

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT FOR IMPROVING PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY IN AFRICA

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Edited by George K. Scott and Malcolm Wallis

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FOREWORD

Citizens are no longer solely interested in the administration of laws but they are rather concerned with the quality of services that are delivered and the outcomes of the service that accrue to them from governmental interventions. In line with global trends, governments are moving from endless debates to effective implementation and decisive action, holding public office bearers and public servants accountable. The process of reform in public sector management has highlighted the fundamental dilemma of upholding the government's role as a promoter of change as well as of stability and consensus. Creating conditions in the public sector which promote a culture of continuous improvement, foster innovation and capitalise on individual and team performance have been an ongoing challenge that governments are confronted with.

The realization that service users in Africa are increasingly demanding that their governments demonstrate results was a key factor in setting the theme focus for the 34th Roundtable Conference of the African Association for Public Administration and Management (AAPAM) held in Zanzibar in November, 2012. The conference addressed the theme "Performance Management for Improving Public Service Delivery in Africa". The conference which triggered the production of this book was co-hosted by the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar, with the support of four principal sponsors: the Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development Canada (DFTAD), the Institute of Public Administration of Canada (IPAC), the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) and the Commonwealth Secretariat. As with all previous Roundtables, the conference participants were from the public sector including the academia, researchers, students and representatives of organizations external to government.

Performance management is an important implementation vehicle that aids governments in keeping up with society in terms of responsiveness and the re-establishment of trust in government. It is a critical component in the policy implementation machinery not only for improved service delivery but more appropriately for a definitive impact on citizens' lives.

It is acknowledged that African countries have, since independence, made significant strides to improve the quality of lives of their citizens. It is also noted that despite several public sector reforms, public service delivery has not met the expectations of the users. Public Service users want government to demonstrate results through better performance management. Performance management ensures that managers effectively perform their functions and deliver value to the citizens accountably. The central thrust of performance management systems is to create competent public servants as human resources are key to the capability of any state.

By producing this book, AAPAM is playing a central role in sharing knowledge as far as performance management and service delivery is concerned. The authors have extensively shared their knowledge and the editors have ensured that the readers benefit from the discussions that ensued during the conference. The book is a priceless asset for those who are keen in making and implementing informed policies and reforms in performance management and service delivery. It is also useful for all individuals or entities interested in performance management matters. I urge you to explore the pages of this book and benefit greatly from the wealth of knowledge in it.

I would like to express my great appreciation to the editors, George K. Scott and Prof. Malcolm Wallis who have endlessly reviewed this book. I additionally, acknowledge the priceless contribution of the AAPAM Secretariat who have fruitfully steered this project. The publication of this book has further been made possible by the support of the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) who capably provided their expertise as the key external reviewers thus ensuring the success of the book.

Further, I would like to thank the AAPAM Executive Committee for their support and commitment towards AAPAM programmes and activities which include the production of this book.

Finally to all who in one way or the other contributed to the successful production of this book, though not mentioned herein we say thank you.

Abdon Agaw Jok Nhial
AAPAM President



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The success of this book is a result of the great synthesis of the efforts of diverse parties. To begin with, I would like to thank the Government of Zanzibar for hosting the 34th Roundtable Conference and allowing delegates from across the globe to experience a new culture besides exhaustively sharing knowledge on “Performance Management for Improving Public Service Delivery in Africa”.

I would also like to express our profound gratitude to the co-editor Prof. Malcolm Wallis who fortunately, was also my co-editor in African Association for Public Administration and Management (AAPAM) 2013 book project. AAPAM is grateful for his exceptional scholarly resourcefulness that has seen the production of our 2015 book.

Further, I am grateful to Mr. A.A. Peters - Director General of the Administrative Staff College of Nigeria (ASCON) and his team for the additional effective review of all the papers. AAPAM appreciates their immense contribution in the production of this book.

AAPAM wishes similarly to acknowledge the technical and financial support of our development partners; the Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development Canada (DFTAD), Institute of Public Administration Canada (IPAC), Deloitte East Africa, the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA) and the Commonwealth Secretariat.

I sincerely appreciate and acknowledge the valuable contribution of all our authors. AAPAM is indebted to them for accepting to share with us their well-researched and informative wealth of knowledge that forms the content of this book.

Many thanks to the AAPAM Secretariat for their enduring contributions toward the production of this book. I earnestly thank Ms. Jessica Omundo, Ms. Elizabeth Muia and the entire AAPAM staff for working endlessly to ensure the successful production of this book.

To our Government, Corporate and Individual members, we express our special gratitude towards your continued support that has come a long way in the production of this book.

Lastly, I would like to ultimately appreciate the AAPAM Executive Committee and Council who have played a critical leadership role in steering AAPAM to its heights. On behalf of the AAPAM secretariat, we would like to say thank you so much for your distinct exemplary leadership.

George K. Scott
AAPAM Secretary General

ABOUT THE EDITORS AND AUTHORS

Mr. George K. Scott is the current Secretary General of the African Association for Public Administration and Management (AAPAM). He has vast years of experience in public administration, having served in different capacities in the public service of Ghana. He has served as Chief Director (Permanent Secretary) in the Ministries of Environment, Science, Technology and Aviation, Ghana. Mr. Scott also served as a Municipal Coordinating Director in many districts in Ghana. He is experienced in coordinating various international and donor funded programmes and was the project director of the 2012 AAPAM Member Value Research Survey, which was carried out in collaboration with Deloitte. He similarly served as a part time lecturer for a post graduate diploma course at the Ghana Institute of Management and Public Administration (GIMPA) and he has equally published a number of books.

Prof. Malcolm Wallis is a Professor at the Regent Business School in Durban, South Africa, and an honorary Research Professor at the Durban University of Technology. He has over forty years' experience of teaching, researching and consulting in the field of public management with particular reference to Africa. He has generated several publications. He continues his long association with the African Association of Public Administration and Management (AAPAM) in an editorial capacity and is currently working on contributions to a book on governance. He received the AAPAM Gold Medal Award for his exemplary contribution to public administration in Africa in 2011.

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Dr. John Lavelle is currently an International Adviser to a range of institutions in the public, private and not-for-profit spheres including Civil Service Commissions, Multilateral Development Banks, Think Tanks, and Professional Associations. He began his career in academia and management consulting in Europe and has various degrees in economics and business administration from Trinity College Dublin and the University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA). He is a regular speaker at professional conferences in Asia and Africa and has authored numerous articles on aspects of strategic human resource management. He was formerly a senior Human Resource Strategy Advisor at the World Bank. He has been closely associated with the inception and launch of the Africa Public Service Human Resource Managers' Network (APS-HRMnet).

Dr. Robert P. Taylor is currently the Chief Executive Officer of the Institute of Public Administration of Canada (IPAC). He has had an extensive professional career of over 25 years including separate appointments as the assistant deputy minister of Municipal Affairs and of Research and Innovation. Dr. Taylor's career includes senior positions with the municipal government in Canada and overseeing projects in Southern Africa. He earned a Ph.D. from the University of South Africa, where his studies focused on strategic planning. He has a master's degree in urban and regional planning from Queen's University, and an undergraduate degree in urban geography from McGill University.

Dr. Jean Yves Djamen holds a Ph.D. in artificial intelligence from the University of Montreal (Canada). He has been at the forefront of the modernization of public administration and received several awards for innovation prompted by his work. While serving as senior adviser in the Ministry of Public Service and Administrative Reform of Cameroon, he designed the SIGIPES AQUARIUM, a smart system that prevents public service users to come into contact with public servants, thus limiting opportunities for misconduct. In 2004, AQUARIUM was awarded the United Nations Public Service Distinction Award. Dr Djamen has authored a book entitled "Governance and Artificial Intelligence, Building an Effective Public Service" where he posits that resources, processes and policies must be aligned to achieve the desired goals. Dr. Djamen is also the current Vice President Central Africa Region of the African Public Service Human Resource Management Network (APS-HRMnet).

Mr Faustin Clovis Noundjeu is currently the Deputy General Manager of the Real Estate Company of Cameroon. After his post-graduate studies at École Polytechnique of Yaoundé and at Insa de Lyon (1975-1980), he held several positions including: Director of Planning (1995-1998), Director of the Improvement of the Framework of Life (1998-2000) and Technical Adviser to the Ministry of Urban Development (2008-2010). He has also served as a Lecturer on urban engineering in several academic institutions such as Ecole Supérieure des travaux publics de Yaoundé (1984-1990), École Polytechnique de Yaoundé (1988-1990) and at the University of Yaoundé I (2011-2014). He has given several lectures at AAPAM conferences and is a certified expert in building and public works. Mr. Noundjeu has similarly participated in several studies and organized seminars on the management of local development.

Dr. Florence Wachira is a career public servant with over 30 years' experience in human resource management and development. Currently, she is a Commissioner with the National Gender and Equality Commission, Kenya. She holds a PhD in human resource management; Master of Arts degrees in gender and development studies and human resource development. She is a member of the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development, UK, a full member of the Kenya Institute of Management and Vice President East Africa of the African Public Sector Human Resource Manager's network (APS-HRMnet). She has published in refereed journals and authored a book titled 'Essential of Human Resource Development'.

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public policy, and political economy. He recently co-authored an article with Blessings Chinsinga on 'Slapping Accountability in the Face: The Observance of Accountability in Malawi's Local Governments in the Absence of Councillors' featured in the International Journal of Public Administration.

Mrs. Ndjouli Germaine Esther holds a master degree in public law from the University of Yaoundé II in Cameroon and a degree in Leadership from John Maxwell University. She works as the Director General of the Economy and Public Investment Programme in the Ministry of Economy, where she used to work as an interim departmental delegate. She has served as an Assistant Studies Officer at CTU Audits, and as well as a Controller of the Projects. She has 20 years professional experience in project management (planning, programming, budgeting, monitoring and evaluation) and actively mentors numerous groups of women in her region.

INTRODUCTION

George K. Scott and Malcolm Wallis

This collection of papers brings together a selection of contributions which were originally presented at the 34th African Association for Public Administration and Management (AAPAM) Annual Roundtable Conference held in Zanzibar, November 2012. It was co-hosted by the Revolutionary Government of Zanzibar. The AAPAM Roundtable conferences always have a theme selected at the previous year's conference: Zanzibar's theme was 'Performance Management for Improving Public Service Delivery in Africa'.

The conference aimed to provide a forum in which the links between performance management (PM) and public service delivery in Africa could be fully explored through in depth discussions. Some of the topics discussed at the conference were conceptual issues as they relate to performance management and service delivery, stakeholder involvement, monitoring and evaluation (M and E), accountability and transparency in relation to performance management, human resource management issues, change management and country case studies. The expected outcomes were the development of a common understanding of performance management, as assessment of the values of the approach, an awareness of pitfalls and what may be done to obviate them, implementation issues and recommendations (AAPAM 2013:I-3).

Following the conference, a review process was undertaken necessitating the revision of what had originally been presented in Zanzibar. The papers were thus updated where relevant and feasible. However, not all of the papers presented at the conference have been included in this collection for various reasons which arose in the review process, For example, some paper presenters had already published their articles in other academic publications like journals. Despite this limitation, this collection contains detailed and relevant information which is beneficial to those who wish to gain a better understanding of trends in public sector management on the African continent.

RATIONALE

For African public services, performance management is no longer a new idea as it was in the late 1970s and the early 1980s when the earlier Roundtables were held; the first being in Sierra Leone in 1978. In fact the theme for the 1981 AAPAM Annual Roundtable Conference was 'Personnel Development Management and Utilization in a Performance Oriented African Public Service in the 1980s' {(AAPAM 2013: 73) editors' italics}. It can therefore be said that the Zanzibar deliberations were more of a stock taking exercise rather than having a focus on a completely new

concept and management practice. However, stock taking should not be just about the status quo as it should also be about the identification of gaps and other errors together with at least suggestions of ways forward. To use another Latin term there should also be a *quo vadis* focus.

There are four reasons why it is thought that a book such as this could be of value. The first is that in the African case, performance management has probably not been given the analytical attention it merits given the frequency with which it is advocated and the controversies and suspicions which it tends to provoke. There are of course some exceptions including those with which AAPAM has been associated such as a detailed account of the Tanzanian experience (Rugumyamheto 2007).

The second is that much of the work on performance management has been based on private sector experience and perspectives. While the public sector should not be seen as a totally different species, it has to also be accepted that it is generally naive to assume that transplants between the two sectors are going to be straightforward; there are important differences which may prevent the patient's body from accepting what is being offered to it.

The third is a continued and growing concern that public services are under performing in relation to what is required of them. For example, South Africa's Minister of Finance, Mr. Nhlanhla Nene has recently emphasized the need for 'a proper performance management system' (Orderson and Smith 2014: 36). This is a general concern which is reflected in several contributions to this book.

A fourth reason for publication of this book is that performance management is too often misunderstood by managers and employees in both the private and public sectors. The book, it is hoped, will alleviate this problem. Whilst in theory performance management may be viewed as a way of developing an organization and individual employees in as coherent a way as possible, in practice it is seen as a mechanism aimed at discipline and control with fear often being the main emotion experienced by employees (Forsyth 2014: 8). Managers may experience nervousness especially if they have to have one on one meetings with employees (an essential part of the process) It is not easy to make performance management work effectively. The main purpose should be developmental; if it is not then the organization is in danger of wasting resources in ways which are almost certain to be dysfunctional.

DEFINITIONS AND DIMENSIONS

Since various definitions of performance management are given by some of the authors, it is not necessary to enter into a lengthy discussion of this issue here. It

is in keeping with the scope of this book to opt for a definition which is as wide as possible. Accordingly, we can say that performance management is about a variety of processes, systems and functions which are concerned with improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization and its staff. This is preferred to the more narrow definition which has a focus on the individual employee. See van der Waldt's detailed discussion of these issues (van der Waldt 2004: 33-41).

What should be noted, however, is that the concept and practice of performance management has many dimensions. These include **Appraisal** of individual staff which itself has more than one aspect to it, **Measurement** of performance which has been a particularly slippery challenge and **Evaluation**. There are also links with several other features of public management such as **Accountability**, **Capacity Building** and **Restructuring**. All of these dimensions can have a bearing on the performance in public services. For example, if staff are expected to perform at a higher level than it is very likely that capacity building will be called for to enable them to do so. The links with accountability are rather different in that performance management, by setting out precise and measurable targets, can create better conditions for individuals and organizations to give an account of what they have been able to achieve and why, perhaps, failures have occurred.

There are concerns that performance management has to be geared more thoroughly to the achievement of **Outcomes** which create benefits in the wider society. The performance of public managers and the organizations they work for are increasingly being checked against the extent to which measurable outcomes are achieved in relation to such imperatives as the alleviation of poverty, the better delivery of services and issues associated with the quality of the environment.

Another concern which helps give a better sense of the purpose of this book is that the discussions in Zanzibar were quite wide ranging in terms of the types of organizations reviewed. In one way or another, the performance management experiences of the different levels of government (national, provincial/regional and local) are examined. The public enterprise sector, although given less of a sharp focus, is also an area where there is significant performance management experience which is relevant. Some contributors also make quite substantial reference to the private sector.

It is imperative that performance management be seen not as a mere specific and somewhat technical form of intervention at the work place. Several papers stress the need for a broader based view in which general aspects of governance are shown to be relevant. These aspects include the need for transparency, the management of diversity, the significance of elected representatives and the drive for decentralization.

THE PAPERS

It is pleasing to report that the papers are quite diverse not only in terms of subject matter but also the nationality and organizational affiliation of the authors. Cameroon and Kenya are particularly well represented. There is also a paper on local government in Malawi. This diversity reflects a variety of concerns and underlines the point made earlier concerning the number of issues that can be examined under the performance management umbrella. The papers are a mixture of general accounts with emphasis on concepts and their relevance and studies of particular countries. To reflect AAPAM's ethos some papers are included in the French language.

Kobia's contribution partly arises out of her keynote address in Zanzibar. She argues that the record of public sector reform in Africa has hitherto been disappointing. Improving public service performance is seen as a way of fostering greater creativity and innovation on the part of public servants. Her emphasis is on the ways in which the performance of organizations can be enhanced if individual employees are performance managed in a constructive fashion. The paper reviews a selection of contributions to the literature on this topic and provides a discussion of definitions, concepts and the rationale for performance management. Recommendations are made for governments in Africa to consider.

The emphasis of **Kauzya's** paper is on the need for consideration of diversity and inclusion to be factored into performance management. It thus provides insights which differ somewhat from typical discussions of performance in public services. He bases his argument in part on key documents such as the African Charter on Values and Principles of Public Service and Administration (adopted in 2011) as well as the African Peer Review Mechanism. He argues, based on these policy documents as well as the experience of African public services, that diversity and inclusion should be seen in a more positive light than they normally are and as assets rather than the opposite. He indicates how these factors could be made part of performance management frameworks in Africa.

Lavelle deals with performance appraisal systems. He points out that such systems are important aspects of performance management as a whole. He argues for an approach which sees appraisal in the context of the organizations as a whole. It is a key human resources function in many organizations but needs to be realistically assessed because it has not always delivered what was expected. His focus is on the relevant actors within organizations, these being the managers and staff directly involved upon whom performance appraisal impacts. He concludes that appraisal is here to stay but notes that it is being re-examined currently, mainly in the private sector.

Taylor takes us through the idea of 'Open Government', using mainly examples from different levels of government in Canada. He also utilizes illustration of experiences from other countries. He presents data derived from research undertaken by the Institute of Public Administration of Canada (IPAC). Open Government is seen as a doctrine which requires that citizens have the right to access the documents and proceedings of the government to allow for better public oversight. A particular emphasis is placed on how new technologies can be applied in the public sector. To advance this significant idea it is important to maximise collaboration and engagement within and outside government. Major benefits can accrue if public servants become more productive and the public at large are better informed.

Djamen, like Taylor, discusses the relevance of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT). His focus is on how these can contribute to performance evaluation. The relevance of evaluation is highly dependent on the quality of the data collected and how it is shared among government agencies. He illustrates this perspective through detailed discussion of how ICT was used in Cameroon to combat fraud in the customs processes with reference made to goods in transit between Cameroon, Chad and the Central African Republic. A 'NEXUS-Plus' system was employed. Critical success factors included top management commitment and support, the right metrics and a continuous process.

Clovis takes as a point of departure the deterioration of African public services and some of the tools that have been used as possible solutions. Particular emphasis is placed on the roles played by job descriptions as instruments for the assessment of employees. Research conducted in Cameroon was reported. Four points of interest arose as being important: assessment, monitoring, career prospects and the work environment. A number of corrective actions are suggested. These include greater involvement of staff and coordination within the organization.

Wachira's paper reports on a study of managers in the civil service of Kenya which aimed to analyze the contribution made by Human Resource Development (HRD) professionals. The focus is on the post 2004 period when Results Based Management was introduced in Kenya. It was found that, whilst HRD professionals generally display effectiveness and expertise, they tended to lack vision, training skills and effectiveness in communication. The conclusion of the study was that the Kenya government needs to attach priority to the development of HRD professionals.

Jamali and Chasukwa take local government in Malawi as the focus of their contribution. They examine in detail three areas (Lilongwe, Zomba and Balaka districts) and investigate what happens to performance in the context of their having been no elected councillors in Malawi for an extended period. In response to this gap, attempts were made to find alternative methods of local participation aimed at ensuring that priority needs were addressed and targets set against

which performance could be measured. Through a detailed survey undertaken of community perceptions in these areas, they conclude that, in the absence of elected councillors, very little was achieved. Based on their analysis, they argue that elected councillors are needed.

The paper by **Esther** asks the question: can the development of the concept of a public service culture contribute effectively to the improvement of public administration in Cameroon? Some of the key issues arising from the research are: the low income of public servants, problems arising from a culture of impunity and a lack of concern with their own performance on the part of officials. Some of the proposals arising from the research include; the development of more and better training programmes, attaching greater value to the work of officials, the need to develop and implement human resource dashboards and the need to increase salaries.

It is hoped that our readers will find this book a valuable source of ideas and information about Performance Management in general and Africa in particular. It is clearly both a fertile area for researchers and has significant implications for policy makers and practitioners at all levels of government as well as the public sector as a whole.

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**ENHANCING PUBLIC SERVICE
PERFORMANCE THROUGH COMPETENCY
BASED TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT**

*Margaret Kobia
Kenya*



ABSTRACT

The public sector, in many African countries, is striving to respond to the complex development challenges by embracing performance management approaches aimed at the realization of national development goals. Previous public sector reforms geared to address these challenges have achieved minimal results. Given the pivotal role of the Public Service in national development, it is urgent that governments look at new approaches to improving the delivery of public services in Africa as a precondition for building effective states. Improving public service performance in the face of increased globalisation, rapid pace of change and the requirement for organisations to foster creativity and innovation has highlighted the role of human resources as an enduring source of improved organisational capacity and competitive advantage. Coping with today's challenges calls for a better performance management system that can support individual abilities to tackle complex job-related tasks and respond to citizens' needs. This article reviews literature on performance management within the framework of competency-based capacity building for public sector reforms. Specifically, the article highlights and justifies the core competencies for an effective public administrator and manager of the 21st century. Finally, the article concludes by suggesting factors that improve transfer of competencies learned during training for better public service delivery.

Key Words: Competency, Training, Performance, Public Service, Competency Based Training.

INTRODUCTION

Today's public service is anchored on a management culture that focuses on results, efficiency and cost-effectiveness while, at the same time, addressing problems inhibiting performance of public institutions. The drive for reform in the public sector worldwide has focused attention on the delivery of quality and timely services to the public. Hence, any government initiatives should focus on achieving the above objective. However, public service has traditionally been concerned with the processes rather than results.

The on-going change management processes and the associated Public Sector Reforms (PSR) have resulted in many public organizations coming under relentless internal and external pressures to demonstrate improvements in performance and that organizational goals and objectives are being achieved. This has made it imperative for effective performance management approaches to be developed and applied. The public sector, therefore, is devoting more attention, time and money to performance management, measurement and evaluation than ever before. To many, it seems that "government by measurement" has arrived.

Although the objectives of PSR in Africa are noble, public servants who are expected to champion reforms are struggling to define it in their context. Trying to understand the many concepts that come with PSR has been mind boggling. How can we simplify and make the PSR journey simpler for the majority of public servants? The lessons learned on the way need to inform future efforts in improving public service management.

This calls for simplicity and this is where the role of public service training institutes rests. To begin with, it is important for public servants to be familiar with the emerging realities and challenges they face or are likely to encounter in their tour of duty as identified below.

- i) **Complexity and Sophistication:** Growing complexity, not just rapid change, is causing governments to rethink reforms. Making the complex reforms understandable requires common sense and plain language. It also means remaking fragmented ideas and strategies into whole-of-government approaches.

Methodologies are often more sophisticated than useful. Unfortunately, some experts would rather appear clever than pragmatic. Institutionalization is now widely recognized as a more realistic strategy for capacity building than restructuring.

- ii) **Implementation:** Public servants are well versed in what needs to change in their organizations but fall short on follow-through. Implementation requires dedication, extra effort, and the right competencies. Project management is much cited as a skill gap.
- iii) **Replication:** Cloning, cascading, and adapting initiatives produces mixed results. Replicating reform space is more difficult but lasting. Painstaking institutional development can stimulate widespread demand, the policy environment, critical interrogation and continuous learning.
- iv) **Impact:** Despite the billions invested in measurement systems and gathering evidence, the jury is still out on proving impact. Tracking sustainable results, value for money, and return on investment requires continuity, relevance, and integration of monitoring and evaluation.

Perhaps tapping public servants' rich institutional legacy of storytelling can help governments better communicate the meaning and implications of reform within the context of traditional culture, local legends, and homemade case studies. In other words, developing the competencies and putting in place a performance management system that holds individual, teams and government accountable to the citizen, remains the hope for improving service delivery in Africa.

World over, performance management systems are central to government operations. They aid governments in keeping up with society in terms of responsiveness and the re-establishment of trust in government. More so now that government's role is changing, for example, the loss of the government monopoly, development of coalitions, as well as the opening up of societies and international structures due to globalization.

Hence, the fundamental questions that we need to ask are:-

How can the multiple, and sometimes conflicting, stakeholder requirements, be represented and satisfied within a performance management approach in a government department? What competencies are required to support the performance management approach selected?

METHODOLOGY

This article is premised on a review of cognate literature on performance management within the framework of competency-based capacity building for public sector reforms. Specifically, the focus is on the definitions of Competency Based Training (CBT), performance management and competencies as key terminologies in the article; core competencies for public service administrators and managers; the case for the competency-based approach; and the factors that influence how competencies from training are translated to performance at the work place.

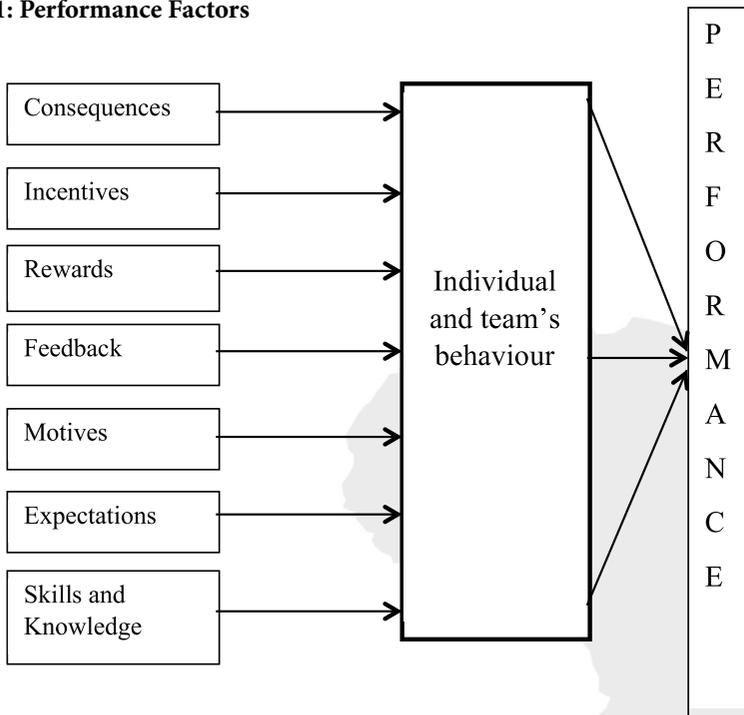
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND DEFINITIONS

Theoretical Framework Embedded in Performance Literature

The theoretical framework that informs performance management is grounded in the empirical research on performance improvement literature. Past works on performance (Rotter, 1982; Swanson 1999; and McLean 2001) have identified the main elements that predict the performance of an individual, a group or an organization. These are; Behaviour Potential (BP), Expectancy (E) and Reinforcement Value (RV). Thus, $BP = f(E \text{ and } RV)$, meaning behaviour potential is a function of expectancy and reinforcement value.

In other words, the likelihood of a person exhibiting a particular behaviour is a function of a probability that behaviour will lead to a given outcome and the desirability of that outcome. As explained in Vroom (1964), the expectancy theory states that behaviour is a function of the value of a reward and the expectation of achieving the reward. Therefore, performance variables that can be manipulated to enhance individual, group and organization performance include; consequences, incentives, reward, feedback of standards of performance, motives, expectations, skills and knowledge as illustrated on Figure 1.

Figure 1: Performance Factors



Source: Author's Illustration (2012)

Definitions

Competency Based Training

The Integrated Learning System (ILS) (2010) views Competency Based Training (CBT) as a systematic approach aimed at improving the teaching/ learning process. Competency-Based Training is thus defined as a system where tasks or competencies are identified to define the content of training. In this context, Competency-Based Training can also be referred to as “Performance-Based Training”, “Criterion-Referenced Training”, “Mastery Learning”, or “Instructional Systems Design”. Keating (2012) defines Competency Based Training (CBT) as training that is designed to allow a learner to demonstrate their ability to do something. The writer explains that the key thing about CBT is that one either can or cannot perform a task that they are learning. As pointed out in ILS (2010), often, the training process is essentially the same regardless of the label given to the CBT process.

Performance Management

Researchers and human resource practitioners have found the definition of performance management problematic. There are a number of definitions found in the literature that identify performance management as a systematic process by which an organization involves its employees, as individuals and members of a group, in improving organizational effectiveness in the accomplishment of its mission and goals.

Van Thiel and Leeuw (2002) defined performance management as a process for establishing a shared understanding about what is to be achieved and how it is to be achieved as well as an approach to managing people which increases the probability of achieving job related success. Armstrong (2000:1) defines performance management as a “strategic and integrated process that delivers sustained success to organizations by improving the performance of people who work in them and by developing the capabilities of individual contributors and teams”.

For the purpose of this article, the operational definition of performance management captures the following principles: (i) clear understanding of the national vision/development plan; (ii) a clear understanding of job expectations/ goals (role clarity); (iii) key performance measures and indicators; (iv) monitoring and evaluation systems; (v) regular feedback about performance; (vi) advice and steps for improving performance; and (vii) rewards/sanctions for performance (accountability).

Public services seeking to improve performance need to be concerned that public servants have a clear understanding of the definition of performance management and more particularly the above principles and the process of performance management in the organization. The need to attract, develop and retain employees who will adapt to a flexible and participatory organisational culture is greater in today's public service than before. The extent to which an organisation meets its strategic objectives is directly related to the competencies displayed by its staff.

Competency

Competency is the ability to perform tasks and duties up to the expected standards. A competency standard is an organization-determined specification of performance which sets out the skills, knowledge and attitudes required of an employee to operate effectively. Thus, it is the ability of individuals to think for themselves as an expression of moral and intellectual maturity and to take responsibility for their learning and actions.

Competencies

Competencies are the knowledge, skills, attitudes, behaviour and personal attributes necessary to produce effective performance in a certain role or task. Overall, competencies are a set of behaviours that an individual must possess in order to perform to the optimum level within that role. In other words, understanding the competences required for improved performance management in the public service is the first building block for individual and institutional capacity development.

African governments have recognized the significant role of human capital as a key element in achieving economic development (Lekorwe and Mpabanga, 2007). The principal thrust of human resource development is to create a strong human resource base with the right knowledge, skills, attitudes and values which enhance productivity and competitiveness (Republic of Kenya, 2009:9).

Researchers and human resource practitioners agree that the central thrust of performance management systems is to create competency among public servants. The assumption presupposes the availability of relevant skills necessary for the achievement of desired performance. In other words, performance management involves sharing an understanding on what needs to be achieved, and then managing and developing people in a way that enables such shared objectives to be achieved both at individual and organizational levels. Scholars in public administration and policy have found it problematic agreeing on the competencies for senior public officers. The debate surrounds the core subject contents against the background of what public servants should be able to do to fulfil their job objectives.

CORE COMPETENCIES FOR PUBLIC SERVICE ADMINISTRATORS AND MANAGERS

In efforts to define core competencies for public officers, the National Association of Schools of Public Administration (NASPAA, 2013) developed five core competencies for senior public servants indicated below:

The Ability to Lead and Manage in Public Governance

The ability to lead and manage in public governance will energize people and resources in the pursuit of publically defined policy goals in a manner that respects multiple perspectives and recognizes consequences of actions within and outside the organization. The public servant displays leadership in personal work and group settings and contributes to organizational strategy and performance, regardless of their position in the hierarchy. Specifically, one needs the ability to operationalize problems, lead, plan as well as manage projects to meet organizational goals in a manner that displays good stewardship of public resources. In leading and managing projects, the public administrator understands the political dynamics surrounding their work, the role, functions, and interests of relevant government agencies, other levels of government, and private as well as non-profit actors.

Participating in and Contributing to the Policy Process

This competence allows the public servant to substantively participate in the design, implementation, and evaluation of public policy. Proposals for policy implementation and innovation seek to balance the conflicting and interdependent interests of multiple constituencies and institutions. It also gives one the ability to formulate policy objectives and priorities that are consistent with their organization's mission, capitalize on opportunities, and manage risks. While engaging in the policy process, public servants will facilitate change by developing new insights, questioning conventional approaches and encouraging novel ideas and innovations within legal, political, and institutional boundaries. This demonstrates the capacity to balance program performance, legal requirements, political interests and constraints and equity concerns when determining if public, private, or non-profit sectors may be more effective in achieving policy goals. Across the policy process, today's public servant is expected to participate in the development of networks spanning organizational boundaries to build strategic relationships to achieve common goals.

Analysis, Synthesis, Critical Thinking, Problems Solving and Decision Making

Today's public administrators and managers are expected to substantively contribute to evidence-based decision making that appropriately analyses information and recognizes stakeholders' competing values. Policy and management problems are identified, defined, and analysed in a timely fashion using quantitative and/or qualitative methodologies. Ability to break complex problems into constituent parts (such as generating a problem statement, developing an evaluation design, and collecting and analysing data) for the purposes of defining and evaluation program performance and public policies is needed. They need to be capable of making decisions in the face of limited information, uncertainty, ambiguity, competing values, and time constraints.

Policy evaluation conducted by officials incorporates program performance information, competing political and institutional interests, the needs, desires and demand of internal and external constituencies, equity and efficiency. When gathering information from multiple sources to contribute to decision-making, public administrators need to critically assess their relevance, bias and accuracy. When producing and analysing new information, the process should be well documented to stand up to public scrutiny. The ability to communicate analytic results into explicit messages or insights that clearly delineate the potential positive and negative implications for their organizations and relevant stakeholders is crucial to public officers.

Articulating and applying a Public Service Perspective

Public servants' capacity to articulate what it means to promote principles of equity, representativeness, responsiveness and fair process in protecting citizens' rights will demonstrate these values in their interactions with diverse constituencies. In carrying out this work, the officials are cognizant of legal constraints and motivated by a sense of duty, ethics and responsibility to improve social welfare. Public servants are expected to maintain integrity, avoid conflicts of interest or the appearance of conflicts and be accountable for their own actions. Furthermore, the administrator has to be capable of designing an inclusive and collaborative decision making process. When making decisions, the managers are expected to be capable of articulating trade-offs of implementing public policies through the public, private and non-profit sectors, including the impact of the means of delivery on democratic accountability.

Communicating and Interacting Productively with a Diverse and Changing Workforce and Citizenry

Public administrators and managers are expected to seek out, consider, and incorporate diverse perspectives in all aspects of their work and recognize the complexity of those interactions. Interactions with colleagues and stakeholders should demonstrate courtesy, sensitivity and respect. The managers need to communicate effectively to multiple audiences in different formats, using multiple means. Written and oral communication is concise, accurate, clear, persuasive and informed by evidence, both within the organization and across organizations, and facilitates cooperation, builds consensus, and motivates stakeholders to accomplish shared policy goals.

Regardless of what the courses or programs may be called and categorized through a competency framework, it is important that management development institutes and schools may refer to the identified competencies as per the NASPAA framework. Design and delivery of the programs to the public service administrators are key to improvement of public service delivery. While training and development is central to capacity development, incorporating factors that enhance learning and training transfer would enhance performance in the public service.

THE CASE FOR A COMPETENCY BASED APPROACH: IDENTIFYING COMPETENCIES FOR SPECIFIC ROLES

Hay Group (2003) observes that a competency based approach has the competency and performance of the very best people on the job as its frame of reference. Potgieter and Van Der Merwe (2002), on the other hand, point out that organizations can improve their overall performance by hiring candidates with the required set of competencies or training existing staff to equip them with the set of competencies unique to an organization's operational, business and performance objectives. In addition, organizations can design highly targeted programs to develop the essential competencies that will help their average performers rise to the next level. The cost of poor selection decisions, the authors opine, can be substantial. A number of considerations thus form the basis for the competency based approach. These include:

Locating the Right Competencies required for the Job: Applying the competency based approach in the recruitment, selection, development process helps to identify the right skill and competency mix which increases the chances that the recruiting organisation identifies and develops the right candidate for the job whose contribution to the business will by far outweigh the initial costs of recruitment and selection (Lado and Wilson, 1994; Lado, Boyd, and Wright, 1992).

Organizational Strategy and Staff Reward: Competency models can also be used in organizations to organize the business needs and directional strategy, convey the values and mission of a company, and reward those workers who learn and demonstrate the identified organizational competencies (Fogg, 1999; Lucia and Lepsinger, 1999; and Zingheim, Ledford, and Schuster, 1996).

Adverse Long-term Implications: In its review on the use of competencies in identifying high performers, Hay Group (2003) considers the negative long-term cost implications of hiring the wrong person, to include: financial resources wasted in training and development; low productivity and quality while a poor performer is in the role; lost opportunities in terms of targets that are missed and processes that do not improve; unmet organisational objectives and poor morale among other staff who struggle to shoulder the blame of poor performance; and dissatisfied customers who may opt to take their business elsewhere.

Management of Human Resource (HR) Costs: As noted by Ennis (2010), whatever the approach an organization selects in its recruitment and selection process there is need to consider the hard costs that go into filling an open position, including advertising and recruitment costs, as well as candidate travel, lodging and, where applicable, entertainment. A competency based selection process helps organizations avoid unnecessary HR costs by providing a framework to consistently hire, develop, and promote top performers. When such a process is employed, turnover drops, individual and group performance improves, and the organization builds a strong and agile workforce that can solve problems, change with the times, and meet organization wide goals.

Meeting Legal Guidelines: A rigorous and documented competency based selection and training process also helps organizations meet legal guidelines for fair staff employment and capacity development practices. Interviewers and training need assessors are then trained to gather only job related information that reflects a candidate's abilities and motivations. This eliminates inconsistent selection criteria; minimizes the impact of individual biases, assumptions, or preferences; and helps avoid areas of inquiry that might violate employment regulations (Hay Group, 2003).

Establishing a Guide for Human Resource Management: The characteristics of outstanding performers in an organisation can provide a template for a number of human resources management processes, such as selection, development, succession planning, performance management, promotion, and career progression. Grigoryev (2006), thus observes that it is critical to have a clear understanding of the performance and capacity building goals for which an organization's competency model is intended. Where a model is intended for selection remuneration or

competency strategy reformulation, the direct economic impact can be substantial, in which case, a very rigorous approach is required.

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE USE OF COMPETENCIES FROM TRAINING PROGRAMMES

Globally, billions of dollars are spent each year on training in an effort to increase productivity and enable organizations stay competitive in the face of fierce global competition and a rapidly changing environment (Broad and Newstrom, 1992:42). Training is focused on trying to change behaviour or teach new skills and competencies to the individual trainees to realize their performance goals. However, the extent to which participants transfer skills and competencies has been below expectations. Literature suggest that there are known factors that influence transfer of skills and competencies at the work place (Holton, 2005).

Transfer of training or application of knowledge, skills and abilities that have been newly acquired during training continues to be a major concern of human resource development specialists and managers. Broad (2005), noted that while training is the most used method for improving workplace performance, research observations of training professionals indicate that training efforts do not result in significant transfer of new skills and knowledge to the job. The rate of transfer has been reported across the literature to be from 10% (Georgenson, 1982) to 40% (Broad and Newstrom, 1992). Human Resource Development (HRD) professionals continue to struggle with the reasons why a higher percentage of skills and knowledge acquired during training programs are not transferred to the work environment.

Several researchers have identified various reasons for lack of transfer of training. Poor needs assessments, lack of opportunity to apply new skills on the job, and an unsupportive environment are some of the common examples (Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Ford and Weissbein, 1997; Cromwell and Kolb, 2002). Whatever the reasons for lack of transfer of training on the job, it means that the learning effort is not meeting the organizational goals. Research suggests that there are several factors that influence the transfer of training. Researchers also agree that these factors can be categorized as follows: trainee characteristics, training design and work environment factors.

Trainee Characteristics

Several research studies investigating the effect of trainee characteristics on transfer of training identify factors that can be put into five categories: motivation, self-efficacy, goal setting, expectancy beliefs and ability.

- i) Motivation to transfer refers to the intensity and persistence of effort directed towards the job, application of skills and knowledge learned in training (Seyler et al., 1997). When motivation to transfer is high, individuals see value in learning and can readily apply that learning. They would believe that transferring learning will improve their job performance.
- ii) Self-efficacy is the general belief in people that they can use learning to change their performance. Self-efficacy has been found to play an important role in behaviour change in a range of organizational settings. Self-efficacy has an impact on the trainee's motivation to transfer behaviour. Individuals with high self-efficacy are more likely to apply trained tasks and attempt more difficult and complex tasks on the job.
- iii) Goal setting has been used as a post-training intervention designed to facilitate transfer of learning by guiding action, producing incentives and contributing to the development of self-efficacy (Bandura and Cervone, 1986:98). Self-efficacy has been found to affect both the level of goal and commitment to those goals (Gist and Mitchell, 1992). Locke, Frederick, Lee, and Bobko (1984) have shown that higher self efficacy contributes to better performance by reinforcing the individual's judgment that better performance is possible and through a greater commitment to self-set performance goals.
- iv) Expectancy beliefs: In his expectancy theory, Vroom (1964) suggested that individuals would be more motivated if they believe that their effort would lead to enhanced performance. More successful learners would be expected to feel better able to perform and, therefore, more motivated to transfer learning. The outcomes of learning are also expected to have secondary influence on motivation to transfer in addition to their primary influence on individual performance. Expectancy theory may explain why people with high commitment, job satisfaction and positive job attitudes are more likely to transfer and perceive rewards from transfer of training.

- v) Ability: Overlooked in the transfer literature is the role that general individual cognitive ability plays in influencing training outcomes. General cognitive ability is seen as a potent predictor of job performance and training success because it reflects the ability of the individuals to employ major cognitive processes (e.g. evaluation, planning, judgment, recognition, memory) that are used in day-to-day job performance. Psychologists have demonstrated that general cognitive ability has a significant impact on trainee success.

Training design

Several researchers have investigated the influence of training design on transfer because this construct is believed to be one of the most important impacting training transfer (Brinkerhoff and Gill, 1992). Some of the obstacles to transfer may be reduced if identified in the training design process. During the analysis, design and development stages of the design, there are significant steps that can be taken to increase the amount of transfer. Baldwin and Ford (1988) found that the incorporation of learning principles, sequencing of training material and the job relevance of training content were critical to the design process. Most trainers in organizations have invested their time and resources to enhance the effectiveness of training design.

Limited research findings suggest that the incorporation of certain training strategies along with or subsequent to the presentation of instructional content in training programs may enhance transfer. The rationale for these transfer design strategies is that even when relevant learning occurs in training, the skills needed to make the transfer to job behaviour may be absent. When trainees are taught how to apply or are given tools or strategies to assist them in applying learned skills then, given proper motivation and positive transfer conditions, greater transfer is a likely result (Holton, 1996). From review of related literature on the effect of training design on transfer of learning, training design variables can be categorized into two domains: instruction design and instruction methods.

Instructional design

Baldwin and Ford (1988) explain four basic principles for instructional design. Among them, three principles are related to training content that impacts training transfer: identical elements, stimulus variability, and generalization principles. In addition, content validity of training has a strong positive association with transfer of training. That is to say, job relevance of training content affects transfer motivation.

Instructional methods

Several researchers have studied the effect of various types of instructional methods on training transfer. Huczynski and Lewis (1980) consider tutoring and coaching as powerful tools to polish new behaviour and skills acquired in the training. Another factor related to training design that requires a special mention is the perceived relevance of the training. For the trainee to use the newly acquired knowledge and skills, the employee must perceive the relevance of the training to their job performance.

Work environment

Work environment characteristics include support for utilization of newly acquired skills and the opportunity to use these skills in the job context. Factors that restrict the utilization of acquired knowledge and skills in the work setting can be construed as situational constraints (Peters and O'Connor, 1980; Eulberg, 1984). These situational constraints may affect performance by impacting on trainee motivation, self-efficacy or transfer intentions. Supervisor support and workgroup support were both found to have a direct impact on opportunity to perform trained tasks. Rouillier and Goldstein (1993) examined the organizational transfer climate of training.

Transfer climate refers, in general, to the type and degree to which factors in the workplace limit or augment an individual's application of knowledge and skills learned in the training to the job situation. They classified transfer climate component into situational cues (goal, social, task and self-control) and consequences (positive reinforcement, punishment and lack of feedback). Both components were found to account for significant unique variance in predicting transfer of training. Where a more positive transfer climate existed, trainees demonstrated significantly more trained behaviour even after controlling for learning and unit performance.

Research consistently shows that the work environment can be a tremendous barrier to workers' use of their knowledge and expertise (Tracey, Tannenbaum and Kavanaugh, 1995). Tziner, Haccoun and Kadish (1991) identify three factors that deal with the worker's relationship with his supervisor as; feedback and performance coaching about learning use, the amount of support workers get for using learning and the extent to which supervisors actively oppose using new knowledge and expertise. Task support, peer support, openness to change, and the reward system have all been found to influence the transfer of training (Holton, Baldwin and Naquin, 2000).

Richey (1990) identifies several organizational factors that motivate transfer of training (a) support from the workplace, (b) policies, (c) tools provided on the job and, (d) the availability of a mentor. Recognition from peers and an open climate in communication also allow trainees to transfer the learning to their jobs and task (Raine, 1983). Trainees who work in conditions supportive of learning transfer are more likely to transfer their learning to the job.

Another dimension of work environment that may influence training transfer is organizational support. Formal organizational systems, such as appraisal and reward systems, may play an important role in preparing an individual for training. Baldwin, Magjuka and Loher (1991) found that when trainees understood that they would be held accountable for learning, they reported greater intentions to use their training on the job. This finding suggests that the use of formal procedures to account for newly acquired knowledge and skills may “cue” individuals that training is important and that they will be expected to demonstrate their training on the job. Moreover, if individuals believe there is a link between training and rewards, then it is likely they will be enthusiastic about training and be willing to make an effort to acquire and transfer desired knowledge and skills.

More recently, researchers are now focusing on studies that intervene to change work environments. Brinkerhoff and Montesi (1995) designed a study where supervisors had discussions with trainees prior to training regarding the course content, importance of training to the job and expectations on how training can be applied to the job. In addition, the supervisor discussed issues concerning post-training with the trainees including the extent to which the trainees learned the material, which barriers the trainee might envision while applying the training to the job, and an emphasis on supervisor expectation regarding the use of trained skills to improve job performance.

CONCLUSION

It is acknowledged that African countries have, since independence, made significant strides to improve the quality of lives of their citizens. It is also noted that despite several public sector reforms, public service delivery has not met the expectations of the users. Public service users want government to demonstrate results through better performance management. Performance management ensures that managers effectively perform their functions and deliver value to the citizens accountably. The central thrust of performance management systems is to create competence among public servants. This assumption presupposes the availability of relevant skills necessary for the achievement of desired performance.

Performance management involves sharing an understanding of what needs to be achieved, and then managing and developing people, in a way that enables such shared objectives to be achieved. This article concludes that developing key public administration and management skills through a performance competency based framework identified in the article holds the promise in improving the service delivery. The article opines that the competency framework needs to inform the design and delivery of training programs that are aimed at supporting performance management in the public sector. It also presents a case for organisations to identify competencies for specific roles that are unique to their business, operations and strategies. The article further highlights personal characteristics, training design and the work environment as factors that influence transfer of what is learned in training to the workplace. Incorporating such factors in the public administration and management training program would improve performance management in the public service.

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**MANAGING DIVERSITY AND INCLUSION
IN THE PUBLIC SERVICE IN AFRICA FOR
EFFECTIVE PERFORMANCE:
SOME REFLECTIONS**

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ABSTRACT

This paper highlights prominent issues of diversity and inclusion in intergovernmental mandates especially the United Nations and the Conference of African Ministers of Public Service (CAMPS). It points out why managing diversity and inclusion in the public service in African countries should be a matter of priority to boost effectiveness of the public service. In discussing the challenges of managing diversity and inclusion in the public service it is emphasized that diversity should be taken as a resource and a positive component of Africa's social capital that should be harnessed for development rather than a problem to be solved. The paper argues that the basic rationale for management of diversity and inclusion in the Public Service is to bring the best out of Africa's people to harness their knowledge, know-how, skills, networks, attitudes, mind-set, talent, and capabilities to enhance performance in the public service and contribute to inclusive and equitable sustainable development. Emphasizing that managing diversity and inclusion is part of the critical functions of human resource managers in the public service, the paper concludes by calling for policies, strategies, legal frameworks and institutional structural arrangements as well as human resource management capacity that can enable the public service in African countries to effectively manage diversity and inclusion to improve performance.

Key Words: Diversity, Inclusion, Sustainable Development, Human Resource, Effectiveness.

BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

“Our Nation derives strength from the diversity of its population and from its commitment to equal opportunity for all. We are at our best when we draw on the talents of all parts of our society, and our greatest accomplishments are achieved when diverse perspectives are brought to bear to overcome our greatest challenges”.

(President Obama, Executive Order 13583)

The Eighth African Governance Forum (AGF VIII) was held from 16th to 18th October 2012 in Gaborone, Botswana on the theme of “Democracy, Elections and Management of Diversity in Africa”. Back to back with the AGF VIII was the Capacity Development Workshop on “Harnessing Diversity in the African Public Service: Exploring Policies and Strategies to Enhance Inclusion and Performance” which was held from 11th to 12th October 2012 at the same venue. By focusing on “Elections and Management of Diversity” the AGF VIII was keen in putting the issue of managing diversity on the African Governance Table for discussion. However, discussing issues of diversity from only the side of democracy, and electoral democracy at that, is doing partial work. It could make conclusions related to how to address diversity from a political/democracy point of view. But it would not go down to the public administration level to discuss and recommend measures of tapping the potential of diversity in the human resource of the public service for building effective, responsive, creative, and dynamic public administration and public services on the continent. Such issues could best be addressed when those responsible for managing the human resources in the public service are brought to the table to discuss the challenges and strategies for harnessing diversity in the public service for enhancing performance. This is what necessitated the holding of the capacity development workshop back to back with the AGF VIII. The statement that emanated from the capacity development workshop which was later fed into the AGF VIII contains messages that are profound in terms of harnessing diversity to improve the performance of the public service in Africa. To quote the first message:

“The Public Service is an indispensable instrument of state action. It is critical in the process of change and transformation. As such it is in the interest of the State to have a public administration that reflects the development concerns of all the components of the society it serves. This is the basic that necessitates effectiveness in managing diversity in the Public Service. There is a need to incorporate in the whole architecture of the public service and the measurement of its successes or shortcomings specific diversity management programs that among other things aim at negating adverse effects of differences and capitalizing upon differences and similarities to achieve creative, cohesive, coherent and efficient public service organizations. In Africa,

this is going to be more and more of a prerequisite for success in development as the continent progresses along its preferred path of regional integration. In fact, achieving inclusion was integral to most countries aspirations on achieving independence. When one comes to think about it, regional integration is not premised on negation of diversity. It is premised on the acceptance and exploitation of diversity as a potential for development” (AGF III, Gaborone, Botswana, 18th October 2012).

Following the interaction in the workshop, this paper is a reflection on the issue of the management of diversity and inclusion in the public service in Africa.

Managing diversity figures prominently in African and global inter-governmental mandates

The Long Term Strategy of the African Governance and Public Administration Program of the Conference of Ministers of Public Service (CAMPS) has human resources as one of its pillars. The strategy states that: “Human resources are key to the capability of any state. To ensure effective development and delivery of services the effective mobilization, utilization and management of human resources is critical to leverage other resources. The objective of this pillar is to produce ethical, efficient, effective and equitable human resource planning, development and management. It is also to ensure the full utilization of existing capacity, adequate human resource capability and competent human resource practitioners in line with the capable developmental state. In the long-term this pillar will produce human resources that embrace professionalism, ethics, integrity, service and meritocracy as stated in the African Charter”. The elements of the human resource pillar mentioned in the Long Term Strategy include: (i) Policy and architecture of human resources, (ii) Capability for human resource planning, development and management, (iii) Management and leadership development, (iv) Remuneration and enabling environments (v) Gender equality and equity. Implementing these elements of the strategy demands paying particular attention to the issue of diversity in the human resources in African countries. As the former Minister of Public Service of South Africa put it, “Diversity encompasses all individual differences that affect the performance of tasks or the conduct of relationships and thus may have an impact on the outputs, outcomes and services, as well as on other facets of organizational life and activity” (Frazer Moleketi, 2001).

Managing diversity is increasingly being recognised as a critical aspect of managing socio-politico-economic development. The outcome of Rio+20 as expressed in the United Nations General Assembly resolution A/Res/66/288 brings this out clearly. “We emphasize the responsibilities of all States.....to respect, protect and promote human rights and fundamental freedoms for all, without distinction of any kind as to race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth, disability or other status..... We

acknowledge the natural and cultural diversity of the world, and recognize that all cultures and civilizations can contribute to sustainable development” (UN General Assembly Resolution A/Res/66/288, September 2012). It is not only the United Nations General Assembly that brings out the concern for diversity in an inter-governmental forum.

The African Charter on Values and Principles of Public Service and Administration, adopted by the 16th Ordinary Session of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the Africa Union in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, on 31st January 2011 dwells fairly extensively on issues of diversity in the public services in Africa. It does not explicitly mention the term “diversity”. However, in its objectives, principles, and provisions, it addresses issues related to diversity in making the issue a critical one. For example:

- Among the objectives of the Charter, objective number 8 seeks to “promote equality between men and women as well as equality within public service and administration structures”.
- The Charter stipulates the principles according to which it must be implemented including principle number two which emphasizes “the prohibition of all forms of discrimination on any basis, including place of origin, race, gender, disability, religion, ethnicity, political opinion, membership in a trade union or any other lawful organization”.
- On access to public service, the Charter includes a provision that State parties shall entrench into their national laws and regulations the principles of equal access and non-discrimination.
- On equality of Public Service Agents, the Charter specifies that the “Public Service and Administration shall promote equality among its agents and that Public Service” and that “Administration shall not encourage or perpetuate discrimination based on origin, race, gender, disability, religion, ethnicity, political opinion, or any other consideration”.
- On recruitment the Charter provides that “the recruitment of Public Service Agents shall be based on the principles of merit, equality and non-discrimination” and that “State Parties shall adopt legislative, executive and administrative measures that guarantee the right to employment of women, ethnic minorities, and people with disabilities, marginalized and vulnerable groups”.

Additionally, the charter defines public service extensively, making it a diverse institution. The African Charter defines public service as “Any service or public-interest activity that is under the authority of the administration” which it defines as “Any institution or organization at the continental, regional, national, and sub-national levels that applies the public policies or undertakes public service duties”.

It defines a Public Service Agent as “Any worker or employee of the State or of its institutions, including those who were selected, appointed or elected to carry out activities in the name or on behalf of the State at all levels of its structures.” A combination of these definitions opens the understanding of “Public Service” to mean a very wide field of operations that literally makes every worker, be they political, managerial, technical etc. who works within the realm of the State; a Public Servant. In this way, the Charter makes managing diversity in the public service more critical.

Why Prioritise the Management of Diversity and Inclusion in the Public Service?

In pointing out the above intergovernmental mandates on diversity, this article does not wish to emphasize that managing diversity is just a matter of respecting legal provisions. In the words of the Hon. Dalmis Otieno (Benin, 2010), former Minister of State for Public Service of the Republic of Kenya and Chairperson of the Conference of African Ministers for Public Service (CAMPS): “In managing diversity in the public service, participants may wish to consider the challenges and interventions necessary in bringing out the best from the diversity that is manifested in race, tribe, religion, socio-economic circumstances, gender, the minority, culture. As you are aware, we have on many occasions failed to realize development by focusing attention on the negative aspects of our diversity”. And according to Barack Obama, President of the USA (August 2011), “Our Nation derives strength from the diversity of its population and from its commitment to equal opportunity for all. We are at our best when we draw on the talents of all parts of our society, and our greatest accomplishments are achieved when diverse perspectives are brought to bear to overcome our greatest challenges”. The whole rationale for management of diversity in the public service lies in the realm of the struggle for Africa to bring the best out of its people to harness the knowledge, know-how, skills, networks, attitudes, mind-set, talent, and capabilities to enhance performance of public sector institutions and contribute to inclusive and equitable sustainable development. Essentially there is not one reason but many as to why managing diversity and inclusion in the public service in Africa should be prioritised. One may look at a combination of: (i) managing diversity and inclusion is an issue related to survival in the market and so it is believed that in the context of competition and tapping the best talent for enhanced performance and competitiveness managing diversity makes business sense. But also inclusion makes a lot of business sense because the more people are involved and included in the consumption of goods and services the larger the market (ii) managing diversity and inclusion is an issue directly associated with social justice and so it is the right thing to do to address challenges related to exclusion and inequalities not only in the public service but in society in general, and (iii) managing diversity is not only business sense or a matter of social

justice but an unavoidable thinking and management strategy that is dictated by the complex environment in which organisations, in this case the public service, work. In other words managing diversity and inclusion should not be something public service leadership and management should choose to do or not to do. It is something that must be done and done effectively.

The challenges and tasks involved in all this lies squarely on those public servants, political, managerial, administrative and technical who are entrusted with the management of the human resource in the public service in African countries. Every human resource manager ought to undertake an analysis of the part of the public service where they work to understand the actions that the public service should undertake to initiate/enhance inclusiveness, a culture and practice where capabilities, talents, socio-politico-economic backgrounds, ways of life, etc., that are unique to each public servant, are not only appreciated, but also accepted and leveraged to enhance learning, informed decision making and performance in the process of achieving inclusive sustainable development. Beyond such analysis human resource managers should ensure that there is:

- A strategy with goals, objectives, and programmatic activities to guide the management of diversity in their work place;
- An action plan with manageable tasks to progressively implement the strategy;
- Work teams that cut across divisions within organizations to benefit from the diversity in the particular workplace;
- A culture and practice of team work, and leadership skills that supports the development of appropriate practices of managing diversity and inclusion;
- Efforts to appropriately orient middle management who in their daily routine may derail efforts of inclusion and diversity management.

The Challenge of Managing Diversity in the Public Service in Africa

The public service is an indispensable instrument of state action. It is critical in the process of change and transformation. As such it is in the interest of the State to have a public administration that reflects the development concerns of all the components of the society it serves. This is the basic concern that necessitates effectiveness in managing diversity in the public service. The problem of managing diversity in Africa is not a conceptual one or related to intellectual/academic acrobatics. It is real and requires practical attention in terms of diagnostic analysis of its nature and finding lasting socio-politico-economic and managerial/administrative measures to address it in a lasting way.

The Country Review Mechanism (CRM) of the Africa Peer Review Mechanism (APRM) processes considered the problem of diversity in the 12 countries that had by 2008 access to the APRM. The Nigerian APRM Report of 2008 refers to managing diversity as both a “scourge and challenge” to African countries especially because of the human, material, social and economic costs of conflicts attributed to lack of or inadequate management of diversity including: extensive loss of human life, displacement of populations, social dislocations, destruction of property and economic ruin. Probably the worst Africa has witnessed was the genocide of 1994 in Rwanda where an estimated 800,000 lives were lost. In terms of economic costs, for example, the 2009 APRM Report of Uganda (Annual Progress Report # 1 – Uganda NPoA 2008-9) puts the cost of the war between the Government and the Lord’s Resistance Army (LRA) during the period of 1986 and 2002 at US \$ 1.33 billion. A problem with such socio-politico-economic impact requires an institutionalized response.

That the problems and challenges related to diversity figure considerably in the studies of the APRM shows that diversity management is on the table for African governments to consider in the process of finding ways of transforming socio-politico-economic governance for development. Some of the solutions recommended by the CRM Reports include:

- Promoting and strengthening institutions of democratic governance;
- Addressing poverty and problems of uneven development;
- Correcting problems of inequitable political representation through devolution of power, electoral reforms, and establishing organizations that enhance minority protection, such as council of minorities;
- Embracing institutional reforms to enhance the participation of women;
- Protecting cultural rights including religious and language rights of minorities;
- Rationalizing access to land and respecting customary land rights;
- Developing and adopting legal frameworks for the role of traditional and religious authorities; and
- Recognizing and regulating traditional institutions of governance, especially those dealing with conflict resolution (alternative forms of dispute resolution).

Indeed if such recommendations were to be effectively implemented by African countries they would go a long way in addressing some of the problems related to lack of, or inadequate, management of diversity.

Taking Diversity as a Resource to be harnessed rather than a Problem to be solved

Recommendations such as those by CRM Reports are however, constructed around the political, economic and cultural considerations of diversity. They are less considerate of the management of the human resource in the institutions of the State. Problems and challenges explode from a human side of the state and therefore managing human resources in state institutions needs to pay particular attention to issues of diversity – not because diversity is a problem to be solved or managed, but because diversity is a resource whose values, virtues, merits, and demerits must be reconciled and channelled towards development. In this respect diversity should not be seen as a negative force to be reckoned with but as a positive source of contribution to development. Many African countries have been tackling diversity as a problem that needs to be managed. This is a wrong approach. Diversity needs to be viewed as a potential resource that needs to be harnessed and channelled towards development. Therefore diversity management is about taking diversity as part of a country's social capital for development and must include:

- Identification and analysis of various types of diversities in the society in question in terms of both differences and similarities as well as potential for development;
- Promoting recognition and acceptance of the various diversities as components of the country's/society's capital;
- Harnessing and tapping the contribution of the various diversities in terms of values, skills, knowledge, and other resources in the process of development;
- Continuous monitoring and evaluation of the evolving diversity components of the society to ensure that new and emerging differences and similarities are not left to develop without being included in the overall picture of the diversity of the society;
- Providing appropriate incentives and environments for the deployment of the diversity components for positive development purposes that benefit all.

Human Resource Diversity is more than just Ethnicity, Race, Religious differences, Politics and Gender

Yes, diversity in Africa's public service can be seen in terms of ethnicity, religious affiliations and beliefs, political affiliations, gender, sexual orientation, race, linguistic pluralism, age differences, etc. but for diversity to be effectively managed in a way that taps its potential for development it must be understood more deeply and widely to include the way people think, norms, values, the various knowledge,

skills, attitudes, aspirations, outlooks, and inventiveness etc. While there is merit in handling politically some of the issues of diversity that must be handled politically (e.g. elections and political processes that are inclusive), the issue of managing diversity in the public services is squarely a function of the management of the human resources in the public service. The question is of whether the human resource managers in the public service possess the requisite knowledge, skills, attitude, mind-sets, institutional mandates, organizational structures, etc. that facilitate the management of diversity for effectiveness in the public service.

CONCLUSION: Need for Policies, Strategies, Legal Frameworks, Institutions and Structural Arrangement and Human Resource Management Capacity to Manage Diversity and Inclusion in the Public Service

There is a need to have in place, policies, legal, institutional and structural provisions as well as human resource managers and competences that:

- Promote diagnostic analysis and recognition of differences as a basis for managing and harnessing diversity in the public service for effectiveness and responsiveness in service delivery and development in general;
- Go beyond tolerance of differences and impose acceptance of differences in a positive way as part and parcel of a country's human capital and social assets for development;
- Discourage and outright prohibit/outlaw discrimination in the public service because in effect any discrimination is an erosion on the human capital and social asset of the country;
- Project diversity management as a positive contribution to effective and efficient operations in government institutions;
- Recognize diversity's contribution to success in government agencies;
- Include paradigms of managing diversity in the criteria for planning, monitoring and evaluating the performance of managers and administrators at different levels of the public service;
- Provide for sustained development of human resource management capacity in the public service as all levels including local governments/administration.

What needs to be incorporated in the whole architecture of the public service and the measurement of its successes or shortcomings are specific diversity management programs that among other things aim at negating adverse effects of differences and capitalizing upon both differences and similarities to achieve creative, cohesive, coherent and efficient public service organizations. In Africa, this is going to be more and more of a prerequisite for success in development

as the continent progresses along its preferred path of regional integration. When one comes to think about it, regional integration is not premised on negation of diversity. It is premised on the acceptance and exploitation of diversity as a potential for development.

From the stand point of information and decision making, diversity and inclusion can provide opportunities for the public service as an organization to have a variety of ideas, knowledge, skills and insights that could help improve organizational capacity in solving problems and improving the quality of decisions made. However everything about diversity in the public service should not be understood from a rosy point of view (at least from a conceptual perspective). Looked at from the angle of social categorization and social identity as well as similarity attraction, there is a possibility of diversity overloading the organization (the Public Service) with costs of coordination and conflict resolution and thus jeopardize effectiveness. However, beyond these theoretically opposed perspectives on diversity there is a need to put them in the context of reality taking into account as many factors as possible. It can then be affirmed that policies and strategies of managing diversity and inclusion in the public service, when properly analysed, designed and implemented, especially as moral imperatives and legal requirements could lead to:

- Political integration of a diverse nation;
- Greater measures of legitimacy for the government;
- Greater access to jobs for women and minorities;
- Enhanced social justice;
- Organizational competitiveness;
- Better organizational performance;
- Enhanced employee satisfaction;

With the above in perspective, a recruitment that emphasizes cultural, experiential and cognitive diversity stands the chance of improving prospects of the public service to have a workforce with the capability to address increasingly complex challenges more effectively and efficiently. Such recruitment stands a chance of creating a diverse workforce in the public service that draws from all segments of society. However, this requires sustained commitment to ensuring a level playing field upon which applicants and employees may compete for opportunities within government. Sustaining the highest levels of integrity and professionalism in recruitment processes is paramount to the implementation of a strategic vision and plans for managing diversity and inclusion in the public service.

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**INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE EVALUATION
AND WHY IT IS SO
DIFFICULT TO GET IT RIGHT**

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ABSTRACT

This paper draws attention to individual staff performance and how it is managed and evaluated and, by implication, how it ultimately affects public service delivery. The performance appraisal system sits at the apex of organizational performance management. This is as true in the public as it is in the private spheres of enterprise. Administering and enhancing the system is an annual organizational pageant that preoccupies the human resource function and, to an extent, justifies its organizational presence. And yet, there is scant objective or impartial evidence that much improvement actually occurs: in truth most corporations, public and private, are dissatisfied with their appraisal systems but are at a loss to know how to fix them; they are trapped on a highway to nowhere with no exit ramp in sight.

There is an emerging, renegade school of thought that the annual performance evaluation process is wholly counterproductive and does not meaningfully impact on individual performance at all; that it should be abandoned altogether. This existential challenge to the process remains curiously uncontested by “the faithful” leading to a theological and practical stalemate of sorts.

The central argument of this paper is that there is utility in shifting attention away from the performance appraisal system itself and to the system’s “actors”, the managers and staff who are directly involved in and impacted by it.

Least examined is the lead actor - the manager cast in the role of supervisor in the unfolding appraisal plot. The informal incentive system is explored to explain why managers frequently act out of script in muted defiance of formal appraisal guidelines and covertly sabotage intended outcomes and the rules of the game. Viewed in a wider context, this seemingly errant behavior is actually quite rational.

Key Words: Performance, Appraisal, Appraiser, Appraisee.

INTRODUCTION

Pay more attention to the actors and less to the plot.

Performance is the purpose of organizations. It unfolds at all levels in a complex causally reinforcing and reciprocating way. An organization's effectiveness is at least the sum of the contribution of its people and, in turn, the shape, structure and processes of the organization to influence the effectiveness of individual staff members and the inter-dependent work teams they belong to.

This paper's main focus is at the micro-level to that of the individual public servant. Institutional performance may be structured around elaborate results frameworks but, ultimately, performance delivery hinges on the aggregate quality of performance at the individual and team/ enterprise level. This paper further confronts the paradox that has long beset individual performance management and evaluation:

Performance appraisal systems are, capricious “under-performers”: they manage to habitually over rate individual performance while simultaneously demotivating and disaffecting staff, to varying degrees.

Why is this so? Several reasons can be given but the focus here is primarily on those directly involved in the appraisal process: the staff whose performances are under the microscope; and managers charged with administering the performance appraisal process. The central argument in the paper is that too much attention is paid to the appraisal process itself and not enough to the process actors and not nearly enough to the complex array of incentives and pressures confronting managers as appraisers. It is this blind spot that causes efforts to improve performance appraisal systems to be so vexing and ultimately unsuccessful.

CONTEXT AND SCOPE

The focus of the paper is on individual performance appraisal in the public sector. It would be wrong, however, to infer that what happens in the private sector is intrinsically different or inherently better. Granted, private sector performance appraisal outcomes can be swift and consequential – from graduation to the “fast track” at one extreme to being shown the door at the other. But consequence does not necessarily equate with efficacy: a flawed system with teeth is still a flawed system.

The challenges of performance management in the African context are also not set apart. It is, of course, a fact that the tools and techniques of managing people as we understand them have been developed mostly in the US and the New Public Management (Anglo-Saxon) political economies. The case is yet to be made, however, that they are any less applicable to the African public sector than elsewhere.

A more fundamental issue is also beyond the scope of the paper: does the performance appraisal process actually impact individual performance and, by extension, organizational performance in a positive way? A number of affirmative or at least tacit belief exists that it does - which is of course one reason the process is so ubiquitous and enduring. However, a look at some of the literature on performance management offers some more challenging perspectives. Phil Rosenzweig (2007), in *The Halo Effect*, for example argues that organizational success is often attributed to factors that are fortuitously swept up in the halo of success without actually contributing to it. Thus, successful companies are found often to have more compelling strategies and driven staff. Corporate success also tends to loosely correlate with favorable employee engagement. But whither the causality: do these factors impact performance in concrete ways or are they merely reflections of success by other means?

Dr. Johnson once said that a second marriage is the triumph of hope over experience (Boswell, 1791). He could just as easily have been referring to the Annual Performance Review Process. Doggedness of application is certainly not a reason for failure or disappointment. True, most public sector organizations are unhappy to some degree with their processes; staff even more so as, evidenced by employee engagement surveys which track the barometric pressure of disgruntlement within workforce ranks. At the risk of generalizing too sweepingly, typical public sector engagement surveys relay conflicting sentiments: strong identification with the mission of the organization on the one hand contrasting with varying levels of dissatisfaction with internal people systems on the other hand. The latter being judged as, biased, arbitrary and just not fair. Somehow the processes designed to forge alignment between people and organizations appear to do the opposite. How do institutions react to this feedback loop: essentially by doing more of the same? Human Resource (HR) departments tinker endlessly with their appraisal systems in the hope of eking out some sort of improvement, however modest, through tweaking competency definitions, expanding or contracting rating scales and so on. There seems to be an endless, untamable fascination with performance-based pay and reward notwithstanding the absence of evidence that this is in any way a panacea.

Improved performance through process enhancement also tends to be a central pillar of organizational change initiatives in the wider public arena. The multi-lateral development banks are among the most persistent and public in this

regard. In 2013, for example, the President of the World Bank announced a set of organization change decisions emanating from a protracted year-long change process. Two of the seven thematic change areas relate directly to performance management, they include; building a performance based culture, and; developing the leadership [talent] needed to drive better results.

The African Development Bank (AfDB) Corporate Human Resource Action Plan 2013-15 focused heavily on shortcomings in the area of performance management. The plan acknowledges that the topic is viewed critically by staff and managers alike and that processes and procedures do not deliver on their promise. Excessive emphasis on form-filling and little attention paid to substantive ongoing dialogue is noted even though the suspected root cause of the problem revolves around behaviors and expectations. The AfDB's action plan, as with the World Bank's, focuses on improving the quality of leadership and installing a cascading system of "planned performance contracts" beginning with the President. Management effectiveness is to be monitored more thoroughly through a management effectiveness index as part of the annual staff survey and performance assessment will become a more significant element in the evaluation of management effectiveness.

There is no reason to doubt the sincerity of these intentions. But this is not the first time they have attempted to improve performance management; in different guises. It has been squarely on their respective change radars for decades. These change efforts may succeed where previous attempts have failed but the approach is emblematic of exercises of their ilk, more generally and particularly in the public sector. The change reflex is to surface areas for improvement as if they were new discoveries while ignoring or glossing quickly over why previous attempts to address similar issues floundered or fell short of expectations. Consequently, there tends to be a certain sameness of approach; hope flying in the face of experience. This is not how learning organizations are supposed to behave.

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT: THE APPRAISEE'S EXPERIENCE

Many top organization thinkers have voiced concerns about the performance review processes and not just recently. For whatever reason, their insights have failed to permeate fully the thinking at the practitioner level. To pick some examples:

In their book, *"The Knowing-Doing Gap"*, Jeff Pfeffer and Bob Sutton (1999) cite the oracle of quality management, W. Edwards Deming who depicted the typical performance evaluation process as a battle field strewn with casualties: *"bitter, crushed, bruised, battered, desolate, despondent, dejected, feeling inferior, some even depressed, unfit for work for weeks after receipt of the rating, unable to comprehend why they are inferior."*

Elsewhere and in the context of his signature field of interest, Deming (1986) described the performance evaluation systems as: “*the most powerful inhibitor to quality and productivity in the Western world*”. It “*nourishes short-term performance, annihilates long-term planning, builds fear, demolishes teamwork, nourishes rivalry and ... leaves people bitter.*” These arguments are echoed in the work of other prominent subject matter experts.

Alfie Kohn (1999) in his book *Published by Rewards*, challenges the underlying principles of ‘Operant Conditioning’ which buttress so much of the design of performance reward systems and levels five specific criticisms at performance rewards in the performance management system. They: (1) Are punitive in nature and rely on simplistic notions of carrot and stick to impact performance or “motivate” staff; (2) Rupture relationships because they invariably are individual-centric even though performance in most cases stems from collaboration and teamwork to manage the interdependence of people in the work force; (3) Ignore the underlying reasons for quality of performance outcomes; (4) Discourage risk-taking because risks are associated with potential failure which tends to be punished rather than used as a basis for learning; (5) And they undermine [intrinsic] interest in the work being done.

On his last point, Kohn mirrors the views of Douglas McGregor (1960), who in his seminal work *The Human Side of Enterprise*, dismissed the performance appraisal process on several grounds. *The Human Side of Enterprise* was, of course the wellspring for McGregor’s celebrated Theory X and Theory Y workplace motivation dichotomy. Theory X postulates that employees are inherently lazy, dislike work and will avoid it wherever possible. They must, as a result, be closely supervised and their performance tightly controlled by rewards and sanctions to achieve results. Conversely, Theory Y posits a workforce that is self-driven, well-motivated and capable of deriving intrinsic satisfaction from work. Accordingly, a Theory Y manager will act more as a coach and enabler seeking to harness the intrinsic desire of people to do a good job.

Linking Kohn’s sharp criticisms with McGregor’s theories, it could be argued that the fundamental flaw in the performance management model is the unflinching effort expended in trying to achieve Theory Y outcomes with Theory X instruments.

In recent years, the mantle of full scale assault on the performance management process has been assumed by Samuel Culbert of University of California, Los Angeles (UCLA’s) Anderson Business School. In an article in the *Wall Street Journal*, *Getting Rid of the Performance Review*, Culbert (2009) argued that it wrecks morale, undermines teamwork and the bottom line as well as other negativities. Culbert actually was not saying anything particularly new; those cited above said much the same thing but he struck a nerve at the right moment and his inveighing against the

process and its design assumptions has continued unabated, including in several books which have carried the assault to shriller heights, claiming, among other things, that the appraisal process also lacks objectivity and stifles new ideas and innovation.

What is most striking about reviewing the subject matter is how deep the concern about the performance review process has been in so many esteemed quarters and for so long (McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y is now over half a century old even if still conceptually fresh) and yet it has made surprisingly little dent on the ongoing design or management of the process in most organizations, public or private.

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT: THE APPRAISER'S PERSPECTIVE

In many respects, the habitually skewed distribution of performance ratings in organization is the smoking gun. When the staff population size is sufficiently large, a properly functioning appraisal system should yield a ratings distribution approximately corresponding to a bell curve. Or so the theory goes. The draconian GE-style forced distribution approaches are, in case of doubt, engineered to impose such an outcome. Forced distribution has had a certain rugged appeal for some time until its inherent shortcomings and unintended consequences were revealed fully. It appeared to fit the muscular GE culture well but has proved less successful when exported to other organizational settings. Further, it seems to work least well in public sector settings where the range of managerial responses to performance is, for better or worse, more circumscribed. As Lawler and others have described (2003), repeated application of forced distribution with consequences for career development or even employment continuity can alter the definition of "success" as perceived by staff and inject a gratuitous level of apprehension and job insecurity into the performance equation. And the imposition of forced distribution is, some would argue, inherently subjective and penal to high performing work groups with wide spans of high performing talent: it is inequitable and counter-productive by unwitting design.

But, outside the procrustean boundaries of the GE-type forced distribution system, ratings distributions tend to be spectacularly "abnormal". Left to their own devices, distributions skew upwards as if propelled by some ratings gravitational force; before long, most staff are consistently performing "above average". Though somewhat universal a trend, this is a particular bane of performance evaluation schemes in the public sector. Confronted by this chronic systems dereliction, the usual suspects are profiled: some, as yet unidentified, gremlins in the systems itself which need fixing through shuffling the competency deck, reworking ratings criteria or whatever and/or blaming lax management practices and individual managers who didn't "get the memo". But what if managers do "get it" and ratings inflation stems from perfectly rational managerial choices and behavior?

The Manager/Appraiser as Dispassionate Agent in the Performance Management Process

The notion of the rational agent acting on the basis of perfect market information has been shown to set limits on the utility of neo-classical economic theory; ultimately behavioral economics has emerged to complement, and to an extent compete with prior economic orthodoxy. In many respects, the conceptualization of performance management is analogous. Just as the neo-classical economic actor was conceived of as a fully informed, decision-maker, so too the appraiser in the performance management model is presumed to be a well-informed, dispassionate manager capable of orchestrating a fair performance review process which balances the needs of the appraisee with the best interests of the organization. Role conflict is assumed not to be present and consideration of managerial effectiveness in the process typically reduces to topics such as behavioral appraisal skills (active listening, questioning, providing constructive feedback, etc.), the quality of appraisal documentation and instruction and attention to deadlines and completion levels and so on. What tends not to be considered is the fact that managers, in their role as performance appraisers, are behaving rationally when they allow the system to stray from its intended path. There are numerous reasons why this is so, even though they receive little serious consideration in the literature on performance management. In no particular order, the following factors are usually at place in the performance evaluation process to differing degrees:

The inherent subjectivity of knowledge work evaluation: Most knowledge work outcomes are simply not amenable to objective assessment and while subjectivity on the part of the rater can be tamed it cannot be eliminated or controlled for entirely. The issue has been addressed extensively in the literature. Problems linked to subjectivity are compounded by challenges associated with “line of sight” (Lawler and others 2003), the halo effect where certain performance or competency attributes which can be gauged with relative objectivity are projected onto others which cannot and/or are unrelated. And proximity in time to the performance evaluation distorts judgment further with research demonstrating that performance events and outcomes close to the evaluation receive more weight than more distant happenings regardless of relative importance (Lawler 2003).

Smart managers sense all of the above - and more - intuitively and appreciate the perils lurking in strong differentiation of ratings of their staff. Why risk demotivating otherwise solid performers or cope with justifying distinctions founded on subjective assessments and partial information?

Institutional inertia: It is stimulating to contemplate public institutions as fast paced and forever changing but the reality is that much public service delivery is relatively predictable and constant – as are the capacities of staff to perform accordingly. This is not meant as a criticism: it is how it should be: predictability, after all, is a Weberian bureaucratic virtue. But this very predictability and constancy of delivery make for a relatively dull platform to mount performance evaluation on. Anodyne language and central tendency clustering of ratings should not then be unexpected (even if, as discussed above, the “center” is higher than it should be).

Short-term supervisory relationship: The working relationship between supervisors and staff is typically of relatively short duration in the public sector. Managers, moreover, typically have limited say in who comes to work for them or when staff depart for other assignments. A public sector manager fresh in a new assignment essentially inherits a staff cadre which he or she has limited latitude or time to shape in a profound way. Managers also are bequeathed the performance track records of individual staff but lack the scope, authority or time to radically alter this record going forward. This is as true for good performers who could be stretched further as it is for mediocre performers. Confronted with either scenario, the rational manager can be forgiven for taking a pragmatic approach. Expending significant effort may simply be too difficult to justify: at the most optimistic, it takes time to impact sustainable performance improvement. The staff in question may well have transferred elsewhere by then; another managerial peer will reap the return on investment (and possibly get credit for the performance turnaround). And since performance problems are likely to have emerged earlier and in prior assignments, why compensate for the inattentiveness of prior supervisors?

Relationships with staff: Attempting to be as honest as possible in the appraisal process and to abide by directives to use the rating scale range to the fullest extent can leave a legacy of ruptured relationships with staff. Ratings distinctions may end up being minor in absolute terms but “minor differences” matter, particularly in public sector settings where scope to reward and recognize performance is narrow. Add the element of subjectivity to the brew and explicit performance distinctions are likely to be experienced as wrong and deeply unfair by affected staff. Maintaining an environment in which performance distinctions are downplayed and performance problem dramas avoided may be a tad sub-optimal but it is the managerial path of least resistance and surest way of preserving harmony in the work setting. To a public sector manager with limited scope to significantly impact the composition of the immediate workforce, harmony is not a trivial matter.

Lack of more than symbolic support: Given the attention devoted to performance management, support to managers attempting to take performance management seriously is frequently surprisingly uneven given all the accompanying rhetoric. Human Resource functions tend to be more attracted to the design end of the

process, forever tinkering with appraisal forms and documentation, conjuring up new competencies to add to an already brimming trough and so on. Less attractive is the challenge of providing protracted support and guidance to managers confronting serious performance cases or navigating an unresolvable performance case to ultimate closure. It can be messy, seemingly never-ending and ultimately inconclusive. So why accept the challenge directly if it can be avoided or somehow obfuscated?

Focus on ends rather than means: The 34th AAPAM Roundtable Conference focused on improving public service delivery, of improving results at the outcome and impact levels. As mentioned, it was clear from the presentations that the results framework has gained currency as a methodology for defining and measuring service delivery quality. In time, outcomes and impact will feature more prominently in performance management, notwithstanding the measurement challenges involved. In this context, tackling the performance of individual staff is, while essential, a means to a greater end. In subtle ways, the incentive/recognition system-in-use could drift away from a classic focus on individual performance to more aggregate results. All the more reason not to waste finite managerial and “political” capital on tackling individual performances cases. There will be insufficient reward or recognition for doing so.

Reputational risk: In public sector institutions with stable workforces and relatively high employment security, reputation counts. Managers have self-interested reasons to be seen as good to work for given that, in most internal assignment processes, they play a relatively passive role in the final selection decision-making. Staff, equally, have every reason to avoid working under a supervisor with a record of severity as a performance evaluator. What is ultimately written in the annual performance review is very often the testimony that counts in selection and promotion decisions and internal competitions. Better to pick a lenient or neutral supervisor who will, at minimum, “do no harm” to one’s competitive prospects and career progress.

So, for somewhat independent reasons, the reputational concerns and self-interest of both managers and staff combine to forge an informal coalition with a stake in keeping performance evaluation, safe, uncontroversial and bland.

The specter of the grievance process: Finally, grievance processes serve important functions and offer protections to staff; they are a check and balance against managerial overreach or organizational neglect of due process. But, in practice, they also tend to be processes which distribute fault between plaintiff and respondent and tend not to reach starkly one-sided opinions. Which means, in the context of performance management, a manager who finds him or herself in the

role of defending actions and assessments tends not to emerge entirely unscathed, regardless of the objective merits of the case. All the more reason not to get embroiled in the process in the first place. Grievance processes impact reputations of managers and not in a good way.

CONCLUSION

So, is performance management as we know it likely to fade away anytime soon? Hardly! Since there is formidable vested interest in the status quo within the human resource management profession and the service providers and consultants who support it. Secondly, performance has to be managed and a viable alternative to the traditional performance appraisal system is yet to emerge. There is some evidence that performance management is being re-examined in pockets of the more dynamic private sector, particularly in the United States (US). Microsoft, for example, in 2013 jettisoned its forced ranking appraisal system in a quite public way. Change may therefore happen gradually and, most likely, extend from the private to the public spheres.

In the meantime, the public sector must make do with the existing performance management tools at its disposal. But, in doing so, the paper argues for more realistic assumptions about the actual impact on staff and on the incentive system-in-use that managers confront in their arduous role as appraisers of performance.

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**THE ROAD TO OPEN GOVERNMENT:
ENHANCING PUBLIC SECTOR TRANSPARENCY,
ACCOUNTABILITY AND PERFORMANCE
THROUGH OPEN DOOR APPROACHES**

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ABSTRACT

As we begin to recover from recent economic turmoil, all orders of government and other public sector organizations are facing challenges that are increasingly complex. The public sector must learn to adapt and exploit new technologies that are rapidly changing the environment in which we live, work and play. All levels of governments have been exploring Open Government including examples from the Federal Government of Canada, the Province of British Columbia and the City of Toronto. The Institute of Public Administration Canada (IPAC) has recently undertaken research to document the adoption of Open Government approaches and the impediments to their broader application. Our research has found that while currently there is very limited use of new technologies, there is a clear interest in exploring their wider application and general support for Open Government. There are many forces driving governments to transform themselves but must contend with and overcome a variety of barriers. IPAC has also recently introduced its own secure social media platform called Public Service without Borders (PSWB).

Key Words: Open Government, Open Data, Social Media, Public Sector.

INTRODUCTION

As we begin to recover from recent economic turmoil and respond to shifting sands, the current environment could be characterized as complex but full of opportunity. All orders of government (federal, state, aboriginal or municipal) and other public sector organizations are facing challenges that are increasingly complex, impact citizens and stakeholders in both predictable and unintended ways and often spread across ministerial mandates and jurisdictions. Although resources are increasingly limited, citizens still have expectations and assume that governments will work together to address them through new and creative approaches. There is mounting pressure and recognition that like the private sector (and indeed private citizens), the public sector must learn to adapt and exploit new technologies that are rapidly changing the environment in which we live, work and play.

In 1450, five inventors were racing against each other to develop the first commercial printing press, replacing the tedious hand copying of each book with a process that could turn out hundreds of books of uniform quality. Johannes Gutenberg won. “This new technology for communicating and sharing knowledge played a key role in the development of the renaissance, the reformation and the scientific revolution, and laid the basis for the modern knowledge-based economy and the spread of learning to the masses,” Wikipedia reports (2012). Do new technologies have a similar potential to transform the way we learn, share knowledge, manage our organizations and deliver government services?

It is too soon to tell whether we are entering a period of change as profound and disruptive as that wrought by Gutenberg, Bell or the Wright brothers. However it is not too soon to recognize the tremendous importance and the need to respond to new and emerging technologies. As Canada’s leading professional organization dedicated to excellence in public administration, the Institute of Public Administration of Canada (IPAC) has recently undertaken a number of research initiatives in Open Government, including the use, application and adaption of social media within the public sector and the opening of access to government information and data. IPAC’s work includes a number of background studies and a series of cross-country roundtables with practitioners (public and private) and academics.

The results of these studies recognize that if collaboration is the wellspring of good governance, and if more collaboration would help governments by assisting decision-makers and policy-makers to work together more productively, then the use and adaption of new technology based approaches need to be explored and exploited. Most importantly, if governments want to truly engage citizens and the public in decision making – then open government may offer a helping hand.

Furthermore, it is recognized that citizens' demands for greater transparency and accountability can be significantly enhanced through an opening up of government doors. After all, the essence of Open Government is collaboration and engagement. If people who have never met each other can band together through social media to build a top flight operating system for computers in Linux and the world's most used encyclopaedia in Wikipedia, surely it has possibilities for collaboration that must be explored in the corridors of government. If new business opportunities and economic prosperity can be created through the data and information that governments already collect, then surely Open Government has a place in the future of the public sector.

OPEN GOVERNMENT – SETTING THE STAGE

Recently, there has been increased attention and commitment by many jurisdictions to enhance transparency and accountability through Open Government. The intent is to give citizens the opportunity to access public information in more useful and readable formats, enable greater insight into the inner workings of government and empower citizens to participate more directly in the decision-making process. This interest has culminated into the *Open Government Partnership* (OPG) which is a new multilateral initiative that aims to secure concrete commitments from governments to promote transparency, empower citizens, fight corruption, and harness new technologies to strengthen governance. The concept was formally launched in 2011 through a collaboration effort of the eight founding members (Brazil, Indonesia, Mexico, Norway, Philippines, South Africa, United Kingdom, and the United States of America). Together they endorsed an Open Government Declaration, and announced their country action plans. Since that time, they have welcomed the commitment of forty seven (47) additional governments to join the OPG.

Like many others around the globe, governments from all levels across Canada have been developing a variety of approaches to Open Government. The Government of Canada launched an Action Plan on Open Government earlier in 2012. Canada's commitment to open government is part of the federal government's efforts to foster greater openness and accountability, to provide Canadians with more opportunities to learn about and participate in government, to drive innovation and economic opportunities for all Canadians and, at the same time, create a more cost effective, efficient and responsive government. The Federal Government's strategy is built upon three primary streams, including:

- Open Data, which is about offering government data in a more useful format to enable citizens, the private sector and non-government organizations to leverage it in innovative and value-added ways.

- Open Information, which is about proactively releasing information, including on government activities, to Canadians on an ongoing basis by proactively making government information available, easier to find and more accessible for Canadians.
- Open Dialogue, which is about giving Canadians a stronger say in government policies and priorities, and expanding engagement through Web 2.0 technology.

At the Provincial level, the Government of the Province of British Columbia (Province of British Columbia, 2011) has been at the forefront of adopting and adapting Open Government. In March of 2011, the Province's new Premier, Christy Clark, proclaimed Open Government as one of the fundamental shifts that would improve the quality of life for its residents,

“We are changing our approach to governing by putting citizens at the centre of our web services and making government data and information more freely available. Open government is about sharing information and giving British Columbians more opportunities to participate in decisions that make a difference in their lives.” (2011, p. 2)

Like most jurisdictions across Canada and around the world, demographic shifts, fiscal pressure and new expectations from citizens are creating real challenges for British Columbia. All of these factors impact on the sustainability of public services that matter deeply to Canadians. The Province recognized that there are real opportunities presented by new technology; new approaches and new mind sets to not only cope with change, but to realize new kinds of benefits created by our interconnected world. The Province also understood that embracing that change required an engine of transformation.

The Provincial Public Service accepted and delivered on that commitment in July of 2011 with the launch of a trio of major open government initiatives focusing on Open Data, Open Information and a new citizen-centred approach to government web development. The result of this work was the creation of Citizens @ the Centre, a strategic vision of change and opportunity through technology based on three fundamental shifts to the public service's operating philosophy: citizen participation in data sharing, improving on-line services and taking a more corporate approach to technology planning.

These efforts represent much more than new websites; they represent a signal to the world that British Columbia (B.C) is prepared to transform the way it engages people and provides them with services, and that technology would be the pathway. The leadership shown by British Columbia in the area of open government has

had an immediate impact on other jurisdictions and at all levels of government. Others are seeking to adopt parts or the whole of B.C.'s approach as they see the opportunity presented for all governments in embracing these philosophical shifts.

Even at the municipal level, Canadian Cities have been doing their part to open up access and build greater transparency through Open Government. For example, the City of Toronto has developed a number of programs to give the public at large access to its information and data bases. The Open Data Program of the City of Toronto is an enterprise information management initiative including an Open Data policy and licence (attribution and legal purposes) that follows the guiding principles for open data that were established by the U. and. Sunlight Foundation.

In their commitment to openness, the City of Toronto recognizes that identifying and making data accessible helps to ensure that the public is informed and engaged in an open and accessible government. Datasets are regularly published by the City thus allowing everyone to develop digital applications to improve government transparency and enhance public participation. It is important to recognize that in compliance with provincial and federal legislation, the City will not post datasets containing confidential, proprietary, and/or personal information. To ensure that the Open Government program continues to move forward, the City has created an Open Government Committee and the City Manager is the lead of the entire initiative. They have already witnessed many successes. For example, Toronto hosted a Hack-a-Thon contest where the public was invited to use open data sets from the City of Toronto to create new social and economic opportunities. The winner was a team of entrepreneurs that created Toronto Votes – a smart phone application that can be used to encourage young voters to learn about and participate in elections.

IPAC RESEARCH - CANADIAN ROUNDTABLES ON OPEN GOVERNMENT

In the fall of 2010 and spring of 2011, the Institute of Public Administration of Canada explored what is required in the making of a business case for the adoption of Open Government approaches across the country. The approach involved a series of roundtables conducted across Canada with those involved in the public sector. The roundtables involved people on the leading edge of the public sector use of new technologies in Alberta (Edmonton), British Columbia (Victoria), and Ontario (Toronto, Kingston, and Ottawa). Participants represented federal, provincial and municipal public services and academia. Through this research we discovered an increasing pressure for the adoption of Open Government across Canada and the identification of a myriad of barriers that are making the implementation of such approaches challenging.

Drivers of Change

Several strong forces seem to compel not just the use of new technologies, but a more pervasive re-conceptualization of how the public sector delivers public services and how it organizes itself. These forces include: top management opinions, increasingly complex problems, the speed of change, fiscal restraint and productivity, our comparative standing, demographic change, rising expectations, the desire for increased democratic input, the brain drain and organizational design. The drivers of change toward more open government include:

- i) **Top management support:** Some key leaders are on board and are paving the way for their organizations to transform themselves. Successful use of new technology typically starts with an ad-hoc, off the-corner of the desk approach. It gains steam. The person at the top comes on board with a formal statement of support, and shows some concrete behaviour. The employees trust their leader, and more of them start to engage in more open government. The culture and the business processes are transformed. Several “champions” or lead users emerge. And it becomes normal behaviour.
- ii) **Complexity:** Governments increasingly face difficult problems that require multiple departments, orders of government, and even the private sector to resolve. The collaboration and networking needed cannot be done in silos. For example, The North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) military forces have managed to share joint command and build interoperability into their systems. The public sector is similarly being pushed to use new technology tools to facilitate the interoperability needed to confront complex social problems.
- iii) **The speed of change:** Lewis Carroll perhaps best illustrated this notion in a passage from *Through the Looking Glass* where Alice had been running hard but making no progress. “Well, in our country,” said Alice, still puffing a little, “you’d generally get to somewhere else if you ran very fast for a long time, as we’ve been doing.” “A slow sort of country,” replied the Red Queen. “Now here, you see, it takes all the running you can do to keep in the same place. If you want to get somewhere else you must run at least twice as fast as that.” (Carroll, 1871, p. 21)
- iv) **Fiscal restraint:** For nearly two decades governments have struggled to reduce debt. The public sector must become more productive in order to deliver more service for less cost per unit of service delivered.

We have seen the cost of big screen televisions drop by half in the past decade while quality has increased. Has the cost of performing surgery dropped? Does it take half the resources to get a person back into the employment cycle after job loss? Have we reduced the cost of developing policy?

- v) **Comparative standing – falling behind:** A decade ago Canada's Public Service was recognized internationally as a leader on the digital front with its government on-line initiative but it is now falling behind in the use of new technologies and adopting whole-of-government approaches to its work.
- vi) **Demographics:** The recent hiring cycle has been the biggest in 35 years. While attention is paid to the aging baby boomers and the impacts of their retirements on loss of knowledge in the workforce and increased burden on health care, no one seems to be talking about the other end of the teeter-totter. The Next Generation (NetGen), the children of the boomers, is an even larger cohort than the boomers were. They are as different from the boomers as the boomers were from their parents. In the 1970s there was a massive influx of young professionals into the public service, the first university-educated cohort. They were eager to take over from the stultifying mass of 50 and 60 year olds in power, and did so. Many were directors in their early 30s, whereas it is now early to mid-40s that public servants achieve that rank. We have forgotten how we managed (or mismanaged that tsunami. And before them, the last big change was post-Second World War when from 1946-47 tens of thousands of returning veterans joined the public service and transformed it and its role in society. The boomers sought a new leadership model and put it in place once they were in management. The NetGen wants no less.
- vii) **Heightened expectations:** Citizens expect more from governments, especially around timeliness of response, accountability and openness of data.
- viii) **Increased democratic input:** Decreased turnout at voting time is seen by some as an indication that people are not interested in the democratic system. Not at all, our sessions suggested. It may be they are not interested in voting every five (or two) years, that they are disillusioned with the current process. Many people want to be involved, but when they choose and on the issues they choose. They want more than to elect a party who will not follow through on their commitments. In fact, they want more say.

- ix) **The brain drain:** Boomers are retiring. How do we retain their knowledge? How do we retain the next generation?

- x) **Communications designed for collaboration and fluidity:** Government is siloed in organizations designed very well to function to meet twentieth century needs. New technologies are designed for collaboration and fluidity, and put pressure on organizations to adapt to that style.

Managing the Barriers

IPAC's research has discovered that the most significant impediment to Open Government approaches is the "clay layer" in management and the hierarchical public service culture. Many pockets within government have not adapted to the promise of new technology to liberate information, foster collaboration and openness and promote organizational change. The impediments caused by privacy, security, information management and official language policies and legislative frameworks are minor, and are accepted by most public servants as appropriate. (Fyfe and Crookall, 2011)

The adoption of new technologies and Open Government demand a new paradigm regarding the ownership, use and management of information and data. The challenges of privacy and official languages can be managed within that new paradigm. The problems linked to information management, privacy and security are simply new manifestations of old phenomena; there have always been risks of improper disclosure and misuse of government information.

The public sector needs organizational change, developing a culture of trust and openness that will allow public servants to take advantage of the benefits that new technologies offer. Public sector employees fall into three camps on the Open Government concept and represent all age groups: there are the advocates, who love new technologies for the experience and opportunity they offer; the collaborators, who see the tools as helping them do their jobs better; and the resisters, who are concerned about the risks associated with opening up access to government.

There is a dearth of analytic support, cost/benefit analysis, or measures of success regarding the implementation and use of new technologies in government (though it is important to note that several governments have advanced on these fronts). Governments must show leadership in the development of adaptable and responsive guidelines regarding the use of new technologies by public servants. There is a strong appetite for a community of practice to discuss common issues and to develop shared solutions to meet the opportunities that these approaches are offering governments within the limits required of public sector organizations.

Risk Management: Open Government approaches offer much promise to help achieve the objectives of improved service, increased trust in government, and improved productivity through better collaboration and communication. Privacy is not a true impediment. The provincial and federal Privacy Commissioners have “endorsed the concept of open government with due regard for confidentiality and the protection of personal information.” (Fyfe and Crookall 2011, p.9)

Yet there are risks and impediments. The concerns/costs/risks are:

- **The fast pace of change.** “Sometimes we move too fast – and after listening to recent concerns (from Privacy Commissioners) we’re responding. We’ve made a bunch of mistakes,” Mark Zuckerberg, Facebook’s CEO admitted in May 2010 (Forbes, 2011). It’s easier for the private sector to recover from mistakes than it is for the public sector, which therefore tries to make fewer of them. One can adopt a new technology tool that is soon surpassed by another, or adopt a tool before it is fully de-bugged.
- **The political risk.** Open Government can become a target of concerted protests. Information embarrassing to the governing political party or the organization comes to light more readily.
- **The public sector faces far more public scrutiny than private sector businesses or NGOs.** In addition to citizens concerned about service, the political opposition may try to score points by attributing public service shortcomings to the party in power.
- **Politicians and senior bureaucrats may well be concerned that this will displace their information systems, believing that information is power.** Old regimes do not like to give up – as we have seen in Libya and Syria.

Maintaining Non-partisanship: A professional, non-partisan public service has been a hallmark in Canada for over a century. Maria Barrados, President of the Public Service Commission of Canada, argues that the concept must be constantly reinforced and recently warned that ministerial staff needs to know “the rules of the road” and not post partisan political comments on public websites. She noted that public servants, who will operate in a more open government environment, also need to be cautious. For example, one Privy Council Office employee had posted a picture on his Facebook page of a political leader he admired. It circulated among friends and then fellow employees; he was called to task for it by his manager. “Many of our young people are so comfortable with social networking that they don’t realize and are not sensitive to how something in private is okay but in public is not. It worries me in terms of maintaining that very non-partisan public service.”

Write a Policy: Most jurisdictions now have policies that accompany their introduction of Open Government including the use of new technologies. The City of Toronto's is representative. Their policy on new technologies reads, in part: "Social media is an important channel for outreach, communications, and consultations with the public; for recruitment of employees, volunteers and public appointees; for research and social marketing; and to facilitate public discourse. It provides opportunities to build and maintain public trust, transparency, and accountability in government. Social Media is also a powerful platform for internally-focused communication and collaboration. The City supports the responsible use of social media...Employees must obtain approval to use social media for City business, ... a business case form must be completed...because records on external platforms are not within the control of the City, business transactions on these platforms must be avoided...keep work and personal uses separate...be transparent, accountable, clear, purposeful, respectful and seek to collaborate and engage" (City of Toronto, 2010).

Determine Objectives: Managers should ask themselves: "What are your objectives?" It is the business objectives, the organizational mission, which should drive Open Government, rather than searching for ways to use new tools. Doing it just to be cool does not work.

Obtain a strong mandate: In organizations where Open Government is thriving, leaders have been clear in their support. Support for the process, but also support to back up staff if problems arise – provided staff is mission-focused and following the guidelines.

It's not Information Technology (I.T): Many are leery of using new technologies and embracing Open Government because of its association with I.T. Approximately 60% of public sector I.T projects are over budget, late in delivery, and/or don't perform up to expectations (CUEC, 2011). That's a high risk of failure. But Open Government is not all about I.T, it's about communication, engagement and transparency. Many applications can be set up quickly and at low cost. One ADM we visited set up a Yammer Network for internal consultation during a ten minute visit by her techie, at no cost. Edmonton had a contest for the private sector to develop useful applications based on open data the city posted. The winner was a mobile app that tells when the next bus is actually arriving (as opposed to when it's scheduled – an important difference in minus 40C weather). Several cities have followed suit – typical return for \$50,000 in prize money is over \$2 Million worth of apps.

Build guidelines: A written strategy should be in place offering guidelines for those adopting Open Government. Key steps include tie-in to the corporate objectives, analysis of privacy and security impacts, making data and information accessible and readable and outlining the costs, benefits, and how they will be measured.

Moderate Sites: There were some amusing and some embarrassing incidents on live television before they put in the seven second delay and “bleeped out” inappropriate language. Similarly, some moderation (as distinct from censoring) of public participation sites is needed. Use of a moderated site is essential to respect privacy regulations and maintain respectful discourse. One municipality found this could be done in 30 minutes a day; it did not require constant vigilance and immediate posting. Post the “rules of engagement” on the site, and be clear about privacy and access to information.

Educate staff and users: The guidelines begin the process. The amount of education (and hand-holding) varies.

Evaluation and Metrics: Again, the message from the research was clear: tie measurement to achieving organizational goals rather than the use of the technologies themselves. It is better to know that employee morale is up 5% than to know the deputy head has 657 Twitter followers. Better to know that citizen satisfaction is up rather than the number of entries on a blog. Build a logic model using the business case, outline the causal relationships and determine what you want to have an impact on, how much, and then measure to see if you succeed.

GOING GLOBAL: IPAC’S PUBLIC SERVICE WITHOUT BORDERS

In keeping with the overall objectives of Open Government, IPAC has taken bold steps to advance a new age of collaboration among public servants and with our partners. Both governments and employees alike have been demanding an open yet secure way of conversing on common interests. Whether it be internal or external to government, new technology affords a new horizon of possibilities to share and network. This is also the way people are communicating in their regular lives. Public Service without Borders (PSWB) is a secure social media tool that enables individuals in public sector management and administration around the world to network, share documents, and engage with peers. PSWB was developed in 2011 through a partnership with the Institute of Public Administration of Canada and the Open Text Corporation as part of their dedication to fostering a strong global government capacity.

Originally designed to support the last two G-20 Summits, this platform provides a secure, mobile device accessible (regardless of mobile device) environment where the users own the data and the intellectual property. From a programmatic perspective, PSWB allows public sector workers to connect willingly to one another and share policies, discuss and share program successes and shortcomings, and make new and valuable contacts. Ultimately this could be a very useful tool with respect to gaining greater public sector efficiencies. PSWB will create links between knowledgeable individuals, as much as between institutions and jurisdictions in an objective and non-partisan environment.

Beyond PSWB, the myth that broad social media access and government do not mesh no longer exists; governments could deploy this type of technology to provide improved service delivery to its citizens, creating a community using social media to help answer questions, drastically reducing the organization's support requirements while dramatically increasing service to citizens.

CONCLUSION

What is the business case for Open Government? The research conducted by the Institute of Public Administration of Canada made it clear that Open Government can be a tool that can simultaneously contribute to better mission achievement and facilitate a more effective management style. In a new era of change, Open Government provides enhanced transparency and accountability to citizens and brings the public closer to the decision making processes of government. Furthermore, opening access to government information data can help to spur economic and social opportunities that government alone could probably not achieve. New technologies can be effectively used without interfering with privacy regulations. They can have a measurable impact on cost reduction and increased productivity as well as staff and citizen satisfaction.

The research noted that it is important to be clear that Open Government is an approach that results in improved communications, transparency and accountability. While it relies on technology, it is not Information Technology in the traditional sense; it does not require massive financial investments and long lead times to be successful.

The general public and citizens at large want to be more involved with government activities, want to be closer to the services they need or at least, want to be more informed about the work of their government. They are looking for easy access to the information that they need and the private sector is well positioned to take government data and turn it into both economic and social opportunities (at a lower cost than if government had tried it alone).

Leaders are already emerging within the public sector of Canada. The Government of Canada has adopted and embraced an action plan to entrench Open Government across all of its departments. The Province of British Columbia has boldly embraced Open Government by establishing a broad framework to recognize the use and support of new technologies throughout its activities and has extended that reach to enable those outside of Government to directly engage as well. IPAC is also doing its part by working with others to create Public Service without Borders – a secure on-line environment where those from the public sector can share ideas and experiences. These and others steps will ensure that social media plays an

important role in transforming the public sector to better respond to the needs of its constituencies.

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**THE ROLE OF INFORMATION AND
COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY IN
IMPROVING THE EVALUATION
OF PERFORMANCE IN THE PUBLIC
SERVICE IN AFRICA**

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Cameroun*



ABSTRACT

This paper investigates the role Information and Communication Technology (ICT) can play in the public service in Africa.

As a result of practical experiments, this contribution reveals the necessary elements for designing performance evaluation systems, and the relevance of performance evaluation vis-à-vis the quality of data collected.

The paper also scrutinizes the challenge of performance evaluation, including the transformation of discrete data into insights, after their extraction from heteroclite systems originating from a disparate set of stakeholders. For illustration purposes, the role of information and communication technology in the management of customs transit is explicated in a context where multiple stakeholders are facing non-harmonized legislation, with different perspectives and proprietary non-integrated systems. The need for transparency and efficient computer systems is demonstrated, as well as how existing systems can be integrated. Furthermore, the challenges and barriers impeding the development of IT-based performance systems in Africa are explained.

Key Words: Information and Communication Technology, Performance Evaluation, Indicator, Performance Measurement, Data and Customs Transit.

INTRODUCTION

Information and communication technology (ICT) can play an important role in the public service in Africa, precisely in collecting, gathering, processing, and generating information for performance evaluation.

The relevance of performance evaluation is highly dependent on the quality of data collected and the way they are shared among government agencies, where the silo culture prevails, besides the lack of collaboration and inclusiveness.

The challenge of performance evaluation subsumes the transformation of discrete data into insights, after their extraction from heteroclite systems originating from a disparate set of stakeholders. Therefore, robust support from the central government is required throughout all phases of the implementation of the system in order to abate resistance to change and eliminate conflicts of interest as observed in numerous public sector projects (Simon 2011).

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Public administration consists of governments, agencies and other entities that deliver public programs or services. Public service delivery may occur directly through the core government and its agencies or indirectly via public enterprises (Holzer and Schwester 2011). Therefore, programs and services delivered by the government are theoretically reflective of the national vision, strategy and objectives.

For instance, the United Nations and member governments are committed to eradicate global poverty by 2015 through the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The first MDG is to “*Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger...*” It is broken into three targets, first of which “*...to halve ... the proportion of people whose income is less than \$1 a day*” (UN 2000). The attainment of this MDG presupposes some quantitative factors, knowledge related to national census such as population estimates, growth rate, and income distribution.

However, as demonstrated (Devarajan 2011), national statistics are not reliable in many African countries. Consequently, assessing any progress is challenging due to discrepancies between baseline values and subsequent outcomes and impacts. This difficulty is furthermore worsened by the lack of alignment of MDGs with country-specific strategies. Singularly, poor coordination at the national level will hinder any public program because the MDGs often implicate a variety of public agencies and institutions.

Indeed, while many countries have tailored the MDGs to national conditions, priorities and resource constraints, many others have not; leading to perverse generalizations about “winners and losers” (UN 2003, p.1). Missing and poorly reported data were found to severely handicap the ability to assess the progress of individual countries in achieving the MDGs (Devarajan 2013).

Program evaluation is distinct from program assessment, which may be designed to examine country or sector context in order to inform project design. Evaluation is the systematic collection and analysis of information about the characteristics and outcomes of programs and projects as a basis for judgments, in order to improve effectiveness, and/or inform decisions about current and future programming.

Performance management “provides the basis for self-development but importantly, it is also about ensuring that the support and guidance people need to develop and improve is readily available” (Armstrong 2011, p. 619). In Buchner (2007), three approaches are described as theories underpinning performance management, namely the goal, the control and the social cognitive. With goal theory, goals are connected to performance outcomes in order to let people focus on priorities and stimulate their effort. In control theory, feedback shapes behavior and forces people to appreciate the discrepancy between their actions and the expectations. Social cognitive theory is based on self-efficacy, since what people believe impacts on their performance.

Performance management can generally be viewed as the systematic process by which an organization uses performance measures in decision-making to achieve its goals and missions. It relies on indicators collected throughout the process to detect anomalies and reveal the potential dysfunctions. As such, the quality of information (or data) collected, its frequency and timeliness are critical for program monitoring.

ICT can obviously be used to streamline the organization’s processes, automate data collection, and facilitate data analysis and data mining for insights; thus reducing the delay for corrective action. Organizations rely more and more on information technology (IT) to achieve their goals (Reddick 2011). A certain category of organizations (as advocated by technological determinism theorists) will systematically adopt a new technology when it appears (Volti 1992, p. 19). Another category of organizations (known as the reinforcement theory) will implement an IT solution if it supports the view of administrators (Sherrod 2011, p. 556). The last category of organizations (i.e. the sociotechnical theory) is made up of people in the social systems that use tools, techniques, and knowledge to shape the organizational change (Pasmore 1988, p. 160).

ICT is also “*the acquisition, analysis, manipulation, storage and distribution of information; and the design and provision of equipment and software for these purposes*” (de Watteville and Gilbert 2000). The term ICT results from the convergence of information technology (IT) and telecommunications. As such, it encompasses fields like computer science and engineering (computers, computation, communication, and information science), and electronics engineering (robotics and artificial intelligence).

POLITICAL INFLUENCE AND THE SELECTION OF INDICATORS - THE DILEMMA: WHAT SHOULD BE MEASURED?

Governments and legislatures may resort to performance evaluation in order to allocate budgets, create efficiencies and/or improve the delivery of public services.

Indicators are collected by the information management system, precisely the *technology*, the *people* and the *processes*. As such, the quality of measures is directly related to stakeholders’ involvement and engagement.

What is the desired outcome? Where are the leading indicators? Is it possible to collect information related to the said indicators? If not, what are the substitutes? All these questions and more are addressed when designing an IT-based performance model.

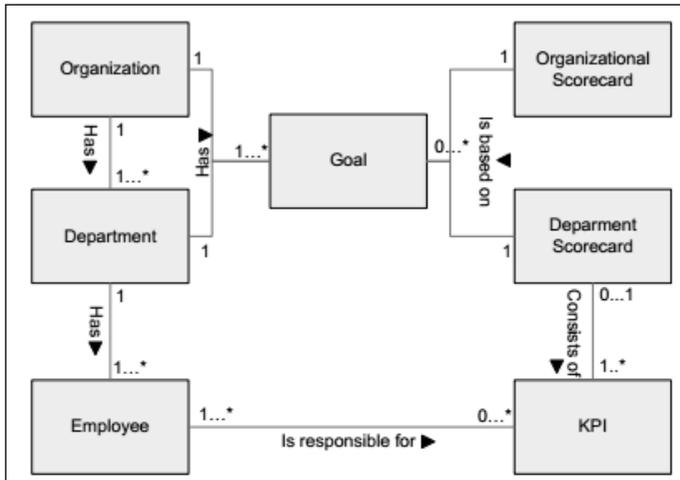
The task of setting performance indicators in the public sector is far from being a technical exercise. It should not be assigned to technical administrators solely, since performance indicators are dependent on the overall strategy, planning and political leadership.

In this regard, performance measurement systems should be seen as social and political institutional arrangements rather than rational systems. It should not be assumed that the goal of a government is to deliver services at the lowest cost through efficient means, especially when the accountability level is low. Indeed, explicit goals spelled out by the government may not be reflective of implicit objectives of the political leadership. As a consequence, in such cases, an ICT-based performance model will have little support because the new system will uproot deviant behavior committed with the tacit assent of the management. Such limiting factors should be taken into consideration when designing a performance model. Overall, performance measures echo the agenda of the entity performing the assessment and as such, they are rarely neutral.

The process of designing performance measures and discussing the targets is as important as measuring actual results. This iterative process is vital to achieving an understanding of the cause-and-effect linkages with stakeholders as well as policies affecting them, and may lead to the review of the policies in force.

Figure 1. below, adapted by Haanappel et al (2011, page 54), describes an organization goal broken down into targets and assigned to departments and employees.

Figure 1: Metamodel



Source: Haanappel et al (2011)

To be effective, performance targets should be attributable in regard to accountability and timeliness for swift remediation. Indeed, what is the utility of highlighting an anomaly if no corrective action is taken promptly?

The Performance Management Cycle

The performance management cycle encompasses five reiterating steps: designing, establishing, developing, interpreting, and changing. The first step is meant to identify areas of performance, the desired results and the means of achieving them. The second allows the establishment of benchmarks for efficiency, effectiveness, economy, etc. The third step is intended to develop information systems in order to collect and generate appropriate data. The fourth is aiming at interpreting the results and identifying areas for improvement. The fifth step allows the making of appropriate changes, if needed, regarding management structure, targets or collection strategy. All these steps are reiterated until satisfaction is obtained.

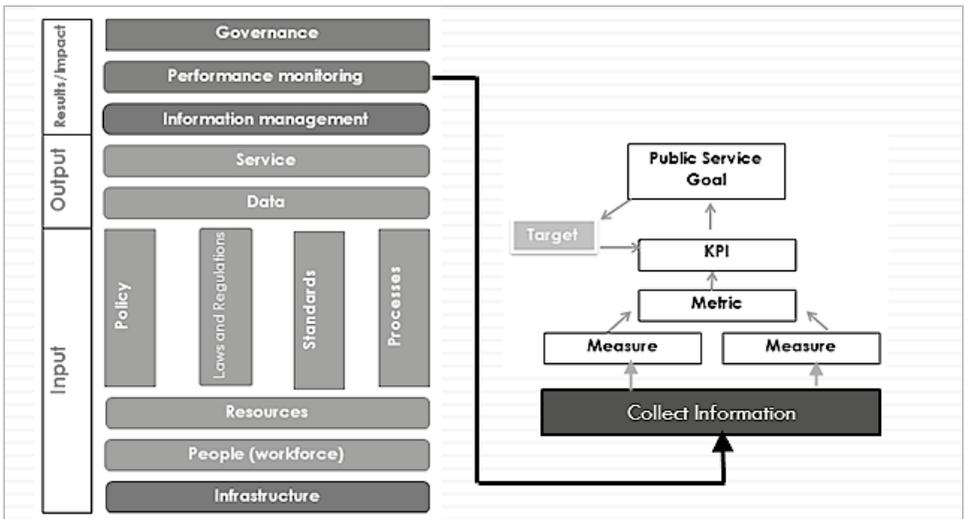
Information systems play an important role in government performance, not only as a critical step in the performance life cycle, but also because all other steps can benefit from the advancement of the technology, as described below.

THE ROLE OF ICT IN GOVERNMENT PERFORMANCE

As explicated in a recent publication (Deloitte 2009, p. 6), public sector performance can be viewed as the computation of policy objectives, program delivery and operating efficiency. Policy objectives refer to effective legislation and executive policies. Program delivery deals with meeting strategic goals and achieving citizens' satisfaction. Operating efficiency is about optimizing resource utilization (human resources, capital and financial assets etc.).

Using ICT for performance management requires adequate infrastructure along with a well-thought out information management strategy so as to foster information sharing and avoid useless duplications. In this regard, some indicators are often used to ascertain performance results. The architecture of an ICT-based performance management is illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: An Architecture of Performance Management using ICT.



Source: Author (2012)

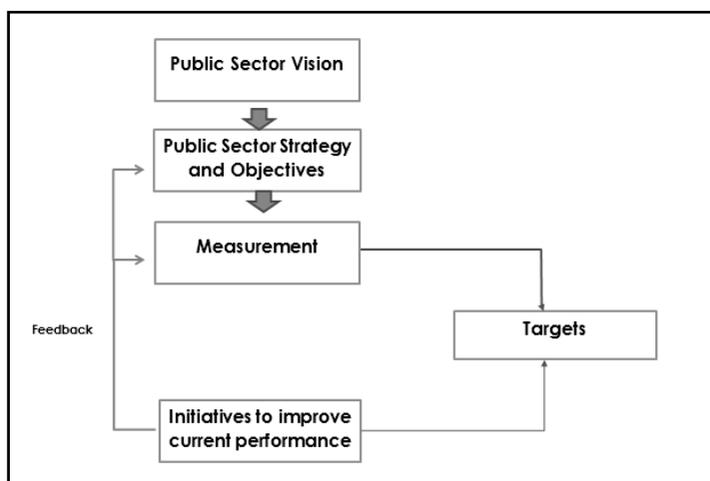
A public sector organization relies on infrastructure to deliver public services (i.e. service or data). The term « infrastructure » can refer here to schools, water treatment and distribution systems, IT billing systems, etc. The required service is delivered by people (workforce) together with resources vis-à-vis the policies, laws and regulations, standards and processes. Instances of laws and regulations may be water quality standards. In this regard, an information system properly designed will detect broken pipes or unexpected demographic expansion for better management of the citizen's needs.

Can you manage what you cannot measure?

When an indicator is sought, numerous issues must be addressed in ICT-based performance evaluation systems, including knowing what should be measured and how many metrics are necessary, as well as how often the measure should be taken. There are other important issues. For example, who is accountable for the metrics, how complex or normalized should be the metrics, what should be used as a benchmark and how to ensure the metrics reflect strategic drivers?

Providing that the necessary indicators are in place, the responsiveness of an ICT-based performance model depends on the efficiency of the feedback loop (See Figure 3.). Incidentally, speed and data quality are cardinal.

Figure 3: Feedback Loop



Source: Adapted from Deloitte (2009)

Moreover, given the heterogeneity of information systems, the interoperability challenge and semantic variations, other issues to address are related to knowing if data can be pulled easily from the system (i.e. accessibility), what barriers can be expected, how complete and accurate is the data, if there are significant gaps or any errors in the data.

On the importance of data quality

Poor and inaccurate information will always hamper the success of any computer system. Therefore, the issue of data quality is at the cornerstone of ICT-based performance evaluation systems. For example, data collected too late or over too extended a period of time might no longer be relevant. Similarly, data must

be interpretable (in the appropriate language and units) in order to be easily understood.

Data quality is a multi-dimensional measure of relevance, accuracy, completeness, timeliness, clearness and trustiness. Data must be applicable to the task at hand. It must be error-free, sufficient in breadth, depth and scope for its desired use. Moreover, data should be recorded as quickly as possible and be used within a reasonable time period. It must be clear, free of bias, and must come from a trusted source.

Poor data quality or management leads to instability of operations, ineffective analysis or inaccurate risk management and ineffectiveness of process.

Knowing Beats Guessing: Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) and how ICTs can help

Depending on how ICT systems are designed and developed, performance evaluation may not be reliable or achievable.

As Harris (2008, p. 1) once noted, ‘Knowing beats guessing’. Accordingly, ICT can be useful in measurements with explicit and measurable key performance indicators (KPIs) based on actions such as select, collect, store, analyze, present, interpret and apply. Table 1 recaps some actions and measurable KPIs, and describes the role that ICT may play in setting measurements.

Table 1: The Role of ICT in Setting Measurements.

Actions	Measurable KPIs	Role ICT may play
<i>Select</i>	Select what to measure	ICTs make use of artificial intelligence techniques to select what to measure
<i>Collect</i>	Gather data	ICTs can remove the constraints on the type, source and complexity of data (integration of various formats: voice, video, image, texts, SMS) and enable the computation of the process
<i>Store</i>	Manage Data	ICTs can enable a quick and easy retrieval of raw data
<i>Analyze</i>	Turn data into information	ICTs can use data mining or analytics to detect or prevent failures
<i>Present</i>	Present the results	ICTs can enable automatic reporting and dashboard editions for management monitoring
<i>Interpret</i>	Translate information into action	ICTs can enable real-time decision making by spotting leading or lagging indicators
<i>Apply</i>	Apply and take action	ICTs make use of artificial intelligence techniques to apply and take action

Source: Author (2012)

Indeed, performance evaluation requires transparency and needs to be tested. Generally, in order to facilitate performance evaluation, ICT systems capabilities should embed automation, digitalization and transparency (Djamen 2008), as illustrated in Table 2, Table 3 and Table 4 where governments' responsibilities are listed, with regard to performance drivers enumerated in (Deloitte 2009).

Table 2: An Example of ICT Approach vis-a-vis the Achievement of Policy Objectives

<i>Performance driver:</i> Achievement of Policy Objectives	What governments can do better using ICT	ICT Approach
Policy: Development and execution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Implement tracking system (Knowledge Management system) - Enhance information exchange to track execution 	Automation
Strategy Performance measurement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhance information systems data collection to provide useful metrics - Implement tools to provide timely information on performance 	Automation
Accountability Governance, budget and citizen management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Implement an integrated budget solution, and an automated system to monitor performance - Improve systems to capture customer/citizen data and feedback 	Automation Digitalization Transparency

Table 3: An Example of an ICT Approach vis-a-vis the Program Delivery

<i>Performance driver:</i> Program delivery	What governments can do better using ICT	ICT Approach
Efficiency Manage costs and optimize income (fees, taxes, etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Use analytics to forecast the demand - Improve program accounting systems 	Automation
Effectiveness Assess program impact and user satisfaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improve data collection practices - Redesign performance measurement tracking by leveraging IT - Create tools to support analysis and ease information access 	Automation Digitalization

Table 4: An Example of ICT Approach vis-a-vis the Achievement of Operating Efficiency

<i>Performance driver:</i> Operating efficiency	What governments can do better using ICT	ICT Approach
Financial management Improve financial management and reporting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Improve risk management tools - Improve the effectiveness of Budget reporting - Improve systems and process controls to ensure data integrity 	Automation
Human resources Improve strategy, recruit and manage talent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Provide technology to support the internal staff - Improve systems to capture the institutional knowledge, Use knowledge management systems - Increase automation of management reporting 	Automation
Technology Create and realize IT value	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Integrate systems - Integrate with e-government initiatives - Use analytic tools and systems to conduct analysis - Reduce manual duplication of data entry 	Automation Digitalization and Transparency

Source: Deloitte (2009)

AN ILLUSTRATION: THE ROLE OF ICT IN THE MANAGEMENT OF GOODS IN CUSTOMS TRANSIT

The Challenge

Customs transit facilitates and secures the movement of goods between two customs points, via another customs territory, or between two or more different customs territories. Goods in transit trigger the temporary suspension of duties, taxes and commercial policy measures that are applicable at import, thereby allowing the customs clearance formalities to be finalized at the exit point rather than the customs territory entry point.

The transit of goods is a sensitive matter, both for the transiting country and the destination country. Numerous documented activities show that unscrupulous operators may declare goods to be in transit and, when released from customs duties, dump the said goods in the national customs territory. The customs documentation is subsequently forged at the border so as to simulate an actual border crossing and trigger the release of the transit security bond. On the other hand, legitimate transit is hampered with high transportation costs resulting from bribes and delays. Moreover, security challenges derive from porous borders and money laundering activities related to uncontrolled exports/imports.

The Transit Nightmare: A Customs Manager's Perspective

The main public stakeholders in the transit process are customs services, law enforcement, health officers, trade officers and other public service departments' officers. Truck owners, importers, customs clearing agents and banks are private participants in the transit process. Long delays and high costs (Arvis, Raballand and Marteau 2010) observed in Central and East Africa communities are the result of non-performance; especially the delays at the departure site, unwarranted exits, cargo compliance (cf. Table 5, first column). The second column of the table shows useful information that an ICT system should generate in such a situation, including durations and potential risks. The third column of the table lists samples of performance assessment. ICT should then enable the mining of diverse sets of data.



Table 5: Performance Management of Goods in Customs Transit

Results of Non-Performance	What ICT System may Generate	Possible Performance Assessment
Delays at the departure site	Average duration of transit	How long it takes to cross national borders
Delays at the border	Traders/truckers at risk	Any bottlenecks-checkpoints
Unwarranted exits from prescribed routes	Timely information about corridors exits	Delays, accountabilities (Customs officers, Security personnel...)
Cargo compliance: journey duration, trip duration between checkpoints	Transit bond release delays	Any illicit transit (with regard to law and legislation in force)
	Type of goods susceptible to diversion	Risky behavior of clearing agent (fraudulent transactions, fictitious transit...)
	An accurate list of non-compliant traders	Authenticity of security bond

Source: Author (2012)

The Need for an Efficient ICT System

Since Cameroon’s independence in 1960, numerous performance contracts have been initiated at different government department levels, including the Department of Finance. One that is of interest for this paper is the model experimented with the Directorate General of Customs Administration (DGC) built on the IT modernization initiative with the introduction of ASYCUDA in 2007 (Cantens, Raballand and Bilangna 2010). ASYCUDA is a customs management system (CMS) developed by the United Nations Conference for Trade and Development (UNCTAD) to manage customs operations (mainly importation, exportation and transit). Some African countries use their IT-based proprietary systems for such operations; for instance Senegal’s GAINDE (Gestion Automatisée des INformations Douanières et des Echanges) and Kenya’s platform dubbed SIMBA. Many CMSs in place are not efficient enough to handle performance management assessment and Cameroon’s is no exception. Other alternatives are therefore sought to complement the main CMS.

In this regard, the DGC performance contracts, started in 2010 and aiming at gradually formalizing an agreement between customs managers and customs officers for a six-month period, set out in detail specific results for eight indicators that had to be met (Raballand and Rajaram 2013, p.12). Although the results seem to be encouraging with the increase in customs volumes and revenues, this model does not take full advantage of ICT, so as to maximize the potential benefits. For example, IT systems used for performance measurement and developed with free software (Cantens, Raballand and Bilangna 2010; p.71) are not directly linked to the main CMS. Moreover, transit operations are not targeted by the performance

contracts. Besides the performance contracts, the Department of Finance introduced the NEXUS project so as to counter customs fraud in transit operations.

The port of Douala (Cameroon) is the main entry point for Chad and the Central African Republic (CAR), two landlocked countries with high dependence on the transit state (Faye, McArthur, Sachs, and Snow, 2004). Consequently, goods to or from Chad and CAR will use a customs transit procedure in Douala.

In August 2009, an IT-based system, dubbed NEXUS GPS, was launched with the aim to secure all goods in transit between Cameroon and Chad/CAR. GPS stands for Global Positioning System, a space-based satellite navigation system (sustained by the US Government) that provides critical capabilities to military, civil and commercial users around the world. The GPS is freely accessible to anyone with a GPS receiver.

Due to design and development limitations, NEXUS GPS failed to combat customs fraud. In particular, the ICT system did not accept data from the main CMS (ASYCUDA), nor did it allow stakeholders operations (including customs officers). The inefficiency of the system, with duplicate operations and overloaded data (i.e. non-mastering of data volumetry), could not permit the completion of an ICT-based performance evaluation. As shown in Table 6 below, various IT systems have been designed and developed in some African countries in order to strengthen the main CMS, however with similar limitations as NEXUS GPS, chief among them being their inability to interface with the main CMS.

Table 6: Some IT Systems for Customs Services and their Limitations

Country	Main CMS	IT system to support transit operations (Year)	Reason of failures
Benin	ASYCUDA++	BC platform (2011)	No interface with the main CMS No interface with the geolocation platform Stakeholders' interface non-inclusive
Cameroon	ASYCUDA++	Nexus GPS (2009)	No interface with the main CMS No interface with the geolocation platform Stakeholders' interface non-inclusive
Ethiopia	ASYCUDA++	CTMS (2013)	No interface with the main CMS Stakeholders' interface non-inclusive
Ghana	GCMS	CTMS (2010)	No interface with the main CMS Stakeholders' interface non-inclusive
Kenya	SIMBA	CTMS (2010)	No interface with the main CMS Stakeholders' interface non-inclusive
Senegal	GAINDE	Cotrack (2009)	No interface with the main CMS Stakeholders' interface non-inclusive
Uganda	ASYCUDA World	B Smart (2013)	Stakeholders' interface non-inclusive

Source: Adapted Orionis (2013)

The need for Transparency

If a given IT system fails to interface with existing systems (and particularly with the main IT system), or if the needs of all participants are not taken into account, then a poor performance evaluation may be brought about.

Following the failure of NEXUS GPS system and in order to improve the tracking of goods in transit by the means of GPS, the Department of Finance decided to implement another system aiming at interfacing the main CMS (ASYCUDA) with a geolocation platform via an automatic integration of customs data (manifests, declarations and transit vouchers), so as to avoid duplication, errors and omissions. Therefore, a new system, NEXUS-Plus, was introduced in 2010 to replace NEXUS GPS.

NEXUS-Plus provided a comprehensive coverage of the journey, since all goods identified as being in transit were henceforth entrusted to the new IT-based system. The geolocation platform (a separate IT system) was collecting GPS information related to the tracking of cargo carriers in predefined corridors. The automation of the interface of NEXUS-Plus with the geolocation system enabled users (i.e. the appropriate stakeholders) to assess in real time the exact position of a cargo. Other benefits of the new design and development included the automatic generation of various reports of data reconciliation from different platforms, the issuance of alerts in case of incident (e.g. corridor exit, extended stops etc.), and transparency in the management of beacons, resources and expenses.

There are a number of participants, a term which subsumes customs officers (in departing sites, transiting corridors, bordering and destination countries), customs clearing agents, trade operators/importers, truck owners, drivers and financial institutions. Other public departments and agencies involved in the process include law enforcement, trade and health officers to name a few.

System integration as a requisite for delivering the value for performance evaluation

The monitoring of transiting goods is the essence of electronic cargo tracking systems (ECTS). Therefore, the association of the location information with cargo details is imperative. Tracking goods in transit demands a seamless combination of the geolocation platform and the customs management system. Through auto-id, sensors, remotes, and wireless devices, the cargo may produce data and trigger events. From the simple ping of the current status up to the detection of physical movement, temperature changes, the geo-positional tracking, the reads of chemical trace and more, the cargoes are becoming sources of information.

Indeed, the customs transit information can be generated by multiple stakeholders, including the port authority, the customs administration, the freight forwarder, the clearing agent, financial institutions and the satellite; by means of manifests, the bill of lading, the cargo list, satellite signals, bonds and securities. The type of information generated is diverse and involves machine data (satellite), images and video, Short Message Service (SMS), emails, real-time sensor feeds (geo-tagging), text files among others.

Towards a Successful Integration

Customs administrations are responsible for releasing merchandize in transit at the entry point, as well as monitoring its journey and controlling cross-border movements. As a result, the related IT system incorporates pertinent information gathered from geolocation and customs management platforms. Such a system is useful to all stakeholders as they can perform their transit operations, especially customs officers along the corridors (i.e. entry points, checkpoints, exit points) and freight forwarders.

The ECTS processes the information in real-time from the realms of customs administration (where the transit process is accepted solely by customs officers before the shipment can actually move), and geolocation tracking platforms. It enables a real-time identification and tracking of authorized goods as they traverse their transit designated routes through a continuous monitoring until they reach their exit point or the inland destination station. Key benefits of such a seamless integration, in well-designed IT systems, are presented in Table 7 on below.

Table 7: Potential Benefits of IT Systems Integration for Customs Transit Operations.

ECTSs' BENEFITS
Data consistency
Data deluge management: filtering the “noise” out to access relevant intervention
Data accessibility to users across skill levels
Ad-hoc analytics facilitation
Contextual analytics aids
Identification of business trends proactively through useful analysis functions including bubble up exceptions
Determination of KPIs to compare actual performance against determined targets
Fraud and error prevention: preventing incidents of control weaknesses, loss, financial crime, fraud , malpractice
Demonstrating the commercial value and capital optimization of risk management process
Maintaining a connection to data and analysis with offline capabilities

Source: Adapted from Orionis (2013)

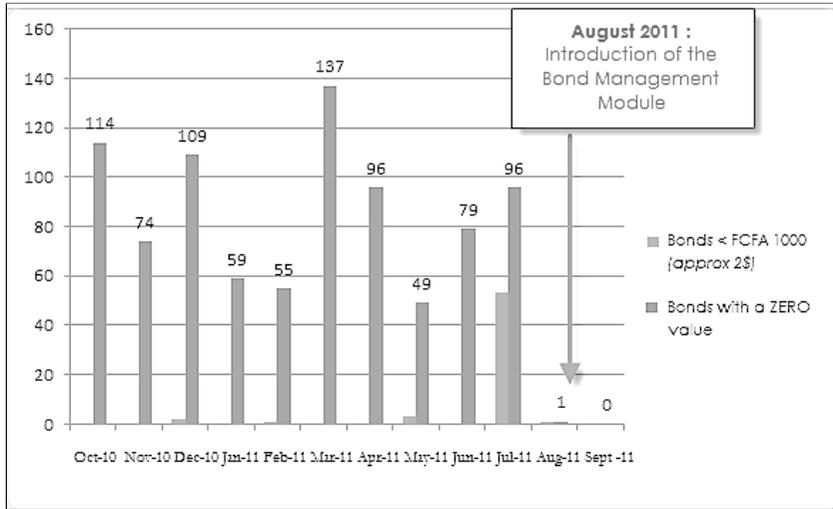
ECTSs rely on machine to machine communications (Boswarthick, Elloumi and Hersent 2012). Their foundation is rooted in the fusion of telecommunications, information and computerization technologies. In ECTSs, beacons send alerts at a specified frequency (e.g. every 15s) indicating their current position. Any truck attempt to deflect from the assigned corridor triggers an alarm sent via SMS or emails to the customs officer in charge of the area.

Due to the sheer amount of information, the human interaction at a certain stage is suboptimal. Data generated by the system presents new opportunities to take fast or smart actions by using real-time signals that produce real-time alerts and real-time responses from real-time organizations. A well-designed IT system will predispose the customs administration and other stakeholders towards actions, thus moving their intervention from reactive to proactive. In this regard, authorized stakeholders have a means to know in real time the whereabouts of the cargo. For example, the IT system can track their operations in the system to ascertain whether the cargo position is checked or not, etc. Therefore, by the time alarms are forwarded, the customs officer may probably be interacting with the system so as to monitor an illicit transit in a dedicated area. Indeed, multiple ICT tools are necessary for performance evaluation.

Knowing the content of the cargo is important. Once the cargo is sealed at the departure site, its content is monitored by authorized stakeholders (customs officers, customs clearing agents, police, health department, etc.) without the need to open the container. During the cargo journey, specific alerts are always checked so as to avoid a potential violation of the container. This is the case for an extended stop that always triggers an alarm destined to corresponding customs agents in the designated routes or at some checkpoints.

The performance of customs officers along the corridors can therefore be measured by their timely reactions upon the appearance of a signal. Also, the number of cargoes in transit without a bond security is a valuable indicator for performance evaluation. For instance, before the appearance of bond security controls in the IT system in August 2011, cargoes in transit without bonds security were a common occurrence, with an average of 86 such cargoes per month, a sign of suspicious activities (see Figure 4).

Figure 4: Performance Evaluation by Security Bonds Management



Source: NEXUS-Plus (2011)

ANALYZING THE OUTCOMES OF AN IT-BASED PERFORMANCE EVALUATION MODEL

By fostering collaboration between stakeholders such as customs administration, customs clearing agents, financial institutions and freight forwarders, the IT system was able to capture valuable information from disparate sources.

The analysis of structured and unstructured data using IT tools led to impressive discoveries, including the recognition of trends and patterns, the detection of policy breaches, the prevention and the detection of incidents. Examples of patterns include the identification of goods susceptible to diversion, or the location of frequent corridor exits. The policy breaches discovered by the IT system comprise undue security freezes and missing bonds.

It is worth noting that the reduction of losses from fraud was possible thanks to the timely reaction of customs officers following the warnings generated by the system (corridor exits, prolonged parking, lost signal, etc.). The IT system consequently impacted the responsiveness of the customs administration and the improvement of the quality of service with transit times reduced to 4 days from 90 days.

The implementation of an appropriate IT system that manages goods in transit will definitely secure and facilitate transit operations and consequently increase customs administration revenues both in transiting and destination countries.

Key performance indicators in so doing are listed in the table below, along with pertinent information to consider.

Table 8: Key Performance Indicators for an Electronic Cargo Tracking System

Key Performance Indicators	Pertinent Information
Alerts without freight	Total alerts, number of alerts without cargo
Arrivals stats	Border office, arrival determined by the satellite, arrival entered by the customs agent in the system
Average travel time	Itinerary, number of journeys, legal travel time, maximum travel time, minimum travel time
Checkpoint passage deadline	List of journeys launched, list of journey seen at checkpoint (within statutory time limit, and out limit), list of journeys that have not crossed the checkpoint (more than a certain period of time)
Checkpoints passage stats	Arrival time, departure time, average duration at checkpoint
Freight without alerts	Itinerary, number of journeys
GOs stats	Departure station, itinerary, frequency (day, week, month, quarter, semester, year), total freight loaded, GO determined by the satellite, GO entered by the agent in the system
Incident management	User, delay in treatment (days, hours...)
Incidents stats	Frequency, departure station, itinerary, customs clearing agent, type of incident and number of incidents
Incomplete journeys	Itinerary, total number of journeys
Number of completed journeys	Departure station, exit point, customs clearing agent, list of journeys launched, list of journeys arrived, list of journeys completed in due time, list of journeys completed out of time, list of pending journeys, list of journeys not completed after the time limit, list of void journeys
Security bonds stats	Station, number of journeys completed, minimum and average duration of discharge
Travel by customs clearing agents	Number of departure by station, ratio
Travel by destination	Departure station, issuing office, border office, number of travels and ratio by source (satellite, CMS, ECTS)
Travel incidents	Itinerary, number of journeys, number of incidents, journey with incidents, journey without incidents
Treated incidents	Incidents, corridor areas, type of incident, number of incidents, number of incidents treated, ratio

Source: Nexus-Plus (adapted) (2011)

CONCLUSION

The challenges and barriers impeding the design, development and maintenance of IT-based performance evaluation systems, should not be underestimated. The hurdles may vary depending on country specifics. However, the main hurdle observable in many African countries is related to the lack of understanding of governance matters, alongside poor cross government coordination. Many initiatives and competencies are still unexploited or are even combated, leading to the proliferation of poor models of performance management evaluation. Consequently, many public service institutions are not efficient.

Another observable hurdle is the poor state of data management infrastructure, aggravated by the resistance to accountability and the lack of transparency. Many IT systems destined to render public service are similar to black boxes whose content is only known by their developers, unreachable to certain key stakeholders. As a result, not only is it impossible to establish public service statistics with questionable data from unknown sources, but also the poor performance of public servants is rampant.

Some hurdles worth noting include the political cycle, no clear vision, staff skills, the inability to measure the outcome, and the lack of incentives (no burning platform). At the same time, the critical success factors encompass the top management commitment and support, the awareness and understanding, the right metrics, the organizational alignment, and the continuous process.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The public service performance is highly dependent on the actual execution of the tasks assigned to public servants. The technology trend shows that people are most effective in their business when they make use of appropriate ICT systems (designed, developed or acquired) in order to fulfill their missions. In fact, nowadays a variety of public administration management rules are encoded in ICT systems.

ICT systems would be even more useful for performance evaluation in the public service if they were able to incorporate performance-related constraints directly into their functionalities, so as to bring about, without additional efforts, useful information on the performance of stakeholders involved. Some specifications of the design and development of NEXUS-Plus presented above show that the realization of such functionalities in ICT systems is possible in the public services in Africa.

Thus, encoding the management rules into the machine (computer) at the same time as performance-related constraints, will enable, inter alia, organizations to know and assess the outbreak or execution of any given procedure, and also to be attentive to all subsequent related tasks in due time, with relevant actions (to encourage) and failures (to blame). The performance-related constraints are indicators, criteria and other explicit concepts developed throughout this paper, involving automation, transparency, digitization, data quality, accessibility and interoperability. By so doing, ICT systems will significantly improve the performance evaluation in the public service and therefore, play an important role towards the establishment of smart governance in Africa.

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**IMPORTANCE DE L'OUTIL « JOBS
DESCRIPTION » DANS L'IDENTIFICATION
DU NIVEAU DE PERFORMANCE DU
PERSONNEL DANS UN SERVICE PUBLIC**

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RÉSUMÉ

La littérature consultée nous apprend que la détérioration de la qualité du service public en Afrique a pour causes principales: le laxisme, l'incompétence, l'effectif pléthorique, la corruption, l'absence d'anticipation, etc. Pour mieux les appréhender, l'on a souvent recours aux outils d'analyses tels que: les audits, le monitoring et l'évaluation des ressources humaines et des services aux fins d'y apporter des solutions telles que les réformes institutionnelle, organisationnelle, sociale et structurelle. Les coûts d'utilisation de ces outils, souvent jugés très onéreux, découragent la plupart de ces administrations qui veulent s'en servir. C'est le cas de la Société immobilière du Cameroun (SIC) qui fait l'objet de la présente étude.

En effet, face à la méconnaissance des compétences professionnelles des cadres et aux difficultés technico-financières observés au sein de cette structure, nous avons utilisé, pour l'évaluation de son personnel, l'outil bien connu "le Job description" généralement plus adapté au processus de recrutement du personnel. Notre approche méthodologique qui peut être jugée empirique, s'est basée sur une enquête sur un échantillon de personnel à divers niveaux de responsabilités. Il est en quelque sorte revenu au personnel de s'auto évaluer. A l'analyse, nous sommes parvenus à la conclusion selon laquelle les difficultés rencontrées par le personnel à traduire ses missions en activités et tâches simples et cohérentes, constituent pour lui un handicap certain. D'où la cause profonde de la mauvaise qualité des services rendus.

Dans ce contexte, l'outil job description d'utilisation très facile, s'est avéré être un dispositif idoine pour collecter en un temps assez réduit d'importants renseignements sur le personnel et la structure.

Cet outil a donné beaucoup à la société, parce qu'il a tracé d'importantes pistes de réforme.

Comment avons-nous procédé? Quelles sont les limites de cette méthode? C'est bien l'intérêt du présent exposé.

Mots clés: Evaluation, Job Description, Compétence, Performance, Qualité de service.

INTRODUCTION

Le nombre d'Entreprises du secteur parapublic dans la plupart des pays africains ne cesse de croître d'année en année; paradoxalement et simultanément, on note en leur sein une baisse sensible de leurs performances.

La raison souvent évoquée face à ce phénomène est l'avènement de la crise économique des années 70 et 80 consécutive à la chute des cours des matières premières.

Dans la perspective de mieux comprendre ce phénomène, d'importantes réflexions, menées par des Institutions Internationales ou des Etats dans certaines Administrations Publiques et Parapubliques en Afrique, ont permis d'identifier les malaises réels qui constitueraient les principales causes de cette récession économique; à savoir:

- Les effectifs pléthoriques pléthoriques (banque mondial, op, cit. 1984, p.63) et insuffisamment qualifiés dans la plupart de cas;
- Le processus de recrutement aléatoire qui, selon Odette Ramsingh (2010), peut entraîner inéluctablement de mauvaises performances et par ricochet une offre de service peu satisfaisante;
- Des objectifs mal définis et des priorités mal maîtrisées selon CAUSE G (1988);
- Le développement de la corruption à grande échelle;
- Le développement du clientélisme dans la gestion du personnel;
- L'absence de fiabilité des systèmes d'information;
- Les défaillances dans la définition des objectifs;
- Le manque de ponctualité ou l'absentéisme avéré.

Parmi les causes sus évoquées, l'absentéisme et l'incompétence constituent les principaux facteurs de déperdition de la qualité des services rendus.

Voilà la longue litanie des griefs qui gangrènent l'Administration Publique en Afrique.

La plupart des solutions expérimentées par les Administrations pour faire face à ces phénomènes ont été sans effet durable. On relève entre autres: des notes de services, des circulaires et des décisions prises par les dirigeants soit pour rappeler à l'ordre le personnel soit pour sanctionner les récalcitrants. Ces dispositions ont parfois été précédées par des campagnes de sensibilisation organisées à l'intention du personnel et les heures de travail ont été réaménagées avec l'instauration des journées continues (Cameroun, 1997).

Comme le souligne El Hadji Faye (2003) et Moussa Oumarou (2009), la persistance de cette crise économique qui a gangrené le fonctionnement des Etats a amené les Institutions Financières Internationales à prescrire dans les années 80 et 90 des thérapeutiques dans la perspective de la relance des économies sinistrées. C'est ainsi que divers programmes de redressement économique et financier ont été initiés, portant entre autres sur les mesures suivantes:

- La liquidation pure et simple des Entreprises dont le déficit budgétaire est avéré;
- La privatisation de celles qui sont encore faibles mais qui selon ces institutions ne présentent pas un intérêt stratégique pour l'Etat;
- L'amélioration de la gestion des Sociétés restantes au moyen notamment des outils tels que «contrat plan» et l'institution du contrat d'objectif.

Pour mettre en application ces mesures, certains Etats de l'Afrique Francophone, notamment le Cameroun, ont procédé à des réformes profondes des Administrations Publique et Parapublique portant d'une part, sur la réduction et la maîtrise des effectifs pléthoriques des agents de l'Etat en vue de la diminution de la masse salariale et d'autre part, sur la modernisation de la gestion du personnel.

Pour le cas spécifique du Cameroun (1993-1994) les mesures suivantes ont été prises:

- Les départs volontaires, les retraites anticipées des agents publics, assortis d'un appui financier aux fins de faciliter leur réinsertion;
- Le gel des recrutements des jeunes diplômés;
- La réduction des salaires et de certaines indemnités (logement, de responsabilité);

Que peut-on en dire plus d'une décennie après ces réformes? Les résultats ont-ils été à la hauteur des espérances?

La finalité des réformes administratives mises en œuvre au Cameroun était la relance de l'économie. Ont-elles produit les résultats escomptés? Pourquoi avoir donc préconisé toutes ces mesures que certains ont jugées antisociales voire inopportunes pour les fonctionnaires, pour résoudre les problèmes dont les causes ont été mal identifiées au départ?

Aujourd'hui, les conséquences sont perceptibles sur la qualité de vie au regard:

- Du niveau bas des salaires servis aux agents publics (le salaire mensuel d'un médecin ou d'un Ingénieur nouvellement recruté est largement inférieur à 400 dollars USA);

- De la détérioration des conditions de travail et enfin de la productivité du travail.

Il est donc évident que le redressement de la fonction publique, l'amélioration de la qualité de l'offre des services publics, ne se s'opèrent jamais d'une façon spontanée ni par un coup de bâton magique. Un ensemble de mesures cohérentes en faveur du personnel doit être prises et devra porter d'une part, sur les devoirs et droits de l'Agent et d'autre part sur l'environnement interne qu'externe des services concernés.

Comment se présente la situation à la Société Immobilière du Cameroun(SIC), objet de notre étude?

Notre exposé qui a tenté de clarifier cette situation se structure de la manière suivante:

- **Généralités**
 - Contexte et justification,
 - Objectifs,
 - Définition des concepts.
- **Job Description comme outil d'évaluation**
 - Méthodologie,
 - Enquêtes et analyses,
 - Perspectives.
- **Perspectives et Conclusion**

GENERALITES

Contexte et Justification

La Société Immobilière du Cameroun (SIC), Société Anonyme d'économie mixte, a été créée en 1952. Son capital est détenu par l'Etat du Cameroun, les Collectivités Publiques Décentralisées, les Sociétés à capital public ainsi que les personnes morales ou physiques de droit privé. Les missions de la SIC portent entre autres sur l'étude et la réalisation de projets se rapportant à l'habitat social, la construction et/ou l'achat d'immeubles à usage principal d'habitation, en vue de leur vente au comptant, à crédit ou leur location.

Il convient de noter que les besoins en logements décents au Cameroun sont énormes avec un déficit de près de 1. 200. 000 unité, doublée d'une croissance annuelle de l'ordre de 70. 000 unités. La SIC se propose de résorber une partie de ce déficit par la réalisation d'un important programme immobilier de diverses gammes dans les différentes villes du Cameroun. Mais dispose-t-elle vraiment des moyens humains quantitatifs et qualitatifs pour se faire?

La SIC a connu en mars 2012 une mutation au sommet au niveau des dirigeants. Ceci est intervenue dans un contexte extrêmement difficile, caractérisé notamment par:

- La faiblesse des revenus de la Société, avec pour conséquence des difficultés à satisfaire la demande toujours croissante en logements décents. De plus, elle fait face à une concurrence de plus en plus présente dans le secteur de logements;
- Le retard de deux ans dans la production des états financiers;
- Un effectif pléthorique de 365 employés, inégalement répartis:
- 33 cadres supérieurs, soit 9,28 %;
- 121 agents de Maîtrise, soit 33,07 %;
- 211 agents subalternes, soit 57,65 %.
- La faiblesse du contrôle interne (absence d'une structure d'audit interne);
- Le retard dans la réalisation des projets (mauvaise conduite de projets).

La nouvelle équipe, ayant donc noté ce dysfonctionnement au sein de l'Entreprise, a envisagé d'y apporter en urgence des solutions idoines; d'où la nécessité d'optimiser l'organisation de la structure pour atteindre les objectifs stratégiques qu'elle s'est fixée. Il s'agit donc de l'amélioration de la performance, de la qualité des services et des prestations. La littérature consultée à cet effet, nous apprend que les causes d'échecs de certains programmes ont trait à l'absence des performances des services. Aujourd'hui, dans tous les secteurs d'activités sur la planète, on est en quête perpétuelle du rendement et d'efficacité. On recherche de plus en plus à élever le niveau de la performance des travailleurs et des institutions (« Stratégie à long terme de la Gouvernance Africaine and du Programme de l'Administration Publique », 6ème Conférence des Ministres de la Fonction Publique Sandton, Johannesburg, Octobre 2008).

Tel est le fondement de la réflexion présentée ci-après et qui touche principalement les pratiques professionnelles attachées aux postes de travail des agents à la SIC.

Pour cela, quels sont les objectifs fixés par la Direction Générale de la SIC?

Objectifs de la Direction Générale de la SIC

La Direction Générale s'est fixée comme objectifs spécifiques de:

- Asseoir les décisions de gestion du personnel sur les pratiques professionnelles;
- l'efficacité sur le poste, maîtrise technique de la fonction, gestion et organisation de son temps;

- la gestion et l'animation des personnes: organisation du travail;
- Clarifier les missions, les fonctions, les objectifs de chaque service;
- Peser sur la performance du personnel à partir de l'analyse du poste de travail, end'autres termes, de mesurer les écarts entre les objectifs et les résultats obtenus;
- Constituer une base d'informations sur le personnel pour davantage orienter les stratégies de gestion des ressources humaines (plan de formation, promotion, recrutement...).

Pour atteindre de tels objectifs, l'on s'appuie généralement sur certains outils d'analyse tels que:

- L'Audit institutionnel, organisationnel, social et technico-financier;
- Le Monitoring de la performance;
- Le Suivi-évaluation.

Définition des concepts

Un certain nombre de concepts sont employés dans cet exposé, donc entre autres:

Monitoring de la Performance

Le Monitoring de la performance selon Issakha Diallo (2009) et Odette Ramsingh (2010), est un outil technique de gestion utilisé au niveau des postes de travail et qui sert à mesurer les forces et les faiblesses des employés dans l'exécution des activités à eux confiées dans la perspective d'améliorer la qualité de service offert.

Suivi et évaluation

«Ce que vous ne mesurez pas, vous ne gérez pas » (Gestation axée sur les résultats au Canada, Art Daniels, Septembre 2007). Le mot suivi est défini par la Banque Mondiale (2008) et le PNUD (2008) comme étant « un processus itératif et continu de collecte et d'analyse d'informations, pour mesurer les progrès d'un projet mis en œuvre, en comparant les résultats obtenus aux performances attendues. Il fournit donc aux gestionnaires un retour d'informations régulier qui peut aider à déterminer si l'avancement du projet est conforme à la programmation».

L'évaluation permet donc de juger à quel point les objectifs ont été atteints.

i) Audit organisationnel, social et financier

L'expression diagnostic organisationnel (Pierre M. Paquette), au même titre qu'un audit social (Bernadette Blanc) et financier (Vernimmen) est un ensemble d'outils de gestion qui s'efforce:

- D'une part, à donner une image la plus fidèle possible de la situation dans une institution, c'est-à-dire à identifier les pratiques actuelles avec ses forces et faiblesses;
- D'autre part, à rechercher prioritairement les facteurs susceptibles d'entraver son fonctionnement actuel, voire de bloquer le moment venu la mise en œuvre des projets et des programmes et à envisager des perspectives d'action selon Hélène Hatzfeld (2000).

La conduite d'un Audit organisationnel, social et financier est basée sur une démarche qui englobe l'analyse diagnostique de la situation actuelle, les propositions d'amélioration et l'accompagnement à la mise en œuvre des solutions.

ii) *Job Description*

Le Job Description ou description des postes est, selon le Gouvernement du Québec (2002), un « énoncé faisant état des tâches, des responsabilités et des relations d'autorité inhérentes à un poste ainsi que de la compétence professionnelle et des qualités exigées pour l'occuper ». C'est un outil de définition des compétences aux fins de minimiser les risques d'erreurs et de bien cerner les problèmes.

iii) *Compétence professionnelle*

La compétence, selon Carré (P) et Caspar (P), est la résultante du savoir (la connaissance), du savoir-faire (la pratique), du savoir-être (le comportement relationnel) et des aptitudes physiques pour accomplir un certain nombre d'activités dans une institution. Elle est la valeur de base du système professionnel. C'est une qualité essentielle exigée d'une personne qui entend exercer les activités régies.

iv) *Notion de qualité de service*

Kiane Goudarzi et Marcel Guenon définissent la qualité de service comme étant la capacité d'un service offert à répondre par ses caractéristiques aux exigences d'un usager ou d'un consommateur.

A la suite de ces définitions, nous observons que finalité l'ensemble de ces outils est la mesure de la performance du personnel pour une utilisation optimale de son potentiel professionnel à un poste de travail. Lequel de ces outils permet-il d'évaluer au moindre coût et dans un délai raisonnable, les compétences professionnelles du personnel de l'Entreprise étudiée (SIC) compte tenu de la modicité de ses ressources financières disponibles et des attentes? Le Job Description s'est présenté comme étant l'outil approprié à cet effet.

UTILISATION DU « JOB DESCRIPTION » COMME OUTIL D'ÉVALUATION

Finalités du Job Description

Comme il est décrit ci-avant, le Job description permet d'apprécier le profil de la personne occupant un poste. Il sert entre autres à :

- La définition des besoins en personnel (recrutement),
- La définition d'un plan de formation,
- L'évaluation et la classification du personnel,
- L'organisation et la définition de l'organigramme de l'Entreprise,
- La gestion de carrière et de la mobilité,
- L'appréciation des performances,
- L'amélioration des conditions de travail, etc...

Méthodologie

D'une manière intentionnelle, l'approche adoptée pour cette étude n'a pas utilisé d'une façon spécifique l'expression « évaluation du personnel ». Ce sont les personnes enquêtées qui ont été amenées à la caractériser. Dans le processus, nous avons combiné les techniques participatives et les approches non-participatives. L'étude s'est déroulée en trois étapes :

- **Phase d'identification** du dispositif d'évaluation (objectifs poursuivis, initiatives, méthodes utilisées), de concertation et d'explication du processus à travers des entretiens collectifs et semi-directifs;
- **Phase de remplissage** individuelle de la fiche des questionnaires;
- **Phase de l'organisation, de l'analyse** et de l'interprétation des données:
 - L'identification des vrais problèmes au fur et à mesure qu'ils se posent et le choix des actions correctrices à mettre en œuvre;
 - L'utilisation des résultats pour la prise de décision.

Déroulement de l'étude

Première phase

Nous avons organisé des séances de travail collectives et sectorielles aux fins de présenter la problématique et définir le contour de travail à faire avec l'ensemble du personnel. Il a d'abord été question de présenter le dispositif qui sera utilisé, les résultats attendus pour un fonctionnement harmonieux de l'Entreprise.

Une opération test a consisté à remettre à chacun une fiche de questionnaires pour remplissage. Elle s'est déroulée sur une durée d'une semaine. Les réunions de synthèses ont été organisées aux fins d'examiner le travail produit par le personnel ; il a été en grande partie peu satisfaisant. Ceci a nécessité de nouvelles explications pour pallier les insuffisances et les incompréhensions.

Deuxième phase: remplissage des fiches d'enquête

Les fiches revisitées ont été distribuées au personnel pour remplissage conformément aux indications reçues de la première phase.

Présentation de la fiche d'enquête

Elle comprend les éléments suivants:

- i. Identification de l'agent enquêté: La dénomination du poste - La position dans la structure;
- ii. Attributions du poste définies dans l'organigramme:
 - Missions
 - Compréhension des missions (Description). La compréhension des missions consiste à traduire en activité les missions définies au point précédent.
- iii. Différents dossiers/projets suivis depuis 2009. Il était question dans cette partie de recenser toutes missions en cours ou achevées pendant cette période. Par contre les projets ici regroupent toute activité ou dossier important;
- iv. Activités journalières: représentent un planning quotidien des actions génériques effectuées de façon récurrente dans une journée;
- v. Principaux problèmes rencontrés dans le poste;
- vi. Propositions pour l'amélioration de la productivité.

Troisième phase: analyse des données

L'échantillonnage a porté sur un effectif de 67 personnes, soit 18% de l'effectif total, composé des Directeurs, Sous Directeurs, des Chefs de Service et certains agents d'exécution. La première caractéristique de cet échantillonnage est que chaque enquêté occupe un poste de travail.

i) Codification des fiches

Les fiches collectées ont été codifiées en fonction des postes de travail en vigueur à la SIC. Un tableau récapitulatif reprend les principales caractéristiques de chaque fiche.

ii) Cotation et pondération des questions

Pour l'évaluation des fiches, un système de notation a été établi pour un total de 41 points ramené à 20 points par application d'une arithmétique simple.

Présentation des résultats

Tableau 1: Point sur la Participation à L'enquête

	Echantillon	Fiches Remplies	Non Rendues	Non Remplies	Observations
Fréquence Absolue	67	62	3	1	3 postes sans titulaire
Fréquence Relative	100%	92.54%	4.48%	1.49%	

Source: Enquêtes par F.C Noundjeu

Le tableau1 révèle que 67 fiches ont été distribuées au personnel, leur collecte montre ce qui suit:

- 62 personnes ont rendu leurs questionnaires remplis, soit 95%;
- 4 fiches manquent (parce que 3 postes sont sans titulaire);
- Une seule fiche a été rendue sans être complétée.

Attributions du poste définies dans l'organigramme

Cette rubrique a deux composantes: missions et sa compréhension.

Missions

Tableau 2: Description des Missions de L'organigramme

	Echantillon	Missions Bien	Missions Remplies
		Reportées: 3/3 points	Partiellement: 0/3 points
Fréquence Absolue	62	57	5
Fréquence Relative	100%	92%	8%

Source: Enquêtes par F.C Noundjeu

On constate dans le tableau 2 que près de 92% du personnel ont correctement retranscrit les missions organiques de leur service et ont donc obtenu la totalité des notes affectées. 8% ont omis de les transcrire en totalité. Pour certains d'entre eux, ils n'ont pas compris la question.

- **Compréhension des missions**

La compréhension des missions consiste à traduire en activités les missions définies au point précédent.

Tableau 3: Déclinaison des Missions en Activités

	Echantillon	Compréhension		Mission mal
		Mission: 13/13	De 7 à 12 points	Comprises: < 7pts
Fréquence Absolue	62	23	13	26
Fréquence Relative	100%	37%	21%	42%

Source: Enquêtes par F.C Noundjeu

Le tableau 3 présente en trois groupes le niveau de compréhension des missions. La notation est faite sur 13 points:

- 1er groupe: Ce sont ceux qui ont obtenu 13 points/13, donc qui ont une excellence compréhension de leurs missions. Ce groupe représente environ 37% des personnes enquêtées;
- 2nd groupe: Il est constitué du personnel ayant une compréhension moyenne de ses missions. La notation varie entre 7 et 12 points/13. 21% des enquêtés ont partiellement décliné les missions en activités. Ils n'ont pas compris certaines missions à eux confiées.
- 3ème groupe: Cette frange qui représente 42% n'a pas une bonne compréhension de ses missions. Elle n'a pas traduit ses. Les notes affectées varient de 2 à 6 points/13. Tous les Directeurs se trouvent dans cette dernière catégorie; ce qui peut susciter des inquiétudes. Mais, après des entretiens avec certains d'entre eux, on a compris qu'ils ont abordé ce questionnaire avec légèreté peut être du fait des nombreuses sollicitations auxquelles ils sont soumis. Ce n'est donc pas un problème du niveau de compréhension de leurs missions.

De l'analyse croisée entre les données du tableau et les entretiens individualisés, on déduit que:

- Les Directeurs sont très occupés;
- Plus de 50 % du personnel comprennent plus ou moins le contenu des missions à eux confiées;
- La plupart n'ont pas pris connaissance du contenu de l'organigramme de la Société, donc de leurs missions avant l'enquête;
- Certains connaissent bien l'existence de l'organigramme, mais ne sont pas en possession de ce sésame;
- Peu de personnel connaît l'existence des statuts de la Société;
- D'autres font une confusion totale entre les statuts et l'organigramme de l'Entreprise.

Différents dossiers / projets suivis depuis 2009

Il est question dans cette rubrique de recenser tous les projets ou dossiers en cours de traitement ou complètement étudiés pendant cette période. Il faut entendre par « projets ou dossiers » toutes les activités importantes qui s'étalent dans la durée. On a classé en trois groupes le nombre de dossiers traité :

- i) Groupe 1: 10 dossiers traités et plus: 4 points /4 (soit 11 personnes);
- ii) Groupe 2: 5 à 10 dossiers traités: 2 points /4 (19 personnes);
- iii) Groupe 3: moins de 5 dossiers traités: 0 point /4 (32 personnes).

Cette classification à titre indicatif permet juste d'appréhender le taux d'occupation du personnel. Le temps imparti n'ayant pas permis de définir au préalable des indicateurs de performance pour apprécier la réalité des faits.

Tableau 4: Nombre de Dossiers Traités

	Echantillon	Catégorie 1	Catégorie 2	Catégorie 3
		Points: 4/4	Points: 2/4	Points: 0/4
Fréquence Absolue	62	11	19	32
Fréquence Relative	100%	18%	31%	52%

Source: Enquêtes par F.C Noundjeu

Le tableau 3 indique que:

- i) Groupe 1: 18% du personnel sont très actifs (beaucoup de dossiers traités);
- ii) Groupe 2: 19% sont moyennement occupés. Il s'agit en outre des agents d'exécution, certains Chef de Service et quelques rares Sous Directeurs;
- iii) Groupe 3: 52% des interviewés dont 3 Directeurs sur 5 ne sont pas suffisamment occupés. Ceci est normal et compréhensible pour les Directeurs dont les activités portent essentiellement sur la coordination, les orientations, le contrôle, l'impulsion à donner aux services, bref le management. Tous les dossiers sont supposés être traités dans les structures inférieures et non pas par les Directeurs personnellement; mais les dossiers traités doivent être comptabilisés sur le compte. Il est normal d'en tenir compte et de classer ces derniers dans la 1ère catégorie.

En définitive l'on note que près de 50% du personnel est sous utilisé ou sous employé.

Activités journalières

Il s'agit ici de définir un planning approximatif des activités génériques effectuées de façon récurrente dans une journée. Cette rubrique se subdivise en deux grandes composantes: nombres d'activités et cohérence entre les activités et les missions.

i) Nombre d'activités journalières

Il est ici question de mesurer le degré d'occupation du personnel dans la journée, on observe comment l'agent planifie ses activités. Les notations sont faites sur 3 points et se présentent comme suit:

- 1ère catégorie pour 5 activités: 3 points;
- 2ème catégorie pour 3 activités: 2 points;
- 3ème catégorie < 3 activités: 0 point.

ii) Cohérence entre activités et les missions organiques

Les missions organiques sont celles définies dans l'organigramme. La question est de savoir ici, si les activités exercées par l'agent sont en adéquation avec ces missions, en d'autres termes, est-ce que les objectifs fixés dans le programme d'actions peuvent être atteints à partir du travail produit quotidiennement par l'agent. La notation a été établie sur 8 points. Le dépouillement a permis de classer les enquêtés en trois catégories:

- 1ère catégorie: Activités cohérentes par rapport aux missions: 23 personnes ont obtenu la note de 8/8;
- 2ème catégorie: Activités moyennement cohérentes par rapport aux missions: 27 personnes ont obtenu la note de 5 points /8;
- 3ème catégorie: Activités non cohérentes avec les missions: 12 personnes ont obtenu la note de 4 points /8.

Tableau 5: Activités journalières et leur cohérence par rapports aux missions organiques

Echantillon	Nombre d'activités / journée Catégorie 2			Cohérence entre activités et missions			
	3 à 5 Activités	1 à 3 Activités	Zéro Activité	1 ^{ère} Catégorie	2 ^{ème} Catégorie	3 ^{ème} Catégorie	
	Points: 3/3	Points: 2/3	Points: 0/3	Points: 8/8	Points: 5/8	Points: 4/8	
Fréquence Absolue	62	38	18	6	23	27	12
Fréquence Relative	100%	61%	29%	10%	37%	44%	19%

Source: Enquêtes par F.C Noundjeu

Le tableau 5 apporte les renseignements suivants:

- i) 61% du personnel sont très occupés dans la journée;
- ii) 29% sont moyennement occupés;
- iii) 10% du personnel ne font presque rien dans la journée;
- iv) 37% seulement ont des activités qui sont en cohérence avec les missions organiques.
- v) Les activités de 44% du personnel sont approximativement en cohérence avec les missions. Cette analyse nous permet de relever que les tâches journalières de cette catégorie n'ont aucun rapport direct avec ce qui est attendu d'eux. On note un chevauchement des activités. Ceux-ci vont au-delà des limites de leurs missions;
- vi) L'occupation observée de 19% du personnel n'impacte pas sur la réalisation des objectifs du programme d'actions.

En rapprochant ces résultats à ceux obtenus plus haut, on comprend mieux que l'incapacité du personnel à décliner les actions ou missions en activités ou en tâches simples pour une meilleure compréhension et pour une mise en œuvre harmonieuse est l'une des causes premières de:

- La confusion et du chevauchement des activités des agents;
- L'oisiveté de certaines catégories du personnel.

Principaux problèmes rencontrés dans le poste

Les problèmes rencontrés sont soit d'ordre structurel (organique, matériel, organisationnel etc.), soit conjoncturel. De nombreuses plaintes verbales ont été recensées auprès du personnel. L'occasion leur a été donnée à travers ce questionnaire de les exprimer. Le nombre de problèmes rencontrés est en relation avec le niveau d'occupation. Les enquêtés ont été classés ici en trois catégories. La notation de cette rubrique est sur 2 points:

- 1ère catégorie: plus de 5 problèmes identifiés: 2 points/2,
- 2ème catégorie: 2 à 4 problèmes identifiés: 1 point/2,
- 3ème catégorie: moins de 2 problèmes identifiés: 0 point/2.

Propositions pour l'amélioration de la productivité

Le personnel est invité à présenter les solutions appliquées ou à appliquer aux problèmes identifiés. De l'analyse faite, il se dégage trois catégories de personness:

- 1ère catégorie: plus de 5 solutions proposées: 2/2 points,
- 2ème catégorie: 2 à 4 solutions: 1/2 points,
- 3ème catégorie: aucune solution: 0/2 points.

Tableau 6: Problèmes et Solutions

Echantillon	Différents Problèmes Identifiés			Solutions aux Problèmes Identifiés			
	1 ^{ère} Catégorie	2 ^{ème} Catégorie	3 ^{ème} Catégorie	1 ^{ère} Catégorie	2 ^{ème} Catégorie	3 ^{ème} Catégorie	
	Points: 2/2	Points: 1/2	Points: 0/3	Points: 2/2	Points: 1/2	Points: 0/2	
Fréquence Absolue	62	13	29	20	12	30	18
Fréquence Relative	100%	21%	47%	32%	19%	48%	29 %

Source: Enquêtes par F.C Noundjeu

Le tableau 6 montre que:

- 21% des interviewés ont identifié chacun au moins cinq problèmes qui minent leur structure respective;
- 47% des interviewés n'ont identifié que moins de 3 problèmes;
- 32% n'ont identifié aucun problème.

Lors des entretiens individualisés, le personnel dans son ensemble se plaint des maux tels que:

- L'insuffisance, le manque et la vétusté du matériel, des équipements et de fournitures;
- L'absence ou l'exiguïté des locaux à eux affectés;
- L'insuffisance de personnel en qualité et en quantité;
- L'absence d'un plan de formation;
- Cloisonnement entre Services;
- Le manque de confiance de la hiérarchie à leur égard;
- Les missions mal définies;
- L'indiscipline et le manque de ponctualité; etc.

La retranscription intégrale de ces problèmes, pourtant connus aurait pu permettre à chacun d'obtenir le maximum des points.

En ce qui concerne les solutions préconisées, l'on observe que:

- 19% ont trouvé pour chacun des problèmes identifiés des solutions idoines. Ce groupe est composé essentiellement des Directeurs, de quelques Sous Directeurs et de certains Chefs de Service;
- 48% ont proposé moins de 3 solutions. Ceux-ci se recrutent parmi les cadres moyens et le personnel d'exécution;
- 29% n'ont proposé aucune solution. Ce sont en général le personnel d'exécution;
- 2 personnes n'ont identifié aucun problème mais ont néanmoins proposé des solutions.

En définitive, l'évaluation par la méthode job description a conduit à la:

- Connaissance du potentiel professionnel du personnel;
- Crédibilisation des décisions d'affectation;
- Identification des besoins de formation;
- Nécessité d'améliorer le système d'information dans l'entreprise;
- Découverte des erreurs dans la définition des postes de travail.

NB: Les limites de l'utilisation de l'outil Job Description

Cette méthode avait pour objectif principal de mesurer la contribution de l'agent aux objectifs de résultat de l'organisation de la Société. Elle a donc permis de recueillir des données sur le niveau de contribution du personnel et de porter une appréciation plus générale sur l'environnement professionnel dans la Société. Elle néanmoins présente quelques limites certaines du point de vue scientifique:

- L'enquête n'a pas touché l'ensemble des catégories du personnel;
- Le nombre de questionnaire est très réduit et limite ainsi une connaissance entière de l'environnement professionnel de l'agent;
- Le temps imparti pour ce travail a été court;
- L'évaluation n'a pas été précédée par un contrat d'objectifs entre l'agent et son supérieur;
- Les critères d'évaluation des performances n'ont été définies au départ;
- L'évaluation ne revêt pas un caractère contractuel entre l'agent et son supérieur;
- Chaque poste ne fait pas l'objet d'une fiche de poste décrivant les savoirs, expériences et attitudes requis.

PERSPECTIVES ET CONCLUSION

PERSPECTIVES

L'évaluation du personnel par la méthode de Job description telle que décrite nécessite une investigation plus approfondie. Il y a donc lieu d'examiner dans ce domaine en plus des activités propres de l'Agent, les compétences nécessaires à l'exercice des fonctions actuelles.

Pour cela, cette évaluation doit être suivie par un audit organisationnel, social et technique ou d'un monitoring de performance.

CONCLUSION

Une évaluation doit fournir des informations crédibles et utiles permettant d'intégrer les leçons de l'expérience dans le processus de décision. Les informations qui ont été fournies ont permis de tracer un parallèle entre les caractéristiques de l'emploi et le profil des titulaires. Vu sur cet angle, notre étude conduite grâce à l'outil « Job Description » a atteint ses objectifs, car elle a permis de dégager les faits précis concernant les emplois et toutes ses composantes.

Sur cette base, l'évaluation du personnel a permis de mettre en exergue quatre centres d'intérêts essentiels, non exclusifs les uns des autres:

Le premier centre d'intérêt est l'appréciation des compétences professionnelles du personnel. Ici, l'évaluation du personnel est rattachée à la tenue du poste, au métier exercé, à l'utilisation de compétences techniques;

Le deuxième centre d'intérêt porte sur le suivi de l'activité du personnel au sein de son service. L'évaluation, dans ce contexte, a consisté à apprécier la contribution de l'agent à l'activité de son Service;

Le troisième centre d'intérêt a trait aux perspectives professionnelles. Il s'est agi aussi de recueillir des informations concrètes et de porter une appréciation sur les capacités de l'agent à évoluer.

Le quatrième centre d'intérêt a concerné l'appréciation de l'environnement professionnel dans la société. Ici on a noté un cloisonnement des services, avec une mauvaise circulation d'informations.

Ce dispositif d'évaluation marque une évolution par rapport aux outils de gestion des ressources humaines actuelles. Il permet de quitter le cercle étroit des spécialistes confirmés de l'audit organisationnel, technique et social, pour être mis à la portée et à la disposition des cadres d'une Société.

Cette évaluation a néanmoins permis d'envisager à court et à moyen terme des actions correctives suivantes:

- L'institution des réunions de coordination à tous les niveaux;
- La production mensuelle des rapports d'activités pour chaque service;
- L'implication du personnel dans différentes réflexions engagées dans l'Entreprise;
- La définition d'un cadre logique pour chaque projet;
- Le redéploiement partiel du personnel;
- L'adaptation du profil au poste;
- La préparation des termes de référence en vue d'un audit organisationnel social et technique ou d'un monitoring de performance;
- Le lancement du processus de la révision de l'organigramme de l'Entreprise avec une définition claire de poste de travail;
- Le lancement du processus d'élaboration d'un plan de formation;
- Le recrutement du personnel technique et financier apte et en rapport avec les missions de l'Entreprise.

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**IMPACT OF HUMAN RESOURCE
DEVELOPMENT PROFESSIONALS'
EXPERTISE ON EFFECTIVENESS OF
MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT IN THE
CIVIL SERVICE OF KENYA**

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ABSTRACT

The key purpose of performance management is to align an organization's objectives with employees' agreed measures, skills, competence requirements, plans and delivery of results in order to achieve high levels of performance. Line managers as the coaches of the process require skills, knowledge and right attitudes acquired through effective management development. Management development is an integral component of Human Resource Development (HRD) and is premised on organizational performance improvement mediated through human expertise and effort. HRD professionals are expected to be very good facilitators of management development and to have capacity to work with managers for their effective development. This study sought to find out perceptions of managers in the civil service of Kenya on HRD professionals' expertise and their ability to facilitate their development for effective performance. The study found there was a positive relationship that was statistically significant between HRD professionals' expertise and effectiveness of management development. On average, managers did not rate HRD professionals as good in having a vision for the function, capacity for effective communication and capacity for planning training and development targeted at identified needs. They also did not frequently use work based informal techniques and strategies like computer assisted/e-learning, networking, benchmarking or dialogue for management development. The study concludes that HRD professionals need to improve their skills for management development especially in the use of work based strategies. There was distance between managers and HRD professionals as the latter had not positioned the function strategically in their Ministries. They had not been able to market the function to managers very well hence creating uncertainty about what HRD can provide. The study recommends that the Kenyan Government prioritizes development of HRD professionals as facilitators of management development for effective performance. HRD professionals should also pay attention to their continuing personal development especially to improve their skills in communication and in designing development suited to manager's day to day challenges at work.

Key Words: Management Development, Performance Management, Human Resource Development, Work based Development, Human Resource Development Expertise, Training Needs Assessment, Effective Communication.

INTRODUCTION

In Kenya, serious attempts at reforming and transforming public sector management began in the early 1990s. The efforts were driven primarily by the fact that the state bureaucracy had been underperforming and service delivery was not serving the public interest with its most optimal capability. The reforms in Kenya evolved and eventually culminated in the notion of re-engineering the public sector in the context of public sector transformation drawing on elements of New Public Management. New Public Management aimed at fostering a performance-oriented culture that seeks to revamp processes and operations of an organization to increase efficiency, effectiveness and quality management (Hope, 2012 p.129). The real focus on management development, however, began with the introduction of Results Based Management (RBM) in the civil service following a cabinet decision in 2004. RBM was aimed at transforming the civil service from a passive, inward looking bureaucracy to be proactive, outward looking and results oriented for the implementation of national goals and objectives as specified in the Economic Recovery Strategy (ERS), Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and later the Kenya Vision 2030. RBM would integrate strategy, people, resources and processes to improve performance and produce results.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Dorgan, Dowdy and Rippin (2006), globalization, specialization and advances in technology have heightened competition among organizations and intensified pressure for better management. To address this challenge, organizations the world over are engaged in a myriad of organizational change efforts aimed at improving performance and trying out new strategies that require different organizational skills sets or behaviour. Performance management is one such strategy and aims at establishing a shared understanding of the goals and objectives of an organization. It is about aligning organizations' objectives with employees' agreed measures, skills, competence requirements, plans and delivery of results and contributes to the leading and managing of teams and individuals to achieve high levels of performance. It should incorporate continuous human resource development as well as manage behaviour in a way that fosters better working relationships and according to Brown (2005) it should enhance the strategic capability and corporate performance of an organization.

Performance management is driven by line managers and according to Kessels and Harrison (1988), such a complex and dynamic response to competition must be driven by managers who are skilled and capable of adapting to meet the demands of a changing environment. Management development must therefore encompass different ways in which managers improve their capabilities (Thomson, Mabey,

Storey, Grey and Iles, 2001). Fulmer (1992) argued that success will only occur if management development strategies are adapted and implemented in ways that are congruent with changing needs and expectations of the organization for performance.

Management development is an integral component of Human Resource Development (HRD) in any organization and it is premised on organizational performance improvement mediated through human expertise and human effort. HRD aims to add value to the achievement of an organization's goals and objectives through pointing people in the right direction (alignment) and in developing their beliefs and commitment to the organization's purpose and direction (engagement).

According to Chalofsky and Reinhart (1988) an effective HRD function is a subsystem of an organization and should have highly trained professional staff. Knowles (1998) argued that HRD professionals must demonstrate that what they do correlates with performance and productivity of the organization. The development activities to bring out effective managerial behaviour depend on identification of needs for skills, attitudes and competences required in the short term and in the future. Proper identification of what needs to be done depends on the expertise of HRD professionals in the organization, the priority given to Management Development, the support provided to the professionals and also the involvement of managers in their learning.

Empirical evidence from studies done by Kiragu and Mukandala (1997) and Kiggudu (1997) made it abundantly clear that there existed a huge need in the public and the private sectors of developing countries for well-trained managers. Much of the organizational dysfunction encountered in public organizations in developing countries is rightly attributed to a lack of skilled professional managers. As a consequence, vast amounts of time and money have been invested by governments and donor agencies in management training and development with relatively little tangible return on this investment.

However, Marwa and Zairi (2009), Obong'o(2007), Lodge and Kalitowski (2007), and Kiragu (2002) reviewing progress in civil service reforms in Kenya identified lack of leadership and management capability as hindering continued successful improvement in service delivery. Kamoche (1997) had argued that improved performance through reforms must recognize the centrality of effective management development to generate appropriate skills and competences.

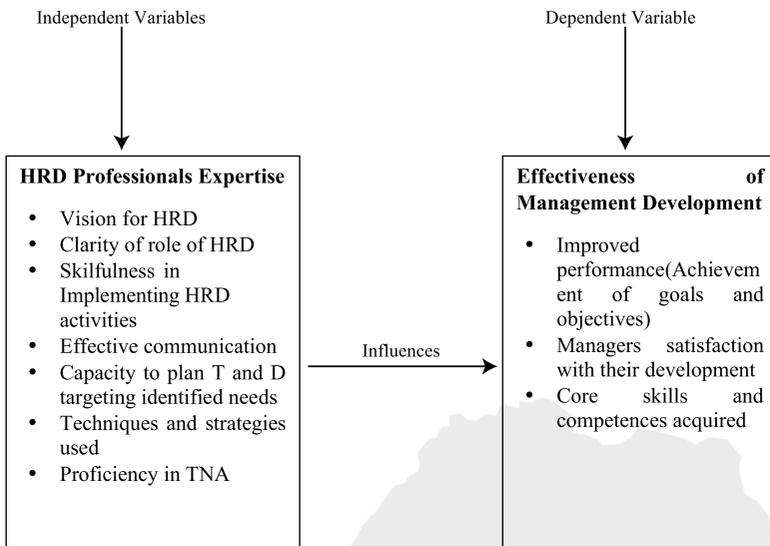
This study sought to find out if the Human Resource Development Professional's expertise affected effectiveness of management development in the civil service in Kenya. The conceptual framework for the study was based on characteristics of effective Human Resource Development professionals identified by Nadler and

Wiggs (1986) including: ability to plan HRD activities that foster learning; capacity to establish goal priorities for HRD activities; ability to communicate effectively with organizational leaders; capacity to identify and develop effective HRD management information systems; and ability to work effectively with line managers and pay attention to management development. Effectiveness of management development was considered in terms of manager's acquisition of core managerial skills and competences for improved performance; their satisfaction with development initiatives and in the achievement of organizational goals and objectives as key indicators.

Conceptual Framework

The theoretical proposition for this study was that there is a linear relationship between HRD professional expertise and effectiveness of management development as shown in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework



Source: Adapted from Wachira, F.N. (2013) PhD Thesis, Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT) Unpublished

Limitations of the study

This study was specific to the Kenya Civil Service and therefore may not be generalized, but it can be replicated. The study was limited in terms of the information collected since it depended on the respondents' interpretation of HRD professional

expertise and effectiveness of management development in their contexts. It also depended on the extent managers could link their development with achievement of the goals and objectives of their ministries. Where the manager interpreted the aim to be taking stock of their management capabilities, they tended to stick to responses around 'neutral' or 'sometimes'. The data collectors countered this by explaining the purpose of the study which was to take stock of effectiveness of the process rather than of individuals. The respondents were discouraged from appending their identities on the questionnaire unless they wanted to and were assured of confidentiality.

METHODOLOGY

The study adopted an exploratory approach using a descriptive survey design. This design allowed the researcher to gather information from a large population, summarize, analyse and interpret it for the purpose of clarification of the issues under study. The study was conducted within the civil service which at the time of the study was made up of forty two (42) ministries and departments, each ministry being made of a body of officials called civil servants placed in job groups from the lowest 'A' to the highest 'V'. The job groups denoted seniority and scope of responsibility. At the time of the survey there were 215,254 civil servants in all Ministries.

The 42 ministries/ departments were as described in the Presidential circular No. 1 (GOK, 2008) on the organization of the Government of Kenya. The study, however, excluded the Police, State House, Department of Defence and Prisons department because of the complex logistics of collecting data in highly guarded premises. The study population was the 3,482 civil servants in senior management cadres but the target population was the 2,335 senior managers deployed in ministry headquarters in Nairobi.

Sampling was done using stratified random sampling to achieve the desired representation of the three job groups in the target population. Within each job group, a representative number of officers (two hundred and five (205) managers) were drawn using simple random sampling. The study collected data using a structured questionnaire with Likert type and open questions and interviews with informants purposively picked for their knowledge on HRD practices in the civil service of Kenya. The study used Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyse data qualitatively and quantitatively.

Table 1: Classification of Civil Servants by Job Group

LEVEL	JOB EQUIVALENT GROUP	NUMBERS
I. Policy Makers	V,U, S T	398
II. Senior Managers	P Q R	3,482
III. Technical Staff	G-J, K-N	11,0395
III. Support Staff	A-F	100,979
IV Total		215, 254

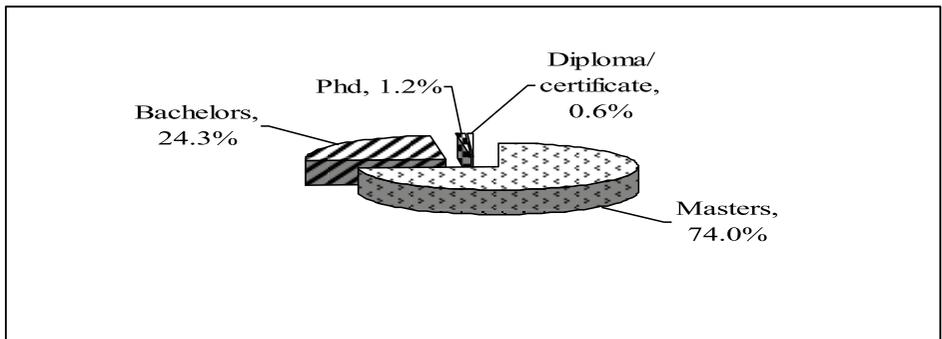
Source: Ministry of State for Public Service ((MSPS), 2010)

DISCUSSION OF KEY FINDINGS

Profile of respondents

The response rate for this study was 86% (177 of 211 questionnaires administered were returned). The responses were from all the 39 Ministries/Departments targeted in the study. The majority (74%) of the respondents were found to have a Master’s Degree as the highest qualification, 24.3% had a Bachelor’s degree and 1.2% had PhDs. Only a very small proportion (0.6%) of the respondents were diploma/certificate holders. (Figure 2)

Figure 2: Education background of respondents



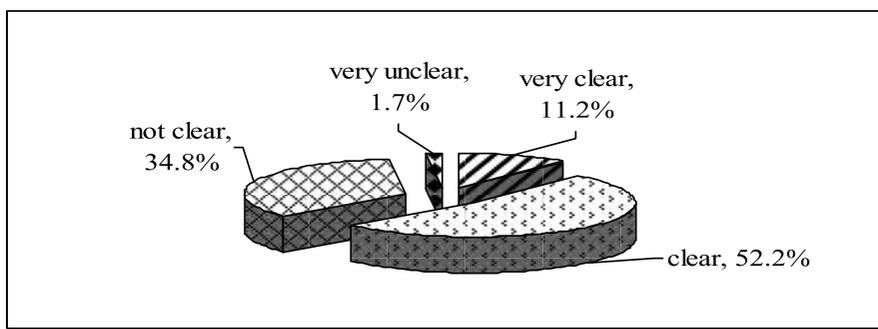
Source: Author (2010)

The results showed that 38.1% of the respondents had worked as managers in the civil service for 6 - 10 years, 26.7% for over 10 years and only 17.6% had worked for 2-5 years or less. A majority of the respondents (43.4%) supervised less than 10 employees, 35.8% supervised 10 - 30 employees, 12.1% more than 50 employees whereas 8.7% supervised more than 30 employees.

Perceptions on Relevance of Management Development undertaken to Reality of Manager's Work

Slightly more than half of the respondents (52.2%) agreed there was a clear link between management development and the reality of their work and 11.2% thought the link was very clear, 34.8% said that it was not clear and 1.7% said it was very unclear. It is important that every manager is able to relate their development with what they do on a day to day basis in order to improve their performance. According to Swanson and Holton (2000) and Knowles (1998) HRD professionals must demonstrate a correlation of HRD activities with the reality of management.

Figure 3: Linkage of Management Development to the reality of a Manager's work



Source: Author (2010)

Managers' Perception of HRD Professionals' Vision for the Function

Only 34.9% of the managers thought the HRD professionals had a very good vision for the function. Another 38.9% thought they had a good vision and a small proportion (2.3%) rated them as poor. It is worth noting that a significant proportion (26.2%) did not think they had a vision. According to Nadler and Wiggs (1986) a good vision for the HRD function is an essential framework for the professionals that allows them to establish goal priorities over a period of time and to have a futuristic approach to learning. Of concern here is that many HRD professionals may not have shared their vision of HRD with their customers and this could be responsible for hindering the buy in necessary for managers to support their effective development.

Table 2: Vision for the Human Resource Development Function

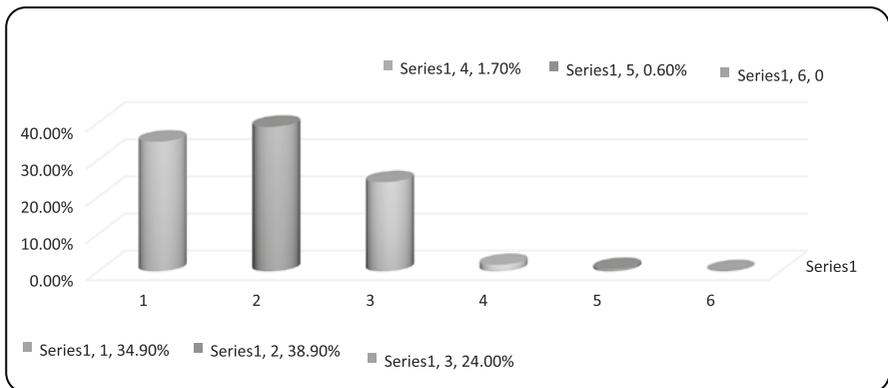
	very good	good	average	poor	Very poor	Total
Frequency	63	68	42	3	1	177
Percent (%)	34.5	38.9	23.8	1.7	.6	100

Source: Author (2010)

Perceptions on Skilfulness of HRD Professionals in Implementing HRD Activities

Only 34.9% of respondents rated HRD professionals’ capacity for skilful implementation of HRD activities as very good, 38.9% rated them as good, 24% rated them average and 1.7% as poor. A very small proportion (0.6%) rated them as very poor. The results indicate that a majority of managers perceive the HRD professionals as being skilful contrary to related findings by Abdulla (2009) and Bing et al (2003) that HRD managers lacked knowledge and skills to carry out the HRD function effectively. This is an indication that there is potential to enhance their capacity to facilitate development of managers.

Figure 4: Skilfulness of HRD Professionals



Source: Author (2010)

Rating HRD Professionals Capacity for Effective Communication

Only 26.6% of the respondents rated HRD professionals very good while 36.7% rated them as good in capacity for effective communication. A small proportion (7.9%) rated them poor or very poor. Empirical findings by Nadler and Wiggs (1986) suggest that HRD professionals must possess very effective communication skills which they use to direct the staff, communicate with organizational leaders

and to position HRD as a serious and vital component of the organization's strategic future. Critter (2002) argued that HRD professionals should be able to embrace dialogue and the art of listening and asking empowering questions to encourage managers to seek solutions to their problems in the locus of real work.

Table 3: HRD Capacity for Effective Communication

	very good	good	average	poor	very poor	Total
Frequency	47	65	51	13	1	177
Percent (%)	26.6	36.7	29.4	7.3	.6	100

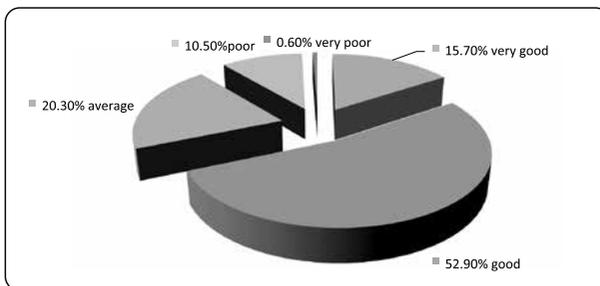
Source: Author (2010)

According to Sambrook's work (2002), the importance given to HRD depends on how it is perceived by the managers. Effective communication helps position HRD in a strategic position and eliminates perceptions of Human Resource Development as a mere support function. It clears role ambiguity thus reducing the distance between HRD professionals and managers. Lack of information on needs, processes and opportunities as well as uncertainty of what HRD can provide are all results of ineffective communication.

Perceptions on HRD Professionals' Proficiency in Designing and conducting Training Needs Assessment of Managers

Only 15.7% of the respondents rated HRD professionals very good at designing and conducting training needs assessment of managers. The majority (52.9%) thought they were just good, 20.3% rated them average and 11% rated them poor or very poor. This supports Harrison and Kessels' (2004) argument that a changing world of work requires HRD professionals who can create a framework through which managers can identify their needs and suggest how they want them addressed.

Figure 5: Proficiency in Designing and Conducting Needs Assessment



Source: Author (2010)

Empirical findings by Chalofsky and Reinharts (1988) showed that HRD should be able to plan training geared towards developing the competences and skills needed by managers for effective performance. The low percentages of managers rating them as very good suggests that there is need to pay attention to their skills in facilitating managers to learn.

Table 4: Summary Distribution of Responses for HRD Expertise

	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median Perception	%
Vision for the ministry's HRD function	177	4.06	.834	Good	40.1
Skilful in implementing HRD activities	177	3.99	.738	Good	55.4
Capacity for effective communication	177	3.81	.908	Good	36.7
Capacity to plan training and development targeted at identified needs	177	3.90	.877	Good	42.2
Proficiency in designing and conducting needs assessment of managers	177	3.73	.858	Good	52.90

Source: Author (2010)

Only slightly more than 50% of the managers perceived the HRD professionals as skilful in implementing HRD activities and as being proficient in designing and conducting training needs assessments of managers. However, the percentage ratings show that more than 50% did not perceive them as good in having a vision for the HRD function and capacity for effective communication. They also did not think they had a good capacity for planning training and development targeted at meeting identified needs.

Techniques and Strategies used by HRD Professionals in Management Development

Only 9.9% of the respondents agreed that dialogue was used very frequently to enhance exchange of ideas and solve problems collectively. A majority (41%) said it was used only sometimes and it is worth noting that 17.7% said it was never used in their ministries. With regard to encouraging benchmarking of successes, 18.9% said it was done very frequently but 29.1% said it was done only sometimes and 25.7% said it was never used. As shown in table 5, only 6.4% of the respondents said the HRD professionals helped them identify their goals for learning and to choose appropriate resources and methods. It is worth noting that 18.5% said it was never done, 42.2% said it was frequent and 32.9% said it was done sometimes. With regard to counselling for careers, only 5.5% said it was done very frequently

while 24.8% said it was frequent, but a majority (38.2%) said it was never done. Computer supported learning was done very frequently according to 14.6% of the respondents, frequently according to 34.8%, sometimes by 37.2% and never by 13.4% of the respondents.

The findings show that HRD professionals do not frequently use work-based informal strategies to facilitate managers to learn from their experiences as managers. This is contrary to findings of studies done elsewhere (Mintzberg, 2004, Raelin, 2000, Revans, 1998) that showed that managers learn more from informal work based strategies and experiences than from formal training programs. There is a need for management development in the civil service to integrate learning from work with other strategies involving training through courses, seminars and conferences.

Table 5: Frequency of using various Development Techniques

	Very Frequent	Frequent	Sometimes	Never	Mean	Perception
Help managers to dialogue with peers in the ministry	9.9%	31.2%	41.1%	17.7%	2.67	Sometimes
Publicise initiatives that have worked for internal benchmark	18.9%	26.3%	29.1%	25.7%	2.62	neutral
Help managers identify goals, choose resources and methods of learning	6.4%	42.2%	32.9%	18.5%	2.64	neutral
Career counselling and	5.5%	24.8%	31.5%	38.2%	3.02	sometimes
Computer supported /e-learning	14.6%	34.8%	37.2%	13.4%	2.49	neutral

Source: Author (2010)

Testing the Theoretical Proposition that there is a Relationship between HRD Expertise and Effectiveness of Management Development.

This was done through Inferential Statistics including Pearson's correlation coefficient and regression analysis. Pearson's correlation coefficient of .421** p<.001 confirmed that there was a positive relationship between HRD expertise and effectiveness of management development.

Table 6: Pearson's Correlations for HRD Expertise

		HRD expertise	Effectiveness of MD
HRD expertise	Pearson correlation	1	.421**
	Sig (2tailed)		.000
	N	177	177

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01level (2-tailed)

Source: Author (2010)

Regression analysis using SPSS gave coefficient R equal to .421 $p < .001$ confirming the positive relationship between HRD expertise and effectiveness of management development. The R² values of .177 however, showed that the model could only explain up to a maximum of 17.7% variation in effectiveness of management development. However, the F statistic of 37.685 significant at $p < .001$, showed the model's goodness of fit in explaining the variations.

This validated the theoretical proposition that human resource development expertise affects the effectiveness of management development.

Table 7: Regression Analysis

i) **Model Summary**

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.421	.177	.172	10.054

Predictors: (Constant), human resource development expertise

ii) **ANOVA**

Model		Sum of Squares	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3809.675	37.685	.000
	Residual	17691.354		
	Total	21501.029		

Predictors: (Constant), HRD expertise: Dependent Variable: effectiveness of management development

iii) Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1					
(Constant) 3	5.746	2.561	B	13.957 .	.000
HRD expertise	.433 .	.071	.421 6	.139 .	.000

Dependent Variable: effectiveness of management development

Source: Author (2010)

The Beta value of .421 and the t value equal to 6.139 $p < .001$ confirmed that human resource development expertise is an important predictor of effectiveness of management development.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The findings support those by Becker (1993), Schmidt and Lines (2002), Harrison and Kessels (2004) and Bing et.al. (2003) that HRD professionals are the driving force for success of organizations due to their skills, competences, knowledge and experience. According to various studies done elsewhere (Bing et al (2003), Eidgahy (1995), Buyens et. Al. (2001) Garavan et al (2001) and Abdulla (2009)) there is a shortage of HRD professionals who are skilled and experienced systemic thinkers who have the ability to manage the specialized function of HRD in organizations especially learning at work, training needs analysis, evaluation and follow up assessments but this does not appear to be the case in Kenya.

CONCLUSION

The findings show that there is a relationship between human resource development expertise and effectiveness of management development. The relationship is strong and statistically significant. However, the way HRD professionals have positioned themselves in terms of functioning within government departments may not be strategic enough. That majority of the managers do not perceive the HRD professionals as effective in communication and indicate that there is some practice distance between HRD professionals and managers hence there was no unanimity in responses as to whether they were very good or just good in various aspects of their work. This could be a pointer that managers lack information on HRD processes and opportunities and therefore are uncertain about what HRD can provide. This is supported by the fact that only 11.2% saw a very clear link

between development initiatives and the reality of their work as managers. This is also supported by the fact that the professionals did not frequently use learning strategies like networking, use of computer assisted learning, dialogue and internal benchmarking which are proven techniques for effective work based management development and which encourage managers to take responsibility for their learning.

This study therefore recommends that:

- The Kenyan Government pays attention to the recruitment and development of HRD professionals to ensure managers are facilitated to acquire all the skills they need to improve their performance and that of their organizations.
- HRD Professionals need to ensure their continuing professional and personal development in order to position the function strategically to address needs for performance improvement.
- HRD professionals should be able to market their function within government by demonstrating that what they do in management development correlates with what managers require for their improved performance and productivity.
- HRD professionals should ensure they use more work based strategies for manager's development since managers learn more from their experiences as managers.

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**PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT FOR LOCAL
SERVICE DELIVERY IN MALAWI BETWEEN
2005 AND 2013: A FAILED ATTEMPT?**

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ABSTRACT

Performance management remains central in ensuring that local councils deliver their mandate to the local people. This paper is an investigation of the process of performance management in the absence of councillors in three councils in Malawi. Using qualitative and quantitative data, the paper reveals that, when they existed, between November 2000 and March 2005 councillors played a critical role in ensuring that councils deliver services to the people through consultations although these were limited to the local elites like traditional leaders, members of parliament, the business fraternity, and religious leaders. In this case, through representation, local people participated in ensuring that performance targets are set and met in line with prioritized needs of the communities. In pursuing the performance targets, standing committees and full assembly meetings of the councils played a critical role as their mandate was to consult the grassroots on specific issues falling within their domain. However, in the absence of councillors between March 2005 and May 2014, it was difficult for the local people to be directly or indirectly involved in the process of tracking performance against targets and identifying opportunities for improvement in terms of what has to be done and how things can be improved. This has been evidenced by undelivered or ill delivered development projects in the councils under study. The study argues that the role of the people at the grassroots in performance management for service delivery was a farfetched dream in the absence of councillors.

Key Words: Performance Management, Local Councils, Service Delivery, Malawi.

INTRODUCTION

Performance management refers to a systematic process for improving organizational performance by developing the performance of individuals and teams (Armstrong 2009). It is a means of getting better results by understanding and managing performance within an agreed framework of planned goals, standards and competency requirements (ibid). Weiss and Hartle (1997) cited by Armstrong (2009) look at performance management as “a process of establishing a shared understanding about what is to be achieved and how it is to be achieved and an approach to managing people that increases the probability of achieving success” (p.618). Performance management’s overall objective is to develop the capacity of people to meet and exceed expectations and achieve their full potential to the benefit of themselves and the organization (Armstrong 2009). The focus, however, is not just about past performance but the future in terms of what an entity needs to be able to do and how things should improve for the better.

Managing performance is about managing for results and it is how the frontline service providers, who have become the public’s benchmark on how the overall organization performs, are doing their jobs. Councils, in a decentralized setup, as a service provider are also concerned with how their front-line officers are doing the job so as to ensure that the citizens receive a better deal in terms of service delivery. This paper will discuss the years between 2000 and 2005 when Malawi councils had councillors in place, pursuing the performance targets. The councillors through the standing committees and full assembly meetings of the councils played a critical role as their mandate was to consult the grassroots on specific issues falling within their domains and ensuring that these issues saw their way into the targets set in the standing committees and full assembly meetings. Although the consultation was limited to the affluent few, this arrangement gave the citizens a chance through representation to track and influence performance. In the period between the second quarter of 2005 and 19th May 2014, Local Councils had no councillors. Local Government elections were postponed due to several reasons including; the lack of funds, diversion of funds meant for elections to purchase maize due to a famine, the poor performance of councillors in their first term and Commissioners not being appointed thus making it difficult for the Malawi Electoral Commission to facilitate elections (Chasukwa et al, 2014; Tambulasi, 2011). The silent narrative leading to the absence of councillors was that the ruling party was not ready to face the electorate and did not want to be bruised in an election for fear of tainting its public image. More importantly, the ruling party would have lost control of local level politics, hence making it difficult for it to implement its policies. Whilst the party was getting organized, the best strategy was that of postponing elections by giving official narratives that became dominant (Cammack et al, 2007; Chasukwa and Chinsinga, 2013; Tambulasi, 2007).

This paper is limited to the period where Local Councils in Malawi operated without councillors between 2005 and 2013. The paper seeks to generate discussions regarding the question of who was ensuring that front line officers in the councils were efficiently and effectively delivering services in the absence of councillors. Using Lilongwe, Zomba and Balaka District Councils for evidence, the paper reveals that in the absence of councillors after March 2005, it was difficult for the local people to be directly or indirectly be involved in the process of tracking performance against targets and identifying opportunities for improvement in terms of what has to be done and how things can be improved. This has been evidenced by undelivered or ill delivered development projects in the councils under study. The paper has argued that in the absence of councillors the active role of the people at the grassroots in performance management for service delivery remained a farfetched dream.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Decentralization: A Brief Overview

Historically, African countries have experienced fused, personalized and highly centralized governance systems and public administration practices. In pre-colonial times kings or traditional leaders represented all authority. During the colonial and immediate post-colonial periods, governance was structured and practised in a highly centralized manner. Post-colonial governments in many countries were replaced by military dictatorships in which governance was practically personalized. The search for inclusive, involving, and participatory governance was sought to be achieved through decentralization. Political and administrative reforms that have been going on in many countries in Africa, especially since the 1990s, have sought to break with the past through the decentralization of powers to local governments, (Kauzya 2007).

The term decentralization embodies several concepts including devolution, deconcentration, delegation and delocalization. Decentralized governance is increasingly being favoured by many African countries as the most suitable mode of governance through which poverty reduction interventions can be conceived, planned, implemented, monitored and evaluated. Many hope that the process of decentralization will facilitate greater participation of communities in problem analysis, project identification, planning, implementation as well as oversight which in turn will increase ownership and the likelihood of sustainability of such initiatives (Chikulo, 2007, Rondinelli, et al, 1983; Ribot, 2004.). From an array of types of decentralisation, the popular ones are devolution and deconcentration. Johnson (2001:523), refers to deconcentration as a process “in which local bodies are asked (or, more appropriately, instructed) to assume responsibilities that have traditionally been carried out by central line agencies; and devolution, as the

process in which local bodies are granted the political and financial authority to undertake these duties.” The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) cited in Akudugu, (2013:1405) indicates that, “The aim of deconcentration has been to increase the local input to policy design in order to increase policy efficiency, while the aim of devolution is to increase policy effectiveness by developing entirely new policies as well as to improve governance by bringing decision-making closer to the people affected.”

Considering the purported benefits of democracy in relation to grassroots empowerment, a second wave of decentralisation was globally observed in an increasing number of developing countries by the beginning of the 1990s (Olsen, 2007). It was envisaged that political decentralisation or devolution (transfer of powers to elected local governments) as opposed to the earlier variant of decentralisation - deconcentration (the transfer of authority and responsibility from one level of the central government to another, with the local unit accountable to the central government ministry or agency which has been decentralised) would deliver better results due to its inclusive aspects. However, studies show that despite most African countries taking the path of devolution, in practice they pursued deconcentration. To this effect, Crawford (2009) notes re-centralisation as a mode of governance in Ghana despite a clear policy and legal framework that indicates devolution. Chikulo (2007) observes the same with Zambia where councillors are elected depicting devolution but appointed officials wield much power because of their technical knowledge and decision making positions. In Tanzania, re-centralisation and deconcentration is pursued by way of financially constraining Local Councils so much so that the centre pulls the strings from behind (van Dijk, 2008). The strategy of financially suffocating Local Councils to create room for central government dominance is also observed in Mozambique, Uganda, Zimbabwe and Kenya (Makumbe, 1999; Wunsch and Ottemoeller, 2004; Smoke, 2004).

Performance Management and its importance in Local Government

There is a temptation to use the concepts of performance management and performance appraisal interchangeably although the two concepts vary in meaning. Performance management refers to a systematic process of improving organizational performance by developing the performance of individuals and teams (Armstrong 2009). It is a means of getting better results by understanding and managing performance within an agreed framework of planned goals, standards and competency requirements (Armstrong 2009). As pointed out earlier, Weiss and Hartle (1997) cited by Armstrong (2009 p.618), looks at performance management as “a process of establishing a shared understanding about what is to be achieved and how it is to be achieved , and an approach to managing people that increases the probability of achieving success.”

Performance management has the following major concerns which are also applicable in local governments. Firstly it is concerned with aligning individual staff members' objectives to organizational objectives and encouraging individuals to uphold organizational core values. Secondly, it is concerned with enabling expectations to be defined and agreed in terms of roles, responsibilities and accountabilities (expected to do), skills (expected to have), and behaviours (expected to be). Lastly its focus is on providing opportunities for individuals to identify their own goals and develop their skills and competencies. In terms of overall objectives, performance management aims at developing the capacity of people to meet and exceed expectations and achieve their full potential to the benefit of themselves and the organization, (Armstrong 2009).

In contrast, performance appraisal is a means of evaluating an employee's current and past performance relative to his/her performance standards. It is a formal, systematic assessment of how well employees are performing their jobs in relation to established standards and the communication of that assessment to employees. The main objective of the performance appraisal system is to exercise control over the activities of the employees through disciplinary actions and the management of rewards and promotions. Traditional public administration models utilized performance appraisals which did not pay particular attention to the measurement of performance. Individual employees were appraised confidentially, without targets, and the approach was historical, with no opportunity to improve. Performance appraisal, laid much emphasis on behavioural or personality characteristics such as loyalty, dependability, punctuality, honesty and so on as central attributes for evaluation of an individual employee (Dzimbiri 2008:46). The supervisors were expected to rate their employees on certain traits ranging between a scale of unsatisfactory to outstanding performance and these ratings were susceptible to various errors like central tendency, bias, halo effect, etc. Performance appraisals were mostly carried out annually for measuring the degree of accomplishment of an individual and were implemented on a top down basis in which the supervisors had a major role to play in judging the performance of an employee without soliciting active involvement of the employee.

Performance appraisals were mostly discredited because it was backward looking concentrating largely on the employee's inabilities and flaws over a period of a year instead of looking forward by identifying the development needs of the employees and improving them. This therefore has made organizations to adopt performance management. The focus of performance management is the future – what do you need to be able to do and how can you do things better? Managing performance is about managing for results and it is how the frontline service providers who are manning the counter, who have become the public's benchmark on how the overall organization performs. Councils in a decentralized setup, as a service provider are also concerned with how their front-line officers are doing the job

so as to ensure that the citizens receive a better deal in terms of service delivery. Performance Management is concerned with achieving the following: Aligning individual objectives to organizational objectives and encouraging individuals to uphold corporate core values, enabling expectations to be defined and agreed in terms of role responsibilities and accountabilities (expected to do), skills (expected to have), and behaviours (expected to be) and lastly providing opportunities for individuals to identify their own goals and develop their skills and competencies (Armstrong 2009).

Performance management is considered to be an important element of good governance and has played a crucial role in the management of public services where it has been implemented. This paper considers that participation and accountability are twin critical ingredients for both performance management and good governance.

Participation and Accountability

Participation is another term with both political and development dimensions. From the political point of view, participation is defined as an organized opportunity for citizens, public and private organizations to express their opinions on general policy goals or concrete decisions made about specific projects and to discuss them with decision makers. Whilst Mathur (1996:19) refers to participation as "...a kind of local autonomy in which people discover the possibilities of exercising choice and, thereby, becoming capable of managing their own affairs," Verba (1967:55) defines political participation as "...acts by those not formally empowered to make decisions aiming at influencing the behaviour of those who have such decisional power."

Participation can take different forms. At the local level, depending on the issue, participation may be: direct, representational (by selecting representatives from membership based groups and associations), political (through elected representatives), and information-based (with data aggregated and reported directly or through intermediaries to local and national decision makers). In this context, participation enables citizens to play a role in enabling service providers prioritize what has to be achieved, how and the future plans.

Regarding accountability, Narayan (2002: 17) defines accountability as "...the ability to call public officials, private employers, or service providers to account, requiring that they be answerable for their policies, actions, and use of funds." Again, accountability has been succinctly defined by Stewart (1992: 4) as involving "...giving an account for actions taken and being held to account for those actions." The proposition here is that accountability operates within the circles of 'for what' and 'to whom.' Accountability involves two parties namely the principal and

agent. The principal in an accountability relationship is the “...one who holds to account” and the agent is the one who “accounts and is held to account.” The need for accountability arises because the principal seeks to get an agent to do something for him or her. The principal gives the agent resources, or delegates, power for a purpose and wishes to constrain or incentivise the agent to provide value for money and achieve outcomes (Sappington, 1991).

Citizens’ Role in Performance Management through the Committee System

Theoretically, performance management in local councils can help to keep a focus on the service users and citizens who should be at the heart of a local authority’s systems and culture. This starts with community planning in Village Development Committees so that the council and its partners are clear about what is important for local people. This must follow through to what the authority is trying to achieve. Including citizens and incorporating their views in the performance management cycle is essential to maintaining user focus (Malawi Government, 2000). Many local authorities excel at designing and carrying out consultation but are less successful at integrating this information into decision-making and performance management in council affairs especially where that participation of the people in the Council affairs is done through the councillors through the Council Full Meetings and Council Service Committee meetings.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND DECENTRALISATION IN MALAWI: RATIONALE, STRUCTURE AND FUNCTIONS OF COUNCILLORS

Rationale for Decentralization in Malawi

In most developing countries, political and administrative decentralization, founded on the principles of good governance, have been adopted in order to promote community participation in development and decision-making. The period from the early 1970s to early 1980s saw renewed interest in decentralized systems of local governance by the third world governments generally, with an aim of building good governance which is interpreted as greater transparency and pluralism (Crook: 1994:339). It is argued that, politically, decentralization is considered as a means to promote community participation in policy formulation, which is taken as a right and a necessity of political democracy. This entails putting in place mechanisms to empower the grassroots so that they can participate effectively. Administratively, decentralization is regarded as a key strategy that facilitates effective coordination and promotes community participation in development planning and implementation of development policies (Hussein: 2005:271). In the late 1980s, a potentially significant new impetus was given to decentralization as African states became subjected to external as well as internal democratic pressures so as to give a chance to citizens to participate in decision making.

In 1998, the Malawi Government adopted a National Decentralisation Policy and passed a new Local Government Act based on the 1995 Constitution in which Local Government was enshrined. The Act was amended in 2010. The Policy and the Act provide for the establishment of Local Councils as the key institutions to deliver social and economic services more efficiently. Specifically, Malawi's National Decentralization Policy (1998, 2) promotes popular participation in the governance and development of districts. As a policy objective, among others, the National Decentralization Policy seeks to “create a democratic environment and institutions in Malawi for governance and development at the local level which will facilitate the participation of the grassroots in decision making” (ibid). Thus the National Decentralisation Policy and the Local Government Act (1998) describe a devolution model for decentralisation. The National Decentralisation Policy therefore seeks to devolve powers, functions, responsibilities, and resources to enable Local Governments to perform their roles adequately. This is expected to improve the delivery of public goods and services to people at all levels in an effort to reduce poverty levels in Malawi. This is also what is referred to as political decentralisation.

Organizational structure of the Council

The authoritative structure of the Council is the Council meeting. Apart from the Council Meetings that enable councillors to discharge their duties of representation and deliberation, the assemblies have Committees namely Finance Committee, Development Committee, Education Committee, Works Committee, Health and Environment Committee, and Appointments and Disciplinary Committee (Malawi Decentralisation Policy, 1998:9). A councillor's role in performance management is also played in these sub committees.

The focal point of decentralization in Malawi is the District Council also called Local Government Authorities. The new Local Government is made up of District Councils, Cities and Municipalities (which are regarded as Districts in their own right). The District Councils were established by merging two parallel structures, namely, the District Administration (District Commissioners office) and District Councils. Currently, there are forty (40) District Councils (city and town assemblies are districts in their own right). In terms of structure, each District Council has the political structure and the management structure. According to section 5 of the Local Government Amendment Act (2010), the political structure consists of councillors elected from each ward in the local government area and they hold office for a period of five years, Members of Parliament (before the amendment these were non-voting members in the period under study before the amendment occurred) from the constituencies that fall within the local government area, Traditional Authorities from the local government area, as non-voting members (ex

officio) and five persons, as non-voting members, to be appointed by the elected members to cater for the interests of special interest groups as the Council may determine” (section 3, 1 a-d), The same Amendment Act also substitutes Assembly with Council (s. 2a).

The political structure is responsible for policy formulation and promotion of good governance principles such as political accountability, transparency and citizen participation in local government affairs under the leadership of the chairperson or mayor. The political leader is elected from among the councillors during the first meeting of the District Council held within 14 days after local government elections (Local Government Act of 1998, section 7). The management structure, which is also called the District Secretariat, consists of all administrators and directors, and is responsible for implementing various sector programme policies and activities under the leadership of the District Commissioner or Chief Executive (Malawi Government, 2000).

Councillors conform to the good governance spirit by participating in the assembly and committee meetings where the members of the secretariat are held accountable on some activities. It can be argued here that for the purposes of advancing the good governance agenda, it is in order that the Local Governments are designed in a way that they are composed of the secretariat and assembly with the former executing the administrative functions whilst the latter are predominantly discharging the policy making function on behalf of the people at the grassroots. The secretariat is the professional entity whilst the Office of the Chairman is a political body composed of locally elected representatives. In the context of good governance, the political arm of the assembly is well placed to help government in promoting and consolidating good governance at the local level for the reason that the political arm is responsible for the realization of most of the tenets of good governance such as participation and accountability. Councillors represent people at the grassroots (participation) and they get the explanations from the public officials on some of their actions and behaviour (accountability). With this reasoning, the incorporation of councillors into the local government system was a good idea if good local governance is to be promoted.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study was carried out in three districts namely Balaka, Lilongwe and Zomba. Local Councils were targeted as entry points by virtue of being mandated to discharge local governance affairs at the district and community levels as per the Local Government Act. The districts were randomly sampled through a fishbowl technique. Operationalization of the study was done at the ward level since that is the usual unit of analysis when the discussion centres on councillors and Local

Governments as is the case for this study. Inspired by the objectives of the study, a mixed research methodology that was skewed towards qualitative research design was engaged. Qualitative research design was heavily utilized because the objectives had much to do with understanding performance management in the absence of councillors based on narratives and facts that are best handled by qualitative research techniques. Schutt (2011: 333) defines narrative analysis as “a form of qualitative analysis in which the analyst focuses on how respondents impose order on the flow of experiences in their lives and so make sense of events in which they have participated.” Data was collected from different sources to allow triangulation so as to enhance reliability of findings. Qualitative data was collected through Key Informant Interviews (KIIs), Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and Literature Review whilst Quantitative data was collected through questionnaires. Literature review consulted Council documents including District Development Plans, Socio-Economic Profiles, Annual Monitoring and Evaluation Reports, and Local Development Planning System Handbook. KIIs and FGDs were carried out using a semi-structured guide that permitted flexibility and probing. Key Informants were bureaucrats, Officers from NGOs working in local governance sector and influential figures at the national and local level including District Commissioners, Directors of Planning and Development, District Monitoring and Evaluation Officers, traditional leaders, Chairpersons of Area Development Committees (ADC) and Village Development Committees (VDC) and Directors of Finance based at the Councils. Participants in FGDs were members of ADC and VDC. Key informants and participants in FGDs were purposively sampled because they were supposed to provide key insights on the issues under investigation. Some of the key informants were sampled through the snowball method whereby they were recommended by their fellow key informants. One-hundred thirty (130) questionnaires were self-administered by the researchers in all three districts at the ward level. In terms of data analysis, qualitative data was analysed using content analysis techniques whereas quantitative data was processed by the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) and outputs were frequencies and cross-tabulations.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Lilongwe District Council, Zomba District Council and Balaka Town Council in consonance with the Local Government Act operated through the Assembly Service Committees that acted as the workshop of the Assembly. Lilongwe District Assembly had seven service committees namely finance, development, health and environment, education, human resources, public works, agriculture and natural resources (Lilongwe District Socio-Economic Profile, 2006:7). Zomba District Council and Balaka Town Council had six Service Committees namely finance, planning and development, education, works, health and environment and appointment and disciplinary (Balaka Town Assembly, 2004:61-2; Zomba Socio

Economic Profile 2002). The service committees were composed of the councillors as the voting members and MPs, chiefs, representatives of the interest groups as ex-officio. Depending on the nature of work by the committee, the head of the directorates was the secretariat and ex-officio.

Participation of the people in council matters, in particular service committees, was mainly done through the councillor who was their elected representative. The mode of operation was that the councillors consulted the people on the issues that he was to present in the meetings for a detailed discussion. When the matter survived the service committee discussions, it was presented to the Full Council Meeting for ratification or rejection. With the dissolution of Councils, it was found that the service committees are no longer operational (Lilongwe Socio-Economic Profile, 2006:7). Further to this, the current organogram has not created some structures equivalent to the service committees in terms of the nature of work and the stratum. In other words, unlike the period between November 2000 and March 2005 where the assembly structures were devolved to the grassroots in the sense that the service committees operated below the Assembly Full Meetings, the current organizational structure has not devolved the means of participation to the people at the lowest possible level. The sanctioned closest structure to the people is the Consultative Committee that is to a large extent detached from the common man as it operates at the secretariat level.

Because of the centralization of participation and absence of the councillors as representatives, public participation has been negatively affected. From the FGDs, it emerged that though councillors did not consult so often the people at public meetings, they had the tendency of consulting specific groups of people in the society such as chiefs and religious leaders. At a FGD in TA Mazengera, Lilongwe District Assembly, the participants observed that “...*the councillor was mainly serving the chief not us the local people...he used to hold his meetings in the church and only chiefs and party officials were invited. The invited were those from his stronghold.*” The picture painted above is that councillors acted as agents of specific groups in the society. The consultation of the other members of the society was at the will of the councillor. From the foregoing, it can be argued that in absence of councillors, all members or groups of the society have difficulties in accessing the local government machinery so as to have their input considered by the secretariat when making decisions that even affect them. The absence of the councillors has further weakened the link between the people and the council and enhanced the disfranchisement of the people from the assemblies.

In the absence of the councillors, the affluent felt the link between them and the assembly was broken and the idea of the council being a catalyst for ‘Power to People’ was no longer making sense. This is evidenced in Zomba, especially at

Thondwe where most of the decisions implemented are those that are commonly decided at secretariat level, since service beneficiaries had no say as regards to what projects should be prioritized. For instance, the visit revealed that people were not involved in the designing of the market shades as evidenced by shunning the use of concrete benches by the fishmongers who argued that the benches are too high to enable visibility of their goods, there were no; decent toilets, decent butcheries, adequate water points and rubbish pits remained unemptied. This is despite the market users paying user fees and constantly reporting the problems to the council offices. Despite various complaints being sent to the District Council's Office the benches remain abandoned. The negative feeling towards the councils reflect that people no longer have power to influence what has to be achieved in the absence of locally elected representatives was confirmed. 62.7% of the respondents were of the view that it does not belong to them anymore whilst 37.3% thought it still belongs to them. What is evident here therefore is that the citizens played a role in performance management in terms of contributing in deciding what has to be achieved, how it should be done and future areas of improvement through their councillors although the consultation by the councillors was limited to the affluent of the society. With no councillors, it was difficult for even the affluent within the communities to take any meaningful role in performance management.

Participation and the 'death' of Full Assembly Meetings

As per the dictates of the Standing Orders guiding Assembly meetings, assemblies are required to meet quarterly. This implies that assemblies are required by law to meet at least four times in a year. Full Assembly Meetings are an opportunity offered to the public to participate in government transactions either indirectly through the councillors or directly as empowered by Section 23 (1) of LGA which states that "... the meetings of the Assembly including meetings of any committee, sub-committee or joint committee shall be open to the public and the press." Full Assembly Meetings are enshrined in the national laws as a matter of being in tandem with the aspiration of enhancing good governance as contained in the National Decentralisation Policy (1998:2); "...to promote good governance and accountability at the local level in order to help Government reduce poverty."

During the tenure of councillors, assemblies did not respect the legal requirement of holding Full Assembly Meetings quarterly in a year largely due to financial constraints (Chinsinga, 2007; Hussein, 2006). For example, Lilongwe District Assembly and Balaka Town Assembly held fourteen (14) and twelve (12) Full Assembly Meetings respectively in the period between November 2000 when the Assemblies were constituted and March 2005 when they were dissolved. Ideally, both of the Assemblies were supposed to have held eighteen (18) Full Assembly Meetings between November 2000 and March 2005. Below is the table capturing

the number of meetings held by Lilongwe District Assembly and Balaka Town Assembly.

Table 1: Full Assembly Meetings Held by Lilongwe District Assembly and Balaka Town Assembly between November 2005 and March 2005

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Lilongwe District Assembly	1	3	3	3	3	1
Balaka Town Assembly	1	2	3	2	3	1

Source: Compiled by the authors from Assembly records (2011)

Based on Table 1 above, it can be argued that though the Assembly did not meet as required, a chance availed itself to the people to participate in the deliberations of the Assembly when such a meeting was being held. The dissolution of councils meant doing away with the Full Assembly Meetings as well because the main actors are the councillors in such meetings. Sight should not be lost of the fact that councillors are the policy makers and the only voting members of the Assembly therefore it did not sound appealing to maintain the institution, as it would be composed of non-voting members.

From the Key Informant Interviews, it was established that in the absence of the councillors, participation of the people in council's decision-making process is meant to be done through the Consultative Committee Meetings that resemble the Full Assembly Meetings. However, the Consultative Committee Meetings in the three years that they have been in existence have proved to be an institution that *"...pushes the local people to the periphery of the Council activities"* (MP, Lilongwe District Assembly). The observation is made in line with the fact that *"...the members constituting the Consultative Committees are less motivated to engage the people in local affairs including ensuring that performance targets are met as they do not face them in an elections where they can be voted out. The members of the Consultative Committee feel they can turn their back against the people and play with their mind since they are insulated from the wrath of competitive politics."* (Ex-councillor of Balaka Town Assembly).

The Consultative Committees are composed of MPs, Traditional Leaders, Secretariat staff, and representatives of special interest groups (Chinsinga, 2008).

The observation is that the members of the Consultative Committees are simply not motivated to get in touch with the people whilst the people do not link up with them because they are not aware of the existence of the Consultative Committee

and its members as their representatives. The sample survey indicates that only 1.3% of the respondents are aware of CCs and 98.7% are not aware of the CCs. From the respondents that have heard about the CCs, none of them has attended one.

The secretariat as members of the Consultative Committees are central government employees whose jobs do not depend on popularity at the grassroots but their satisfactory performance at the headquarters. Chiefs as well command traditional authority and their positions are ascribed, not achieved, hence their popularity is not really subjected to the test of their subjects. However, MPs are elected and their popularity matters most if they are to maintain the seat. In the absence of councillors, they took advantage of the leadership vacuum to enhance their popularity by focusing on local level representation instead of national representation. However, the kind of representation was confrontational hence limiting effectiveness of the ideas they wanted the secretariat to address. The above discussion indicates that the Consultative Committee Meetings fail to meet the objective of their establishment: that of promoting participation for the local people in performance management.

Faced with the laissez faire attitude of the Consultative Committee, meetings are held rarely. This has reduced the levels of public engagement in performance management even further as compared to the time when councillors were in office. Records indicate that at Lilongwe District Council and Balaka Town Council, 5 and 3 Consultative Meetings respectively have been held so far as shown below. No extra-ordinary Consultative Meetings have been held in all assemblies. If we are to compare this with the first four years of Councillors in power, this means that the number of Full Assembly Meetings had reduced by 50 percent in the case of Lilongwe District Assembly whilst the decrease in the number of Full Assembly meetings at Balaka Town Assembly is by 62 percent. This shows that the councillors were more active than the individuals now running the assembly; the bureaucrats, chiefs, MPs and representatives of interest groups. Table 2 below shows details on the Consultative Committee Meetings held in a year in Lilongwe District Assembly and Balaka Town Assembly for the first four years that they have been in operation.

Table 2: Number of Meetings held by Consultative Committees in Lilongwe and Balaka Town Assembly.

	2005	2006	2007	2008
Lilongwe District Assembly	0	1	2	1
Balaka Town Assembly	0	0	2	2

Source: Compiled by the authors from Assembly records

Closure of the Invited Space for participation and the Weakening of the Voice

The process of decentralization can itself enhance the opportunities for participation by placing more power and resources at a level of government that is closer to the people and therefore influenced more easily (Rondinelli and Nellis, 1983). As indicated in the foregoing, the conviction is on the basis that decentralization brings the public machinery closer to the people. This conviction is contained as well in the definition of decentralization as "...the transfer of power and responsibility from the Central Government of a state to various offices and institutions at the local level of a state." (Chiweza, 2007:139). Defining decentralization from a democratic perspective is even more succinct in expressing the view that decentralization takes down the government to the grassroots. Democratic decentralization refers to "...the transfer of powers and resources to authorities representative of, and downwardly accountable to, local populations, and can be considered an institutionalised form of participatory development." (Vedeld, 2003:160) The above understanding of decentralization implies the need to create institutions at the grassroots that will be a podium for local people to express their voice.

In Malawi, the decentralization efforts have been guided both in theory and practice as a catalyst for opening up of the political environment that will result in the engagement of the local citizenry. The existence of formal channels of participation that are even recognized by law, in particular the LGA, bear witness to the enthusiasm that accompanies the decentralization drive as far as enhancement of participation is concerned. As stipulated in Section 14 (1) (3) of LGA 1998 and Local Government Elections, some of the structures include Service Assembly Committees, Committees at either ward or village level, and Elections respectively.

The above mentioned channels of participation represent the spaces that decentralization invited people to participate in at the local level. 'Invited Spaces' mean "...opportunities, moments, and channels where citizens can act to potentially affect policies, discourses and decisions and relationships that affect their lives and interests." (Gaventa, 2006:26). The absence of the councillors has meant revising the structures and in the interim organogram, and as has already been stated, the Service Assembly Committees and the Full Assembly Meetings do not feature. It is worth noting that the directorates at the assembly should not be confused with the Service Assembly Committees as directorates are composed of technical people whilst the Service Assembly Committees consists of elected representatives with only the concerned head of the directorate as the secretary and ex-officio. The directorates are still operational. The claim to the effect that "...the lack of councillors has not affected us because we are still delivering the services" by the DPD of Lilongwe District Assembly was made in the context that directorates are intact-but not Service Assembly Committees.

With the lack of councillors, the invited space has been withdrawn as these institutions no longer exist. This scenario has implied the closing down of the spaces to which people were invited for a state-citizen engagement on policies initiated by government. The closing down of such a space has led to the weakening of voice. According to Cammack, et al, (2007:31), the impact of lack of councillors that has had on the participation of the grassroots is the reduction of "...the capacity of people-including the poor and most marginalised-to express views and interests and demand action of those in power." Through the loss of such channels of participation, it can be argued that what has been weakened if not lost in total is the capacity of the people to access information from the assembly, scrutinise the decisions and actions of the bureaucrats, and demand responses on the queries raised in view of influencing the governance process.

The closure of this invited space is a setback to the good governance project vis-à-vis participation of the people in local level affairs in two ways. Firstly, the closed invited space is the formal space with democratic values as a result people have turned out to the utilization of informal space whose guarantee of service is not assured of and often times with cosmetic democratic and good governance principles. For instance, in view of the foregoing, it was established during FGDs that people in TA Mazengera have formed organizations at the Group Village Headman level commonly referred to as a CBO, as a channel to be used for the purposes of linking up with the assembly, non-government organisations, religious leaders and other partners in development. The existence of the community based organisation (CBO) in the community was confirmed by the questionnaires where 75% of the respondents said they know the CBO and 60 % of those who know the existence of the CBO have participated in its activities. For those that have participated in the CBO activities, 52% are female. The CBO wears the artificial face of democracy in the sense that despite the fact that leadership that is elected, traditional leaders who are the overall in charge is the Senior Traditional Authority for the area whereas the Group Village Headman is the commandant at the village level are in command of affairs as they pull strings from behind. The closing down of the invited space for participation also has implications on good governance vis-à-vis participation in the way that the action will delay process of activating the mind of people towards critical thinking that is associated with the voice considering that "...the previous local governments under Dr. Kamuzu Banda leadership were repressive and authoritarian" (Hussein, 2005; Chiweza, 2007; Chinsinga, 2007). Further to this, Malawi already had an intermittent existence of local governments. The LGA was enacted in 1998 but the Assemblies were constituted in November 2000; two years of no proper Local Government as defined by the LGA (1998).

Poor Representation by the Interim Representatives

The dissolution of the local governments has led to the reconfiguration of the assemblies as a temporary measure. Power dynamics among the old players left behind and those newly incorporated has taken a new twist with each trying to grab the attention of the local people. Of interest is the work relationship between the MPs and chiefs because of their focus and association with the community as compared with the secretariat.

Before dissolution of the assemblies, the work relationship between the MPs and Chiefs was "...at least harmonious from the point of view that both of us were non-voting members of the assembly as such the councillor was our common enemy whom we had to defeat together as voiceless people"(Traditional Leader). Chinsinga (2007:198-9) adds that the relationship between the traditional leaders and MPs was less tense because chiefs "...are considered less an interference and intrusion into the local level politics...and ...MPs assert themselves as prime patrons within the local power structures." With councillors around in the assemblies, the relationships that were strenuous were those between MPs and Councillors, Councillors and Secretariat, Councillors and Traditional Leaders (Chiweza, 2005; Chinsinga, 2007; Chinsinga, 2008; Cammack et.al, 2007; Hussein, 2006).

In the setting where councillors are no longer part of the assemblies, the happy times between the traditional leaders and the MPs are numbered as the reality on the ground is that these two parties have engaged themselves in a battle over legitimacy and supremacy. The battle on legitimacy and supremacy in local affairs "...could not rise in the presence of councillors because both the MPs and traditional leaders knew that the legitimate and authoritative individual on local matters was the Councillor" (Bureaucrat). MPs claim that they are in better position to take over from Councillors even in the capacity of voting members because just as Councillors, they are elected. Traditional leaders shoot down this idea on the basis that MPs are "...town-based hence do not know the problems of the people, consult members of their political party, and the assembly is not their august house" (Traditional Leader). Traditional leaders see themselves as the right people to sit in for Councillors on the grounds that "...we are community-based just as Councillors were also community-based" (Traditional Leader). In the eyes of MPs, traditional leaders cannot sit in for Councillors because "...they are not elected hence lack democratic flavour" (MP). The dispute is on the claims over the legitimate agent of the people. However, in an interview with the DPD for Lilongwe District Assembly, he was of the view that the dispute between the traditional leaders and chiefs existed in latent form during the tenure of councillors. Now that the opportunity has availed itself, the assemblies are to experience more of the wrangles between the two. Conyers (2008) notes that these disputes can

be particularly intense where democratic rules are unclear or in transition as in many post-conflict or post-authoritarian settings. Malawi is a nation in a post-authoritarian regime and as such dispute should not come as a surprise especially where the controversies on the voting rights for the non-elected members of the assembly have not been settled.

The status quo in the setting where there are no councillors in the assemblies, relatively, the local people opt for the MPs to be the middlemen in their transactions with the local governments as compared to us the traditional leaders primarily because of their clientelism politics and secondarily because they are better educated and well connected to the central government. Basically, this is about patronage politics. When asked who would they first approach with their problems between the MP and the Chief, 76 % of the respondents said they would first go to the MP because “...naturally they like hearing the problems of people and help them especially this time around that elections are near” (Participant FGD, Lilongwe District Council).When the foregoing enquiry was made with the MPs and councillors, respondents maintained that they would first approach the MP rather than the councillor with the score of 69% though 73.3% confessed that councillors are the ones that are easily accessible.

With the existing tug of war between the MPs and traditional leaders, the quality of representation has been affected. This is to say that what comes from people as expectations from the assembly through traditional leaders and MPs does not tally with the output because of the struggle in the black box on the “authoritative allocation of values for the society.” (Easton, 1953:129) The mismatch of the input and output represents poor representation necessitated not by inability to grab the demands/requests from the local people but rather due to the competition and tendency to outdo each other on the part of the representatives. The loser in the whole show is the project on promotion of good governance vis-à-vis participation as the delivery of services that have not been asked for or not delivering at all is a breeding ground for anti-participation. Political participation is goal-oriented. As such an individual will participate in political activities when the probability is that through his or her, he or she will achieve his or her goal. (Verba, 1969:64)

Politics between the traditional leaders and MPs is played out in the District Consultative Committees aiming at frustrating each other. This is manifested in District Consultative meetings “...where MPs and traditional leaders shoot down each other proposals not on merit but because it is that camp coming up with the idea” (Bureaucrat). An example is drawn from Lilongwe District Assembly where the MP for the area frustrated the proposal from Senior Chief Mazengera to build a Full Primary School at Waya when the VDC had already bought the idea. “..... The proposal was rejected on grounds that the TA was interfering with his duties”

(Bureaucrat). “.....The same experience happened in Balaka Town Assembly, the MP for Balaka South constructed Utale Police Unit against the wishes of the chiefs who wanted to have a school block on the grounds of meddling with his job” (Bureaucrat). The reason given by the MPs (thus, interfering with their job) sound fictitious considering that the projects proposed were of CDF where communities are “...responsible for the initiation of projects with the involvement of the MP” (Bureaucrat). (MoLGRD-CDF Guidelines, 2006:6) The CDF encourages the adoption of a co-management approach but the MP in this case “...claims to be the sole legitimate owner of the fund considering that it comes from parliament where he/she is a member”(Bureaucrat).

The absence of the councillors that has given birth to the conflict between the traditional leaders and chiefs has also affected the quality of representation and participation of the local people by being an additional burden on their capabilities. In addition to the tug of war, the MPs and traditional leaders have a limited mandate on local affairs such they can only make things move to a certain level thereafter, they are incapacitated. Instead of working in unison so as to enhance the voice and take advantage of numbers in pushing things on behalf of the grassroots, time and energy is diverted towards the ‘pull down syndrome.’

CONCLUSION

Decentralization can be a way of improving access to services by the citizens. However, the district councils will only be effective to deliver the locally demanded services if the citizens participate directly or indirectly in setting the performance targets and in the determination of future improvements. This was only possible when the councillors were present. Although the councillors only consulted the affluent of the society, namely MPs, traditional leaders, business people among others, however, this still gave a chance to the citizens to participate in performance management. In the absence of councillors however the citizens were relegated to the periphery as even the affluent of the communities do not have a chance to influence performance targets in the district councils. The members of the consultative committees do not necessarily take it upon themselves to consult the grassroots on how things should be done or what kind of services should be delivered and of what quality. In the absence of councillors, the citizens’ role to enhance performance management was constrained because of lack of structures that are meant to facilitate involvement of the grassroots in Council operations. The paper is of the view, in the absence of councillors; performance management of district council frontline staff was a farfetched dream.

The paper recommends that now that the councillors are back, councils should revamp the structures to facilitate the engagement between councillors and the

grassroots considering that a decade passed without councillors. This implies training all stakeholders on their roles so as to avoid confusion that engulfed the first term of councillors between 2000 and 2005. Against the backdrop that MPs are now voting members of the council as per the Local Government Act amendment that was passed in 2010, it is critical that local spaces should be monitored to avoid their appropriation by MPs who are mainly central government actors. The call for civic education on roles of different actors and protection of local spaces from being appropriated is extended to all players (including civil society organizations) in the field of local governance because if the task is only left in the hands of councils, it may not be adequately executed because of financial constraints.

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**UN CAS PRATIQUE DU CAMEROUN
INTITULE: LA CULTURE DU SERVICE:
FACTEUR DETERMINANT POUR UN SERVICE
PUBLIC DE QUALITE**

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RÉSUMÉ

La question de performance dans les Administrations Publiques est devenue préoccupante pour tous les Etats Africains parce qu'elle participe du développement de nos pays. Les agents publics sont l'un des outils les plus importants pour l'atteinte des objectifs fixés et s'ils sont défaillants, entraînent drastiquement la baisse du rendement. C'est ainsi qu'à l'instar de l'Administration Publique Camerounaise, beaucoup de tares et de déviances sont constatées: le vol, le détournement des fonds publics, la corruption, l'absence de comptabilité, le laxisme, le tribalisme, le sectarisme, le copinage, le parrainage...etc.

Conséquence, l'intérêt général est bafoué au profit des intérêts égoïstes des quelques individus.

Cependant ces phénomènes ont des causes bien fondées: faibles revenus des agents publics, long circuit des dossiers administratifs, impunité des agents publics sur leur gestion, absence des procédures efficaces, enrichissement sans effort et cupidité, la considération de l'Etat comme « une vache à lait », absence de profil des carrières... etc.

Pour remédier à cette situation, il faut corriger les mentalités des agents publics dénuées de toutes valeurs, en s'appuyant sur les nouvelles règles et pratiques managériales des ressources humaines (le New Public Management, NPM). Ces méthodes, liées au rendement au travail (culture d'entreprise), à la valorisation et à la motivation de l'agent public, apparaissent comme la panacée à ce problème.

*D'où l'inspiration du thème de notre exposé: « **la culture du service: facteur déterminant pour un service public de qualité** ».*

Mots Clés: Performance - GAR - Culture (du service public et d'entreprise) - Agent public et service public - New Public Management - Motivation- Division du travail - Humanisation du travail.

INTRODUCTION GENERALE

La notion de performance est liée au rendement ou aux résultats; le concept de « performance » englobe à la fois la double dimension de l'efficacité et de l'efficience.

Au Cameroun, la qualité des services rendus aux usagers dans le cadre de la gestion, est devenue la priorité du gouvernement;

L'agent public camerounais doit apprendre à bien servir l'Etat et non à se servir; **d'où la nécessité impérative de la culture du service comme remède à cette gangrène**

Le développement de la notion de culture du service public peut-il contribuer efficacement à l'amélioration du rendement de l'administration publique camerounaise?

Telle est la question à laquelle nous allons tout au long de cet exercice, essayer d'apporter plus d'éclairage; ce travail sera réparti en quatre parties:

- i) Problématique et fondements théoriques de la culture du service dans l'administration Camerounaise;
- ii) Aspects conceptuels de la culture du service;
- iii) Implications théoriques et pratiques de la culture du service;
- iv) Propositions et conclusion.

Problématique et fondements théoriques de la culture du service dans l'administration publique camerounaise:

Formulation et présentation du problème:

- Constats;
- Causes:
- Faible revenu;
- Absence de visibilité et la longueur du circuit administratif suivi par les dossiers;
- Impunité de l'agent qui ne rend pas compte sur les ressources à lui affectées;
- Le rendement de l'Administration n'est plus la préoccupation majeure de l'agent public.

Position du problème:

La bonne gestion des ressources humaines permet-elle de satisfaire les attentes de la fonction publique actuelle?

Formulation des hypothèses:

- Faible niveau de corruption;
- Bonne utilisation des ressources humaines;
- Traitement efficient des usagers et des dossiers administratifs;

Aspects conceptuels de la culture du service au Cameroun et ses différentes théories:

Culture du service public:

Doit-on gérer le service public comme une entreprise?

Trois éléments sont essentiels dans la gestion des ressources humaines: « fairness, Acheivement, relations».

Question: Comment aboutir à la culture du service public?

Réponse: par l'application du Programme National de Gouvernance.

Développer une culture du service public, c'est créer la motivation des salariés en les faisant adhérer aux valeurs, aux objectifs et à l'approche stratégique du gouvernement.

Théories relatives au thème:

- Théorie de la division du travail;
- Théorie de l'humanisation du travail;
- Théorie de la motivation;

Implications théoriques et pratiques:

Implications théoriques: nécessité d'appliquer les règles de gestion des ressources humaines;

Implications pratiques:

- La relecture des méthodes de mobilisation du personnel s'impose;
- La rationalisation de l'utilisation des ressources humaines;
- Le traquage des poches de corruption;
- Le développement des stratégies de réduction des déséquilibres visibles.

PROPOSITIONS ET CONCLUSION:

En termes de propositions, en citer quelques-unes, de la panoplie qu'elles sont:

- Développer des programmes de formation pertinents pour toutes les catégories du personnel;
- Valoriser le travail de l'agent public;
- Elaborer, mettre en œuvre le tableau de bord des ressources humaines;
- Relever les salaires etc.

De manière conclusive, ce travail, qui avait pour but de montrer la place non négligeable de la culture du service public dans l'appréhension de la fonction Ressources Humaines, nous permet d'affirmer de façon édifiante que son développement améliore efficacement le rendement de l'organisation.

INTRODUCTION

La notion de performance est liée au rendement ou aux résultats et s'articule autour de l'efficacité et l'efficience. Le rendement dans les services publics s'observe notamment dans la satisfaction de l'utilisateur.

L'Etat passe alors d'une logique de moyens à une logique de résultats. Ces résultats doivent être SMART c'est-à-dire:

- Spécifiques (parfaitement ciblés);
- Mesurables (déterminer les mesures d'appréciation de la performance);
- Actionnables (pouvant influencer);
- Relevants (pertinents);
- Temps de réalisation (dates butoirs claires).

La gestion performante c'est la Gestion Axée sur les Résultats (GAR); elle est une approche de gestion fondée sur des résultats mesurables répondant à des objectifs et cibles préalablement définis en fonction des services à fournir. Elle s'exerce dans un contexte de transparence, de responsabilisation et de flexibilité quant aux moyens utilisés pour atteindre les résultats visés.

POURQUOI LA GAR?

Pendant très longtemps, les services publics ont porté leur attention sur les intrants (c'est-à-dire ce qu'ils dépensaient), les activités (ce qu'ils réalisaient) et les extrants (ce qu'ils produisaient). Même s'il était important d'avoir des données exactes à ce niveau, ils ont réalisé que ces méthodes et pratiques ne leur permettaient pas de savoir s'ils faisaient des progrès ou pas vers la solution du problème qu'ils désiraient régler et si ces problèmes persistaient malgré les dispositions prises et mises en œuvre.

En définissant clairement les résultats escomptés, en recueillant régulièrement des données pour évaluer les progrès vers ces résultats et en prenant des mesures correctives, les Administrations peuvent maximiser leur productivité et améliorer la qualité des services rendus.

Dans la déclaration de Paris, les pays partenaires s'engagent à mettre en place des cadres d'évaluation et de notification orientés vers les résultats, ces résultats doivent permettre de suivre les progrès réalisés dans la mise en œuvre des principales stratégies nationales et sectorielles en utilisant un nombre limité d'indicateurs. L'indicateur 11 évalue l'existence des cadres d'évaluation des performances.

De par le monde entier, le contrôle citoyen de l'Action publique est apparu durant cette dernière décennie comme étant un facteur essentiel de bonne gouvernance. Au Cameroun (pays situé au cœur de l'Afrique centrale avec une superficie de 475.650Km² et une population de 19.400.000 habitants (INS, Institut National de la Statistique, 3e Recensement de la population et de l'habitat de 2005), limité par le Nigéria, le Tchad, la République du Congo, le Gabon, la Guinée Equatoriale, la République Centrafricaine), la qualité des services rendus aux usagers dans le cadre de la gestion est devenue la priorité du Gouvernement.

L'Administration Publique Camerounaise (APC), comme certaines autres en Afrique, apparaît comme le repère de certaines déviations, des comportements peu recommandables tels les détournements des deniers publics, la corruption, l'absence de comptabilité, le laxisme, le tribalisme, le parrainage etc... Par conséquent, le rendement dans les services publics a connu une baisse remarquable. Des actions doivent donc être menées par l'Etat pour pouvoir mettre un terme à tous ces maux et redéfinir le mandat des personnels de l'Administration.

COMMENT EN SORTIR?

A la suite des divers programmes d'ajustement structurels proposés par les bailleurs de fonds internationaux en vue de juguler la crise économique, les services publics se sont engagés dans un processus de réorientation des approches de gestion, tendant vers une administration de poste de travail, et une moralisation des comportements à la lumière notamment du Programme National de Gouvernance(PNG) qui est destiné à rationaliser les règles de fonctionnement dans la gestion des diverses activités administratives, à restaurer l'orthodoxie d'un service public dépouillé de ses valeurs, et à y introduire de nouvelles attitudes et aptitudes managériales.

Ces nouvelles méthodes viennent donc comme des clés de la motivation et vont permettre la naissance du New Public Management(NPM), la nouvelle gestion publique qui implique un changement des valeurs, croyances, mentalités comportements et attentes des agents publics.

Après réflexion et moult recherches, les résultats nous ont conduits à une constatation: beaucoup de personnes atterrissent dans l'Administration comme parachutés, sans en avoir une vision ou une lecture claire et préalable; on y va parce qu'on ne trouve pas mieux ailleurs. Pour ce faire, ils se livrent à des comportements immoraux, répréhensibles et insatisfaisants qui ne peuvent conduire qu'à une navigation à vue; par conséquent, les objectifs visés à la base ne sont jamais atteints ou plutôt le sont mal.

Que Faire ? Il faut remédier à cette situation en posant des actions concrètes et la démarche que nous avons entreprise tente d'y apporter une solution: changer les mentalités des personnels de nos Administrations en leur inculquant la pratique des règles modernes de déontologie administrative; d'où l'inspiration pour notre sous-thème sur la nécessité impérative de la culture du service dans toutes les structures publiques et parapubliques.

L'objectif général de la présente analyse est de proposer l'introduction dans l'Administration publique camerounaise, de la culture de l'intérêt général; de faire naître chez les travailleurs la vision économique de la rentabilisation des capitaux investis et le souci majeur de valoriser l'Homme (usager ou agent public) en tant que finalité de l'action menée.

Pour les Objectifs spécifiques, la même analyse vise à:

- Contribuer à la réflexion sur la vieille question de la motivation dans les Administrations;
- Développer le sens du service public et le sentiment d'appartenance, de partage d'un destin commun;
- Développer le sens du respect de la chose publique;
- Développer le souci de la productivité dans l'Administration. Cette réflexion sur la culture du service public a un intérêt tridimensionnel:
- Sur le plan social: elle améliore la relation entre agent public et usager (client)
- Sur le plan économique: elle réduit substantiellement les charges et les investissements et améliore plutôt les rendements;
- Sur le plan professionnel: elle valorise le travail de l'agent public.

La problématique est de savoir si le développement de la notion de culture du service public peut contribuer efficacement à l'amélioration du rendement de l'Administration Publique Camerounaise?

Telle est la question à laquelle nous allons essayer d'apporter plus d'éclairage. Ce travail sera réparti en quatre grandes parties:

- i) Problématique et fondements théoriques de la culture du service dans l'administration Camerounaise;
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- iv) Propositions et conclusion.

PROBLEMATIQUE ET FONDEMENTS THEORIQUES DE LA CULTURE DU SERVICE DANS L'ADMINISTRATION CAMEROUNAISE

Cette partie de l'exposé sera consacrée à la justification du sous-thème que nous avons choisi et à la visite de toute la réflexion théorique menée autour de la notion de culture du service dans l'Administration Publique Camerounaise.

Justification du Problème

Elle trouve son origine dans les constats et causes ci-après présentés:

Constats

L'Administration Publique Camerounaise dans l'ensemble, est reconnaissable aujourd'hui à un certain nombre de clichés qui donnent plutôt un sentiment mélancolique malgré les multiples efforts jusque-là consentis par le Gouvernement. D'abord, à la seule pensée d'avoir à solliciter les services de l'Administration Publique, l'utilisateur a des frissons dans le dos par ce qu'il doit se préparer à subir et à supporter l'humeur peu recommandable de l'agent public qui le recevra.

Ensuite, la constitution du dossier administratif lui-même connaît un alourdissement étonnant au vu du nombre infini des pièces à fournir chaque fois; sans oublier le parcours sinueux et opaque que celui-ci doit suivre avant son aboutissement, rendant ainsi difficile sa lisibilité et sa traçabilité à telle enseigne que le phénomène de convocation des usagers pour reconstituer les dossiers ou les pièces perdues est devenu une pratique courante et normale dans l'Administration.

Dès lors, pour se mettre à l'abri des surprises fâcheuses, l'utilisateur doit se laisser proposer ou alors est obligé de proposer lui-même de donner à l'agent public un pourboire destiné soit disant à faire avancer rapidement le dossier, et c'est à partir de là que naît la corruption. A tout ceci vient s'ajouter des comportements discriminatoires tels le favoritisme, le tribalisme, le détournement des fonds publics, le parrainage...etc.

Causes

Ces phénomènes cités plus haut et dont la liste est loin d'être exhaustive ont des explications multiples:

- Le faible revenu des agents publics;
- La considération de l'Etat comme une « vache à lait », une espèce de « gâteau » auquel chaque citoyen a droit à une part;
- L'absence de visibilité et la longueur du circuit administratif suivi par les dossiers;
- L'impunité de l'agent public qui ne rend pas toujours compte de la gestion des ressources à lui affectées;
- L'absence des procédures efficaces;
- L'enrichissement sans effort (la cupidité).

Par conséquent, le rendement même dans l'Administration ne fait plus l'objet d'une préoccupation majeure; il est relégué au deuxième plan au profit des intérêts mercantilistes, égoïstes et individuels.

Hypothèses de solutions

La gestion des ressources humaines est le tendon d'Achille de toute production économique, sociale ou culturelle; son objectif est de satisfaire au mieux et au meilleur coût les besoins en personnel des services publics, de valoriser les compétences de leurs agents, de les gérer logiquement en mettant la bonne personne au bon endroit, « the right man at the right place ».

Peut-elle donc de manière satisfaisante être menée dans un environnement aussi libertin que celui de la fonction publique actuelle? Sinon quelles seraient les exigences managériales de mise en œuvre d'une nouvelle culture du service public?

Formulation des hypothèses: Les hypothèses sont des tentatives de réponses à un problème posé.

Hypothèse générale: Le développement d'une culture du service public est susceptible d'améliorer considérablement l'image et le rendement de l'Administration publique.

Hypothèses de recherche: Elles sont celles qui permettent l'opérationnalisation de l'hypothèse générale:

- i) Le faible niveau de corruption favorise la satisfaction des usagers;
- ii) La bonne gestion et utilisation des ressources humaines favorise un traitement efficace des dossiers administratifs;

ASPECTS CONCEPTUELS DE LA CULTURE DU SERVICE AU CAMEROUN ET SES DIFFERENTES THEORIES:

Cette partie porte essentiellement sur la définition des concepts et sur les théories relatives à l'analyse.

Définition des concepts:

La culture:

- Madeleine Grawitz (1986) dit que c'est « un ensemble des valeurs, des façons de vivre et de penser de tous les membres d'une société »
- Linton lui trouve qu' « une culture est la configuration des comportements appris et de leurs résultats dont les éléments composants sont partagés et transmis par les membres d'une société donnée ».

La culture est donc une sécrétion sociale, fruit des pratiques ayant cours dans un groupe. Elle s'apprend et se transmet selon des canaux spécifiques.

De façon ramassée, la culture peut donc être définie comme étant un ensemble de pratiques et de manières de faire, d'agir, de penser et de sentir, admises par les membres d'une organisation et destinées à assurer l'atteinte des objectifs poursuivis.

La culture d'entreprise

C'est « l'esprit-maison » qui fait qu'ensemble dans l'organisation, nous partageons un but commun. Elle développe la productivité de l'entreprise (qui est une unité de production des biens et des services destinés à la vente, en vue d'effectuer des bénéfices) et forcément réduit les coûts de production. La culture d'entreprise est favorisée par:

- Une valorisation personnelle au sein de l'entreprise;
- Un fort sentiment d'appartenance;
- Une appropriation solidaire du destin de l'entreprise.

La culture du service public

Le service public est un univers non-marchand dont la vocation est de satisfaire l'intérêt général et d'assurer la justice sociale.

L'agent public est un employé au service d'une Administration publique donnée; il est caractérisé par le fait qu'il n'est pas supposé recevoir de l'usager (client) une

quelconque rétribution après service rendu puisqu' il est payé par l'Etat et par conséquent ne peut pas prétendre à percevoir deux salaires.

La culture du service public est donc le développement chez l'agent public d'un esprit d'appartenance et d'identification au service public destiné à rendre service au public conformément aux normes déontologiques de la profession.

Elle est reconnaissable à un certain nombre de caractères:

- Implications personnelle à l'atteinte des objectifs de l'organisation;
- Développement du sentiment d'appartenance;
- Développement du sens du respect de la chose publique.

La culture du service public s'identifiera un tout petit peu à celle de l'entreprise dans la mesure où elle se penchera également sur la nécessité d'optimiser le rendement de l'organisation. La différence entre les deux concepts se situe au niveau de la finalité du rendement qui, pour l'Administration, cherche à satisfaire l'intérêt général et pour l'entreprise, à faire du profit.

Une question mérite d'être examinée ici: doit-on gérer le secteur public comme une entreprise privée?

Le Professeur Francois Pichault de l'Université de Liège/HEC répond négativement, car dit-il toutes les entreprises privées ne sont pas du tout performantes.

Laurant Ledoux quant à lui, pense qu'il est nécessaire de moderniser le service public, mais sans pour autant faire le copier-coller de ce qui se fait dans le privé; à cet effet, trois éléments sont indispensables: « fairness, achèvement, relations ».

- Fairness: sentiment de justice, d'équité, de reconnaissance;
- Achèvement: idée de servir à quelque chose, de réussir, d'être utile;
- Relations: qualité des relations entre les agents d'une part, et entre ces derniers et leur supérieurs d'autres part.

Développer une culture du service public, c'est créer la motivation des salariés en les faisant adhérer aux valeurs, aux objectifs et à l'approche stratégique de l'Administration; l'Administration étant prioritairement orientée vers l'atteinte d'objectifs sociaux et non vers la recherche d'une plus-value mercantile.

Nous pouvons citer quelques indices de la culture du service public et affirmer qu'ils ne peuvent être réalisés que par l'application stricte des mesures proposées dans le Programme National de Gouvernance:

- Le sens élevé de la réalisation de soi au travail;
- La reconnaissance sociale par la hiérarchie;
- Le sentiment d'utilité vis-à-vis des usagers à travers l'appropriation de la stratégie de son Organisation.

Les théories relatives à la performance des services publics

Trois ont été retenues et considérées comme les plus importantes:

Théorie de la division du travail

Encore appelée théorie de l'organisation du travail est fondée par Frederic Wislow Taylor: Ingénieur Américain, (1856-1920), dans son ouvrage « the principles of scientific management », 1911, archive, sur le site Eldritch, qui plaide pour une spécialisation dans l'affectation des tâches dans l'entreprise. En tant que précurseur de la gestion des ressources humaines, il introduit des éléments de base dans ce domaine tels que:

- La description du poste de travail;
- La formation du personnel;
- Le système de rémunération;
- Le système de motivation.

Cette théorie est considérée comme le catalyseur du développement de la rationalité sociale dans l'entreprise ou dans l'organisation.

Théorie de l'humanisation du travail

Elle est définie par deux (02) auteurs:

Henri Fayol (1841-1925) ingénieur et écrivain français, dans son livre intitulé: « les 14 principes du management », livre1, Editions Sociales, Paris, 1975 déclare que le bon manager doit savoir faire cinq choses:

- Planifier (projeter ou programmer)
- Organiser
- Commander (diriger)
- Coordonner
- Contrôler (évaluer)

Elton Mayo: psychologue et sociologue Australien, (1880-1949) quant à lui, soutient dans « l'école des relations humaines », (journal Alternatives Economiques, N° 256, Mars 2007, que l'humanisation du travail contribue au développement

du mouvement des relations humaines dans la sociologie du travail, et démontre que les relations entre le rendement et le moral des employés, les manières de diriger, sont décisives dans la qualité du rendement de l'entreprise. La dimension psychologique du travailleur est à prendre au sérieux dans l'étude des stratégies de productivité.

Théorie de la motivation

Tous les aspects de la Gestion des Ressources Humaines (GRH) sont indispensables pour le relèvement du rendement et l'amélioration du cadre du travail, mais la motivation est l'un des volets spécifiques. Telle est l'affirmation des différents auteurs ci-dessous cités tels que:

Grawitz (M): dans « lexique des sciences sociales », Dalloz, Paris en 1986, P.381 affirme les principes de la satisfaction hiérarchisée des besoins (besoins physiologiques fondamentaux, de sécurité, besoins sociaux, ...etc).

Rachel Yvonne Leunga Kamba(Camerounaise), dans son mémoire: « Vision Stratégique du dirigeant et adhésion du personnel dans les organisations: le cas de la Campost », DESS/GRH, Cradat, 2005, mémoire inédit; prône la motivation du personnel pour leur mobilisation et l'atteinte des objectifs de la structure.

Exemple du Gabon: dans la sous-région:

Emulations, mérite, résultats, tel est le sens du projet de loi portant création de la Prime d'Incitation à la Performance (PIP) adoptée par l'Assemblée le 19 Juin 2014. (Journal Acteurs Publics TV, Jean-Michel Meyer, du 02 juillet 2014, page 1). Pour Mr SERGE MABIALA, Ministre de la Fonction Publique Gabonaise, « avant d'exiger les résultats, il faut d'abord récompenser et honorer pour stimuler.»

Quant au Premier Ministre, Daniel Ona Ondo, a plaidé pour un Etat exemplaire je cite: « le moment est venu pour que tout soit mis en œuvre afin que le citoyen, l'usager n'ait plus à souffrir des turpitudes de l'Administration. A l'heure actuelle, l'Etat ne peut plus s'exonérer des règles qu'il veut faire respecter aux autres».

Mac Gregor, Américain, (1960): fonde les théories X et Y.

Cette théorie annonce le courant de l'excellence par la motivation: « amener des gens ordinaires à faire des choses extraordinaires».

X=l'individu travaille sur la contrainte et sur le contrôle d'un superviseur; il n'a pas d'ambition et n'aime pas le changement ; il ne prend aucune initiative de lui-même.

Y=l'individu démontre sa maturité, son autonomie; il est capable de prendre tout seul des initiatives. Les efforts physique et intellectuel nécessaires au travail sont consentis naturellement.

Locke: parle de la théorie des objectifs c'est-à-dire la motivation par les objectifs conscients de l'individu. Ce dernier est capable de fixer des objectifs et d'orienter sa conduite pour les atteindre ; et si les objectifs de rendement sont élevés, il travaille et produit plus.

Implications Théoriques et Pratiques

Implications théoriques

- Nécessite d'introduire dans le fonctionnement de nos Administrations, les nouvelles règles de gestion des ressources humaines. La gestion des ressources humaines est une activité qui doit tendre à améliorer une communication transversale pour la mise en place d'une stratégie de pilotage de la performance. Elle peut se diviser en deux grandes catégories:
- L'administration des ressources humaines (la gestion de la paie, le droit au travail, le contrat de travail...);
- Le développement des ressources humaine (la gestion des carrières, la gestion des compétences, le recrutement, la formation ...etc);
- Les différentes théories de la motivation en milieu professionnel doivent être affinées au jour le jour;
- Les besoins en formation et en information sont stratégiques dans une structure qui se veut performante ; ils doivent être considérés comme des instruments essentiels et non pas comme des moyens de développement du copinage et autres.

Implications pratiques

On peut citer entre autres:

- La relecture des méthodes de mobilisation du personnel qui s'impose;
- La rationalisation de l'utilisation des ressources humaines;
- La disparition des poches virtuelles de corruption;
- Le développement des stratégies de réduction des déséquilibres visibles dans le traitement des dossiers du personnel...etc.

CONCLUSION ET PROPOSITIONS

CONCLUSION

L'Administration Publique Camerounaise, à l'image des autres organisations fonde la réalisation de ses objectifs sur un certain nombre d'outils; il s'agit entre autres des infrastructures, des moyens financiers et matériels, des programmes, mais surtout de ceux qui en construisent le maillon essentiel c'est -à- dire les agents publics.

Ces derniers à travers leurs compétences et leurs actions se positionnent comme entités indispensables à la bonne marche de l'organisation qu'ils peuvent malheureusement entraîner dans la chute lorsqu'ils sont défailants dans leur investissement ou dans leurs tâches ou même lorsqu'ils sont frustrés.

Au terme du présent exposé, les résultats sont édifiants: le développement d'une culture du service public (CSP), favoriserait sensiblement l'amélioration des performances de l'Administration Publique en passant par « la culture d'entreprise », c'est-à- dire d'un changement de mentalités.

En ce moment où la communauté internationale exige comme conditionnalités à nos Etats, de tenir des Administrations de poste et non plus de carrière, il devient impensable d'imaginer des agents publics qui ne sont comptables devant personne, ou d'observer sans rien dire leurs actes de corruption, de détournements, de tribalisme, de favoritisme, de copinage qui obstruent ainsi le développement....etc.

Mais, dès lors, que l'agent public fera prévaloir l'intérêt général au détriment des intérêts individuels et égoïstes, qu'il servira l'Administration au lieu de s'en servir, qu'il comprendra que le développement de notre pays passe par la participation de tous et de la qualité des services rendus, que les ressources humaines, matérielles et financières octroyées doivent satisfaire les besoins exprimés et atteindre les objectifs visés, alors nos administrations publiques seront qualitativement améliorées; car, il ne saurait avoir d'émurgence sans performance et de performance sans excellence.

PROPOSITIONS

L'analyse qui a été faite nous a permis d'aboutir sur quelques propositions entre autres:

- Développer des programmes de formation pertinents pour toutes les catégories du personnel; organiser des sessions de formation civique a la déontologie administrative a tous les niveaux de la hiérarchie;
- Valoriser le travail de l'agent public, non pas par le lien d'affinités spécifiques, mais par la reconnaissance de son rendement professionnel;
- Développer un modèle original d'évaluation du personnel base sur le rendement (Exemple au Cameroun du Décret n°2001/108/PM du 20

Mars 2001 fixant les modalités d'évaluation des performances professionnelles des fonctionnaires;

- Sensibiliser régulièrement les travailleurs sur les objectifs stratégiques de l'administration;
- Développer la justice et l'équité dans le traitement motivationnel du personnel combattre les services cimetières et les services –eldorado).
- Elaborer, mettre en œuvre, évaluer les tableaux de bord des ressources humaines pour rassurer le personnel et combattre la navigation à vue en matière de recrutement, de formation, de promotion et de nomination;
- Relever sensiblement les salaires pour réduire la corruption;
- Dynamiser les structures de développement de l'action de l'Etat (Programme National de Gouvernance (PNG) et Observatoire National des ressources humaines (ONRH) de manière à en amplifier la visibilité, la lisibilité et la pertinence.

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