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QUALITY LEADERSHIP FOR EFFICIENT AND EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC SERVICE IN AFRICA

Edited by

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(AAPAM)

Includes Biographical References

ISBN:978-9966-095-84-8

Published by

The African Association for Public Administration and Management (AAPAM)

UN Avenue, Magnolia Close, 132 Fuchsia Close, Gigiri.

Nairobi, Kenya

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Designed and Printed by: Loyal Printing Services Ltd.

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AFRICAN ASSOCIATION FOR
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND
MANAGEMENT (AAPAM)



ASSOCIATION AFRICAINE POUR
L'ADMINISTRATION PUBLIQUE
ET LE MANAGEMENT (AAAPM)

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FOREWORD

This book emanates from the African Association for Public Administration and Management (AAPAM) 35th Roundtable Conference held in Kigali, Rwanda, from 18th – 22nd November 2013 under the theme “Quality Leadership for Efficient and Effective Management of Public Service in Africa”.

From the deliberations and presentations in the conference, it was evident that Africa is a continent blessed with vast and valuable resources that if well harnessed and utilised could boost development to greater levels. It was emphasised that quality leadership is pivotal to development in the African nations. The continent’s potential could therefore be optimally realised through leadership that can stimulate innovation and sustain stewardship in the management of resources.

While it is true that there has been visible progress in service delivery across the continent, much more needs to be done if the continent is to realise its goals. The conference illustrated that lack of quality leadership continues to reduce the continent to a vicious circle of development redundancy.

This book therefore, concentrates on the importance of quality leadership. Through practical and theoretical lenses, the book explores leadership experiences, strategies and systems with an aim of fostering quality leadership in the continent. Africa needs to embrace a leadership that nurtures and sustains reforms, professionalisation and modernisation of the African public service. The book captures various observations, experiences and case studies detailed by different authors drawn from across Africa.

As I conclude, I would like to convey my sincere appreciation to the editors, Mr. George K. Scott and Prof. Malcolm Wallis who have endlessly reviewed this book. I also acknowledge the priceless contribution of the AAPAM Secretariat who have successfully steered this book project.

Further, I thank the AAPAM Executive Committee whose commitment and support continues to shape and sustain AAPAM through effective and efficient leadership. I sincerely appreciate all persons and institutions who have contributed or supported AAPAM in its programmes and projects including the production this book.

Finally, it is my humble submission that we all may learn from the experiences and knowledge captured in this book.

Dr. Roland Msiska

AAPAM President

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The African Association for Public Administration and Management (AAPAM) is sincerely grateful to the Government and people of Rwanda for successfully hosting the 35th Roundtable Conference from 18th – 22nd November 2013 in Kigali, Rwanda. This conference is the foundation of this book.

We especially appreciate Prof. Malcolm Wallis, the co-editor of this book and other AAPAM books like *Citizen Engagement, Decentralisation and Service Delivery in Africa*, and also the book on *Performance Management for Improving Public Service Delivery in Africa*. We also acknowledge his immense support to AAPAM as the Chief Editor of African Journal of Public Administration and Management (AJPAM).

Our profound gratitude goes to our development partners for their technical and financial support. AAPAM applauds the Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development, Canada (DFTAD), the Institute of Public Administration of Canada (IPAC), United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), Deloitte East Africa among other institutions for their unwavering support and commitment.

AAPAM thanks all the authors who have contributed to this book. We appreciate them for sharing their practical and academic wealth of knowledge that has entirely formed this publication.

Further, we acknowledge the AAPAM secretariat for tirelessly working on this project. Special thanks to Ms. Jessica Omundo, Ms. Elizabeth Muia and Mr. Clifford Otieno for personally ensuring the successful production of this book.

Much gratitude also goes to AAPAM Executive Committee and Council for their commitment and support also goes towards the production of this book.

Finally, we appreciate all those who in one way or the other contributed to this book. AAPAM cherishes and values your support, advice and contributions to its programmes.

G. K. Scott

Secretary General-AAPAM

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EDITORS' INTRODUCTION

George K. Scott and Malcolm Wallis

Apart from the 35th AAPAM Round-table Conference (RTC) in 2013, the association has in the past organised for forums to deal with issues of quality in the public service. In 1999, the association held a Round-Table Conference in Kampala, Uganda under the theme *"Quality Management Assurance in Africa"*. Most of the AAPAM programmes are indeed focused on the betterment of public service with a reference to service delivery.

There have been other RTCs where issues related to quality have been aired. For example, in Arusha, Tanzania, in 2006, presentations were made on quality service and accountability and on what citizens say about service delivery, the latter reporting on the very important and relevant 'Afrobarometer' project which surveys public attitudes to government, clearly an exercise of some interest and relevance for participants and public services in general (AAPAM 2006: 16-19). At the same forum, the Vice-President of the host country, His Excellency Dr. Ali Mohamed Shein spoke about quality in his opening speech. He observed that, 'the quality of public service delivery in Tanzania, although improving, is still unacceptable'. He went on to commit the government he was then serving to a reversal of this (AAPAM 2006: 91).

Thus, the 2013 theme *'Quality Leadership for Effective and Efficient Management of Public Service in Africa'* is an extension of an issue which has recurred within AAPAM circles for at least two decades. What has emerged over the years is that quality management and leadership can be seen both as a technical and somewhat specialised concern on the one hand, whilst on the other hand, it has tended to be viewed as an all-embracing concern on how well governments are performing on quality matters. The term thus can be used to analyse such apparently very different issues as the performance of a country's head of state and the standard of the water supplied to a remote village. Both are quality matters which can be included within this broad framework. The 2013 RTC reflected a little of this diversity as this introduction will endeavour to demonstrate.

LEADERSHIP AND QUALITY: UNDERSTANDING THE KEY WORDS

Both these terms need clarification from the beginning as they often cause uncertainty, more so because they were key terms used within the RTC. While the meaning of the term leadership is often seen as relatively clear in the governance context, it still needs some elaboration. It is a somewhat more difficult story when it comes to defining quality. Both these terms defy the concise definitions which can be found in

a dictionary. For this reason, introducing this book requires a short discussion on the words hoping that it will bring greater clarity than is often achieved in practice.

Leadership is often described as being different from management. The reasoning is partly to do with hierarchy. The higher in the hierarchy someone is, the greater is the likelihood of the term being relevant. Thus, it is reasoned, for example, that a minister is a leader but most public servants working in his or her ministry are not. Some of them will be designated as managers when they occupy positions of authority. Others of higher ranks such as Director-Generals or Permanent Secretaries can also be regarded as leaders, although they may have to be managers too. Leadership in this sense is obviously associated with the exercise of authority. However, there are other important elements to be considered such as influencing stakeholders and followers; as well as elements of strategic planning such as visioning and demonstrating commitment to goals and values.

Nevertheless, the situation becomes more muddled because there is at least one complication. It is often just as appropriate to refer to leadership at lower levels of the hierarchy as well as at the top. Lower levels of leadership in the hierarchies of public services might be places where leaders of small groups of junior staff working in remote and difficult working and living conditions are found. This is the case in for example, the western parts of Botswana, northern Kenya and certain parts of Tanzania as discussed by Kimaro in her paper in this book.

Another example of leadership below the top of hierarchies would be the leadership of trade union officials in the public sector who may be only juniors in terms of their jobs. However, they could be simultaneously of senior status as elected officials on the 'shop floor' of a union representing workers in a public-sector industry. They may also be political as well as trade union leaders as in the case of a postal official of lowly rank in the United Kingdom who later became a leading figure in the Labour Party and a senior minister in that country's government (Johnson 2015).

Another type of leader falling outside of the hierarchical view would be leaders who emerge within informal structures of organisations without necessarily occupying a high official position. These structures are often referred to by sociologists as 'groups' which may consist of a small number of people who interact in work places as well as in other contexts such as faith-based organisations and schools (Seedat-Khan, Uys, Kaziboni and du Plessis 2016: 351). In government, for example, a group might consist of immigration officials at an airport who interact socially at tea breaks, for example, in the context of which they may discuss work (and quality) related issues such as working hours and interpretation of instructions from within the department concerned.

Quality is even harder than leadership to pin down in a few words. To give an indication of the extent of this dilemma, there are some influenced by philosophy, anthropology and religion who would contend that quality is another word for God (Pirsig 1992). From a management perspective, however, it is suggested that a brief discussion giving an account of what text books must say may be of greater assistance.

First, it is suggested that few consumers in a business context would be able to define quality but would nevertheless 'know it when they see it' and it is often seen as being a matter of perceptions which are thus subjective – quality like beauty in the proverb is 'in the eye of the beholder' (Goetsch and Davis 2016: 2). This simple point is very significant for the study of governance as members of the public may have even hold quite strong opinions about government performance without using the 'Q' word at all, but they are, all the same, talking about quality whether the assessment made is negative ('the government is eating our money') or positive ('we love our leaders').

Leaders like Hitler in Germany and Stalin in the former Soviet Union can serve as examples, albeit extreme ones. They were viewed as worthy of being followed without question by many but hated and feared by many others; the same point can be made about leadership in Africa even if the examples may be less extreme. It should also be noted that these perceptions have a dynamic nature. For example, after the 'honeymoon' period of a new government which promises better services, the initially favourable perceptions may deflate drastically when the realities of delivery on the ground give rise to disappointment and even anger.

Secondly, people deal with issues of quality regularly in their daily lives (Goetsch and Davis 2016:2). Again, this point, although made in a text book which is mainly about business, has salience in a public-sector context. For instance, vehicle drivers are affected by the quality of the road network which can be reflected, for example, in the time required for journeys and the likelihood of accidents and breakdowns. Members of the public have certain expectations about other services such as water, electricity, clinics and hospitals which are critical to their lives on a day to day basis. They can observe their quality even if they do not articulate their experience to an audience beyond families and friends.

Thirdly, the concept of quality is about organisational excellence which can be spelt out by reference to results and the measurement of performance. This means that the approach to it in public sector management must be one which eschews an exclusive focus on inputs which is typical in most governments. What is called for from a quality point of view is a focus on outcomes and impacts derived from the inputs which are normally to be found in budgets and other plan documents.

Finally, in summary quality has certain common elements which are:

- Striving to meet or, if possible even, exceed citizen expectations.
- Being applicable to products, services, people, processes and environments – these are all applicable to the public sector in one way or another.
- It has a dynamic nature (e.g. what is good quality today may not be good enough later as with the perceptions of government performance referred to above).

These common elements are relevant to the public sectors of Africa to varying extents.

Quality and Leadership: How they are Related?

The two concepts are linked in various ways. The topic of the 2013 RTC linked two issues of vital importance to public management in all countries. All over the world, regardless of factors such as ideology, levels of economic development and differing impacts of globalisation, states have to deal with the need for effective leadership and have to explore ways of making quality a key priority. The links between the two issues are at least as important as the issues themselves when considered separately. Some of the main links are explored in this brief introductory chapter.

One of the key links is that there is plenty of evidence that efforts to promote more quality in organisations depend on having leaders in key positions to support and drive such initiatives. To strike a negative note, junior staff are unlikely to display enthusiasm if they are aware that the leadership is not setting the right sort of example because, for instance, leaders may urge ethical behaviour but act hypocritically by such practices as soliciting and receiving bribes or entering into inappropriate sexual liaisons with staff. This observation can be made regardless of whether the leaders being observed are filling political positions or are senior bureaucrats. Thus, senior bureaucrats who issue directives calling on more junior staff to push better service delivery need to ensure that their own behaviour, however it is measured, is exemplary.

Another dimension of importance is that leaders may not always be familiar with the meaning of quality. For example, terms such as Total Quality Management (TQM) and ISO (International Organisation for Standardisation) may be unknown to many who occupy leadership positions in the public sector or, if these terms are known, may be poorly understood. Particularly with the older generation of public servants, perceptions of quality may be distorted in two ways. On the one hand, the thinking might be that quality is a concern reserved for the private sector and is therefore irrelevant. Secondly, another distortion which arises from the past is the idea that quality is concerned almost entirely with the control function and, as such, confined to a quite small and specialised unit or department within the organisation. This is a bit like saying that teachers should not be concerned with quality as there are school inspectors who are supposed to take care of that.

Another link between quality and leadership concerns the public image of government. This is a current concern which is growing in many countries and may be interpreted as arising from lack of progress achieved by leaders in building state institutions which are truly capable of delivering what is expected of them. This point is applicable to all manner of amenities including the postal, recreational, electricity or water services. Whether there is progress or not is inevitably seen as evidence of the degree to which leaders with responsibility for such services have delivered on quality to an acceptable standard. In some countries in Africa, protests by communities may happen because the patience of communities runs out. Leadership, whether locally based or positioned at a higher level in national hierarchies, then becomes a target. Sometimes this entails an escalation into violence with consequential loss of life.

There is also a link concerning dialogue between government and the public. Good leaders who are embodying quality are often skilled public communicators. This is particularly true for those in political roles such as presidents, ministers, mayors and members of legislatures. For such figures, it is a major asset to be proficient speakers with the ability to deploy the weapons of rhetoric effectively whilst avoiding making obviously misleading statements. There are also issues of language here. In Africa, there are leaders such as presidents who can speak convincingly in their home/first languages but who are reduced to mechanically reading their speeches in a language (such as English) where they have less confidence in their ability. This can obviously affect the impact of the message. In so far as impact can be considered a genuine measure, then it can be said that such speeches are not of high quality even if the content may be acceptable in all sorts of ways (accuracy, comprehensiveness, etc.). Dialogue, however, is not confined to making speeches. There are other important and growing ways of communicating such as the use of the internet, which leaders need to be aware of even if they are not technically qualified experts.

Trends in the Literature

The key point is that although it is true that public sectors globally are more quality conscious than they were ten years ago, the literature reflecting this trend has yet to see the light of day to a sufficient extent. Most of the published material has a strong bias towards the private sector. This does not render such literature useless but rather limits its relevance. In addition, most of the publications available are also quite limited by the fact that their national contexts tend to be the USA and, to a lesser extent, other western states. This issue has affected the contributors in this volume as reflected in the references they have understandably cited.

There are two trends in the wider literature to which reference has to be made. One of the main ones is what is termed TQM, which is an approach emphasising that quality is about the whole organisation and not compartmentalised in the form of quality inspectors and the like. A recent text has a detailed discussion that is relevant (Goetsch and Davis 2016: 1-13).

The other is a realisation that the 'ISO' system of certification which has had a focus on the private sector, may be applied to the public sector as well. One example is the UK's Department of Trade and Industry (Ho 2002: 199). Neither of these trends are directly referred to by the contributors to this volume but several of them point to the need to look at whole organisations and to thus avoid a fragmented style of analysis.

It is therefore clear that there is a gap to be filled because the African experience of quality is not given its due. Although much valuable and relevant work has been done on reform and related areas such as performance management, there is a definite need to develop research focusing more directly on quality. Ideally, publications need to be research based while at the same time being of practical value for the work of governments. It is at this level that organisations such as AAPAM can play a role in several ways. Through its strategic connections with African governments, it is well positioned to identify the needs and facilitate the development of the required paraphernalia of proposals and the like. At the risk of being accused of hyperbole, a strong call needs to go out to gain support from institutions and individuals interested in doing such research and for it to be accessibly published.

THE PAPERS

In his paper **Kauzya** takes a global perspective but makes substantial reference to the African experience, drawing on such sources as the Conferences of African Ministers of Public Service and the United Nations. Much of what he has to say is directly linked to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the more recently initiated Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). He puts forward a number of challenges which public services in Africa need to confront in order to improve leadership quality. These challenges may seem to overlap somewhat but that is because they are interrelated.

Challenge one is that it is important for public service leaders to pinpoint the higher purpose of the role they play in government. There are several elements to what this entails but three closely related points stand out. The first is the need to manage and lead effectively in a context of growing complexity, including such factors as globalisation and changes in technology. The next is to promote a developmental public service leadership, a point clearly linked to the debates over the past twenty years about the developmental state. The third point here is one that may seem obvious but is not

always fully observed: the focus has to be firmly on the people being served.

Challenge Two is an urgent need to focus on sustainability and the eradication of poverty, which is clearly linked to the SDGs referred to above. Challenge Three concerns governance and is specifically about building trust in government through strengthening and sustaining state institutions. The fourth challenge he discusses is a reiteration of the need for greater professionalism but with a nuance that is not always found in such discussions. He sees professionalism as being very much about integrity and ethical principles and practices, thus not confined to narrowly technical matters.

Challenge Five is similar but focuses on the citizenry. There is, he argues, a need to address the issue of corruption with a focus on society as a whole. Challenge Six places stress on the need for leadership to be transformed at all levels, including communities and local government. Challenge Seven is mainly about the importance of large scale infrastructure, particularly in the areas of transport and potable water. Challenge Eight concerns the revolutions deemed to be taking place in the fields of information and technology. Challenge Nine concerns a matter which Kauzya addressed at an earlier RTC published in 2015 (Kauzya 2015). The challenge is about diversity but with a twist in that it should not be purely seen as a problem. Rather it represents an opportunity. The challenge is to make the most of the opportunities arising from such factors as gender, ethnicity and belief systems. The final challenge is about succession planning, an area which is too often ignored. What is needed, he argues, is an approach which is orderly and effective. Part of his concern here is that African states need to build capable leaders for the future.

Leadership development programmes are highlighted in **Ssonko's** paper. His analysis is to some extent based on three East African states, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda and draws on his substantial experience of working in such organisations as the Uganda Management Institute. He takes as his point of departure an important United Nations' resolution which speaks to the need for a public service which is efficient, accountable, effective and transparent. In his view, the experience of the MDGs is a clear indication that these are all requirements to be met by public services for a better-quality leadership to emerge in Africa. He singles out for discussion the leadership role played by the head of the public service and quotes some research on the kinds of demand which must be met. One of his concerns, which he addressed at an earlier RTC, is that public service leaders still need to operate in relation to a global economy which entered a crisis almost ten years ago, the complex and demanding ramifications of which are still being felt in varying degrees in most African states. The dangers of becoming marginalised at the global level are noted.

A fundamental and very relevant point he stresses is that the quality of life is not just a matter of enabling people to receive higher incomes. There is a bigger picture to be viewed, one in which critical issues such as frequently impassable roads in most countries and declining standards of education must be faced. In this respect, some countries are better placed than others.

His focus is very much on leaders as opposed to managers. He makes this distinction sharply. He further discusses some of the attributes needed by senior public servants. His paper, similarly points to the kinds of modules a management institute might put together to support such a demanding agenda. Ssonko proposes that there is a need for a very high level forum where top public servants can exchange views with the heads of state or heads of government as the case may be.

The contribution by **Muhereza** is particularly to be welcomed because it draws attention to Emotional Intelligence (EI), a factor which has hitherto been neglected in the literature. Goetsch and Davis, for example, discuss issues related to this concept in the context of quality but do not use the term itself (Goetsch and Davis 2016: 171-173). Because of this neglect it may come as a surprise to find that the RTC organisers asked for emotional intelligence to be a sub-theme for presentation. This volume therefore gives space to such issues which Muhereza addresses in a detailed manner.

EI can be defined, according to Muhereza, as referring to being able to perceive, control and evaluate emotions. It can be seen as a field of study where the focus is largely on the individual manager/leader whose quality of leadership can be enhanced by the ways they effectively perceive, control and evaluate emotions within organisations. It is a quite recent term, probably no more than thirty years old and therefore not to be found in the classical discussions of Public Management or even in more recent studies of Public Management in Africa. Although it is relevant to note that EI is to be distinguished from Intelligence Quotient (IQ), the two concepts refer to types of intelligence which have their own importance in the study and practice of management.

It is essential to be aware that a leader with a high IQ may well be poorly endowed with the attributes Muhereza associates with EI. In fact, highly intelligent leaders may well have arrogant attitudes which create distance between themselves and subordinates and/or from the public. Arrogance is the opposite of the quality of humility which effective leadership of organisations requires.

Muhereza sees strong links between EI and effective and efficient public services in Africa. In arguing this, he draws from United Nations documentation. This body has quite recently become aware that EI is a core issue to be brought away from the margins

to which it has been consigned. In support of this, he reports research on managers in the public and private sectors in Uganda and on some work in South Africa.

As well as outlining a wide range of attributes and competencies which are required to apply EI successfully, he concludes that effective leaders need to be in a position to effectively combine and practise EI and IQ.

Gambari's paper looks at three other dimensions of quality which are not given sufficient attention in the literature on public management in Africa or in the public services themselves, but which cannot be ignored in the study of quality leadership: risk-taking (which might also be termed risk management), creativity and innovation. He also advocates the need for more of an outcome/results-based approach which is in contrast to the ineffectiveness of many African bureaucracies. With reference to various countries, he builds his argument that the ability to apply these three dimensions of leadership is important and needs to be reinforced. However, he also makes another important point that the environment within which public servants work is currently not sufficiently conducive to such alternative styles of leadership and management.

The key ways in which the environment blocks creativity, innovation and risk-taking are the bureaucratic structures and cultures themselves, and the dominant and largely dysfunctional actions, priorities and attitudes of politicians. At the same time, he sees environmental trends which make it necessary for alternative approaches to be adopted. In this context, he notes phenomena such as globalisation, climate change and demographic shifts.

Gambari argues that some of some of the qualities required by leaders include:

- A recognition that innovation and creativity can also come from subordinates, a potential benefit to organisations which should be encouraged by adequate rewards, not spurned.
- A balanced approach which encourages creativity and innovation whilst managing risk to limit unintended consequences which may be harmful.
- The ability to create and foster an environment within organisations which is conducive to the generation of new thinking.
- A more serious approach to evaluation.
- A commitment to strategic planning and management in which visionary and transformational leadership feature more strongly than the current norm
- Awareness of the limitations of transformational leadership – the dangers of neglecting the nuts and bolts of management without which better delivery may not be achieved

The paper co-authored by **Mantzaris and Pillay** directly concerns corruption in one of Africa's newer states, South Africa. Although country-specific it has much to say that resonates with the experience of other parts of Africa. In fact, the paper makes several cross references to other parts of the continent such as Ghana under Nkrumah. The main, but not exclusive, attention of the paper is given to South African municipalities and the relationship therein between elected representatives (councillors) and the appointed officials (municipal managers etc). The role of mayors in the South African system is particularly important as they are usually politicians who are influential within their municipality and within one of the national parties, mostly the ruling one. There are issues at this level of government which are relevant to the theme of the Rwanda RTC because it would be an abuse of language to refer to the presence of leadership which is one of quality whilst it is also clearly corrupt. Corruption is a key way in which leadership may fall short in relation quality.

As the title of the paper suggests, the purpose is to give some indication of the challenges South Africa faces at local level. A conclusion arrived at is that there are major problems associated with the interface between politicians and officials which are a source of considerable difficulty. They also identify the poor quality of councillors as a challenge to address; it is not being adequately acknowledged currently. Municipalities are also well known for their lack of compliance with the basic regulatory framework for the management of public finance. Substantial reference to this point is made in the paper with evidence obtained and reported by the Auditor-General to support this point. Detailed reference is made to a number of specific municipalities ranging from some of the largest such as metropolitan eThekweni (Durban and surrounding areas) to some of the smaller towns and rural areas in different provinces.

The authors of this paper do not just discuss municipalities; there is also a national picture to consider. What takes place nationally has repercussions for local institutions for various reasons, not the least of which is that local leaders understandably tend to take their cues from what national leaders are doing, or at least what they appear to be doing. The authors therefore give an account of unethical and possibly illegal practices at national level.

The paper concludes with some pointers as to what might be done, including greater professionalism, better defined spheres of competence and the need to find solutions which do not overly rely on western models.

The final paper, by **Kimaro**, draws attention to another concern that affects most states in Africa to varying extents. Her concern is the dilemma of achieving quality in geographical areas which are off the beaten track. She refers to these as 'hard-to-reach and underserved areas'. Although the transport factor, especially impassable roads,

is obviously critical, there are wider issues such as the quality of life experienced by staff posted to work in such areas. She includes proximity to borders with states where violence is prevalent, areas close to national parks and communities in which the fear of being bewitched is an environmental reality which cannot be ignored.

The focus of this contribution is on the experience of Tanzania in relation to the attraction and retention of human resources required to support and provide health services. However, the case of human resources for such areas in Tanzania is not unique to that country. She refers to other studies which refer to similar conditions in some countries, her main example being Kenya, and to the fact that some countries such as South Africa clearly experience less difficulty than others, although it is not possible to identify any country in the African continent which can be said to be unaffected by the phenomenon under review.

In addition to being about health, Kimaro discusses human resources management in local government. This is because the grassroots staff, who are her concern, are located within the jurisdiction of local governments. Though recruited nationally, they are employed by district councils. She looks two cases in detail - Kigoma and Nkasi.

She further identifies some internationally accepted 'building blocks' for health services (governance, human resources, information, technology, finance and service delivery). Kimaro also provides relevant data on Tanzania's health profile (for example, 23 health workers per 10,000 people is cited).

Finally, she notes a number of measures taken by the Tanzanian government to improve conditions (bonuses, 'start up' allowances, housing, etc.). She argues that these have been quite successful. Importantly, this is shown as being in no small way attributable to the quality of leadership in the two councils.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This book embraces a number of concerns related to the possibilities for the emergence of a better quality of leadership in African public services. The following emerge as some of the main concerns, as reflected in the contributions of the various authors.

Firstly, there is clearly a need to look at quality from the point of view of the members of the public who are supposed to be the beneficiaries of the services being provided. It is not always easy to assess this dimension, although community surveys may help. However, because such exercises are often very demanding in terms of such factors as finance and scarce skills, it is unrealistic to undertake them very often. Therefore, without excluding what might be called the 'big survey' method, there is a need for all public sector organisations to become better sensitised on what are the quality

issues felt by communities and are articulated by them in various ways. This entails the adoption of an approach which has for some time featured strongly in the private sector, even if it is not always observed in practice: placing the customer at the centre of quality management. This shift in perspective does not necessarily call for large scale surveys.

Secondly, is important to recognise that quality is dynamic in both the private and public sectors. Essentially, what this means is that perceptions of quality and leadership change with the passage of time. For example, new technologies become available, cultures take new directions and older generations depart from the scene through, for example, retirement and death. As communities and members of the public become more aware of the possibilities of a better quality of life (housing, education, transport, etc.) and of how they believe governments need to facilitate more progress in such directions, the more they are likely to ask more of their leaders as far as the quality of their lives is concerned. There are, of course, immense difficulties in carrying forward such imperatives especially in the current environment of scarcity of resources. However, that cannot justify dismissing out of hand such inevitable changes in expectations when they occur and dealing with them as far as possible.

Thirdly, it is hoped that the book can help to develop a better understanding of how leadership and quality are connected, a critical area which is not always adequately addressed. This may seem very different from the first point as it instead looks at the 'view from the top' but the relevance of it is clear. Organisational commitment to quality is likely to be largely cosmetic unless it is driven by a leadership which both understands the meaning of quality as it affects the organisation and is able to provide the necessary support in practical ways (i.e. not just at the level of mere rhetoric). Above all, perhaps, it is vital for a leadership to emerge which does not succumb to the temptations of hypocrisy: the advocacy of good practice whilst at the same time acting in ways that are the opposite of quality. Several authors have noted this tendency.

Fourthly, what emerges is that it is a mistake to think of leadership in purely hierarchical terms. While it is true that the upper reaches of public sector organisations are vitally important, much leadership is exercised at levels a long way from the apex. These levels are sometimes forgotten in public sector debates yet may be critical in the determination of outcomes. This emerges in the paper on hard to reach areas of Tanzania, for example, where one of the most critical factors was the existence of a strong and committed leadership at the district level. This dimension is also important because it implies the need for those at the top to be better listeners to the messages being received from more junior staff in the field. This can serve as an example of good practice.

Fifthly, one of the threads emerging from most of the contributions is that leadership requires a number of attributes, some of which have been little discussed elsewhere. Indeed, the list of attributes that could be compiled is a long one. It would include what are sometimes called 'soft' skills such as emotional intelligence, communication and cultural awareness as well as having the ability to understand the closer to home implications of global change and the opportunities and challenges of new technologies. Decisions made in distant countries such as the United Kingdom and the United States of America and international organisations such as the World Health Organisation can have far reaching repercussions for states in Africa as shown by the experience of the last 150 hundred years or so.

The sixth point is that the study of Public Sector Management has to make more of an effort to include concepts which have been alive in the private sector for some time though with a far less understanding in our field. Total Quality Management and the ISO standards systems are examples of ways of managing quality which have not really been examined in this volume. It is an area of work where more could be done and represents possibilities for further research which would also need to look anew at the issues that arise in attempts to transfer techniques from the private to public sectors.

Finally, whilst a critical note has been struck by the contributors, an attempt has also been made to adopt a constructive approach and to give examples of good practice as far as possible. It is therefore hoped that a reasonable balance has been achieved in which ill-informed criticism has been largely avoided so that it becomes possible to avoid the defeatism of Afro-pessimism which is too often featured in some of the studies which appear in the literature. Sometimes this negativity may create conditions which make for the stifling of initiative and creativity. What remains important is the further exploration of the possibilities of good practice, an exercise which, it is to be hoped, can usefully take place within AAPAM and other forums.

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DEVELOPING QUALITY PUBLIC SERVICE LEADERSHIP CAPACITIES FOR RAPID TRANSFORMATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA: CHALLENGES CONFRONTING AFRICA'S PUBLIC SERVICE LEADERSHIP IN THE 21ST CENTURY

John-Mary Kauzya

ABSTRACT

The paper affirms that Africa needs a transformative and development-oriented public service leadership to implement the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development and achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). It argues that one of the biggest challenges in African countries is how to develop and sustain such a leadership. The author contributes to addressing this challenge by outlining what he considers as 10 most critical challenges that must be urgently addressed in order to have in place the requisite leadership capacities in the public service for transformation and sustainable development. The author challenges Africa's public service political, technical, and managerial leaders to work with the people and pinpoint the sustainable development goals and objectives which constitute; the higher purpose of public service leadership, commit to eradicating poverty, develop an anti-corruption public service and citizenry, strengthen professionalism, ethics and integrity in the public service, develop durable, accountable and effective public service institutions, develop transformative service and development orientation in the public service, ensure planned and managed succession, and harness the potential of the diversity in Africa's public service to spearhead sustainable development.

INTRODUCTION

African governments are engaged in the daunting task of bringing about development for the benefit of their people. Their efforts to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) since the year 2000, and pursue the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development henceforth are faced with numerous socio-politico-economic challenges.

This paper is premised on the understanding that Africa is, in many socio-politico-economic development respects, lagging many countries; something that requires Africa's Public Service leadership to have the capability to speed up the transformation of African countries and ensure sustainable development. The author outlines and discusses ten critical challenges that African public service leaders must address in order to effectively champion Africa's transformation and sustainable development.

The paper takes sustainable development to refer to two things:

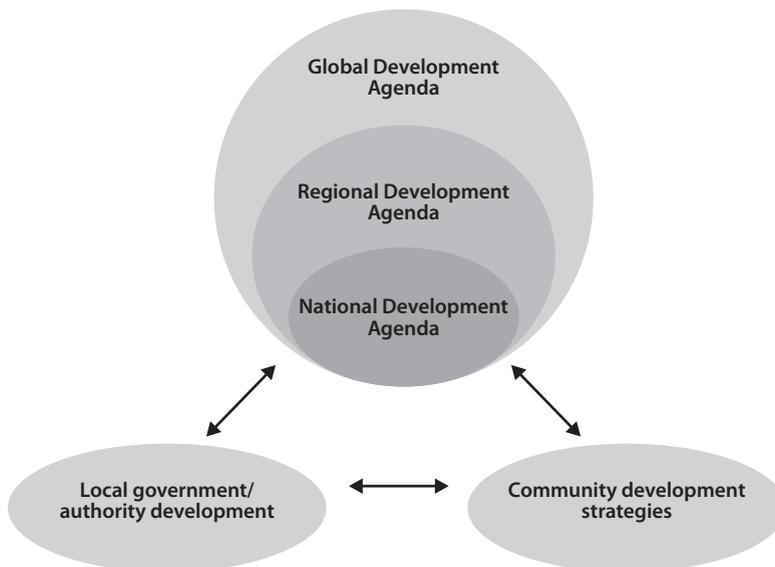
- (i) The "ability to make development sustainable to ensure that it meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), *Our Common Future* 1987); and
- (ii) The 17 Sustainable Development Goals and 169 targets as adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in September 2015 (United Nations General Assembly, "Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development", New York, September 2015).

The paper is structured around the major challenges outlined and discussed by the author which are: pinpointing the higher purpose of public service leadership, ensuring sustainable development and poverty eradication and freeing the African people from poverty and hunger as a matter of urgency, creating and sustaining legitimate state institutions and boosting trust in government, developing and ensuring professionalism, integrity, ethics, and accountability to prevent corruption in the public service, developing an anti-corruption citizenry, developing a service and development oriented leadership, leading large-scale transformation, leading in times of an information and technological revolution, managing and harnessing the potential of Africa's diversity, and ensuring orderly and effective successions in the public service leadership.

Challenge 1: Pinpointing the Higher Purpose of Public Service Leadership

Since leadership is essentially a purposeful undertaking, leaders should pursue a higher purpose. Therefore, leaders in Africa's public service need to be highly purposeful and to be able to make others understand and share in the higher purpose. The very first challenge for any leader in Africa's public service is to pinpoint the higher purpose that resonates with the aspirations of the African people. The current reality is that the world is complex and is getting more so. Consequently, the leadership's higher purpose for Africa's public service is no longer seen in the light of only the national or even regional aspirations of Africans but global as well. Identifying the higher purpose is therefore itself a complex undertaking. It includes community, local, national, regional and global development agenda some of which are not clear even to the people they directly concerned.

Figure 1: Components of higher purpose of developmental public service leadership



Source: Designed by the author

There has to be something akin to self-denial in public service leadership. In the public service, leadership is not about the leader. It is not even about the public servants under the supervision of the leader. It is about the people that must be served. This higher purpose must be the driving force behind the actions of leadership in the public service. There is a problem in Africa's public services that is derived from the perception

(it is of little consequence whether true or false) that most public service leaders in Africa have a self-centred higher purpose. Demonstrating a sustainable development-driven higher purpose driven leadership in the public service is one of the things that must be done to revamp the image of the public service in Africa (Dorasamy 2010). Whether it is at the level of the community, the lowest local government/authority, central government at the national level or at the regional level such as the East African Community, Africa Union, etc.

Africa must have public service leaders that have sufficient aptitude, awareness and commitment to formulate long-term strategies that clarify and specify the sustainable development-driven higher purpose to be pursued. The public service leadership must be able to support this process at each of these levels. This makes public service leadership capability critically important for sustainable development in Africa. Now that the United Nations General Assembly has adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development with the 17 Sustainable Development Goals and 169 targets, the higher purpose of Africa's Public Service leadership needs to include this agenda, which must be interpreted and integrated in the development strategies and plans at all levels if it has to be effectively implemented to positively impact on the lives of the common people at local and community levels.

Challenge 2: Ensuring Sustainable Development and Poverty Eradication and Freeing the African People from Poverty and Hunger as a Matter of Urgency

From the 20th to 22nd June 2012, the heads of state and government and high-level representatives meeting in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, rightly observed that "poverty eradication is the greatest challenge facing the world today and an indispensable requirement for sustainable development". After 15 years of implementing the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), the first one of which was on poverty eradication, and despite the positive achievements, the proportion of the Sub-Saharan Africa population living on less than 1.25 dollars per day is 28 % having dropped from 57 % where it was in 1990. (United Nations New York, the Millennium Development Goals Report 2015). This is still unacceptable. There is nothing romantic about living on 1.25 dollars per day. Africa leadership therefore, should set for themselves a higher target because even if they achieved this, Africa would still be very poor.

The fight against poverty in Africa did not start and did not end with MDGs. The 2015 MDGs target year has passed. The United Nations General Assembly in its September 2015 Summit outcome document titled: "Transforming our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development" set 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) to replace

the MDGs and guide development efforts in all countries for the next 15 years. Goal number one is on ending poverty expressed in the following terms.

Goal 1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere

- 1.1: By 2030, eradicate extreme poverty for all people everywhere, currently measured as people living on less than \$1.25 a day.
- 1.2: By 2030, reduce at least by half the proportion of men, women and children of all ages living in poverty in all its dimensions according to national definitions.
- 1.3: Implement nationally appropriate social protection systems and measures for all, including floors, and by 2030 achieve substantial coverage of the poor and the vulnerable.
- 1.4: By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance.
- 1.5: By 2030, build the resilience of the poor and those in vulnerable situations and reduce their exposure and vulnerability to climate-related extreme events and other economic, social and environmental shocks and disasters.
 - a): Ensure significant mobilization of resources from a variety of sources, including through enhanced development cooperation, in order to provide adequate and predictable means for developing countries, in particular least developed countries, to implement Programmes and policies to end poverty in all its dimensions.
 - b): Create sound policy frameworks at the national, regional and international levels, based on pro-poor and gender-sensitive development strategies, to support accelerated investment in poverty eradication actions.¹

The SDG of ending poverty in all its forms everywhere echoes Africa's aspiration as expressed in the "Agenda 2063: The Africa We Want": "Aspiration 1: A Prosperous Africa Based on Inclusive Growth and Sustainable Development: We are determined to eradicate poverty in one generation and build shared prosperity through social and economic transformation of the continent. We aspire that by 2063, Africa shall be a prosperous continent..." (Africa Union, August 2014). Poverty eradication also figures prominently as an objective of the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD). The primary objective of NEPAD is to eradicate poverty in Africa and to place African countries both individually and collectively on a path of sustainable growth and development and thus halt the marginalisation of Africa in the globalisation process.

¹ UN Document; A/70/L. I: Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Un New York, September 2015

Part of the challenge of eradicating poverty in all its forms everywhere has to do with understanding poverty in all its dimensions and manifestations. It sounds surprising but it is correct that poverty is not understood in one similar way by everyone. For example, the MDG on poverty eradication lumped together income poverty, expenditure poverty, hunger, and unemployment.

Table 1: Poverty eradication as understood within the MDGs

| Goal | Target | Indicators |
|--------------------------------------|--|---|
| Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger | Reduce by half the proportion of people leaving on less than US \$ 1.25 per day | 1: Proportion of population below US \$ 1.25 per day 2: Share of poorest quintile in national consumption |
| | Achieve full and productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people | 1: Growth rate of GDP per person employed 2: Employment-to-population ratio 3: Proportion of employed people living below US\$ 1.25 per day 4: Proportion of own-account and contributing family workers in total employment |
| | Reduce by half the proportion of people who suffer from hunger | 1: Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age 2: Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption |

Source: United Nations; MDG Report 2015

Poverty is situation specific. Different people in different situations understand poverty in different ways. Experience and the impact of poverty are unique for individuals, households, communities, and countries. As it is indicated in Rwanda’s poverty reduction strategy paper of 2002, for example, “no two people experience poverty in the same way”. (The Government of Rwanda, June 2002).

Challenge 3: Creating and Sustaining Legitimate State Institutions and Boosting Trust in Government

In case there are still some people that harbour the dream of communism and the stateless society, let this be clear: The state is here to stay. It may be fragile, contested, developed, or anything else, but the state has become a central pillar of modern societal governance. The only question worth exploring is how to develop institutions of the state so that it becomes and remains not only capable but also legitimate in the eyes of all stake holders but especially the citizens of the country in question. We must add that the legitimacy of the state resides in a number of apparatuses including its legal base (e.g. the constitution, laws, rules and regulations), and the effectiveness and durability of public institutions. One of the biggest challenges of the public service leadership in Africa is how to build strong public administration institutions on which to anchor the legitimacy and capability of the state.

The Long-Term Strategy of the Conference of African Ministers of Public Service (CAMPS) depicts a capable state as one that is committed first to ensuring a better life for all its citizens; that promotes popular participation and the indigenous ownership of its entire development agenda; whose public service is people-oriented, based on meritocracy and driven by service to its citizenry, that has sound systems of public administration decentralised; has transparency and accountability to its citizenry and to its institutions as central tenets; has a sound macro-economic framework; that eradicates poverty and surpasses the minimum standards set by the MDGs; implements its continental commitments on governance and public administration; mobilises, budgets and manages its public finances effectively; and is underpinned by democratic politics. (CAMPS, Long Term Strategy of CAMPS Africa Union 2008: African Governance and Public Administration). This challenge is increasingly becoming formidable because with intentions and efforts of regional integration in Africa public service is no longer operating at state level only, but also at regional level. The interplay between the institutions of the Africa Union and institutions in each country is becoming very important. Public service leadership must marshal plans to harness regional integration and reinforce national state institutions to make them sustainably effective to strengthen the legitimacy of the state.

The public service leadership is pervasive in its nature, behaviour and impact in all branches of government (Executive, Judiciary, and the Legislature) as well as in all sectors (public, private and civil society sectors). In other words, public service leadership is pervasive in the entire public governance sphere. There is a general tendency to believe that public service leadership is critical to the performance of only the executive. This is not correct. There is an administrative service in the judiciary

whose performance can spoil or improve the performance, trust and legitimacy of the entire judiciary in providing judicial services. There is an administrative service in the legislature that can ruin or boost the performance, trust and legitimacy of the legislature in its representative, legislative and control functions. The important thing to keep in mind is that public service leadership is holistic. Mal-functions in one part of the service has repercussions on the legitimacy and trust of the whole. A mal-function in leadership in the legislature will have repercussions in the executive and the judiciary and vice versa.

Challenge 4: Developing and Ensuring Professionalism, Integrity, Ethics and Accountability to Prevent Corruption in the Public Service

“The public sector’s biggest resource is the people it employs in government departments, municipalities, state-owned enterprises, schools, hospitals, in forestry and agriculture departments, in game parks, in courts of law at all levels, in parliaments and local councils, etc. In addition, let it not be forgotten that even public service leadership at whatever level is basically composed of people employed by the public service. Skills and professionalism are scarce resources in the public service” (Pascal Moloi: “Skills and Professionalism are scarce in public service” in City Press (South Africa, April 2012). There are many ingredients that need to be combined in strategies and actions for preventing corruption in the public service. They include rules, regulations, laws, institutions, appropriate organisational structures, well designed and functioning accountability systems, transparency in public governance, resources, application of information and communication technologies, human resources, capable leadership at all levels and in all sectors, etc.

However, there is need to pay particular attention to the development of capacities for professionalism in the public service. There is need for a working common understanding of professionalism that includes integrity and ethics which could guide the work of promoting professionalism in the public sector especially in developing countries. Professionalism in the public service is the ability and practice of performing a function in a systematic manner with commitment, selflessness and concern for the general interest, adhering to agreed fundamental principles and values, laws, rules and regulations, to provide the best possible efficient, effective and innovative public services to the community all the time ethically and with integrity. There is a need to link professionalism, ethics and integrity because the three combine into one as the key ingredients in the prevention of corruption in the public service.

There is a huge difference between being an expert, being qualified and being professional. Professionalism goes beyond having extraordinary mastery over knowledge and skills of a subject matter. In addition, it has to do with character, attitude, striving for excellence, competency (the GOALS Institute: Professionalism is for everyone: Five Keys to Being a True Professional, 11th Printing 2011 (Scottsdale, AZ USA) and integrity in behaviour as well as ethical conduct.

In the public service, professionalism can be located at the point where expertise in terms of knowledge and skills meet integrity and ethics to form a competent whole of a highly capable, committed, responsible and responsive public service. Working in a specific profession (medicine, engineering, law, teaching, accountancy, public service, etc.) does not really make one a professional. There are many well qualified experts in fields such as these but who are disdained as professionals, their high positions, knowledge, skills, certifications and high pay notwithstanding. Conceptually, it is difficult to envisage a professional who has no integrity and who behaves unethically. Public service leadership needs to strive to develop professionalism, integrity, ethics and accountability in the public service because decline in this area is feeding on the quality and quantity of the public service and is fuelling corruption.

Basically, professionalism as a behaviour starts with the “self” i.e. to keep clean one’s name and image and to be true to oneself, creating a reputation of truthfulness, self-respect and incorruptibility even before one thinks of whatever regulations, rules, laws and other external constraints against corruption. When a public servant reaches a point where he or she breaks his or her own internal rules, then he or she can break any other rules however stringent!

Integrity means maintaining one’s good reputation, having values and consistently keeping them as the boundaries of one’s conduct and speech, not bending to the pressures and influence and standing upright in how one lives and believes. Doing right all the time especially those times when one knows no one is watching is a good personal measure of integrity which should guide an individual to go through public and private life with his thoughts, words and actions in harmony with values and principles of what is commonly accepted as good. If integrity has to do with acting in line with personal beliefs, then these beliefs must be in line with what is universally good. In other words, a public servant who is generally regarded as an official with integrity, is so regarded both because what he believes is regarded as good by the public he serves and he sticks to those beliefs.

Figure 2: The trinity of professionalism



Source: Designed by the author

The personal values that underpin integrity are supplemented by organisational and societal values and principles that underpin the ethics in the public service. Normally, ethics is understood to address issues of morality. However, applied to public administration morality becomes too abstract to guide ethical conduct. Therefore, rather than begin with morality it is better to start understanding ethics from the premise that public servants have the basic duty of being stewards in the eyes of the public they serve, their superiors who supervise them, their subordinates who look to them for direction and decision, and their colleagues who count on them for team work for effective and timely delivery of whatever services they are expected to deliver. In this regard, ethics becomes the moral justification of how public servants accomplish this stewardship whether in terms of decisions, policies, actions, resources, accomplishments and approaches, nature, amount and quality of services. Ethics in a way becomes a standard of accountability which the public or the public service itself uses to scrutinise the work of the public servants. In fact, the African Charter on the Values and Principles of Public Service and Administration defines public service ethics as “accountability standards by which the work, behaviour and actions of Public Service Agents are scrutinised.” (AU Publishing and Production Plant, Addis Ababa, 2011).

The ethical principles and values of the public service, it is assumed, have to be based on what the public perceives to be correct and acceptable and not on principles and values that are uniquely internal to the public administration. Ethics in public administration attempts to provide avenues for openness in government. Being a steward is being in charge of someone else’s property on their behalf. Public servants are entrusted with stewardship of public resources and they are expected to utilise the resources in a manner acceptable to the public, for the purposes that the public expects, following the rules, regulations and laws known to the public, to conduct themselves in ways that are not shameful to the public on whose behalf they act, and to deliver accountability in a manner that will be understood by the public.

This is the thrust of ethics in the public service. Everything at the disposal of the public servant (summarized as time, treasure, talent and treatment) is from the public entrusted to him/her for the satisfaction of the needs of the public. Clearly the end of ethics is to do what is good or even better. The end of professionalism is to do what is good or even better in one's profession. The end of integrity is to do what is good or even better according to one's beliefs and values. Professionalism in the public service does, therefore, largely reside in the application of not only knowledge, skills, expertise and pursuit of excellence, but equally in integrity and ethical conducts with which the knowledge, skill and pursuit of excellence are exacted. Remove professionalism as an embodiment of integrity, ethics and expertise from public servant, then the public service is gone and with it the hope of ever achieving the MDGs which depend on the delivery of services. Remove professionalism from the public service, then you have opened the flood gates of corruption. And this is what has happened in many countries where corruption in the public service has become endemic.

It has been for long assumed that once one is an "expert" in one's field of study, one becomes a professional. Consequently, teaching professionalism in universities and Management Development Institutes (MDI) and Institutes of Public Administration (IPAs) has not attracted a lot of emphasis. But as Shakespeare puts it, knowing what is good is one thing and doing what is good is another difficult task:

"If to do were as easy as to know what were good to do, chapels had been churches, and poor men's cottages princes' palaces. It is a good divine that follows his own instructions: I can easier teach twenty what were good to be done, than be one of the twenty to follow mine own teaching". (Shakespeare: Merchant of Venice 1980:159)

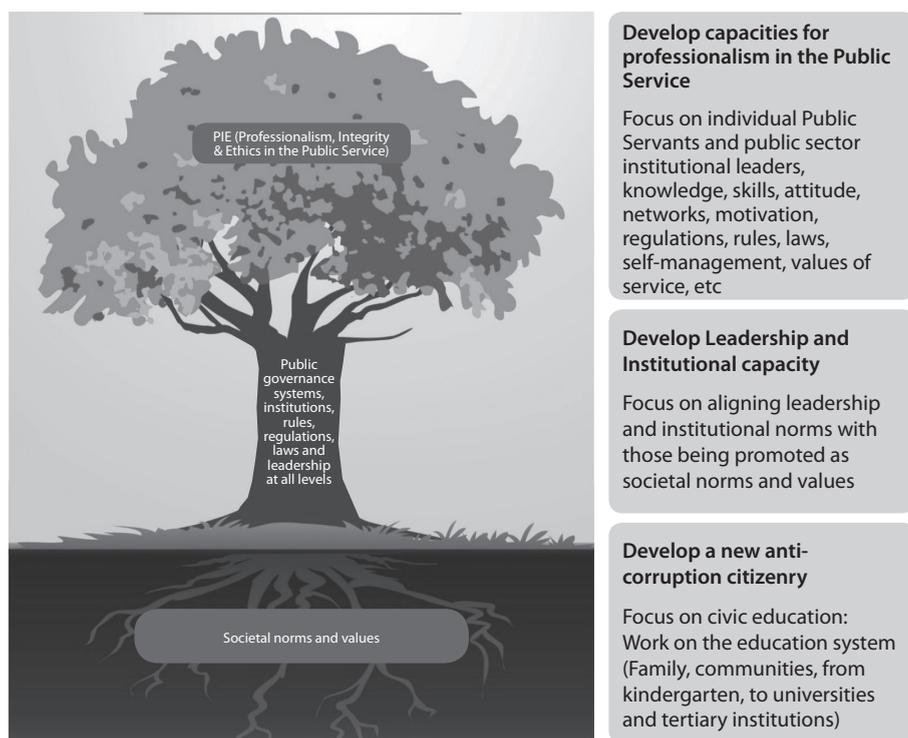
And precisely because it is not easy, the whole effort of developing the capacity of the public service should include a large dose of developing professionalism among public servants. It should not be assumed that because someone is an expert in the subject matter, one will automatically be professional in the public service.

Professionalism needs to be taught in its principles, practices and conduct. However, since "teaching" is not the same as "developing" even if the two are linked, the challenge we have in our hands is how to develop professionalism if we understand it in its broad terms. If professionalism is an amalgam of character, attitude, conduct, excellence, and competence, the question is: of all these what can be developed and how? What needs to be done and how in order to develop professionalism in the public service? This is a critical question for ministries responsible for public service, human resource managers in the public service and management development institutions by whatever name called and indeed all stakeholders and key actors involved in developing the capacity of the public service in Latin America and indeed elsewhere.

This paper asserts that supportive institutional arrangements including systems, structures, laws, rules and regulations as well as professional infrastructure such as professional associations are necessary for professionalism to be developed. Above all leadership is critical in supporting the growth of professionalism.

Figure 3 is a summary of the focus areas for developing professionalism in the public service. The point we are emphasising in the diagram is that, it is a waste of time and resources to only focus on public service agents in developing professionalism for preventing corruption in the public service. Societal norms and values must be examined and progressively changed to align them with the requirements of professionalism in the public service. In other words, there must be efforts to develop an anti-corruption citizenry. Public governance systems, institutions and structures must be revisited and readjusted to suit the needs of developing professionalism and capacity for professionalism, integrity and ethics must be developed among the human resources including leadership in the public service. Developing professionalism needs to be undertaken holistically to include society, governance and the public servants.

Figure 3: Focus areas in developing professionalism in the public service



This diagram was designed and presented in 2012 by the author during the Ad Hoc Expert group Meeting on Preventing Corruption in Public Administration, UN New York and has been used in many fora.

Challenge 5: Developing Anti-Corruption Citizenry

Corruption is like a mushroom. You give it the right soil and environment and it will grow. The right soil and environment for the growth of corruption is constituted by systemic weaknesses in the general society, institutions and systems, leadership both at political and technical levels, and in public servants collectively and as individuals. Strategies for preventing corruption in the public sector must therefore aim at eliminating weaknesses in these areas. This is where those who work on citizen's engagement in preventing corruption in the public service need to be extra careful. The general assumption is that citizens will automatically fight corruption if given an avenue to do so.

I hold the view that, it is not as obvious as it seems. There are some societal norms and values that may encourage or even support corruption in the public services and unless these are questioned and eventually done away with engaging citizens may even be more fuel on the flames of corruption in public sector institutions. I have always kept in mind an anecdote of one of my encounters with public servants in Uganda when I was still a lecturer at the Uganda Management Institute. One participant (a senior public servant) once asked me to explain the meaning of the biblical saying that man "eateth" where he "worketh"! At first I thought he was joking until I realised by the way the discussion progressed that he was serious and there were many others who believed like him that the Bible condones corruption.

In a number of African countries, while the elite hastily verbally condemns corruption among public officials, it is not clear whether the common person does the same in the same measure. There are signs that societal behaviour and expectations towards public officials subject these officials to strong pressures that make them behave in ways that are contrary to diligent and selfless public service. Those that succumb to such pressures by misusing public funds are valued as successful while those that do not succumb or have no opportunity to succumb, are seen as failures. Therefore, developing professionalism to prevent corruption in the public service must include working to shift the norms and values of society to align them with the requirements of a professional public service. Public servants cannot swim in dirty water and get out clean!

It is often said that ethical confusion comes mostly into play when one faces issues and challenges linked to being or not being sure about what to do and in which manner to behave in situations of complicated scenarios where one is called upon to make hard choices. It is easy to quickly reason that corruption does not fall into this kind of dilemma. And indeed in most cases especially with big corruption or even petty corruption those who are involved are well aware that they are acting contrary to what is expected of them. However, in certain societies, sometimes there exist contradictions

between the values of the society a public servant lives in and those demanded by the bureaucracy of a public service that employs them. A prominent American poet put this beautifully as follows:

“The needs of a society determine its ethics, and in the Black American ghettos the hero is that man who is offered only the crumbs from his country’s table but by ingenuity and courage is able to take for himself a Lucullan feast. Hence the janitor who lives in one room but sports a robin’s-egg-blue Cadillac is not laughed at but admired, and the domestic who buys forty-dollar shoes is not criticized but is appreciated. We know that they have put to use their full mental and physical powers. Each single gain feeds into the gains of the body collective.”

(Maya Angelou, 1982)

Therefore, assessment of the norms and values of the society in question as against the tenets of modern public governance especially in light of professionalism of the public service is a critical ingredient of developing professionalism in the public service.

Develop Institutional Capacity: Analysis and assessment of the institutional set up in the public service including organisation structures, systems, laws, rules, and regulations, codes of conduct and institutional arrangements for enforcement of such codes needs to be conducted to inform the process of developing an appropriate institutional arrangement for facilitating the growth of professionalism in the public service. It is critical that institutional development becomes part of developing professionalism. In other words, developing an anti-corruption citizenry needs to be put in the context of developing institutions that can support the citizens to combat corruption. These include institutional arrangements where citizens can support in monitoring planned government activities, report attempts at corruption, etc.

Human Resource Management Practices: In addition ultimately when public service agents are not professional, part of what needs to be questioned is the whole practice of human resource management in the public service. How were these agents selected, recruited, deployed, supervised, motivated, trained, etc. If you recruit a thief, you should not be surprised when he/she embezzles funds. If you recruit a lay person, you should not be surprised if they work minimally! Emphasis on the pursuit of excellence in every field of the public service includes ensuring that excellence is determined not only by the public servant but also by the users of the services provided. There has to be a strong emphasis on sustained research and creation of continuous learning to achieve and sustain excellence. There has to be an assurance that the recruitment processes avail to the public service staff who have character and attitudes that are predisposed to professionalism. There are areas of the public service which could

benefit from the involvement of the citizens in the recruitment process. These areas include, the police, the military, prison services, or even health services. These are areas where background checks on the behaviour and conduct of the prospective public service officers need to be done through consulting the public.

Training and an on-going commitment to learning and improving skills

Analysis and assessment of competence of the public servants vis-à-vis the tasks they have to perform to effectively and efficiently serve the public and ensuring that the necessary competences are developed through training and other staff development activities is critical to the development of professionalism. Ensuring that there is training infrastructure including various training institutions right from kindergarten inculcating professionalism is one of the ways of not only cultivating expertise, ethics, and integrity, in the public service but also changing the values and norms in society. There is a need to realise that the development of appropriate professional values, attitudes and behaviour is a continuum that starts when a student joins a specific training institution and as such professionals in any field need to be exposed to the essence of professionalism. There is work for human resource managers in the public service to advocate the inclusion of professionalism in all training in the country to produce a population that is pre-disposed to provide public services professionally.

Challenge 6: Developing Service, Transformation and Development Oriented Leadership

Developing professionalism in the public service needs public sector leaders with capability for the creativity that can shape and project the future of public services. The development of such a transformative and development-oriented leadership is a challenge that must be addressed because it is part of the key to developing professionalism in the public service on the continent. In this regard, assessment of the type of institutional frameworks and leadership capabilities that is spearheading the public service in light of the requirements that would promote professionalism and prevent corruption is another critical ingredient in the whole task of developing professionalism in the public service.

Transformative leadership is paramount in creating momentum to pursue excellence in all aspects of public governance; especially in the quality of public services as well as in the way the services are delivered. Transformative leadership will devise the means to scan the future, to forecast the coming problems and challenges, and find solutions to them before they emerge. Transformative leadership is critical to achieving sustainable

development, not only because of its goals and drive for innovation but also given what it should value: moral courage and human dignity of individuals, collective goals and values of organisations, and social justice and democracy of society (United Nations, “Innovating Governance and Public Administration for Sustainable Development”, 2014).

The critical thing to bear in mind is that a service and development oriented leadership must be at all levels: regional, national, local and community. The tendency of taking public service leadership to be at only central government level and even here at senior level (e.g. a Permanent Secretary) should be reviewed to conceive public service leadership to be at all level and all agencies. Public service leaders are not only in ministries. They are in local governments as well. They are in hospitals, small clinics, health centres, schools, universities, commissions, etc. They are in the smallest community level projects. And all public service leaders must be having entrepreneurial, administrative, integrative, and operational leadership.

Public service leadership is needed not only for an orderly change but also to establish and sustain compliance with the requirements of the rule of law, professionalism and ethics in the public service. Integrative leadership is required to maintain resilience especially in Africa where many countries are in difficult poverty situations. Entrepreneurial leadership is needed to engineer creativity, innovation, change and transformation in the public service. Finally, operational public service leadership is required to ensure effective delivery of public services including education and health.

Challenge 7: Leading Large-Scale Transformation

Africa is showing signs of boosted socio-politico-economic performance. However, it still lags behind other continents in many respects. Africa still has a big gap to cover in the development race. Small development efforts, projects and programmes will not leap Africa into a future of development glory. Transformation in Africa requires large-scale efforts. Thinking small in Africa now is detrimental to the future. In many countries in Africa, large scale thinking has stalled for some time. For example, in public transport systems including airlines, railways, even public bus systems. Countries have been trying to promote production for export without developed transport systems to transport the products. Some these countries are landlocked and need cross border land transport systems to get to the sea. At each level there is a need for entrepreneurial leadership to spearhead conception of large-scale transformation in many respects of service delivery whether it be health, education, agricultural production, transport, energy, information, etc. At each level, there is a need for capable administrative leadership to ensure that transformation does not turn into chaos.

The larger the scale of transformation, the more there is need for capable administrative leadership to ensure orderly development. At each level there is a need for integrative public service leadership to ensure that the inputs outputs and benefits of the transformation are distributed with equity to avoid rapid development leaving some people behind. At each level, there is need for operational public service leadership to ensure that the planned large-scale transformation is actually implemented. Essentially African leadership should avoid piece-meal development strategies that detach the past from the present and the present from the future.

In countries where local level communities remain deprived of the basics such as primary education, primary healthcare, safe potable water, roads, electricity, radio and television, telephone and even food and shelter, it is tempting to think in terms of “give us our bread today” But public service leadership must overcome this temptation and lead their communities into long term development visions and strategies. Transformational leadership at national, local and regional governance levels must take large scale trends by intensifying the quest for knowledge, technological applications, partnerships, and community based innovative thinking.

Challenge 8: Leading in Times of an Information and Technological Revolution

In layman’s language, the way of doing public administration and providing services to the public has drastically been transformed by advances in information and communication technologies. Governments are currently emphasising the power of information and communications technology to strengthen good governance and public service delivery. Consequently, public service leadership seeking to plan, implement, monitor, evaluate large-scale transformation for Africa’s development must master how to lead the large-scale transformation in the context of an information revolution that has the power to change speed, accuracy, timeliness, accessibility, and especially volume and exchange of information and data. Where the public service used to emphasise confidentiality and monopoly of administrative data and information, the demand and necessity now for effective and efficient public service functions requires open government data, networked and shared information and data. Open government and open data are becoming buzz words for openness, transparency, inclusiveness, participation and accountability.

Governments at national and local levels have much to gain from improved access to information and communications technology, especially broadband networks and services, in terms of bridging the digital divide, gaining access to public service on general terms of equality, and opening doors for women, youth, older persons,

low-income individuals, those living in rural areas and other vulnerable groups. If governments are to address people's aspirations for full employment and decent jobs, better quality healthcare and education, stronger social protection and gender equality, concrete steps are needed to promote affordable access to infrastructure, design citizen-centric services and provide opportunities for all to participate.

All this will require entrepreneurial, integrative, administrative and operational leadership in the public service at all levels. Using information and communications technologies must be part and parcel of planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluation of large-scale transformation for Africa's development. To harness the benefits of globalisation, Africa's public service leadership must embrace and use the full potential of information and communication technology especially in the delivery of services including health, education and others.

Challenge 9: Managing and Harnessing the Potential from Africa's Diversity

African countries have got a wealth of diversity in many respects including the diversity of the people. In the words of the former Minister of State and Public Service- Kenya who was also former 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 realise development by focusing attention on the negative aspects of our diversity." Hon. Dalmas Otieno Anyango: Speech Cotonou, April 2010) and according to Barack Obama, 44th President of the USA, "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." (US Government, Executive Order 13583, August 2011).

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, attitude, mindsets, talent, and capabilities to enhance performance of public sector institutions and contribute to inclusive and equitable sustainable development. The challenges and tasks involved in all this rests squarely on those public servants, political, managerial, administrative and technical personnel who are entrusted with the management of the human resources in the public service

in African countries. However, in many instances in most African countries, the potential from diversity has not been recognised and utilised for positive development.

Diversity has been taken as a problem to be solved rather than a resource to be harnessed. Problems and challenges explode from a human side of the state and therefore public service leadership 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. Therefore, diversity management is about taking diversity as part of a country's social capital for development and must include:

- Identifying and analysing 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 contributions 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; and
- Providing appropriate incentives and environments for the deployment of the diversity components for positive development purposes that benefit all.

Diversity in Africa's public services 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. This is a critical responsibility for public service leaders in Africa.

Challenge 10: Ensuring Orderly and Effective Successions in the Public Service Leadership

In African countries, succession planning is mostly discussed only in terms of politics and elections. It is only looked at in terms of replacement for those who leave the public service leadership. This could be attributed to what happened at independence where Africans had to replace the colonial public service leaders that left. It is also attributed to the traditional career system of the public service where one enters the public service and stays working until retirement. Succession does not have to depend on an executive departure. Effective succession planning should not be a periodic occurrence triggered by such an event. It must be a proactive and systematic investment in building a flow of leaders within the public service, so that when transitions emerge, public service leaders at all levels are available and ready to take up the baton for the relay. The challenge for public service leadership is how to ensure that there is a pool of leaders always to take the lead in knowledge, in innovation, and in transformation in all fields. African governments must put in place and develop clear and known pipelines of capable leaders for the future not only because senior public service leaders eventually retire, but most importantly because issues, challenges, needs and required capabilities shift with development trajectories. This will avoid the tendency of using leadership capacities and capabilities of yesterday to solve tomorrow's problems.

CONCLUSION

This paper has outlined and discussed ten challenges that I consider as critical to the advancement of sustainable development through an effective developmental, service-oriented and transformational public service leadership in African countries. This is not to imply that these are the only serious challenges facing Africa. I believe that there are far more challenges facing Africa's leadership. However, if these ten are not addressed chances of succeeding in addressing the rest become jeopardised. There are so many conflicts in Africa caused by or associated with succession issues. In many African countries, some of the conflicts, including very violent ones, are associated with failure to manage and to harness the positive aspects of having diversity in the countries' societies. It is generally acknowledged that in many African countries corruption has become an insurmountable disease that could be addressed partly through having a professional and ethical public service leadership that does its work with integrity. Poverty in many African countries remains not only a consequence of underdevelopment but also an obstacle to development. All such challenges can only be addressed if they are approached within the context of a higher leadership purpose

of sustainable development at all levels and in all sectors of society. It is difficult to even assess the effectiveness of public service leadership if one does not have a clearly defined higher purpose of the leadership in question. Developing a higher purpose public service leadership in Africa, in this sense, becomes imperative for sustainable development on the continent.

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CHALLENGES FOR SENIOR PUBLIC SECTOR LEADERSHIP: DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES THAT CAN LEAD TO IMPROVEMENT OF SERVICE DELIVERY

David K.W. Ssonko

ABSTRACT

An efficient, responsive, transparent and accountable public sector is not only of paramount importance for the proper functioning of the nation, it is also the basic means through which government strategies to achieve its goals can be implemented. The importance of a well-functioning public administration was reiterated in Resolution 57/277 of the UN General Assembly on Public Administration and Development which states that “an efficient, accountable, effective and transparent public administration at both the national and international levels, has a key role to play in the implementation of internationally agreed goals including the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)”. In that context, the Resolution stresses the need “to strengthen public sector administrative and managerial capacity-building, in particular in developing countries and countries in economic transition”. Improving public service delivery is one of the biggest challenges worldwide. Indeed, public services are a key determinant of quality of life that is not measured in per capita income. It is a particular challenge in Africa, given the low quality of service provision and the pressing need of the poor. It therefore goes without saying that a public sector that is able to deliver public goods and services, and play its role as a facilitator of economic development requires a committed and professional senior leadership possessing new leadership and managerial skills, attitudes and behaviours. As they say, the fish rot from the head, therefore focusing on the senior leadership, which is the head of the public service, will prevent the rotting of the entire public service. Since the quality of senior government officials, their efficiency and effectiveness have assumed added importance, the paper specifically addresses the challenges being faced by the public sector in responding to the demands of the citizens and to the increasing complexity and change in the global environment. The paper focuses on the leadership enhancement programmes which should be conceived and implemented with the aim of making the senior public sector leaders capable of effectively addressing the key issues which will promote public service delivery and improve the people’s quality of life.

INTRODUCTION

The public sector is under pressure to improve service delivery and cooperate more effectively. As a result, there is a growing demand for leadership that is able to carry out these tasks, and see through fundamental processes of change. This has been precipitated by the general conviction that good leadership is scarce in the public sector. This is despite the fact that leadership has for some time been identified as a key determinant of the success of organisations. Research suggests that creating the appropriate climate within a team can account for approximately 30% of the variation in its performance and that the leader has a critical influence on this climate. About 70% of an organisational climate is influenced by the styles (or consistent patterns of behaviour) a leader deploys in relating to others within the team (PIU Research Study, 2005).

Indeed, an efficient, responsive, transparent and accountable public service is of paramount importance for the proper functioning of a nation. Moreover, it is the mechanism through which the government strategises to achieve its goals. Furthermore, the public service is one of the main vehicles through which the relationships between the state and the civil society and the state and the private sector are realised. Recent global crises have reminded us that we live in an unpredictable world; that governments are confronted with increasingly complex issues, many of them taking shape beyond their borders. A well-performing society requires a well-performing public and private sector, and a strong relationship between the two. Therefore, if the public service fails to deliver to the standards aspired to a country can lose its competitiveness, its direct investments and its human capital. The ramifications of a non-performing public sector are significant in their impact on the nation, its people and its economy and of course without an effective public sector, the private sector will not operate at its full potential.

As Ali (2007) has asserted, leadership will continue to be the challenge of the future and any reform effort is doomed if this aspect is not addressed sufficiently. It is at the heart of the matter, for much of the change or shift in paradigm will depend on how well leadership perceives its role in re-engineering change armed with the required competences. This is indeed so because as Draper (2003) has observed, leadership is one of the most significant items on the agendas of the public sector organisations. The explanation for this lies in the challenges facing organisations as they manoeuvre in rapidly changing environments. These changes have far-reaching implications for the career trajectories of senior public service leaders and the roles and skills they need to develop. This is because any national development strategy requires a highly performing public sector; a public sector needs to be able to deliver public goods and services, and play its role as a facilitator of economic development by supporting public and private initiatives and ensuring a conducive social and economic environment. Obviously, this requires a committed, skilled and professional public sector.

METHODOLOGY

The author derived this paper from a wide literature survey of scholarly publications relevant to public sector competences and service delivery. It is also based on the author's interactions with practicing and retired senior public servants in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda, many of whom he has had the opportunity to interact with while he worked as a long serving trainer and a consultant at a Management Development Institute. The author also benefitted from his active participation as one of the experts in a study carried out by M/S Adam Smith International (2010) under the auspices of the World Bank on '*Needs Assessment for Targeted Capacity Building for the Uganda Public Service*'.

HOW IMPORTANT IS SERVICE DELIVERY?

Besley and Ghatal (2007) among others, have observed that improving public service delivery is one of the biggest challenges worldwide. Public services are a key determinant of the quality of life that is not measured in per capita income. It is a particular challenge in Africa, given the low quality of service provision and the pressing needs of the poor, the majority of whom look at the government as the sole provider of the much needed services like education, health and agricultural improvements.

The public sector is, collectively, the world's largest service provider. Any incremental improvement in public services positively impacts on millions of people. For more than five decades now, after overthrowing the colonial yoke by the majority of African nations, the exuberance that marked the dawn of a new Africa has been replaced by growing signs of despair regarding the inability of many governments to provide services that the majority of people waited for. Poverty, poor health services, falling education standards and impassible roads still elude the post-independence governments. While several factors might have contributed to this disappointment, the sometimes wanting competences of leaders in government particularly the bureaucrats might have negatively affected service delivery.

Service delivery according to Gash and Wanna (2006) has been defined as a process whereby governments deliver publicly identified goods and services to citizens or the community through various mechanisms, instruments and relationships. Service delivery is a term that has gained prominence in the governance literature over the past half a century, particularly under the pressures and promises of an expanding welfare state. Classical notions of service delivery have focused on the role of government in authorising and delivering basic goods and services to select individuals or the broader community. But over time, interpretations of service delivery have been expanded to include the entire policy process (specifically, policy design, policy implementation,

operational management, public resources-both financial and human and monitoring and feedback). The development of service delivery has been influenced by changing ideas over public provision and alternative ways of providing goods and services in the context of economic and budgetary pressures.

THE LEADERSHIP CONCEPT

Social scientists have devoted a large chunk of their brain power to defining and differentiating the concepts of leadership and management. Despite the strong emphasis on leadership today and, because of the demand for better leadership across many contexts, there is lack of common understanding or agreement on what leadership is and how leadership should be practiced (Bennett and Bell, 2005). Over the years, scholars have defined leadership in many different ways; some as an inherent trait, others as set of skills or behaviours, and still others as a process or relationship (Haber, 2012). Thus, the concept of leadership is perceived and promoted in different ways. Traditional, industrial perspectives promote leadership as transactional, hierarchical, and exclusive, while more contemporary, post-industrial perspectives embrace leadership as inclusive, empowering, and rational (Northouse, 2007). As Dukakis and Portz (2010) have observed, scholars in this area most often note the differences between leadership and management. Kotter (1996), for example, describes leadership as “the development of vision and strategies, the alignment of relevant people behind those strategies, and the empowerment of individuals to make the vision happen, despite obstacles.”

Kotter further argues that leadership is about establishing direction for an organisation, then bringing together, motivating, and inspiring people to move in that direction. This agrees with Kouzes and Posner (2003) who point out that a leader who can inspire, persuade, influence and motivate can spearhead useful changes. Kouzes and his colleague further stress that a leader creates a vision for others, and then directs them towards achieving that vision. On the other hand, Kotter (1996) notes that management “involves keeping the current systems operating through planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling and problem solving”. Management skills work through hierarchy and systems, rather than the people and culture that characterises the area of leadership.

Similarly, according to Lee and Deal (2008), a leader must have the “power” of a “warrior” and the “passion” of a “wizard”. As a warrior, a leader must fight for the organisation’s agenda by building a “power base of allies, resources, networks, and coalitions” (ibid). Leaders are also wizards who “bring imagination, insight, creativity, vision, meaning, and magic to the work of leadership”. Herma (2008) adds that leadership is the capacity

at both the individual and institutional levels to identify and define organisational goals and desired outcomes; develop strategies and plans to achieve those goals and deliver those outcomes; and guide the organisation and motivate its people in reaching those goals and outcomes. This requires energy, commitment, persistence, integrity, intelligence and a capacity to inspire from the leader and the encouragement of these attributes from the organisation.

Kotter (1996) also notes that the same individual often is challenged to be both a leader and a manager and should therefore endeavour to exercise the skills of both. All this adds up to emphasise that effective leadership is the key to achieving collective excellence. Without strong leadership, even an organisation full of talented individuals will surely drift without purpose, like a ship without a rudder. It is the leader who most affects the organisational climate and provides direction, motivation, and inspiration for his organisation (Becker, 2007). While this has always been true of leadership, today's strategic environment is volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous. It is changing more rapidly than ever before and the increased interdependence as a result of globalisation, in addition to rapidly evolving threats, requires a special emphasis on specific strategic leader competences to succeed. This accordingly requires specific leadership development programmes to empower those occupying positions of leadership in the public sector organisations.

The Scope of the Senior Public Sector Leadership

Who constitutes the senior "cadre-ship" of the public sector? The answer to this question is likely to vary from country to country. However, as a basis for the definition in this paper, the OECD (2008) definition will be used:

"A Senior Civil Service is a structured and recognises system of personnel for the higher non-political positions in government. It is a career civil service providing people to be competitively appointed to functions that cover policy advice, operational delivery or corporate service delivery. The service is centrally managed through appropriate institutions and procedures, in order to provide stability and professionalism of the core group of senior civil servants, but also allowing the necessary flexibility to match changes in the composition of Government by using appropriate due processes."

This band of public servants is located near the vertex of the executive pyramid, just below the ministers. Senior public servants rarely work in technical areas such as law and medicine, in frontline service delivery, or as personal staff of a minister. Their job content has more of a professional management and less of technical expertise. The senior public service is a subset of the universe of general civil servants, to whom

they are expected to provide leadership by their vision, performance, integrity and innovation. It is an enclave within the public service that receives broader opportunities, has special conditions of employment, is held to rigorous standards of performance and behaviour, is paid a higher rate of remuneration, and has less job security. In many countries, the functional titles of senior public servants and the amount of functional levels for the Senior Public Service positions differ. Level 1 normally consists of Permanent Secretaries/Director-Generals. Level 2 consists of Directors who head directorates and Level 3 may be occupied by Commissioners, Under-Secretaries, etc. as head of department.

Since improving public organisations' performance is the overall goal of governments, the senior public servants are therefore expected to provide leadership and management to that effort. Such senior officers can be a useful bridge between policy making and implementation. Drawing on their knowledge of government laws, procedures and resources, senior public servants can present information to ministers in a way that helps them make policy choices. They can advise on what is implementable within the country's financial situation and available human resources. Experience of government organisations' functioning and their managerial perspective enables the senior officers to shape and guide implementation strategies.

According to Kuperus and Rode (2010), the top management of public organisations must balance the interests of every stakeholder, which include politicians, citizens and enterprises as well as their employees. They have a role as policy-makers and as employers. They therefore need a vision and strategy, strong leadership competences and people management skills, as well as political and environment awareness. It therefore goes without saying that such senior/top officers require specific competences which should continuously be updated through the relevant skills development programmes.

THE KEY ISSUES FACING TOP LEVEL LEADERSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

Kouzes and Posner (2003) have correctly pointed out that the leadership challenge is about how leaders Mobilise others to want to get extraordinary things done in their organisations. It is about the practices leaders use to transform values into actions, visions into realities, obstacles into innovations, separateness into solidarity, and risks into rewards. It is about a leadership that creates the climate in which people turn challenging opportunities into remarkable success. Therefore, public sector organisations the world over are being challenged to increase their performance and efficiency, modify their attitudes regarding management and leadership, and provide better services to internal clients and the public. Managerial skills and qualities that were important during the past two decades are no longer sufficient to cope with the future challenges; new competences for public sector management therefore have to be introduced.

These days, top public managers are expected to be more performance-oriented and less process-compliant. Kiyaga-Nsubuga (2007) Emphases that a major issue in current development discourse is how to enable public services in Africa to become more effective agents of change in the face of daunting development challenges. Countries must respond creatively to the opportunities and constraints arising from globalisation and the rapid changes in information and communication technology.

Additionally, they must consolidate nationhood, expand their economies and respond effectively to increasing citizen demands for improved service delivery and accountability. This requires public sector leadership to respond to the real and daunting challenges facing African governments and enhance their capacity to deal with them. According to Ali (2007), the key factor here is to differentiate between leading and managing. Leaders in the public service need to be constantly reminded of the need to go beyond management. In the words of Warren Bennis (2008) "management is doing things right; leadership is doing the right thing." And as Kabacoff (2006) has observed, part of this challenge comes from the need to cope with the new forms of competition, market demands, technological innovations and global economic shifts.

Indeed, the contemporary world is both a more complicated and interconnected one than in the past (Rosenbaum, 2003). As a result, top-level government leaders - whether they are elected, appointed or senior civil servants have to increasingly understand a wide array of issues that impact upon government at all levels (supranational, national and sub-national). Rosenbaum argues that the understanding of such issues is critical to senior level government leaders in at least two ways. First, such issues often are the

sources of the everyday problems that governmental leaders must attempt to solve. Second, even when they are not the direct sources of the problems facing governmental leaders, they create the context within which such individuals must operate on a day-to-day basis. This means that for contemporary government leaders, inevitably one of their highest priorities is better understanding of the many complex issues which impact upon them and their countries. Indeed, without an understanding of such issues, they will find it difficult, if not impossible, to institute policies and programmes which produce outcomes reasonably parallel to the intended goals.

Draper (2003) has provided discussion of the following environmental forces impacting on public sector organisations and creating challenges for leadership:

- The pace of technological change, particularly information and communication technology;
- Globalisation;
- Rising expectations of citizens and consumers with respect to quality service, and demands for inclusion in decision-making;
- Increasing diversity in our societies, and growing acceptance of the need for organisations to be more inclusive in their approaches to people;
- The demand for more performance-oriented organisations;
- The growing recognition of the importance of alliances and partnerships, and the consequent need for networking among institutions;
- The need to lead significant transformation in organisations; and
- Economic/fiscal pressure.

Of the above outlined forces, globalisation deserves special mention. This is because top public officers will find it increasingly difficult to transact their respective roles unless they are ready and willing to accept its impact on their performance. According to Abonyi and Slyke (2010), globalisation in its many forms defines the fundamental challenge to the role of government and public administration in the twenty-first century. It is shaping new types of interactions and interdependence among nations, economies, and people, and, in the process, it is changing the basic roles and functions of government.

The primary challenge to public administration is one of connecting government to an increasingly complex, dynamic and networked global environment (Mintzberg, 2004). This requires collaborating effectively with non-governmental enterprises, particularly the private sector, to shape policy and deliver services while maintaining public accountability. Globalisation changes the basic role of governance: it requires linking versus commanding, convincing versus controlling, and enabling and partnering versus doing.

As Caine and Stier (2010) note, “In today’s interconnected world this requires building a new generation of leaders and workers with international experience, a global perspective, and the skills to match”. Razzaq (2005) adds that the phenomenon of globalisation has thus added greatly to the importance of quality decision making in the public sector. In particular, senior officials must be increasingly aware of national and international environment and be able to respond to new challenges and opportunities. If these elements are in short supply in a country, its prospects of success in a global market place are dim and its ability to achieve a reasonable rate of economic growth, critically important for poverty alleviation, would be adversely affected. This would turn such a country into a poor globaliser which would be increasingly marginalised and sink more in isolation and poverty. Of course many top government officials ought to know that doing things the “old way” no longer meets the demands of a more complex and interconnected international economy or the expectations of a more globally-linked and politically aware citizenry.

Taken together, these increased demands on public organisations create a need for highly effective leadership and the requirement of new leadership skills. This is because leaders today are less able to manipulate the world through traditional “command and control” methods. They need to collaborate more, manage change through others and focus on customers whose problems may not be susceptible to solution by a single agency. But above all, there is need for leaders who are able to see the whole picture, and create a common vision with other agencies.

Identifying the Required Competencies for Top Public Officers

As discussed above, the changing role of the state as well as new international forces have resulted in the need for new skills, attitudes and behaviour among public officials at all levels. It is not surprising then that the core competences for the public sector of the twenty-first century differ in many ways from those of the past, especially as the demands placed on public servants, in terms of skills, knowledge and capacities, are rapidly increasing and becoming more complex. They now need managerial focus, leadership skills, an innovation and communication-based focus, as well as professional competence. These competences are prerequisites for productive top management.

Traditional values such as hierarchy, authority through position, conformity and the command-control paradigm are slowly going to transform into new cultural values within public administration. These new cultural values will include openness, transparency, efficiency, effectiveness, authority through leadership and managerial culture. Indeed, as pointed out by Jarvalt and Veisson (2010) the major aim of developing senior public servants is to promote a cohesive group of top officials

representing not only a departmental resource but also a corporate resource for the service as a whole. That is the level at which public servants are expected to adopt a more strategic focus, look more widely and network across as well as within ministerial or departmental boundaries, obtain greater management, leadership and representational responsibilities. The top public servants are expected to give a clear lead and sense of direction to the rest of the service; and this often means leading by example.

The required competences for the top officials in the public sector must inevitably be in accordance with the impetus for the competence-based management in the public sector. According to Slocum et al (2008), competence is a combination of knowledge, skills, behaviours, and attitudes that contribute to personal effectiveness. Competences are observable and measurable behaviour, which are critical to successful individual and corporate performance. The competence-based management focuses on leading an organisation through the business environment using core competences. This approach supports a strategic and integrated approach to developing strategic leadership. Competence-based management has become part of the lexicon of the public sectors in a wide range of countries, including the U.S, Australia, New Zealand, U.K, Germany, Belgium, Netherlands and Canada (Mau, 2007).

Since the public sectors in Africa critically need effective leadership, from this perspective there is a need for individuals who can look at the “big picture” and lead others to overcome the challenges countries are facing. Countries want top public officials with vision who can bring together resources and people to address their common concerns. Citizens are looking for inspiration, integrity, and purpose in their government officials. In fact, as pointed out by Becker (2007), visioning is the first of the most critical strategic-leader competences because without a clear vision of where an organisation is going there can be no road map or strategic plan to get it there. And while the current strategic environment makes it difficult to develop a perfect road map for the future, a good vision will develop the image of “what ought to be” so the organisation can position itself for future success. Hence, visionary leadership is perhaps the most powerful attribute a strategic leader brings to the organisation.

Similarly, there is need for better management in the public sector organisations. From this perspective, the key concern is effective and efficient delivery of government services. Therefore, we need top government officials who are skilled in the allocation and oversight of human and financial resources. We also need effective managers who can implement and deliver the many services citizens expect from government at the lowest possible cost. In fact, as Dukakis and Portz (2010) have observed we need a well constituted “*leader-manager*” within the top leadership of the public service. Rather

than a dichotomy between leadership and management, we need senior public servants who can effectively operate in both realms. The public sector needs leader-managers who demonstrate leadership as well as management skills so that they can bring vision to their work as well as organize resources to effectively deliver services. We therefore need public sector officials who can inspire others to address the challenges nations face, who can be effective managers to implement government policies, and who can do both with a high degree of competence and absolute integrity.

Based on the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service (USFWS) Leadership Competency Development Model (2008), the U.S Office of Personnel Management (OPM), other reviewed literature particularly from the OECD countries; the study by the Crown Agents (2004) on the leadership and management needs for top and senior public sector managers in Uganda plus a similar study done in Uganda by Adam Smith International (2010) together with the Draper (2003) observations, I wish to propose the following leadership competences which senior public sector officials need to have and demonstrate:

- **Accountability.** Top public sector officials must ensure that effective controls are both developed and maintained to ensure the integrity of the organisation. They should hold themselves and others accountable for rules and responsibilities and be relied upon to ensure that projects within their area of responsibility are completed in a timely manner and within budget.
- **Decisiveness.** Top officers should exercise good judgment by making sound and well informed decisions; perceive the impact and implications of decisions; make effective and timely decisions, even when data are limited or solutions produce unpleasant consequences; and proactive and achievement oriented.
- **Developing Others.** Top officers should be able to develop the ability of others to perform and contribute to the organisation by providing ongoing feedback and by providing opportunities for them to learn through formal and informal methods.
- **Influencing and Negotiating.** They should be able to persuade others; build consensus through give and take; gain cooperation from others to obtain information and accomplish goals; facilitate “win-win” situations; maximise use of resources within applicable regulatory limits.
- **Political Savvy.** They should identify the internal and external politics that impact the work of the organisation, approach each problem situation with a clear perception of organisational and political reality and recognise the impact of alternative courses of action.
- **Strategic Thinking.** Top leaders should possess the ability to formulate effective strategies consistent with the mission, vision, and priorities of the service in a

global environment. They need to examine policy issues and strategic planning with long-term perspective. Determine objectives and set priorities while anticipating potential threats or opportunities.

- **Vision.** The leaders should take a long-term view and act as a catalyst for organisational change, create a shared vision with others and influence others to translate that vision into action.
- **Environmental Sensitivity.** Leaders must be aware of both their internal and external environments. They should also be clear about the implications of environmental changes for the future of the organisation.
- **Constant Interrogation of the status quo and conventional wisdom.** They should have the capacity and be prepared to question the prevailing assumptions, and to create the organisational space to facilitate dialogue about norms and the status quo.
- **Human/People-Focus.** Leaders must create the environment that allows people to explore new possibilities, and to develop their potential. They must value and support people. This must include recognising, rewarding and celebrating the accomplishments of others.
- **Partnership/ Coalition Building.** Leaders need to foster the involvement of people who have the resources, the knowledge and the political clout to make things happen.
- **Performance and Results-Oriented.** Leaders must ensure an alignment of performance with vision. They must demonstrate a performance orientation.
- **Accommodation and Tolerance of Diversity and Dissent.** Leaders must demonstrate styles which are inclusive and which utilise the skills, knowledge and ideas of all. They must be able to integrate different cultures, points of view, styles, sectors and disciplines.
- **Team-building.** Leaders must build support teams, be willing to select the best talent and support the work of teams.
- **Continuous Learning.** Leaders must be learners. They must be receptive to information from outside the current framework, and to be open to feedback.
- **Globalisation.** Leaders must be able to appreciate the organisational global interdependence and how to work within the globalised environment and its impact on the organisations which they lead.
- **Entrepreneurship and Risk-Taking.** Transformation and change have become major leadership themes given the turbulence of the environment. Leaders must therefore be willing to experiment and take risks to foster an environment within which others embrace new ways of doing things. Leaders must also demonstrate the emotional strength to manage their own anxiety and the anxiety of the stakeholders caused by change.

There are numerous activities or ways public sector officers can utilise to provide the opportunities to develop the above mentioned competences. This paper however emphasises the development programmes through which the identified competences can be improved for better service delivery.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES

There are several ways to achieve the right top public manager's competences. First of all, competence profiles could and should be used in the recruitment process to define the requirements for specific vacancies or group positions at a specific level. Furthermore, competences can be improved through training and development activities for individuals or groups. The competences identified in the earlier paragraphs can easily serve as a Senior Public Sector Managers Leadership Competence Framework which can be applied to institute development programmes for the relevant officers.

Saidi (2007) has emphasised that the use of management and leadership competence or capability frameworks is increasing in many countries, developed and developing. Competence frameworks as noted earlier comprise an array of values, knowledge, skills and attributes that describe the full range of professional requirements essential to the achievements of public sector objectives.

Leadership enhancement programmes must be conceived and implemented with the aim of making leaders capable of effectively addressing the key issues facing the world today. As a result, the leadership development programmes need to be interdisciplinary, international and inter-sectoral (involving public, private and non-profit organisations). As suggested by Rosenbaum (2003) the first step in regard to future activities in this area should involve additional effort to better understand the processes of working most effectively with top-level government leadership in the area of competence enhancement. The major purpose of such leadership enhancement should be (i) reinforcing the values of leadership and serving the public, (ii) sharing experiences and best practices and (iii) enhancing team spirit (Kauzya, 2007). In doing so, there should be close consultation with governments and management development institutions at national and regional levels since they are in a better position (as Kauzya believes) to determine both the opportunity and necessity for this kind of training, its approaches, methodology and its content. Since leadership and management development refer to more than just classroom training, we accordingly propose a leadership and management development programme that comprise a range of activities that aid learning including:

- Taught modules
- Establishment of a public sector senior leadership development forum

- Regional workshops
- Secondment and exchange
- Performance Management for Senior Leaders.

Taught Modules

The programme should include the provision of taught modules in the competences as identified by the Leadership Competence Framework. The basic tool and techniques of, for example, influencing and negotiating, political savvy, strategic thinking and environmental sensitivity would make a highly practical module. The other benefits of classroom training include: (i) the sharing of ideas (ii) networking opportunities among senior managers, and (iii) creating common standards across management of the public service. The national Management Development Institutes (MDIs) should play a leading role in developing the modules in consultation with the ministries responsible for staff development. As Kauzya (2007) has rightly argued, MDIs have a critical role to play. In Africa, MDIs constitute the infrastructure in their respective countries for management and leadership development; many of them have human resources capable of doing management and leadership research, training, and technical advisory work, as well as providing consultancy services.

Establishment of a Public Sector Senior Leadership Development Forum

This Forum should consist of all top public officials who should meet regularly to discuss topical issues derived from the approved Leadership Competence Framework or Model. In order to provide such a Forum with the deserved clout, it should preferably be anchored within the Office of the President. This Forum could take forward development and training by:

- Facilitating networking and joint learning amongst ministries and departments and ensuring the sharing of best practice on leadership development programmes.
- Identifying “common elements” of public sector leadership to be included in leadership programmes across the public sector.

Facilitators in such fora should be experienced public practitioners and experienced trainers from the national management development institutions and universities who have done adequate research on the relevant public sector leadership issues. Such a caliber of facilitators would help in dispelling the common imaginary thinking among some of the top public servants that “home” delivered developmental programmes are below their standards and requirements.

Regional Workshops

Regional workshops of the top leadership held under the auspices of say the African Association of Public Administration and Management (AAPAM) would enable the exchange of views, experiences and challenges amongst the participants who would come from the different countries of the region. It is likely that quite often countries within the same region have similar challenges which can best be solved when they meet as a region.

Secondment and Exchange

Taught development programmes should be balanced with experiential learning. Leaders gain new perspectives and competences through working in different environments. There is a strong case for promoting secondments, exchanges and other experience-broadening episodes among leaders. Broadening the experience of top leaders can help organisations to develop partnerships with other organisations across the public and private sectors. In best practice terms, secondments should be designed to address one or more identified leadership development needs and the individual should have regular reviews and support.

Performance Management for Senior Leaders

Senior public sector officers like other public servants, should be subjected to a performance management regime, which takes into account performance against output objectives and behavioural characteristics and includes a personal development plan, with an agreed plan of action to address identified performance gaps. Individuals should receive regular feedback from those to whom they are accountable on progress and performance.

It is important to reiterate that people who reach the top of their field are always in danger of thinking that they have nothing left to learn. If that happens to anyone, it will mark the beginning of the end. As observed in our earlier discussion, to be effective, leaders must always be learners. You can never arrive- you can only strive to get better. Much of what we have found to be required as the necessary competences for top leaders in the public sector involves a change in mindsets, attitude and behavior in order to respond to the leadership changes ahead. The possibility of adopting these required behaviors is therefore open to all.

CONCLUSION

The need for improved public service delivery and the enhancement of leadership capacity is taking place against the background of rapidly changing environments. Obviously, the skill and competence needs of the present and future senior public sector leaders differ from the past. As in every profession, new circumstances require the development of new, or the re-definition of existing, skills. There is no doubt that the public sector will continue to play a critical role in the transformation of nations and that development will largely depend on the skills top public servants have in propelling the development programmes. Top managers should perform as leaders instead of just as managers, and must be able to bring movement and change to the organisation in a way that encourages employees to be part of the movement. For management this will mean strategic thinking and vision, integrity and ethics, getting the best from people, making a personal impact, self-reflection for continued learning and improvement, focus on the outcomes, building relations, supporting teams, and creating shared understanding and values. In order to cover every competence required, top management has to operate as a complementary team. All possible steps should therefore be deployed to ensure that such leaders possess the right skills and mindsets.

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IS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE A KEY ATTRIBUTE OF QUALITY LEADERSHIP?

Martin Muhereza

ABSTRACT

There is need for quality leadership in order to have great accomplishments. Quality leadership is a combination of many factors including honesty, straightforwardness, result orientation, self-control, attentiveness, enthusiasm, a sense of urgency, being empathetic, approachability, firmness, transparency, organisational skills, consistency, pragmatism, empathy, optimism, and as many more others as there are successful leaders. At the turn of the 19th century Charles Darwin mentioned the importance of emotional expression for survival, citing cognitive aspects such as memory and problem-solving. The term emotional intelligence features in the writings of Payne (1985) while studying emotion. Emotional Intelligence is seen as a variety of competencies and skills that lead to successful leadership performance. In one sense it refers to the ability to make use of sources of information to understand the social environment. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain behaviours. In another sense it is looked at in reference to certain traits that help a person to recognise what needs to be done in order to lead others in the accomplishment of goals. This is opposed to the long held view that it is only intelligence quotient tests that can reveal one's capacity. It is certainly a big question to know whether emotional intelligence is a key attribute of quality leadership. Quality leadership is very much needed in the world and more so in Africa because the continent has faced a number of administrative and governance problems, some of which have been attributed to poor leadership. Considering the factors attributed to quality leadership, there seems to be a correlation between emotional intelligence and quality leadership. This is substantiated by interviewing professionals and scholars in a variety of leadership positions, plus digging into existing scholarly works to discover current debates on the subject. This paper looks at models, theories, concepts on emotional intelligence and attempts to show their relevance and application. It concludes with a report on whether there is a relationship or not between the two variables while making recommendations on how the two aspects complement each other in bringing about effective leadership and good governance.

INTRODUCTION

Definition:

Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to perceive, control and evaluate emotions. Some researchers, (Goleman (2008, Mayer (1986), suggest that emotional intelligence can be learned and strengthened, while others claim it is an inborn characteristic. Emotional intelligence is defined by the ability to understand and manage our emotions and those around us, (Goleman 2008). This quality gives individuals a variety of skills, such as the ability to manage relationships, navigate social networks, and influence and inspire others. Every individual possesses different qualities, but in order for individuals to become effective leaders, they all need a high level of emotional intelligence. Reuven, (2000) explains that emotional intelligence describes the ability, capacity, skill or self-perceived ability to identify, assess and manage the emotions of oneself and of others. Emotional intelligence refers to a variety of competencies and skills that lead to successful leadership. It is looked at in reference to certain traits that help a person to recognise what needs to be done in order to lead others in the accomplishment of goals (McClelland,1998).

These traits include, among others, honesty, straightforwardness, result orientation, patience, self-control, coaching ability, attentiveness, enthusiasm, a sense of urgency, empathy, approachability, firmness, transparency, organisational skills, consistency, being realistic, and optimism. People who possess these traits tend to be sociable, resilient and optimistic. Since 1990, Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer have been the leading researchers on emotional intelligence. In their influential article "Emotional Intelligence," they defined it as, "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey and Mayer 1990). Charisma, purpose, determination – are just a few of the traits that are typically used to define a leader. However, many leaders have a single quality in common. In short, what distinguishes the best leaders from the majority is their level of emotional intelligence.

EVOLUTION OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

One of the ancient philosophers, Plato, is quoted to have said that "All learning has an emotional base". The earliest roots of emotional intelligence can be traced to Charles Darwin's work on the importance of emotional expression for survival and adaptation. In the 1900s, even though traditional definitions of intelligence emphasised cognitive aspects such as memory and problem-solving, several influential researchers in the intelligence field of study had begun to recognise the importance of the non-cognitive

aspects. For instance, as early as 1920, Thorndike used the term 'social intelligence' to describe the skill of understanding and managing other people. In 1930s, Thorndike describes the concept of "social intelligence" as the ability to get along with other people (Thorndike, 1930). In 1940, Wechsler's reference described the influence of non-intellectual factors on intelligent behaviour, and further argued that our models of intelligence would not be complete until we could adequately describe these factors.

Wechsler suggested that affective components of intelligence might be essential to success in life. 1950s – humanistic psychologists such as Abraham Maslow described how people can build emotional strength (Maslow,1950). The term "emotional intelligence" also appeared in Leuner (1966) and Howard Gardner (1975) where they also introduced the concept of multiple intelligences. Payne (1985) introduced the term emotional intelligence in his doctoral dissertation titled *"A study of emotion: developing emotional intelligence; self-integration; relating to fear, pain and desire theory, structure of reality, problem-solving, contraction/expansion."* (Payne, 1985). In an article published in Mensa Magazine, Keith Beasley (1987) used the term "emotional quotient." The concept of emotional intelligence was popularised after publication of psychologist and New York Times science writer Daniel Goleman's book (1995) *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*. Daniel (2000) makes a distinction between 'trait emotional intelligence' and 'ability emotional intelligence, (Goleman' 1995).

MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Ability Model

Salovey and Mayer's conception of emotional intelligence strives to define EI within the confines of the standard criteria for a new intelligence. Following their continuing research, their initial definition of EI was revised to:

"The ability to perceive emotion, integrate emotion to facilitate thought, understand emotions and to regulate emotions to promote personal growth."

The ability-based model views emotions as useful sources of information that help one to make sense of and navigate the social environment. The model proposes that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain adaptive behaviours. The model claims that EI includes four types of abilities:

Perceiving emotions – the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices and cultural artefacts, including the ability to identify one's own emotions.

Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of emotional intelligence, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.

Using emotions – the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalise fully upon his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.

Understanding emotions – the ability to comprehend emotional language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, and the ability to recognise and describe how emotions evolve over time.

Managing emotions – the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and others. Therefore, an emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

Mixed Model-Daniel Goleman

The first formal model of emotional intelligence in 1990 was the one Daniel Goleman relied on in his popularization of the field. Goleman says that social intelligence – empathy and social skill – are essentials for effective leadership, although very often people are promoted to leadership positions because they have attained excellent results as sole performers. But if they lack social intelligence they will struggle. He talks of motives, social skills, all forms of self-regulation and warmth, among many other attributes. His critics, such as Carusa et al, say that the problem with this idea is that those different psychological qualities are separate and independent of one another both conceptually and empirically (e.g. they do not correlate). Moreover, most of them have little to do directly and specifically either with emotion or intelligence. Mixing them together created considerable conceptual confusion. Today, such models are called “mixed models,” as they mix many attributes unrelated to emotion, intelligence or emotional intelligence, in with the emotional intelligence concept. The mixed model was introduced by Daniel Goleman and it focuses on emotional intelligence as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman’s model outlines five main emotional intelligence constructs:

Self-awareness – the ability to know one’s emotions, strengths, weaknesses, drives, values and goals and recognise their impact on others while using gut feelings to guide decisions;

Self-regulation – involves controlling or redirecting one’s disruptive emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances;

Social skill – managing relationships to move people in the desired direction

Empathy – considering other people’s feelings especially when making decisions; and

Motivation – being driven to achieve for the sake of achievement, (Goleman 1998).

Goleman includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of EI. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that must be worked on and can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.

Trait Model

Soviet-born British psychologist Petrides (2001) proposed a conceptual distinction between the ability-based model and a trait-based model of EI and has been developing the latter over many years in numerous scientific publications. Trait Emotional Intelligence is “a collection of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality.” In lay terms, Trait Emotional intelligence refers to an individual’s self-perceptions of his emotional abilities. This definition of emotional intelligence encompasses behavioural dispositions and self-perceived abilities and is measured by self-report, as opposed to the ability-based model which refers to actual abilities, which have proven highly resistant to scientific measurement. Trait emotional intelligence should be investigated within a personality framework.

The Four Branches Model

The four branches model of emotional intelligence describes four areas of capacities or skills that collectively describe many areas of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). More specifically, this model defines emotional intelligence as involving the abilities to: accurately perceive emotions in oneself and others use of emotions to facilitate thinking, understanding emotional meanings and managing emotions.

Four Branches

Perceiving Emotion: The initial, most basic, area has to do with the non-verbal reception and expression of emotion. Evolutionary biologists and psychologists have pointed out that emotional expression evolved in animal species as a form of crucial social communication. Facial expressions such as happiness, sadness, anger and fear, were universally recognisable in human beings. Emotions researchers, evolutionary biologists, specialists in non-verbal behaviour and others, have made tremendous inroads into understanding how human beings recognise and express emotions.

The capacity to accurately perceive emotions in the face or voice of others provides a crucial starting point for more advanced understanding of emotions.

Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought: The second area appeared to be as basic as the first. This was the capacity of the emotions to enter into and guide the cognitive system and promote thinking. For example, cognitive scientists point out that emotions prioritise thinking. In other words; we respond emotionally to something that captures our attention. Having a good system of emotional input, therefore, should help direct thinking toward matters that are truly important. As a second example, a number of researchers have suggested that emotions are important for certain kinds of creativity to emerge. For example, both negative and positive mood swings have been implicated in their capacity to carry out creative thought.

Understanding Emotions: Emotions convey information. Happiness usually indicates a desire to join with other people. Anger indicates a desire to attack or harm others while fear indicates a desire to escape, and so forth. Each emotion conveys its own pattern of possible messages and actions associated with those messages. A message of anger, for example, may mean that the individual feels treated unfairly. The anger, in turn, might be associated with specific sets of possible actions: peace-making, attacking, retribution and revenge-seeking, or withdrawal to seek calmness. Understanding emotional messages and the actions associated with them is one important aspect of this area of skill.

Once a person can identify such messages and potential actions the capacity to reason with and about those emotional messages and actions becomes of importance as well. Fully understanding emotions involves the comprehension of the meaning of emotions, coupled with the capacity to reason about those meanings. It is central to this group of emotionally intelligence skills.

Managing Emotions: Finally, emotions often can be managed. A person needs to understand how emotions convey information. A person may want to remain open to emotional signals so long as they are not too painful, and block out those that are overwhelming. In between, within the person's emotional comfort zone, it becomes possible to regulate and manage one's own and others' emotions so as to promote one's own and others' personal and social goals.

To provide a practical and simple way to learn and practise emotional intelligence, Six Seconds (1997) developed a three-part model as a process – an action plan for using emotional intelligence in daily life.

Three-Part Model -Six Seconds' Emotional Model

This model of EQ-in-Action begins with three important pursuits: to become more aware (noticing what you do), more intentional (doing what you mean), and more purposeful (doing it for a reason). It is about knowing yourself clearly and seeing what you feel and do. Emotions are data and these competencies allow you to accurately collect that information. Choose to be yourself doing what you mean to do. Instead of reacting “on autopilot,” these competencies allow a person to pro-actively respond.

Doing it for a Reason

These competencies help you put your vision and mission into action so you lead on purpose and with full integrity. Know yourself gives you the “what”, that is when you know yourself, you know your strengths and challenges, what you are doing, what you want and what to change. Choose yourself provides the “how” – it shows you how to take action, how to influence yourself and others, how to “operationalise” these concepts. Give yourself delivers the “why” – when you give yourself you are clear and full of energy so you stay focused why respond in a certain way, why to move in a new direction, and why others should come on board. This model is a process! The process works when you spin it, like a propeller moving a ship. As you move through these three pursuits you gain positive momentum.

The Bar-On Model of Social and Emotional Intelligence (SEI) proposed by Reuven (1997)

According to this model, emotional-social intelligence is a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them and cope with daily demands. Consistent with this model, to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express oneself, to understand and relate well with others and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. This is based, first and foremost, on one's intra-personal ability to be aware of oneself, to understand one's strengths and weaknesses, and to express one's feelings and thoughts non-destructively. At the interpersonal level, being emotionally and socially intelligent encompasses the ability to be aware of others' emotions, feelings and needs, and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. Ultimately, being emotionally and socially intelligent means to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly cope with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions. To do this, we need to manage emotions so that they work for and not against us, and we need to be sufficiently optimistic, positive and self-motivated.

Childs (2004) identifies five important reasons why leaders should cultivate their emotional intelligence.

Self-Awareness - Leaders with emotional intelligence are self-aware and able to recognise emotions as they happen. This is a vital skill for leaders, as it helps them to obtain a clear understanding of their strengths and weaknesses without any obstruction. In addition, great leaders are able to perceive emotions as they arise in response to an action or situation. As a result, they are better able to address problems and handle any future complications (Childs, 2004).

Emotional Management - Emotional intelligence gives leaders the ability to stay aware of their feelings. The next step is learning how to manage emotions. Leaders with high emotional intelligence are able to regulate themselves and stay in control. These individuals are unlikely to rush headlong into hasty decisions or let their anger take over their behaviour. It is vital that individuals in managerial positions keep their emotions in check as it will help them stay in a respected position (Childs, 2004).

Effective Communication - The benefit of emotional awareness and management is to be able to clearly express thoughts. Ideally individuals with emotional intelligence also have the skill of effective communication. They are able to clearly convey directions and know what to say in order to inspire and motivate others. Communication is an essential skill for leaders because it can be used to determine whether the team listens or not (Childs, 2004).

Social Awareness - Leaders with emotional intelligence are well tuned to the emotions of others and are able to pick up on what is going on around them. They are able to sympathize with others by putting themselves in the employee's shoes and giving helpful feedback. This is a critical skill for leaders who work closely to inspire and motivate a team. If the leader is unable to empathise with his employees, he or she will surely find it difficult to command respect or loyalty (Ashkanansy & Zerbe, 2000).

Conflict Resolution - In leadership there is always the risk that emerging conflicts can threaten or disrupt efficiency and productivity. Leaders with emotional intelligence are equipped to handle conflicts and provide solutions. With this skill, leaders can quickly placate any disagreements that arise between employees, customers and other parties. In conjunction with the above skills, leaders can use their emotional intelligence to develop a more effective workplace. Emotional intelligence in this vein leads to the following qualities which are essential for good leadership (Childs, 2004).

ESSENTIAL QUALITIES FOR GOOD LEADERSHIP

A good leader has an exemplary character. It is of utmost importance that a leader is trustworthy enough to lead others. A leader needs to be trusted and be known to live with honesty and integrity. A good leader “walks the talk” and in doing so earns the right to have responsibility for others. True authority is born from respect for the good character and trustworthiness of the person who leads. True character develops due to emotional intelligence (Axelrod, 2000).

A good leader is enthusiastic about the work or cause and also about the role of leader. It is certainly difficult to do this in the absence of Emotional Intelligence. People will respond more openly to a person of passion and dedication. Leaders need to be able to act as a source of inspiration and be a motivator towards the required action or cause. Although the responsibilities and roles of a leader may be different, the leader needs to be seen to be part of the team working towards the goal. This kind of leader will not be afraid to roll up his or her sleeves and get dirty (Drucker, 1996).

A good leader is confident. In order to lead and set direction, a leader needs to appear confident as a person and in the leadership role. Such a person inspires confidence in others and draws out the trust and best efforts of the team to complete the task well. A leader who is emotionally intelligent conveys confidence towards the proposed objective and inspires the best effort from team members (Childs, 2004).

A leader also needs to function in an orderly and purposeful manner even in situations of uncertainty. People look up to the leader in times of uncertainty and unfamiliarity and find reassurance and security when the leader portrays confidence and a positive demeanour. This would be difficult without EI (Gardner, 1990).

Good leaders are tolerant of ambiguity and remain calm, composed and steadfast to the main purpose. The secret behind remaining calm and composed in the midst of storms, emotions and crises is emotional intelligence. Storms and emotions come and go and a good leader takes them as part of the journey and keeps a cool head (Goleman & McKee 2002).

A good leader as well as keeping the main goal in focus is able to think analytically and this requires emotional intelligence. Not only does a good leader view a situation as a whole, he is also able to break it down into sub parts for closer inspection. A good leader can break down the whole picture into manageable steps and make progress towards the required result. He or she is committed to excellence by not only maintaining high standards but also by being proactive in pushing for higher levels in order to achieve excellence in all areas.

A good leader does not think he or she knows everything or always knows better. A case in point is the dictatorial government under Amin in Uganda in the 70s which used fear of death as the method for commanding obedience which is a negative use of emotional intelligence. A good leader not only listens, but listens to lots of different people—and takes their advice and their views into account when making decisions. A good leader recognises the importance of giving up control in certain areas because other people know more about that area and/or bear primary responsibility for it. Inclusiveness and delegation are the essence of shared governance. A good leader does not just pretend to listen nor does (s)he pretend to delegate. He or she does not merely pay lip service to the concept of shared governance nor does (s)he attempt to manipulate the process for personal gains. Once all sides have had their say and the decision-making ball is in the leader's court, (s)he will make that decision and accept responsibility for it (Childs, 2004).

A good leader is not constantly pointing accusing fingers at or blaming others for problems—even if (s)he actually did not create them. This is being responsible and accountable for what is done. Whatever challenges a unit or institution might face, a good leader is always positive, consistently projecting an attitude of realistic optimism about the future. A good leader can address issues openly and frankly without spreading doom and gloom. At the same time, a good leader is objective about challenges. A good leader not only accepts blame (s)he also deflects praise and credit to others. A good leader understands that when others earn recognition they reflect positively on him or her. A good leader does not always have to be the one in the spotlight—and, indeed, may actually shun the spotlight. A good leader does not place himself or herself above other workers but rather considers them colleagues in the truest sense of that term, and to achieve this (s)he needs emotional intelligence (Drucker, 1996).

A good leader has communication skills which lead to effective communication. Communication skills are the top quality people look for in a leader. No matter how intelligent a leader is, if he cannot communicate, he cannot successfully lead. Communication skills enable a leader to connect with employees, team members, clients and especially customers to build and maintain professional business relationships. Emotional intelligence in this case promotes effective communication enabling the leader to read the situation, know what to say, when and how to say it (Gardner, 1990).

Trustworthiness is another important quality required in good leadership. Trust is at the core of respecting any leader and to achieve this (s)he needs emotional intelligence. Employees rely on their leaders for income and guidance, vendors rely on leaders for

continued business and clients rely on leaders for a product or service. If employees genuinely believe leaders within an organisation are honest, they know they can trust that the job at hand will be carried out to the best of that leader's abilities. Employees work harder for a leader whom they trust, respect and believe in (Drucker, 1996).

A good leader also needs the ability to reflect on the past, understand the present, and see the future. A great leader needs more than an optimistic outlook for the future of the country or the organisation (s)he leads. A great leader needs to learn from what happened in the past, adapt to how things are working in the present, and try to predict how things will work in the future, all at the same time.

Exemplary leadership is the best method for encouraging employees to work harder and value their positions. A good leader needs to show the people (s)he leads that (s)he actually practises what (s)he preaches, and in that way they too will follow that good example. Motivation is an important element for accomplishment of the organisational/country objectives. Leaders must provide the people they lead with a reason to work harder to their full potential. An emotionally intelligent leader is responsible for motivating and inspiring employees to get as excited as possible as they go about their business. Motivating leaders can improve overall office morale and productivity (Childs, 2004).

Consistency is another important quality required for good leadership. This makes a great leader easier to follow. People do not want to be apprehensive of their leader, wondering about unpredictable reactions or day-to-day mood swings. Good leaders need to learn to have a proper balance of mental, emotional, and physical characteristics so that the people they lead have a chance to get to know, understand and adapt to their leadership style (Burns, 1977).

Responsibility is yet another quality essential for good leadership. Leaders delegate and give direction to each employee. Therefore, the work that is done by those employees is a reflection of each leader's leadership skills. Leaders must show employees their support and accept an employee's work as their own. Leaders need to be with the people they lead through thick and thin. Great emotionally intelligent leaders are responsible for their people as long as they are under their leadership. If someone in a leadership position makes a poor decision or makes a mistake, it is expected of him that he should take responsibility for his actions and not pass the mistake on to other colleagues in leadership positions (Childs, 2004).

Emotionally intelligent leaders need to be organized and know everything that is going on in their organisation. They ought to be able to discern what takes priority and delegate to whoever is responsible for what. Having the ability to know and understand

all that is going on in an organisation allows each leader to approach decisions about the organisation in a comprehensive manner by understanding how each decision may impact each different portion of the organisation differently (Axelrod, 2000).

Keeping good relations with employees is a key element of successful leadership. Leaders need to work with all employees. They need to get to know who the employees are within the organisation, how they work, what motivates them and what is frustrating or upsetting to them. An emotionally intelligent leader is in tune with his employees and can connect with them more easily and therefore create a more effective professional relationship (Burns, 1977).

Lastly is feedback, which is obtained by asking the people for suggestions, comments and concerns, and then be willing to genuinely listen to their answers. Emotionally intelligent leaders learn more about their people and how their business is running when they take the time to listen to those people vital to the success of their organisation and their country at large (Childs, 2004).

Emotional intelligence leads to development of high quality leadership which in turn leads to efficiency. Efficiency in general describes the extent to which time, effort or costs are well used for the intended task or purpose. It is often used with the specific purpose of relaying the capability of a specific application of effort to produce a specific outcome effectively with a minimum amount or quantity of waste, expense or unnecessary effort. "Efficiency" has widely varying meanings in different disciplines (Burns, 1977).

Efficiency is a measurable concept, quantitatively determined by the ratio of output to input. "Effectiveness", on the other hand is a relatively vague, non-quantitative concept, mainly concerned with achieving objectives. In several of these cases, efficiency can be expressed as a result, as a percentage of what ideally could be expected, hence with 100% as an ideal case. This does not always apply, not even in cases where efficiency can be assigned a numerical value (Goleman & McKee 2002).

A simple way of distinguishing between efficiency and effectiveness is the saying that, "Efficiency is doing things right, while effectiveness is doing the right things." This is based on the premise that the selection of objectives of a process is just as important as the quality of that process.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND MANAGEMENT OF PUBLIC SERVICE IN AFRICA

According to Tiyesere and Chasuka (2012), an efficient and effective public service in Africa can only be possible when the following major concerns are addressed: aligning individual staff member's objectives to organisational objectives and encouraging individuals to uphold organisational core values; enabling expectations to be defined and agreed upon in terms of role responsibilities and accountabilities skills and behaviours; focus on providing opportunities for individuals to identify their own goals and develop their skills and competencies. These major concerns can only be fully achieved by individuals who are endowed with emotional intelligence.

An effective and efficient public service needs to practise performance management. 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 organisation (Armstrong, 2009). It is thus the process of tracking performance against targets and identifying opportunities for improvement – but not just making reference to past performance. These achievements are only possible because of the existence of staff that are emotionally intelligent. According to the United Nations (2000), a public service committed to professionalism and ethics is more likely to attain its goals if it has in place an “ethics infrastructure” or its country has a “national integrity system”. These concepts in a sense represent a system of rules, activities and agents that provide incentives and penalties for public officials to professionally carry out their duties and engage in proper conduct.

Initiatives to promote professionalism can begin simply with existence of sound public management systems and practices. The systems and practices are only possible with emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence promotes public service professionalism which is the overall value that encompasses all other values that guide the public service. These values include loyalty, neutrality, transparency, diligence, punctuality, effectiveness, impartiality and other values that may be specific to the public services of individual countries. The United Nations (2000) paper suggests that public service professionalism embraces the notion that those people who join the public service need to be inculcated with shared values and trained in emotional intelligence skills to professionally carry out their official duties. The good thing is that emotional intelligence can be learned, although some people are born with a personality that readily practises it. Complementary to this is a need to set up management structures to ensure that public service ethos and competence are achieved. In this regard, public service ethics is defined as a set of broad norms that delineate public servants as agents of the state, and where applicable as members of an established profession

such as accounting, law, etc. which in turn should exercise judgement and discretion in carrying out official duties.

The United Nations (2000) paper further affirms that the public service in Africa has embraced the merit principle in setting up career structures from recruitment to promotions. By running an administrative machinery that supports decision making and implements the policies and programmes of the government of the day, public servants play an indispensable role in sustainable development and governance of the nation. The public service also ensures the continuity of administration between transitions of power, which are the hallmarks of democracy. Given these hallmarks a country expects its public service to demonstrate professionalism and ethics. To develop the required professionalism and ethical standards, there is a need for emotional intelligence the principles of which promote professionalism and ethics. This now leads us to the role of emotional intelligence and good governance.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND GOOD GOVERNANCE

The product of emotionally intelligent leaders is good leadership. Good leadership in government has a close relationship with good governance. Politicians normally generate policies which have to be executed by public servants. When the public servants are doing their roles very well, then the nation is said to be well governed. This brings us to the proper understanding of the word “governance” which here means *inter alia* the processes of decision-making and implementation. Without emotions, decisions can be difficult to make. For instance, the decision to run comes from the emotion of fear; the decision to fight comes from the emotion of anger; the decision for merry making comes from joy or happiness. Effective and constructive public administration comes from blending rational and emotional choices. According to Lau (2000), all governance is people governance. All public service is people service. Relationships are the DNA of governance. Without people who can develop trusting relationships with other people there is no governance. Governance is more than the machinery of public administration and more than impartial cost-benefit analysis (Lau, 2000).

Governance can be used in several contexts such as corporate governance, international governance, national governance, local governance and governance in the public service. Governance is not only the process of decision-making and implementation it is also an analysis of governance focused on the formal and informal actors involved in decision-making and implementation of the decisions made and the formal and informal structures that have been put in place to implement decisions.

A good government is participatory, consensus-oriented, accountable, transparent,

responsive, effective and efficient, equitable and inclusive and is guided by the rule of law. It ensures that corruption is minimised, the views of minorities are taken into account in designing policies and that the voices of the most vulnerable in society are heard in decision-making. It is also responsive to the present and future needs of society.

Good governance requires fair legal frameworks that are enforced impartially. It also requires full protection of human rights of the citizenry, particularly the minorities. Impartial enforcement of laws requires an independent judiciary and an impartial and incorruptible police force and other law enforcement agencies. Impartiality and honesty are a result of emotional intelligence. Another area that comes about as a result of emotional intelligence is transparency. Transparency means that decisions taken and their enforcement are done in a manner that follows laid down rules and regulations. It also means that information is freely available and directly accessible to those who will be affected by such decisions and their enforcement in easily understandable forms and media. A person who is not emotionally intelligent will find that intolerable because he will probably wish to keep a lot of information out of the reach of the public.

There are several actions and as many viewpoints in a given society as there are actors. Good governance requires mediation of the different interests in society to reach a broad consensus of the best interests of the whole community and how it can be achieved. It also requires a broad and long-term perspective on what is needed for sustainable human development and how to achieve it. This can only result from an understanding of the historical, cultural and social contexts of a given society or community. This is another area that rhymes very well with emotional intelligence in terms of foresightedness. An emotionally intelligent leader is also one who is able to look and see very far ahead.

Effectiveness and efficiency are other elements that are attributed to emotionally intelligent leaders. Effectiveness and efficiency are key components of good governance. It means that processes and institutions produce results that meet the needs of society while making the best use of resources at their disposal. The concept of efficiency in the context of good governance also covers the sustainable use of natural resources and the protection of the environment.

Accountability is a key requirement of emotional intelligence which leads to good governance. Accountability is not only expected in government institutions but also in the private sector and civil society organisations. These must be accountable to the public and to their institutional stakeholders. Who is accountable to whom varies depending on whether decisions or actions taken are internal or external to an

organisation or institution. In general, an organisation or an institution is accountable to those who will be affected by its decisions or actions. Accountability cannot be enforced without transparency and strict compliance with the rule of law. This is confirmed by, Moulton (1844-1921) in the following statement, *“The true test of the greatness of a nation is the extent to which the individuals composing the nation can be trusted to obey self-imposed law”*.

RESEARCH RESULTS FROM A SURVEY DONE IN UGANDA, FROM A CROSS-SECTION OF 30 PROFESSIONALS

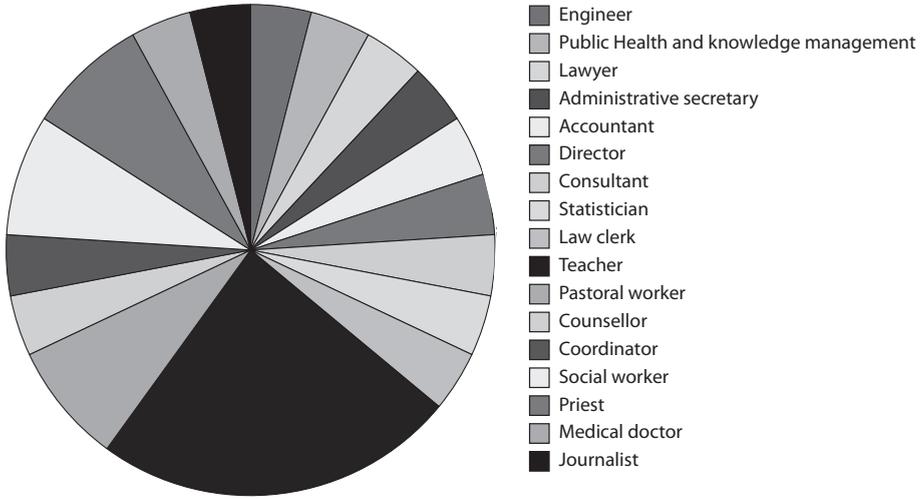
The research generated data from the following professionals in the different arenas of public and civil service: this included engineers i.e Public health officers, lawyers, administrators, accountants, directors, consultants, statisticians, teachers, pastoral workers, counsellors, coordinators, social workers and priests.

METHODOLOGY

The writer delved into secondary data and scholarly works as his literature review to obtain the back ground and theoretical frame work looking at a number of studies which have been carried out in the United States of America and South Africa. One striking finding is that there is keen interest among social psychologists concerning the subject of emotional intelligence, generating scholarly attention among public managers and administrators.

The researcher undertook a survey among public and civil servants living in Uganda and asked them ten questions looking at the awareness and application of emotional intelligence in leadership and administrative positions. The researcher came to the conclusion that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and the quality of leadership as revealed by a snapshot of the findings included in this paper.

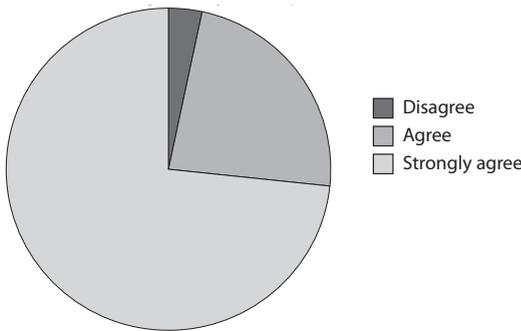
Figure 1: Occupation of respondents



Source: Author

Figure 2: Results on Emotional Intelligence as a key attribute to leadership

Emotional intelligence is a key attribute to quality leadership



Source: Author

Table 1: Is emotional intelligence a key attribute to quality leadership?

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|----------------|-----------|--------------|---------------|--------------------|
| Valid Disagree | 1 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.3 |
| Agree | 7 | 23.3 | 23.3 | 26.7 |
| Strongly agree | 22 | 73.3 | 73.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 30 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

The above results from a survey of 30 professionals show that emotional intelligence is seen as a key quality of good leadership and should be acquired by leaders in their

various categories. This is not comprehensive research but it is a trigger for further work in the area of emotional intelligence especially regarding the section of respondents who did not agree that emotional intelligence is a key quality. One respondent actually said that the people who are result oriented are not necessarily emotionally intelligent. This is subject for debate because it is also true that people do not want to be treated as machines who have no feelings, but as human beings with feelings, and the only appropriate way to do this is by having emotional intelligence.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Leadership models and development should encompass a range of EI competencies, which will be valuable in a transforming multicultural society and these are: interpersonal skills, team work, negotiation, networking and other critical social skills; people-oriented characteristics with a high sensitivity to diversity; a value system that elevates the interest of the organisation above those of the individual; attuned to cultural sensitivities and behavioural norms; integrity, honesty and trustworthiness; credibility and reliability rating in terms of commitments and pledges; personal learning skills, especially the ability to learn from, and help others learn from, experience. Above all successful leadership requires listening with heart, that is observing the emotions of the led to make sure they are actually following their leader, because a leader who has no followers is no leader at all.

CONCLUSION

The above account reveals that EI is the ability to perceive, understand and make use of sources of information to understand the social environment. This ability is seen to manifest itself in certain behaviours. Emotional intelligence looks at references to certain traits that help a person to recognise what needs to be done in order to lead others in the accomplishment of goals. This is opposed to the long held view that it is only intelligence quotient tests that can reveal one's capacity. The term emotional intelligence was not in use for many years, but has come in handy to explain factors responsible for successful leadership. Different scholars are still debating the authenticity of the different scientific measures of emotional intelligence. The six models of emotional intelligence: the ability model; mixed model, trait model, four branches model, three-part model, the bar-on model go a long way to give an understanding of emotional intelligence. The contribution of emotional intelligence to efficiency and effectiveness in the public service is explored with the conclusion that an effective public service is highly dependent on emotional intelligence and this makes it relevant in achieving good governance.

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RISK-TAKING, CREATIVITY AND INNOVATION: ARE THESE HALLMARKS OF QUALITY LEADERSHIP?

Atolagbe Alege Gambari

ABSTRACT

There is no doubt that successful modernisation and the reform agenda in the public service is a reflection of quality and capability of a critical mass who invariably are senior leaders. These senior leaders are expected to fashion out the reform agenda and lead their staff and organisations in an effective and efficient change management process. However, the fact remains that in most public services the senior leaders face herculean challenges relating to risk-taking, maintaining the status quo and facilitating innovation and creativity. That is because traditionally the public service tends to place more emphasis on risk mitigation rather than outcomes and this has accounted for a lack of scope for innovative thinking. The argument is that the public sector operates within pre-set confines of seemingly intractable procedures, bureaucratic rigidity, guidelines and policies which are alien to modern management techniques. Granted the public service culture significantly influences leadership effectiveness, the link between quality leadership and successful reform in the public service is of utmost relevance. In other words, there is a strong sense that risk-taking, creativity and innovation are stifled and discouraged amongst public servants. This kind of behaviour from the senior public servants is at variance with productivity, creativity and innovativeness. It is against this background the title of the paper is premised on: Risk-Taking, Creativity and Innovation: Are these Hallmarks of Quality Leadership? As a methodological approach the paper begins with definitions of related terms to clarify the basis for the arguments. It identifies factors which impact negatively and positively on innovation and risk-taking. It also examines the roles of leadership on the subject matter and finally, the paper suggests certain approaches to enhancing innovation and risk-taking.

INTRODUCTION

In his prediction several years back, Peter Drucker noted that it can be envisaged that innovation and entrepreneurship would be much more required of public services (Drucker 1985). There is a need for greater entrepreneurship, but there are difficulties that would be engendered by introducing entrepreneurship and innovation into the public sector. The explanation is that innovation is not new to government but what is new is the requirement that individual public servants take an innovative approach to their work. No doubt, the public service is a reflection of qualitative and capable senior leaders who fashion out the reform agenda and lead their staff and organisations in an effective and efficient change management process. Hence, quality leadership is a prerequisite for efficiency and effectiveness in the execution of government policies and programmes. Unfortunately, in most African public services the senior leaders face the dilemma of irreconcilable choices ranging from risk-taking to maintaining the status quo and facilitating innovative and creative ideas. More often than not, the public servants tend to place more emphasis on risk mitigation rather than outcomes. This has invariably accounted for a lack of scope for innovative thinking.

The point is that the public sector operates within pre-set confines of seemingly intractable procedures, bureaucratic rigidity, guidelines and policies which are alien to modern management techniques and realities. In other words, risk-taking, creativity and innovation are stifled and discouraged among public servants. Today, politicians and the bureaucrats, who hope to see innovation bring about enhanced efficiency and improved productivity, are disappointed at the low level of results.

In addition, the public servants who believe that their ideas and work are likely to be valued are frustrated that little seems to have changed. However, this is not to suggest that there is a dearth of innovation in all the public services in the continent. A few examples abound, both large and small, witnessed by reward and recognition. For instance, South Africa (Balogun 2013) is a good example as '*Batho Pele*' is the country's response to the disparity in access to quality service in post-apartheid era. Roughly translated, '*Batho Pele*' means 'People First'. It is a set of principles that places the citizen at the centre of attention. It sits on a number of pillars and some of them are:

- Consultation with the citizen and 'consumers' of service;
- Development of service standards (including standards of courtesy, openness, transparency, timeliness, integrity, ease of access, value for money, client's convenience and accountability);
- Facilitation of access to service and to information (through provision of multiple media and channels of communication, including telephones, internet and intranet facilities and help/consumer service desks for face-to-face interactions).

In other words, *Batho Pele* targets different classes of 'customers', including applicants for online services, the citizens placing telephone calls to seek information on pending cases and government activities in general, and clients who visit service delivery outlets to find on-the-spot solutions to their problems. In another development, in an interview conducted with the former Head of the Civil Service of the Federal Republic of Nigeria (Alhaji Isa Bello Sali, CFR), it was revealed that in an effort to adopt new approaches to management and to develop new skills the Federal Civil Service of Nigeria had been striving since 1999 to reposition the service for improved service delivery. A major thrust of the reform efforts was the capacity building of civil servants through computer-based training activities. The effort was also to foster acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes to match the demands of the civil service in the 21st century.

However, neither the example in South Africa nor that of Nigeria could be true reflections of the situations in all African countries. In order to elicit the intellectual discourse, the paper will focus on: review of related concepts; innovation and risk-taking; inhibiting factors and innovation and risk-taking; enabling factors; approaches to enhancing innovation and risk-taking; risk-taking and maintaining status quo; the roles of quality leadership; and concluding remarks.

REVIEW OF RELATED CONCEPTS

Some of the terms used in this paper include: *innovation, empowerment, risk, risk-taking, risk aversion, risk management and creativity*. To start with, innovation refers to the introduction of a novelty such as an idea, activity, initiative, structure, programme or policy. However, in a public sector context it refers to the creation and implementation of new processes, products, services and methods of delivery which result in significant improvements in the efficiency, effectiveness and quality of outcomes. While defining innovation especially as it is applicable to the public sector, Mulgan and Albury (2003) outline an innovation model involving four steps as: generating possibilities, incubating and prototyping, replicating and scaling up and analysing and learning. The hallmark of innovation (Jensen et al 2006) is the application of new ideas to produce better outcomes.

In other words, *empowerment* means actively seeking inputs from line managers and staff on decisions to be made concerning their sector's activities. It also means (Kernaghan 1992) authorising line managers and staff to make more decisions based on their own judgment and understanding of their organisation's mission and role. In centralised governance, according to Mumford (2002) authorities try to promote empowerment by establishing rules with frameworks for guidance on decision-

making. It includes the notion of “enabling” through information sharing, teamwork and training and development. The concept of risk arises out of uncertainty concerning exposure to possible loss. It is associated with the notion of probable occurrences and the relative degree of severity of consequence of the occurrence.

By extension therefore, *risk-taking* may refer to a decision to undertake an initiative. This decision is based on the calculation that unfavourable outcomes can be minimised or that favourable outcomes will outweigh unfavourable ones. However, risk aversion refers to attitudes of avoidance of most or all situations which carry a potential for unfavourable outcomes. *Risk management* (Nottingham 1996) is conceptualised as a logical and systematic method of identifying, analysing, assessing, treating, monitoring and communicating risks associated with any activity, process or function in a way that will enable an establishment to minimise losses and maximise opportunities.

Creativity refers to the production of something “novel and useful” (Hunter and Cushebery 2011). This definition can be applied to products, policies or processes. The relevance of *creativity* to the concept of quality leadership is that the latter positively influences people, contexts and outcomes. It stands to reason to define creative leadership as the ability to deliberately guide a group towards a direction that is new for the group. As a consequence of bringing about this creative change, creative leaders, as perceived by Lee (2006), is that those leaders have a profoundly positive influence on their workplace, community, school, family, and the individuals in that situation. This definition, no doubt, fits well with evolving ideas about the skills that quality leadership needs. For instance, quality leadership (Dess and Pickens 2000) is expected to be amenable to ambiguity, embrace risk-taking, and be able to influence and inspire others in new ways and directions in order to accomplish positive change. No doubt, the foregoing definitions are inexhaustible as there are many interpretations given by writers on the concepts.

INNOVATION AND RISK-TAKING: INHIBITING FACTORS

At this point, it would be useful to examine some of the major elements of the environmental conditions in which most senior public servants in Africa live and work, and which impact negatively on their approach to innovation. First of all, the world of the public service is changing continually, and the changes are galvanised by economic instability, technological revolutions, shifting demographics and global competitiveness. These changes have important effects on public policy and management and national policy-making is becoming increasingly complex. Today, the impact of government programmes in most African countries is not limited to one policy area. More importantly, the changing composition of the work force and

the effects of evolving technology on work require public leaders to adopt new approaches to management and to develop new skills in order to manage well and remain relevant.

Another impediment to innovation is the decline of public trust in government and the perceptions that past policies have been ineffective and that governments are unable to solve important economic and social problems have led to a loss of respect for public institutions in many African countries. In Nigeria, for example, the introduction of a Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) by the regime did not achieve the desired results. The policy eroded the confidence of the people and subsequent reform agenda were received with scepticism. In addition, bureaucratic “bashing” by the media has eroded public confidence in the public sector. These two elements are affecting the public service in several ways. First of all, constant criticism of the public service has a strong negative impact on public service morale and productivity. Secondly, a demand for increased transparency and better results in government has resulted in the adoption of new methods of accountability focused on outputs and outcomes. This is a rather difficult challenge when trying to measure the results of policies that are affected by factors beyond the scope of government.

In fact, relations between politicians and bureaucrats in some African countries have been affected largely by the increasingly comprehensive mandates of parliamentary audit agencies. These agencies seek to ensure that the public service is implementing policies to the satisfaction of Parliament, and trust between the two levels of government has declined. As Balogun (1983: 80) rightly observes: “With the advent of politics and representative government, the bureaucracy had to undergo some changes. The first major problem accompanying the introduction of ‘cabinet’ government in Nigeria was that of the place of administration vis-à-vis politics. The relationship between the political class and the career official was not made any easier by the differences in orientations of the two leadership groups: whereas civil servants, by training, tended to define rationality from a purely administrative angle, while politicians were out to introduce political considerations.”

In addition to the aforementioned, another element of crucial importance is the continuing era of expenditure restraint, combined with increasing demands from the public for more programmes and services. In this context, innovation is seen as particularly important, where public servants are asked to find less expensive solutions to policy issues as well as more efficient and effective means of delivering programmes. This may well be the context where the lack of innovation is particularly frustrating for both politicians and senior public leaders. At this juncture, the major factors which constitute impediments to innovation and risk-taking in the public service could be

categorised into two. First, some of the factors make it difficult for public servants who wish to be innovative to go along that path. Examples include capacity issues, lack of training and a proliferation of rules. Other factors tend to contribute to maintaining or returning to a risk-averse culture, such as the fear of being punished for mistakes and the lack of understanding of how to reconcile entrepreneurship with democratic responsibility.

Obviously, some of those stated issues will be easier to approach than others, but both sides of the equation will have to be resolved if innovation and risk-taking are to be enhanced in a significant way in the public service in Africa. Lastly, environmental factors that undermine creativity include: internal strife, conservatism, rigidity of regulations and formal management structures within organisations. This dimension is seen as working against autonomy and tends to have a negative impact as individuals may perceive a more controlling environment as a hindrance to innovative and creative ideas.

INNOVATION AND RISK-TAKING: ENABLING FACTORS

Unlike the previous section, this one highlights the enabling factors. Hence, be it innovation or risk-taking perspective, the assumption is that it occurs in a systemic context and it is internally and externally driven. The internal drivers are manifested in strategy, organisational climate, strategic leadership, entrepreneurship and organisational resources. In other words, the external drivers are political, economic, social, technological, ecological and legal factors.

Internal Drivers

One of the internal drivers is *Organisational Strategy* which is the most important driver of successful innovation in the public sector. It facilitates communication among the employees by virtue of its integrative role and the consistency that it offers (Zduncyk and Blenkinsopp 2007). But this could only be possible if management of public sectors could craft a strategy that is integrated and aligned with the critical resources of the organisation.

In another development, *Organisational Climate* as an internal driver refers to the feelings, attitudes and behavioural tendencies, which characterise organisational life and may be operationally measured through the perceptions of its members. Hence, top echelons should promote an organisational climate in which workers are recognised for their efforts directed towards innovation.

In addition, the *Strategic Leadership* dimensions that have been found to be related to the innovation strategy possess such qualities as: divergent thinking, critical thinking,

technological skills, problem-solving, analytical skills, strategic thinking and numerical abilities (Pagon et al. 2008). The aforementioned cognitive competencies are found to be strongly linked to innovation and change management. Organisations that are innovative always go for radical change to improve performance and they tend to use strategic leadership to achieve both innovative direction and innovative potential.

In fact, *Entrepreneurship* as an enabling factor is the process by which employees activate new ideas in their organisations (Christensen 2005). Successful entrepreneurship requires a combination of: psychological, interpersonal and technical skills. Psychological skills refer to the mind-set and mental skills necessary for successful entrepreneurship. These essential mental skills include passion, commitment, confidence, self-awareness, willingness to learn, an action orientation, psychological resilience, and tolerance of uncertainty. Interpersonal skills refer to those skills that revolve around managing key relationships and relationship-based settings vital to new venture success (Antoncic and Hisrich 2007). Essential interpersonal skills include negotiation skills, team skills, influencing decision makers and general communication skills (Oke 2002; Martins and Terblanche 2003).

Another internal driver is *The Organisation's Intangible Resources* including the workforce, depth of expertise and breadth of experience, skills and knowledge of employees as well as expertise in certain fields that are important to the success of the enterprise. However, the real issue is not the skills and knowledge per se, but how the intangible resources are managed by means of effective rewards systems, autonomy and opportunities for further development. For example, if organisations wish to benefit from invisible knowledge, such knowledge must be elicited, shared and codified into explicit knowledge (Fehr 2009). Similarly, human capital, which encompasses the skills, creativity and experience of individuals, is the most valuable resource for innovation and therefore organisations should invest in human capital by improving education, training and learning opportunities as well as developing the innovation skills of the workforce.

External Drivers

Apart from the internal, the *external drivers* influence the external environment through innovations or added value for its stakeholders. Conversely, the organisation is influenced by the external environment as the organisation creates new knowledge and information. (Merx-Chermin and Nijhof 2005:139). It should be noted, however, that the forces in the external environment are so dynamic and interactive that the impact of any single element cannot be wholly dissociated from the impact of the others. The leaders in the public service should therefore analyse these factors with the

aim to establish how they affect innovation activities in public sector organisations.

Political Environment as a factor influencing innovation is driven by the desire to keep up with public needs and expectations such as the provision of welfare services, efficiency, cost cutting in service provision and accountability to the general public and government. Strategic change in the public sector frequently requires a strong, top down enforcement of political will coupled with the political recognition that change requires the allocation of substantial resources. At this juncture, a study conducted by Koch and Hauknes (2005) is relevant. The study inter alia, indicates that political trust is based on the government ideology or is a response to critical events and pressures. Hence, countries like Japan, the Netherlands, Canada and Sweden are more concerned with the impact of innovative pursuits on national interests and their industrial policies are oriented towards addressing innovation inputs.

Be that as it may, the *Economic Environment* is an important factor because to be competitive in the global market, organisations must strive for developing innovative and high-quality products and services, and deliver them on time and at lower costs than their competitors. (Mulgan and Albury 2003). Economists have long recognised the critical importance of innovation and capital accumulation for growth. The empirical evidence and modern theory of economic growth provide strong support for this claim that long term economic growth requires not only capital, but also an understanding of innovation. The lesson to be learnt is that innovation and technology are also needed to transform countries from over reliance on the exploitation of natural resources to technological innovation as the basis for development.

Notwithstanding the aforementioned factor, Social Environmental factors are external to the organisation, and there is very little that organisations can do to influence them significantly. Social factors have been known to exert enormous pressure particularly on service provision in developed and developing economies. In order to respond to these pressures, senior leaders should look for innovative means through effective and efficient public sector interventions to contain such demands from the general public.

The *Technological Environment* as a factor has an impact on an organisation and its levels of automation, achievement and potential to provide a fertile ground for innovative activities that result in improved goods and services (Marr 2009:37). While technology and automation can reduce costs and open the door for innovations, they can also change the demand for services and products. For example, current demand for online services provided by the Government of South Africa via *Batho Pele* targets different classes of 'customers', including applicants for online services, citizens placing telephone calls to seek information on pending cases and government activities in general, and clients who visit service delivery outlets to find on-the-spot solutions to their problems.

Moreover, the *Ecological Environment* is badgered by the impact of harmful human activities (Pearce and Robinson 2003: 62). The results of these activities are global warming, loss of habitat and biodiversity, as well as loss of clean air, water and land. To overcome these challenges, leaders must adopt innovation as a way to protect the ecosystem. This can be accomplished through the innovative design of public goods and services that are eco-friendly; policy and/or legislation alone cannot be the panacea to protect the ecology.

In the same vein, public sector organisations are founded through Legislation and their operations are prescribed by what is known as a “mandate”. By its very nature, the mandate thus imposes a degree of constraint on innovation. Porter and Stern (2002) state that innovation activities of the organisations within a country are strongly influenced by national policy and the presence and vitality of public institutions. In order to achieve an innovation-driven economy, particularly in the public sector, the objective of industrial policy generation by the senior leaders should be an accelerated pace of competitive and sustainable industrial growth within a functional framework. To achieve this, the senior leaders should dismantle, reduce and minimise potential barriers, obstacles and restrictions.

It should be noted that innovation rarely occurs in isolation; but through collaboration and linkages across a growing and diverse network of stakeholders, institutions and users. Innovative activities involve many actors and stem from a combination of commentary, specialised competencies and knowledge of various actors. These combinations and linkages of different actors are needed by African public services in order to develop innovative ventures and remain competitive. The principle reason why collaborative innovation is more suitable to solve persistent and emergent problems is because it opens the innovation cycle to a variety of actors and taps into innovation resources across borders, overcomes cultural restrictions and creates broad political support for public innovation.

At this juncture, it is necessary to state that the existence of internal and external environments (with the factors and dynamic events that constitute the environment) is not a source of innovation as is usually accepted. Rather, it is the human beings who are the sources of innovation. That is, innovation cannot be initiated and pushed on by factors or events inside or outside the work place unless those events or factors have been evaluated by the human individual or set of individuals. In order to avoid trial-and-error innovation, the potential initiator should be familiar with such factors as the types of innovation, the processes of innovation and problems of innovative behaviour.

APPROACHES TO ENHANCING INNOVATION AND RISK-TAKING

At this point it should be stressed that *creative and innovation leadership* is rather a complex matter. In order to surmount the complexity, one of the approaches available to quality leaders is to strive and strike a delicate balance between two conflicting roles: that is, encouraging innovative ideas as against limiting them to include only those that are the most viable and useful to the establishment. A balance in terms of approach needs to be struck not only within the leader and his or her behaviours, but also amongst conflicting interests of other parties involved as well.

In a healthy work environment, leadership is distributive such that despite the presence of a formal leader, a work situation member who has a useful innovative idea to offer is for that occasion looked upon as the leader while the formal leader becomes a follower in effect. The balance between formal leadership and followership deserves attention not only by the manager/professional but also by any others who may have innovative ideas. Followership is important because subordinates who are not involved in decisions affecting innovation may find ways of contributing to the failure of creative ideas, especially during the implementation process.

The role of formal leaders should, however, not be underplayed by the need to involve subordinates. This is because, more often than not, it is only when an individual member with innovative ideas receives the encouragement of formal leaders that his innovation(s) can get through. The effect of leadership in this respect has been experimentally demonstrated by Litwin and Stringer (1968). The researchers reveal that while those who work under a democratic approach experience more motivation than those under repressive regimes. However, quality leadership should be aware of other approaches which are usually paradoxical in nature (Hunter et al. 2011) but are associated with creativity and innovation. Some of the paradoxes are captured as follows:

Firstly, the **Creative Personality Cohesion Paradox** approach illustrates the difficulty leaders have in providing their employees with the autonomy they need in order to be creative while at the same time fostering team cohesion (or closeness) in order to facilitate idea sharing amongst employees. Quality leadership thus must be careful not to encourage too much cohesion, as it may discourage group members from disagreeing (even constructively disagreeing) with fellow group members in an effort not to offend them or “rock the boat.”

In another instance, the **Vision Autonomy Paradox** approach highlights the dilemma a leader faces between providing structure and guidance to a team with respect to the

vision of the goal, while at the same time stepping back and providing the team with enough autonomy, especially considering the fact that creative workers highly value autonomy. When leading for innovation, providing an overabundance of structure may result in a backlash from employees who feel their autonomy is being taken away from them. However, the Restriction Freedom Paradox approach underscores that quality leadership with a creative mind will allow employees enough time to develop creative ventures and provide the resources to do so. At the same time the leader must take care to provide enough pressure that they are still motivated to complete the task and not provide so many resources that it has a “deadening effect” on creativity.

In fact, the Intrinsic Extrinsic Paradox as an approach holds that motivation generally comes from within the employee and it is a key factor in facilitating creativity and extrinsic motivators may either hinder creativity or have an unclear relationship therewith. But the **Competition Collaboration Paradox** as an approach involves a leader developing open external relationships with other organisations in order to discover potential creative and innovative opportunities while at the same time ensuring that the organisation’s emerging ideas are protected in a competitive environment. Creativity is a process that leads to change: Therefore, it is important for leaders who want to bring about change in organisations to be skilled in facilitating it.

RISK-TAKING AND MAINTAINING THE STATUS-QUO: THE ROLES OF QUALITY LEADERSHIP

Perhaps, the logic of quality leadership is premised on the assumption of the balance between risk-taking, maintaining the status quo and facilitating innovation and creativity in the public service. Hence, the need for innovative enterprise in public service has resulted in a new focus on the role of quality leadership in shaping the nature and success of creative efforts. Without quality leadership, organisations (including public services) are likely to struggle. The new call for innovation and creativity in the public service in Africa represents a paradigm shift. That is, a shift from the traditional view of organisational practices, which discourages employee innovative behaviour, to the view of valuing innovative thinking as a potentially powerful influence on performance. At this juncture, it is suggested for innovative leadership to occur and be successful in the public service in Africa, certain elements are needed and they include: creative work, a creative workforce and leadership attributes.

However, the scope of this paper is on the leadership attributes. To start with, for successful innovation to occur, a quality leader in the public service must possess certain attributes. These attributes include but are not limited to:

- i. Expertise in the rudiments of the public service domain such as clear understanding of vision, mission, objectives and core values;
- ii. Exhibiting innovative and creative ideas;
- iii. Ability to carry out transformational leadership behaviour;
- iv. Possession of managerial expertise;
- v. Exhibiting social skills;
- vi. Willingness to provide a climate for idea generation; and
- vii. Possession of quality leadership to ensure that the process of idea generation does not overshadow the evaluation and implementation processes.

The foregoing attributes underscore that quality leadership offers a distinct mind set and skill set, each of which is well matched with contexts that necessitate utilising diversity, possessing a high tolerance for ambiguity and having the ability to initiate and manage change. When discussing methods to effectively teach leadership theory, Zacko-Smith (2010) outlines the Three-T's framework as: Transformational, Transactional and Transcendent leadership.

While Transformational Leadership (Burns 1978), makes leadership more relational and service above self, as, for example, the South African 'Batho Pele' which means 'People First' and places the citizen at the centre of attention. Simply, Transactional Leadership is about the individual while Transcendent Leadership is about the leaders' and constituents' relationship with the larger community and the world. For example, the behavioural theory of leadership can be seen as falling under transformational leadership because it stresses the impact of the relationship between leader and constituents. Again 'Batho Pele' is a good example. Transformational leadership is more deeply interactive and is intended to produce results that are about both personal and skills development.

However, one would contend that quality leadership, because it is highly relational, grounded in process, utilises diversity, is self-reflective and is focused on accomplishing positive change, resides between the transformational and transcendent approaches (Zacko-Smith, 2010). The argument is that for quality leadership to be creative there is need for support for ideas while discarding other ideas and putting the supported ideas into practice. It should be stated that the role of quality leadership must shift away from a transformational style to a more transactional style of leadership, which involves being more direct and critical toward the ideas generated. In other words, leaders need to ensure that constructive discussions of innovative ideas are taking place among their subordinates. This serves to evaluate the usefulness of each idea, eliminate those that do not appear viable to the set goal and push the ones that appear viable into practice. Quality leadership needs to adopt closed leadership behaviour by

shifting the focus away from generating new ideas toward fine-tuning existing ideas in the interest of achieving progress towards the goal at hand. In nutshell, the innovative leader influences the employees by:

- i. Providing creative input and suggesting ideas to employees;
- ii. Providing employees with clear and concrete goals;
- iii. Allocating organisational resources (e.g. research and development spending manpower) for implementing ideas;
- iv. Establishing a supportive climate for creativity within the organisation;
- v. Acting as a role model for innovative thinking;
- vi. Providing employees with rewards and recognition for innovative thinking.

CONCLUSION

Leadership performance today is founded on the ability to solve complex problems for which there are no immediate and easy solutions. In the face of such new issues, emerging (Shalley and Gilson, 2004) senior leaders in the public service of Africa must be effective in coming up with breakthrough solutions. Leadership scholars such as Mumford and his colleagues opine that “creative problem solving may indeed represent an important influence on leader performance. We live in complex times and in the near term this complexity is likely to do nothing but grow”. In order to sustain success during such times it is suggested that the senior leaders in African public services need to be creative and tap into the creativity of others. This is not to say that there are no challenges.

The challenge is not whether the much needed creativity skills for leadership success in the 21st century can be developed, but the challenge appears to be where individuals can go to systematically and deliberately develop the much needed skills. And here, we would argue, is where we need educational, business and political leaders to come forward to primarily compel educational institutions and other organisations as well, to focus greater attention on promoting creative-thinking skills.

In conclusion therefore, innovation and risk-taking are only two aspects of a major cultural change for the public service, influenced by the paradigm shift from bureaucratic functioning and control to a focus on quality, service and results. The challenge is enormous. To respond to this challenge, African public services must become borderless institutions. This does not mean that, they become organisations without structure, without legislative frameworks or without accountability. Rather, they are institutions committed to reducing the barriers to the flow of ideas and information within and among public sector organisations. There is no choice about accepting this challenge because global competitiveness demands that the public

service evolve, become more entrepreneurial and creative. Hence, risk-taking, creativity and innovation are but the hallmarks of quality leadership.

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CHALLENGES IN THE MUNICIPAL/ ADMINISTRATIVE INTERFACE: CASE STUDIES FROM SOUTH AFRICA

E.A. Mantzaris and P. Pillay

ABSTRACT

Although there has been a good amount of literature in respect of the relationship between political and administrative leadership and their effect/s on quality management, little has been written on their respective (individual or collective) relationship with corruption. This is because there needs to be an acknowledgement that the 'researchers', 'practitioners' and 'politicians' efforts have, to date, been inadequate. Political and administrative leaders need to appreciate that the war room against corruption needs new thinking, knowledge, strategies and comprehensive initiatives against corruption. In particular, we have to move beyond the various one and two dimensional approaches that are advocated by various anti-corruption proponents if we are to become effective in dealing with the situation. In this context the present contribution will examine the fundamental tenets of the political system of South Africa and its role in impeding or encouraging corruption related to decision-making and actions of civil servants at all levels. In this sense the relationship between political and administrative leadership can take either complementary or antagonistic corrupt actions. A case study in political and administrative relations and involvement in corruption will be utilised in order to examine and scrutinise the involvement by politicians and administrators in a leading South African municipality.

INTRODUCTION

The conundrum of the relationship between political and administrative leadership in the public service has attracted the interest of a variety of academic and research practitioners in a wide discipline spectrum. Their relationship in the terrain of corruption, however, is minimal. This is despite the fact that corruption has not only been a national and international threat, but also a political, economic and social phenomenon that is multi-layered and multi-faced. Political and administrative leaders throughout the world are in dire need of building common integrity in a coordinated and synergetic war room against corruption based on new innovative thinking, knowledge, strategies and comprehensive initiatives. If this is achieved there are strong possibilities to arrest and reverse the proliferation of corruption.

In this context the present contribution will examine the fundamental tenets of the political system of South Africa and its role in impeding or encouraging corruption related to decision-making and actions of public servants at all levels. In this sense the relationship between political and administrative leadership can take either complementary or antagonistic corrupt actions. A case study in political and administrative relations and involvement in corruption will be utilised in order to examine and scrutinise the involvement by politicians and administrators in a leading South African municipality.

THE CONTEXT OF THE RELATIONSHIPS

The State of Local Government in South Africa: An Overview Report (2009) was a seminal and honest examination of the achievements, weaknesses and challenges facing South Africa's local government.

It was stated clearly that there are a number of service delivery and governance problems that have been identified in municipalities over a number of years and have persisted. Amongst them are huge service backlog challenges; poor communication and accountability relationships with communities; problems with the political administrative interface; corruption and fraud; poor financial management; number of (violent) service delivery protests; weak civil society formations; intra- and inter-political party issues negatively affecting governance and delivery; and insufficient municipal capacity due to lack of scarce skills (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs 2009).

What this document did not mention were the close, indeed intertwined relationships underlining these challenges. Amongst others:

- If there were no strained relationships amongst political and administrative leaders, there would not be any poor communication and accountability relationships in communities.
- If fraud and corruption were not rife, more quality services would be provided consequently eliminating violent protests.
- The inter-party political rivalries which in many cases fall under the political administrative milieu (when a newly elected political leadership is obligated to work with opposition-backing management).
- If there was no political or administrative /managerial interference there would be no lack of skills capacity.

The reality of the situation at hand is that according to the law the political head of the municipality, the Mayor, is accountable for the overall performance of that particular municipality. Hence the political head is often caught in the middle of many of the following challenges highlighted in the State of Local Government report:

- Tensions between the political and administrative interface;
- Poor ability of many councillors to deal with the demands of local government;
- Insufficient separation of powers between political parties and municipal councils;
- Lack of clear separation between the legislative and executive;
- Inadequate accountability measures and support systems and resources for local democracy; and
- Poor compliance with the legislative and regulatory frameworks for municipalities.

(Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs 2009).

The Auditor-General's reports continue to highlight Mayors' failures to meet some of their statutory responsibilities, such as (Auditor-General South Africa 2009/10).

While the political leadership faces scrutiny after departmental failures, there are many issues which are beyond their control which need to be weighed and compared with their line of accountability. Sections 154 (1) and 155 (6) and (7) of the Constitution, mandate the provincial governments to supervise, monitor and support local government. The State of Local Government report shows that the last decade of local government was marred by poor performance, but with only about 30 municipalities having experienced an intervention from provinces. The report said that "it has shown that the mechanisms in place were not well-supported by national government or sufficiently institutionalised, due to the absence of post-intervention measurement of improvement, and the weak application of intergovernmental checks and balances, i.e. the oversight and review process by the Minister, the NCOP (National Council of Provinces) and the Provincial Legislatures" (State of Local Government report Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs 2009).

The State of Local Government report (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs 2009:24) identifies political infighting, conflict amongst senior management and councillors and human resource management issues, together with inadequate revenue collection, ineffective financial systems, fraud, misuse of municipal assets and funds.

THE LITERATURE: A BRIEF EXPOSITION

The political/administrative conundrum has been a serious matter of debate amongst academics and researchers because of its significance in public governance. Internationally, Peters and Pierre's (2004) *Politicization of the Civil Service in Comparative Perspective*, tackled issues related to the convergence of political interference in the implementation of the New Public Management model, political responsiveness in a merit bureaucracy and its ramifications, the weaknesses and lacunae created by the "mixing" of political and administrative actions.

On the same topic, but with emphasis on corruption and integrity, Huberts et.al (2008) in *Ethics and Integrity of Governance across Frontiers* posits the key ingredients between governance and governing in an international terrain of corruption, avarice, intertwined relations, theory and empirical realities, the contradictions of rationality and effectiveness, compliance and value prepositions.

Matheson, *et al* (2007) conducted a study on the political involvement in senior staffing and on the delineation of responsibilities between managers and senior civil servants. Throughout the world, the tendency of political systems is based on the principle that legislation and state rules and regulations assign policy-making to politicians while the administration section of all layers of government is tasked with effective and efficient implementation. In this nexus, it is assumed that political actors would not manipulate the administrative offices in government. It is clear in the report that in practice, however, the line between policy and administration is not that clear. It is assumed then that policy and administration are intimately bound together. This means that political interference can be instrumental in scuppering honest and efficient administration and vice versa.

In South Africa, the important work of Cameron (Cameron 2003 :51-66;2007: 345-371; 2009: 910-942) has tackled empirically as well as historically and theoretically the politics-administration interface in an empirical study of the City of Cape Town, issues of formal re-organisation and New Public Management reforms in the South African public service. Butler (2008) has dealt with the issue advocating the consolidation of institutional reforms priorities in the creation of a developmental state in South Africa, while Mafunisa (2003) advocated the complete separation of politics from the South African public service as the panacea of reform at all levels.

Maserumule (2007:147-164) has empirically shown the effects of conflicts between Director-Generals and Ministers in South Africa, while Sangweni and Mxakato-Diseko (2008:37-49) after exploring a number of such issues conclude that *a strong, coherent and astute public service is critical in the quest for a "developmental state"*.

The most comprehensive work on the issue is from Cameron (2010:676-701) who

describes the shifting political—administrative relationships in South Africa, with particular reference to growing politicisation (or what he calls the “partisan control of the bureaucracy”). Cameron’s hypothesis that studies politicisation of public services are important because political involvement in management has often had negative effects on service delivery has been confirmed time and time again in South Africa and elsewhere. Cameron’s theoretical articulation of political-administrative relationships is based on his examination of the growing politicisation of public services, the impact of New Public Management (NPM) and political-administrative relationships in developing countries.

His analysis of the political-administrative relationships in South Africa is based on a solid understanding of the development of a new framework in the democratic South Africa and politicisation in the staffing of the public service in relation to the decentralisation of powers, contract appointments and performance management. His analysis of the effects of this changing framework for service delivery is illuminating. His conclusion points to the fact that growing politicisation of the public service has contributed to poor service delivery, and that the South African government needs to place greater emphasis on merit as the basis for appointments and promotions has resurrected a very old debate on the issue.

THE CORRUPTION TERRAIN IN SOUTH AFRICA: A BRIEF OUTLINE

On the 19th of October 2012, *The Economist*, a British based and highly influential magazine that shapes European and international opinion in its editorial wrote the following:

“Worse, Mr. Zuma has failed to tackle the scourge of corruption. The ANC under his aegis has sought to undermine the independence of the courts, the police, the prosecuting authorities and the press. It has conflated the interests of party and state, dishing out contracts for public works as rewards for loyalty—hence the bitter jest that the government is in hock to “tenderpreneurs”. This has reduced economic competitiveness and bolstered a fabulously rich black elite. As a result, too little wealth trickles down.

In the main article, in a devastating critique on corruption and avarice, *The Economist* mentioned the following:

“Because the stakes are so high, competition for power is bitter and sometimes bloody, particularly at the local level. In the past five years over 40 politicians have been killed in KwaZulu-Natal, a province with a history of political violence, and at least five more in Mpumalanga, a province in the north-east of the country. The killing is often about money. Sometimes whistle-blowers are murdered to stop them revealing corruption; sometimes rivals are disposed of. In 2009 Moss Phakoe, a municipal councillor in North West province, was shot in Rustenburg after handing over a file detailing corruption in the municipality to a high-ranking ANC official. Phakoe had been trying to get senior ANC members to investigate the matter. The former mayor of Rustenburg and his bodyguard were jailed for the murder....”

“The ANC has been accused of creating a class of “tenderpreneurs,” in business to get state contracts using their connections in government. Outright bribery of low-level officials is common. No one knows how much money corruption costs the country but the effect on its democracy is devastating. Whether people are prosecuted for graft seems to depend on whom they know. Few think Julius Malema, a populist former leader of the ANC Youth League now excommunicated from the party, would be facing charges for money laundering had he not turned against Mr. Zuma.....”

“That lack of accountability is partly down to the country’s system of party lists at general and provincial elections; individual MPs are not answerable directly to voters, but solely to the party managers who determine their ranking on the list.

Only at the lowest level—the municipalities—is there a system of constituencies (or “wards”) and then only for half the seats. This means politicians have little incentive to provide for their voters.”

Such a devastating, if overly dramatic, expos has been expanded in a series of books and articles such as those by Feinstein (2007) Holden, (2008) Basson, (2012) Holden and van Vuuren (2011), Chipkin (2012), Madonsela (2012), Matshiqi, (2012), Plaut and Holden (2012) and Mantzaris and Pillay, (2013).

Given these realities, there is a general agreement amongst the country’s citizenry that the government’s first priority is to fight against corruption. A comprehensive survey of citizens’ attitudes and perceptions towards corruption (Mantzaris, 2012) showed that from 1995 until 2012, corruption was perceived as the number one priority for government and threat to democracy.

Mantzaris and Pillay (2013) have explored the very comprehensive anti-corruption legislation including the government’s Anti-Corruption Strategy. The country’s President and senior officials of the ruling party have committed the government to the fight against corruption. State institutions such as the Public Protector (PP), the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA), Special Investigating Unit (SIU) and the South African Police Service (SAPS) have done their best, but the scourge continues. The National Anti-Corruption Forum where public servants are to report acts of corruption is operational, but in a dysfunctional mould. The Auditor-General’s reports for the last few years have shown the malaise in the vast majority of the municipalities throughout the country.

THE MANIFESTATIONS AND CASE STUDIES

What has been written so far clearly indicates that the relationship of politics and administration is blurry in South Africa, particularly at the local government level. It is, therefore, important to analyse how the interface between politics and administration affects service delivery.

The belief and expectation that politicians would not manipulate the administrative offices in government means that it is of importance to clarify the roles of policy makers and administrators separately. This means that political interference will not adversely affect the separation of the policy-making functions and the administrative functions of officials. In this sense political patronage or partisanship equates to corruption (Mantzaris, 2012).

The roots of the malaise lie primarily but not exclusively in the ANC Polokwane Elective Conference of 2007 where it was resolved that there shall be only one centre of power

in the ANC. Consequently, the situation especially in municipalities exacerbated corruption and incompetence in local municipalities. Thus, research by Ngamlana (2012) has shown that:

- a) In a municipal district in the Eastern Cape, a Municipal Manager queried the academic qualifications of another Municipal Manager in another local municipality within the same district who happened to be the Regional Chairperson of the ANC. The Regional Chairperson used his political position to influence a decision by the District Council to remove the district Municipal Manager long before his contract expired.
- b) When the Democratic Alliance (DA) came to power in Cape Town, it implemented a controversial policy decision to terminate employment contracts of senior officials of the previous ANC administration and introduced an interim policy for senior managers that stated such positions should be filled by people who are 'politically suitable and acceptable' to the ruling party.
- c) In another district municipality in the Eastern Cape, the panel tasked by the District Council to appoint a Municipal Manager was told by the ANC Regional Executive who should be appointed. This candidate was far less qualified and experienced compared to all the other candidates the panel had short-listed.
- d) Still in the Eastern Cape, in yet another district municipality, all senior managerial posts were advertised, but the regional ANC branch was responsible for short-listing candidates and instructs the panel on whom to appoint. The candidates imposed on the panel by the Regional Executive were ill-equipped for the job and as a result the calibre of work expected from the position was not obtained.
- e) Sipiwo Sohena had been seconded as the acting Municipal Manager for the ailing Mbhashe Local Municipality of the Amathole District. Yet he was the manager who had allegedly left a trail of corruption and mal-administration in the two municipalities that he worked in previously, Nelson Mandela Metro and the Sundays River municipality. In the latter, he was fired having been found guilty on 11 charges of corruption and mismanagement (Kimemia 2011).
- f) Ten eThekweni (Durban) municipal councillors – including ANC chief whip and Executive Committee member Stanley Xulu – “earned” more than R19 million from doing business with the eThekweni municipality, according to the Report of a special investigation. They openly contravened the Code of Conduct for Councillors and the Municipal Systems Act. Those still alive still have their jobs.
- g) eThekweni's former Mayor, Obed Mlaba, unlawfully influenced a R 3.5 billion tender for the waste volume reduction plant at the Bisasar Road Landfill site. He was a part of the bidding consortium. As he is not in office anymore he cannot be criminally charged.

- h) Of the R 532,576 million irregular expenditure referred to by the Attorney General for the financial year ending 30 June 2010, R 428 million payment vouchers were not signed as “authorised” for payment; dates “authorised / certified” for payment are post facto to the date of “approved” for payment; and no reflection of the date of “works actually completed”, or “checked for payment”.
- i) The deputy city manager responsible for infrastructure and the head of housing did not comply with supply chain management policies and failed to exercise due care.
- j) 161 municipal employees were found doing business with their own municipality.
- k) A construction company with powerful political and administrative connections received a massive housing project with *no specified budget cap*. Tender procedures were ignored when the contract was awarded under the instruction of city management that to council that the contract for the project, valued at some R78million, be given to the company. The city’s head of housing, extended the contract with no specified contract sum. The failure to cap the contract and the linking of the final bill to the number of subsidies available to build houses in the area resulted in a massive number of variations in the contract, with costs escalating to about R 200 million.

Such case studies indicate not only the blurring of the political administrative interface but also pose serious questions of the nature of dominance over the power relations and authority within the administrative/political nexus in the fight against corruption.

It is evident that the meanings of political interference and corruption has become almost synonymous. This is because these are clearly illegal acts that are based on intimidation, fear and illegal acts committed by both parties, the politicians who dictate and the administrators that follow instructions. The excessive politicisation of municipal administration because of nepotism, cronyism and cadre deployment by the African National Congress (ANC) has been described as the root of the current malaise and indifferent service delivery. There is a well-founded feeling that those who engage in corruption and blatant abuse of power will rarely be punished, provided they are ‘good comrades’ who are politically connected (Kimemia 2011).

In a high powered gathering of senior government officials and politicians inter- and intra-party political struggles at municipal level led to the relegation of community needs to the “backburner”. Political interference was described as a critical problem and the final report produced identified a “congested political/administrative interface” in local government as a cause of instability and dysfunction. The report identified party deployment issues and political interference, a lack of distinction between municipal councils and administration as well as poor political management as some of the root

causes of the problem (Witness 2009, 11th May).

The analysis does not mean that the phenomenon examined is the *only root of corruption*. The behaviour of individuals isolated from such relations is also vital in a holistic understanding and research of the phenomenon. The human factor thus has similar repercussions in terms of its manifestations at the political, economic and social levels underlying effective and efficient service delivery to citizens.

WHAT IS TO BE DONE?

Operating from the noble assumption that governments are committed to the welfare of the people and bearing in mind the heroic struggle of the African people against colonialism and neo-colonialism, some thoughts are presented for a considered way forward in assessing and streamlining the conundrum between political and administrative leaderships.

- a) It is a critical issue that demands systematic scientific research and policy analysis. These first elementary steps will eliminate secrecy, loopholes and mysteries.
- b) Role ambiguity and ambivalence need to be eliminated.
- c) Conflicting expectations need to disappear.
- d) Transformation of the state and society necessitates an effective and efficient administration.
- e) Common ideals need to be agreed upon.
- f) New relations will eliminate the colonial and neo-colonial legacy.
- g) Political neutrality or political party affiliation does not automatically guarantee administrative efficiency, effectiveness or excellence.
- h) An administration model of excellence and efficiency and free of corruption does not mean emulation of a Westminster, neo-liberal or Eurocentric paradigm.
- i) The commitment of both parts of the whole to development, growth of all people is non-negotiable and is based on the principles of "African Awareness, African Unity, and African Humanism".
- j) A uniquely African political/administrative model will essentially be based on the historical development and lessons, culture, traditions and realities of a particular country.
- k) This with the understanding that the civil service is based on the principles of professionalism, commitment and determination to fight corruption, greed and avarice.
- l) These are guaranteed by regulatory frameworks that are based on transparency, accountability and fairness and do not allow space for abuse, nepotism, corruption and maladministration.
- m) Such frameworks guarantee administration based on well-defined spheres

of competence (clearly defined duties) of each office, hierarchy of offices and delegated duties and responsibilities and selection based on objective qualifications.

- n) An agreement among politicians and civil servants that the quality and standards of public services including training and education, citizen satisfaction, technical and other skills such as financial management and budgeting, ethical standards, and fundamental human resource development and management skills, without which organisations cannot function is imperative.

One of the founding fathers of Pan-African Liberation, Kwame Nkrumah was the one that penned and implemented the New Charter for the Civil Service. The charter envisaged a civil service that should be non-political in character and that individual civil servants should avoid identification with a political ideology or party (Birmingham 1998).

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INNOVATIVE LEADERSHIP APPROACHES TO ATTRACTING AND RETAINING HUMAN RESOURCE IN HARD-TO-REACH AND UNDERSERVED AREAS IN TANZANIA

Josephine Rogate Kimaro

ABSTRACT

Tanzania, like other Sub-Saharan African countries, is facing an acute shortage of staff mostly in sectors such as health and education. On average, the shortage of health workers in Tanzania stands at 46 per cent, a deficit that jeopardised the achievement of Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and other national strategies, particularly in the health sector. Shortage of staff is critical in rural areas, particularly those popularly known as Hard-to-Reach and Underserved Areas where basic amenities to support modern life such as electricity, water, telecommunication and good roads are virtually non-existent. Innovative leadership approaches are, therefore, needed to attract and retain staff to work in these areas. This paper unveils innovative approaches on staff incentive packages designed and implemented in hard-to-reach and underserved districts in Tanzania. Some of these packages were tested before the government had developed policy frameworks and strategies to deal with staff shortages in hard-to-reach and underserved areas. The results of this intervention show that leadership has an important role to play in the careful design and judicious implementation of human resource retention incentive packages, leading to a positive impact in attracting and retaining Human Resources in hard-to-reach and underserved areas.

INTRODUCTION

The public service in Sub-Saharan Africa is facing a critical challenge of attracting and retaining qualified human resources, especially in rural areas. This is particularly the case for specialised professions such as those in the health sector. The African continent bears half of the global burden of diseases, but contain only 3 per cent of the global health workforce (Sirili et al, 2014:2). Consequently, rural areas in sub-Saharan African countries are always understaffed in the delivery of health services, which complicates countries' endeavours to achieve universal access to health services in general, and for reduction of maternal and child mortality rates in particular.

Nevertheless, research shows that quality leadership is critical in attracting and retaining staff to work in hard to reach areas (Pacque'-Margolis, Ng & Kauffman, 2011).

In this paper, I present some of the innovative approaches that have been adopted by the leadership of local governments in Tanzania in attracting and retaining health workers to work in hard-to-reach underserved rural areas.

The methodology adopted in the writing of this paper is qualitative, that is it reviews relevant documents. Two district councils out of 23 categorised as hard-to-reach and underserved by the Government of Tanzania are randomly selected as a reference in this paper. The paper is organised into four (4) sections as follows: Section One is the introduction while Section Two disentangles concepts of quality leadership and hard-to-reach and underserved areas with reference to Tanzania. Section Three presents and discusses approaches that have been employed by local government authorities to address the problem of shortage of health staff in some of the hard-to-reach and underserved areas with reference to two districts. Section Four (4) summarises the paper and draws conclusions from emerging issues.

CONCEPTIONS OF HARD-TO-REACH AREAS IN THE CONTEXT OF HEALTH SERVICE DELIVERY

The term 'hard-to-reach' has been defined in different contexts. It is generally used in the context of social marketing to denote difficulty involved in receiving messages, services, care, awareness programmes, sales and educational programmes for certain groups in the society due to certain limitations, such as attitudinal, cultural, economic, infrastructural or contextual factors. It is documented that nearly all African countries have such areas, though the intensity of challenges differs from one place to another. In Kenya, rural areas have the same infrastructural challenges that face Tanzania and other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (Ojaka et al, 2014:1). In the Republic of South Africa, the rural areas have an infrastructure setting that is not as challenging as in rural areas in other countries. In the Tanzania National Budget Guidelines of 2010/2011 'underserved areas' are defined as those which do not attract qualified staff due to factors such as absence of basic facilities including staff houses and other infrastructural facilities, remoteness (geographical location and setting) and culture.

In the context of this paper, the term 'hard-to-reach' is used to refer to localities in Tanzania that are economically and infrastructurally challenged, a phenomenon that limits availability of essential social and health services, including electricity and water. The definition further extends to cultural challenges existing in these areas. Due to these challenges, health workers are not attracted to work there. Most staff who decide to work in such areas do not stay for a sufficient period of time to effectively provide the required services.

Consequently, such areas are permanently and consistently deprived of the necessary workforce in health and other essential service sectors, thus becoming '*underserved*'. The poor delivery of health services in hard-to-reach and underserved areas is disproportionately affecting the populations and constrains the country's efforts to reach targets on reduction of maternal and child mortality rates.

OVERVIEW OF HUMAN RESOURCES FOR HEALTH IN TANZANIA

Health systems are said to be well established if there is a harmonious interconnection among its building blocks – governance; human resource; information systems, medicine and pharmaceutical technology; financing; and service delivery (Sirili et al, 2014:1). The effectiveness and efficiency of a health sector in service delivery largely depends on the performance of a country's health workforce. The effectiveness of the health workforce is attributable to knowledge, skills, motivation and deployment of people responsible for managing and delivering health services to the target audience. Thus, it is important for countries to develop and implement sound health policies to attract and retain a sufficient number of qualified staff in the sector.

The World Health Organisation (WHO) defined health human resources as encompassing all people engaged in any activity whose primary intention is to enhance the health of individuals and populations in a particular context. According to WHO, human resource for health involve all staff working in the health sector, including clinical staff such as physicians, nurses, pharmacists and dentists. The term also encompasses all staff who are not involved in delivering health services directly but are essential to the effective performance of the health systems, such as managers and their support staff.

Most of the developing countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa, are struggling to achieve a minimum acceptable level of staffing in the health sector for effective delivery of health services (World Economic Forum, not dated). With a population of 44.9 million people (Population and Housing Census, 2012) and an area of 947,480 square kilometres, Tanzania is the largest country in East Africa. The annual population growth rate is 2.9 per cent, which is one of the highest in Africa, with more than three quarters of the population living in rural areas.

Despite recent trends in the decline of maternal and child mortality rates, and with a life expectancy at just about 61 years, Tanzania remains one of the countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa with the highest prevalence of major diseases such as HIV/AIDS, malaria and tuberculosis. Table 1 below presents the Human Resource for Health (HRH) deficit against health facility growth.

Table 1: Health Facility Growth Against Number of Health Workers 2006-2012 in Mainland Tanzania

| Facility Level | No of Health Facilities | | Health Workforce as per Existing Health Facilities | | | | | | | |
|----------------|-------------------------|--------------|--|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | Yr. 2006 | Yr. 2012 | Required 2006 | Required 2012 | Available 2006 | Available 2012 | Shortage 2006 | Shortage 2012 | % Shortage 2006 | % Shortage 2012 |
| Public | 3,565 | 4,821 | 82,277 | 96,468 | 29,063 | 52,375 | 52,214 | 44,093 | 65 | 46 |
| Private | 1,959 | 1,738 | 43,647 | 37,104 | 6,139 | 12,074 | 37,508 | 25,030 | 86 | 67 |
| TOTAL | 5,524 | 6,559 | 125,924 | 133,572 | 35,202 | 64,449 | 90,722 | 69,123 | 72 | 52 |

Source: Mapunda (2013)

It is therefore clear that Tanzania is faced with a very critical shortage of health workers. WHO considers Tanzania to be among 57 countries of the world experiencing a critical shortage, having far fewer than the recommended 23 health workers per 10,000 population. The shortage of health workers is particularly severe in hard-to-reach rural areas, with some cadres mostly affected as presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Availability Status for Selected HRH Cadres

| No | Cadre | Required | Available | Gap |
|----|--|----------|-----------|--------|
| 1 | Medical Specialists | 1,403 | 312 | 1,091 |
| 2 | Medical Doctors | 2,679 | 1,312 | 1,367 |
| 3 | Assistant Dental Officers/Therapists | 11,269 | 1,029 | 10,240 |
| 4 | Nursing Officers | 21,791 | 2,202 | 19,589 |
| 5 | Health Laboratory staff | 8,922 | 2,227 | 6,695 |
| 6 | Allied Health Professionals | 12,128 | 1,491 | 10,637 |
| 7 | Enrolled Nurses (Assistant Nursing Officer & Nurses) | 35,177 | 23,014 | 12,163 |

Source: Mapunda (2013)

The above-mentioned HRH shortage is well recognised as one of the main obstacles to delivery of effective health services, impacting on access to essential health services by the population. As for existing health workers, the effect is an overwhelming workload (Songstad et al, 2012:4; Ojaka et al, 2014:6) and stress which can lead to lack of motivation, fatigue, illness, migration and even career change outside of the health field.

The Government of the United Republic of Tanzania is implementing several strategies aimed at addressing the critical shortage of workers in the health sector. These include strategies related to human resource planning and policy development, strengthening leadership and stewardship, education, training and development, workforce management and utilisation, partnership in human resource, human

resource research and development and human resource financing. These strategies broadly aim to train, attract and retain sufficient numbers of health workers, especially in hard-to-reach and underserved areas.

The next section of this paper discusses leadership intervention programme adopted to attract and retain newly recruited human resource of the health sector in two-hard to-reach and underserved Kigoma and Nkasi District Councils. The aim of this programme was to attract, motivate and retain health workers in these areas facing acute shortage of health workers.

HEALTH WORKERS' MOTIVATION PROGRAMME IN HARD-TO-REACH AND UNDERSERVED AREAS IN TANZANIA: THE CASE OF KIGOMA AND NKASI DISTRICT COUNCILS

The Contextual Setting

The Tanzania Public Service Pay and Incentive Policy (2010) acknowledges the existence of several regions identified as hard-to-reach and underserved areas that need special attention. According to a report by the Public Service Management organisation (2013), these regions are: Kigoma, Lindi, Mtwara, Shinyanga, Singida, Rukwa, Tabora, Njombe, Mbeya, Arusha, Manyara, Geita, Mara, Coast (Pwani), Ruvuma, Katavi, Morogoro, Tanga, Kagera, Mwanza and Simiyu.

The Tanzanian public service has established a criterion to identify hard-to-reach and underserved areas. These include: areas bordering neighbouring countries with a long term impact of conflicts such as Democratic Republic of Congo, Malawi and Mozambique; areas with persistent burglary and violent behaviour; areas near national parks; areas with poor access to social services such as housing, water and electricity; areas with impassable road networks and; areas with witchcraft beliefs that may terrorise newly recruited workers.

The Case of Kigoma and Nkasi District Councils

Kigoma and Nkasi District Councils are among 23 local government authorities identified as areas afflicted with acute shortage of health workers. There are several challenges facing these areas with respect to health service provision. Kigoma district is located along Lake Tanganyika which is mainly reachable by water transport. In Kigoma District Council most of the health facilities located along the lake are accessible only by an ordinarily congested and slow moving boat, taking between

9 to 24 hours to reach destination. Some of the health facilities in Nkasi district are located 120 kilometres away from the district headquarters and have no reliable public transport because roads are virtually impassable.

Furthermore, Kigoma and Nkasi Districts are among the districts with strong social and cultural practices, and there are beliefs in witchcraft among local residents. Critical social services such as water and electricity are unreliable in most of the areas. These conditions make the districts unattractive to a majority of professionals, including health workers. Consequently, Kigoma and Nkasi districts are among those with characteristics of hard-to-reach and underserved areas as identified in the Public Service Pay and Incentive Policy thus needing special attention (President's Office-Public Service Management (POPSM), 2010 & 2013).

In light of the critical shortage of health workers, the local government leadership in these districts designed a special incentive package aimed at attracting and retaining newly recruited health workers especially in the most challenging places. Prior to the provision of incentive schemes, most newly recruited health workers did not report and the turnover rate was exceptionally high for those who reported, in some cases up to 50%. The incentive package has been designed specially to cover for health workers located in the districts so as to ease the hardships health workers face and cushion them from some of the difficulties experienced while in these areas.

The health workers' attraction and retention incentive package involves several aspects, including:

- An effective communication strategy with newly recruited staff posted to districts before and after their reporting;
- Special welcome receptions of the newly recruited health workers by local government leadership;
- Provision of housing to newly recruited health workers;
- Provision of start-up allowances on top of the statutory subsistence allowance;
- Provision of special off-days and transport to town centres for shopping;
- Close supervision by leadership for health workers' welfare;
- Training of staff on special contractual agreements;
- Provision of annual bonus allowance for all health workers; and
- Partnership with development partners.

These packages are briefly explained in the next section of the paper.

Effective Communication Strategy

Traditionally, when an employee is newly recruited and posted to work in the public service, it is upon him to take up the position or not. The authorities where they are posted to serve would wait for newly recruited employees to report and they would not take any measures to pursue or convince them to report to duty stations. This is partly because for many years after independence, the Government of Tanzania was the main employer of highly skilled workforce due to an underdeveloped private sector. Employment in a public service therefore, has been perceived as a privilege and it was not expected that any new employee would turn down the offer.

Nevertheless, in the context of a liberalised economy, employment has become competitive and skilled workforce is highly sought after. Furthermore, employment in the public service is not necessarily attractive compared to employment in the private sector due to less pay in the former. This is particularly the case in public service outlets located in rural areas where working conditions are generally poor. In this regard, leadership is compelled to adopt proactive measures to attract health workers to accept to work in their local authorities.

One of the efforts that the leadership of Nkasi and Kigoma district councils has pursued is to strengthen lines of communication with newly employed health workers. Unlike in the past, for the past three years, leadership of these two districts has been actively communicating with newly employed health workers. Once they receive a list of health workers posted to work in their localities, they would immediately call the employee and assure him/her of their cooperation, support and incentives attached to their employment. Communication lines are kept open, regularly and consistently until the arrival of employees to duty stations. By doing so, the stress that is normally associated with new employment in a new place, especially in a rural context, is significantly reduced.

Upon arrival in the districts, a special welcome reception is organised for these newly recruited health workers. In this reception, senior leadership of the local government authority such as District Executive Director and members of the Council Health Management Team (CHMT) would attend. A special arrangement is made to transport new staff to their respective duty stations, where they are also specially welcomed by the local leadership at their destination.

Provision of Housing to Newly Recruited Health Workers

One of the critical challenges facing workers in rural areas is lack of decent housing. Thus, housing has been identified as one the most important factors that motivate professionals to work in rural areas (POPSM, 2010, 2013; Benjamin Mkapa HIV/AIDS

Foundation (BMAF), 2012). There are basically no housing facilities for renting in most of the rural areas in Tanzania, especially in hard-to-reach and underserved areas such as Kigoma and Nkasi districts. Thus, when newly recruited employees are posted to such areas they find no official accommodation facilities and are forced to look for a place to stay in villages, whose conditions are poor.

The fear of not securing reliable accommodation discourages health workers to take up their position in such areas. In order to address this problem, leadership of the local government authorities in Nkasi and Kigoma have taken several measures to address the housing challenges for health workers. These include:

- Construction of new houses using revenue generated by the districts;
- Renovating existing but dilapidated houses which were formerly inhabitable;
- Setting aside a budget for renting houses and paying an annual rent for the first year of reporting without charging staff; and
- Entering into partnership with development partners to address housing challenges for health workers.

Provision of Special Monetary Incentives and Salary Loans

A monetary incentive is one of the powerful motivating factors for employees in different contexts. A critical challenge facing new workers in rural areas is how to start a decent life before they receive the first salary which may take up to two months from when they report to duty stations. The leadership of the two districts have designed and institutionalised a special monetary incentive to enable newly recruited health workers to acclimatise in their new areas of work. The process of enrolling newly recruited staff into a government payroll takes up to two months from the date one has reported to his/her duty station. Thus, newly employed staff may work for up to two months without a salary, and this may pose a survival challenge.

With this realisation, leadership of the two districts have decided to set aside a special budget for cushioning newly recruited health workers before they are enrolled into the payroll. Newly recruited health workers are given salary loans for months they work before they are enrolled into the government payroll. These incentive packages include provision of a once off start up allowance of between Tsh. 500,000/= and 1,000,000/= (US\$ 300-600) immediately after reporting to their duty stations.

Additionally, in Kigoma District Council, all health workers receive an annual bonus allowance variably depending on the number of staff in a health facility, with staff having a higher workload receiving more than others. Furthermore, in Kigoma District Council health workers in the health facilities located along the shores of Lake Tanganyika, which are considered to be exposed to more hardships, gets the

opportunity to go shopping in Kigoma town every two months as well as a two-day subsistence allowance. In addition to this, employees are provided with transport to Kigoma Township using a district council boat, which is more decent and reliable.

Pre-service Training of Prospective Health Workers

Traditionally, Local Government Authorities (LGAs) in Tanzania are supplied with health staff by the Presidents' Office-Public Service Management (POPSM) through the Ministry responsible for health matters. These authorities were therefore not involved in pre-service training of their own staff. In light of critical shortage of health workers, the leadership of Nkasi and Kigoma District Councils designed a special training programme for health workers as a strategy to attract and retain them to work in their respective districts upon completion of studies. In this regard, students in health colleges are approached and offered a scholarship on bonding conditions that they will eventually work in the respective districts for a specified period of time after their graduation. Scholarships are mostly provided to needy students coming from poor families that are unable to meet for their college expenses.

IMPACT ASSESSMENT AND ANALYSIS

According to literature, it is suggested that measurements of the effectiveness of retention strategies should be measured at output level during the first four years and followed by outcome/impact measurements on productivity and quality of services (Huicho et al, 2010). In this paper, however, measurement of staff turnover is taken within the first two years after reporting. Much as it is too early to report, it is nevertheless worth reporting since the results at the output level in Nkasi and Kigoma district councils seems to be promising. The number of health workers not reporting for duty and turnover rate because of poor working conditions is decreasing. For example, in year 2012 alone, all 6 health workers posted to work in various government owned health facilities in the district reported and none had left by July 2013. Similarly, all 7 health workers recruited and posted to Nkasi District by the BMAF reported to their respective duty stations and were later absorbed as government employees. Improvement trends in HRH turnover is as indicated in the Table 3 below.

Table 3: Staff Turnover Rate in Nkasi District

| No. | Year | Turnover Rate (%) |
|-----|------|-------------------|
| 1 | 2006 | 33 |
| 2 | 2007 | 50 |
| 3 | 2008 | 40 |
| 4 | 2009 | 14 |
| 5 | 2010 | No HRH posting |
| 6 | 2011 | 0 |
| 7 | 2012 | 0 |

Source: Nkasi District Council, 2013

In Kigoma district, there are equally improvements in attracting and retaining of HRH. In 2011, all staff posted to work in the district health sector reported unlike in the past, where up to 50% would not report. In 2011 and 2012, the rate of staff turnover is recorded at 18% and 13% respectively. This shows improvement compared to 2003 and 2006 where the highest turnover rates were 25% and 50% respectively.

QUALITY LEADERSHIP

Leadership has a unique role and impact in the effectiveness of the incentive strategies. De Vries and Bouckaert (2013:11) have captured it well when they say,

“...there should be correlation between strong leaders and crises. Increasingly, wickedness of problems requires wicked solutions, which leaders have to invent.”

The traditional role of leaders in governments centred on performing administrative roles in accordance to the legislature. This is termed as reactive model against a proactive one where managers ought to lead, innovate and initiate solutions to address challenges such as the above presented on HRH. The leadership of Nkasi and Kigoma districts have influenced a course of action towards addressing HRH challenges as is presented in section four and five of this paper.

Efforts by these local government authorities to attract and retain health workers clearly demonstrate quality leadership. In an environment of scarce financial resources facing most governments, the leadership has designed and adopted attraction and retention strategies and institutionalised them through systems and budgets. The leadership of Nkasi and Kigoma district councils have been visionary, proactive team players, leading by example and entered into partnerships in order to create sustainability. The leadership moved from a traditional way of managing human resources especially at recruitment and deployment levels to a strategic focused way matching with their environment.

The Government of the United Republic of Tanzania has set up mechanisms to facilitate the design of incentive packages to attract and retain employees in hard-to-reach and underserved areas (POPSM, 2010 & 2013). The implementation of such strategies, however, requires quality leadership to be able to design and manage such programmes effectively, efficiently and sustainably. The incentive packages in Nkasi and Kigoma district councils were adopted in 2009, while the Public Service Pay and Incentive Policies were developed in 2010 and Public Service Remuneration Board was established in 2012. A strategy to facilitate local government authorities identified to have staffing challenges to develop incentive packages was implemented in 2013.

The above-mentioned action by the leadership reveals some essential leadership traits such as being visionary, proactive and innovative. As presented above, the leadership of Nkasi and Kigoma districts has been proactive to design incentive packages ahead of the development of the incentive guiding frameworks and creation of institutions to address among other things, the staffing challenges in hard-to-reach and underserved areas.

The local government authorities in the two districts have a clear vision about attracting and retaining health workers to serve the health system in their districts by being sensitive to their needs. To achieve their vision, they have taken unusual and innovative steps in the realm of traditional local government management in Tanzania. In short, they have demonstrated that a transformative leadership approach, which has been viewed as the most effective leadership style for the 21st century (Arnold, 2005), can be implemented even in resource constrained and hard-to-reach contexts such as Kigoma and Nkasi Districts.

As observed by Mullins (2007), good leadership involves two important aspects. First, good leaders motivate their followers to fulfil their obligations willingly by creating conducive working environments. Second, in line with the first aspect, good leaders design organisational contexts in a way that enables workers to function effectively. The leaderships of Kigoma and Nkasi District councils have just done this by endeavouring to address some of the challenges that for many years had constrained health workers to work in their districts. By creating positive working and living conditions, leaderships of the two districts have provided facilitative environments for health workers to carry out their tasks dutifully, effectively and productively.

Within the context of transformational leadership, leaders in the two districts has been able to engender motivation and commitment among health workers. This is likely to transform performance of the health system in these districts in a sustainable manner, in that resources for implementing motivation strategies come from the two districts' own budgets and that they do not always involve monetary aspects.

CONCLUSION

Adequate and qualified human resources for health is a prerequisite for achieving health outcomes. This paper has presented the existing human resource scarcity facing the Tanzanian health sector. The paper has described the innovative leadership approaches adopted by two local government authorities (Kigoma and Nkasi) in Tanzania aimed at attracting and retaining health workers. Though it is too early to measure the impact of this programme, it is clear that good quality leadership is essential to improving the working conditions for health workers, which is critical in attracting and retaining such staff in hard-to-reach and underserved areas. It is recommended that some of the strategies employed by leadership in Kigoma and Nkasi district councils be scaled up to other districts or areas with similar challenges in Tanzania and beyond its borders.

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