mentioned, public sector employment may become more fluid in places, but will remain predictable and relatively secure for the most part. Delivery of core governmental services and functions does not lend itself that well to contingent employment. Generation X workers seem to fit the “new deal” profile, valuing independence and moving among employers to pursue their objectives. But could this simply be a product of collective experience rather than preference? Who, after all, wants less rather than more security when the tradeoffs are small?

It also appears that the emerging group of 16- to 24-year-olds is showing a renewed preference to work for a single company and that values security. Baby boomers on the other hand, and as they approach retirement, present a real life stage workforce management challenge. Aggressive adoption of phased retirement arrangements—maintaining the employment relationship but on a diminishing basis—may well offer the best prospect for an orderly transition out of the active workforce even though this is currently one of the least available work-life balance options across the public sector. Conversely, the high hopes held for the establishment of a contingent workforce of public sector retirees are likely overblown: anecdotal experience suggests that the shelf life of retirees as consultants/contingent workers is surprisingly brief for a variety of reasons including the difficulty of keeping knowledge and skills up-to-date and the drying up of internal contact networks.

Workforce Planning: The Status Quo and Muddling Through
Workforce planning continues to be honored mainly in the breach, notwithstanding its importance. Numerous studies and sources indicate that workforce planning is not well executed, systematically applied or indeed tackled at all in the majority of public and private organizations. A 1993 Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) survey found that 60 percent of companies had no workforce planning process whatsoever. A 1994 benchmark study conducted by the International Public Management Association for Human Resources’ (IPMA-HR’s) found that only 37 percent of (public service) respondents reported having a workforce planning process. Dismal as this latter statistic may appear at first blush, the bottom line could be grimmer still: The surveyed authors discovered that “not having a planning process” was the main reason for non-response, and non-respondents constituted 60 percent of the total survey sample size. Moreover, positive responses revealed nothing about the design quality or effectiveness of the planning processes in question; they could, in some cases, have been more aspiration than actual.

But organizations cannot be flying blind when attending to shifting workforce requirements, or be placing uninformed bets on future talent needs. The absence of any clear correlation between organization success (and survival) and workforce planning on the ground compounds the puzzle. In practice, however, it’s safe to say that organizations claiming not to possess formal processes employ a variety of heuristics or rules of thumb to project workforce planning decisions into the future.

In the author’s experience, the starting point for informal workforce planning is typically some sort of basic, episodic gap analysis aimed at identifying the discrepancy between demand and supply of particular staff cohorts or designated skill sets. The impulse to “plan” is often triggered by budgetary exigencies or a perceived resource crisis of some sort—it’s a reflexive and tactical response, in other words. Headcount data, staff lists and other fairly rudimentary analytics variously fuel the process which sometimes meets expectations and sometimes does not, getting derailed or compromised along the way by a variety of uncooperative variables drawn from the following, not necessarily exhaustive, medley:

- The inherent and meta challenge of predicting the business future, particularly when the operating context is fluid.
- Bureaucratic “rules of the game,” which buttress the stasis already nested in the process; gaps tend to be defined in terms of replacement rather than opportunity for change.
- The difficulty of dealing adequately with the reality of skills fungibility and staff substitutability. In all
organizations, aside from those with high technical expertise barriers, available skills can be used in different ways and staff can be deployed creatively. Skills substitutability tends to be routinely exploited informally, yet confronted awkwardly, if at all, in more formal analytical planning terms. Specialists can be turned into generalists more easily than the other way around, and generalists are arguably more plentiful and prized in any event; it’s just that they aren’t readily displayed on formal workforce planning radar.

- Organizational power—workforce planning being, after all, one component of the overall resource allocation system and, to that extent, a fringe theater for the acting-out of internal political jousts and dramas—is one reason skills substitution efforts, which straddle departmental and/or budgetary lines of demarcation, are frequently cast in zero-sum terms and resisted, circumvented or covertly undermined. (It’s worth pondering the practicality of the HRM aphorism “It’s all about getting the right people, in the right place, at the right time” when the definition of “right” may be a relative, if not politically-derived, term.)

- The reality that staffing decisions are often taken incrementally and devolved to the local level. This means that individual employment transactions—a new staff member is brought on board; an existing staff member terminates or switches from being a functional “apple” to an “orange”—creates few organizational ripples, and often goes undetected. But it can also mean that staffing flows in the aggregate and when manifest can be strategically incoherent. This can be an unpleasant corporate surprise that typically surfaces after the event and when the time for taking corrective action has passed.

**Trends and Emerging Best Practices**

It would be wrong to conclude that workforce planning is entirely stuck in the Doldrums of gap analysis. Some important experimentation and honing of practice definitely obtains and warrants attention. The Conference Board’s 2006 report *Strategic Workforce Planning* 28 charts the evolutionary path clearly and provides many case studies detailing what individual organizations are doing. As shown in the figure below, the path from basic gap analysis leads first to active use of workforce analytics such as mining current and historic data to analyze the relationships and substitutability possibilities between different employment types and skill clusters as well as the links between HR and business data. To the extent that interplay between human capital metrics and costs can be determined, workforce analytics becomes the point of departure for

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consideration of Basic Gap Workforce Modeling and Segmentation Analysis Analytics forecasting alternative workforce strategies such as outsourcing, off-shoring and shared services. Modeling and forecasting, the next step on the trail, takes workforce analytics into a more dynamic and textured setting, building various “what-if” scenarios to test the strategic veracity of different staffing models. This is naturally an intrinsically difficult, resource-intensive undertaking, which is fraught with unknowns and justified only when the organization in question operates in a business environment that is in considerable flux. As with all scenario and strategic planning, the objective is less to settle upon the “optimal scenario” and more to experience the catharsis of risk assessment and strategic discovery. Finally, the path leads to workforce segmentation and human capital planning, which are a variety of approaches distinguishing staff in terms of strategic contribution or mission criticality. This briefly seems to be the direction workforce planning is taking. However, as the survey results reported earlier, there is a wide chasm separating practice and evolving perception. Most workforce-planning activity remains anchored to gap analysis, though it is encouraging to note that use of workforce analytics is on a steady uptake.

In one sense, staff differentiation is not new and happens all the time through compensation and grading systems, allocation of responsibilities and calibrated conferring of status, and other institutional symbolism. This is certainly true in the African public service where hierarchy and the trappings of office matter. The literature also pulsates with advice on the importance of identifying key staff contributors. Jim Collins argues in Good to Great that “great companies” focus obsessively on finding, bringing on board, and retaining key (leadership) talent. Great companies, in fact, focus on the “who” (the key leadership cadre) before the “what” (core business strategy), on getting the “right people on the bus,” as Collins puts it, before finalizing its route (Collins, 2001).

Peter Capelli suggests that the productivity of top performing staff is on average five times that of the worst performers and, in certain industry sectors such as IT, as much as 20-fold (Capelli, 1999). Workforce segmentation, however, seeks not to differentiate performance or individual contribution, but rather to distinguish between roles and skill-sets regarding their levels of vitality for business success. This can be a difficult message for management to convey, and an unpalatable one for staff to digest. The unavoidable subtext is that people are no longer the organization’s most important asset; only those whose roles and skills are mission critical are. The others are, well, “mission non-critical.” That can be a difficult moniker to wear with pride and high self-esteem.

Matthew Brush and Donald Ruse (2005) have described how Corning Glass has been in the vanguard of incorporating segmentation into its strategic workforce planning processes. Four key roles are identified.
- **Strategic**: roles critical to desired top line growth and/or innovation/speed to market. These roles require unique capabilities that are difficult for competitors to copy.

- **Core**: roles essential to delivering consistently high-quality services and products, sustainable results and improvements in business processes. These roles require skill sets specific to entering, that are difficult to recruit and costly to groom the staff for advancement into.

- **Requisite**: roles that support business performance but that could be staffed differently to reduce costs while maintaining quality and consistency. These roles could be outsourced or readily filled from the labor market.

- **Noncore**: roles that are not aligned with the strategic direction of the business and could be eliminated or redirected.

In this framework, strategic and core roles are considered *value creators*, while requisite and noncore roles are considered *value supporters*. Overall, this role classification taxonomy offers a different way to link the organization’s business needs with labor market realities. Value creators, such as RandD and sales personnel, can increase revenue and are paid accordingly, while value supporters, such as accounting or human resources employees, are considered necessary but less vital and may be paid relatively less.

### Moving Beyond Segmentation to Workforce Architecture

Workforce segmentation, while still inchoate and sometimes controversial, seems destined to play an important role in workforce planning going forward. It is versatile and capable of handling tough strategic questions that would not necessarily get asked otherwise, and it can cast a sharp challenging light on prevailing employment assumptions and practices. By way of illustration, the Figure below is a cryptic outcome from one such workforce segmentation exercise conducted a few years ago at the World Bank.

This particular talent segmentation matrix built on conceptual work by Walker and Merryman (2005) was further refined in the course of the exercise itself. (The vertical axis of the matrix, business impact, roughly corresponds to the Corning value creator and value supporter dimension.) The primary focus was on the talent employed in areas of high business impact. A fresh insight was the fact that high cost/high impact talent is mobile to a fault, has a short attention span and is more likely to be wooed by instant professional challenge, as well as attractive contingent employment deals with tangible, short-term reward, rather than by more traditional and tenure-based arrangements such as more seniority in the grading pecking order or relatively copper-fastened job security. Though self-evident in hindsight, this was a striking
denouement at the time. Staff clusters occupying the upper left and lower right quadrants also attracted attention; two will be discussed later as case studies in workforce and employment alignment context.

The reader might well ask: what has the above got to do with the public service in general, and the African public service in particular? Employment in the African public service remains career-based for the most part and workforce planning and management are position-based. The answer is that, in the short-term, it probably has little to do with it. However, it would be a mistake to overlook (or fail to draw lessons from) what is happening in public services across the globe. Irreversible changes are taking place, fundamentally reconstituting the concept of public sector employment, public service careers and workforce composition. The author’s companion paper29 for the AAPAM Annual Round Table Conference in Durban last year outlines these changes in detail but just a few selective highlights:

- Public service work is increasingly being carried out by workers outside the civil service career system: workforce segmentation is continuing apace, like it or not. In the USA, for example, roughly 50% of the Federal workforce consists of contractual workers whose primary employment relationship is with their private sector firm, not the government;

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29 John Lavelle Public Services HRM Policies and Practices, Trends and Challenges for HR Management in the Broader Public Sector in the International Arena, AAPAM Annual Round Table Conference, Durban SA. 2010
• The use of contingent workers – short-term and with limited benefits and rights – is increasing, particularly in the more progressive public sectors of Northern Europe

• And countries – again the more progressive states of Northern Europe and Scandinavia in the vanguard – are eliminating their labor laws which confer special status and job security protection on civil servants and instead simply granting them the same (generous) rights and protections already enjoyed by the national workforces more generally.

**HR Metrics**

The third pillar of HR Hard Power is strategic use of HR metrics. Metrics can be used in two separate ways:

- To measure and assess the efficiency and effectiveness of the HR function itself;
- Or to assess the efficiency of use of the institutions’ workforce or Human Capital.

Taking each in turn:

Various approaches exist to gauge the efficiency of the HR function. It can be benchmarked against other organizations with respect to (i) ratio of HR staff to total staff, or (ii) recruitment time cycle and many other similar metrics Boudreau and Ramstad (2007) An assessment of HR’s Past Performance against a suite of agreed upon standards and metrics (see more below).

- An HR assessment against agreed upon **Internal Benchmarks**. In most circumstances this would be predicated on the existence of a comprehensive workforce plan to evaluate fit and variance.

- A comparison of HR against **External Benchmarks** with the caveat that organizational uniqueness must be recognized and experience cautions that external evidence is pry to being incomplete and impressionistic.
Or a judgment of HR **Readiness** to take on new challenges should the institution be embarking on a new strategic direction or adopting a fresh modus operandi. (Linking HCM to scenario planning as discussed also under trends and developments in workforce planning.)

In general, a final HR efficiency evaluation methodology is often a composite of sorts, straddling more than one of the options above. This is perfectly fine as long as the different purposes served are kept in focus.

But there are limits to the extent to which HR effectiveness can be measured. While many consulting companies claim to have discovered “The North West Passage” connecting investment in HR to ultimate institutional performance, their methodologies do not stand up to rigorous scrutiny. Wonderful as it would be to find a causal link, the search for same is most likely to be a futile one.

The second use of HR metrics is in assessing the efficiency of workforce or Human Capital usage. Here much headway has been made

HR standards and metrics and corresponding data usage can be deployed in several ways:

- Taking stock of Bedrock Human Capital, assessing workforce variables at the institution-wide level. This, again, is predicated on the existence of a comprehensive strategic workforce plan.

- Assessing HC capacity to cope with recurring project needs or periodic HC capacity imperatives—scaling up for peak operational periods, as an example. Finessing the core/contingent workforce balance for maximum flexibility and cost effectiveness.
○ Or gauging capacity and HC nimbleness to gear up rapidly for ad hoc or unforeseen HC exigencies.

Again, final methodologies tend to comprise elements of all three standards with attendant choice of metric implications.

Choice of HR standards and metrics is always situational and hard prescription is premature. Some general principles can be advanced however, including:

○ A metric is only valuable if it provides answers to organizationally strategic or significant HR questions. For example, the scale and reasons for voluntary turnover might be highly important in an organization in a pronounced state of flux or unstable competitive environment but peripheral to another in a more stable environment.

○ It should be open to as limited interpretative degrees of freedom as possible.

○ And it should ultimately inform strategic decision-making.

Below, for illustrative purposes, is a non-exhaustive taxonomy of workforce/Human Capital metrics

### Workforce Demographics

○ What is the existing composition of the workforce in terms of age, service, level, functional specificity, and employment status?

○ How do the above demographic align or depart from the formal strategic workforce plan? How significant are variances, if any?

○ What is the embedded workforce flexibility? (Capacity to pivot at reasonable cost and or time to a materially different composition in response to changing institutional demands or business environment.)

○ The above can be measured in core-contingent workforce terms though this is often a rogue HC metric – contingent, for example, being more about administrative freedom to turnover staff “at will” as opposed to a business-driven need for workforce continuity or lack thereof.
Management of Staffing Flows

- Effectiveness of the recruitment functions; Percentage of offers accepted; Time span of hiring process; Competitiveness in difficult, but strategically important, external labor markets.

- Level of strategically important voluntary turnover hemorrhaging and reason why.

- Efficiency of the internal labor market. To what extent can staff be redeployed in response to changing institutional priorities? How well does the internal market balance institutional priorities and individual staff-inspired career interests? What does average time-in-assignment look like and does it comport with strategic workforce objectives?

- Is involuntary turnover as issue and, if so, what underlying workforce dysfunctions are at play?

Building Staff Capacity

- Performance Management
- Training and Development
- Management and Leadership
- Sabbaticals and extended development opportunities
- Injecting short-run external talent into the mix

Engagement

- Employee engagement survey
- Staff loyalty
- Team effectiveness assessments (where appropriate)

Compensation and Rewards

- Strength of market reference point
- Appropriateness of reward and recognition schemes
- Grade structure
- Benefits program (including expatriate benefits)

Working Environment

- Employee relations
- Absence/Attendance patterns
- Health and Safety
- Mission travel policies and practices

HR Service Delivery

- Internal client survey on HR effectiveness
- Capacity to deliver analytical support to top management
Extent to which HR services benchmark against best practice – self-service portals, automated information and transaction services. Veracity of HR policies.

Per capita HR costs against best practice.

**Organization Effectiveness**

- A critical examination of organizational structure set against mission and strategic goals.
- Staff productivity and commitment.
- Quality of management.
- Clarity and concreteness of strategic plan.

**The Limitations of Hard Power**

The argument coursing through this brief outline of the use of HR Hard Power, is that the function can be more substantial and respected, if it uses instruments which are concrete and generally perceived as legitimate (HR policies and rules) and evidence-based (HR analytics and metrics). But, while necessary, this is not sufficient. The late Senator Daniel Patrick Moynihan famously observed that: “everyone is entitled to his own opinions but not to his own facts”. True, but if that were so, facts would resolve every dispute and preempt fruitless debate. The reality of course is that we view facts through the prism of our own pre-determined opinions: the positive is captive to the normative. To illustrate with a mundane HR example: suppose turnover in an institution increases from 2% to 10% per annum. Is that a good or a bad thing? The truth is that it all depends: the data may point to different causality.

- If, for example, the cause of the attrition is traceable to workforce demographics – a large cohort of staff reaching mandatory retirement age at once, say, it represents both an opportunity and a threat: releasing space to replenish talent and bring on board new skills sets, while it also holds the challenge of staunching a rapid hemorrhaging of senior experience and institutional memory.

- If the turnover is voluntary in nature it could signal eroding competitiveness in the labor market and presage future recruitment and retention difficulties.

- And if it is involuntary in nature it could reflect deliberate public policy, structural shifts in the public service (or, heaven forbid, a new searing round of imposed conditionality by the World Bank or IMF).

But the data is also likely to be interpreted subjectively and stir value systems. To some, persistently low turnover, for example, is positive proof of a sclerotic underperforming workforce; to others, the same data is reassuring testimony to a career-based public sector,
without which commitment to public service and delivery of services will be compromised and eventually atrophy.

**Soft Power**

The exercise of HR Hard Power is thus necessary but not sufficient for HR to be consistently influential. Granted, policies and rules, if enforced with sufficient vim, can ensure conformity but at significant transactional costs and at the likely gain of mere compliance which tends to evaporate when policy surveillance becomes lax. It takes soft power to convince, persuade and establish commitment. Regarding, why, for example, central recruitment policies must trump local expedient staffing needs, or why attention to diversity matters. This can entail skill, professional confident and sometimes back bone.

How best to exercise Soft Power in the HR context? A number of thoughts and suggestions:

- Firstly, the use of soft power benefits when the right skills are available and in play. Arming HR professionals with a range of behavioral skills clustered under the broader panoply of consulting skills is recommended. Behavioral skills not linked to appropriate values, however, result in slickness and give off a whiff of deception, so;

- The HR function must live up to the standards of professionalism enunciated in the UNDESA 2000 paper. It needs to promote probity, neutrality, fairness and a striving for meritocracy in the institution as a whole but, just as importantly, in its own conduct and application of rules and policies as they affect its own staff; influence through exemplary behavior and action in other words. Turning a blind eye to soft cronyism or extracurricular meddling in personnel matters by senior management has (positive) repercussions for the favored individual(s) in question but is also an indirect assault on the rights of staff at large who are obliged to play by the espoused rules on pay, promotions, merit-based access to career opportunities and so on. When HR is found wanting in this regard, its institutional stature is sullied and diminished even when the infraction stems from a sense of impotence to halt the policy infractions rather than some more sinister set of collusive motives. The squalid circumstances surrounding the departure of Paul Wolfowitz from the Presidency of the World Bank in 2007 illustrate the points above and were telling in many respects: they underscored the poor judgment exercised in his original selection; and shone the spotlight on his woeful inadequacy to fill the role, not to mention his flimsy code of personal ethics. Wolfowitz’s violations of the Bank’s staff rules and policies were flagrant and transparently so. But just as his reputation was sorely damaged so too were the internal reputations of the Bank’s HR and Legal Vice-Presidencies the leadership teams of which stood on the side lines until a whistle blowing campaign doomed his tenure. Staff noticed.
HR Soft Power hinges on the function being seen as an honest institutional broker by both management and staff. In a fundamental sense, the primary role of HR can be conceptualized as striving to bring the needs and goals of institutions and their respective workforces into more perfect alignment. It could be argued that this equates with two of the four roles in the familiar Ulrich HR model: Business Partner and Employee Champion. But the author disagrees. The Ulrich roles imply adversarial relationships between the parties and a sense of zero-sum being played out: what is best for the institution is ipso facto detrimental to its staff and vice versa. In reality the two Ulrich roles are aspects of a larger more encompassing role and should be worked in tandem and in an iterative fashion by HR. The 2010 industrial relations crisis in the South African public sector offered a bleak illustration of what can happen when the mandate of “employee champion” transfers completely to powerful trade unions.

Summary and Conclusion

The chapter has explored the notion of professionalism in the public service and the African public service in particular. In doing so, it has focused exclusively on the HR function in the Public Service, both because it is a microcosm of the public service as a whole and thus suitable case study and because HR has a special – unique even – role to play in fostering public service professionalism, more broadly.

We have tried to answer the difficult question: how professional is HR and how does the function measure up as a bona fide profession? The answers are somewhat inconclusive, yet give some cause for concern. HR is not a protected domain: its core body of knowledge suffers from some inherent shortcomings and overlaps with other disciples; and its boundaries are porous. But there are grounds for optimism.

Borrowing the concept of Hard and Soft Power, coined by Professor Joseph S. Nye, of the Kennedy School of Government at Harvard, the paper has outlined how HR can increase its influence and impact within institutions by employing a judicious mix of Hard Power (promulgation and enforcement of sensible policies and rules, deepening analytical capacity and strengthening the use of metrics to gauge performance) and Soft Power (influencing the attitudes and actions of institutional actors by modeling standards of behavior and adhering to espoused values while also endeavoring to speak to the better angels of its clients, both management and staff).

References


Chapter 9

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Professionalizing Human Resource Management and Implementing the Public Service Charter in the Public Service in Africa: Lessons from Tanzania

Issa Faisal

The Public Service Charter is a welcome development; it buttresses and gives new impetus to the importance attached to quality and effective service delivery achieved through requisite best practices in organizational management and human resource management.

Introduction and an overview of human resource management

African countries operate in a dynamic global environment and often as changes happen elsewhere, developing countries move in stride to adopt, adapt to and accommodate the new developments. The 1990s was when the new concept of Human Resource Management (HRM) came into use in Africa. Personnel management departments and units were changed into human resource functionary units but mostly without any significant changes in people management practices. The mainstream literature propound that human resources management is a result of the evolution of Personnel Management in response to the changes in the management and business environment where human resources management had to take on a strategic role rather than administrative or operational role associated with traditional approach(Beaumont,1992; Schuler and Huber, 1993).

The literature on Human Resource Management identifies four characteristics which distinguish Human Resource Management from traditional personnel management, giving it the ‘architect’ role: integration of human resource policies and practices with organizational strategies, a holistic coordinated approach to policies and practices for managing people at work; a primary focus on the individual employee as opposed to the collective relations within the organizations; strong organizational value and culture emphasizing on a sustainable match between employees’ and organizational values whereby key elements of HR add value to the organization and returns on investment is achieved (Storey, J. 1992).

Other important features of Human Resource Management designed to increase employee commitment and motivation towards organizational goals while meeting his/her personal needs include the following: greater employee participation and involvement in work organization and management and the strengthening of the role of line managers through approaches such as quality circles; increased internal public relations through corporate videos; joint consultation committees, with membership open to all employees regardless of union membership; employee share ownership schemes; performance appraisal to determine training and development needs, and performance feedback. Other HRM features include individualized pay: determined by
performance, competencies and market factors, rather than cost of living or collectively negotiated increases; and single status employment conditions and benefits removing the distinction between ‘manual’ and ‘staff’ employees (Anthony, et al., 1996).

**What is the Role of Human Resource Managers?**

Previously, complexity was associated with business organizations operating in competitive environments. Nevertheless, the emergence of the New Public Management (NPM) model has changed the landscape and public sector organizations face comparable levels of complexity. With this change, there is more demand for quality and reliable services from the public as well as more competition for financial and human resources. Public institutions have to therefore legitimize their existence hence necessitating the adoption of complex outcome focused systems and procedures. NPM model is a result of the quest for minimal government, it is about reinventing government by the emphasis on steering, as opposed to rowing; empowering communities rather than only delivery of services; encouraging competition rather than monopolies, public services driven by their missions rather than rules; concentrating on earning, not just spending; decentralizing authority, and solving problems by leveraging the market-place, rather than simply creating public programs (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992).

When human resource management takes a strategic approach to organizational issues, Human Resource Management views all managers as human resource managers. HRM issues are not simply the province of the human resource unit. Rather, all managers must take responsibility for efficient and effective utilization of their employees. By the same token, human resource managers view their role as essentially supportive of the operating line managers. That is, they should see their role as advising, helping, and providing expert guidance to line managers on human resources issues (Anthony, et al 1996).

HRM is seen to support organizational business strategies through internally consistent practices and policies and expected to contribute to the following goals: productivity or service quality improvement through improvement in the contributions of individuals and teams; statutory compliance; gaining competitive advantage through employee participation; workforce flexibility and empowerment; and developing a supportive organizational culture through organizational development (Schuler and MacMillan, 1984; Schuler, 1992).

In human resource management, HRM strategies - human resource planning, recruitment and selection, performance management, reward management, human resource development, labour relations– are translated into policies and actions which are to be implemented by HR specialist and generalist supporting the line managers, who now have HR responsibilities in addition to their functional work of finance, engineering, etc.
What is Professionalism in Human Resources Management?

Professionalism can be looked at as a multidimensional concept whereby the manner in which a discipline has evolved, how it is organized, managed, implemented and the parameters set, etc., make it a distinct clearly identifiable approach to societal or material problem. The Oxford Dictionary of English (2003) describes professionalism as both the competence and skills expected of a professional and the practice of an activity, by professionals rather than amateur players. There are debates as to whether Human Resource Management deserves to be considered a profession. This is because either people with little training on the discipline are given responsibility for the function in our organizations or the absence of accreditation bodies for human resource management professionals such as the engineers’ registration board in many countries. Nonetheless, it is argued that HRM is increasingly becoming a profession as it has evolved from traditional personnel management where senior HR people are often expected to be functional experts, capable administrators and business oriented internal consultants with global awareness (Schuler and Huber, 1993).

The African Public Sector Human Resource Managers Network has been created recognizing the need to create professionalism in how we manage human resources in the public sector. The network provides a forum in which countries can share experiences and best practices whilst reminding each other that public sector’s efficiency and its effectiveness in achieving desirable outcomes can only be realized if we have a motivated and satisfied public sector employees. This Network is thus a pivotal milestone to professionalism in Human Resources Management in Africa.

Heskett et al (1997) in their book the “Service Profit Chain – How Leading Companies Link Profit and Growth to Loyalty, Satisfaction and value,” associate internal service quality to a desired level of staff satisfaction that induces both employee loyalty, retention and employee productivity, leading to increased creativity and innovativeness in improving service quality, quantity and types. The final outcome is profit and increased market share in an increasingly competitive environment.

This Service Profit Chain model is relevant to public sector organizations as the emergence of the New Public Management Model has changed the landscape which has resulted into public sector organizations facing comparable levels of complexity as the private sector. There is more demand for quality and reliable services from the public; there is more competition for financial and human resources and public institutions have to legitimize their existence necessitating the adoption of complex outcome focused systems and procedures.

Public sector organizations have to seek to achieve internal service quality, desired level of staff satisfaction, loyalty, retention, productivity, increased creativity and innovativeness in service
delivery to achieve the outcome of satisfied and loyal citizenry positively contributing to national growth and development. This is because when public service organizations work effectively in a country, then the country is better placed to be a competitive global player and can attract more investment and trade opportunities. This means more income-generating activities, employment and revenue. The increased interactions and cross-fertilization of ideas between a robust private sector and the public sector may also lead to better systems of governance, reduced corruption, increased transparency, and countries becoming attractive for industry and international capital.

It is this close linkage between systems of governance and national wealth and wellbeing, that the African Public Service Charter was created and adopted. The Charter recognizes that Africa has to make headways in how the public sector is managed so that we achieve well-functioning state institutions which enables national and international efforts productively contribute to improving the wellbeing of Africans.


The public service charter categorically stipulates that quality, effectiveness and efficiency are key to what the public service is about. The emphasis is on highest quality, most efficient and effective services provided through optimal use of available resources. It is succinctly stated that the objective, among others, is to “Ensure quality and innovative service delivery that meets the requirements of all.” Recognizing that there are pre-conditions for achieving that noble objective such as the adoption of systems, processes and procedures, the Charter seeks to “Encourage the efforts of Member States in modernising administration and strengthening capacity for the improvement of public service.” This objective obliges public services to make adjustments on the existing systems, processes and procedures in response to changing circumstances so as to be informed by best practices. In addition to the above objectives, the Charter also aspires to “Promote the moral values inherent in the activities of Public Service Agents with a view to ensuring transparent service delivery.” Stating a pivotal precondition for effective service delivery; and ensuring that the principle of rights and duty are observed, the other objective of the charter is to “Improve the working conditions of Public Service Agents and ensure the protection of their rights.” The Charter stipulates also the following objectives of direct relevance to human resources management

Encourage citizens and users of Public services to actively and effectively participate in public administration processes” and “Promote equality between men and women as well as equality within Public Service and Administration structures.

Giving the level of acceptable prominence to Human Resource Management, the Charter provides guidelines in its different Articles on human resources management strategies. It
specifically dwells on the relations between the public service and public service employees. Professionalism on the part of the public service employees is underscored and is linked to capacity to deliver and creation of that capacity in terms of skills and abilities and availability of tools and equipment. Other important considerations by the Charter include:

- Ethical conduct
- Non-discrimination of public service employees according to differences in gender, race, etc.
- Creating working environment that guarantees safety
- The rights to leave, social security and retirement benefits;
- Recruitment based on the principle of merit, equality and non-discrimination.
- Right, within a coherent and harmonized pay system, to a just and equitable remuneration corresponding also to performance.
- Presence of performance culture.
- Conducive working environment for the application of new knowledge within the limits of available resources
- Mobility in the public service
- Public service continuity

The fundamental difference between a business model like the Service-Profit Chain and a public service framework, as the African Charter of the Public Service, is manifested on the importance attached to ethical behavior and conduct in the public service. This dimension of the public service is accorded the same level of importance as other service delivery objectives of effectiveness and efficiency.

Accepted and tried logic and our own guiding frameworks as the Charter for the Public Service in Africa, as we have seen, encourage professionalism in the public service and in managing the human resource of the public service. Since independence, there have been sustained efforts in our countries to improve public service delivery standards and increase reach and accessibility of public services. In Tanzania, the efforts have been largely in terms of incremental changes, though in the early years there were radical and revolutionary responses to the challenges of the day and in answering to the demands of the social political directions chosen.

**Professionalism in Human Resource Management in the Tanzania Public Service**

At independence in 1961, Tanzania inherited a devolved local government administration system with representation of directly elected members at all levels. The devolved system was in 1972 abolished and replaced by a decentralized system of administration in the form of
deconcentration. Elected representatives at lower levels of government were replaced by bureaucrats and ruling party officials. At regional administration level, a strong regional level bureaucracy was formed to implement centralized planning and resource control. In 1984 the local government authorities were re-established and classical principles of local government were re-introduced. From the mid-1980s, the country underwent the structural adjustment measures and there was also a change in political orientation towards political pluralism. Other changes in policies followed including liberalization of the economy and present day public sector reforms. The Public Sector reforms are the incremental reforms focusing more on effectiveness whilst upholding the efficiency objectives. The Civil Service Reform Program (CSRP, 1991-1999) was a transition or the stage setting reform providing the framework for change to align the administrative systems of government to the new and emerging political and economic realities\textsuperscript{30}. The CSRP was succeeded by Public Service Reform Program\textsuperscript{31}. The goal of PSRP II is to assist MDAs deliver improved services (in terms of quality, timeliness and efficiency), implement relevant, priority policies, and establish a predictable and well regulated environment for private sector growth and social development, with an overriding theme of “Enhancing Performance Results and Accountability”.

The PSRP is a practical instrument for implementing the Public Service Charter. The following expected outcomes of the PSRP, evidences the relevance of the PSRP, not only to the Public Service Charter, but also to the Service - Profit chain model, albeit with changes in the profit end objectives to citizens’ satisfaction and government’s legitimacy (see Figure 11.1).

\textsuperscript{30} The first phase of Civil Service Reform Programme, involving downsizing of the civil service and bringing the wage bill under control, began in 1993 and ended in 1999. This resulted in contracted and streamlined Government structures. This process involved a re-definition of Government roles and functions by identifying non-core functions for hive-off, divesture or decentralization to local government or executive agencies. It also entailed streamlining structures resulting in reduction of ministries,

\textsuperscript{31} PSRP I was implemented from 2000 to 2007; PSRP II is being implemented from 2008 to 2012.
- Systems and structures are in place to enhance access and the efficiency of service delivery
- Ability of Government to recruit and retain a high level of competence and talent
- Optimal and adequate staffing levels to effectively support service delivery
- Recruitment processes result in the selection of the best available candidates
- Internal service quality
- Recruitment, appointment, appraisals, and promotions based on merit
- Public servants have a smooth transition to retirement
- MDAs better motivate their staff
- Training interventions result in improved knowledge, skills, and job performance
- Effective and efficient use of wage bill resources
- HIV-AIDS Infection rates reduced in the public service
- Welfare of Public Servants with HIV improved and treated with dignity and fairness
- Training interventions result in improved knowledge, skills, and job performance
- Public Service composition reflects the diverse character of the nation
- Employee satisfaction – productivity and retention
- Efficient and effective use of Human Resources
- Reduced bureaucracy and red tape in the delivery of services
- A motivated, disciplined and ethical public service
- More efficient delivery of internal administrative and operational services
- Improved management of information that supports service delivery
- Service value - innovation, creativity

CITIZENS' SATISFACTION AND LOYALTY, GOVERNMENT LEGITIMACY AND ECONOMIC GROWTH
As can be observed from figure 11.1, the efforts to professionalize Human Resource Management in the public service are linked to service delivery goals of the public service. It is appropriately encompassing, as systems and processes are integral to the modernization initiatives. To achieve the desired outcomes, different tools processes, systems and policies have been developed and are used in the public service, but at different levels of success. The HR management support systems, tools and instruments are summarized in the annex to this chapter\textsuperscript{32}:

The overarching guiding frameworks giving legitimacy to the different HR initiatives are the following: Public Service Management and Employment Policy (2008), Public Service Act No 8 of 2002 and the Public Service Regulations of (2003). In 2008, there were amendments to the Public Service Act to create new bodies and to redefine roles of existing bodies and as a result a recruitment secretariat was created; and Public Service Commission Role was redefined as an oversight body. The Open Performance Appraisal System (OPRAS) received legal backing and became a legal obligation.

These amendments were prompted by the desire to overcome present challenges. These included (i) the decentralization of recruitment leading to unwarranted outcomes of increased recruitment costs, inability to control happenings of nepotism and favoritism, and poor information keeping on needs, availability of skills, challenges and opportunities; (ii) the conflicting role of the Public Service Commission as both an oversight institution and involvement in recruitment; and (iii) Less than desired performance in respect to the Open Performance Review and Appraisal process (about 50\% of public organizations are implementing OPRAS in some manner). In Table 11.1 is a brief description of the role and responsibilities of the different important actors in the public service.

\textsuperscript{32} Sources include the Management Standard Checklist and relevant policies, regulations, circulars and guidelines. These have been referenced in bibliography
Table 11.1 Key actors’ performance management roles and responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTOR</th>
<th>ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>President’s Office, Public Service Management:</td>
<td>Developing and reviewing policies, management systems, tools and standards; building capacity to understand, use and comply; regular assessment to monitor compliance and use; providing incentives for adoption and use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of Public Service organizations</td>
<td>Creating internal capacity to understand, use and comply to the policies, systems, tools and standards; Customize some of the tools to fit specific organizational needs and environment; Commit resources, both Human and Financial for effective use and monitoring of implementation; monitor and report on use and compliance; implement internal rewarding and sanctioning based on use and compliance and results thereof.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role of Public Service Commission (PSC)</td>
<td>Conduct regular assessment to monitor compliance to policies, legislations and use of tools and guidelines; monitor and evaluate performance and implementation; take appropriate measures on cases of non-compliance in the performance and implementation of the management standards; receive appeals from public servants on matters of discipline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Service Training Institutions</td>
<td>These are the public service college, Local Government Training Institute, Tanzania Global Development Learning Centre and the Leadership Institute, whose roles include training and capacity building through: induction training, public service examinations, leadership development programs and providing support in the development, adaptation and implementation of systems and procedures. Public service college is responsible for induction training and public service examinations (this includes Human Resource Management proficiency examination - a precondition for HR officers promotion after first appointment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recruitment Secretariat</td>
<td>Provides centralized expert recruitment services to public service organizations for new entrants and chief executives of Executive Agencies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is obvious from the foregoing that the Public Service of Tanzania has developed a very elaborate framework for effective human resources management. These are a result of a well formulated and implemented Public Service Reform Program, irrespective of some challenges still affecting more effective implementation and expected outcomes. Having, the HR management framework created and continuously improved supports the realization of the goals of efficient delivery of effective public services which is an overriding objective of the African Charter of Public Services. It is also a necessary condition to achieving the national socio-economic goals and the National Development Vision 2025 which targets to make Tanzania a middle income country.
Challenges Facing Human Resource Managers in Promoting Professionalism and Implementing the Public Service Charter

Implementing the Public Service charter is not a smooth process as it is surrounded by a myriad of challenges. The major challenges that Human Resource Managers face during the implementation are as highlighted hereunder.

Rapid expansion of services and employment

Recently there has been a concerted effort to increase public access to health and education facilities. The quest to achieve the Millennium Development Goals is possibly a contributor to the expansion as there is a determination to ensure that in every ward there is a secondary school. Similarly, there are efforts to achieve universal primary education and the current primary school enrolment rate is 97%. Such determination is also directed to the health sector where the vision of the government is to have at least a dispensary in every village. Between 2005 and 2010, permission for recruitment was given to 146,000 positions and in 2010/11, 49,593 recruitments are to be made mostly to serve the health and teaching services. This, coupled with limited and decreasing financial resources, seems to start affecting recruitment of new staff of other cadres and at the same time limiting resources to improve remuneration for public service staff. The remedy in this case, other than controlled expansion of services, is increasing revenue so that capacity is there to meet the increasing wage bill.

Egalitarian perspective on pay

Given the historical background of socialist orientation, huge disparities in pay in the public service tend to be not acceptable or politically unpalatable. It is not surprising then that although there are deliberate intentions in terms of policies to increase pay and to achieve pay levels comparable to the private sector, egalitarian pay is most unlikely. This noble intention will take long to be realized as any increases at both higher and lower pay levels are often small though differences in absolute amounts between higher and lower pay levels are relatively big. The public service generally pays better than the private sector at the minimum wage level but comparably less for senior positions. There are plans to introduce a senior service scheme (SES) to allow linkage between senior staff performance and pay where the objectives to be pursued are measurable and, in addition to other incentives, increased financial rewards may be provided.

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33 Minimum wage was increased by 107.7% from 2005/06 and 2010/11. Salary increased on average during the period by 113%
Linking pay to performance

The goal of linking pay to performance is not easily attainable, especially where the amounts available for remuneration is affected by resource constraints and or the presence of socio-political caps on what can be offered. The OPRAS system can work well and be catalyst for attitudinal and cultural change when there are right incentives. Linking pay to performance may be the incentive needed. Measurable objectives, prioritization, the 20% of efforts resulting to 80% results rule and review of goals can mitigate budgetary constraints on performance which is often cited as limiting OPRAS. It is the opinion of the author that particularly determined efforts to make the OPRAS system work more effectively is likely to lead to the most positive results to the Public Sector Reform Program and public service delivery in general.

Leadership capacity

In a recent study on leadership competency and quality in the public service linked to leadership competency framework and the development of leadership programs, it was observed that an acceptable level of competency is present within the public service. However, the level of leadership quality desired is not achieved as a result of some debilitating weaknesses affecting leadership effectiveness. These, if worked upon, can greatly enhance leadership capacity in the public service. They include the following: inability to hold subordinates accountable for meeting targets; failure to create a shared vision; insufficient attention to client needs and customer care; tendency to micro manage, inadequate delegation and encouragement of subordinates, inadequate collaborative skills. It is apparent that with a system in place, effectively functioning, to hold the superiors accountable for the results of their actions, superiors may equally demand result from subordinates. As a result, there are three linked developments taking place: (i) creation of a Senior Executive Service, (ii) management accountability framework which will support the SES system, and (iii) leadership development programs which are now being developed so that in a more systematic manner leadership capacity is continuously built. A new leadership institute was created in late 2010 for this purpose.

Dependence on external finances for the reform program

The public service reform program is dependent on external resources. This dependence has been affecting the reform agenda in numerous ways. In the first instance, it has led to one conduit for the reform resources. The conduit setting the agenda and dishing out resources albeit somewhat involving the other party in agenda decisions. For this reason, ownership of the reform agenda by the resource recipient party has been cited as a problem affecting reform performance. To
counteract the problem, the recipient parties were later made to decide on which of the agendas they wish to implement and for what amount of resources, given a ceiling. We now have to be patiently waiting to achieve a change of attitude to the reform after this new approach was launched. Secondly, the reform program is being implemented in phases and within a phase of four years numerous interventions were to be introduced. Very new ideas like the OPRAS system was to be introduced almost simultaneously with strategic plans, clients service charters, medium term expenditure frameworks etc. The achievements of the reform program, which are quite huge, under the circumstances must be considered remarkable. Thirdly, as the saying goes ‘the one who pays the piper decides on the tune’, there have been instances where calls for change in direction have been a result of the influence of those who provide resources affecting reform momentum. It is important to depend more on own resources than is the case now so as to end the doubt whether one can effectively reform basing on borrowed funds.

**Human Resources Management not yet a strategic function**

It obvious that the President’s Office, Public Service Management having the mandate on human resources management policies, will be mostly engaging itself on HR matters. A lower level of attention is expected in other public institutions to HR issues, especially when a robust framework is absent to ensure desired involvement of senior organizational leaders in HR. There are positive efforts already in place and include the restructuring of the offices of the directorate responsible for administration and human resources by creating a superlative position responsible for human resources management to be supported by HR specialists. It might be appropriate to also provide on permanent basis a management level committee which can meet regularly on quarterly basis to deliberate on HR issues. In this manner, the chief executives will have to dwell and lead on HR as they do on the sectoral issues they are responsible for. This arrangement is present in some public service organizations and may need to be made uniformly present in the public service.

**Cultural dimension**

There is challenge that we continue to propagate African values and uphold them when they contribute to contemporary institutional and national priorities, but at the same time reducing the strength of the values which affect the intention to modernize and be more effective and efficient. In the recent Africa Capacity Building Foundation Summit in Kigali Rwanda (February 8 – 9,2011), it was reiterated by the present African leaders that Africa has to use its capacity in our heads more than the capacity in our hearts and increase the level of passion and commitment to performance. For the very robust frameworks adopted for professionalizing HR and implementing public service Charter to work effectively, the cultural dimension has to be
addressed so that our values contribute to better public service delivery and national
development. Kavura (2006) assessed the OPRAS system and concluded that significantly the
cultural dimension has to be given more attention for the approach to succeed. It was suggested
that the African Cultural values of ‘familism’, ‘collectivism,’ ‘god fatherism’ and ‘respect for
age’ contradict the principles enshrined in OPRAS related to openness, low power distance, and
participatory evaluation, etc. Some East Asian countries, not ascribing to the western cultural
values of individualism, ascribe to collectivism and show to adopt New Public Management
Practices and are keen to making them successful. We have to learn from them and directly deal
with cultural impediments to modernization – it is necessary to find the magic wand.

Conclusions

The public service of Tanzania has a relatively robust HR framework. The different elements of
HRM and the supporting architecture have been well developed. The public service reform
programs are the incubators and vehicles through which HRM best practices can be enshrined in
the country’s Public Service for improved public service delivery.. Different systems, tools and
process have so far been developed and are implemented, but at varying degrees of reach and
success.

The Public Service Charter is a welcome development; it buttresses and gives new impetus to the
importance attached to quality and effective service delivery achieved through requisite best
practices in organizational management and human resource management. It is much clearer
now that headways to professionalize HRM will be made by adopting best practices in people
management whilst emphasizing on integrity and ethical conduct to achieve desired goals.

The Africa Public Sector Human Resource Managers Network (APS-HRMNet) provides a new
supportive structure and forum for sharing of best practices. The idea to create a discourse on the
African Charter of Public Services seems to achieve two pronged objectives: to disseminate the
Charter and provide room for internalization of the different elements emphasized in it and at the
same time to gauge our experiences against the best HRM practices highlighted in the Charter in
order to make the necessary efforts and adjustments.

Despite the creation of robust HRM frameworks, the Tanzania Public Service still faces some
challenges in its quest to effectively implement best HRM practices in a more coherent
approach. In the course of addressing these challenges, two significant issues namely the
performance evaluation both at individual and organizational level and the pay dimension need
more in-depth attention.
References
### Annex 11.1. Systems, Tools and Instruments for Performance management in Tanzania public service

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<tr>
<th>SYSTEM, TOOL, INSTRUMENT:</th>
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| **The Performance Management Model** | - Undertake Service Delivery Surveys (SDSs), and Self-Assessment (SAs)  
- Prepare three year Strategic Plans (SPs),  
- 3 year- Operational plans (OPs) and Annual plans (APs).  
- Transform OPs into a Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF)  
- Develop Client Service Charters (CSCs)  
- Open Performance Review and Appraisal System (OPRAS) |
| - Medium Term Strategic Planning and Budgeting (MTSPB) Manual  
- Service Delivery Survey Guide | |
| **Complaints and Grievance Handling Systems** | - One staff member responsible for complaints handling  
- Creating Customer Care Teams  
- Customer care training  
- Improved business processes |
| - Guideline for Complaints and Grievance Handling Systems  
- Guidelines for Developing and Implementing Client Service Charter;  
- Client Service Charter of an MDA | |
| **Integrity/Ethics Committee** | - Regular meetings of Ethics Committees  
- Awareness raising on ethical conduct  
- Ethics investigation  
- Evidences of disciplinary action |
| - Ethics Compliance Framework;  
- Code of Ethics for the Public service;  
| **Human Resource Plans** | - Three year HR plans reviewed every year  
- HR plans to forecast on quantity and quality of staff requirements  
- HR plan linkage to the Strategic Planning process  
- Job lists prepared and revised to inform on HR needs  
- Build staff capacities to develop and implement HR plans  
- Show evidence for decisions made on HR plans  
- Undertake personnel emolument budgeting |
| - HR Planning Manual  
- Relevant Schemes of Service  
- Job lists  
- Strategic Plans  
- Training Plans  
- Guideline for Restructuring of Ministries, Independent Departments and Executive Agencies | |
| **Succession Plans** | - Succession Plans in place  
- Regularly update seniority list  
- Succession plan must guide decisions on HR such as promotion, capacity building, etc  
- Build staff capacities to develop and implement succession plans  
- Monitoring implementation of the plans and reporting |
| - Succession planning guide  
- Relevant Schemes of Service  
- Organizational structure | |
| **Medium Term Training and Development Plans** | - Conduct organization wide TNA every three years  
- Undertake TNA whenever there is change of structure, organizational focus, perceived need to solve problems through training |
| - Training Needs Assessment (TNA) Tools  
- Training Needs Assessment report  
- Human Resources Development/Training | |
| Plans | Use TNA results to develop and review three years annual training plan  
|       | Have a three year Medium Term Training and Development plan in place  
|       | Annual plans extracted for implementation  
|       | Training plans must be linked to employee performance appraisal results, Plans must be linked to the Medium Term Strategic Plans (MTSP)  
|       | Capacity building for developing and implementing training plans  
|       | Monitor implementation of the training plans and reporting  |
| Open Performance Review and Appraisal (OPRAS) | Conduct annual assessment of all employees’ performance using OPRAS  
| - OPRAS guidelines | Link Individual Performance Agreements linked to Strategic, Action/Business plans and MTEF  
| | Conduct midyear and annual appraisal meetings timely  
| | Keep record of all dully completed OPRAS forms  
| | Produce annual OPRAS report showing summary of assessment rates and performance trends  
| | Have Training linked to performance assessment  |
| Personnel Records Management | Adequate personnel: Records Management Assistants, Officers, Coordinators and Managers are in place and capable of managing Personnel Records  
| - Human Capital Management System | Adequate space and facilities available for storing paper and electronic records  
| - Record and Archives Management Policy | Show evidence of complete personnel records being retrieved timely and accurately  
| - Records and Archives Management Act. No. 3 of 2002 | Show evidence that Personnel records are transferred with an employee  
| - Records and Archives Management Regulations | Show evidence of timely disposal of Personnel records  
| - Registry Procedures Manual | Monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the system and reporting  
| - Desk Instruction for Registry Staff and Records Users |  
| - Records Retention/Disposal Schedules |  |
| Good practice in recruitment and staff selection | Adhering to recruitment principles geared to maintaining a public service which is competent, ethical, motivated, a political, of high standard of integrity by:  
| - Public Service Recruitment Code of Good Practice (one of the instruments guiding management of human resources). It outlines what is required by the public service Act) | Finding the best available person for the job through selection on merit,  
| | Putting all appointments above suspicion of patronage  
| | Considering women with relevant qualifications and appoint in strategic positions (women in decision making position now make about 30.2% of total positions)  
| | Ensuring recruitment and appointment procedures reinforce the political impartiality of the public service  |
| HIV/AIDS Workplace Interventions | Workplace interventions must be present  
- Create work place Technical Aids Committee  
- Have knowledgeable staff capable of designing and implementing HIV/AIDS interventions  
- Conduct situation analysis after every three years  
- Develop a three year HIV/AIDS plan and strategy  
- Annually budget for HIV/AIDS workplace interventions  
- Treatment arranged for staff living with HIV/AIDS  
- Provide evidence for reduction of attrition and infection rate  
- Provide evidence for reduction of time absent from work as a result of treatment for diseases caused by HIV/AIDS.  
- Monitor implementation of the system and reporting |
|---|---|
| Restructuring for Human Resource Management (HRM) issues | Skilled and knowledgeable staff to manage HRM issues in DAHRMs’ offices  
Strengthen DAHRM offices: create superlative post responsible for HR  
Retool DAHRM’s offices to facilitate HR management issues  
Appoint and operate required Ad-hoc Committees to manage HR issues (for promotion, confirmation, etc).  
Monitoring implementation of the system and reporting |
| Labor relation structures and guides | Mechanism for the participation of public servants in negotiating and rendering advice to the government and settling disputes:  
**Service Joint Council** for the Civil service, Teachers, Local Government, health, Fire and Rescue Services and immigration service  
Purpose: To advise on welfare, to discuss and make recommendation on interest, wellbeing and efficiency, to negotiate on matters of terms and conditions, to discuss matters referred to it by the Public Service Joint Council  
**Public Service Joint Staff Council** – is the highest participatory negotiating and consultative body in the public service  
**Master Workers Council**: to advice government on procedures in respect of promotion and disciplinary measures, advice to measures for effective delivery of services, advice on changes to existing regulations and conditions of work  
Each institution is required to establish a **Workers Council.**  
Rights and conditions to strike and lock outs |

| HIV/AIDS Policy  
- Guidelines for Managing Diversity in the Public Service  
- Guidelines for Managing People With Disabilities in the Public service  
- National HIV/AIDS Policy  
- Guideline for Management of HIV/AIDS in the Public service  
- Circular No. 2 of 2006 on Support, Caring and Treatment of HIV/AIDS Infected Public Servants. |  |
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Chapter 10
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Promoting and Strengthening Professionalism in the Civil Service: The Ethiopian case

Adebabay A. Gebrekidan

Despite the fact that little has been done in preparing leaders for the new roles, the change direction gives an opportunity to create an environment of organizational learning which is important to enhance professionalism in the civil service.

Introduction

During the last two decades, countries have been trying to replace the traditional rule-driven and highly bureaucratic public administration model by result-oriented and responsive model of new public management. Here, the main drivers of reforming the civil service are: escalating citizens’ demand, global competition and environmental changes in aspects such as technology and market.

Reforming the civil service in developing countries arises from the need to realize effective and responsive civil service that is capable of facilitating the implementation of developmental programs in an environment which is constantly changing and demanding. In this endeavor, professionalizing the civil service stands as a central agenda of any government seeking fast moving economic development with effective public engagements. Therefore, this chapter tries to explore efforts made to promote and strengthen professionalism in Ethiopian civil service. It begins by exploring conceptual and some practical experiences in professionalizing the civil service. Then it focuses on examining efforts of building professionalism through civil service reform in Ethiopia and the opportunities and challenges faced ending up by drawing a number of practical recommendations. The chapter uses only secondary sources and the researcher’s personal observation and experience as a change agent in the process of the Ethiopian Civil Service Reform. Secondary data are reflecting mainly on the Ethiopian experience which is almost similar to the continent’s experience in terms of reform and civil service professionalism.

Professionalizing the civil service: The concept and practical considerations

The concept of profession traces back to ancient disciplines such as theology, law and medicine. Though the depth and width of the concept of the term varies through time, it still focuses on a certain occupation that required a special training in the liberal arts or science (Sinclair, 2001). And consequently, a professional means a person who is extremely competent in his/her job. To be professional, a person needs proper education as well as training.

According to Hammer (1996), a professional must be a problem solver. He or she must not be the one who is interested to serve in a readymade situation alone. As professionals are visionary,
they are directed towards stretched goals. They must use their profession for long-term benefit too. Generally, Hammer (1996: 32 – 52) identifies the following features of professionals of the 21st century knowledge age society:

- A true professional is engaged in an ongoing inquiry, an endless quest for insight into and understanding of his or her practice;

- The professional examines what is effective and what is not, tries to identify successful and unsuccessful techniques, and fashions theories to be applied in the future;

- The professional is a constant learner not only in the classroom but in the field— the worker is trained, the professional learns; many professions in fact demand it as a condition of accreditation;

- Real professional naturally takes to a team environment because their overriding concern is getting the job done;

- The professional sees himself or herself as responsible to the customer; the mission is to solve problems or to add value in any case for the customer, to create the value that the customer requires. In contrast, a worker is focused on three words: boss, activity and task;

- To be a professional, a person needs education as well as training; He/she must get knowledge and skills about what to do, why to do, and how to do the job; and

- A professional work is not an activity performed in a certain number of hours a day, but one’s persona, one’s essence.

The success in any profession depends on a person having knowledge, perspective and attitude (Hammer, 1996). Besides, most of Human Resource Management (HRM) literature explains success factors in any profession as the right knowledge, skill and attitude (Bach and Kessler, 2008).

The civil or public service is broadly defined as those employees of the state who are covered by national and civil service laws. In Ethiopian context, civil servants are government employees that are governed by the Federal Civil servants’ Proclamation number 515/2006. As it developed, the public service as a profession espoused the value of probity, neutrality, and fairness, among many others. It has embraced the merit principle in setting up career structures from recruitment to promotion. For example, according to American civil service, merit principles are the following:

- Recruit, select, and advance on merit after fair and open competition;
• Treat employees and applicants fairly and equitably;
• Provide equal pay for equal work and reward excellent performance;
• Maintain high standards of integrity, conduct, and concern for the public interest;
• Manage employees efficiently and effectively;
• Retain or separate employees on the basis of their performances;
• Educate and train employees if it results in better organizational or individual performance;
• Protect employees from improper political influence; and
• Protect employees against reprisal for the lawful disclosure of information in “whistleblower” situations (U.S. Office of Personnel Management).

Many of these merit principles are adapted to Ethiopian Civil Servants’ Proclamation. It must be clearly understood that having the right merit principles by law is the cornerstone of any professional civil service. Here, precaution must be taken that serious violation of these principles leads to ineffectiveness. It is also taken as an opposite of a patronage system in which ignorance is reined and celebrated. Professionalism in the civil service/public service is an overarching value that determines how its activities will be carried out. It encompasses all other values that guide the public service/civil service such as loyalty, neutrality, transparency, diligence, punctuality, effectiveness, impartiality and other values that may be specific to individual countries (United Nations, 2007:3).

The rationale behind professionalism in the civil service is to make civil servants adhere to a certain degree of value to serve the public effectively. It seeks to ensure that civil servants have the highest professional quality and behaviors that put the public interests first. Thus, professionalizing the civil service has the following benefits.

• It helps to have civil servants that are efficient and effective in their performance;
• Impartial civil service is important in multi-party democratic system to realize stable and long serving civil service despite the fact that government might change through ballot box;
• Since professionalism is the quest for excellence, the effectiveness of the civil service is guaranteed despite changes in citizens’ needs;
• Constant learning is the basis for professionalism. As a result, employees can easily adjust to different organizational changes;
• A professional civil service is honest and has high level of integrity, it will enjoy trust
and respect by the public. These are great intangible assets for any civil service that
aims to beat poverty;

• Professional civil service has an ability to maintain its employees’ effectiveness’ that
it contributes much to realize the goals of an organization. In this endeavor, the whole
purpose of public service reform is to realize effectiveness in the public service. So
the success of public service reform is unthinkable without at least having core
professional civil servants;

• Professional civil service is an image for a nation which helps to attract lucrative
direct foreign investment; and

• Professional civil service is an instrument to build a system of good governance and
democracy.

A well performing public service is based on its professionalism and integrity (Elia, 2000).
Public service / civil service professionalism includes some cultural values that may be specific
to individual country. According to Turkia it is not possible to seek to promote professionalism
in public servants without taking into account the socio – cultural values of Africans, especially
rural Africans (Turkia, 2008: 57). On the other hand, some of the elements of civil service
professionalism are universal. They require global knowledge and skills that conform to their
universal nature. From this, one can conclude that elements of civil service professionalism have
global perspective while they need localization.

The rationale behind professionalism is that public servants should be neutral, impartial, fair, and
competent and serve the public interest in carrying out their duties. Such personality requires
appropriate knowledge, skill and attitude towards public service. Professional civil servants are
expected to:

• Remember that civil servants are policy advisors not policy makers. As a result they
are expected to advise government impartially and competently. When the
government decides on a policy direction, civil servants are there again to
implement it impartially and competently;

• Put citizens’ interest first. Public servants shall be proud of serving the citizen. Above
all citizens’ interest shall be first. Public servants shall not use their power to serve
their individual selfish interest;

• Be result - oriented. They are paid for what they contribute;
• Make services agile. Public service must be easy to do business; So civil servants should strive always for excellent service that can satisfy end users and stakeholders;

• Believe deeply in change. The current environment is prone to change. As a result, successful civil servants are those who are deeply interested in change and its effect;

• Strongly believe in continuous learning and improvement. Continuous change requires a culture of lifelong learning;

• Learn to work in a team. Team working is a form of serving the public together whose members have different perspectives and complementary skills helping to satisfy the public at large; and

• Avoid rent seeking behaviors and practices which are contrary to objectives of progress and development.

According to Ssonko, professionalism manifests itself in the public service employees’ behavior at work and in his/her constant effort to improve, reinforce and update his/her knowledge, refine the skills that are necessary for carrying out his/her tasks and enhancing his/her output and productivity (Ssonko, 2008:7). On the other hand, professionalism resides in how skillfully and how well a public servant performs his/her functions and duties (Simataa 2004: 2).

Some practical considerations

The following can be taken as best practices to promote and strengthen professionalism in the civil service. The best practices can be applied to Ethiopian in particular and the Continent’s civil service at large. Refining and implementing comprehensive merit system is the basis for civil service professionalism. The North American and West European experiences indicate that adhering to merit principles is key success factor to establish legitimate and respected civil service.

Since public services are working in an environment that is in constant change, effective training and development are investments with high return. As professionalism is the quest for excellency, continuous learning will be the new culture of the civil service. Civil service institutions that have been aspiring professionalism are laying effective Human resource development systems including formal and informal training such as pre-service training, in-service training, post-service training, coaching and mentoring etc. Human resource development as an effective means of professionalizing the civil service necessitates believing in people and investing in them as well. Best professional civil services in both developed and developing countries are those that have executed effective, strategic and holistic Training and Human Resource Development system.
Creating a performing culture through integrated performance management system is critical to enhance professionalism in the civil service. Since effective performance management system addresses both developmental and motivational objectives, it is an instrument to promote and strengthen professionalism in the public service. Moreover, effective performance management system helps to combat corruption and curb other unethical practices.

As stated by Hammer (1996: 57), in traditional pay systems, people are paid for seniority, for showing up, for following rules, for being pleasant to the boss, or perhaps even for performing and completing assigned tasks. But they are not paid for producing results, which is ultimately the only thing that really matters. So developing a performance related pay (PRP) which is based on objective performance measurement system is instrumental to cultivate the true professionalism. PRP had a political objective in demonstrating that public sector workers are not unaccountable and only receive pay increase linked to performance (OECD cited by Bach and Kessler, 2008). Besides, paying for competence is vital to attract brightest and talented young work force to the public service. This is an effective mechanism to realize the continuity of the civil service in time of change. Performance-related pay, together with competence related pay, can realize paying for contribution (Armstrong and Angela, 1998). Contribution pay enhances professionalism in the civil service. In addition, contributions pay helps the government to improve the total compensation that is vital to enhance professionalism.

In UK civil service, government is trying to improve civil servants working life by introducing flexible working hours. Flexi – time allows employees to choose, with in certain limits, when they start and end their workdays. Usually the organization defines the core period. Flexi – time allows professional employees to use their biological clocks to be effective. Again this must be taken as an important strategy in Ethiopian civil service to retain talented employees in hard finding skills like Medicine, Engineering Law, Business (Adebabay, 2008: 54).

Benefiting from both career and post system is important to enhance professionalism in the civil service. According to OECD survey of 2008, countries that have moved away from career – based systems for civil servants have encountered negative consequences in terms of a loss of collective responsibility and unifying culture (OECD cited by Bach and Kessler, 2008). The UK, New Zealand and Australia are cited as example in the survey. On contrary, career-based model of employment in which public servants remain in the public sector for their whole working life might lead to ineffectiveness in African civil service. Thus, a mixed model of both career and post system is appropriate for Africa.

Improving the professionalism of human resource management/ personnel officers has a spillover effect. The effectiveness of the human resource depends on effective HRM systems. Therefore, developing a structure and systems of HR professionals is vital. In this context, designing a set of HR professional standards is critical. Besides, redefining the HR personnel’s role is a step ahead to professionalize human capital management. In modern HRM, the officers’
role will be advisory, facilitation, HR system designer etc. In addition to this, licensing both HR and other professionals can be cited as best practice for African civil service.

According to Linden, the use of self-managing teams is growing in the public sector. Self-managing teams plan, implement, and evaluate their own work, with minimal involvement from senior managements. They focus primarily on external customer needs not the bureaucracy (Linden, 1994: 5). Introducing a self-managed team is valuable in terms of value creation to citizens. It is also important to cultivate a culture of organizational learning. Self–managed team is highly empowered and risk taking work group that it is conducive to strengthen professionalism at the grass root level of civil service organizations. Moreover, self–managed teams create time space for senior managers to focus on coaching and mentoring business. In this regard, introducing systems and structure that help to grow self–managed team is advantageous and mandatory.

Empowering citizens through total engagement of end users will create demand side pressure to the civil service. The demand side pressure is important to create a culture of accountability which leads to capacity building for both service givers and service users. The introduction of charter and charter mark programs in many western Europe and North American civil services helps to improve the quality of the civil service. It also realizes stakeholders’ full engagement and insight in the process of service delivery. The experiences of developed countries show that citizens in public service are not only end users but also owners and solution seekers for the challenges facing the service. Such an engagement of citizens’ is not only to ask rights but also to seek solutions.

Introducing competition among civil service institutions through charter mark was fruitful in UK public hospitals (Iles and Sutherland, 2000). As far as keeping the systems effective, charter mark induces competition among civil service institutions and creates an environment to learn from the total process of the competition. This is an important leap in strengthening professionalism in the public service. Creating citizens’ awareness on public service, through citizens’ charter, organizational charter and accountability reports helps to empower the citizen and reinforce professionalism. Building professionalism demands enriching and enlarging jobs. Enriched and enlarged jobs motivate employees’ to improve their knowledge and skills which is central in promoting and professionalizing the civil service.

Leadership development programs play an important role in professionalizing the civil service. The purpose of the leadership development shall be to create forward looking, innovative, and courageous leaders in the civil service. Most importantly, creating model leaders is a critical factor in the process of building professionalism in the civil service. West European experience, including countries like France, Italy, Germany and Holland, show that systematic leadership development is vital for professionalizing the civil service. Since human resource development is an investment, civil service institutions shall consider installing effective recruitment mechanism
of leaders. If institutions recruit leaders unwisely, their investment will have fewer returns. Thus, in many professional civil services the top management system is installed with great care and focus.

Building professionalism through civil service reform in Ethiopia

The Ethiopian civil service is a century old and it was initially organized in the crude form of the 20th century European civil service model. As civil service is the reflection of its political economic system, it is expected to serve the purpose of the government of the day. The 1960s were remarkable periods in Ethiopian civil service history. During this time, modern personnel orders, policies and directives were introduced. Central Personnel Agency was established in the same period. The purpose of all these reforms was to establish uniform and rule-driven civil service all over the nation. Almost all orders and directives were adopted from the western personnel management systems mainly from the United States of America. The personnel establishments and the reforms were having the following effects.

- Establishment of uniform personnel management system throughout the nation;
- Western type of merit principles were introduced for the first time in the nation’s history;
- The principle of equal pay for equal value of work had been introduced with position classification job evaluation method; and
- Central Personnel Agency was established.

The 1974 Ethiopian revolution had introduced a suede socialist military government which abused many of the merit principles and relative work ethics of the Emperor era. During this period (1974 – 91), civil service professionalism deteriorated and its impartiality was put in question. As a result, the civil service of the day was with low morality. In 1991, the incumbent government seized power. The political and economic systems of the government became multi-party democracy and market driven economy respectively. The changing role of government witnessed federalism and devolution. Therefore, the role of civil service changed. As pointed out earlier in the preceding sections, the main role of the civil service is to serve the government of the day impartially and competently. Therefore, introducing a civil service reform that works for Ethiopia was a top agenda of the government. The Ethiopian government has been engaging in civil service reform for the last ten years in the following major areas.

- Top Management System Reform Sub-program;
- Human Resource Management System Reform Sub-Program;
- Service Delivery improvement Reform Sub-Program;
- Government Expenditure and Control reform Su-Program; and
The main rationale behind civil service reform in Ethiopia is the need to reinvent a civil service which resembles the new political and economic order of the nation which is federal, democratic and market oriented. Subsequent reasons of reforming the civil service included:

- Top leaders in the civil service were not visionary and supportive;
- Top leaders were not developed and managed adequately, systematically and rationally and as a result they were with low level of leadership competencies;
- Low level of civil servants’ performance resulting from incompetence and low level of morale;
- Inefficient service as a result of poor design of work and wrong employees’ attitude towards clients or citizens;
- Inappropriate utilization of public resources. For instance, public resource utilization was input-driven and resources were not tied to results; and
- Unethical practices in delivering the service. For example, bribes, kickbacks, embezzlement, etc.

In subsequent sections the chapter turns to examining efforts of building professionalism through civil service reform in Ethiopia paying a specific attention on the main initiatives of the civil service reform program: the Business Process Reengineering (BPR), the Result-oriented Performance Management Change Initiative and HRM reform initiative and their contributions in promoting and strengthening professionalism in the civil service.

(A) Business Process Reengineering (BPR)

Business Process reengineering (BPR) was introduced in 2003 and was applied across public organizations in Ethiopia as part of the civil service reform program (AH consulting 2010). According to AH consulting report (2010), 82% of institutions at Federal and Regional levels engaged in BPR change initiative.

According to Hammer and Champy (1996:32) business process reengineering is “the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business process, in order to achieve dramatic improvement in critical contemporary measures of performance such as cost, quality, service and speed”. Later, Hammer strongly emphasizes that the main purpose of BPR is to create process-based organization which has many manifestations in aspects such as customer satisfaction, outcome orientation and team building. According to AH consulting (2010:124), BPR as change initiative was selected by the Government of Ethiopia in order to improve the capacity of civil service organizations to deliver national priorities, including economic development, poverty
reduction and improving service delivery to citizens. In AH’s survey, 82% of civil service institutions were either implementing and or designing phase of their business processes. As per AH consulting survey, the following are achievements of BPR implementation in Ethiopian public service.

- Organizations have been organized around processes, outcomes or results;
- Processes are defined and designed in such a way that they can add value to customers;
- Efficiency has been improved – less time is taken and less money is spent to provide services as a result of BPR;
- Achievements of flatter structure – less time to decide; empowering employees and increasing flexibility of service;
- BPR helps to drive the HRM reform agenda of the civil service which is highly related to professionalism of the civil service;
- Customer satisfaction has been registered in many implementing agencies;
- Improved effectiveness – in most institutions, BPR has helped institutions to do the right things as defined in their mission and vision. This helps to improve effectiveness in the civil service;
- Change attitudes – The attitudes of the civil servants started to change to be client focused. As a result of BPR, the attitude of employees towards clients and team work has improved;
- Skilled workers – multiple tasks were carried out by individuals that push employees to learn more in order to have multi skills;
- With BPR, team work has been recognized and its performance has been improved;
- One-stop shopping service that makes the civil service easy to do business has been introduced;
- Customer care and client relationship have been improved;
- Management skills have been improved as a result of training in areas of strategic planning and management, change management, team building, process management and performance management;
- Many benchmarking programs were carried out and lessons helping to improve performance have been learnt.

The above achievements of BPR change initiative have many implications in strengthening professionalism in the civil service. These are:

- Creating a drive to focus on citizens’ service so that civil service leaders and employees will be conscious of the value of serving people, which is an important indication of any professional civil service;
• The improvement of efficiency of organizations indicates that civil servants have been trying to be conscious enough to use the public resources properly and in good faith.

As a result of the BPR change initiative, it is customary that the role of leaders will be changed from controller and evaluator to coach and mentor. Despite the fact that little has been done in preparing leaders for the new roles, the change direction gives an opportunity to create an environment of organizational learning which is important to enhance professionalism in the civil service.

• The BPR change initiative helps leaders and employees to be outcome oriented which is the ultimate makeover of professionalism;

• The change initiative helps civil servants to have general knowledge and diverse way of doing things. It asks employees and leaders to think out of the box. It helps civil servants to have new attitude that acknowledges end users and citizens at large. Making end users the center piece of service is the ultimate goal of any professional civil service. The BPR change initiative helps to improve new professional skills and attitudes that are outcome oriented and citizens-focused;

• BPR implementation has resulted in team work. In some institutions it helps to learn in team and to function as a team. This is an important aspect of enhancing professionalism in the public service;

• The BPR change initiative helps civil service institutions to emphasize on in-service training. Though it is not systematic, many civil servants have got training opportunities in different topics of management such as team building, change management, strategic management, Human Resource Management, Project Management, Benchmarking, and etc. Above all, BPR necessitates the training of civil servants in government policies and strategies which helps to understand government directions and perspectives, so as to align organizational goals with national strategies.

• The change initiative helps to attract best practices through benchmarking programs. Though many of benchmarking programs were not systematic and resulting in twinning arrangements, benchmarking as a management tool has been introduced to Ethiopian civil service. For instance, strengthening the custom and revenue profession is the result of many benchmarking efforts. As a result of professionalizing the custom and revenue sector in Ethiopia, the tax base and amount of revenue collected has dramatically increased within the last five years.
Above all, BPR has helped professionals in the civil service to be sure that changing the civil service is possible through changing the mindsets of civil servants. This is a step ahead to professionalize the civil service.

According to some researches and observations, in some cases, poor process design, lack of change management capability, absence of timely employees’ incentives, lack of technological input, misalignment of processes from strategy and systems has impaired the role of BPR in transforming civil service institutions in Ethiopia. Government supervision reports also suggest that although BPR has promoted efficiency in the civil service, the effectiveness of business processes in terms of tackling rent seeking attitudes and achieving developmental objective is not satisfactory.

(B) Result-oriented Performance Management change Initiative

Performance management is a systematic and strategic approach which works on continuous improvement of teams’ and individuals’ performance so as to achieve organizational goals (Armstrong and Angela, 1998). Performance management is both a strategic and systematic approach of achieving results. While it is important to have better goals, targets and measures in government, we must recognize that such a highly formalized approach has severe limitations for complex activities.

The Ethiopian civil service has been engaging in building result-oriented performance management systems in the last eight years. Organizational aligned employees’ performance appraisal system was introduced in Ethiopian civil service and it has helped employees to focus on results that can contribute to organizational success. The challenge with the first generation of result-oriented individual performance appraisal system (2002 – 2007) is its focus on measurement alone which is an unwanted business by employees. The other challenge is the misalignment of individual performance with that of the organization. The last three years (2008 – 2011) witnessed in the civil service the use of Balanced Scorecard (BSC) as an integrated strategic management system. Balanced Scorecard focuses on critical few strategic matters and also helps to align individual performance with organizational goals.

The peculiar feature of BSC is its power to align intangible assets with expected tangible results that it helps much to build professionalism in the civil service. BSC helps organizations to think beyond financial bottom lines such as employees’ capacity, leadership capability, process efficiency and a culture of performance. BSC was introduced in Ethiopia since 2009 and to date 27% of civil service institutions have undertaken BSC change initiative. Notable achievements stemming from BSC are:
Many civil servants and leaders have got training on BSC which is an instrument to revise and describe the strategy and thereby operationalize it;

The above training has helped leaders to get different perspectives for gauging organizational success in balanced view;

It is widely understood by leaders and employees that BSC is an important tool to align strategic planning, performance management, project management, Business processes and budget; and

Many professionals and leaders recognize that BSC is a strong tool in communicating and implementing strategies at any level.

The focus of BSC on intangible asset means that organizations shall work tirelessly in strengthening employees’ knowledge and skills which is critical to professionalize the civil service. BSC is the 21st century integrated strategic management system to solve management problems of the information and knowledge society. It is also one of the 21st century achievements of management. The following are features of BSC:

- It is integrated strategic management system;
- It is a communication tool;
- It is a change management tool;
- It focuses on four main perspectives, namely: customer/citizens, finance/budget, internal processes, learning and growth;
- It aligns internal and external organizational achievements;
- It is about showing the logic of value creation with the help of strategy maps;
- Aligning intangible asset with the tangible asset through value creation mechanisms; and
- Above all, it is about focusing on critical few issues of the organization (Kaplan and Norton, 2005).

The role of BSC in strengthening professionalism in Ethiopian civil service

Since BSC values intangible assets such as human resource and processes and their technologies, its application helps much to strengthen the civil service professionalism. The developmental and motivational aspects of BSC can contribute much to create high performing civil service institutions which emphasize on the importance of professionalism. The performance management system of BSC helps much to improve values of professionalism. This has been observed in many European and North American civil service. Even South Korean and Chinese civil services have used BSC to strengthen professionalism (Qin, 2009; Cho, 2009). The
overriding themes within existing commentary imply not only the positive potential contribution of adopting a systematic approach to performance management but also a significant emphasis on enhancing human resource capabilities as key strategic tool for the development agenda across the continent (Adebabay and Perkins, 2010: 94).

However, in order to realize efficiency and effectiveness in the public service, the BSC implementation in Ethiopian civil service should continue emphasizing on the following:

- It must serve as aligning and mobilizing tool for The Growth and Transformation Plan;
- It must be an instrument to escalate best practices in the civil service reform;
- It must be used as an instrumental to create performance contract system throughout the civil service; and
- Above all, it must be an instrument to create strategic focused organizations.

The role of HRM in strengthening Professionalism in Ethiopian civil service

The main indicator of the Ethiopian civil service inefficiency is poor service delivery resulting from mismanaged civil servants. The Capacity Building strategy of the nation has been giving greater emphasis on human resource development. Though HRM reform sub-program is one of the components of the wider civil service reform program in Ethiopia, its implementation is highly impaired. The following can be cited as major reasons for the retardation of the sub-program implementation.

- Lack of comprehensive and integrated knowledge and skills on HRM;
- Lack of visualizing the contribution of HRM in attaining organizational goals;
- Inability of creating modern structural framework for HRM in all line institutions;
- Lack of understanding to use HRM as a change model to achieve organizational transformation;
- Devolving HRM authorities to line institutions without adequate support to HR professionals and line managers;
- Inadequate enforcement and accountability mechanisms; and
- Lack of line managers’ ownership of HRM etc.

Despite the above impediments, the following achievements in HRM reform are worth recognizing. These are:

- Federal Civil Servants Proclamation has been revised in line with modern HRM concepts and practices;
• The devolution of HRM functions has paved the way for flexibility and empowerment of line managers. Strengthening the HR department and line managers through devolution of HR functions helps line managers to get proximity to develop and motivate employees that are the basis for civil service professionalism. Devolution of HR functions gives an opportunity of learning by doing which is critical for the HR profession development;

• The reorganization of the former Federal Civil Service Agency at Ministry level shows the importance given for human resource management;

• The HRM reform drives training and education institutions to focus on HRM. This gives professionals an opportunity of getting training and education in the subject. Training courses and university curriculum (which lead to post graduate degree in HRM) have also been introduced in the past few years. This is an important step to professionalize the civil service HRM;

• The establishment of leadership institute which is fully dedicated for leadership development will have greater role to supply skilled and motivated cadre of leaders;

• Many HRM professionals drawn from different civil service institutions have been trained in modern HRM;

• Information and Education programs are executed with HR magazines like Merit, and through different electronics media like radio and television; and

• Different HRM systems such as fast streaming, point rating job evaluation, integrated HRM information systems, civil service eligibility criteria, code of conduct, policy and procedures of human resource development, performance related pay e.t.c are being developed and are ready for stakeholders consultation

• In some organizations like Custom and Revenue Authority HR reform has helped to create a career management system which is important to professionalize the sector as one entity of the civil service.

Moreover, there are achievements in inculcating ethical behaviors in the civil service, which is a critical component of civil service professionalism. The Ethics and Anti-Corruption Commission of Ethiopia which was established in line with the recommendation of the Civil Service Reform Program has delivered substantial results since its establishment ten years ago. Achievements of Ethics and Anti - corruption which are relevant to strengthen professionalism in the civil service are:
• Promoting Ethical principles in the civil service through the establishment of Ethics Officers.

• Reinforcing ethical principles in the civil service with different preventive and curative mechanisms;

• Establishing corruption investigation mechanisms; and

• Carrying out surveys on the status of corruption in Ethiopia in collaboration with different research and education institutions.

Opportunities and Challenges of professionalizing the Ethiopian Civil Service

The growth and transformation plan of Ethiopia (2010 – 2015), which has integrated stretched goals, calls for effective civil service leaders and employees. According to the plan, civil service institutions are expected to perform at the highest possible to realize the vision of the plan. Such circumstance avails multiple opportunities to professionalize the civil service. Stretched development goals calls for superior organizational performance which is possible with mobilizing professional employees in any organization including the civil service. The growth and transformation plan embraces capacity building as one of the pillars of its strategy. Thus, the Growth and Transformational Plan is a driver to build professionalism in the civil service.

The capacity building initiatives in Ethiopia are instrumental in building good governance, democracy and the economy. Ethiopian capacity building program is comprehensive and encompasses all actors of good governance: public, private and civil society. The political commitment of the government is very strong to implement programs of capacity building that have greatest contribution to the national development.

The capacity building program which focuses on development of effective and efficient systems, structures and people runs themes on human resources development that are focusing on professionalism of the civil service. Generally, the capacity building strategy gives special attention to human resource. Moreover, the capacity building strategy gives priority for the civil service which opens an opportunity for professionalism. The country’s stride to democracy and good governance is highly dependent on the effectiveness of the civil service. Effective civil service means professional civil service that can deliver as it promises. Thus, professionalism is a prerequisite for civil service effectiveness. In this regard, lessons shall be taken that the effectiveness of reform initiatives can’t be realized without acquiring the required values and beliefs.
The progress Ethiopia has made in democracy and development tells us that the more the nation respects the people’s right the higher will be their engagement. Civil Service Institutions as vectors of development have got an opportunity to improve their service level continuously. As a result, the civil service of the day demands highly competent and professional civil servants. This reality necessitates professional development.

The National Growth and Transformational Plan with its stretched goals (in both its high case and base case scenarios) means that there is a lot expected from the civil service. In return, compensations and working conditions will be improved as well as targets realized. Such transformation and renaissance era can create a fertile environment to professionalize the civil service.

Last but not least, the civil service reform initiatives (like the ones discussed in this paper) show a cause and effect relationship between professionalism and reform, which has a spiral effect. In discussing the challenges of strengthening professionalism in the Ethiopian civil service, the following major points need to be highlighted.

- As public administrations are the state’s tools, their reason for being depends on the role of the state (Blaire, 2009). Thus, aligning the Civil Service Reform Program with the objectives of the developmental democratic state has a paramount importance. The effectiveness of any civil service reform program depends on its adaptability with countries’ context. This seems unbeatable challenge in many developing and transitional civil services including the Ethiopian.

- Quality service depends on quality people. Reforming the civil service to serve the public better needs to have talented and inquisitive people. It is a challenge for the civil service to attract and retain talented people with relatively minimum compensation. But civil service institutions can minimize this challenge by creating better attractive working conditions basis on intrinsic incentive schemes too.

- Installing effective training and development system is another challenge in Ethiopian Civil service. Building skills of people in areas of training need analysis which helps to identify right needs and suppliers will be a challenge in the short run. Another skill challenge will be measuring training effectiveness correctly. Without developing these two main skills in managing training and development, one can’t know the level of return gained by training investments.

- Developing the right attitude for professionalism and making people transparent and accountable will stay long as a challenge. Building the right attitude for professionalism requires the right structure and system as causal factors. The more we stay long to install appropriate systems and structure, the less will be the attainment of professionalism in Ethiopian civil service.
• Cultivating model leaders and professionals as much as possible will be a challenge for the 21st African civil service. Without having model leaders and professionals in required number and quality, the ethos of professionalism can’t be transferred easily from leaders to other civil servants. Lack of model leaders in required number means shortage of adequate mentors. In this regard, leaders’ competency framework needs to be established and a system of performance management with its recognition and reward mechanisms has to be installed.

• Fighting corruption in a society where corruption is considered as easy and proper access for wealth is a strong challenge that the Ethiopian civil service encounters.

• Installing effective Performance Management system is another area of challenge in a situation where people are avoiding measurement and open appraisal. Open appraisal is a challenge in high power distance and closed society (Schneider and Louis, 1997).

• Implementing a comprehensive merit principles framework and making people accountable for violating the law is also a challenge. For example, according to Merit Magazine, knowingly and unknowingly, there is a serious violation of merit principles in Ethiopian civil service (Merit, vol.15, No.2, June 2010).

The way forward

i. Improving the capacity of Ministry of Civil Service needs to be given priority. As the Ministry is a coordinator of Civil Service Reform Program of the nation, and as it is a supervisory and facilitator of the HRM of the civil service, building its internal capacity must be at the top of the agenda.

ii. According to Merit Magazine, in some ministries and agencies the HRM function is suffering from misguided structure and wrong personnel staffing (Merit, vol.15, No.2, June 2010). The assumption behind this fallacy is considering HRM as any ordinary pen pushing administrative work. This indicates that the strategic notion of HRM is not properly perceived in Ethiopian Civil Service. Therefore, professionalizing the HRM function of the civil service is required. In this regard, the Ministry of Civil Service should be guided by a comprehensive HRM strategy so as to enable it develop a competency framework of HR professionals in the civil service. Thus, the recruitment and development of the professionals shall be based on the competency framework basic considerations. Moreover, it is imperative a council that will serve as a capacity building and networking mechanism.
iii. Devolution of the HRM functions has to be followed by appropriate capacity building of HR officers and line managers. There is a need for planned and sustained advocacy works on HRM in the civil service. The HRM reform agenda should be backed by all appointees in the civil service. There is therefore a need of creating consultation forums and mechanisms to buy – in officials’ will.

iv. Increasing managers’ coaching and mentoring knowledge and skill is important. In this regard, Civil Service Ministry has to play a leading role in initiating and coordinating appropriate efforts.

v. Civil service institutions should also strive to create a culture of learning. Initiating self – managed teams is critical to increase line managers’ coaching and mentoring skills so as to increase team performance.

vi. Improving the performance management system is critical in today’s Ethiopian Civil Service in order to align individual, team and organizational performance. The system must not be seen from measurement point of view alone. Such a system must play greater role in improving employees’ knowledge and skills.

vii. Strengthening the strategic planning and management system is advantageous to align civil service goals and objectives with the targets of Growth and transformational plan.

viii. Aligning the draft code of conduct of the civil service with different management and measurement systems is advantageous to ground the code.

ix. Installing a communication systems and plan that helps to mobilize civil servants and thereby realize professional civil service is mandatory and urgent. In addition to system installation, using the media proactively and effectively to promote ethics and professionalism in the civil service is important.

x. Planning to work together with other stakeholders and interest groups such as ombudsman, Ethiopian Human Right Commission, Ethics and Anti-Corruption Commission, Office of General Auditor, Professional Associations (such as Ethiopian Management Professional Associations, Society of Human Resource Management in Ethiopia, and etc), over sighting organs such as parliamentary committees, universities (special relation with those working on Management and Human Resources Management disciplines), the media is vital to promote professionalism in the civil service.

xi. Installing Benchmarking as one of organizational improvement mechanisms in the civil service is also very important. Its implementation must be disciplined and principled. Moreover, line institutions and agencies twinning initiatives must be promoted.
xii. A system of award and reward must be heralded in the civil service so as to induce organizational learning and a culture of performance.

xiii. A system of Fast streaming must be introduced in order to promote high flier young employees to leadership position. In this regard, countries (The UK and Singapore) best practices must be evaluated.

xiv. The reintroduction of job evaluation mechanism is very urgent because the current situation might lead to paying differently to jobs which have equal value. Paying differently for equal value of work is a serious violation of the merit principle.

xv. Currently over sixty-five different salary scales are used by different civil service institutions. This situation might violate the principle of paying equally for equal value of work. It is thus suggested that these scales be rationalized alongside the spirit of the reforms.

xvi. Different organizations within the civil service have different benefit packages. This is a violation of civil service value that “we paid for what people contribute.” The appeal of this chapter is that standardized benefit packages must be introduced in the civil service. But benefits arising from the nature of the job might be considered as well.

References


Chapter 11

Ethics, Accountability, Transparency, Integrity and Professionalism in the Public Service: the Case of Uganda

David K.W. Ssonko

Inappropriate human resource (HR) practices and policies in the public service can actively contribute to malpractices which threaten professionalism, ethical behaviors and transparency.

Introduction

Since Northcote – Trevelyan laid down the foundations of the modern civil service in the mid-nineteenth century, a concern with establishing the ground rules for public servants and ensuring that they conform with a core set of standards in their everyday behavior has been a perennial theme in public administration (Pratchett, 1999). As observed by Sakr Ashour (2004), a consensus has developed worldwide over the importance of reforming public sector institutions to strengthen ethics, integrity, transparency, accountability and professionalism and to prevent and combat corruption. Such reforms are crucial to protecting public resources, enhancing public sector performance, and strengthening the government’s role in orchestrating development and providing basic services. Indeed there is a greater awareness of the need for ethics, accountability, transparency, integrity and professionalism in public life today.

According to the study carried out by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA, 2001) in 10 African countries, this realization has been supported by the emergence of a consensus that good governance and sound public administration underpin sustainable development. The impact of unethical and criminal practices in the public service is unsupportable in the development of nations, resulting in the loss of confidence in public institutions and the erosion of the rule of law itself. Furthermore, the notions of ethics and accountability, according to Ayee (1998), have become more critical in public administration because of the continued public sector institutional failing that are attributed to public servants’ lack of moral values, which in turn, are associated with weak values and weak administrative systems. It is now a general reality that the quest of the public for responsibility and accountability in government has been stimulated in most democratic states (Kuye and Mafunisa, 2003).

This chapter discusses the concepts of ethics, accountability, transparency, integrity and professionalism in the public service. It further attempts to discuss some practices and behaviors which undermine the ethical behaviors of public servants by putting special emphasis on corruption, conflict of interest and human resource management malpractices. It also discusses the measures which can be taken to reduce the malpractices. Specifically, the paper discusses
the Uganda situation with regard to ethics, accountability, transparency, integrity and professionalism in the Country’s public service. It notes that although the current Uganda government has attempted to put in place a number of institutional measures to combat evils like corruption, the success of such measures will largely depend on the serious implementation and enforcement mechanisms which the government must put in place.

**Understanding the Concepts: Ethics, Accountability, Transparency, Integrity and Professionalism**

Strictly speaking, the above concepts are interrelated and although attempts can be made to define each of them independently, the sum total shows that there are no clear-cut boundaries between them. Therefore the existence or lack of any of them will either positively or negatively impact on the other. This automatically implies that a well-balanced public servant in terms of performance and respect must possess and/or put all of them in practice.

**Ethics**

There is no universally agreed definition of the term “ethics” (Ayee, 1998). The question of ethics is one that is linked to the history of mankind. Ethics deals with the character and conduct of morals of human beings. It deals with good or bad, right or wrong behavior; it evaluates conduct against some absolute criteria and puts negative or positive values on it (Hanekom, 1984). Similarly, Chapman (1993) defines ethics as the basic principles of the right action and rules of conduct. These criteria can be in writing (legislation, circulars, standing orders e.t.c) or merely the interpretation by an individual of what is acceptable and what is not. The Charter for the Public Service in Africa refers to ethics as “the standards which guide the behaviors and actions of personnel in public institutions.” Article 22 of this Charter further provides ethics to mean a sound culture based on ethical values and principles. Such values and principles, according to the Charter, include: efficiency, professional discipline, dignity, equity, impartiality, fairness, public – spiritedness and courtesy in the discharge of duties. Therefore public service ethics are broad norms that delineate how public servants – as agents of the state and, where applicable, as members of an established profession such as accounting, law, human resource management, e.t.c should exercise judgment and discretion in carrying out their official duties (UNDESA, 2000)

**Accountability**

Although accountability is widely believed to be a good thing, the concept is highly abstract and it is often used in a very general way (Hulme and Sanderatne, 2008). A typical definition is that
accountability concerns the processes by which “those who exercise power whether as governments, as elected representatives or as appointed officials, must be able to show that they have exercised their powers and discharged their duties properly”

Fox Meyer (1995), defines accountability as the “responsibility of government and its agents towards the public to achieve previously set objectives and to account for them in public.” It is also regarded as a commitment required from public officials individually and collectively to accept public responsibility for their own action and inaction. In this case, the burden of accountability rests on each public functionary to act in the public interest and according to his/her conscience, with solutions for every matter based on professionalism and participation.

Accountability in the public sector is broader than in the private sector (Ingstrup and Crookall, 1998). In the private sector, everyone in the company is accountable to its board. The public sector is also accountable to a board of sorts: the minister, cabinet and legislature. But the public sector has additional accountability to its employees and to its customers, the citizens who use the services – as well as to its non – customers, the citizens who don’t use the service. It is a different kind of accountability, more subtle and indirect. Therefore, in general accountability for performance and the obligation that public functionaries (elected and appointed officials) have to give entails a satisfactory explanation over the exercise of power, authority and resources entrusted in them on behalf of the public (tax payer). Subsumed with this definition is a myriad of legal, moral and ethical obligations that come with the occupancy of any public office (Sarji, 1995). In short, it is the obligation to carry out assigned activities in a responsible and responsive manner, and being held answerable for success or failure. As such, when we talk about “accountability” in the public service, we cannot but consider the question of bureaucratic responsibility. Internal accountability means that at each level in the hierarchical organization, public officials are accountable to those who supervise and control their work. On the other hand, external accountability means answerability for action carried out and performance achieved to other relevant and concerned authorities outside his/her department or organization. Accountability is therefore an ethical virtue, since ethics concern principles and rules that govern the moral value of people’s behavior. Improving ethics is thus crucial to enhancing accountability and vice-versa.

Transparency

Generally, “transparency” implies openess, communication and accountability. It is a metaphorical extension of the meaning that “transparent” object is one that can be seen through. With regard to the public services, it means that holders of public office should be as open as possible about all the decisions and actions they take. They should give reasons for their decisions and restrict information only when the wider public interest demands it (Chapman,
Radical transparency in management demands that all decision making should be carried out publicly. All draft documents, all arguments for and against a proposal, the decision about the decision making process itself, and all final decisions, are made publicly and remain publicly archived. Article 12 of the Charter for the Public Service in Africa demands that:

“Administrative decisions shall always be taken in accordance with transparent, simple and understandable procedures, while ensuring accountability.

All administrative units shall make available all the necessary information on acts and procedures in their respective domains, as well as the information required to assess their management, with a view to enabling those interested to have full access.

The administration shall inform the person concerned of any decision taken concerning him/her, should he/she decide to challenge the decision.

The administration shall establish or strengthen reception and information units for users in order to assist in gaining access to services and recording their views, suggestions or complaints.

Transparency therefore promotes accountability and provides information for citizens about what their government and its agents are doing.

**Integrity**

Integrity is one of the most important and oft-cited of virtue terms. The concept of integrity has to do with perceived consistency of actions, values, methods, measures, principles, expectations and outcome. When used as a virtue term, “integrity” refers to a quality of a person’s character. Some people see integrity as the quality of having a sense of honesty and truthfulness in regard to the motivations for one’s actions. Persons of integrity do not just act consistently with their endorsements, they stand for something: they stand up for their best judgment within a community of people trying to discover what in life is worth doing. Some commentators stress the idea of integrity as personal honesty: acting according to one’s beliefs and values at all times. Speaking about integrity can emphasize the “wholeness” or “intactness” of a moral stance or attitude. Some of the wholeness may also emphasize commitment and authenticity. In the context of accountability, integrity serves as a measure of willingness to adjust value system to maintain or improve its consistency when an expected result appears incongruent with observed outcome. Some regard integrity as a virtue in that they see accountability and moral responsibility as necessary tools for maintaining such consistency.
Halfon (1989) offers a different way of defining integrity in terms of moral purpose. He describes integrity in terms of a person’s dedication to the pursuit of a moral life and their intellectual responsibility in seeking to understand the demands of such life. He writes that persons of integrity:

“…embrace a moral point of view that urges them to be conceptually clear, logically consistent, appraised of relevant empirical evidence, and careful about acknowledging as well as weighing relevant moral considerations. Persons of integrity impose these restrictions on themselves since they are concerned, not simply with taking any moral position, but with pursuing a commitment to do what is best”.

As Carter (1906) has stated, integrity requires three steps:

i. Discerning what is right and what is wrong
ii. Acting on what you have discerned, even at personal cost; and
iii. Saying openly that you are acting on your understanding of right from wrong.

Professionalism

Within the context of this paper, public service professionalism is defined as the overall value that encompasses all other values that guide the public service. They include loyalty, neutrality, transparency, diligence, punctuality, effectiveness, impartiality, and other values that may be specific to the public services of individual countries (UNDESA, 2000). Public Service Professionalism embraces the notion that those people who join the Public Service need to be inculcated with shared values and trained in basic skills to professionally carry out their official duties. This is in accordance with Article 21 of the Charter for the Public Service in Africa which states that:

“Professionalism manifests itself in the public service employee’s behavior at work and in his/her constant effort to improve, reinforce and update his/her knowledge, refine the skills that are necessary for carrying out his/her tasks and enhancing his/her output and productivity”.

The rationale behind professionalism is that public servants should be neutral, impartial, fair, and competent and serve the public interest in carrying out their duties. They should be top people who are fairly remunerated and adequately trained to perform their work.

According to Sarji (1995), professionalism, in a sense means excellent work culture, and in a benign sense, is an internalized duty to do well. It is a kind of performance ethic, close to a noble calling, by which professionals simply are called to do their best, for anything less would be embarrassing to them. It is an ingrained pride in performance. He adds that professionalism
is adherence to a set of normative and behavioral expectations usually embodied in a code of ethics.

**Practices and Behaviors Undermining Ethics, Accountability, Transparency, Integrity and Professionalism**

The undermining practices and behaviors are many but this paper emphasizes the following:

i. Corruption
ii. Conflict of interest and
iii. Human resource management malpractices.

**Corruption**

Corruption threatens the economic and political fortunes of developing countries the most. Bribery, conflict of interest, and illegal deals impose heavy costs on the economy while distorting development policies and undermining confidence in public institutions. Broadly defined, corruption is the abuse of entrusted power for personal gain (CIPE, 2008). However, three specific conditions must apply for an act to be considered corrupt:

i. The arm’s–length principle is violated. The two parties in a transaction display bias for working with each other that is inconsistent with impartial treatment.

ii. The bias, or conflict of interest must be intentional.

iii. There must be some advantage for both parties to commit this violation. This advantage need not be monetary in nature; it could involve favoritism or non–monetary gifts.

Corruption is one of the most serious unethical practices that undermine trust and confidence of public officials. Public confidence can only be reclaimed by establishing a reputation of integrity. Both business and society bear the costs of corruption through:

i. *Resource Misallocation* – Resources that could be put to productive uses are instead devoted to corruption. Firms waste time and resources on rent–seeking – cultivating relationships with officials and spending on bribes, officials make biased decisions (e.g. in investment) that do not serve the public interest, and taxpayers swallow the cost.

ii. *Lower investment* – Foreign and domestic investors are scared off by unpredictable costs. Rampant corruption signals to potential investors that the rule of law, and thus property rights, are very weak in the country, making an investment there a risky proposition, Lower investment means lower growth.
iii. **Reduction in competition, efficiency and innovation** – Rent seeking means that favored companies do not compete on market signals alone, while new firms face high barriers to entry. Consumers end up paying in terms of higher prices, lower quality, and limited product offerings.

iv. **Unresponsive policies and poor administration** – Law makers in corrupt systems use their powers to help rent seekers, not citizenry as a whole. Bureaucrats are not held accountable for their performance and actually have incentives to delay services in order to extract bribes.

v. **Exacerbated poverty** – Corruption lowers the income potential of the poor because there are fewer private sector opportunities. It also limits their access to quality public services such as health care and education.

**Causes of corruption**

Corruption has multiple roots, but generally can be attributed to the poor design of institutions (CIPE, 2008). Some of the deepest roots include the following:

i. **Unclear, complex, and frequently changing laws and regulations** – when laws are contradictory or require heavy interpretation, the discretionary power of officials is amplified, increasing the risk that they will make arbitrary, self-serving decisions. When laws are unpredictable, entrepreneurs do not know their rights and obligations, so they can not comply fully nor defend themselves, for example, against illegal inspections. Corruption then becomes a means to circumvent inefficiency and arbitrary official actions.

ii. **Lack of transparency and accountability** – when deals are made behind closed doors, it becomes impossible to assess the criteria behind decisions, whether they serve public interest and respect the law. If violators on both the public and private sides conceal their transactions, they escape being accountable.

iii. **Low public service salaries** – when officials cannot meet what they perceive as their daily needs through their salaries, they resort to corruption to supplement their income. However, simply raising the wages of officials will not curb corruption so long as opportunities to abuse the system persist.

iv. **Inadequate, inconsistent, and unfair enforcement of laws and regulations** – Even if laws to combat corruption are on the books, lax enforcement can invite abuse. A weak justice system, low penalties, and high cost of compliance will render laws ineffective.
Conflict of Interest

A conflict of interest situation arises when the personal interest of an employee is in conflict with his/her official position. This means that the private interest of the employee will lead him to discharge his duties in ways that may not be in the best interest of the organization. According to Williams (1985), conflict of interest denotes “a situation in which an employee has a private financial interest sufficient to influence, or appear to influence, the exercise of his/her public duties and responsibilities”. A primary reason for concern about conflicts of interest is that they reduce public trust and confidence in the integrity and impartiality of public functionaries. In this respect, the appearance of conflict of interest can be damaging as an actual conflict (Kernaghan and Langford, 1990). Conflict of interest leads to divided loyalty and in its most serious forum could result in corruption. The following examples are some conflict of interest situations that an employee of a public body may encounter:

- Giving advice on the strategy of bidding for a tender and contract when he/she is involved in the tendering exercise.
- Having undeclared financial interests in suppliers and contractors that do business with the public body.
- Offering assistance secretly to the public body’s competitor through taking on part–time employment or consultancy service.
- Supplying references for a candidate when he himself is involved in the examination or recommitment process.
- Undertaking negotiations with a company in which he, a relative or a close friend holds shares.

Human resource management (HRM) Malpractices

Inappropriate human resource (HR) practices and policies in the public service can actively contribute to malpractices which threaten professionalism, ethical behaviors and transparency. The following are some of the institutional deficiencies in the HRM systems that give rise to malpractices (Ashour, 2004)
• Failing to state and enforce basic ethical/integrity principles in the overall HRM strategy and policies leaves HRM void of ethical/integrity direction.

• Failing to outline and enforce limits on political and personal influences, thus safeguarding transparency, allows such influences to penetrate into the HRM decisions.

• The absence of clearly stated and enforced policies to promote professionalism in HRM allows the whole system to be vulnerable to malpractices and corruption; and

• A lack of a code of ethics, guiding and enforcing the standards of HRM units and employees can lead to a lack of accountability.

Indeed the implications of the above deficiencies are obvious. A lack of direction for integrity in the overall HRM strategy and policy, and the resulting weakened state of professionalism would be reflected in various HRM functions (e.g. planning, recruitment, selection, promotions, rewards, corruption of the payroll leading to ghost workers and a cost to government, etc. Under these conditions, Ashour (2004) asserts that deteriorated efficiency, lowered performance, lack of fairness and spread of corruption and spoils – sharing among HRM staff and other public servants risk becoming common.

**Measures to reduce malpractices**

It is common knowledge that the public service which is entrusted with guarding public resources and executing decisions on behalf of the executive arm of government plays an indispensable role in the development and governance of a nation. As such, it must have in place a system of measures to create an environment of promoting ethics, accountability, integrity, transparency and professionalism.

**Induction**

The public service core values and standards cannot have much effect on the behavior of government employees unless they are effectively communicated and information about them is disseminated. The most popular method of communicating values and standards seems to be induction training when someone joins the public service. Unfortunately, very often induction programs are poorly conducted. The responses from the UNDESA (2001) study carried out in 10 African countries revealed that, first values and standards are insufficiently communicated after basic induction training of the public servants. And second, the prevention of corruption or
even inadvertent violation of standards has not been given proper attention through ethics advice or counseling. According to the UNDESA (2001) survey, the most frequently named values which should be inculcated among public servants are the clusters around: disinterestedness/impartiality/neutrality and honesty/integrity/professional ethics. Other values cited include: accuracy, accessibility, courage, culture of peace, decency, development – oriented, discipline, economy, effectiveness, financial security, good human resource management, honorability, leadership, meritocracy, obedience, punctuality, responsiveness, sense of reality and timeliness.

**Integrity Strategy and Procedures**

In order to manage the conduct of public servants, it entails having in place – among other systems – an overall national integrity strategy, sound human resource management practices, and comprehensive disclosure procedures. The UNDESA (2001) survey observed that although some African countries espouse a national integrity strategy or broad ethics or anti-corruption policies, few seem to have coordinating strategies in place.

Similarly, measures for guiding and managing the behaviors of government employees require enforcement procedures to be effective. The government as the employer, must have a way of enforcing minimal standards, not only to punish violations but also to serve as a deterrent for other contemplating similar actions. Essentially, managing the conduct of public servants means being able to monitor their behavior and detect any systematic failures that allow high degrees of misconduct in order to take prompt remedial action.

**Oversight Agencies**

Several governments have put in place various independent oversight agencies such as the Ombudsmen, Inspectors General, Auditors General, Public Accounts Committees (PAC) of Parliament etc. Such institutions help in monitoring the ethical behaviors of the public servants. They however need to have the institutional capacities to carry out their mandates. Unfortunately, most often than not, such institutions have complained of being underfunded and understaffed, among other hardship that confront them.

**Human Resource Management**

Fair and transparent HR policies and practices are the foundations of creating a professional and ethical public service. HRM, through upholding the merit principle in recruitment and
promotions, transparency in the selection process, sound performance management and setting a
good example by managers – plays a key role in creating an ethical environment. Further, well –
articulated and fair HR policies on appropriate remuneration, training opportunities, disciplinary
procedures and the like, if implemented and enforced, will promote a culture of professionalism
and pride.

The Uganda Case

There is abundant literature testifying the fact that in the 1960s and 1970s the Uganda Public
Service was characterized by a strong and strict adherence to the code of conduct (standing
orders) which had been inculcated by the colonial state (Langseth 1996). The Westminster
type model inherited by Uganda at independence in 1962 was based on the principle of meritocracy or
career of the open talent. Civil servants were recruited by open competition regardless of class,
ethnicity, race, sex or religion. Promotion was also based on merit and performance which was
determined through confidential annual reports on all civil servants.

Honesty, integrity, patriotism, incorruptibility and dedication to duty were the underlying pillars
of the Westminster civil service model (Mugaju, 1996). Ethics and morals of public officials
were regularly monitored through surveillance reports, and since remuneration levels were
largely satisfactory, public servants served the public meticulously (Uganda Inspectorate of

The 1970s saw a military government in Uganda and subsequent expulsion of Asians who were
the backbone of industrial and economic activity. The result was the ‘dearth” of economic
infrastructure, dwindling production, scarcity of essential commodities and unprecedented
inflation. This culminated into smuggling and emergence of black market marking the birth of
the “magendo” (speculative) economy and collapse of the public service as an institution.
Smuggling and black marketeering became lucrative while public service salaries were ridiculed.
The result was degeneration of morals, loss of values, emergence of greed and loss of
accountability in the public service. Deviant conduct including thefts and embezzlement became
the order of the day and public servants strived to eke out a living. Such deviant behaviors were
in form of embezzlement, diversion of resources, directly demanding for bribes and earning
illegally that entrenched corruption in the public service system leading to non – observance of
ethics and integrity (National Integrity Survey, 2008).

The current National Resistance Movement (NRM) government has attempted to put in place a
number of institutions and measures to combat corruption. Prominent among these include: The
Inspectorate of Government established by Article 223 of the 1995 Constitution of the Republic
of Uganda; Directorate of Ethics and Integrity; The Auditor General (Article 163); Directorate of
Public Prosecution; Public Accounts Committee. Even with a pool of these institutions still
government faces challenge of degenerating morals and high prevalence of corruption in the public service. Recently, the Ministry of Public Service introduced a Code of Conduct for the Uganda Public Service which sets out the standards of behavior for Uganda’s public servants. It is also designed to ensure the impartiality, objectivity, transparency, integrity, efficiency and effectiveness of public officers when performing their duties. This is a welcome development whose success will however largely depend on the serious implementation and enforcement measures which the government must put in place. Public servants must also realize that their ethical behaviors is a cornerstone to national development.

Corruption as a major unethical practice in Uganda has remained the major challenge in not only ensuring that public resources are utilized efficiently and prudently for the benefit of all Ugandans, but most importantly in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The Global Integrity (March 2009) reported that Uganda loses US $ 259 million a year through corruption and procurement. Global Integrity further reports that in the assessment of the country’s Auditor General, procurement accounts for 70% of public spending, of which 20% is lost via dishonest practices of government officials responsible for public funds. There has been tangible progress in establishing the required legal institutional framework to counter corruption. But as pointed out by Transparency International (2009), these efforts have yielded limited results. What is more worrying is the fact that in Uganda the demands for and payment of bribes are no longer secrets. People seem to glorify those who acquire wealth through graft while they ridicule those who uphold principles of integrity and moral values. This clearly shows that corruption is becoming an acceptable way of life (Uganda Inspectorate of Government Survey 2008).

In addition to corruption in human resource management, the Uganda Inspectorate of Government Survey (2008) investigated the different administrative injustices prevalent in public institutions. The most prevalent forms included unfair allocation of works, unfair disciplinary actions, inadequate staff resulting in failure to confirm staff; and victimization of junior staff by their seniors. Other vices were unfair transfers and polarization of staff by senior management through cliques. All these malpractices are indicators that ethics, integrity, transparency and professionalism still show some negative gaps in the Uganda Public Service.

Conclusion

It is rather disappointing that scandals involving public officials are common in most African governments. People are debating and complaining about outright corruption, lack of ethics, transparency, integrity and unprofessional behavior in government. In these discussions, the

34 http://www.commons.globalintegrity.org
public does not distinguish among those in government, whether they are elected political leaders or career public servants. In public perception, all are tainted by the same brush of guilt or indolence. This has to change if the citizens and the general public have to regain confidence in the public service institution. It is also important to realize that the war against corruption, an evil that threatens and weakens public officials’ ethics and integrity, cannot succeed if the community has come to accept it as a way of life. Therefore public awareness needs to be aroused about the evils of corruption and its implications to the economic and social structures of society.

In order to improve the ethics, integrity, transparency, accountability and professionalism in the public service, the following summarized recommendations, several of which have been suggested by UNDESA (2001) should be considered by the relevant governments of Africa:

- Uphold merit or professionalism
- Enforce public service regulations
- Improve remuneration
- Improve transparency in recruitment and other HR policies
- Strengthen ethics or anti-corruption legislations
- Implement Codes of Conduct
- Improve the induction programs
- Verify or make public disclosures of conflict of interest
- Give more resources and independence to investigating agencies
- Prosecute corrupt acts.

When the majority of the above recommendations are implemented and enforced, governments in Africa will once again regain glorified and well performing public administration systems which some people tend to believe that such systems were also “liberated” with the departure of colonialism.

References


Part Three: HRM Selected Issues
Chapter 12

Performance Management in the Public Service: The Case of Tanzania

Issa Faisal

The major lessons are that, since installation and effective use of the PMS components involve behavioural change, the process should be designed as a long-term endeavor, focus on a broader integrated PMS while trying as much as possible to sustain the momentum of change.

Introduction

Performance management in the public service is a fundamental component of the latest generation of the public service reforms of many countries in Africa including Tanzania. This chapter discusses the experience of implementing performance management systems with a specific focus in Tanzania’s public service. The chapter mainly intends to shed lights on the achievements and challenges faced in managing performance in the public service. The next section deals with conceptual issues and the subsequent one presents the contextual background of managing performance in Tanzania. In this section the context, rationale and methodology of managing public service performance in Tanzania are discussed. The chapter then focuses on discussing the experiences Tanzania has faced paying a specific focus on the results and challenges and ends by drawing some lessons.

Performance Management in the Public Service

The concept of performance management has been one of the most important and positive developments in the sphere of human resource management (HRM) in recent years. The phrase was first coined by Beer and Ruh in 1976. But it did not become recognized as a distinctive approach until the mid-1980s, growing out of the realization that a more continuous and integrated approach was needed to manage and reward performance. The Oxford English Dictionary defines performance as “the accomplishment, execution, carrying out, and working out of anything ordered or undertaken”. This refers to outputs/outcomes (accomplishment) but the dictionary also states that performance is about doing the work as well as about the results achieved. “Performance” could therefore be regarded as, behaviour - the way in which organizations, teams and individuals get work done. Performance management is, therefore, a means of getting better results from the organizational teams and individuals by understanding and measuring performance within an agreed framework of goals, standards and competence requirements. Performance management is also concerned with employee development. This is because performance improvement is not achievable unless there are effective programs to facilitate continuous development. At the same time,

performance management is concerned with satisfying the needs and expectations of all the organization’s stakeholders and indeed the public in its entirety.

Performance of the public service is perceived in terms of its capacity to effectively and efficiently deliver public service delivery to the society as well as meeting the development goals and objectives of a country. The capacity of the public service to perform, including the capacity for carrying out high quality policy making functions depends on the nature of the policy environment. On the other hand, the capacity of public institutions is developed through restructuring existing public institutions and through the creation of more appropriate institutions. It is also developed by introducing new systems and enhancing the capacity of individual public service staff. Often capacity development at individual and organizational level has called for putting in place systems of performance and incentive frameworks. Public servants behavior is an important aspect of developing the capacity for better performance of the public service. In particular, behavior relating to honesty and ethical standards and adherence to rules and regulations has been given attention in public service reforms.

The background context of Managing performance in Tanzania’s Public Service

Tanzania, like other African countries, has faced the daunting tasks of nation-building and promoting social-economic development. Since attaining independence in 1961, Tanzania’s (then Tanganyika) political leadership identified poverty, disease and ignorance as the most critical enemies to the country’s development. Deliberate and focused efforts, were made in order to confront the three inseparable enemies. In the first place, Tanzania introduced socialist reforms which gave the government control of the commanding heights of the economy. Later in the mid-1980s, and in 1990s, partly in response to the economic crisis, a shift was made by introducing a market-oriented economy associated with private sector led development.

Secondly, in the 1990s the Government introduced strategies aimed at poverty reduction and economic growth. These included the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) more popularly referred to as MKUKUTA36 (the Swahili acronym). MKUKUTA has three broad outcome areas or clusters: Growth and reduction of income poverty; improved quality of life and social well-being; and, Governance and accountability. This strategy is informed by Tanzania’s Vision 2025 and committed to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). It has an increased focus on growth and governance, and is an instrument for mobilizing efforts and resources towards its outcomes. Furthermore, the Government is implementing sector specific development programs, including those for Agriculture, Health, and Education. Thirdly, the Government has introduced political liberalization and democratization.

36 The MKUKUTA, which was prepared in 2005, is the successor to Tanzania’s Poverty Reduction Strategy.
In spite of the economic and governance reforms introduced by the Government, the Public Service of Tanzania continued to face numerous challenges. These include massive growth and huge structures in terms of number of institutions and employees; unmanageable public expenditure; low revenue collections; lowly paid and unmotivated public servants; poor service delivery to citizens; low accountability; and poor performance in most of the public service institutions. Accordingly measures were taken in the 1990s under the Civil Service Reform Program (CSRP) to address the above challenges. CSRP, implemented between 1993 and 1998, was largely concerned with cost containment; contracting and streamlining Government structures; reduction in the number of employees and wage bill controls; installation of an Integrated Human Resources and Payroll Management System (IHRPMS); improvement of pay structure and enhanced salary levels; restructuring and decentralisation for improved service delivery; capacity building; and improvement of policy and legislative to sustain reforms. Some achievements were registered, though the problems of poor service delivery to the public, lower productivity in relation to expenditure levels, lower levels of accountability reflected by corruption, in some cases embezzlement and negligence, lower pay and weak management systems remained unresolved. This situation forced the Government to embark on performance related reforms, in the form of the Public Service Reform Programme (PSRP)

The Public Service Reform Programme

The Public Service Reform Programme (PSRP) which is being implemented in a series of overlapping but mutually supporting phases aims at the improvement of public service delivery through improved performance management of public services. The first phase spanning the year 2000 to June 2007 adapted the theme of “Instituting Performance Management Systems”. This was specifically aimed at building an integrated system for creating a shared vision, understanding and agreement about the results to be achieved, and the operational framework for continuous performance improvement in standards and quality of public service delivery in Tanzania. The second phase, whose implementation commenced in 2008, is expected to run until June 2012, and it flies under the banner of “Enhanced performance and Accountability”. The third phase is envisioned to operate from July 2012 to June 2017; its thrust set to be “Quality Improvement Cycle”. The implementation process of the PSRP is spearheaded by the President’s Office-Public Service Management (PO-PSM).

Objectives of the Performance Management Systems interventions

The installed performance management systems aim at having in place predictable, effective and efficient systems for planning, implementation, monitoring, evaluation and reporting in the public services of Tanzania. The overall objectives of these interventions are to: (i)
provide quality public service to the public; (ii) improve performance of public service institutions; (iii) improve accountability and responsiveness; (iv) ensure effective and efficient use of public resources; and, (v) provide standards for providing comparisons and benchmarking within the public service institutions in Tanzania as well as other public service institutions across the world for continuous improvement.

The PSRP is implemented by the government of Tanzania in order to improve service delivery, policy management and regulatory functions through a more vigorous and rigorous Public Service. PMS in Tanzania is geared at improving the efficiency and effectiveness in public service delivery, consequently ensuring value for money. It is one of the reform initiatives that provide a means to improve the effectiveness of the MDAs by linking and aligning individual, team and the public service objectives and results.

PM also addresses what the employees do (their work), how they do it (their behavior) and what they achieve (their results). In totality and practice, performance management in Tanzania embraces all formal and informal measures adopted by the public service entities to increase organizational, team and individual effectiveness. Performance management process is not an isolated function. It is concerned with continuous development of knowledge, skills and competencies of public servants.

Policy and Legal Frameworks

The installation of the PMS in Tanzania public service institutions was in consonant with the Public Service Management and Employment Policy of 1999 (PSMEP) and the Public Service Act, No. 8 of 2002 (PSA). The two instruments facilitated the institutionalization of performance management system in the public service. The policy stipulated clearly the need for a performance and results-oriented management philosophy in the public service. The Act provides an enabling legal framework for managing performance in the public service. These instruments were important in order to give PM initiative in the public service a legal status. The policy and legislation were important instruments to facilitate a gradual creation of performance-accountability culture in the public service.

Conceptual Framework for PMS in Tanzania: The Performance Improvement Model

The Government of Tanzania views PMS as a series of integrated tools, components or approaches used in planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation and reviewing of activities implemented by staff in public service organizations as well as at the overall organizational level for continuous improvement in organizational performance and service

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delivery. PMS is seen as a tool for building a shared understanding and agreement on results to be achieved; the approach, development and deployment of resources; assessment and review of activities implemented for continuous improvement in standards of service delivery within a public service institution and across the public service. Tanzania’s efforts towards improving performance and service delivery across the public service have mainly focussed on implementation of a broader integrated PMS using the Performance Improvement Model (PIM).

Prior to implementation of the PMS in Tanzania, the Government developed a broader framework for introducing and installing PMS known as Performance Improvement Model (PIM). The PIM shown in Figure 13.1, was developed, tested and officially accepted by the Government of Tanzania as a tool for instituting PM across the public service. The model, currently being implemented in MDAs and Local Government Authorities (LGAs) since year 1999, is a four stage interlinked process comprised of a series of integrated tools, components or approaches for planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation and performance reviews.

**Figure 13.1 Performance Improvement Model**

![Table 1: Performance Improvement Model - PIM](image)

**Stage 1: Planning**

Planning is the first stage in PMS installation process. At this stage, MDA’s are required to use a number of tools including Service Delivery Surveys (SDSs), Self-Assessment (SA), Strategic Plans, 3 years Operational plans, and Annual Action plans:
(i) **Service Delivery Surveys** - MDAs have to undertake these surveys which focus on external customers and are meant to provide feedback on the level and quality of services offered, areas of improvement and benchmarking information. The feedback obtained becomes an input into the strategic planning process.

(ii) **Self-Assessments** - Each MDA conducts internal organizational scan which focuses on internal customers using the European Foundation of Quality Management (EFQM) Model. Staff gives feedback on the quality of leadership, people’s management, policy and strategies, internal processes, stakeholders' engagement and resource management and services offered to customers. The aim is to assess the strategies applied in these areas and provide feedback on areas of improvements. This feedback is also an important input into the strategic planning process.

(iii) **Strategic Plans**: MDAs prepare three years strategic plans which contain the Institution’s Vision, Mission, core values, objectives, strategies, targets, indicators, results framework and monitoring and evaluation plan. The strategic plan, among other things, addresses areas of improvement indicated in both the Service Delivery Surveys and Self-Assessment Reports.

(iv) **Medium Term Expenditure Framework (Operational Plan)** - After preparation of the strategic plan, each MDA has to prepare a three year Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) as a tool for operationalizing the strategic plan. It is at this level that the plans are linked to performance budgets by taking the objectives and targets in the plan and developing activities, determining inputs and undertake costing. The interface between planning and budgeting is a key pillar of the PIM.

(v) **Annual Plans** - Each MDA prepares an annual implementation plan derived from their MTEFs and approved budgets. This provides an important link between planning, implementation and the resource envelop.

**Stage 2: Implementation**

This is the second stage in installation of PMS. At implementation stage, MDAs use (i) the Open Performance Review and Appraisal System (OPRAS) and, (ii) Client Service Charters (CSCs) for operationalizing their Strategic plans, Operational plans and Annual Action Plans. OPRAS is a system which requires every public servant to sign an individual performance agreement with his/her immediate supervisor which sets performance targets for the year. The performance agreement contains objectives, targets, performance criteria and resources required for implementing the performance agreement. The agreement is the basis for staff performance appraisal. The performance agreement derives its annual targets from the annual plan and budget. This link cascades down the implementation of plan to individual staff and thus enhances individual accountability. On the other hand, each MDA is required to prepare a CSC that informs clients and stakeholders the type of services offered, service standards.
and service commitments, service delivery approach, the rights and obligations of the clients and complaints channel/mecchanism in case the services offered are below the set standard.

Stage 3: Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting

This is the third stage in PMS installation process. At this stage of Monitoring, Evaluation and Reporting, MDAs are supposed to use a Monitoring and Evaluation System (M&E System) for tracking, gathering, analyzing, interpreting and generating performance information on progress of implementation of its strategic plan against pre-determined indicators; and evaluating whether the interventions are achieving the intended results i.e. outputs and outcomes. The M&E system provides a link within and across the PIM components.

Stage 4: Performance Reviews

The fourth stage involves undertaking performance reviews i.e. mid and annual reviews using the PMS tools such as OPRAS, SDSs, SAs and M&E system. The results of performance reviews inform the next planning stage. This process is continuous and ongoing, i.e. the results of Performance reviews inform the next planning stage and the process starts again.

Tanzania Experiences in implementing PMS

The installation of PMS using PIM centers on the strategic plans and starts with conducting SDSs and SAs and ends with implementation of MandE systems. In the first place MDAs are required to conduct SDSs and SAs as part and parcel of strategy formulation. These surveys would identify the areas of improvement from the point of view of the clients and stakeholders. Backed by the results of SDSs and SAs, MDAs would then prepare three year strategic plans which would incorporate the areas of improvement identified in the SDSs SAs. The strategic plans would also incorporate critical issues identified during situation analysis (organizational scan), lessons learnt from implementation of past strategic plans as well as best practices from public service organizations from within and outside the country. The next steps in the installation process is preparation of a three year Medium Term Expenditure Framework (3 year Operational Plan and Performance Budget) based on the strategic plan; preparation of annual plans; implementation of the plans using various PMS tools, including OPRAS and CSCs; and, monitoring and evaluation of performance based on well-defined MandE System. This PMS installation process is described in Figure 13.2, below.
Installation of PMS in MDAs has been undertaken with varied degrees of success. Initially PMS was installed in 26 Ministries, 9 Independent Departments, 28 Executive Agencies and 21 Regional Secretariats. The process included carrying out SDSs, SAs, preparation of Strategic Plans, Operational Plans and Annual plans. Furthermore, OPRAS and CSCs were introduced in most MDAs. The Performance Improvement Fund (PIF) was made operational to allow MDAs access additional financial resources in support of performance improvement initiatives emerging from PMS installation and included retooling component. It is also worth mentioning that PMS guidelines and manuals were developed for use by MDAs. These included guidelines for OPRAS, CSCs, and Strategic Planning and Budgeting. These provided clarity and focus in PMS implementation.

There is a general acceptance among public service managers on the benefits of installation and application of PMS components in improving management of MDAs. Strategic Planning and MTEF have been harmonised and integrated. This has created a foundation for successful

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### Table 2: PMS Implementation Approach in Tanzania

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<tr>
<th>Critical Issues</th>
<th>Situation Analysis</th>
<th>Service Delivery Surveys</th>
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<tr>
<td>Vision, Mission and Values</td>
<td>Self Assessment</td>
<td>Best Practices</td>
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<td>Strategic Plans (3 year)</td>
<td>Current Strategic Plans</td>
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<td>Vision; Mission; Core Value; Objectives; Strategies; Targets; KPIs; Result Framework and M&amp;E Plan</td>
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<td>3 year budget estimates</td>
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<td>Annual Action Plan</td>
<td>Client Service Charter</td>
<td>OPRAS System</td>
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implementation and use of performance management systems in MDAs. In spite of these achievements, PMS still faces many challenges. We summarize some of the issues and challenges facing strategic and operational planning, service delivery surveys, self-assessment programs, Client Service Charters, Open Performance Review and Appraisal System (OPRAS), and Monitoring and Evaluation (MandE) systems.

(a) Strategic and Operational Planning

Tanzania has undertaken a number of initiatives aimed at improving performance in terms of planning, monitoring and reporting processes. The major objective is to get MDAs to focus on their outputs (i.e. what they produce) or their outcomes (what they achieve) and results rather than their inputs (the money they spend and the efforts). Strategic Plans usually cover 3 to 5 years while operational plans generally cover a period of one year. Tanzania’s planning system is illustrated in Figure 13.3. In the course of instituting the strategic and operational planning tool or mechanism the following problems/and or challenges were encountered.\(^{38}\)

(i) Initially, Tanzania’s planning process was characterized by overlapping jurisdictions especially at the institutional level. Whereas MTEF which overtime evolved into use as the Government’s main plan was championed by the Ministry of Finance, the Performance Management Systems (PMS) which is a broader planning and monitoring system was championed by PO-PSM. The key players were acting unilaterally to address individual deficiencies. Furthermore, there were duplications and unresolved links between planning levels (like the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP), popularly referred to as MKUKUTA\(^ {39}\) and institutional plans), processes and systems. At operational level, almost all MDAs tended to work from their MTEF rather than their sector plans or the PMS plans;

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\(^{38}\) This is based on the study by Dr. Benson A. Bana, “Performance Management in the Tanzania Public Service”, A Paper Presented at the Conference on Governance Excellence: Managing Human Potential” held at Arusha International Conference Centre, United Republic of Tanzania, from 2\(^{nd}\) – 4\(^{th}\) March, 2009

\(^{39}\) MKUKUTA is a Kiswahili acronym which in English language denotes the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP).
(ii) In some MDAs there is weak ownership of plans due to poor or non-participation of top management during the planning process;

(iii) The tools to help government plan were insufficient and the competency (knowledge and creativity) required to create high quality plans was somewhat inadequate. Accordingly, strategic and operational plans of many MDAs are still of poor quality. A major challenge facing MDAs is drawing up objectives and targets which are SMART and outcome oriented;

(iv) Sometimes Plans were not updated to reflect changing circumstances. Despite the level of detail contained in the MTEF and its use as a tool for tracking expenditure, the MTEF was not used as a tool to guide weekly operations at departmental level, and it was not adjusted to reflect the apparently lower-than-budgeted quarterly disbursement from the Ministry of Finance;
(v) A lot of monitoring was taking place in Government. However, most of the monitoring was informal and often non-systematic.

With time and experience, however, some of these problems have now been resolved by harmonizing Strategic Planning and the MTEF. Strategic Planning is now integrated into the MTEF. This is a three year rolling plan and it is technically the government’s budget\(^{40}\). Its expenditures are monitored and controlled through the Government’s Integrated Financial Management System (IFMS)^{41}.

(b) Service Delivery Surveys

The SDSs were meant to provide input into the strategic planning process and provide baseline data. Still there are a number of challenges facing SDSs:

♦ In some instances, the surveys did not fully precede the strategic planning process and the results were fed in the process at a later stage;

♦ Some MDAs did not receive well the outcome of the surveys as the surveys pointed out their weaknesses and shortfalls;

♦ Costs of conducting the surveys brought in the issue of sustainability as the challenge is whether the MDAs would on their own be able and willing to commit resources for the exercise in the future.

(c) Self Assessments

Though, SAs component provided a systematic tool for assessing internal strengths and weaknesses, a number of issues and challenges need to be addressed:

♦ The EFQM model which originally guided self-assessments in MDAs seemed to be too technical and complicated to the extent that its results in some instances were not useful to the strategic planning process.

♦ Some MDAs misunderstood the purpose of the exercise and defensively scored themselves very high because of the perception that a low score would impact negatively on their image, to the extent that the results did not reflect their strengths and weaknesses.

♦ As indicated, in SDSs, costs of SAs and sustainability have been an issue.

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\(^{41}\) Although the MTEF is three years, the IFMS works on a one year cycle.
(d) Open Performance Appraisal and Review System (OPRAS)

As part and parcel of PMS, OPRAS (designed to manage individual performance in public service institutions) was introduced in 2004. The OPRAS which aligns the objectives of the individual officer with that of the department/division/unit/section to the objectives of the organization is intended to be used in all public service institutions. OPRAS replaced the ‘Closed Annual Confidential Report System (CACRS) which was used before in order to assess the performance of employees in the public service institutions. The CACRS was limited and largely generated one-sided information on the performance of employees in the public service.

The OPRAS requires all public servants and their managers to develop their personal objectives based on strategic planning process and the organizations’ respective service delivery targets\(^\text{42}\). To develop the individual performance plan, both the supervisor and subordinate have to agree on performance objectives, performance targets, performance criteria and required resources in order to achieve the set targets and objectives. The appraisal system which provides the opportunity for dialogue between the appraiser and the appraised is more likely to improve performance than a system of staff appraisal which is closed and unilateral. Moreover, there must be Mid-Year Review (MYR), which is important in order to keep track of the employee-cum appraisee’s progress in terms of meeting the annual personal objectives and to identify the resources needs that will be required to carry out the remaining six-months plan.

The installation of OPRAS by all MDAs has been made mandatory and the requirement is embodied in the Public Service Legislation\(^\text{43}\). About 2,500 public servants were trained on the use of OPRAS from the year 2004 to 2008. However anecdotal evidence reveals that:

- The adoption and institutionalization of OPRAS in the MDAs has been patchy. The compliance rate is estimated to be about 51 percent for, arguably, a variety of reasons\(^\text{44}\).
- There are claims that the initial OPRAS forms were overly complicated to complete and they were not context-sensitive to different professional cadres in the public service.
- Some public servants remained skeptical of their intended use especially for promotion purposes.
- Little dissemination took place at the middle and lower levels of the MDAs or in field offices. The prognosis however is for their increasing use as the staff becomes more familiar with the technique\(^\text{45}\).

\(^{42}\) By organization we refer to the following: i.e. sector, department, division, unit or section.


♦ In some MDAs, OPRAS lacks the support or push of the supervisors.

♦ At present, universities are experimenting the use of OPRAS- Mzumbe University and Open University of Tanzania have been battling with unique challenges including of reporting to more than one superior on the part of academic staff.

(e) **Client Service Charters**

The CSCs were to be developed by all MDAs and Regional Secretariats. The charters were intended to support the peoples’ demand for accountability at institutional level. The implementation of CSCs has been met with some challenges\(^46\) as highlighted below.

♦ Most of the CSCs are not operational in the MDAs. They, thus remain internal documents that are not influencing service quality,

♦ Citizens are not using them for demanding services;

♦ In some instances, the service standards set in the charter were either overambitious or too trivial.; and

♦ MDAs have not monitored the impacts of the charters and have not reviewed or amended them to generate greater legitimacy.

(f) **Monitoring and Evaluation**

Successful implementation of strategic and operation plans require a full-fledged Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) system. Useful information pertaining to the implementation of the plans must be collected from different data sources, including surveys; routine component level monitoring reports; and routine activity-level monitoring reports. Key information products must be produced including semi-annual progress reports; annual progress reports; mid-term evaluation reports; phase completion reports; and impact evaluation reports. The information generated must enable different stakeholders to determine whether the strategic and operational plans are achieving the intended strategic goals and objectives or not. These are in terms of outputs, outcomes and impact of the plans.

The public service in Tanzania, using different data sources and data gathering instruments, has developed a culture of producing progress reports on the implementation of strategic and operational plans every quarter, six months and year’s end reports to the stakeholders. On the other hand, there are still a number of issues and challenges in that regard. These include the following:

\(^{45}\) Ibid. p. 13

\(^{46}\) World Bank, op.cit. p. 13.
A need for incentives to monitor and evaluate within MDAs and across the public service is still a challenge

Too much focus was put on the technological part and computerized systems rather than institutionalization of the basic concepts of M and E

HR capacity in M and E is still a challenge in the public service bearing in mind that the field is relatively new

**Conclusions and Lessons**

This chapter has discussed the Tanzania experience in installing PMS, its achievements, issues, challenges and lesson learnt during implementation of PMS. The major lessons are that, since installation and effective use of the PMS components involve behavioural change, the process should be designed as a long-term endeavor, focus on a broader integrated PMS while trying as much as possible to sustain the momentum of change. As the focus shifts from PMS installation to making MDAs use the tools to improve the management of MDAs, it will be necessary to pay attention to a number of issues and challenges and learn from them. The more important lessons include the following:

(i) **Effective ownership of the PMS process by the MDAs**

Initially the PMS process was implemented in a supply driven basis by POPSM through determining the systems to be installed and timing of their installation. There was inadequate consultation with MDAs in planning as well as participation of top level management during the installation process. To be more effective, the process needs to be owned and driven by the MDAs themselves. This approach is now being applied in Phase II of PSRP.

(ii) **Continuous Capacity Building on PMS matters across the Public Service**

Most of the PMS concepts are still new to most of the public servants. Thus intensive training and retraining is required on continuous basis to ensure that the PMS concepts are institutionalized and embedded across the public service. The emphasis should be on how the PMS components can be used to enhance performance of employees, the MDAs and service delivery.

(iii) **Continuous Development of PMS Guidelines and Manuals**

The guidelines and manuals used by Government facilitators and Consultants during the PMS installation process were not clear and detailed enough. On the part of the MDAs, it becomes difficult for them to sustain the introduced changes without clear guidelines and manuals to refer to. The focus should be on continuous review and development of clear and detailed guidelines and manuals.
(iv) Establishing Proper linkage between the PMS Components

Installation and implementation of the components in MDAs was frustrated by poor linkages, absence of coherence and integration within and across the PMS components. Effective operation and positive impacts on MDA’s use of the eight PMS components depends on their effective linkage, coherence and integration within and across them. Since the PMS components were meant to be dependent and operate in unison, the emphasis should be on establishing coherence and making sure that MDAs understand clearly the linkages within and across the components.

(v) Continuous Improvement of the PMS Process and Components and Documentation

The PMS process was done without adequate attention to reviewing, redesigning and documenting processes and procedures within and across the components. Adequate attention should be given to improving the quality of PMS process and components and their documentation, including increasing the number of components whenever need arises.

Linking PMS Process with Incentives, Rewards and Sanctions

The PMS process was not linked with incentives, rewards and sanctions. Future work in the area should explore the application of the incentives, rewards and sanctions above.

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Chapter 13

Attracting and Retaining the Best Talent in African Public Services:

Challenges and Strategies

John-Mary Kauzya

But has there been empirical research in each Public Service on the continent and indeed in each institution and jobs to determine exactly which factors are at play in making the Public Service attractive or not? Such an empirical study needs to be undertaken to inform the decisions of the Public service in its attempt to attract the best talent for its employees.

Introduction

In this chapter, the author departs from an observation that Africa is still lagging behind, not only in the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), but also in development in general. The chapter is premised on the understanding that this calls for the best talent in the Public Service in Africa. The author then enters into a discussion on the problematic of inadequate human and institutional capacities linked mainly to the degraded image of the Public Service in many African countries. Beginning with a brief analysis of the contextual background mainly composed of Public Service Reforms, the chapter poses and discusses critical questions related to the challenge of how to attract and retain the best talent in the Public Service in Africa. The chapter adopts a strategic outlook and discusses issues of how to increase the pool of talent in Africa, how the Public Service can beat the competition with the private sector for the best talent, the reasons why the public Service needs to attract and retain the best talent, the influence of governance on the ability of the Public Service to attract and retain the best personnel, the kind of talent that is needed by the Public Service in Africa, the need to provide institutional and systemic support to efforts of developing the human capacities, and what needs to be done, more than what is already being done, to strengthen the human resource capacities in the Public Service in Africa.

Contextual Background: Africa’s Development Challenges

In April 2007, the International Monetary Fund noted that Sub-Saharan Africa's growth performance during the previous three years had been the best in more than three decades (IMF 2007). But a year after meeting in Addis Ababa Ethiopia, World financial institutions, including the African Development Bank (AFDB), the World Bank and International Monitory Fund (IMF), expressed their fear that Africa would be affected by the global financial crisis. And that the continent’s growth would witness a 50% growth decline. The OECD confirmed in July 2009 and indicated that “following half a decade of above 5 per

47 http://emergingminds.org
cent economic growth, the continent can expect only 2.8 per cent in 2009, less than half of the 5.7 per cent expected before the crisis” (OECD, 2008). In its June 2009 progress report, the Africa Progress Panel (APP)\(^{48}\), noted that Africa now faces the extraordinary task, at a time of economic crisis, of maintaining stability and progress, including growth, poverty reduction and achievement of the Millennium Development Goals”. The Panel called for clear sighted African leadership and stated that primary responsibility for Africa’s progress rests with her political leaders. In this chapter the author contends that in addition to its political leaders, Africa must be able to count on its managerial, administrative and technical leadership to enhance and sustain its development. The chapter calls on Public Sector Human Resource Managers in Africa to take up their leadership role as the custodians of the most important resource Africa has to count on for its development, the human resource.

On all the Millennium Development Goals, African countries are largely lagging behind and many may not achieve the targets by 2015. What this means is that many African people still survive on a miserable one dollar per day, stay hungry for long, many mothers die during child birth, many babies die before the age of five years, many African women in many African countries are not effectively participating in decision making, the environment is constantly destroyed, and productive private public partnerships are not effectively created and taken advantage of to support the development process. In addition to the MDGs, there are other internationally agreed development agenda including regional ones such as the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) which need to be translated into tangible results to uplift the African people from poverty. Most African countries are in a situation of both hope and desperation whereby on one hand there is acknowledged growth and improvement in many respects including in governance while on the other there are lots of challenges that need to be addressed in order to get the people of Africa out of the claws of abject poverty. There is a tendency to focus attention to the management of finances for implementing projects and programs aimed at achieving the MDGs and indeed this is important. However, in this context, managing the human resource is no lighter matter. Of all the resources that go into implementing any project or program, none is more important than the human resources. Even a tractor cannot drive itself!

The challenges facing Africa in its quest to achieve the MDGs and development in general can be adequately addressed only by competent, committed, and talented people. And so Africa needs to avail itself of serious, competent and committed people to spearhead efforts to address its development challenge. Commitments such as the MDGs, NEPAD objectives, as well as those expressed in numerous national development strategies and many more that are to come in future as Africa searches for a route to exit the poverty trap, will not come to

\(^{48}\) The Africa Progress Panel (APP) was formed as a vehicle to maintain a focus on the commitments to Africa made by the international community in the wake of the Gleneagles G8 and of the Commission for Africa Report in 2007. Under the chairmanship of Kofi Annan, it is paying equal attention to the implementation of Africa’s commitments as set out in the Constitutive Act of the African Union and landmark international agreements. See [http://africaprogresspanel.socialmediarelease.co.za](http://africaprogresspanel.socialmediarelease.co.za)
fruits if they are not supported and sustained by adequate capacities, including those in the Public Service. Capacity building in the Public Service in terms of institutions and human resources is a pressing and important prerequisite for development. The knowledge, know-how and skills, networks and attitudes of personnel in the Public Service are at the heart of the performance of States because it is through them and by them that services are planned and delivered, critical innovations conceived and realised and needed reforms carried out. For this reason, there is need to attract and retain the best talent in the public service in Africa to enable it spearhead the initiation, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of development policies, strategies, programs and projects with responsiveness, effectiveness, efficiency, economy, integrity, ethics, professionalism, transparency and accountability.

How then can the Public service in Africa overcome the numerous challenges to avail itself of adequate human capacity to enable it fulfil the obligations of developing its people? The Public Sector must recruit and retain its fair share of the best talent. This critical challenge for the Public Service poses a number of important questions as highlighted in the next section.

Critical Questions related to Staffing in the Public Service

What is the current state of staffing in terms of numbers, knowledge, skills, attitude etc. in the Public service in African countries? To answer such a question, one would need to undertake a comprehensive stock-taking and analysis of Public Service employees in every country. This chapter cannot claim to have conducted such an extensive and laborious exercise. Reading through Public/Civil Service Reform documents in a number of African countries, it is evident that the public Service has for long been experiencing difficulties in recruiting and retaining competent staff let alone talented ones. The situation may vary from country to country but it is generally acknowledged that recruiting and retaining professionally knowledgeable, skilled, committed, talented, and motivated personnel in the Public Service constitutes a daunting challenge in African countries. The worrying concern is that existing levels of talent in the Public Service in many countries in Africa cannot support and sustain the achievement of the development aspirations of the continent, let alone the MDGs. Another worry may be expressed in terms of a question:

- Does the Public Service in Africa really aim at attracting the best talent? If yes, through what approaches and methodologies is this done and with what results?
- If the stock-taking and analysis of the staffing in the Public Service arrives at the conclusion that existing levels of talent in the Public Service in many countries in Africa cannot support and sustain the achievement of the development aspirations of the continent, let alone the MDGs, then there is a subsequent critical question which is

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related to the first one. Where did the Public Service go wrong to have its attractiveness and capacity eroded and what can be done to reverse this process and address the situation? Where did it all begin? Where will it end? How can it end?

- If the Public Service must recruit and retain the best talent, what talent should be targeted? What are the talents (skills, knowledge, and attitudes) that are critical to the performance of the Public Service and through what approaches, methodologies and practices can such talents be identified, attracted, recruited, nurtured, developed, deployed and utilised?

- In the context of Africa where issues of poor governance are paramount on the table, we need also to ask ourselves the question of to what extent the best talent can be utilised for optimum performance in the context of a poor governance environment. Is it realistic to expect the Public Service to attract the best personnel in the context of poor governance? What are the governance issues that must be addressed in order to provide a context that is conducive for the Public Service to be attractive and to recruit and retain the best talent?

**The Need to Review the State Public Sector Staffing and Reversing the Trend of its Human Capacity and Image Erosion**

The Millennium Development Goals or any other Development objectives for that matter will not be achieved within the context of an ineffective public service. In many African countries, there have been for quite some time now, in fact since the 1980s at the beginning of Structural Adjustment Programs (SAPs), various efforts of Public Service Reforms. The reforms have gone through a three phased trend as follows:

- The first wave of reforms was from roughly the mid-80s to mid-90s with its preoccupation being the restructuring of the Public Service.

- The second wave mainly in the late 1990s focused on capacity building; and

- The third one which begun in about 2000 with the major purpose of enhancing performance in the delivery of services.

We cannot present in this chapter a detailed balance sheet of the positive and negative impact these reforms have had on the nature and performance of the Public service in Africa or even on its attractiveness. Researchers and scholars in Public Administration would do a lot of service to Africa’s Public Service if they put effort in studying and documenting these reforms in terms of their motivations, processes, and impact. In fact, it should also be one of the tasks of human resources managers in the public service to conduct such studies because
the results would constitute critical inputs in the process of planning for attraction, retention and development of the best talent in the public service.

However, let us make the following observations about the impact of some of the reforms. In most cases the first generation reforms (the structural reforms) which emphasized reduction of the number of Public Servants and wage bills are assessed in terms of how many Public servants were retrenched and by what percentage the wage bills were reduced. Few examples are provided below.

- **Ghana**: The “Programme for Economic Recovery and Structural Adjustment” of 1983 reduced the number of central government employees from 301,000 in 1986 to 260,000 in 1990.

- **Uganda**: Between 1990 and 1997, the numbers on the Government’s payroll was reduced by more than half, from roughly 320,000 to 147,000. The number of ministries was also reduced from 39 to 17.

- **Tanzania**: Between 1992 and 1997, Government workforce was reduced by about 30 percent from about 355,000 to approximately 270,000.

- **Zambia**: From 1997 when retrenchment earnestly started up to the beginning of 2000, the total number in government employment fell from 139,000 to 102,000.

This is well and good since these were part of the objectives of the reforms. However, we need to look at the long term impact this has had on the civil service. It is very much associated with loss of jobs, and summary retrenchment. This reduces the attractiveness of the Public Service. No one wants to join a Public Service that retrenches its employees at the whim of the IMF or the World Bank or any recommendation from any other consulting firm. Secondly, with the recruitment freeze that was associated with the first generation reforms, the brightest graduates from Universities or the best job seekers were not looking in the Public Service and the Public service was not looking for them either. Therefore, the Public Service could not work towards being the employer of first choice since it was not recruiting anyway. Retrenchment and recruitment freeze also hurt performance of the Public Service even in critical areas such as education, health, and support personnel further eroding the image of the Public Service and hence making it unattractive to the best talent.

However, there is need to remain conscious of the fact that the first generation reforms were, in some countries, a response to the seriously damaged nature, performance and image of the Public Service. For example, in Uganda “as government had over stretched itself in terms of activities and employment against a background of economic decline, its financial resources were thinly spread and overstretched. Government activities came to be characterised by under-capitalization and under-funding. As civil service terms and conditions of service declined, the morale of civil servants sank, and corrupt tendencies grew by leaps and bounds” (Katorobo, 1999:62). In such conditions, working in the Public Service was not a
matter of commitment to service but a spring board for survival and self-aggrandisement. Part of the objectives of the reforms was to reverse the trend of Civil Service degradation.

While the pursuit of these objectives has been generally praised in the sense that it prepared Public Service to embark on capacity building, it remains true that the idea of working for government no longer inspires people with the best talent (James, 2001). Being a Public Servant has become less attractive and less motivating than being a manager or an employee in a private enterprise. And this is a real problem for the Public Service in Africa. It is now critical that the glory of Public Service be reinstated. Without reversing the trend of Public Service human capacity erosion, it is impossible for the Public Service to attract and retain a fair share of the best talent. Each country should ensure that it is not left with a government or Public Service of the mediocre, locked into careers of last resort or waiting for a chance to move on to other sectors or jobs.

The second wave of reforms mainly in the late 1990s focused on capacity building: The key interventions in this second wave of Public Service Reforms included skills enhancement emphasizing on-the-job and short-term training; systems and structural development including those for human resources, financial and information management; pay and incentives improvements and; improving the work environment including raising budgetary allocations for operations and maintenance expenditures as well as office equipment and re-tooling. Criticizing the public service reforms in some African countries, Kithinji Kiragu observes that “even in those countries where major downsizing of the Public Service had taken place, there was limited progress in pay reform. The resources released from retrenchment were not enough to appreciably lift the low salaries of Public Servants. Consequently, morale and discipline in the Public Service remained low, and unethical conduct in ways of bribery and corruption were on the rise. In the circumstances, service delivery continued to deteriorate in most countries throughout the 1990s” (Kiragu, 2002). In other words, the Public Service remained unattractive to the best talent despite the reforms aimed at capacity building.

The third generation of Public Service reforms focused on improving the delivery of services. However, there seems to be a continued assumption that the services can improve without specific and sustained efforts for improving the image and quality of personnel in the Public Service. Because of this, the Public Service in most African countries is stuck with the challenge of how to attract and retain the best talented personnel in the Public Service, a question that should have been addressed as part of the Reforms right from the beginning. The paper will now turn to this critical issue.

**Attracting and retaining the best talent in the Public Service: A strategic Perspective**

As the diagram below illustrates, attracting and retaining the best talent in the Public Service is a very strategic matter (Figure 14.1). A strategic outlook of attracting and retaining the best talent in the Public Service requires first and foremost an analysis of the internal and external
environment of the Public Service to determine the supply and demand of the talent. A number of questions need to be addressed here.

- What talent does the current and future Public Service need?
- Does such talent exist in the environment? If not, what are the policies and strategies that can provide an environment full of the talent that will be needed by the current and future Public Service?
- Who are the competitors for the same talent?
- What strategies should the Public Service adopt to beat the competition, attract and retain the best talent?
- And what should the human resource managers do in their daily routine work to attract the best talent in the public service?

In short, attracting and retaining the best talent in the Public Service is a highly strategic issue that requires, in the first place, high quality strategic analysis and planning. Therefore, another question the Public Service in Africa needs to address is that of ascertaining whether the Public Service, especially the Human Resource Managers in the Public Service, are well equipped with sufficient skills in strategic human resource management. What is mostly known now in Africa is that most strategic plans are designed by external consultants. This is not sustainable. The sustainable situation would require a cadre of Human Resource Managers in the Public Service who can serve as strategic advisers and internal consultants to the Public Service on matters of reforms especially those related to human resources including attracting and retaining the best talent.

**Figure 14.1: Framework for a strategy to attract and retain the best talent in the Public Service**
Challenges related to attracting and retaining the best talent in the Public Service

At the moment, a number of challenges related to attracting and retaining the best talent in the Public Service are teasing managers in Africa. They include the following:

- How to increase the talent pool;
- How to beat the competition from the private sector;
- How to block Head-hunters from taking the best employees;
- How to repair the eroded image of the public service to make it attractive to the best;
- How to make Public Service jobs more challenging and satisfying;
- How to uplift and increase the skills set of current employees;
- How to withstand the Political pressure and recruit only the best performers;
- How to overcome the Budget constraints and provide attractive remuneration.

Increasing the pool of talent in the environment

It needs to be acknowledged that when fishing in waters that have few fish, one is most likely to catch few fish and may not have much chance for choosing big ones or even good ones. One is likely to take what one catches. Therefore, there is need to undertake an analysis and forecast of the talent that is needed for the best performance of the Public Service now and in the future given its strategic and tactical objectives including the achievement of MDGs.

Then there is need to scan the environment (Universities and tertiary institutions including those abroad that may be providing education to Africans, as well as the Diaspora that may be attracted back home) to take stock of the talent that is available currently and that is likely to be available in the immediate, medium, and long term. The two sets of talents (those needed and those existing) need to be juxtaposed and compared to have a clear map of the gap of the talent that needs to be filled. Then there follows a deliberate interaction between the institutions (universities and tertiary institutions) that produce the talent to ensure that their programs produce sufficient human resources to fill the talent gap.

In Africa there are continuous debates on the relevance of training programmes offered by Universities, with the government claiming that the university programmes are not relevant to the needs of the public service. The universities on the other hand, hold the view that their mission is to provide general education; the graduates will be trained for functional jobs on taking up employment. In fact this debate is misplaced. The approach needs to be a deliberate strategy which brings the universities and the Public Service Human Resource Managers together to determine what talent the Universities need to prepare for the Public Service. There is a shared failure between Universities
and Public Service on this issue. The bottom line is that the Public Service will get the talent the environment provides. For the talent in the environment to be congruent to the needs of the Public Service, there has to be constant interaction between the two. The critical question to ask here is the following: Are the universities and the Public Service Human Resource Managers up to this task? Is the interaction between these two entities constant and paying adequate attention to the talent gaps in the public service?

In terms of human resource planning within a long-term human staffing strategy framework, there is need to have long term manpower and human resource development strategies and plans based on clear and accurate baseline data and information. There is need to bear in mind that the Public Service is not made up of one but many professions. Therefore, we need to consider having not only one strategy, but several differential strategies to cope with divergent types or categories of needs in the Public Service. Probably we should be considering having an umbrella strategy but with a number of sub-strategies falling within two broad ones:

- a job - oriented strategy for the employment of skills roughly analogous to those used in the private sector for clearly definite tasks over limited periods of time;
- a career oriented strategy for the authority of the State where confidentiality, discretion, as well as continuity and a long-term perspective are critical determinants of quality of performance.

This point re-emphasizes the need to have an appropriate mix or hybrid between “career system” and “job or employment system”\(^\text{50}\) in the Public Service as the search for the best talent goes on.

**Beating the competition from the private sector**

Clearly, in the whole process of Public Service Reforms, especially during the first regime (structural) of reforms, with strong emphasis on the virtues of the private sector as the “engine of growth” and the Public Service needing minimization, the private sector became prominent, not least by the relatively superior remuneration for its employees. Consequently there is a competition between the Public Service and the private sector for the same talent especially in some professional and technical domains. Here, unfortunately, the competition is tilted in favour of the private sector because in most cases private sector enterprises have a

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\(^\text{50}\) This is quoted from the United Nations Committee of Experts on Public Administration (22 -26 July 2002): Economic and Social Council Official Records 2002, Supplement number 24
merge of manoeuvrability especially in shifting their remuneration to attract the talent it needs. Adopting operational methods of the private sector in the Public Service did not help matters because it enhanced the competition for the same talent especially in areas of financial management, human resource management, strategic planning, performance management, application of information and communications technologies, etc.

It is not going to be easy for the Public Service to win this competition by playing exactly the same game as the private sector. It certainly can not play the card of increasing remuneration continuously because it has budget constraints. It will have to play the card of public service and recreate the values and virtues that are cherished by the Public Service and those who commit themselves to serve. In this case, there is need to design specific personnel recruitment strategies, systems, procedures, incentives and practices aimed at attracting and selecting the best talent for the Public Service. Attracting and recruiting the best talent in the Public Service is not going to be an easy task because it will be working against negative public beliefs about the public service built gradually over a relatively long period of time stretching from well before the period of reforms. There has to be a sustained strategy that encompasses aspects of:

- Rebuilding public trust in the Public Service,
- Branding the Public services and its components to make them attractive to the best talent;
- Recruiting the best graduates from universities and tertiary institutions into the Public Service;
- Building a pay system that is not necessarily competitive with the private or civil society sector, but which is fair in the sense that it remunerates performance and is based on cost of living enabling those that chose to dedicate their working life to public service to live a level of life that their work deserves and;
- Designing other instruments of incentives to attract and retain the best talent in the public service.

The fact to be confronted squarely is that a lot of attention needs to be paid to revamping the image and pride of men and women who devote themselves to Public Service. We need to bear in mind that while remuneration is important and needs to be part of the package, social recognition also plays an important role in releasing the best performance energies out of the best talent. Another caution that Human Resource Managers in the Public Service need to bear in mind is that while competing with the private sector in terms of high salaries in order to attract and retain the best personnel is self-imposing, there is a limit to it in the Public Service especially in developing and poor countries. In situations of abject poverty as is known in most poor countries, the image of a starving Public Servant is revolting. However,
equally or even more revolting is the image of a Public Servant enjoying a level of living that is far above the standard of living of the country he/she serves. Different ways, rather than pursuing salaries that seek to out-compete the private sector, should be pursued to attract and retain the best talent in the Public Service. Some of the levers the Public Service should lift in this competition should include the following:

- The Public Service being the choice of diversified work;
- Having an attractive compensation package (bearing in mind that for most dedicated Public Servants “attractive” does not necessarily refer to “grotesquely high”);
- Providing opportunities for advancement;
- Providing opportunity for the Public Servants to help people in an exemplary or model organisation;
- Providing opportunity for Public Servants to access learning in a learning organisation;
- Proving assurance and commitment to equity in employment;
- Ensuring an inclusive workplace especially in terms of gender, persons with disabilities, ethnic balance, religion and skills mix;
- Providing assurance for access to employment security and mobility and;
- Enabling Public Servants to balance personal and professional lives.

All the above will necessitate more high level strategic thinking than mimicking private sector practices or attempting to out-compete the private sector in terms of remuneration packages. If well thought through and well implemented, it will be difficult even for the Head Hunters to take High-Performing-Public Servants form the Public Service. Head hunters from the private sector who dangle money as bait may not break through the amour of relatively comfortable remuneration that is in line with cost of living, great image, prestige, social recognition and dedication to Public Service which normally most high-performing Public Servants are satisfied with.

**Branding the Public services and its components to make them attractive to the best talent**

Branding is a means to identify a company’s products or services, differentiate them from those of others, and create and maintain an image that encourages confidence among clients,

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51 Defining the concept of branding Olivier Serrat (2010) notes that “a brand is a distinguishing name, term, logo, slogan, sign, symbol, or design scheme—and a combination of these—intended to identify a product or service. Branding is the communication effort to promote brand identity, aiming to help end users differentiate the product or service from that of competitors—and view it in a favorable way, often termed brand equity”
audiences, and partners. Until the mid-1990s, brand management—based on the 4Ps of product (or service), place, price, and promotion—aimed to engineer additional value from single brands. The idea of organizational branding has since developed, with implications for behavior and behavioral change, and is making inroads into the public sector too. One of the problems concerning attracting the best talent in the public service is that the service and its component institutions are rarely branded to be attractive to prospective employees. The tendency is to believe that when there are jobs in the public service there will always be people willing to compete for occupying them. While this may be true in many instances, especially with rampant unemployment everywhere, the question is: Are we sure that those who are always ready and willing to compete to occupy the vacancies possess the best talent for the public service?

Every Human resource manager in the public service needs to pose the following question: Is this organization branded to be attractive to the best talent? Effectively branding the public service and its constituent institutions to attract the right and best talent is critically necessary. The objectives that a good brand achieves are to deliver the message about the public service clearly, confirm credibility of the public service, connect emotionally to the targeted prospects, motivate the end users, and concretize user loyalty (Serrat, 2010). Branding can be achieved through communicating easily understood and recognizable recruiting themes, information and benefits about the public service or institution to give it a competitive advantage over the private sector and/or other public service institutions. The importance of maintaining a compelling brand to recruit in this competitive environment should remain a priority to every human resource managers involved in the hiring process. Questions such as the following could guide the branding of the public service/institution: How should we distinguish the public service’s recruiting program from the recruiting programs in the private sector to make it attract the best talent?

An appropriately designed brand will help the public service/institution to stand out from others and clearly tell job seekers about its mission and workplace culture. Logo, mission, employee testimonials, diversity programs, benefits and other incentives e.t.c may be part of the branding of the public service and its institutions. The point is to establish the identity of the public service in the market place to identify with the job seekers especially the talented. It is important in this for human Resource managers in the Public Sector to have at their fingertips the factors that make the Public service and its jobs attractive, not from a theoretical point of view but practically since every institution in the Public Service and indeed every job may have different factors that make it attractive. Likewise, different people are attracted by different factors to different jobs. Figure 14.2 bellow attempts a ranking of some of the factors that make the Public service attractive. But has there been empirical research in each Public Service on the continent and indeed in each institution and jobs to determine exactly which factors are at play in making the Public Service attractive or not? Such an empirical study need to be undertaken to inform the decisions of the Public service in its attempt to attract the best talent for its employees.
The rationale for recruiting and retaining the best talent in the Public Service

Why must the Public Service recruit and retain the best talent? In most Africa countries, especially since the period of the IMF imposed SAPs, there has been on-going arguments that the private sector is the engine of growth and therefore a lot of efforts have been dedicated to the development of the private sector sometimes at the expense of the Public Service. In the context of good governance which emphasizes collaboration, cooperation, participation and partnerships, the emphasis put on competition in this argument is misplaced. There are several reasons why the Public Service should attract and retain high quality personnel among its ranks, including being able to do the following:

(i) **Perform effective visioning, strategizing, policy analysis, formulation, monitoring and evaluation to meet the complexities of globalization and often conflicting demands:**

To get the functions of the State effectively executed, one would need the best talent at the service of the State – i.e an effective Public Service. Currently many countries are engaged in Public Service reforms, which invariably include re-thinking and redefining the frontiers and the core functions of the Public Service. In several African countries where there are limitations in human capacity, most of these reforms (as we pointed out above) have been designed with strong reliance on support from foreign experts thus raising issues of ownership of such reforms. To ensure ownership of home-grown reforms, countries should develop the intellectual capacity to design their own reforms at a pace adequate with their cultural, political, social and economic environment. What needs to be emphasised is to have “reforms by African countries and not to export reforms to African countries”. Without the
Public Service attracting, recruiting, retaining and utilising the best talent, such a challenge is difficult to meet. Together with reforms, there is the function of policy and strategy making. African countries need strong capacities in visioning, strategizing, policy analysis, formulation, monitoring and evaluation if they have to sustain performance improvement. This, one must realise, equally applies to the translation of the Millennium Development Goals and other intergovernmental commitments and action plans into national policies and development strategies. Conceptually and practically, the over emphasis placed on the role of the private sector at the detriment of the Public Service had missed this critical point.

Elsewhere the author has argued strongly in favour of brilliant visioning and strategic planning for strengthening capacities of the Public Service especially in post-conflict situations. Below we reproduce the extract that solidifies the argument for the need of the best personnel in the Public Service:

\[
\text{Determining and agreeing a national vision and strategy that provides an appropriate answer to the question of the Public Service the country needs for the future must be based on a hard, harsh, and brutal diagnostic analysis of the reality of the situation, not only as it presents itself currently, but also as it presented itself in the past and as it will present itself in the future. Mobilizing the population to put their voice and mind into finding today the solutions of the problems of tomorrow is one of the critical roles of leadership after conflict. People must be lead to scan the past and future environment, scratch through the ashes and ruins left behind by the violence, and examine the painful socio-politico-economic wounds and scars to determine what kind of country they want to live in, what needs to be done to create that country, and what type of Public Service the country should have and how capacities of such a country can be constructed. Put in these terms, collective visioning sounds simple. But it is not simple both in concept and in practice. Designing and agreeing a national vision and strategy in post conflict situations often means cutting open some people’s secret ambitions and persuading them to abandon all or some of them, abandoning socio-politico-economic comfort zones for some people, questioning values and beliefs of others, and creating compromises along the way. Leadership needs to do this to provide a platform and a framework to guide the reconstruction of the capacities for public service. When this is missing it is most likely that the capacities that are reconstructed are not in line with the aspirations of the country and the hopes and aspirations that emerge after violence are likely to be shattered and the country thrown into another round of violence” (Kauzya, 2007a: 11-12).}
\]

(ii) Adequately blend the demands of efficiency and those of democracy and responsibility

The entrenchment of private sector management techniques has created a need for Public Servants that are skilled and motivated beyond the level of simply applying Public Administration rules. What distinguishes Public Administration from private sector management is its responsibility to the public, which requires efficient management of its limited resources as well as effective realisation of specific objectives in a way that is wise, focused on the key goals and consistent with the demands of democracy. It is not the
demands of democracy that make the Public Service operations unique, but also the fact that the Public Service must respond to the value system of the private sector as well. This means that one of the characteristics of the Public sector in most countries is that public managers have the same efficiency responsibilities as their colleagues in the private sector while still carrying out public operations with consideration for democracy (Gustafsson and Svensson, 1999). The absurdity here is that in African countries, the job of public management has become more and more complex while the human capacity to do it has been going down.

(iii) Become an effective partner with, and referee between, other actors in the development process

Governance and Public Administration looked at in a holistic way requires that all partners develop their capacities as equal partners in order for each to play their roles. The goal is not to out-compete and overpower each other, but to support each other. The reality of Public Administration in Africa today is that it is increasingly becoming “public” as opposed to “bureaucratic” and self-contained. It is through partnerships and mobilization of all stakeholders at community, local government, national, regional and international levels that Public Administration will be able to address the development challenges facing African countries. The point to emphasize here is that partnerships cannot be constructed and operated within the spirit of cutthroat competition where actors try to weaken each other. Effective cooperative governance and public administration will be in place when the Public Service as well as the other partners have the best talent to enable them effectively play their roles. We need to bear in mind that ultimately through law making, regulatory, and security related functions, the Public Service is the guarantor of liberty, property and life because it implements the rules. But even this function, within the practical implications of participative public administration advocated for by good governance, is more complex than before because it now demands negotiated rule definition and highly consultative policymaking. If the Public Sector or the State is, so to speak, the referee in the partnerships, even the job of refereeing has become more complex calling on the sector to have the best talent.

(iv) Lead by example in employment and staffing matters

Beyond the needs of strategic leadership, visioning, and development policymaking, we need to note that in most countries the Public Service is a critical and the largest employer. One could say that it is a model. What it does or does not do as an employer has far-reaching impact on employment practices elsewhere in other sectors. It makes labour policies, laws and regulations (including those related to remuneration, social security, etc) that are used as guidelines by other sectors. It sets ethics and integrity standards and should lead by example in following them. Certainly, to play this critical role it needs to have at its disposal the best personnel.
The influence of wider governance issues on attraction and retention of the best talent in the Public Service

Part of the efforts to reverse the trend of human capacity erosion in the Public Service in Africa has to do with improvements in the wider governance environment. One of the things that cannot be over emphasized is that without good governance the best talent cannot be identified, recruited and developed. Nor can it be effectively utilised. Governance in this case has been defined as a multifaceted compound situation of institutions, systems, structures, processes, procedures, practices, relationships, and leadership behaviour in the exercise of social, political, economic, and managerial / administrative authority in the running of public or private affairs and good governance as the exercise of this authority with the participation, interest, and livelihood of the governed as the driving force (Kauzya, 2002: 360).

Good governance is of prime importance because it is difficult to convince the best swimmer to take a dive into a dirty pool. It is most certainly even harder to retain him /her there to demonstrate his / her swimming talent. Good swimmers simply do not like swimming in dirty pools. Talented workers do not like working in environments of poor governance. Issues of governance are highly sensitive and do not present themselves in the same way in all African countries. Some countries provide governance environments that are conducive to individual initiative and committed work. Others can be tolerated. But there are certainly those that repel, repulse, or even expel individuals that possess the kind of talent that would be qualified as the best for the performance of the Public Service. Governance environments that do not provide the basics in effective rule of law and due process, justice, ethics, integrity, transparency and accountability in leadership, security of person and property, respect for basic freedoms and human rights, etc can hardly attract, recruit, retain or even effectively utilise the best talent in not only the Public Service but also in the other sectors as well. It is not the main point for this chapter to extensively explore the relationship between the wider issues of governance and the attraction, recruitment and retention of the best talent in the public sector. However, the point needs to be made clearly and firmly that countries that aim at attracting, recruiting and retaining the best talent for their Public Service have got to first and foremost examine the appropriateness of their governance institutions, systems, practices, and leadership behaviour. Good governance and the best talent are intertwined because good people envisage, initiate, plan, implement, monitor, and evaluate good governance. While it is hopeless to attempt to attract good governors in a situation of bad governance, it is also futile to hope to have good governance without good governors.

What Talent do we need to attract and retain in the Public Service?: Critical human capacity needs for effective performance in the Public Service

Beyond numbers of Public servants, human capacity refers to knowledge, skills, attitudes, networks and cherished values as well as institutions, systems structural arrangements, tools
and logistics. Any country that seeks to attract and retain the best talent in its Public Service must first and foremost assess and determine the talent needs in the Service. Clearly this question poses itself differently and calls for different answers depending on which country and situation is being considered. Looking at African countries, one would generalise to affirm that the following human capacities are in dire need:

(i) **Strong and committed Public Service leadership at all levels** capable of coping with the complexity and conflict contained in the context of globalization, and dealing with all forms of diversity including gender, race, ethnicity: The roles and responsibilities for orienting and activating the entire workforce of the Public Service in meaningful directions, as well as passing on core values require strong and committed Public service leaders including politicians, top bureaucrats, Heads of Public Sector Agencies, and top leaders at Local Government levels. Competent and committed leadership is necessary for providing and nurturing the environment within which the overall Public Service can serve citizens, ensuring fairness, equity and due process, providing a sense of purpose, legitimacy, values and ability to look outward and forward.

(ii) **Knowledgeable, skilled and committed policy advisers**

Given that governance and public administration includes the higher-order tasks of providing policy advice and critical assistance in developing grand designs of society and nations, one of the primary roles of the public service is to ensure a capacity to develop policies and strategies, forecast and anticipate future trends, react to rapidly changing global and local conditions, be creative, challenge the status quo and be self-critical.

(iii) **Human Resource Management professionals**

In most Public Services in African countries, positions responsible for forecasting, planning, developing, and managing the human resources are occupied by individuals who are not professionally qualified to manage the human resource. Consequently the basics in personnel management, let alone human resource management are ignored. This is the case in personnel records, human resources data and information processing, human resources development including training, succession planning etc. The Public Service requires professionals capable of adequately supporting the human resource management function if the Service has to develop strategies for attracting, recruiting, developing, motivating and retaining the best skilled personnel to man it.
The seriousness with which Public Service Reform Programs in many African countries were planned and conducted somehow did not consider that Human Resource Managers are the most strategic partners in reforming the Public Service. Neglecting issues related to the undeveloped professional status of Human Resource Managers in the Public Service in Africa and relegating the Human Resource Managers to noncore and non-strategic functions when they are supposed to be the top advisers and leaders of Public Service reform and leadership capacity development programs was a huge mistake. The end result has been perpetual dependency on external consultants for making reforms in the Public Service. Yet it is known that reform as a change phenomenon is an on-going process and should consequently be driven and directed from the inside. How could African countries develop Public Service leadership capacity by neglecting the planners, implementers, and evaluators of capacity building programs? This situation needs to be immediately reversed. First, by repositioning the function of Human Resource Management as a strategic function, and second, by creating a strong professional network of Human Resource Managers to champion the cause of professional development and strategic positioning of HR managers in Africa. It is not possible to sustain capacity building while neglecting capacity builders! (Kauzya, 2007b).

**Knowledgeable, skilled and ethical financial and other resource managers**

In several countries currently there is what may be called a crisis in the area of transparency, accountability, ethics, and integrity especially related to the management of financial resources. Although one may argue that this does not only concern the Public Service, the issues are more critical in the Public Service because it concerns stewardship of the public good including public funds. To have the best managers of public finances is not only a matter of knowledge and skills in financial management and accounting. It is equally important to have individuals with integrity and ethical behaviour. There needs to be deliberate efforts to attract, select, recruit, and develop such individuals in the Public Service. Given the relatively low remuneration in the Public Service coupled with less robust control systems, the Public Service needs to be able to attract and retain financial managers who, in addition to being excellent in this field, can say “I would rather die than steal public funds instead of those who even when they are experts in the field have the mentality of “I cannot starve when I am looking at money”.

**Knowledgeable and skilled information managers**

Effective policy and strategy analysis, formulation, planning, monitoring, and evaluation strongly depend on systems, processes, and practices of information management that can avail timely, accurate, well organised, and accessible information. In the current era of information and knowledge management, the Public Service should have at its disposal a cadre of capable information managers to effectively harness information for managing resources and delivering services.
(vi) Public servants who cherish professionalism, ethics and integrity

While skills and knowledge are essential for performing any Public Service function, we must acknowledge that without appropriate values such as professionalism, ethics, integrity, the Public Service will remain under disdain. Inadequate integrity, unethical behaviour and lack of professionalism breed and sustain corruption and other forms of malpractices that have characterised the Public Service in many African countries. Many projects and programmes aimed at improving service delivery and reducing poverty in many countries miss their targeted objectives because their resources are embezzled and diverted by officials who lack integrity. It is critical that the best personnel in terms of ethics and integrity are attracted, recruited, and retained in the Public Service.

(vii): Public servants that are knowledgeable, skilled and committed in executing functions related to ensuring law and order, justice, audit and administrative control:

Respecting laws, rules, regulations, and due procedures is a cardinal requirement for a well functioning Public Service system. It is the basis of the rule of law, democracy and fairness. However, its administration is not an automatic given. It requires dedicated and capable personnel.

Anchoring human capacity on sound, institutional and systemic capacity

Human numbers, knowledge, skills, attitudes, networks and cherished values do not translate themselves into effective performance capacity unless they are operating within appropriate institutional, systemic, and structural frameworks. If the Public service is not professionalized, it is not easy to attract professionals in it. If the arrangement is such that policy at national level is dictated from supra-national institutions such as the World Bank and the IMF as has been the case in many African countries these past years (especially concerning Public Sector Reforms), then it cannot be easy to attract competent policy advisers in policy advisory positions since they will be aware that they have no job there. If there are no codes of conduct to guide Public Servants in ethics and integrity of Public Service, it is difficult to count on individual morality alone to ensure ethics and integrity in the Public Service. If the Public Service does not provide institutionalised guidelines for managing diversity in terms of race, gender, ethnicity, it is most likely that the best talent from women, people with disabilities, minorities etc. may be side-lined in recruitment and deployment in the Public Service. In other words, human capacity goes hand in hand with and is facilitated and activated by institutional and systemic capacity. Indeed, institutions and systemic capacity is very critical in the efforts of attracting the best talent in the Public Service.

Conclusion

Strengthening human capacity in the Public Service, as a general subject is complex because countries, even in Africa are not homogenous. Even the public and the private sectors are
rarely homogeneous. There are substantial differences even between categories of skills, calling for differential “strategies” for staffing for quality performance in the Public Service.

Thus we need to underscore the primordial role the overall governance environment plays in attracting and retaining the best talent in the Public Service. Governors in all African countries need to be mindful of the relationship between the kind of governance they practice and the quality of the human resource they need. The umbrella strategy required concerns how to **revamp the image of the Public Service**. As long as the image continues to push the best employees out of the Public Service while at the same time repelling young graduates, efforts of staffing the service for excellent performance cannot be successful. The New Public Management criticism of "rules-bound" administration notwithstanding, it needs to be emphasized that long term strategies cannot be put into effect without a sound institutional framework. It is this framework that lends credibility and legitimation to particular actions and measures and thus dispels the impression of “politics as usual”. We need this credibility and legitimation not only to combat the presence or suspicion of clientelism and patronage, but also and most importantly, to enhance the image, prestige, and professional credentials of the Public Service.

Coupled with the need for an appropriate governance environment is the need for redefining the boundaries of the Public Service to leave it with the functions that it must perform and that it can best perform. The best talent given the functions and tasks that it is not cut to perform will not execute them effectively. But this debate has been on-going for some time now and we need not belabour the point. Among the many things we need in order to staff the Public Service for high quality performance, is to properly redraw the boundaries of the Public Service.

In practice, the term "Staffing” encompasses every activity in human resource management. It includes forecasting human resource needs, planning, prospecting, attraction, selection, recruitment, deployment, human resource development including training, career management and motivation, performance evaluation, discipline, remuneration, promotion and separation. At the same time it also implies a necessary relationship and interdependence between all of the above. Therefore, there is a strong need for a **holistic approach**. Fragmented measures cannot yield the needed results. They merely lead to waste, in a large number of cases. This underscores the importance of the two critical factors for effective staffing for excellent performance in the Public Service. One is a long-term strategy and the other is a credible and coherent institutional framework in terms of systems and structures, rules and regulations, procedures and processes, policies and programs. This clearly points to the importance of each country, considering its specific situation, having an appropriate personnel system for managing human resources in the Public Service. Some countries would prefer the “career system” for Public Servants. Others would prefer the “job system” (Quermonne, 1991 :137 – 153). However, between these two there is a lot of room for creativity and hybrid systems that can be designed to suit specific situations, needs and preference for any country.
Human resource development systems and practices derived from strategies elaborated using reliable data and information: The Public Service knowledge and skills needs are evolving so rapidly that recruiting the best talent is not sufficient if it is not accompanied by deliberate efforts to continuously develop the human resources, updating their knowledge, skills and attitudes according to the shifts of needs. Human resource development to enhance the best talent implies a number of strategic actions sustained over a long period in the Public Service which include:

- Having clearly elaborate human resource development strategies and plans;
- Ensuring a philosophy and practice of developing the Public Service as a learning organization;
- Building and utilizing high quality training institutions including Universities that are linked with the Public Service;
- Emphasizing various human resource development approaches other than classroom training including coaching, teamwork, attachments etc;
- Ensuring that training is not dedicated to only building the capacity of individuals but rather the entire organization (in this case the Public Service);
- Bearing in mind that trained individuals to work in poor organizations is one of the most de-motivating factors in the Public Service which contributes to pushing talent out of the Service.

If the best professionals have to be attracted into the Public Service, it must be professionalised. This does not only mean that only professionals be recruited in the Public Service, but especially also that Public Servants work within an institutional arrangement that challenges and constrains them to work according to the codes of conduct, ethics and integrity of their professions. The case in the Public Service in most African countries is such that categories of Public Servants whose equivalent in the private sector have to belong to specific relevant professions to gain employment operate within professional fields when they are not necessarily professionally qualified or recognised to work in those professional fields. This is especially the case with financial managers and accountants, auditors, human resource managers, etc.

Building and utilising human resource managers in the Public service: if the best talent has to be attracted, developed and retained in the Public Service the job of ensuring this should be handled by professionals. As mentioned above the job of harnessing the human capacity in the Public Service in most African countries has been too much left to the non-professionals. There should be deliberate and sustained efforts in form of programmes to develop strong cadres of human resource management professionals in the Public Service.
Strategies and practices for tapping the best talent from women, people with disabilities, and minority groups: In many African countries, there are a number of human resource management practices that increase chances of leaving unutilised or underutilised some of the best talent in the society. Such practices include discrimination against women, people with disabilities and minority groups. It is very important that for such talent to be effectively attracted, recruited, developed, and deployed, the Public Service adopts strategies and practices that target these talents. Tools and guidelines for effective strategies and policies for managing diversity in the Public Service to tap and utilise such talents should be studied, developed, disseminated and utilised.

References
Developing outstanding human resources that will be leaders in nation building is considered an important factor to ensure success of national development strategies and to respond better to challenges and advances in globalization.

Introduction

This chapter addresses Tanzania’s experience in human resource development and makes an effort to create a link with the transformation agenda. Significant efforts of the past are highlighted and lauded. It is acknowledged that human resource development is an important and essential pillar for change and progress. Human resource development is considered in its widest sense to include education and availing the general public with key services whilst creating capacity to develop those services and to provide them efficiently and effectively. It is argued that in recent years, national efforts supported by relevant policy objectives have allowed increased attention to education and human resource development. Nonetheless, the country is facing some serious challenges which have to be dealt with effectively for human resource development and efforts in that respect to contribute desirably to the country’s transformation agenda and sustainably.

The chapter is organized around the following sections: economic transformation in Africa; human resource development, meaning and relevance; Tanzania’s human resource development in early years; and current and future challenges. Other sections are: education promotion; human resource development under the public service reform program; restructuring of public institutions; introduction of new systems and processes; national and sector level human resource development initiatives; challenges of human resource development to economic transformation; and a brief conclusion.

Economic Transformation

In a Conference on Understanding Economic Transformation in Sub-Saharan Africa held in Accra Ghana in May, 10-11, 2011, transformation was described as a dynamic and multidimensional process that has the potential to support poverty reduction and food security. Transformation process in Sub-Saharan Africa has been compared and contrasted with the transformation experience of other developing and developed countries. In the past, increased agricultural productivity served as the spring board for wider economic growth in industrial and non-farm sectors. The situation in Sub-Saharan Africa deviates from past transformation experiences as nearly two thirds of the people continue to live in the rural areas and depend on agriculture as the main source of livelihood, while the
The industrial sector has not stepped in to fill the decreasing role of agriculture in the economy (Shenggen, 2011).

Despite stagnation in the economies of developing countries in the past, the situation in these countries has been changing in recent years. A look at average annual growth rates shows 3.9% growth for developing countries and 2.7% growth for developed countries in 1990-2000; and 6.4% for developing countries and 2.3% for developed countries in 2000-2008. The noticeable change is the relatively high growth rate of 5.2% during 2000-2008 periods in Africa. Nevertheless, this growth rate is as yet incomparable to the achievements in the Asian countries which have been growing, since the 1960s, at between 7% and 10% (Yamamoto, 2010). What the experience in Asia entails is that successful economic transformations in Sub-Saharan Africa requires a level of growth and an economic system that induces and encourages higher level growth of the productive and service sectors. Adequate capacity has to be created to exploit the changing world economic landscape where new comparative advantages can be created or existing enhanced through, among other initiatives, more dynamic, and supportive human resource development policies, systems and practices.

**Human Resource Development, Meaning and Relevance**

The Government of the United Republic of Tanzania has developed the Vision 2025 which recognizes that productive skilled labour is a prerequisite for growth. Human resource development is the key to nation building. Developing outstanding human resources that will be leaders in nation building is considered an important factor to ensure success of national development strategies and to respond better to challenges and advances in globalization. Human resource development includes everything to do with the development of an individual's knowledge, ability and technology. The human resource development of the individual is indispensable to economic development of society. As economic development progresses, the role of human capital increases and the quality of labour becomes important. The favorable progress of human resource development makes possible economic development of a country, while the progress of economic development promotes human resource development. There is complementarity between the two, with the support of good policies.

Nonetheless, the infrastructure for human resource development must be put in place. Human resource development is considered identical to education in a narrow sense, but in a broad sense its coverage is wide ranging in the sense that everybody has access to decent housing, medicine, safe drinking water, etc. and can enjoy equally: educational facilities, hospitals, employment opportunities, etc.

The Government of the United Republic of Tanzania has since independence recognized the importance of human resource development for societal change and transformation. There have been significant efforts in the public sector to develop the nation's human resources in
the era of the public ownership, management and control of national resources and means of production. Likewise, similar importance was given to human resource development in the era of liberalization where appropriate policies were developed and implemented to foster private sector engagement in the productive and service sectors of the economy.

**Human Resource Development in the early Years**

We will examine in this section and the next sections the initiatives in the public sector to develop and harness human capacity for development. During the first few years of independence, the young Government promoted education for the locals by expanding schools' capacities and creating more schools and colleges. These efforts went hand in hand with the prevailing policies of increasing access to social services to the majority of the people and expanding the range of those services available to the general public. This is because after independence in 1961, the country inherited a public administration system that was designed for socio-economic dominance by the colonial administration. There was an insufficient number of trained manpower of different disciplines and educational levels. The problem was exacerbated by the adopted policy of replacing foreign personnel with local ones and which resulted, in some cases, in premature departure of inherited foreign personnel. There were only at the time 21 university graduates and no university or equivalent higher education institution. The human resource availability situation was as depicted in Table 15.1 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Africans</th>
<th>Asians</th>
<th>Europeans</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Architects</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agr. Engineers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surveyors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argonomists</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soil scientists</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hart. Scientists</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physicians</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>184</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surgeons</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dentists</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurse profession</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher primary school</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountants</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Govt. Adm.or executives</td>
<td>427</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>442</td>
<td>962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adm. -banks</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: M. Tobias, *Survey of High Level Manpower Situation*

Human resources required as per the Africanisation Commission Report of 1962 was that the expanded government infrastructure needed 420 graduate level personnel; or 630 if the positions occupied by colonial officers were to be immediately localized. Human resource development initiatives during the early years of our independence, as can be observed,
reflect the emphasis given on the expansion and access of available services to the public and creating local capacity to manage and provide those services.

Serious steps were put in motion to achieve intended goals and efforts to increase local capacity and replace foreign personnel were reported biannually by the ministry responsible for manpower development. The achievements by the 1980s included the foreign personnel being replaced within four years of independence and the administrative system comfortably being filled by nationals two decades later. During this period and in consonant with socio-economic agendas of the time, 3000 graduates were being produced every year. To complement outputs from higher learning institutions, there were sector-specific colleges and educational institutions to cater for the technical and administrative capacity needs of the areas of the economy in which the parent sector institutions operate.

In a large sense, policies adopted were implemented and they created human resource capacity through different human resources development initiatives. Different technical and professional personnel were in employment in over 400 public organizations in the administrative, productive and service sectors operating in the formal economy up to the early 1990s. These included the publicly owned import substitution industries and public corporations which were privatized or liquidated in the 1990s in the aftermath of policy changes to a liberalized economy and private sector-led economic growth.

The father of the nation, the late Mwalimu Nyerere led the concerted efforts to increase local capacity so as to consolidate the political liberation and to achieve the necessary economic independence. Early policies recognized that human resource development is a broad concept requiring integrated and concerted approaches, strategies, and plans and programs to ensure the development of the full potential of the Tanzanian citizen, so that they may individually and collectively be capable of improving their standards of living. Tanzania is said to have recorded very impressive expansionary education policies and reforms during the 1970s as the country was committed to equitable and fair provision of education to all, with universal primary education or UPE taking a center stage. The UPE program was a clear indication of human resource development for societal transformation as it was built on the philosophy of Ujamaa (African Socialism) and Education for Self-reliance. The number of new entrants in primary schools increased from around 400,000 in 1975 to 617,008 in 1990 and to 851,743 in 2000. This was a rise of 212.9 percent in real terms (Galabawa, 2001).

In addition to primary education, adult education was given prominence and leadership commitment led to significant achievements in literacy. In the Declaration of Dar es Salaam, the father of the nation made a ringing call for adult education. For him, adult education had two purposes: to inspire both a desire for change, and an understanding that change is possible; and to help people to make their own decisions, and to implement those decisions for themselves (Nyerere 1978:29,30). In practical terms, adult education campaigns proved successful. For example between 1975 and 1977 illiteracy fell from 39% to 27%; by 1986 it
was down at 9.6%. Adult education is said to have made significant contributions to mobilizing people for development and supported various health and agricultural campaigns which were also mounted, for example Man is Health - 1973 and Food is Life - 1975 (Kassam, 1979; Mushi and Bwatwa, 1998).

Before the structural adjustment programs were adopted following the economic problems of the 1980s and which to some extent led to reversal in policies and earlier gains, the human resource development initiatives and goals reflected the national socio-economic policies and objectives of the time. Significant among these as we have seen are the following: the localization policies, expansion of services in terms of types and access and increase in outputs of professional and technical personnel for the productive sectors, expansion of the education system through the universal primary education and the emphasis on adult education program.

**Human Resource Development and the challenges of the Present and Future**

Transformation and societal change for improved socio-economic situation of the Tanzanian society is currently pursued in a relatively more challenging environment than in the past. There are many factors which require serious attention and which influence both the outcome and manner in which development is to be achieved. These include pressures due to pluralist democracy, more informed citizenry, increased population and demographic changes where the youth are significant members of the community, globalization and increased importance of regional groupings, information technology as the driver of change, dramatic expansion of basic services and access, and increased natural resources wealth.

As a result of and in response to the factors above, the peoples' demands for services from their Government have increased. In order to respond to such demands, the public sector must depend more on the quality of its human resources. It is thus essential to improve and up-grade the caliber of human resources in the public sector. In the public sector, initiatives to promote human resources development are many and varied and range from education promotion, establishing appropriate structures, reform programs, training needs assessments, and gender analysis.

**Expanding Educational Opportunities**

A major shift in policy starting in the 1980s is liberalization of education provision which led to a departure from restrictions on registration and operation of private schools at secondary and primary level in mid-1990s. At the moment, non-governmental schools account for a significant proportion of enrolment at all levels of education. The expansion of the educational system continued in later decades and reached unprecedented proportion in recent years. Efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals and specific policy initiatives, for example a national target of a secondary school in every ward, corresponds closely to the earlier pre-independence initiative of Universal Primary Education and similar policies which led to dramatic achievements in socio-economic development such as the localization program in public sector employment.
In contrast to the structural adjustment era of the 1980s where the training of teachers and the employment of teachers suffered the same fate as other professional and technical personnel due to employment freeze, teacher training and their deployment is now getting a major policy and leadership push. Not only are more teachers and health personnel being produced in recent times than any other time before, but also they are currently, the most formally deployed professional personnel in the public sector employment system. New challenges different from the past ones are now the issues of concern in respect of secondary level education as before the gross enrolment ratio was only 5% because secondary education was not a priority and primary school education was a 'filter' for admission to secondary education due to lack of school buildings (Chediel et al, 2000). Now the quality of secondary education, and no longer access, is the main concern. The logical emphasis being pursued includes increased teacher training, deployments and provision of educational support materials.

Educational expansion did not restrict itself to non-tertiary education but the country has witnessed also in recent decades huge expansion in the higher level education system. A new national program known as Higher Education Development Program (HEDEP) has recently been 'developed to increase enrolment to enable the majority of Form six (6) completers in Tanzania to proceed to tertiary education. When a broad measure, reflecting net lending by Higher Education Student's Loan Board, is employed, then 'public expenditure on higher education becomes 1.3% of GDP, or 8% of the Government's recurrent budget. Although students enrolled in higher education institutions are only about 0.5% of total number of students at all levels, 22% of Government expenditure on education is spent on higher education (Ministry of Education and Vocational Training, 2012).

The importance attached to human resource development is more obvious at present than in the past, if the criterion is the number of educational institutions present from primary school level to university level and the enrolment in those institutions. Statistics provided by the Tanzania Commission for Universities show that in 2011/12 the country had 43 universities and University colleges. Among these, public universities are only 12, but account for more than half of the enrolled students though the share of student enrolment by the private colleges is significant and growing. Private universities as important players in the higher education system, accounted for 12% of overall university enrolment in 2006/07 and 25% in 2011. Total enrolment by all universities, public and private, in 2010/11 was 135,367 students, among which female students were 47,189 about half the number of male enrolment of 88,178.

As per data available from The National Council for Technical Education (NACTE), in 2010/11 there were 126 public and private technical institutions with 46,499 males and 38,541 females enrolled in the different programs provided by those institutions. Technical education at certificate level has more females enrolled than males and the enrolment level
between males and females changes in favor of males from diploma, higher diploma to degree level. The certificates programs contribute to the higher level female participation in technical education as compared to university education, where in 2010/11 males were 64% and females were 36%. This is a challenge. For human resource development to contribute effectively in the transformation agenda, females enrolment at university education level has to be increased. Table 15.2 shows percentage increase in enrolment in universities and university colleges by comparing enrolment between year 2006/07 and 2010/11.

Table 15.2: University and University Colleges enrolment percentage increase between 2006/2007 and 2010/2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Year 2006/2007</th>
<th>Year 2010/2011</th>
<th>Percentage Increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>1024</td>
<td>2222</td>
<td>116%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering Science</td>
<td>1757</td>
<td>3001</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Science</td>
<td>4101</td>
<td>5749</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>1110</td>
<td>1939</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science and IT</td>
<td>5288</td>
<td>11011</td>
<td>108%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Science</strong></td>
<td><strong>13280</strong></td>
<td><strong>23922</strong></td>
<td><strong>80%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Mgt. and Admin.</td>
<td>8831</td>
<td>19934</td>
<td>125%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>11058</td>
<td>53531</td>
<td>384%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law and Social Science</td>
<td>16795</td>
<td>37980</td>
<td>126%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Arts</strong></td>
<td><strong>36684</strong></td>
<td><strong>111445</strong></td>
<td><strong>203%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Tanzania Commission for Universities*

Increased national investment in teacher training at higher education level to correspond to expansion of the education system is quite obvious as enrolment in education programs provided by our universities and university colleges between 2006/2007 and 2010/2011 has increased several folds more than in all other programs from 11,058 to 53,531 which is about 40% of total enrolment in 2010/11. The table below shows recruitment of university and college graduates at a period when recruitment in the public service has been reduced substantially to focus on key sectors of education, health and agriculture broadly. Agriculture is now, as we know, promoted through the KILIMO KWANZA initiative of the fourth phase Government. The health sector is given emphasis through the Human Resources for Health initiative.

Table 15.3: Recruitment Focus areas between 2009 and 2012 (Source President's Office Public Service Management)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Level</th>
<th>2009/10</th>
<th>2010/11</th>
<th>2011/12</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Primary School Teachers</td>
<td>8747</td>
<td>12,445</td>
<td>9,643</td>
<td>30835</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secondary School/Teachers</td>
<td>5762</td>
<td>7,091</td>
<td>11,181</td>
<td>24034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td></td>
<td>3785</td>
<td>4,283</td>
<td>3,707</td>
<td>11775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td></td>
<td>533</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>1,905</td>
<td>2843</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Human Resource Development under the Public Service Reform Program**

In this section we will address the public service reform program as an initiative to promote and capacitate human resources for economic transformation. Through the reform programs there have been structural changes and targeted capacity development initiatives. The role of the public sector in economic transformation would be focused towards creating appropriate conditions for economic growth and sustainable development. In order to meet the new challenges, a key course of action for reinventing the public sector is to assess its human resources capacities and to generate appropriate strategies for human resources development.

In Tanzania, the role of government was redefined through the Civil Service Program that was implemented between 1992 and 1999. This was a period of great change in the country, including introduction of multiparty politics and the development of the new framework for public-private sector relationship, as bodies such as the Tanzania National Business Council were established. These changes were a response to the structural adjustment measures which focused on the reduction of the scope and size of the public service.

Without neglect of fiscal discipline, the Government embarked on a modernization program of its public administration system through the Public Service Reform Program and the Local Government Reform Program, to support and to strengthen the local governance system and to create a more productive central-local relationship.

Human resources development under the Public Service Reform Program, which is now in its second phase and is expected to end in 2013, was and is being implemented as an integrated concept where policies, systems, processes and tools are introduced and capacity created within public institutions for improved performance to achieve their service delivery goals.

**Restructuring of public institutions**

A key effort has been to develop appropriate structures essential for efficient and effective organizational performance of the public institutions. This has included periodic review of organizational structures of ministries, independent departments, executive agencies and other public institutions in the light of their mandated responsibilities. The main objective is to manage the size of the public service and to ensure that unnecessary bureaucracy does not stifle the service delivery objective. In this regard, a number of initiatives were undertaken. These include adoption of Business Process Reengineering methodology to streamline, and increase efficiency in the functioning of the different ministries and other public agencies. Organizational reviews and business processes re-engineering initiatives have also resulted in hiving off some functions from ministries which have led to the creation of executive agencies and outsourcing of non-core functions to the private sector. Executive agencies are treated as managerially separate and some are required to achieve some financial independence from own income generating activities. Until very recently 35 executive agencies have been established and are in operation. The advantages of creating
such organs include ability to focus on key issues and thus creating the right culture and capacity for change and performance improvement. Very recently in (2011), a study was commissioned by the Government on the executive agencies. The preliminary findings show the presence of the right framework for increased performance and improved service delivery. A major challenge or rather weakness identified is the failure of most to attain expected financial independence and sustainability.

Although significantly most public institutions have outsourced non-core activities to the private sector, saving in some cases enough managerial and supervisory capacity to concentrate on core functions, the activities outsourced so far are peripheral and limited to cleaning, gardening, security and food provision to employees and clients in hospitals and schools. Nonetheless, the private sector is heavily involved in advisory and consulting services provided to different reform programs and development projects. The National Audit office is also a good example of private sector participation as it has outsourced the audit function, presumably a core activity. Nonetheless, we have not reached the level of countries in the West where even prison security is managed by private service providers but off course not without challenges of its own. There are however more room for transforming how public organizations run business by expanding the scope for outsourcing. The recently passed 2010 Act on Public-Private partnership PPP), now provides a legal framework to formalize and consolidate public-private partnerships. As such in future, more non-core activities might be implemented by private providers including data management.

A number of regulatory organs have so far also been established to provide the necessary oversight and control framework in an environment of multiplicity of service providers both public and private. We now have the Energy, Water, and Utility Regulatory Authority (EWURA); Telecommunications Regulatory Authority (TCRA); Surface and Marine Transport Authority (SUMATRA); Tanzania Food and Drugs Authority (TFDA); Social Security Regulatory Authority (SSRA), etc. With the establishment of these institutions, overtime, role clarity among the different actors will be achieved and relevance in respect to their different mandates will be more obvious.

Other very essential oversight institutions are being strengthened and given more latitude in their operations. The National Audit Office, Ethics Secretariat and the Prevention and Combating of Corruption Bureau are but a few of such institutions which are now very prominent and visible than ever before.

**Introduction of new systems and processes**

Initial efforts to create an effective Government, by emphasizing decreased direct role in the economy, has later been strengthened through the Public Service Reform Program by the introduction and development of new systems and processes for managing public servants and for improved implementation of organizational functions. A more effective and efficient
public service, which is an essential ingredient for wealth creation and institutional and societal transformation, was thus to be created through the new systems and processes.

These new introductions were guided by the following legal and policy instruments: The Public Service Management and Employment Policy of 1999 reviewed in 2008; The Public Service Act of 2002 and its amendments in 2008, the Code of Ethics and Conduct of 2004, the Pay Policy of 2010, the National Records Policy of 2003 etc. The main objective was to modernise the public administration system in line with the political and technological developments at national and global levels. Among the key systems, tools and processes introduced include the following:

i. Competitive recruitment system as opposed to direct allocation of outputs from the universities and colleges as was in the past decades. This was in response to increased outputs of technicians and professionals of many disciplines ushering in merit-based recruitment in the public service. Teachers and health personnel were later directly allocated given available vacancies and financial resources due to the shortage of these skills in the labour market.

ii. Performance management system which is output focused and implemented within a robust framework composed of, such instruments as Strategic plans, Medium Term Expenditure Frameworks and organizational self-assessments. This is a different system to behavioral characteristics orientated confidential appraisal systems.

iii. Reward system within the public service that has an objective to be competitive and to benchmark the other sectors of the economy and which allows regular revisions relative to changing economic conditions in the country.

iv. Capacity building framework that emphasizes skills development at technical, professional and leadership levels. Training Needs Assessments now form the basis for developing capacity building plans. Public servants are provided with increased opportunities for training locally and abroad. In addition to the Tanzania Public Service College, the Local Government Training institute, the new public service capacity building service providers include Tanzania Agency for Global Learning (TAGLA ), linking Tanzania through video conference programs with the regional and international public service training organizations. TAGLA was in 2012 established as an executive agency. For leadership capacity development, the Institute of African Leadership for Sustainable Development (Uongozi Institute) was established in 2010. Uongozi Institute's focus is to identify competency gaps and create appropriate avenues of leadership capacity enhancement and to link public sector leadership development to national and international agendas.

v. Complaints handling system is being implemented in the public service as an avenue of client feedback and support. Most organizations in the public service have in place
complaints handling or customer care desks. Customer care teams have been established to support efforts for the organizations to be more client centered. Responses to clients' feedback is now a common phenomenon and public institutions now go to the length of responding to blind complaints in the newspapers and from other sources.

vi. A human capital management system has been developed to modernize further the human resources management function in the public service. The new system, leveraging on the improving information technology infrastructure, is now linking all employers all over the country to the President’s Office, Public Service Management and the Ministry of Finance. For the first time in many years, and despite increased recruitment of new employees regardless of where they are located in the country, new employees can receive their salaries within a month of employment. Many human resources actions are IT-supported. For example, new recruitments, promotions, transfers, and terminations, etc. are effected through the system. The new system is an example of an effective initiative funded by the Government after the reluctance of our development partners to support it. Other benefits from the system include availability of reliable data and cost reduction as institutions are linked to the center requiring no physical movements of responsible officials or heaps of paper.

vii. Guidelines on how to deal with HIV/AIDS in respect of infection control and impact mitigation as well as on treatment of employees with disabilities have been developed and circulars issued which provide the frameworks and guide organizational actions on those important issues. Counseling, voluntary testing and nourishment support to the affected are now common practices in the public sector.

viii. Guideline on the management of diversity issues at places of employment is also a significant change tool to a more gender sensitive public sector. Institutions are encouraged to provide access to employment and promotion while considering the diversity agenda in decision making.

ix. Human resource planning is also being strengthened and public sector organizations develop human resources plans which inform on human resource management decisions. There is in place a human resources planning manual and a succession planning guide. Significant attention is given to human resources and succession planning as Tanzania is also faced with demographic challenges as the older workforce is nearing retirement age. The country is, however, better off than, for instance, many countries in the West as it has a larger younger population though adequate preparations are required to facilitate smooth succession in the public sector.

x. The Recruitment system in the Public Sector is now in line to meet the challenges of Tanzania after the Public Recruitment Secretariat was created. Robust systems are essential to ensure equal access and fair treatment of all the members of the population in government employment. This central organ created now supports a
cost effective recruitment process and is a check against complaints on nepotism and other possible malpractices when the whole process was largely decentralized.

xi. The Public Service Commission, which was previously both an actor and an oversight organ limiting its effectiveness, is through amendments of the Public Service Act of 2002 in 2008 now an oversight organ to oversee effective implementation of human resource management policies in the public service.

National and Sector level Human Resource Development Initiatives

As previously alluded to, the structural adjustment programs and the economic crisis of the 1980s saw negative developments in terms of human resource planning at national level. In the 1990s, national development plans were no longer developed and were replaced by poverty reduction strategy papers and later National Strategies for Economic Growth and Poverty Reduction. The focus of these instruments was mostly rescue; recovery and equitable development. The emphasis was mostly poverty reduction and achieving of international policy goals such as the Millenium Development Goals. The preparations of these instruments was consultative and the development partners were important stakeholders, sometimes influencing general direction through technical and financial support availed and expected. A National Development Plan has now been developed and launched, spanning the period of 2010/11 and 2015/16, largely corresponding to national development needs and provides the basis for sector development plans. A national level human resource survey is now in the process of being implemented with the aim of supporting the intention of preparing a Human Capital Data Base to allow human capital development data to be available, which will eventually guide national and sector level efforts to deal with prevailing and future skills gaps.

A prominent sector-level initiative is the Human Resource for health initiative driven by the Ministry of Health and Social welfare and supported by development partners and non-governmental organizations. A strategic plan is in place and there are numerous initiatives on the understanding of needs, gaps, and measures to be taken to effectively and adequately resource the health sector in the country. Important recent initiatives include the Benjamin William Mkapa Foundation (BMAF) program of encouraging health professional to serve in the underserved areas and to later on mainstream them into the public service system. A DANIDA supported initiative has also been launched to support health institutions of the private sector which train mid-level health professionals to increase availability of adequate health personnel.

Technical assistance as well plays a defined but limited role in the national development efforts. A joint study in effective technical cooperation undertaken in 2008 indicated that local and international technical assistance is provided to the different national development projects and programs; both short-term and long-term assistance. Volunteers are also part of the technical assistance coming to work and learn in the critical sectors of the economy.
mainly health and education. The volunteers stay in the country for a limited period of two years or less. Most volunteers come from Japan, Korea, the US through the US Peace Corps, and UN bodies working in the country. Non-Governmental Organizations also absorb some of the professionals from training institutions and provide training ground for future international personnel from Tanzania. In consideration of the importance of this, international NGOs are encouraged to provide Tanzanians with employment in and promotions to positions of decision making and management in the NGOs.

**Challenges of Human Resource Development to Economic Transformation**

Economic transformation is an agenda of critical importance and human resource development is one of the important pillars for a successful transformation. Though there are numerous efforts undertaken nationally since independence to achieve social and economic transformation, the current transformation agenda has to enable our country to become a middle income country as per our National Development Vision 2025. National efforts to promote human resource development are constrained by the following challenges: Given increased importance to the expansion of the education system at all levels, the biggest challenge is to maintain the level of resources available for education. The loan provision mechanism to students in post-secondary education is already strained and the challenge is to design a system to allow for appropriate focus, fairness and be politically acceptable. This is however an area that is constantly attended to and reviewed.

A significant challenge is to achieve the literacy rates of the 1970s while giving adequate attention to formal schooling as well as adult education. The level of illiteracy in the country was reduced from over 50% after independence to less than 10% but the figures now stand at over 30%. The economic problems of the 1980s and consequent policies are largely to blame. Nonetheless, new national level importance has to be placed on adult education including a revision of strategies and provision of adequate financing both at national level and sub-national Government level. Previously, in sector programs, adult education was a major component and funds were made available for community mobilization and education, including the adult learning component. This is said not to be the general case today affecting projects and sector goals as effective participation of illiterate citizens is limited.

With the adoption of the decentralization approach to human resource development in the public service, public institutions are responsible for the capacity building of their own staff. Financial constraints and competing demands often relegate training and development of staff second to other issues considered more important including projects and program oversight activities and implementations. To improve the situation, systematic training is encouraged based on training needs assessments to develop training plans and implementable action plans to permit training to be linked to organizational objectives, activities and plans. There is also need for the relevant sectors to focus on new skill areas critical for the exploitation of emerging resources in petroleum and gas.
National capacity is also constrained to allow adequate attention to be given to human resources requirements in the public sector in terms of numbers and types. When more teachers, doctors, nurses, agricultural staff are recruited in respect to the national emphasis and transformation objectives, other professionals are recruited in less numbers. This situation may be limiting organizational performance in the short-term and might in the medium and long-term affect succession planning. It is important that the resultant effects are well understood and recruitment to also intermittently focus on all the other cadres.

The efforts being made to increase female students in all levels of education are bearing results but not yet adequately. The gains in primary education and the expansion of secondary education will be less meaningful if necessary steps are not taken to support female students’ access to higher education especially in the sciences specializations.

Another significant challenge is to influence desired and optimum use of the different tools and systems for effective utilization of human resources. Most necessary tools and systems to support institutional performance in the public service have been developed and disseminated for use in public organizations. There are notable performance improvements but the desired level of performance has not yet been achieved. This entails that the initiatives to create a performance culture have to be continuously reviewed and improved. In the planning table, is a system to assess institutional performance and accountability to complement individual performance evaluation and other measures which are presently undertaken.

The youths who in the future are going to be educated in big numbers are the present and clear future challenge. As agriculture is yet to become more productive, few will be employed in that sector and the industrial and service sectors have to absorb the future educated youth. Emphasis has to be put on rapid development of our different sectors of the economy so that there is capacity to effectively harness the potential and essential energy and enthusiasm from our youth. It is pleasing that 'business incubators' are starting to take root and are being created in our higher learning institutions, for example the entrepreneurship development program at UDSM Business School. Though it is early days, incubators are important in providing support to young entrepreneurs by giving them skills and facilitating their access to capital, legal advice and markets.

Regional integration is an important dimension to the transformation agenda and human resource development. Opportunities are to be created and new challenges experienced. For example, our labour market will be a regional market and our nationals will have access to a regional market. Although integration will result into increase of economic activities, it will also result in competition for resources and employment where the fittest are to survive. Our efforts to develop our human resources have to be shaped in the light of the changing environment and the future plausible scenario of unrestricted labour mobility and capital markets.

**Conclusion**
Apparently, Tanzania as a country has been making tremendous efforts to create an environment where its people are developed and capacitated enough to contribute to the country's development more effectively. There has been an impasse period in our history where gains of the early years of independence were eroded. However, significant efforts are at play in the last decade and a half to create the requisite capacity to face development challenges in this era of globalization and information technology revolution.

Human Resources Development is a significant factor to economic transformation. There are many good signs of increased attention and investment in this area; some examples include the intention and the efforts to have all primary school leavers attend secondary education, an objective which has started by the deliberate policy to have all who pass their primary school examinations join secondary schools. A lot of mileage has also been gained in tertiary education which includes increased enrolments and increased number of colleges both public and private. There are significant efforts in the public sector to improve the functioning of public organizations to create more welcoming environment for the wealth creation goal.

There are nonetheless some important challenges including increasing the participation of female students in higher education and increased enrolment in the sciences, and particularly basic sciences. Public organizations have to become more responsive to public needs and be more effective and efficient. These are noble goals to be achieved within appropriate frameworks of good leadership and management control systems. The youth agenda is as well a significant addition to the important issues which this nation has to address for human resources development to sustainably contribute to economic transformation.

References


Chapter 15


Tiyesere Mercy Chikapa Jamali

Opportunities to reconcile paid work and non-paid commitments like hobbies also has a potential for minimizing work-related stress and absenteeism associated with work and family demands

Introduction

This chapter argues for the business case of work-life balance policies in Malawi’s public sector. Work life balance policies have been defined as those that enhance the autonomy of workers in the process of coordinating and integrating work and personal lives, (De Cieri:2005:90). The Work Foundation argues that work-life balance is about people having a measure of control over when, where and how they work. It is achieved when an individual's right to a fulfilled life inside and outside paid work is accepted and respected as the norm, to the mutual benefit of the individual, business and society. For a long period of time, the Malawi civil service has been operating with inadequate numbers in most case at less than 50%. For instance, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Cooperation argued that the high vacancy rate in the ministry is affecting delivery of services as it is currently short of protocol officers and foreign services officer, (Jimu, 2013:4). Similarly, between 1990 and 2000, the average vacancy rate in the Ministry of Education Science Technology was at 58% (GOM,2002) and shortage of qualified primary and secondary school teachers continues to haunt the ministry (GOM 2008). High vacancy rates and increased absenteeism result in more workload pressures on available staff. There are also high vacancy rates in the public health sector. The level of vacancies across the entire public health system is acute with an overall vacancy rate of 33 percent. However, this figure masks the severe shortage of nurses where 64 percent of established posts are unfilled. For surgeons and various types of doctors, the vacancy ratio reaches close to 100 percent. Of Malawi's 156 public sector doctors, 81 are working in central hospitals meaning that some districts do not have any doctor at all (Record and Mohiddin, 2006). This leads to added stress, burnout and negatively affects staff morale (GOM 2002).

The above is the trend in most government ministries and departments. Attrition and recruitment freezes due to associated recruitment costs are some of the associated reasons for this appalling situation. In this chapter, we argue that the failure for the public sector to recognize the business case for work-life balance has also significantly contributed to this situation. However, there has not been any effort to argue ably for the case of work-life balance in an effort to retain qualified staff in the public sector generally and specifically in the education sector. This chapter therefore sets out to explore the available work-life balance policies in the public service to allow for a proper balance between work and life. Secondly, the extent to which the public sector employer in Malawi think there is a business
case for the retention of human resource, and if so, whether these strategies are applied consistently throughout the organizational structures within the public sector. Lastly, it explores whether the policies allow for the balance or if they indeed entrench work/life conflict. In this endeavor this chapter argues that work life conflict is contributing to the high vacancy rates in the education sector. Lastly the chapter presents the business case for work-life balance policy. The policy that this chapter is interested in is to do with unpaid leave.

Methods
The study adopted two methods of data collection, namely semi-structured interviews and review of documents. Although structured approaches maximize the reliability and validity in terms of measurement of key concepts, however, the semi structured interviews were preferred for their ability to focus on the interviewees’ point of view in terms of their experiences with work-life balance policies. Furthermore, this enabled probing for details in the process of the interviews due to their flexible nature which do not follow a structured questionnaire (Bryman and Bell, 2003:342). The study relied also on the review of documents which included the Public Service Act(1994 ), the draft Malawi Public Service Regulations(2010) the Gender mainstreaming policy, the Academic and Administrative Staff regulations for the University of Malawi(2007), The Clerical, Technical and Support staff regulations(2008), The Employment Act(2000) and other relevant documents on the subject matter. Public documents and organizational documents offer a great source of information in business and management research (Bryman and Bell, 2003, 413). Content analysis was used to analyze the data by developing themes from the in-depth interviews.

Work-life balance and work-life conflict
There has been increased popularity of policies aimed at enabling employees balance their work and non-work aspects in order to enhance business performance. As De Cieri, Holmes, Abbott and Pettit(2005) noted, an organization’s need to attract and retain valued employees in a highly competitive labor market is a strong motivating factor for increased organizational awareness and action with regard to human resource policies and practices that address work-life balance(WLB). From the employee’s perspective, the Work Foundation argues that work-life balance is about people having a measure of control over when, where and how they work. It is achieved when an individual's right to a fulfilled life inside and outside paid work is accepted and respected as the norm, to the mutual benefit of the individual, business and society. It is also looked at as the maintenance of a balance between responsibilities at work and at home. WLB strategies also enhance the autonomy of workers in the process of co-ordinating and integrating work and non-work aspects of their lives (Felstead et al., 2002 cited by De Cieri et al., 2005). From the employer’s perspective, WLB strategies in an organizational setting include policies covering flexible work arrangements; child and dependent care and family and parental leave that enable employees balance work and non-work aspects. It is believed that doing so enables ‘the retention of skills, investment and company experience’ (Tomlinson, 2004: 416).
This concept is not to be confused with flexible working time arrangements. In arguing for WLB as opposed to flexible working, many commentators have pointed out that flexibility may serve employers more than employees. Flexible working time arrangements have been heralded as a way to reconcile increased pressures of work and family-life on employees (Dex and Scheibl, 2001:411). As Kersley et al (2006) noted, flexible working arrangements potentially offer employees greater opportunity to shape their work-life balance. However flexible working practices do not necessarily always ensure that employees have a better work-life balance, but are implemented to meet productivity interests of the firm. Some flexible working time arrangements like working overtime and annualized hours places the control over the hours of work in the hands of the employer as such do not necessarily enable employees to balance work and life aspects, (Gall,1996:49 cited by Kersley et al,2006). As Rubery (2005) cited by Lewis (2009) argues, when employees are given no option but to work long and/or antisocial hours or to take short-term contracts, this may be working to the advantage of employers. This results in a ‘myth of work-life balance’ (Gambles et al,2006). Table 16.1 presents those flexible working time arrangements that have a potential of offering employees an opportunity to shape their work-life balance.

Table 16.1: Flexible working time arrangements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Flexible arrangement</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Flextime</td>
<td>There is no set start or finish time but an agreement to work a set number of hours per week or per month</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Reduced hours</td>
<td>The ability to reduce working hours e.g. Switching from full time to part-time employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Increased hours</td>
<td>The ability to increase working hours e.g. switching from part-time to full-time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Change shift patterns</td>
<td>The ability to change shift patterns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Job-sharing</td>
<td>sharing a full-time job between employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Compressed working Weeks</td>
<td>where full time hours are worked over less than five days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Term-time working</td>
<td>This allows an employee to remain on a full or part time contract but gives them rights to unpaid leave of absence during school holidays, opportunity to work from home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Home working</td>
<td>Ability to work during evenings and weekend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Weekend and evening working</td>
<td>Assistance with child and elderly care enabling employees to work-standardised hours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Childcare facilities and financial support</td>
<td>Time off from work which is provided without pay, but retains position in a company and may retain benefits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source, Kersley et al 2006

Work/life conflict is defined as a form of inner role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and other life domains, as family, are mutually incompatible in some respect, whereby participation in one role is made more difficult by the virtue of participation in the other (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985 cited by De Cieri, 2005). It is characterized by a lack of fit between employees and their life responsibilities and the goals of the organization (Becker and Huselid, 1998; Erwin and Iverson, 1994; Lewis and Cooper, 1995). Work/life conflict
may include issues such as difficulties faced related to child-rearing, other kinship responsibilities or stressful life events (Hobson et al., 2001).

Review of existing literature reveals that there are studies that have been done on the broader subject of work-life balance. For instance, firstly, Tomlinson (2004) researched on whether employers in the UK recognize the business case for flexible career paths in terms of employees gaining working time flexibility and access to career progression. Her study focused in particular on women’s flexibility following maternity leave and their ability to access part-time management positions through accommodating a reduction in working hours or the integration and promotion of women working part-time to managerial status. The study involved 62 qualitative interviews with mothers currently working in the hospitality industry and a further 10 interviews with male and female managers of these women. Although Tomlinson’s (2004) study revealed the lack of enough evidence that managers recognize a business case for the integration of part-time workers into higher occupational grades in the UK, however, the study focuses much on part-time workers. In that regard, there is need for a study that looks at fulltime workers. Hence the current study. In Malawi as earlier on pointed out, the norm of employment in the formal sector is fulltime.

Furthermore, Tomlinson (2004) was writing in an environment where there is government commitment in advancing work-life balance policies as evidenced in the launch of its Work-life Balance Campaign in March 2000 with the aim of encouraging employers to allow employees time-off for other outside work activities (Chikapa-Jamali, 2007; unpublished). In Malawi, no such thing has ever happened, which shows that the need for balancing work and life specifically which does not impede on employee’s career progression has never been taken as a priority. Secondly, most of the existing studies focus on European countries like, UK (Tomlinson, 2004, Dex and Smith, 2002, Hogarth, Hasluck, Pierre, Winterbotham and Vivian, 2000), Australia, (Kramar, 1998). There is thus limited literature on the issues of work-life balance in African countries including Malawi and this study seeks to fill that gap.

It is from this background that this study sets out firstly to determine if there are policies in place to allow employees in Malawi a proper balance between work and life. Secondly, the extent to which the public sector employer in Malawi think there is a business case for the retention of human resource and, if so, whether these strategies are applied consistently throughout the organizational structures within the public sector. Lastly, it explores whether the policies allow for the balance or if they indeed entrench work/life conflict. In this endeavor this chapter argues that work life conflict is contributing to the high vacancy rates in the public sector.

The business case for Work-life balance policies
There are business gains from enabling employees reconcile work with non-work responsibilities, leading to mutual gains between employers and employees, (Edwards et al.:2004:168). Firstly, work-life balance policies enable organizations to reduce costs from recruitment, training and turnover through retention strategies, (Yasbeck, 2004:2). Similarly,
through improved staff retention systems, the organization loses less institutional knowledge and receives greater returns from staff training investments as employees stay longer, (Yasbeck, 2004:4).

Secondly, the business case includes concerns about skills shortages. Organization’s need to attract and retain valued employees in a highly competitive labor market is a strong motivating factor for implementing work-life balance policies (DeCieri, Abbott and Pettit, 2005:90). In order to meet skill shortages, only those employers that seek to increase employee morale, commitment and satisfaction and reduce sources of work-related stress by offering work-life balance opportunities alongside competitive remuneration will improve their ability to attract better recruits (Yasbeck, 2004:4). This widens pool of resources through increased skills base necessary for attaining organizational goals (ibid:6).

Further, work-life balance practices are introduced to meet the changing structure of demand for labour necessary for meeting the needs and unpredictable demands of customers twenty-four hours seven days a week, (Lewis, 2001:2). Furthermore, work-life balance practices especially part-time working is cost effective as it is used for tasks that take a limited time such as catering and cleaning in order to match labour to peaks and troughs of demand whilst avoiding expensive overtime and shift payments (Edwards et al, 2004:168). Similarly, having a flexible supply of labour enables optimal use of capital, premises and technology since there will always be people to use them, (Gardiner, 2006:2).

Opportunities to reconcile paid work and non-paid commitments like hobbies also has a potential for minimising work-related stress and absenteeism associated with work and family demands as evidenced at GlaxoSmithKline where work-life balance boosted staff morale and reduced unauthorized absenteeism (DTI, 2003:16).

Implementation of work-life balance policies also improves corporate image, hence the organization is looked at as good employer thereby being able to attract and retain skilled employees (Yasbeck, 2004:3). For instance, Domestic and General is determined to become a ‘first choice employer’ by implementing an assortment of contracts, like term-time, student and weekend contracts and part-time working (DTI, 2003). Good corporate image also attracts customers, resulting in increased profitability (Dex et al, 2002:4).

Lastly, work-life balance practices improve staff motivation and reduces labor turnover thereby fostering good employment relations, greater employee satisfaction and productivity, (Hogarth et al, 2001:xv).

**Work-life balance policies in the public service in Malawi**

With respect to the Malawian context, there are policies that aim to help people balance work and life. These include firstly, maternity leave: “A female employee shall be entitled, within every three years, to at least eight weeks maternity leave on full pay. Further, the section provides that during the period when an employee is on maternity leave, her normal benefits
and entitlements, including her contractual rights and accumulation of seniority, shall continue uninterrupted and her period of employment shall not be considered to have been interrupted, reduced or broken (Employment Act 2000 section 47(1-2). Men also have paternity leave entitlement to “a maximum of five working days” (Draft Malawi Public Service Regulations, 2010). The act also provides in section 37 for maximum working hours for employees which would potentially allow men and women to engage in care work outside the workplace. Furthermore, section 5(1) provides that no person shall discriminate against any employee or prospective employee on the grounds of … marital status or family responsibilities in respect of recruitment, training, promotion, terms and conditions of employment, termination of employment or other matters arising out of the employment relationship.”

Some public organizations like parastatals provide for paternity leave in very exceptional cases. For instance in the University of Malawi, the conditions of service provides that “A male staff member shall be entitled up to 30 calendar days of paid paternity leave in exceptional circumstance where the wife is incapacitated arising from delivery as certified by a medical doctor” (UNIMA 2007s18). In practice, this chapter reveals that it is mostly women who take leave from their employers to attend to any family responsibility. In fact as Kanyongolo(2011) notes, most men are not aware of the provisions on family responsibilities. Apart from the above short term provisions, in some public sector organizations there are long-term provisions like in the University as well where tenured academics have a chance for leave of absence which is not necessarily for family responsibilities for a minimum of two years and a maximum of four years to “but for taking up alternative employment or party office in any other political office” (UNIMA 2007, 21c). In the university, leave of absence is given “after 6 years of active service or four years after returning from either further training or sabbatical leave provided he/she had already had six years of active service (UNIMA 21c(i)."

“A tenured academic is also entitled to a one year sabbatical leave “in order to do research and/or acquaint himself/herself with new ideas and techniques in her/his area of specialization… The domiciled academic staff member shall become entitled to sabbatical leave of one year for every five academic years of active service subject to the condition that s/he intends to return to the University at the end of the leave and thereafter a year’s sabbatical leave every subsequent period of four years active service subject to the condition that that he/she shall return to the University at the end of the Sabbatical Leave.” (UNIMA 2007, 21b( i-ii).

Unpaid leave may be given only when a staff member secures her/his own sponsorship for training whether abroad or locally, and where the training is considered irrelevant by the University to the Staff Members work, (UNIMA 2007, 21a(ix). In the civil service, unpaid study leave is also given to a civil servant who is not eligible for paid study leave for instance if he is on probation and has had his request for paid study leave turned down by the responsible officer (Draft Malawi Public Service Regulations,2010,s 99 and s103). There are also government circulars guiding career breaks for balancing work and life.
However, we note that there are inconsistencies in asking for unpaid leave. It is only maternity leave that is applied consistently with the rest not being consistently applied as some are allowed unpaid leave or leave of absence whilst others are not allowed although this is not provided for in the rules (See interview extract with Respondent 4 below). This inconsistency is attributed to lack of clear regulation of long unpaid leave in most organizations resulting in leaving too much discretion to the implementer of the policies. The regulations are clear in that regard in the University “At the Principal’s discretion up to a maximum of seven days unpaid leave may be given in any one twelve month period beginning 1st September, provided that additional unpaid leave may be given for attendance at an approved course (University of Malawi 1998 S 9). Thus there is nothing like 3 years unpaid leave for clerical and technical staff for other reasons apart from training although some have been given up to 6 years unpaid leave.

Because of this lack of clarity and although managers may recognize the business case for work life balance, access to this practice may not be communicated formally, leading to informal negotiations for work-life balance opportunities. Unfortunately, ‘it is not the case that some informally negotiated flexible arrangements are universally accessible’ (Tomlinson, 2004:416). As such, people will start up rumors as regards why somebody was allowed leave when others were not citing patrimonial tendencies i.e relations that exist between the employee and the employer among others. This unfortunately reduces the morale of other employees. More importantly, the fact that employees do not know for sure if the provision for unpaid leave exist or not (however their applying for the same means that they have an idea about its existence, yet the employer does not grant applicants on the basis that it does not exist), this may mean that employees are not given a chance to know the terms and conditions on which s/he is employed, contrary to the provisions of the Public Service Act (1994) “Subject to this Constitution and to this Act, every officer employed in the public service has the right of access to the terms and conditions on which he is employed.” (s26).

“I was working in the University. I applied for maternity leave. Whilst on maternity leave I applied for unpaid leave to follow my husband for further studies. This was never approved the reason being that I left without permission. I nevertheless proceeded to accompany my husband... When I came back and tried for ask for my job, I was told I needed to appear before a disciplinary hearing. After the hearing, I was told that I was fired from my job..... Then my job was advertised. I applied again, went through the interview process like anyone else who had applied. I then got the job back after lengthy discussions between my immediate supervisor and the employer. The unfortunate thing is that the previous year, my colleague had her similar request approved. Her job position was there yet when she returned; she did not want to take back the job.” (Respondent 4, Zomba, 2009)

This has huge implications on women as some are forced to resign to fulfill that which is being in conflict with their paid work. Lately, with the boom of private employers which do not have branches throughout the districts in Malawi, a lot of women have also resigned so as to follow their husbands to the husband’s new workplace as it is becoming expensive and difficult to maintain long distance marriages. As such, women’s careers are indeed being
delayed, derailed or even curtailed. Unfortunately existing policies do not take into account the specific circumstances of families. The transfer of employees is dictated by the availability of an appropriate post at a particular duty station. Living at separate locations may create social problems for the family members which in some cases result in breaking up of marriages. This is even worse when the spouse’s job involves being abroad for longer periods (Msaka 2007:11). Although there are efforts in public service to develop policies for postings and transfers that do not adversely affect one gender and another, however, this does not cater for the need for unpaid leave for family responsibilities.

In the main stream civil service, there is also no provision for unpaid leave but you still find some people being given the chance to go and come back to their jobs, with others not at all having this chance. This therefore means that one cannot request for a long-term leave for family responsibilities. For majority of cases these inconsistencies put people in awkward positions when they want to accompany their spouses abroad for further studies and other similar responsibilities long term in nature. This results in people resigning or being fired from their jobs as in extract below”

“I applied for unpaid leave to follow my husband who was going abroad for studies... This request was never replied to despite several reminders... I proceeded to take leave without their authorization...(and) I was fired from the job” (Respondent 1, 2009, Zomba).

“After serving 14years as a Science and Mathematics secondary school teacher the Ministry fired me because I asked to accompany my husband who was going for further studies” (Respondent 3, 2009, Zomba)

According to the existing regulations, officers who proceed to leave without the permission are considered to have committed an act of misconduct. MPSR(2010s 224(1) ably stipulates that “a civil servant commits an act of misconduct if he or she absents oneself from his/her work during normal working hours without valid reason or permission from a responsible officer or controlling officer.” This is considered absconding. Where a report is received by the Public Service Commission from a responsible officer that an officer has absconded it may, after such further investigation if any, as it considers desirable, dismiss the absconding officer(Malawi Public Service Commission Regulations, 1989s46(1).

The respondents also alluded to the inconsistencies in applying of the informal policies in the public sector:

I had applied for unpaid leave to escort my husband who was going for further studies. I was told that the leave was not given because there was a policy forbidding unpaid leave for the stated reason. (Respondent 2, 2009, Zomba).

Where an officer has been dismissed and who considers that he should be reinstated to the public service, he may apply in writing to the responsible officer for reinstatement to the post from which he was dismissed, who shall forward it to the commission and the commission may after such an enquiry into the reasons for absence as it considers desirable reinstate him in the service with a penalty, if any, as it considers just or may refuse the application(Malawi
Public Service Regulations 1989 s47). In most of the respondents’ cases, the penalty has been loss in served years.

“When I came back, I had problems with being reinstated. It took about 10 months for me to get back my job. I was only lucky because I knew somebody from the ministry but some people don’t get reinstated…” (Respondent 2, 2009, Zomba).

This is the case even in the University of Malawi:

...When my husband came back, he asked if he could be given his job back. He was lucky because the position was still vacant since it is difficult to find people in his field. He had his job back but had to lose the years he had served and start all over again (Respondent 8).

These inconsistencies in the interpretation and implementation of certain legal provisions is problematic and is contrary to the provisions of the Public Service Act(1994s7) which provides that “all public officers shall be treated fairly and equally in all aspects of human resource management and development …”

This is also the case with men:

My wife and I work as lecturers in the University of Malawi. My wife got a Scholarship to study for a two year Masters degree abroad. Then, we had a 5 month old baby. I was therefore expected to escort my wife. Unfortunately, my request was denied as there is no supporting regulation to that effect other than the leave of absence that I was also not qualifying for. I proceeded nevertheless. I was fired. (Respondent 8)

This chapter therefore argues that these respondents are being discriminated on the basis of their marital status and family responsibilities contrary to section 5 of the Employment Act. This is also against the provision of the Public Service Act s14) which stipulates that “The management of the public service shall be based on modern and appropriate human management concepts and techniques within a framework which meets basic requirement for … concern for the welfare of public officers as employees.”

This unfortunately results in the education sector losing key people. The Ministry of Education continues to have inadequate supply of qualified teacher as it keeps losing people who want to have a career break for family responsibilities, yet government is busy with “improve(ing) teaching inputs so as to facilitate more effective learning outcomes, recruiting trained teachers and training those who are not qualified, while making efficient use of the scarce resource of trained, specialist teachers” yet it is busy carelessly losing the same scarce resource of trained specialist teachers(GOM 2008:15-16). This has huge implications on women as some are forced to resign to fulfill that which is being in conflict with their paid work.
When asked if utilizing available work-life balance has negative implications on careers of those who utilize work-life balance policies available especially on women, the respondents said there are indeed negative implications on their careers as in extract below:

“Yes it has especially when the children are young ie. still in nursery and primary schools. It is challenging to leave these children in the care of a nanny or husband while we are attending to our busy professional schedules. It is easy for our workmates (who are mostly men) who rarely excuse themselves from work duties to attend such responsibilities not to recommend us for promotions or they get recommended for these promotions. There are instances when a promotion will require movements to another city. It is difficult for young mothers to leave their children behind to take up these promotional positions. The same is the case with training... One of the challenges that I have encountered as a mother with a baby is that of attending workshops or trainings with a baby and a nanny. Whilst in government they give you support for this arrangement, there have been cases where the organizers of such courses do not want to give you any support eg. Organizers booking rooms for two participants when you have a nanny and a baby.” (Respondent 5: Principal Human Resource Management Officer, Ministry of Education, 2009, Zomba)

Respondent 6, 7 and 8 expressed similar sentiments emphasising the difficulty of getting promotion when utilizing worklife balance:

“Yes, since I have two under-fives, it is hard for me to take challenges at work eg. I feel that I need more time to raise kids before I apply for a PhD. So it is mostly due to personal factors and not organizational factors” (Respondent 6, 2009)

“...I find it difficult to work in closet in odd hours which is possible for my male colleagues. They can close themselves inside their offices and work up to 2 am. Since promotion criterion is the same, he will be promoted first than myself.” (Respondent 7, 2011).

“Because of the children I have not been able to look for other job opportunities that will take me away from my family. In this way my career progression has been affected.” (Respondent 8 , 2011)

As such, use of work-life balance policies often act as a barrier to career mobility (Tomlinson,2004:418). This therefore makes is contrary to the Public Service Act(1994s12) which provides that “all public officers shall be accorded the opportunity for career advancement and self-development through promotions and appropriate available training”

Essentially this demotivates staff who may then opt for jobs that are less demanding. But there should be something that organizations can do to ensure that there is no conflict but a balance between work and life.

Lately, with the boom of private employers which do not have branches throughout the districts in Malawi, a lot of women have also resigned so as to follow their husbands to the husbands’ new workplace as it is becoming expensive and difficult to maintain long distance marriages. As such, women’s careers are indeed being delayed, derailed or even curtailed.
This therefore makes it difficult for women to make it to leadership positions. Thus most of the victims in this case are women as they are the ones who are expected in most cases to follow husbands. This therefore worsens the imbalances in terms of gender disaggregation in the public sector. This is in view of the realities of patriarchy that puts women in a position where family commitments come into serious conflict with occupational life (Aziz and Cunningham 2008 cited by Nwagbara and Akanji, 2012) and thus perpetuate a subordinate position, (Mvula et al 1997:13). With only about 10% of women getting formal employment (Bolinger, Stover and Palamuleni, 2002), lack of policies to retain women in the public sector will thus contribute negatively to the achievement of the 50-50 campaign agenda that aims at equal representation in decision making positions. Moreover, the few women in formal employment continue to occupy marginal decision making positions in political, economic, social and administrative institutions in Malawi (UN, 2010). Where they are asked to lose their served years due to family responsibilities is therefore adding a huge blow to the public sector in maintaining a reasonable number of women. After all, the Malawi Constitution (1994) in section 24(1) states that “Women have the right to full and equal protection by the law and have the right not to be discriminated against on the basis of their gender or marital status…(2) any law that discriminates against women on the basis of gender or marital status shall be invalid and legislation shall be passed to eliminate customs and practices that discriminate against women such as discrimination in work, business and public affairs.” This therefore makes it difficult to achieve the 1997 SADC threshold of 30%, let alone the 2009 SADC 50/50 Gaborone Declaration standard, which forms an integral part of Malawi’s gender mainstreaming efforts(GOM 2007).

There are gender imbalances in decision making positions. At Chancellor College, all the six professors are male, only two women are associate professors, there has never been female principals, vice principals and female registrars. Further, out of the 5 deans of faculty, only one is female and out of the 24 heads of departments, only 7 are female as presented in table 2 below. At the university office, there has never been a female vice chancellor and pro-vice chancellor, or University registrar (as per the Chancellor College Staff lists 2012). The trend is also similar in other constituent colleges of the University of Malawi. In the entire public service, as at 2011 there were only 22% of women are in decision making positions as in table 16.2 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16.2: All Ministries and Departments 2011 Public Service
At Chancellor College, there are also more men in managerial positions than women as in table 16.3 below and Gender imbalance as also reflected in the position of faculty deans is as indicated in table 16.4

### Table 16.3: Managerial Positions at Chancellor College.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Total number of established positions</th>
<th>Total number of women</th>
<th>Total number of men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University Office</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Chancellor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Registrar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy University Registrar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Principal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Registrar (Administration)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Registrar (Academic)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Registrar (Students Welfare)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Finance Office Officer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Assistant Finance Office Officer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accountant</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Librarian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 16.4: Deans of Faculty by gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Dean</th>
<th>Deputy Dean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Conclusion

Work-life balance policies have been presented as providing mutual gains by arguing that flexibility in working time arrangements is seen as the solution to work-life imbalance for families with young children and family responsibilities. Allowing people balance work and life is also a legal requirement for Malawian employers. However, it is imperative to appreciate the tensions between business imperatives for temporal flexibility to meet service demands on the one hand and work-life balance on the other (Hyman et al, 2005). Firstly, managers sometimes find it difficult to reconcile pressures for cost effective variability in working times (for instance annualised hours) to meet 24/7 service delivery and at the same time to ensure that employees enjoy a work-life balance. This therefore has seen the
The coexistence of work-life balance policies and work intensification within the workplace (Edwards et al, 2004). In labour shortage areas therefore, work-life balance opportunities are only offered to key staff which the organization wants to retain (McBride, 2003). Furthermore there are costs associated with provision of work-life balance policies. As Forth (1997) notes, there are administrative burdens of providing the different arrangements. Yasbeck (2004:3) noted that there are direct costs which are associated with parental leave, payments or providing equipment to telecommuters for example. There are also indirect costs associated with temporarily filling the posts of absentees and temporary reductions in productivity arising from disruptions. Amidst these business reasons and costs, organizations have to weigh the costs and benefits to make a decision towards work-life balance policies. These tensions and costs notwithstanding, proper regulation and implementation of work-life balance policies will go a long way in solving recruitment, retention, promotion and motivation of women.

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Innovation and Performance Management in the Public Service: the Experience of Mozambique

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If innovation and performance management is a critical force in transforming public administration and civil service, then it should be nurtured, taught, disseminated as a culture and lastly it should be assessed, appraised and emulated.

Introduction

For over the past 20 years African States, under the auspices of the African Union, have been encouraged to implement Public Sector Reforms in view to foster and modernize public administration and civil service, to contribute to build a strong African State and promote social and economic transformation. The constitution and enactment of the Conference of African Ministers for Public Administration (CAMPS) back in 1994, is an unquestionable landmark towards the development and implementation of an African Agenda for the Improvement of Public Administration as outlined in African Charter on Public Service. The Charter provides generic guiding values and principles of African Public Service and defines a code of conduct for public servants. Adequate and effective implementation of the Charter is not possible without a committed and purposeful effort into human resources development and management and the pursuit of meritocracy in African Public Service, which in turn requires strong and solid performance management systems.

Among the Key elements that feature the chart which are relevant to public services in Africa are:

- The commitment to a citizen centered public service; commitment to efficient and quality service delivery which value the participation of citizens;
- Respect for human rights and legality;
- Access to quality public service;
- Access to information;
- Modernization of public service;
- Meritocracy
- Utilization of technology;
- Behavior and rules of conduct of public servants;
- Rights of public servants; professionalism, ethics and integrity;
- Prevention and combating of corruption;

Given the significance of the above outlined attributes that are key to effective performance of the public service, Mozambique has adopted a series of reforms to incorporate them into her public service, as the proceeding discussion will attempt to demonstrate.

An Overview of Reforms in Mozambique
On independence in 1975, Mozambique inherited a challenging colonial administrative system which had been designed to serve the colonial elite, an administrative system weakened by a substantial deficit of human capacity since qualified officials and professionals fled the country after independence, a system with inadequate policies to address the needs of the people in a context of a new democratic nation. Aware that a strong state is key to promote economic transformation, social, cultural and economic development, to ensure national unity, peace and wellbeing for all, the Government embarked on a flexible and dynamic approach to build the State while ensuring that its overall organization and functioning adapts, overtime, to ever changing political, social, cultural and economic contexts. In this process, political, administrative and financial reforms have been the underlining driving force, and the building of a strong public administration a central agenda.

The adaptive approach to building and consolidating the State can be best framed in three distinct, yet interlinked phases. The first phase starts with the independence in 1975, a landmark for the birth of the Mozambican State. The second phase starting in 1986, was characterized by profound economic transformations towards a open market, away from the centralized economy which characterized the early years of independence. The third phase, from 1990, was marked by the approval of a new constitution, based on principles of democratic pluralism and rule of law. In the early 2001, a systematic and global approach to reforms was launched aiming at promoting good governance, promoting decentralization and deconcentration, promoting adequate financial governance, ensuring professionalization of public service, fighting against corruption, improving the quality of service delivery and promoting the growth and expansion of the role(s) of private sector.

A fundamental change on the role of state and its relationships with the different sectors of society is worth highlighting, from the time of independence to date. With reforms, the state changed from a central, to a decentralized state where participation of all stakeholders in decision making is encouraged, from a state producer of goods and services to a state that regulates the process of production of goods and services, from a state that owned the monopoly of social initiatives to a state that facilitates and opens up for the participation of all relevant stakeholders in society, and a state that is accountable for the delivery of basic social infrastructures such as health, roads and water to ensure the basic necessities of people.

**Key Reforms and relationship to innovation**
As pointed out earlier, Mozambique has been pursuing various public service reforms. This section highlights the key reforms that have been implemented.

**Democratic State and the Rule of Law**
Democracy is important in ensuring the fulfillment of people’s aspirations to participate in their personal and national development. A key process in fostering democracy in Mozambique was the approval of a new constitution in 1990 which established democratic pluralism and enhanced fundamental rights and duties of citizens. Next to a new constitution
was the creation and consolidation of democratic institutions and rules of the democratic transactions to ensure the predictability and regularity and fairness of democratic processes, thus avoiding the sources of social and political conflicts and instability.\footnote{Democracy yields participation, and both are a fertile ground for innovation for they create the grounds for people to reflect, prioritize and seek solutions to peculiar problems}

**Strong Public Administration\footnote{Building a strong public administration is all about innovation, be it at the macro or at the micro-level: it requires coming up with solutions that entail doing things in a different way, out of the ordinary, the traditional and conventional.}**

A strong public administration is an essential tool to ensure the State capability to pursue and implement its policies. Modernizing and continually consolidating the capability of public administration has been a key priority in most African countries. In Mozambique key reforms of public administration were undertaken to ensure the following:

Citizens access to quality, timely and effective service delivery
Public institutions operating in a cost effective manner, geared towards the attainment of national objectives and goals, with a particular focus on promoting economic development and reducing poverty.

Citizens’ focused and results oriented public administration, in a context where the citizen is the criteria to judge the quality of services delivered to him/her.
A public administration system compliant with rules, regulations and the Law, to ensure citizens’ rights, equity and fairness

**Building a Value Based and Ethic Public Administration**

Values are central to ensure probity of public institutions and to establish public respect and credibility for public institutions. The values of merit, integrity, professionalism, accountability and hard work must be the indispensable ingredients of a strong public administration. Important reforms are underway in Mozambique in this regard, and they encompass, the signing and adoption of the African Charter of Public Administration on Values, the adoption of the Mozambican Charter on Public Administration, the adoption of codes of conduct for senior public officials and the adoption of rules and regulations that emulate merit in personnel related decisions, and the inclusion in strategic regulatory documents of specific statements and norms of conduct reflecting core values. Innovation is only valid and relevant to public servants if it is confined within the acceptable boundaries of ethics and values of public administration and civil service.

Besides, innovation in public administration should be encouraged as a value in itself. Inspired by the experience of other African States, Mozambique is promoting the culture of innovation in public administration through the undertaking, amongst others, of the National
Conference on Good Practices, in which awards are given to innovative projects that had a really impact on improvement the public service delivery, good governance, and the wellbeing of Mozambicans.

It is worth-noting that the challenging concept of development, globalization, and emergence of new technologies and changing political convictions of governments are the chief key factors which influence the nature and the process of governance. It is being increasingly realized that good governance has to orient a nation towards building and reinforcing human capacities and capabilities and constructing conducive environment. Governance for development ought to be accountable, participatory, responsive, effective and efficient in implementing the rule of law thereby safeguarding the interest of citizens and marching towards a holistic development. That means that public administration itself must be productive, innovator and capable of using efficiently the tools of performance management and apply them across the public sector.

Good governance is an essential pre-condition for sustainable development. Thus, sustainable development emphasizes a holistic, equitable and far sighted approach to decision making at all levels. The achievement of sustainable development through good governance requires the integration of its economic, scientific and technological, environment and social components at all levels. This is facilitated by continuous dialogue and action in national, regional, continental and global partnership by unfolding various issues of concern in governance and devising suitable strategies for humane governance, innovations and performance.

The existence of initiatives such as the national conference on "Good Governance and Best Practices", is in fact an attempt to provide a national platform for public administration leadership, Research Scholars, Academicians, Politicians, Business Persons, Students, Government Officials, NGO's and other stakeholders from all over the country to assemble and exchange their views, ideas and achievements on public service management and performance management for good governance and productivity in the public sector. In this platform information about good practice in improving services and promoting good governance and productivity in the public sector are shared and disseminated.

**Building a Competent Public Service**

Capable civil servants are indispensable if the state is to fulfill its role and ensure the implementation of its policies. Mozambique addressed the issue by implementing reforms to

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54 The ability to innovate should be encouraged as a critical competency and skills for the new public servants, who should be restless in maintaining the status quo. The management of Public service and public administration should emulate the creation of enabling environment in the workplace to foster creativity and innovation.
attract, retain and develop an adequate cadre of human capital essential to ensure the implementation of public policies, among which:

- Ensure technical and professional capacity in public service,
- Ensure adequate policies that align personnel policies with national development goals,
- Ensure a competitive remuneration system,
- Ensure capacity for local development,
- Mitigate the AIDS pandemic in the workplace,
- Promote gender equity in public service,
- Promote ethics and values,
- Ensure high levels of performance and productivity.

The creation of the Ministry of Public Service in Mozambique in 2007 constituted a key strategy towards the creation of the necessary political framework for development of a capable public service. So far, the impact of this measure has been significant in rescuing the credibility of public service and improving the prestige and self-esteem of civil servants. For example, civil servants have now access to bank loans, thanks to the creation of a central database which allows for bank transfers of salaries in the context of the new financial management system. Human Resources management is becoming more and more professionalized thanks to the creation of the Human Resources Managers Forum which meets regularly on the last Friday of each month to discuss, share experiences on relevant management issues, including mainly those about performance management and innovations. The Forum exists at all levels, and covers 1700 HRMs.

**Building a High Performance and Results oriented Public Administration**

If economic transformation is the priority for African States, adequate planning, monitoring and evaluation framed within a strategic and long term vision of national development are indispensable. In addition, performance management in public administration becomes a fundamental tool to determine the extent to which public institutions and public servants are achieving the intended national goals and objectives. To this end, Mozambique has developed a long term vision of national development, the 2025 Agenda, and has been working to improve the national planning and monitoring system. Recently, in 2009 a new performance management system has been approved and is being implemented.\(^5^5\)

**Culture of Integrity Systems**

Public Administration and Civil Service development, social and political transformation will not happen without integrity. Corruption undermines the efforts of governments, threatens

\(^{55}\) As the old say puts it, that which has not been reported, has not been done. Conversely, that which is not appraised is most likely not developed. This is to say that innovative behavior in public institutions may have greater chances to flourish if it is a behavioral category that is assessed in the framework of performance management.
public trust, and hijacks the ability of the State to fulfill the needs of its people. African Public Administration must operate above reproach and its probity should be unquestionable. To this end, it is fundamental that public institutions and their systems are robust, for the weaker they are the greater the opportunities for illicit operations deviating public funds for other interests. Public sector reforms in Mozambique constitute a global way to ensure strong institutions and systems that prevent corruption, promote integrity and good governance. More specifically, a substantial effort has been put into reforming public financial management, in toughening the anti-corruption regulatory frameworks and in implementing a specific anti-corruption strategy.56

**Enhancing Participation**

The State will not succeed, if it fails to ensure and empower all stakeholders to participate in the decision making process regarding development, nationally and locally. It is crucial that communities at all levels can come together under different forms of organization and representation and make their voices be heard and their issues accounted for. In this regard, Mozambique has promoted decentralization and deconcentration and strengthened diversified forms of local governance and empowerment of civil society.

Mozambique’s experience in this regard includes the implementation of both political and administrative decentralization, ensuring in this way that decisions are made closer to the citizen, and that communities participate in the planning and monitoring processes regards local development. As indicated before, participation enables innovative solutions to locally identified problems and empowers local communities to take their destiny into their hands.

**Promoting Private Sector**

Private sector can only flourish in the midst of a strong public administration. Well functioning public institutions create the necessary environment for the growth of private sector. African Governments should make it a priority the prevalence of a positive and conducive business environment. In Mozambique’s experience highlight goes for the existing National Plan to Promote an Adequate Business Environment which is jointly managed by the Government and Private Sector. So far business environment is improving continually creating the necessary opportunities to attract both national and foreign investment, the creation of jobs and contributing to economic growth57.

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56 *Innovation should be an overall feature permeating the construction of systems and mechanisms to promote integrity and enforce the good use of public goods. We shall note that such effort should go way beyond targeting systems and be complement with a greater focus on values and principles, for in our experience attitude change is a very slow and long process.*

57 *A proper business environment is not achieved without innovation: it means braking away from bureaucracies, implementing smart simplifying of procedures, innovative alliances between the public and private sector and the seizing of new opportunities to make things happen. This takes energy, creativity and innovation.*
Innovation and Performance in Public Service

Innovation permeates in several ways the process of modernization of public administration and public service:

→ Democracy and participation, are enabling factors for communities to seek not only innovative, local solutions to local problems, but also to voice their opinion about how the service was provided and which improvements should be made;

→ Building a strong public administration is all about innovation and performance management, be it at the macro or at the micro-level: it requires coming up with solutions that entail doing things in a different way, out of the ordinary, the traditional and conventional; It entails to put into place measures and mechanisms that allow citizens to evaluate the quality of services provided and in my beloved country – Mozambique – we have innovative way to doing so; an example it is the “opening presidency, by which the President of the Country goes every year to all provinces and meet with the people to hear directly their opinion and governance. The Provincial Governors and district administrators do the same.

→ Mozambique has in place a Performance Management System that links the individual performance to institutional performance and it provides a quarterly space for the manager to meet the collaborator, creating thus room for performance improvement by the civil servants.

→ Innovation performance evaluation in public administration should be encouraged as a value in itself.

→ The ability to innovate should be encouraged as a critical competency and skills for the new civil servants, who should be restless in maintaining the status quo. The management of Public service and public administration should emulate the creation of an enabling environment in the workplace to foster creativity, innovation and feedback. Civil servants and managers need to learn to be part of the solution and not part of the problem.

→ Innovative behavior in public institutions may have greater chances to flourish if it is a behavioral category that is assessed in the framework of performance management. Innovation and performance management should be an overall feature permeating the construction of systems and mechanisms to promote transparency integrity and enforce the good use of public goods.

→ Efforts aiming at promoting integrity should also address in greater and innovative manner values and principles, for in our experience attitude change is a very slow and long process.

→ A proper business environment is not achieved without innovation and performance management: it means breaking away from bureaucracies, implementing smart simplifying procedures, innovative alliances between the public and private sector and the seizing of new opportunities to make things happen. This takes energy, creativity, innovation and the openness to be evaluated and accept criticism.

If innovation and performance management is a critical force in transforming public administration and civil service, then it should be nurtured, taught, disseminated as a culture and lastly it should be assessed, appraised and emulated. Such trend should lead into a
situation where innovation finds its ways as critical variable in our recruitment, staff development, performance appraisal and recognition systems. In this context the implementation of the “African Charter on Public Service” and its enabling instruments is that critical for modernization of African Public Service and the challenge to pursue innovative ways to structure and deliver public services.

**Conclusion**

In concluding, it should be reiterated that Africa is now well equipped with a vision, tools and mechanism to foster the development of Public Administration. However, regional and national domestication of our set vision is still hindered by several factors which undermine the scope, breadth and intensity of reforms implementation. Mechanisms to foster implementation, state accountability, innovation and performance management in the public service still seem to be core issues in ongoing and future debates on improving efficiency and effectiveness in African public services.