

**PUBLIC SECTOR SENIOR MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES REQUIRED FOR THE SOUTH
AFRICAN DEMOCRATIC, DEVELOPMENTAL STATE**

CH de Wet

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I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this mini-dissertation is my own original work and has not previously, in its entire or in part, been submitted at any University for a degree.

C.H. de Wet

Date

“Ek onthou wat U gesê het: Julle moet My kom dien! Ek is hier om U te dien Here.” (Psalm 27:8)

Hemelse Vader, omdat ek volkome aan U behoort, rig en lei U Heilige Gees my denke, my optrede en my lewe. Dankie vir elke gawe, ook die gawe om hierdie studie suksesvol te kon voltooi. Aan U kom toe, al my dankbaarheid, liefde en verheerliking.

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Public sector senior management competencies required for the South African democratic, developmental state.

Adopting the philosophy of a developmental state proved to have a distinct attractiveness to nations around the world as it offers rapid economic growth and global recognition. In recognising that such an offering comes at an extraordinary price, this study introduces and then explores the nature and character of six developmental states through a primary theory as the paradigmatic evolution of such states. A secondary theory supports the substructure of this research study as it explores the innate layers of the developmental state's nature and character: By receiving the leadership that led nations successfully to and through such philosophy; by conceding international and national force-fields that unceasingly have an impact on nations; by considering three dimensions (political dimension, economic dimension and social dimension) that are inter-responsive to each other as well as global and national force-fields; and by considering the intents linked to each of these developmental state landscape dimensions. The study notes such intents as: State building, rule of law and democracy; rapid economic growth and facilitation of redistribution; and, nation-building and national identity, social equity and social capital. This study suitably recognises that the philosophy of a developmental state cannot be replicated from one nation to the next as each nation filters the developmental philosophy through its own unique history, present conditions, future projections and developmental agenda.

Considering the resource value of scholarly efforts that contributes to the global developmental philosophy, the research narrows down to explore South Africa as a democratic, developmental state. The exact approach of a secondary theory is applied to reveal the uniquely, South African filtered approach to such a philosophy as this nation is compelled to simultaneously consider a developmental state intent such as facilitation of redistribution in order to successfully address increasing socio-economic challenges.

An earlier mention was made of the extraordinary price that is connected to the offerings of a developmental state philosophy. Such an extraordinary price entails an array of elements amongst which a resilient, developmentalist leadership, organisational structure, strong state characteristics, and a highly competent bureaucracy features to acquire the full offering of a developmental state. The study therefore recognises that it would be academically naïve to singularly relate developmental success to bureaucratic aptitude. Therefore, based on the fact that the focus of this study relates to public sector senior management competence in the South African democratic, developmental state, additional important elements are observed as peripheral rudiments to this study.

Which competencies would enable South African public sector senior managers to manage and lead towards sustained socio-economic growth from which the nation as a whole could benefit? Contemporary public sector senior managers, serving as the administrative bureaucracy within democratic, developmental states are compelled by their position and the citizens of that nation to display continuous

high levels of proficiency in identified public sector relevant competencies. The South African public sector is no exception to this universally defined, developmental state characteristic. The moral fibre and capacity of the South African state's public sector senior management, as major instrument in promoting developmental competence, can be nothing but impeccable amidst complex socio-economic circumstances.

An evaluation of the learning domain levels in this study, contributes to the disparities that exist between South African political elite's performance expectations of the bureaucracy and the bureaucracy's displayed aptitude. In addition, the study identifies competency domains and competency contributors relevant to the South African public sector, senior managers serving in a democratic, developmental state.

In conclusion, the study offers recommendations to align the existing South African public sector senior management competency framework to include competency domains and competencies that would enable a public sector senior management to achieve optimal results in a democratic, developmental state.

OPSOMMING

Senior openbare bestuursvaardighede benodig in die Suid-Afrikaanse demokratiese, ontwikkelingstaat.

Die aanvaarding van die ontwikkelingstaatfilosofie blyk 'n aantreklike opsie vir verskeie lande oor die wêreld heen te wees as gevolg van die snelgroeïende ekonomie en die internasionale erkenning wat daarmee geassosieer word. Terwyl hierdie studie erken dat so 'n aantreklike aanbod teen 'n buitengewone prys kom, stel dit die aard en karakter van ses ontwikkelingstate bekend voor dit die pragmatiese ontwikkeling van hierdie state as primêre teorie verken. 'n Sekondêre teorie ondersteun die substruktuur van hierdie navorsingstudie aangesien dit die inherente lae van die ontwikkelingstaat se aard en karakter ontleed. Hierdie lae sluit die leierskap in wat die state suksesvol na en deur die ontwikkelingsfilosofie gelei het, met die inagneming van nasionale en internasionale gebeure wat deurlopend 'n invloed op hierdie state gehad het, en die oorweging van die drie dimensies (polities, ekonomies en sosiaal) wat interaktief op mekaar sowel as nasionale en internasionale gebeure reageer, asook 'n ondersoek van die voornemes wat direk met die politiese-, ekonomiese- en sosiale dimensies verbind kan word. Die studie neem kennis van ideologieë soos staatsbou, 'n goedfunksionerende regstelsel en demokrasie, 'n snelgroeïende ekonomie en die fasilitering van herverdelingsinisiatiewe, nasiebou en die skep van 'n nasionale identiteit, sosiale gelykheid en sosiale kapitaal. Dit is dan ook gepas dat die studie erken dat die ontwikkelingstaatfilosofie nie bloot van een staat na 'n volgende gedupliseer kan word nie aangesien alle nasies dit moet benader deur die filters van hulle eie unieke geskiedenis, huidige omstandighede, toekomsverwagtings en ontwikkelingsagendas.

Met inagneming van die bronwaarde van vakkundige bydraes tot die internasionale ontwikkelingsfilosofie, fokus hierdie navorsing spesifiek op Suid-Afrika as demokratiese ontwikkelingstaat. 'n Noukeurige, sekondêre, teoretiese navorsingsproses word gebruik om die unieke Suid-Afrikaans gefiltreerde demokratiese ontwikkelingstaatbenadering te ondersoek. Hierdie ondersoek word gedoen aan die hand van die feit dat Suid-Afrika terselfdertyd 'n ontwikkelingstaatdoelwit soos die fasilitering van herverdeling moet bereik ten einde toenemende sosio-ekonomiese probleme die hok te slaan.

Soos voorheen genoem, word 'n buitengewone prys gekoppel aan die voordele wat met die ontwikkelingstaafilosofie geassosieer word. Die faktore vir 'n suksesvolle ontwikkelingstaat sluit 'n verskeidenheid elemente in, waaronder 'n veerkragtige, ontwikkelingsgefokusde leierskap; 'n goed ontwikkelde organisasiestruktuur; sterk staatskaraktereienskappe en 'n besonder vaardige burokrasie. Hierdie elemente moet teenwoordig wees ten einde die volle potensiaal van hierdie staatsvorm te bereik. Die studie erken dat dit akademies naïef sou wees om ontwikkelingsukses slegs aan burokratiese vaardigheid te koppel, en aangesien hierdie studie spesifiek fokus op die vaardigheidsprofiel van senior openbare bestuurders in die Suid-Afrikaanse demokratiese ontwikkelingstaat, word ander belangrike elemente waargeneem en as rand grondbeginsels tot hierdie studie ingesluit.

Daar moet egter steeds vasgestel word watter vaardighede Suid-Afrikaanse senior openbare bestuurders in staat sal stel om só te lei en te bestuur dat volhoubare sosio-ekonomiese groeikoerse waarby die land in geheel sal baat, behaal kan word. Uit die aard van hulle posisies word daar van hedendaagse senior openbare bestuurders verwag om deurlopend hoë vaardigheidsvlakke in bepaalde openbare sektorverwante areas ten toon te stel. Die Suid-Afrikaanse openbare sektor is geen uitsondering nie, en die inherente waardesisteen van Suid-Afrikaanse senior openbare bestuurders as belangrike instrument in die bevordering van ontwikkelingsvaardighede, kan niks minder as onberispelik wees in die lig van die komplekse sosio-ekonomiese toestande nie.

'n Evaluering van die leerareavlakke in hierdie studie dra by tot die verskille wat geïdentifiseer is in terme van dít wat die Suid-Afrikaanse politieke elite van die burokrasie verwag, en die burokrasie se bewese prestasie daarteenoor. Die studie identifiseer voorts ook die vaardigheidsvelde en –bydraers soos van toepassing op die Suid-Afrikaanse senior openbare bestuurders, werksaam in 'n demokratiese ontwikkelingstaat.

Ten slotte bied die studie aanbevelings waarvolgens die bestaande Suid-Afrikaanse senior openbare bestuursvaardigheidsraamwerk aangepas kan word ten einde vaardigheidsareas en vaardighede wat 'n openbare senior bestuurder in staat sal stel om optimale resultate in 'n demokratiese ontwikkelingstaat te behaal.

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Acronym	Description
AfriMAP	Africa's Governance Monitoring and Advocacy Project
ANC	African National Congress
ASGISA	Accelerated Shared and Growth Initiative for South Africa
BDP	Botswana Democratic Party
BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
BRIC	Brazil, Russia, India and China
BRIMCK	Brazil, Russia, India, Mexico, China and South Korea
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
CMC	Core Management Competencies
CoGTA	Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
dpsa	Department of Public Service and Administration
EDP	Executive Development Programme
EPWP	Expanded Public Works Programme
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
GNI	Gross national Income per capita
GWM&E	Government-wide Monitoring and Evaluation system
HEI	Higher Education Institute
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
HRD	Human Resource Development
IPAP₂	Industrial Policy Action Plan
LDP	Liberal Democratic Party
LMC	Leadership and Management Competencies
LDMSF	Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MITI	Ministry of International Trade and Industry
MPSA	Ministry for Public Service and Administration
MTSF	Medium Term Strategic Framework
NDR	National Democratic Revolution
NFSD	National Framework for Sustainable Development
NQF	National Qualifications Framework
PAIA	Promotion of Access to Information Act
PAJA	Promotion of Administrative Justice Act
PALAMA	Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy
PDP	Personal Development Plan
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act
PMDS	Performance Management and Development System

Acronym	Description
PSC	Public Service Commission
PSCBC	Public Service Coordinating Bargaining Council
PSTF	Public Service Trainers Forum
PM	Performance Management
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
REEEP	Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership
SACN	South African Cities Network
SALGA	South African Local Government Association
SARS	South African Revenue Services
SMS	Senior Management Service
WWII	World War II

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APPENDIX

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

“The expression most fragrant with the scent of life, and one of the prettiest in the dictionary is to my mind the word ‘incitement’. It has no meaning except in the disciplines of life. Physics does not know of it. In Physics one thing does not incite another; it causes it and the cause produces an effect in proportion to itself... But when the spur’s point ever so lightly touches its flank, the thoroughbred breaks into a gallop, generously out of proportion to the impulse of the spur. The reaction of the horse, rather than a response to an outer impulse, is a release of exuberant inner energies. Indeed, a skittish horse, with a nervous head and fiery eye is a splendid image of stirring life. Thus we imagine the magnificent stallion from Caligula called Incitus and made a member of the Roman Senate.”

J.O. Gasset (1961)

1. ORIENTATION

Contemporary public sector senior managers, serving as the administrative bureaucracy within democratic, developmental states, are expected to display continuous, high levels of proficiency in identified competencies (Marwala, 2006:3). According to Taylor (2007:8) an unconscious aptitude in specific competencies assists an individual to display optimal performance in the workplace. Optimal performance in the public service translates into a service delivery that measure positively amongst the populace of that country (Gumede, 2007:51). South Africa's public sector senior managers are not excluded from this primary, developmental state characteristic (Baloyi, 2009:4). In order to determine the specific management and leadership competencies required by South African public sector senior managers, it is of significant value to explore the following themes embedded in the democratic, developmental landscape: the paradigmatic evolution of developmental states; democratic governance; the role of the senior manager in the South African public sector; and the role of competencies and the development thereof in a democratic, developmental state.

Mkandawire (2001:2) indicates that the developmental state has, at its core, two noticeable layers. The first layer represents a belief system and the second layer denotes an arrangement or an organisation. Mkandawire (2001:2) furthermore notes that the developmental state's belief system is grounded in a "developmentalist" (Vasoo & Lee, 2001:1) approach. Mkandawire (2001:2) observes that the "developmentalist" approach supports the achievement of the developmental agenda of the state with a rapidly growing economy as primary objective. The secondary objective is, "high rates of accumulation and industrialisation" (Mkandawire, 2001:2). Low (2004:12) identifies the state as organisation and "central force" in the "politics of development" as it responds to national and international force-fields. The theory of authenticity within the developmental state revealed itself as the promotion of continuous economic growth and social development (Castells, 1992:55). The organisation, as second layer, pre-supposes aptitude to enable the effective implementation of socio-economic policies (Mkandawire, 2001:2).

As a point of reference, from which the researcher will initiate an enquiry into the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state, it is imperative to establish a collective appreciation for the terminology: paradigmatic evolution. The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (2010:524,1099,1400), rendered a paradigmatic evolution of the democratic developmental state as a model or framework within which the progression of the developmental state is measured through definite examples, patterns, concepts and a timeline, synonymous to the nature of its hypothesis and context.

In pursuing the paradigmatic evolution of developmental states, historical literature such as "The Developmental State: Israel, South Korea and Taiwan compared" (Levi-Faur, 1998), "MITI

(Ministry of International Trade and Industry) and the Japanese Miracle” (Johnson, 1982), “Developmental States: Relevancy, Redundancy or Reconfiguration?” (Low, 2004), “The Politics of Service Delivery” (McLennan & Munslow, 2009) and “States of Development: On the Primacy of Politics in Development” (Leftwich, 2007), to name but a few, reveal the unique identity of each state through primary triggers (making a decision to transform the state into a developmental state); specific developmental challenges (that compel the state to respond); as well as exclusive characteristics; and outcomes (that which the state specifically wishes to achieve).

Literature furthermore unveils an entrenched fluidity and exclusivity to the very core and *raison d'être* behind the origin and growth of each developmental state (Evans, 2009:7; Edigheji 2009:61). Edigheji (2009:61) alerts to the mutability of the border posts and boundaries outlining the landscape in question by disclosing the following fact: “In every historical epoch, developmental states have been constructed to respond to specific contextual developmental challenges”. Evans (2009:7) stresses the fact that there isn't one mould through which developmental states could be replicated. Edigheji (2009:61) and Evans' (2009:7) arguments substantiate the philosophy that each state that allows its socio-economic sector to be motivated by the principles of a developmental state will do so with a full appreciation of: Universal conditions such as globalisation, transformation, information communication technology, a knowledge-based new economy and deregulation in the global economy (Lim, 2009:08). Edigheji (2009:61) and Evans' (2009:7) arguments furthermore support the consideration of national conditions determining the primary triggers, specific challenges, and the developmental characteristics to achieve that state's developmental goals. In addition to the acknowledgement of global and national conditions, that has an impact on the uniqueness of a developmental state, are the specific competencies required by the public sector (Shabalala, 2007:3-6) senior management to manage and lead the developmental agenda of that particular state.

Documents that display the earliest fascination with the concept of a developmental state theory is recorded by Leftwich (2007:20) and a scholar in India who refers to “A Case of Mysore 1881 - 1947” (Gowda, 2005:1). Gowda (2005:1) states that during the 1940s and 1950s, the concept of a developmental state captured the interest of elite political scholars in Great Britain and France. The primary trigger for these two states to become developmental was that the developmental state theory would be a significant instrument to refresh and stimulate the concept of an empire and subsequently colonial rule as it was contested by “nationalist movements and labour militancy at the time” (Gowda, 2005:1). By following the paradigmatic evolution of developmental states across the globe, this study will define and include the role of structural development theory and Neo-classical paradigms during the late 1960s and early 1970s.

Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan, more commonly referred to as the “Four Asian Tigers” display evidence of being newly industrialised countries with advanced, high-income economies (Leftwich, 2007:3). Equal opportunity, impartiality and fairness shape the social philosophy that acts as driver in the implementation of the developmental state theory amongst

the “Four Asian Tigers” (Fogel, 2004:220). Chalmers Johnson (1982) provides historical evidence of these countries as developmental states in his famous rendition of, “MITI and the Japanese Miracle: The Growth of Industrial Policy, 1925 - 1975”. Soon to follow, 1980 to 2009, was the four South-East Asian countries, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand, better known as the “Tiger Cub Economies” (Leftwich, 2007:4). The “Tiger Cub Economies” engaged in an export model of economic development (Dent, 1995:7). According to Mitchell (2010) BRIC and BRIMCK are two well known abbreviations amongst the developmental state elites and scholars. BRIC represents Brazil, Russia, India and China as developing countries (Mitchell, 2010). BRIMCK, includes Mexico and South Korea as part of this group of rapidly growing developmental economies with the potential of becoming global economic leviathans (Mitchell, 2010). Japan, Chilè, Mauritius, potentially Egypt, Botswana and South Africa are some of the countries that rose as 21st century or “third wave” developmental states (Leftwich, 2007:171). A critical analysis of their unique primary triggers, specific challenges and developmental characteristics to achieve that state’s developmental goals will support the uniqueness of each country’s circumstances when engaging in the philosophy of a developmental state.

Mkandawire (2001:1) suggests that countries on the African continent have received criticism such as “being weak, being over-extended, interfering with smooth functioning markets, of having a repressive character, of having an over dependence on foreign powers, ubiquity, being absent” amongst many more. Edigheji (2005:1) asserts that “the history of the post-independent African state is that of monumental democratic and developmental failures.” However, all might not be lost. Edigheji (2005:1) follows through by saying that countries on the African continent that are not included as developmental failures are Botswana, Mauritius, and to some extent, democratic South Africa.

The socio-political setting within which South Africa finds itself, of being a democratic, developmental state with a two tiered economy (Mbeki, 2004:03), has its own unique odyssey. Bardhan (1993:45) applauded the concluding remarks of a paper developed by Przeworski and Limongi (1993:51) as providing “refreshing agnostic results”. Przeworski and Limongi (1993:51) averred: “We do not know if democracy fosters or hinders economic growth” (Bardhan, 1993:45; Owaseji, 2009:214). The latter statement is one of the unique complexities that South African public sector senior managers would be expected to manage and lead, much later in the South African history (Leftwich, 2007:171). Edigheji (2005:2) asks the pertinent question: “Can African states be both democratic and developmental under conditions of globalisation?” Four years later, Edigheji (2009:62) is of a different opinion when he confirms that, “There is no contradiction between the developmental state and democracy, as the examples of the Nordic and Irish democratic developmental states have shown.”

According to Kondlo and Maserumule (2010:22), the South African developmental agenda was introduced to the citizenry of South Africa by a former President of the Republic, Mr Thabo Mbeki, and a previous Minister of Finance, Mr Trevor Manuel in 2004. Six years later the developmental

agenda still has a prominent role to play in South Africa as displayed in the Republic's Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the African National Congress (ANC) January 8th Statement, 2010.

The importance of exceptional service delivery to its citizens remains to be a major priority to the Government of the Republic of South Africa (McLennan & Munslow, 2009:19). According to the Public Service Senior Management Service (SMS) Handbook (2003), public sector senior managers should place the following requirements at the core of their mission to achieve professional and enhanced service delivery:

- "Promote a modern, people centred public service";
- "Accept the challenges and opportunities of being a primary agent of the developmental state"; and
- "Promote a flexible and creative public service, prepared for innovation and collaboration".

Chapter 4 of the Senior Management Service (SMS) Handbook (2003) reminds public sector senior managers of their obligations through the following: "It is the responsibility/task of our senior managers to convert the policy mandates of government into effective departmental strategies, plans and programmes. It is their responsibility to ensure that resources – both material and human – are effectively used and accounted for in the pursuit of performance delivery." Monitoring and evaluation and audit processes are an integral part of strategies, plans and programmes. The South African government gauges itself incessantly through rigorous audit processes on a number of levels of internal reflection, inclusive of monitoring and evaluation. A particular area can be described as a search to determine "ground breaking" techniques through which the ability of the public sector to provide a world class service, to the citizens of South Africa, is enhanced.

During the late 1990s the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa) initiated a wide-ranging process to determine a Senior Management Service (SMS) Competency Framework. The process was inclusive of "interviews, desktop studies, surveys, focus group sessions and analysis" to determine a competency framework that would assist South African public sector senior managers towards a mutual measurement of human resource management. The framework also supported measurement of the identified competencies through a proficiency level toolkit. According to the SMS Competency Framework (1999:3,4), the process recommended that senior managers had to display knowledge, skills, behaviour and aptitude in unification against eleven SMS competencies.

The eleven SMS competencies were measured against behavioural indicators that can be listed as follows: Basic ("Applies basic concepts and methods but requires supervision and coaching"); Competent ("Independently develops and applies more advanced concepts and methods; Plan and guide the work of others; Performs analysis"); Advanced ("Understand and applies more complex concepts and methods; Leads and directs people or groups of recognised specialists;

Able to perform in-depth analysis”); and Expert (“Sought out for deep, specialised expertise; Leads the direction of the organization; Defines models/theories”). The SMS Competency Framework has evolved since then and is currently displayed in the Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework (2007:8) by means of a Pantheon model.

In an attempt to search for distinct public sector management and leadership competencies that should be inherently owned by highly skilled, super-efficient, senior layers within a bureaucracy, it would be naïve to ignore the history and politics of any nation as two fundamental elements that largely influence the future of all developmental states (Low, 2004:12). It would simultaneously prove an ignorance towards the landscape within which each bureaucracy functions if the identification of pure public sector competencies is sought as sole enhancer of service delivery interventions as bureaucratic competence represents one element within a highly complex, interactive, inter-responding and layered system. Low (2004:12) and Leftwich (2007:4) refer to the “primacy of politics” as a process through which recorded prototypes of the delicate interaction between “politics” and “state” (“as coordinating intelligence”, (Weiss & Hobson, 1995:2) was identified to reveal developmental inferences. Low (2004:12) furthermore cautions against the application of an inapposite and unsophisticated methodology, as “de-politicising” connected with “neo-classical economics of politics” or an “official approach to politics”, to fulfil democracy and development. Low (2004:12) associates an “official approach to politics” with “technical innovation”; “improvement through better governance”; “public sector management”; “institution building”; and “capacity enhancement”.

It is within this context and with appreciation for the state’s vibrant landscape that the researcher will attempt to ascertain the competencies that a public sector senior manager requires when contributing towards building the South African democratic, developmental state.

2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

In the State of the Public Service Report, (2007:8) the relation between supreme service delivery, capable and efficient state institutions, a well functioning government, effective growth and development programmes and appropriately developed skills are affirmed. Hwedi (2001:7), Edigheji (2009:16) and Marwala (2006:3) are in agreement that a “highly educated” and competent bureaucracy is a prototypical characteristic that supports the success of any developmental state substantially.

In January 2008, the Public Service Commission (2008) released a report on the evaluation of public sector senior management training needs. This report and many other public statements highlight the critical dilemma of a skills shortage within the public sector and the critical challenge of government’s capacity to redress and change the dilemma in order to advance service delivery. An appropriately skilled and competent public sector senior manager could be described as an individual that can display proficient, standardised quality requirements or competencies

amongst a community of practitioners. In the Public Service Commission Report of the Training Needs of Senior Managers in the Public Sector, January 2008, it is noted that “The significance of the capacity to maximise human potential through sound human resource management and career development practices for enhancing service delivery, cannot be over emphasised” and “... limited capacity continues to impact on government’s performance and its ability to realise its developmental objectives.”

The problem that this study will address is: If the citizens of the South African democratic, developmental state publicly display their dissatisfaction with public sector service delivery and there is a link between extraordinary service delivery and competent public servants, what are the disparities between the current South African public sector Senior Management Service (SMS) competencies and the competencies required by South African public sector senior managers that would assist them to lead towards real and sustained socio-economic growth? In addition, what is the nature and extent thereof?

3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Primary questions:

- What is expected from a South African public sector senior manager?
- How are these expectations measured, external to the workplace and internally?
- Which senior management competencies are currently highlighted as core to the efficient and effective functioning of the South African public sector Senior Management Service (SMS)?
- Which public sector senior management competencies are highlighted through the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state?
- Are there similarities and disparities between the current South African public sector senior management competencies and the competencies highlighted through the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state?

Secondary questions:

- What is the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state?
- What are the similarities and differences between a developmental state’s primary triggers, specific developmental challenges, exclusive characteristics and outcomes within a set timeline of evolution?
- What are the principles of democratic governance?
- What is the role of the South African public service senior manager?
- What is the role of competencies in a democratic developmental state?

4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The primary objective of the study can be outlined as follows:

- To determine disparities, if any, between the current South African public sector Senior Management Service (SMS) competencies and the competencies required by public sector senior managers when building a democratic, developmental state through a focus group session and a literature review.

The secondary objectives of the study can be outlined as follows:

- To document the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state landscape up to and including South Africa as a democratic, developmental state through:
 - International and national force-fields;
 - Developmental landscape dimensions (political dimension; economic dimension; and social dimension);
 - Developmental landscape dimension intents:
 - Political dimension:
 - State building;
 - Democracy; and
 - Rule of law.
 - Economic dimension:
 - Economic growth; and where applicable
 - Redistribution on wealth.
 - Social dimension:
 - Nation building and national identity;
 - Social equality; and
 - Social capital.
- To document the principles of democratic governance;
- To document the role of the South African public service senior manager; and
- To document the role of competencies in a democratic developmental state, through a literature review and a focus group session.

5. CENTRAL THEORETICAL STATEMENTS

The following central theoretical statements are made as theoretical foundation for the research:

- The decision to re-direct the socio-economic sector of a nation has far reaching implications (Edigheji, 2005:17). Apart from the fact that there are explicit characteristics that typify the philosophy, each state that engages itself in this process bears its own uniqueness shaped by historical and political demographics (Evans, 2009:7; Edigheji, 2009:61; Low, 2004:12) that is embedded in the social grain of that nation. South Africa is not excluded from this

reality as it wrestles with complex socio-economic phenomena (Hemson & Owusu-Ampomah, 2005:512-513).

- It has been sixteen years since the citizens of the Republic of South Africa has first encountered the reality of being a democratic and later a developmental state. Yet, despite the undertaking of prosperity and “a better life for all”, that has been the slogan of all the heads of state in South Africa, the media reveals a mere shadow of this utopia. “Education, health, social grants, housing, water, electricity and basic infrastructure” are all annoyance activators to the citizenry of South Africa, when they affirm their dissent through public demonstration. Neglect is experienced as a symptom of poor service delivery (McLennan, 2009:19). Noordegraaf (2007:767) motivates that effective and efficient service delivery has a direct link to an administration, and in particular its professional senior management, that displays an uninterrupted, unconscious aptitude to manage, administrate, serve and lead.

- Leftwich (2007:5,7) alerts to the fact that “the processes of development in human societies always involve the organisation, mobilisation, combination, use and distribution of resources in new ways, whether these resources take the form of capital, land, human beings or their combination.” To pre-empt and ensure the success of such a process of development, Marwala (2006:4) and Hwedi (2001:7) affix an elevated value on a bureaucracy as a highly educated, effective and efficient cadre of people. This cadre of people is the “coordinating intelligence” or “coordinating capacity” (Weiss & Hobson, 1995:2) that led the process. Leftwich (2007:7) describes this cadre as proficient and correctly structured with the capacity to lead towards successful development.

The State of the Public Service Report (2007:8) recommends that the “growth and development plans of” the South African “government” will produce the desired outcomes if it is launched from competent and proficient state institutions that foster an aptly skilled public sector.

6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research design of this study is qualitative in nature and mixed methods were used as data collection techniques.

Qualitative research	Data collection techniques
Conceptual research design	In-depth literature review
	Focus group session

6.1 Literature survey

Based on the fact that the researcher is following a qualitative analysis descriptive methodology, the study includes an in-depth literature review. References therefore comprise of a wide variety of applicable books, journal articles, papers and abstracts obtained from the databases of the North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus library and affiliated libraries.

The researcher also gathered and extracted relevant literature from South African government sources such as the government website, government publications, legislation and government departments.

In addition to the above, information was obtained from the following search engine: http://scholar.google.com/advance_scholar_search.com to obtain relevant information supportive of this study.

6.2 Empirical investigation

An empirical investigation was conducted through a focus group session with a sample size of the target population. Focus group interviews differ from conventional interviews based on the fact that the latter has a dependency on the response obtained from the interviewee to a specific question whereas focus group interventions rely on the researchers' focus and the interface between members of the focus group as they discuss a particular topic (Morgan, 1997b:13).

6.2.1 Design

Morgan (1997b:2,13) advised that the researcher will provide focus group participants with topics for interactive discussion to generate relevant "qualitative data". The researcher simultaneously gathered a deeper level of understanding with regards to the complexities and dynamics underpinning the selection of competency contributors that would verify competency contributors identified during the literature study and the Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework (LDMSF) to scientifically determine and triangulate unique public sector, senior manager competencies. A focus group interview afforded the researcher with an opportunity to observe and document complexities and dynamics that may potentially not be found in current literature. Stewart, Shamdasani and Rook (2007:1) outline the fact that focus groups interviews are also referred to as "group depth interviews" and are used as an origin of "primary qualitative data". Stewart, Shamdasani and Rook (2007:60) delineate the primary purpose of the design guide as providing structure to the focus group sessions. The design guide should relate directly to the primary and secondary research questions (Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook, 2007:60).

6.2.2 Respondents

The target population relevant to this study was defined as members of the Senior Management Service (SMS) of the South African public sector that determines and develops competency frameworks and the proficiency levels thereof. There are currently approximately 20 senior managers actively engaged in the task to design, develop and implement South African public service senior management competencies. These individuals serve in the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA) and the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa). De Vos (2002:201) presents the reader with a table as reference for sampling. According to the table, if the population comprise of 20 units of analysis or less, a suggested percentage for the sample size to engage in focus group sessions is 100%. Therefore, a maximum of 20 participants were identified within the South African public sector senior management, representing the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA) and the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa) were invited to attend and participate in the focus group session.

6.2.3 Processing and verification of data

The data obtained from an in-depth literature review and a focus group interview were analysed scientifically against the research objectives. Recommendations are made in Chapter 6 of the mini-dissertation.

6.2.4 Procedure

The researcher:

- Conducted an in-depth literature study to determine the paradigmatic evolution of developmental states in order to reveal each state's unique identity against international (global) and national force-fields, three dimensions of a developmental landscape (political dimension; economic dimension; and social dimension) as well as each dimension's intents.
- Conducted a focus group session from which deeper layers of data was obtained through group interaction and discussion. A systemic approach was applied to guide the focus group discussion. The researcher made use of a presentation to provide the sample group with a landscape background, an orientation and expectations (primary and secondary research questions) to initiate group discussions. Data was simultaneously obtained through discussions relating to the structured topics (Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook, 2007:60).
- The data gathered was measured against primary and secondary research objectives.
- Scientifically motivated recommendations were provided to support the outcome of the study.

7. STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

The researcher provided an introduction to the study that outlined a broad point of reference to the paradigmatic evolution of developmental states and the role of public sector senior managers, with specific reference to South African public sector senior managers within that landscape; and the function of competencies and the development thereof in a democratic, developmental state. The Chapter explicated pertinent research questions and objectives, central theoretical statements and the research methodology. Outlines of all the other chapters were displayed.

Chapter 2: CHRONICLES OF DEVELOPMENTAL STATES

The researcher introduced Chapter 2 with a theoretical and conceptual substructure that provided a framework against which the paradigmatic evolutions of 6 developmental states (Japan, South Korea, China, Indonesia, Botswana and India) were recorded. International and national force-fields were observed as developmental landscape influencers. In addition to the force-fields, detailed chronicles of each state were presented against the developmental landscape, inclusive of the political, economic and social dimensions and each dimension's intents. The intents included state building, democracy, rule of law, economic growth, nation building and national identity, social equality and social capital. Similarities and differences in primary triggers, specific developmental challenges, exclusive characteristics, developmental objectives and timelines were mentioned against each democratic, developmental state. These facts were recorded as it presented itself and were displayed without an ideological agenda but rather with a prevailing motive.

Chapter 3: SOUTH AFRICA: THE UNIQUENESS OF A CONTEMPORARY, DEMOCRATIC, DEVELOPMENTAL STATE

The theoretical and conceptual underpinnings, documented in Chapter 2, provided a framework against which the researcher introduced the uniqueness of South Africa as a democratic, developmental state, described in Chapter 3. The chapter reflected global and national force-fields that have an impact on South Africa as a democratic, developmental state. In addition to the force-fields, data were presented against the developmental landscape, inclusive of the political, economic and social dimensions and each dimension's intents. The intents included state building, democracy, rule of law, economic growth, nation building and national identity, social equality and social capital. In addition, primary triggers, specific developmental challenges, exclusive characteristics, developmental objectives and timelines were mentioned as applicable to the South African context.

Chapter 4: AN APTITUDE TO EXCELL AS A PUBLIC SECTOR SENIOR MANAGER

Chapter 4 defined public sector competence, the concept of competencies, proficiency levels and its desired outcomes. It introduced the importance of competencies and proficiency levels within bureaucratic organisations but simultaneously alerted to the fact that it is merely one of the elements that contributes towards a state's developmental success. Service delivery as challenge within the developmental state was investigated against Bloom's taxonomy of the learning domains (1956) to establish potential unstable phases that inform the parameters of inclusion in a list of public service, senior management competency contributors. The chapter displayed the Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework (LDMSF), designed, developed and introduced by the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa), as a guideline that supports public service departments in a coherent manner towards comparable "Organisational Performance Management". Specific emphasis was placed on the Leadership Management Competency Framework (LMC), as demonstrated in the LDMSF to examine the competencies displayed therein at a close range and to establish these competencies public sector uniqueness. The chapter mentioned the uninterrupted implementation of dynamic management and leadership skills development within the public sector amongst Senior Management Services (SMS) through the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy's (PALAMA) mandate and subsequent implementation of management and leadership programmes.

Chapter 5: PUBLIC SECTOR SENIOR MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES REQUIRED FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN DEMOCRATIC, DEVELOPMENTAL STATE: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS AND COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Chapter 5 revealed the empirical findings collected during a focus group session, conducted on 26 October 2010. During the focus group session a brief background was provided by the researcher, using a presentation attached as Annexure A. The researcher used a video clip, displaying Dr Omano Edigheji comments on the Green Paper for National Planning (2010) (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ubp5ZvN_nj0) as an audio visual tool to further provide clarity on current activities within the South African democratic, developmental landscape. The theoretical and conceptual substructure, identified in Chapter 2, provided the focus areas for discussion and enquiry. Four questions, attached as Annexure B, were posed to the focus group participants after which discussion were held to establish a deeper understanding of competencies in the South African democratic, developmental landscape as understood by public sector, senior management, and practitioner specialists. The Chapter concluded with a comparative analysis of the disparities between the current South African public sector Senior Management Service (SMS) competencies, as outlined in the LMC framework and the competencies required by public sector senior managers to contribute effectively towards the achievement of the South African developmental agenda.

Chapter 6: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Chapter 6 presented scientific evidence obtained through this research study that supported and gave effect to the findings that there are disparities between the current public sector Senior Management Services (SMS) competencies that are required by public sector senior managers to build a democratic, developmental state. Recommendations were made based on the scientific evidence obtained through an in-depth literature review and a focus group session. The researcher provided recommendations to support the inclusion of additional public service senior management competencies. These competencies may be of significant importance to equip a cadre of senior managers and leaders.

8. CONCLUSION

The ability of a nation's bureaucracy to interpret its unique developmental landscape and to act with continued, superior competence was introduced in Chapter 1. The distinct competence, inherent to a nation's public sector, is one of the major determinants of a nation's achieved or failed developmental initiatives. Such failures or achievements are instantaneously reflected through the actions of a nation's populace. Chapter 1 furthermore introduced scholarly perspectives, philosophies and theoretical bases of democratic, developmental states, inclusive of the uniqueness associated with adopting such a particular form of state. It explored and substantiated a common understanding to the term paradigmatic evolution that shaped a collective appreciation for the complex process (patterns, concepts, characteristics, challenges and timelines) of developmental transformation. Nations across the globe are increasingly engaging in adopting a democratic, developmental status to promote rapid, sustained economic growth as primary theory of authenticity. The Chapter briefly reflected on South Africa as developmental state, its related socio-economic challenges and the competence and expectations on its senior bureaucracy to achieve its developmental agenda.

Chapter 2 introduces a theoretical and conceptual substructure against which the paradigmatic evolutions of 6 developmental states (Japan, South Korea, China, Indonesia, Botswana and India) are mapped.

Chapter 2

CRONICLES OF DEVELOPMENTAL STATES

“If we were to think in terms of a ‘binding agent’ for development, are we simply not saying that development depends on the ability and determination of a nation and its citizens to organise themselves for development? Perhaps this is not as tautological and vague as it sounds. By focusing on determination, for instance, we are taking hold of one of the specific characteristics of the development process in today’s underdeveloped countries, namely the fact that they are latecomers. This condition is bound to make their development into a less spontaneous and more deliberate process than was the case in the countries where the process first occurred.”

A.O. Hirschman (1958)

1. INTRODUCTION

In composing a reference to global democratic, developmental states, Chapter 1 alludes to the significance of public sector senior management competence within such states as a dynamic negotiator to achieve strategic (political, economic and social) state intents. The chapter assembles, defines and outlines the peripheries within which the exclusive character of such a landscape will emerge through the process of paradigmatic evolution. It furthermore explicates a problem statement, delineated as: If the citizens of the South African democratic, developmental state publicly display their dissatisfaction with public sector service delivery and there is a link between extraordinary service delivery and competent public servants: What are the disparities between the current South African public sector Senior Management Service (SMS) competencies and the competencies required by South African public sector senior managers that would assist them to manage and lead towards real and sustained socio-economic growth? Pertinent research questions and objectives, central theoretical statements and a research methodology suggest the scientific processes that will guide the study to determine causal professional competencies required by South African public sector senior managers to perform optimally.

Chapter 2 as Chronicles of Developmental States examines scholarly efforts through a paradigmatic evolution of 1st, 2nd and 3rd “waves” (Huntington, 1991) of developmental states. Chapter 2 exhibits the important highlights of six democratic, developmental states, 1st Wave: Japan and South Korea; 2nd Wave: China and Indonesia; and 3rd Wave: Botswana and India. The chapter displays the unique historical data as chronicled against each country at the nexus of the different dimensions and related intents germane to the developmental state landscape. International and national force-fields are documented as it impacts on the particular dimensions of each state. Chapter 2 concludes with an abridgment of the dissimilarities and resemblances between these six developmental states, appraised against each country’s theory of authenticity, primary triggers, (making a decision to transform the state into a developmental state); specific developmental challenges (that compels the state to respond); exclusive characteristics; and outcomes (that which the state specifically wishes to achieve).

2. THE DEVELOPMENTAL STATE: THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS

Johnson (1982:17), Leftwich (2007:133,134,154,162), Mailafia (2009), Fukuyama (2008:27) and Edigheji (2010:7,15,21,26,28,140,192) are in principle all of the opinion that governments, and then by mere implication its bureaucracies, espouse a distinct character, role and competence when a state is associated with the developmental philosophy. Considering the nature of government within a developmental state against two extremities, the state either reveals itself as fragile, absent, erratic or inept (Fukuyama, 2004:ix,x; Stiglitz, 2003:34) or it unveils a “strong” or

“hard state”. Rai (1996:29) indicated that when Johnson (1982) built his theories on Japan and the East Asian economies, that he aligned his description of the “strong” or “hard state” and “weak” or “soft state” to that of Myrdal’s (1968; 1970a) hypothesis when the latter ascribed meaning to these concepts. Rai (1996:29) and Mann (1984:189) announced the key feature of a “strong” or “hard state” as the ability of a state to execute “logistically political” pronouncements across the broader spectrum of the state. Rai (1996:29) imparted the following details that illustrated the delineating facets of “strong” or “hard states” and “weak” or “soft states”: Rai (1996:29) connected an elevated measure of bureaucratic independence from organisations, alliances and the public to “strong” or “hard states”. “Strong” or “hard states”, whether “democratic” or “authoritarian” stimulate and encourage entrenched interface and discourse between the state elites and influential societal entities (Onis, 1991:123). Rai (1996:30) revealed that such relationships are insubstantial and fragile in “weak” or “soft states”. Rai (1996:30) highlighted the following characteristics of a bureaucracy in “strong” or “hard states”: Bureaucracies in the latter nature of state follow a minimalist approach in terms of its staff compliment in order for the government to be resolute, effectual, closely controlled and answerable. In contrast to these “strong state” features, “weak state” bureaucracies are large, ineffective and difficult to control (Rai, 1996:30). Rai (1996:30) affirmed that corruption and an ineffectiveness to implement policies are some of the complexities related to large bureaucracies. Rai (1996:30) pointed out that it is not only the volume of the bureaucracy that is of importance but that the institutionalising of “effectiveness” and “controls” by “political executives” and the state’s engagement in the collective public are significant “institutional factors” that support a “hard state” towards rapid economic growth. Government, guided by the rule of law, enables a perpetual political, social and economic environment (Fukuyama, 2008:25,26). In order to extrapolate the unique character, role and competence required by senior officials in the civil service, this chapter will explore the developmental landscape (political dimension, economic dimension and social dimension) as it is influenced by global and national force-fields. In addition to internal or external force-fields, a range of intents will be discovered through a paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state philosophy to provide a deeper insight into the exact elements that shape the landscape of a particular nation. The intents can be listed under the various dimensions as follows: **Political dimension:** State building, democracy and rule of law. **Economic dimension:** Economic growth, and where applicable, facilitation of redistribution. **Social dimension:** Nation building and national identity, social equality and social capital.

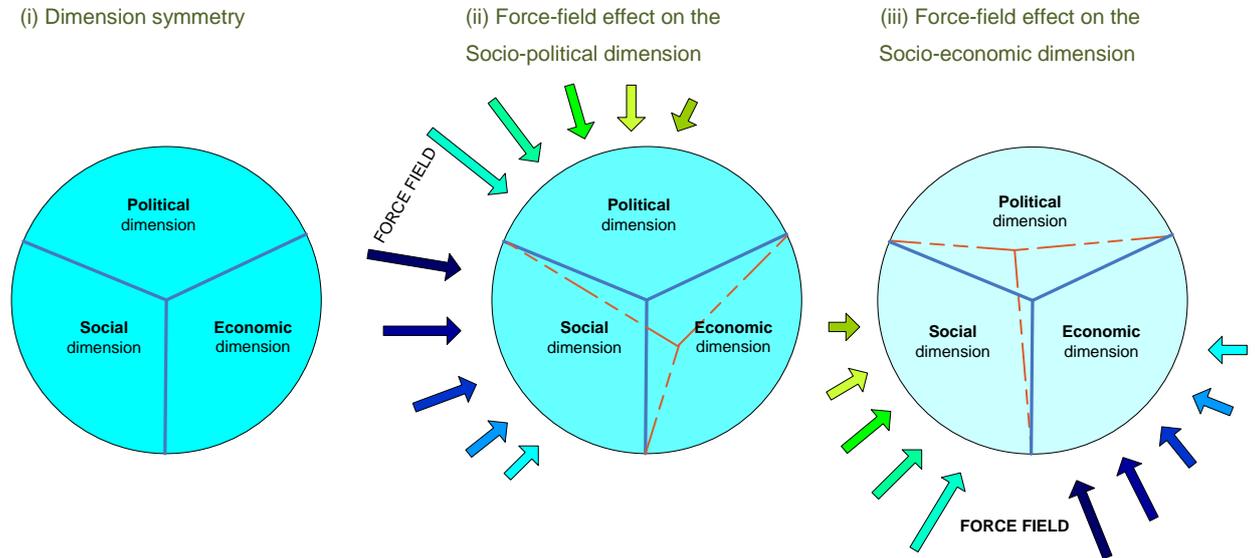
When Castells (1992:55) defined the developmental state, he included the theory of authenticity as maintained, stable, elevated quotients of economic expansion. He furthermore included organisational transformation in the state’s industrious structures as having an effect on both the national and international economy. In addition to Castells’ (1992:55) description of the developmental state, Mkandawire (2001:290) added the presence of a developmental philosophy. The developmental philosophy positioned the state’s “administrative and political resources” to achieve “economic development” as outcome. Mkandawire (2001:290) continued by advising against the fact that in defining the developmental state, a failure to differentiate

between the theory of authenticity, as sustained economic accomplishments, and the definition could produce a distorted abstraction. Successful developmental states display characteristics of both economic achievements and a strong state structure that is able to formulate and implement policies (Mkandawire, 1998:290). Edigheji (2007a) identifies three different perspectives on developmental state clarifications through the work of scholarly efforts. According to Edigheji (2007a), the first perspective is an exertion of the developmental state that depicts a perception where political elites hold a superiority over the philosophy of development. The second perspective as outlined by Edigheji (2007a), underscores organisational constitution and the third perspective outlines political organisations that facilitate the inclusion of citizens to agree on the developmental agenda (Abdullah and Van Dyk-Robertson, 2008:2). Edigheji's (2007) viewpoint is strengthened and broadened through the scholarly efforts of Francis Fukuyama (2008). Fukuyama (2008:25) and Leftwich (2007:63) define three specific dimensions of development of which the first dimension is "economic development". The objective or intent linked to economic development is simply a sustained proliferation of gross domestic product (GDP) per capita. Natrass and Seekings (2002:215) add the facilitation of re-distribution as another intent that shapes the economic dimension. The facilitation of redistribution is particularly evident in a country such as South Africa and will be explored further in Chapter 3 (Heller, 2001:139,140). Fukuyama (2008:25) delineates the second dimension as "political development" and classifies it as a more complex dimension with three objectives or intents linked to it. These objectives are as follows: "State building" forms a part of political development as intent. State development comprises a lawful domination of forceful authority; determining the state's protective area; and crafting an administrative aptitude that can effectively perform the managerial duties of "public bureaucracies" such as service delivery to the citizens of that state. The "rule of law" as political development intent provides a lucid, prescribed set of laws within which the state should execute its tasks. Another significant intent of political development is "democracy". Democracy shapes the implementation of common autonomy through combined and cooperative voting. Democracy is simultaneously an effective tool through which monitoring and evaluation of government's programmes can take place. The third dimension is the "social dimension". Fukuyama (2008:26) describes the social dimension as a crucial, unpredictable dimension between the economic and political dimensions. Examples of the intentions listed against the social dimension are, nation building and national identity, social equality and social capital (Fukuyama, 2008:26).

Hjort (2008:42) suggests that the economic, social and political dimensions are simultaneously contending and collaborating. Figure 2.1 provides a graphic representation of the relationships between these three dimensions. In addition to Hjort's (2008) observation, Leftwich (2002:58), supported by scholars of the democratic, developmental state, creates an awareness of the fluctuating combination of internal and external force-fields that have a direct impact on the particular route, for example, that a country may follow to become a democratic, developmental state (Chalker, 1994; Holmquist & Ford, 1994; Wiseman, 1997). The presumption is therefore that internal and external; micro and macro force-fields are continuously and actively contributing

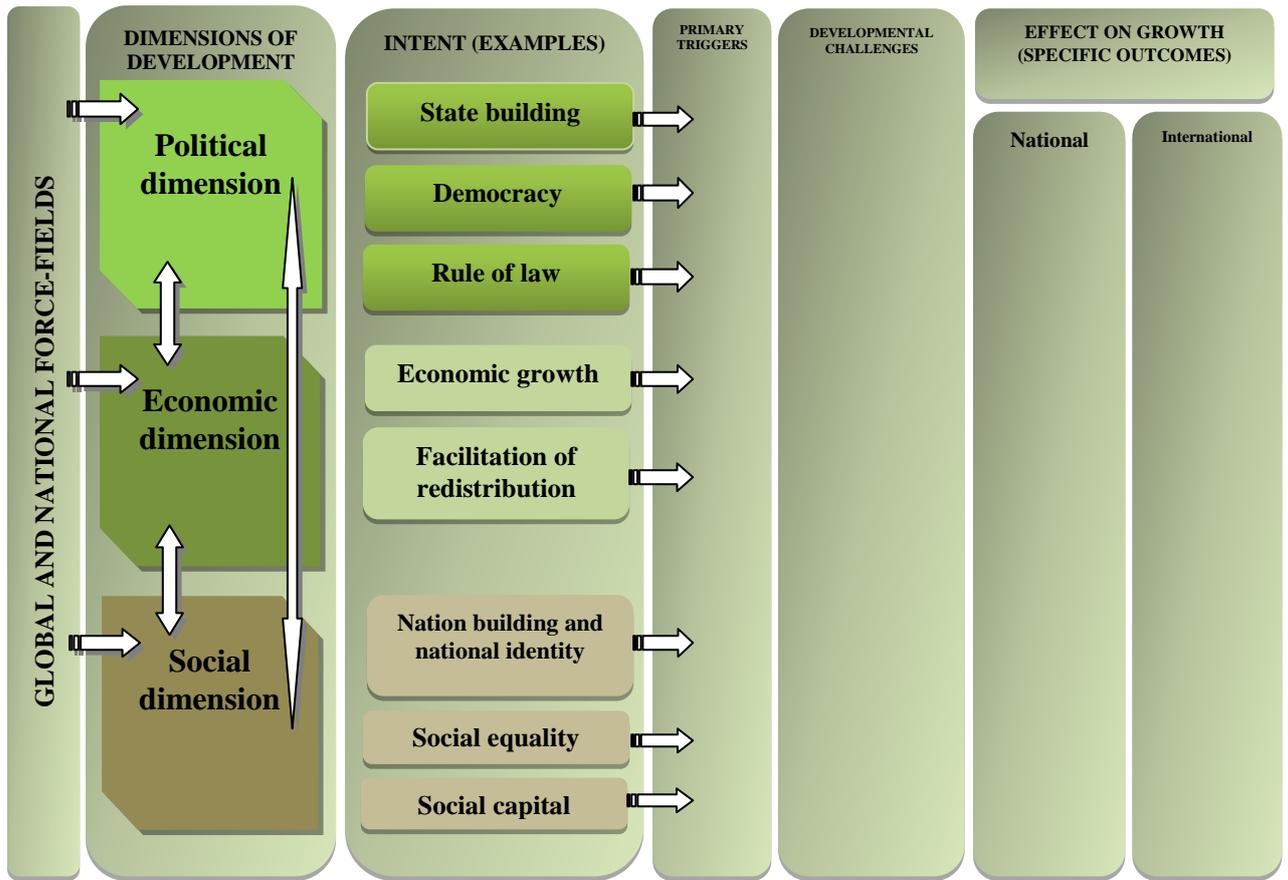
and influencing the direction that democratic, developmental states will follow towards the successful achievement of their developmental goals.

Figure 2.1: Contending and collaborating dimensions of a developmental state: Influenced through global and national force-fields.



A combination of the scholarly efforts performed by Edigheji (2007a), Hjort (2008) and Fukuyama (2008:25,26) outlines the framework Table 2.1, that recognises and includes vigorous and dynamic micro and macro force-fields in the global and national context as it pre-emptes the effect that it may have on the different dimensions of development in a developmental state. The framework is furthermore supported with dimensions of development and related intents. Important to note is the scholarly efforts from Hjort (2008) that alerts to the dynamic interaction between the three dimensions as outlined in Figure 2.1. The eight intentions listed below were selected to support this study and may vary with inclusion or significance from developmental state to developmental state. An example that supports the latter statement is the intent of 'facilitation of redistribution'. The framework, Table 2.1 will guide the paradigmatic evolution of developmental states as it provides an encompassing landscape that supports complex relationships within the developmental paradigm.

Table 2.1: Dimensions and intents framework of developmental states. (Edigheji, 2007a; Hjort; 2008; Fukuyama, 2008:25,26).



Even though a developmental state’s economic achievements might be one of the prominent and primary intentions of that state, it is important to consider for the purposes of this study, that a developmental state consists of a theory of authenticity and a number of multi-faceted layers (political, economic and social), supported by intent, that all contribute towards the achievement of that particular state’s developmental goals.

Leftwich (2007:171) highlights countries such as Venezuela, Costa Rica, Jamaica, Botswana, Mauritius, Malaysia, Singapore and India as “new third-wave” democracies (Huntington, 1991). As a point of departure, that substantiates the structure and body of Chapter 2, Fukuyama’s dimensions and intents provide the framework against which primary triggers, developmental challenges and effect on growth are explored and enveloped under the paradigmatic evolution “waves” of developmental states. Particular attention and emphasis is placed on significant elements of relevance that connect bureaucracies during these three waves of developmental states and their aptitude to achieve results (developmental goals). For further clarity and structure, the first-wave studies Japan and South Korea as developmental states. The second-wave analyses China and Indonesia and the “new third-wave” (Leftwich, 2007:171) reports on Botswana and India as developmental states. Woo-Cumings (1999:x) provided an informative

behavioural pattern of the landscape that this study will explore: “Every political economy persists, changes, goes forward or backward, in some deeply complex, intimate, and consequential relationship to its own past”. Woo-Cumings’ latter description defined the dynamic topography within which the administrative bureaucracy of any country finds itself. Doner, Ritchie and Slater (2005:2) and Leftwich (2007:69) contend that, contrary to popular belief, developmental states emerge when the leadership of that state is threatened by abnormally restrained socio-economic and socio-political circumstances.

3. THE 1ST WAVE OF DEVELOPMENTAL STATES: THE PARADIGMATIC EVOLUTION, JAPAN AND SOUTH KOREA

Johnson (1982) identified Japan and South Korea as the two most prominent post-World War II (WWII) developmental states ever documented in the archives of international economics. Chang (2000:82) echoes this sentiment when he emphasises their “miracle” status. Johnson (1982:7) initiated the theory of authenticity and identified it amongst 1st wave developmental states as “launching high speed growth in the post-war world”. Two notorious international force-fields that earmarked the twentieth century were the Great Depression and World War II (WWII) (Tassava, 2010:1). These two significant events had a primary impact on the socio-political and socio-economic infrastructure of many countries in Europe, Asia and America. Tassava (2010:1) portrays the period between September 1939 and July/August 1945 as an era in which the globe was engulfed by WWII. WWII followed and ended the Great Depression but left post war countries economically crippled (Tassava, 2010:1). Idioms associated with the post-WWII era are: disassembled or crippled economies, demolished and paralysed industrial infrastructures, overstretched central governments, millions of homeless people, “peasants bore the heaviest burdens of the war”, repression, pilfering and dreadful deprivation (Tassava, 2010:1).

3.1 Japan and South Korea’s political dimension

Leftwich (2007:4) affirms that the essential, prevailing, capricious element, regulating the formation and character of “developmental” accomplishments in “human societies” is undeniably its political dimension. Leftwich (2007:191) maintains that “Politics” influences “states” and “states” affect “development”. Leftwich (2007:5) asserts that “development is therefore inescapably political”. The following paragraphs provide evidence of the paradigmatic evolution of Japan and South Korea’s political dimension with specific reference to state building, democracy and the rule of law as political intents.

3.1.1 State building

Johnson (1999:65) remarked that “states and markets” are at the core of developmental states and that it should be the corresponding transactional concern of both business men and bureaucrats. Jessop (1990:10) revealed significant facts for consideration: An interactive strength

that designs state engagement in the selection and action of strategies is embedded in a particular type, form and regime accepted by that state; and, that a state would prefer particular strategies and allow particular forces to influence it, based on the strategies that the state have assumed to gain state supremacy, linked to a distinct timeline (Jessop, 1990:10). Woo-Cumings (1999:7) explained that both Japan and South Korea's developmental status did not originate from "revolutionary nationalism". Both Japan and South Korea's developmental philosophy had its roots in expansionism and warfare (Woo-Cumings, 1999:7). Against a visibly structured, purposive maturation path of transformation, described later in this chapter, White (2002:38) emphasises the fact that Japan's political dimension rests on a "one-party-dominant-system". Reflecting on the period 1945 to the 1970s, Michi-no-miya Hirohito (aka Emperor Shōwa) was the Emperor of Japan from 1926 to 1989. During the period in question, Japan had the "Jiminto" or Liberal Democratic Party (LDP) as the ruling party (Leiserson, 1968:770). Leftwich (2002:64) and Johnson (1982) explained that a "one party dominant system" offers stability on policy level. White (2002:38) noted that such a "one-party-dominant-system" is regularly subjected to a litmus test through democratic voting practices, demanded by a participating citizenry. Despite regular validation, the political dimension of successful democratic, developmental states such as Japan fosters a government that is able to display a strong preserved lucidity, power and an aptitude for thorough "decision-making" (White, 2002:38).

Post-WWII, the Cold War and Japanese occupation, Korea is divided into two portions with the 38th parallel north latitude as border (Pratt and Rutt, 1999:viii,240,241,468). It was agreed at the Yalta Conference (Korea, 1945), that the Soviet Union would oversee North Korea whilst the United States had to control South Korea (Pratt and Rutt, 1999:viii,240,241,468). North and South Korea subsequently pursued different ideologies but for the purpose of this study, the emphasis will be on South Korea. South Korea's political landscape displays a more tenuous picture than that of Japan as it is recognised by inter-changing eras of democratic and autocratic reign (Pratt and Rutt, 1999:viii,240,241,468). Despite the humiliation that Japanese colonialism left South Korea with, the blueprint of the latter's developmental future was largely influenced by Japanese models and policies whilst propelled by an actively engaged and guiding strong state to ensure success (Woo-Cumings, 1999:xii).

3.1.2 Democracy

Helgesen (1995:5) indicated that the concept of democracy became increasingly popular in the fourth quarter of the twentieth century as an attractive choice in an emancipating world. Helgesen (1995:29) defined democracy as that "people matters in politics". Scientific data from "Freedom in the World: Political Rights and Civil Liberties" revealed the following statistics: In 1973, 49 countries across the globe subscribed to democratic belief structures and by 1993, this number had grown to 75 countries (Helgesen, 1995:5). Robinson and White (2002:58) suggest that internal and external dynamisms are significant influences, either unconnected or as a collective, to ignite the democratisation of a country. Chalker (1994), Holmquist and Ford (1994) and

Wiseman (1997) identified external force-fields, noted as “external pressures” (Robinson & White, 2002:58), to trigger Japan’s democratic status. Ruminating the two constitutions of Japan, The Constitution of the Empire of Japan 1889 (The Meiji Constitution of 1889) and The Constitution of Japan 1947, the latter signifies a visibly evident shift towards citizen inclusion. Hook and McCormack (2001:9) suggest that the Japanese Constitution, as established in the lower and upper houses of the Diet, is continuously confronted with the dilemma of how the Japanese people regards self-perception and how they wish the world to view them. Hook and McCormack (2001:9) remark that an international event, such as the Gulf War, can be noted as a current external force-field that has an impact on the Japanese Constitution as the nation questions its defence abilities and its international political position. Global and national force-fields continue to play a role in the dynamic nature of the democratic philosophy and influence the way in which the idea is defined. By mere association with these dynamic elements, the democratic philosophy becomes ever evolving and causal.

The fact that Korea was divided to construct North and South Korea post the Cold-War holds a significant impetus. North Korea proclaimed democracy under the banner of communism (Democratic People’s Republic) whilst South Korea pronounced their democracy under capitalism (Democratic Republic) (Helgesen, 1995:5). Even though democracy was considered a “Western Political Model”, Koreans welcomed the ideology as a refreshing change to “foreign” domination (Helgesen, 1995:26). The Cold-War simultaneously left severe scars as archetypal paradigms of western democracies that were superimposed on a nation with an eastern fibre (Helgesen, 1995:26,27). Kim (1997:3) noted that even during the era of President Park, the democratic philosophy, however closely linked to a rapid growing economy displayed a dispossession in the importance of citizens in “political democratisation”. The verdict of whether South Korea succeeded in its democratic intent remains undisclosed as the opinions of citizens’ sketch politicians and senior government officials as adverse with low virtuous and principled norms (Helgesen, 1995:27).

3.1.3 Rule of law

Woo-Cummings (1999:xii) is of the opinion that Japan and South Korea would gain largely from differentially expanding the status of the rule of law in these two countries in order for the principles of “legality, regulation and transparency” to play an embedded and functional role in the interconnectedness between “state, banks and big business”. Goodman (2008:23) factually informs that the Japanese rule of law was altered to represent an epitome of western codes and in particular conformed to a German approach with its foundations grounded in a French methodology. Goodman (2008:23) apprises that this alteration brought Japan its sovereignty. Goodman (2008:520) recommends that the Japanese rule of law will only come to fruition once it is the backbone of the Japanese bureaucracy and once it guides every decision that the Japanese bureaucracy makes.

Lie (2000:36) describes the rule of law during the reign of Syngman Rhee (1948 – 1960) in South Korea as un-effective and protected by a partial to advantage government, without an articulate set of guidelines that supports government officials. Lie (2000:36) states, in addition to the latter, that South Korea's rule of law was ineffective in protecting its citizens against the offensive behaviour of government as Fukuyama (2008:25) defines this intent.

3.2 Japan and South Korea's economic dimension

Van Arkadie (1987:109) remarked that "Development is about economic, material progress, nothing else". The next subsections present extracts of the paradigmatic evolution of Japan and South Korea's economic dimensions as observed through scholarly efforts, with a specific focus on economic growth as intent.

3.2.1 Economic growth

Beeson (2009:6) entitles Japan's developmental phenomenon as a "post war economic renaissance". Considering the devastation caused by WWII to many countries on the globe, Japan, as one of these countries, transformed itself from an economy and infrastructure that was obliterated and a country that was encumbered with war debt (Valdes, 2003:xx) to the third most strongest global economy as it followed the United States and the Peoples Republic of China. Japan was indeed able to rise from the ashes and presented a credible "miracle" status of sustained economic recovery and growth. How did Japan's post-WWII economy display a purposive maturation path in transformation? Vestal (1993:13) explained that Japan's economic dimension is typified by four divergent phases during sustained recovery. The "Occupation period" (August 1945 – April 1952) is notorious for the conception of "industrial policy tools" with the particular intent of economic resurgence. Vestal (1993:13) highlighted 1952 – 1960 as an era when Japan sharpened its policy instruments to encourage "the rationalisation and modernisation of select industries" with economic independence as intent. The 1960's differentiated itself as a period of industry, commerce and "capital liberalisation". The exact purpose of policy during this period was the fortification of the Japanese economy with the intent to achieve the Japanese developmental goals and to concretise sustained economic progression (Vestal, 1993:13). Vestal (1993:13) pointed out that even though the economic dimension remained to be a high priority during the 1970s, Japan began to include an intent that speaks to "a better life for its citizens".

One of the Japanese models that were adopted into South Korea's developmental trajectory was industrial and financial conglomerates that promoted "credit based industrial financing" (Woo-Cumings, 1999:9). According to Woo-Cumings (1999:9) the partnership between public and private sectors in Japan was known as "zaibatsu" and later "keiretsu". The South Korean archetype is known as "chaebol". Kim (1998) identified South Korea as one of the "Four Asian Tigers" whilst Amsden (1989) described South Korea as "Asia's Next Giant". Kim (1997:2) revealed the details of a South Korean impoverished agricultural lower class that struggled

financially and an elite upper class that had no interest to change the living conditions of the poor until General Park Chung Hee led a military “coup” on May 16, 1961. The provocation behind this action was twofold: It had to bring an end to a government that was unskilled and immoral; and it had to ignite economic development (Kim, 1997:2). South Korea’s developmental status was formalised by sequential alterations to the way in which the public and private sectors conducted its business and interacted with each other (Kim, 1997:2). According to Woo-Cumings (1999:93), South Korea has distinguished itself as an exceptional and “model” developmental state by providing the evidence of a consistent, rapidly growing economy, measured over a period of thirty years. The central, incomplete scholarly debate concerning South Korea’s economic success revolves around the “market” and “state” and who led and who followed (Woo-Cumings, 1999:94).

3.3 Japan and South Korea’s social dimension

Woolcock (2001:82) is of the opinion that “getting the social relations right is a crucial component of both the means and ends of development”. “If the idea and the ideals of social capital help move us in this direction – and does so by encouraging and rewarding greater cross-fertilisation between disciplines and methodologies, and between scholars and policy makers – then it more than justifies its place in the new development lexicon” (Woolcock, 2001:82). The following passages highlight Japan and South Korea’s social dimensions respectively, with an accent on nation-building and national identity, social equality and social capital as intents.

3.3.1 Nation-building and national identity

Amsden (1985:78-106), Heidenheimer et al. (1990) and Skocpol (1985:3-43) regarded Japan’s dynamic nation-building interventions as pivotal to economic development. With a well defined purposive maturation path in transformation as strategy, Esping-Andersen (2004:211) emphasises the robust character of governments in the East Asian Welfare States. Esping-Andersen (2004:211) describes the character of these governments as change enablers and capable of displaying an ability to execute economic policies. According to Esping-Andersen (2004:211), governments of the East Asian Welfare States apply its educational ideology and “mass media” post-WWII as instruments to give nation-building a primary status over the expansion of social welfare initiatives. Rozman (2009:1) describes the primary objective of national identity in Japan, coerced by political elites, as the re-institution of a full-rounded portion of dignity and self-esteem post anomalous historical events.

Both Japan and South Korea accept assorted facets of “Western social welfare” which they re-construct and re-organise to suit and address their unique requirements within the social, cultural and political dimensions (Goodman & Peng, 2004:193). Since the mid 1970’s, Japan began to steer away from Western models of welfare (Goodman & Peng, 2004:193). National customs and practices play a pertinent role in both Japan and South Korea (Goodman & Peng, 2004:193). As

in the case of Japan, an emphasis of the state on nation building had a positive influence on the rapidly growing economy (Amsden, 1985; Heidenheimer et al., 1990; Skocpol, 1985).

Rozman (2009:1) sketches national identity in South Korea as, immersed in “historical” remorse, fortified by an ambitious quest of uncompromising exculpation. National identity in South Korea continues to be confronted by a multitude of challenges as the nation cannot liberate themselves from reminiscences of often being submerged in a sense of vulnerability and powerlessness evoked by incidents of ¹“sadae” (Rozman, 2009:1). Memories of Japanese execution and United States mutilation contributed largely to the quandary that South Korea found itself in as it displays an incapability to exert sovereignty throughout the twentieth century (Rozman, 2009:1,3). The inability of South Korea to become uninhibited from history itself obscures all international enterprises with doubt and distrust (Rozman, 2009:4). Rozman (2009:7) outlines four elements that could restore national identity in South Korea but for the purpose of this study, the emphasis will be placed on Rozman’s suggestions within the political, economic and social dimensions. Rozman (2009:7) emphasises and offers “Cold War achievements”, a swiftly emerging economy, an authentic, undisputable democracy and a purposive movement and entrance into the global society as strengths to contribute towards the process of nation building in South Korea.

3.3.2 Social equality

Jensen (2003:89) defines egalitarianism as unreservedly related to the social equality context. Such a context enables relative measurement to ascertain individual benefit, compared to others (Jensen, 2003:89). According to Pempel (1999:156), social equality achieved the same accolades in Japan and South Korea as their economic prosperity but with a difference. The assumption would be that all conventional political precursors would be in place in order for social equality to present successful results (Pempel 1999:156). Pempel (1999:156) urged an innate acknowledgement and comprehension of the twofold disposition of the state and outlines two fundamental principles that led to the achievement of social equality in both Japan and South Korea. Pempel (1999:156) highlighted the Janus-effect and by implication the state’s awareness and sensitivity to affairs in both the international and national arena when he says: “What one face responds to is frequently in response to what its other face has seen”. The second principle that Pempel (1999:156) outlined is that even though the state is pivotal to economic and social success, it is merely one of the role players together with society and the private sector.

3.3.3 Social capital

Fukuyama (1999:3) identified social capital as central to operational performance in contemporary economies and as the essential pre-requisite for even, free-thinking egalitarianism. Fukuyama (1999:3) defined social capital in its most simplistic, informal form as the collaboration between two or more individuals at the one end of the scale and multifaceted intricately

¹ “Sadae, locked in ritual subservience to a more powerful state.” (Rozman, 2009:1)

pronounced “doctrines” at the other end. Fukuyama (1999:3) and Putnam (1995, 2000) linked social capital with traditional virtues such as trust. Fukuyama (1995:1) stated that “high-trust societies are interlaced with voluntary organisations”...”and thus have social capital which makes for the growth of large corporations in highly technical fields. “Low-trust societies tend towards small family-owned businesses” trading “in basic goods”. Ishida (1993:67) described Japan as an “educational credential society” which translates as the reliance on educational achievements, measured amongst the more sophisticated echelons of society on the complete quantity of domestic affluence and possessions.

Field (2008:1) summarises the essence of social capital in two words: “relationships matter”. South Korea identifies social and economic capital as two interconnected intents that will result from globalisation. “Social networks” and “group membership” are viewed as the basis to capital access. Capital may have dissimilar significances in diverse circumstances. The South Korean globalisation policy focuses on the country’s development into an internationally recognised, influential economic and political supremacy through social capital efforts (Cf. Grant & Lee, 2009:52).

4. THE 2ND WAVE OF DEVELOPMENTAL STATES: THE PARADIGMATIC EVOLUTION, CHINA AND INDONESIA

Both countries, China and Indonesia are selected for research purposes as part of the 2nd wave of developmental states and display the particular character of being demographically and geographically vast. China represents a fifth (1.3 billion) of the world’s population (Diamond, 2000:ix) and (Wu, 2004:5) with unique complexities between China (The People’s Republic of China) and the Republic of China (Taiwan). According to Drakeley (2005), Indonesia is one of the most multifaceted nations on the globe as it includes 17 508 islands, has 336 ethnic groups that speaks 583 different languages and dialects. Drakeley (2005) mentioned the fact that Indonesia obtained its independence in 1945. Nathan (1986:4) shared the details of a Chinese civilisation that embraced an idea, for hundreds of years, that they were the most supreme, progressive empire on the globe. Their illusions were soon to be crushed by the Opium War and a series of chastening events such as the “Long March”, the “Chinese Civil War” and the “Second Sino-Japanese War” that evoked the realities of being an impoverished, defenceless and reviled nation (Nathan, 1986:4). Nathan (1986:4) revealed that Mao Zedong (1949 – 1976), announced the revival of the Chinese nation in 1949 and by 1978, the evidence of a better-off, sturdier nation was clearly visible.

4.1 China and Indonesia’s political dimension

The following passages depict China and Indonesia’s political dimensions respectively as it unlocks the details of state building, democracy and the rule of law, as political intents in each country correspondingly.

4.1.1 State building

China, as the world's second largest economy, used to be an insignificant stimulus in the global economy until the latter part of the 1980's (Zweig & Jianhai, 2005:1). Traces of economic reforms in China found its roots in 1987 and became visible in significant and "stable growth in investment", "consumption" and "standards of living" (Chow, 2005:1). Strauss (1998:185) highlighted three organisations in the Chinese government as pivotal to state building. The ²"Salt Inspectorate", "Ministry of Finance" and "Ministry of Foreign Affairs" were fundamental to the Chinese state building programme. These three organisations followed a particular strategy during the Republican period, built on the premise of a pre-emptive, forceful administration that differentiates itself from the immediate milieu as a distinct component with "goals", "values" and strategies for achievement (Strauss, 1998:185). Strauss (1998:185) furthermore emphasised the fact that these three organisations recognised the landscape as exceedingly fluctuating and "politicised" and therefore followed a strategy built on the following two approaches: The creation of an organisation that can safeguard itself against an unreceptive peripheral setting in constructing internal interconnectedness amongst its employees to strengthen administrative, specialised and "depersonalised" standards; and the formation of an optimally functioning, results oriented bureaucracy with well-defined "medium term organisational goals" that are linked to an organisational mission with a strong control in terms of policy.

Considering the fact that Indonesia has more than 17 500 islands, McVey (1996:11) revealed that some parts of Indonesia were exposed to foreign rule and others to colonialism which to a certain extent, both divided and joined the country. McVey (1996:11) shared that before Indonesia was the Netherlands East Indies, it had no shared individuality. State building initiatives in Indonesia had a dual purpose. Such initiatives had to achieve internal control and an international status (McVey, 1996:23). The theory of authenticity in Indonesia as developmental state was to pursue modernisation through "export-oriented capitalism" (McVey, 1996:25). Huntington (1968:167) emphasised the developmental importance of converging authority in a "bureaucratic polity" as a "moderniser" and "innovator" of socio-economic development. Indonesia steered from deployment to power and from "nation building to state building". According to McVey (1996:25), Indonesia currently exhibits doubt in the face of globalisation.

4.1.2 Democracy

Fukuyama (1992:xi) stated that democracy is based on two primary principles namely, independence and egalitarianism. Fukuyama (1992:xii,xiii) is of the opinion that there will be no further improvements to the concept of democracy, its "underlying principles and institutions" as societies on the globe have recognized sophisticated liberal democracy as the only intelligible

² "The Sino-Foreign Salt Inspectorate: A tax collecting organisation run jointly by international civil servants and Chinese nationals, was, with periodic changes in name, active for nearly the whole of the Republic period." STRAUSS, J.C. 1998. *Studies on Contemporary China: Strong Institutions in Weak Polities, State Building in Republican China. 1927 – 1940.* New York. Oxford University Press.

political ambition in a post modern era. Peerenboom (2002:xi) and Zhao (2000:2) describe China as a totalitarian collectivist state and not a democracy. Diamond (2000: ix) is of the opinion that a democratised China has the potential to be an accountable global leader. Diamond (2000:ix) noted that democratisation in China was an anticipated requirement of the Republic of China/Taiwan before any discussions on a confederacy could take place. In between China's current philosophy and the achievement of being a democratic state lies an arduous procedure of organisational transformation (Diamond, 2000:x) that was initiated during the 1990's.

Ananta, Arifin and Suryadinata (2005:1) reveal that Indonesia avowed democracy in 1945 and three liberated elections have been noted. Ferguson (2006:352) highlights that the presence of at least one free and fair election, indicates the existence of democratic governance. Ananta, Arifin and Suryadinata (2005:1) identify these three liberated elections as: The 1955 elections administered under the "parliamentary system" and the 1999 and 2004 elections, administered under the presidential system. According to Erb and Sulistiyanto (2009:3) a disintegrating Indonesian economy triggered the Asian economic catastrophes in 1997. Despite President Soeharto's encouraged "New Order", major organisational, official and constitutional changes followed to conciliate calls for improvement and reorganisation. Erb and Sulistiyanto (2009:5) suggest that Indonesia is the only country in its region that was able to liberate itself from the political and economical crisis (Engberg & Ensson, 2001:37), links to the latter part of the twentieth century, by instituting an "electoral democracy". Erb and Sulistiyano (2009:5) point out that Indonesia mostly follows a "presidential system" of government (the executive branch is detached from the legislature) that was shortly interrupted by an interlude of "parliamentarism" (the executive branch of government is unequivocally or discursively reliant on the corroboration of government). Leftwich (2007:146), Riggs (1991) and Przeworski et al., (1996:49) are all of the opinion that democratic administrations will exist much longer if they are supported by "parliamentary systems".

4.1.3 Rule of law

Wang (2002:103) highlights two philosophies that underpin the rule of law: The first philosophy supports the notion of citizen protection against state power and by implication, the rule of law protects citizens against partial prejudice within government enactment; the second philosophy determines that the rule of law is grounded on the base of purpose and not power. The impact of the rule of law is perhaps more significant in Asian countries on economic reform than what is mostly presumed (Peerenboom, 2004:xviii and Wang, 2002:103). Peerenboom (2004:xviii) suggests that the rule of law will continue to play an increasingly important part in upcoming developing countries, considering globalisation. Peerenboom (2004:xviii) advises that an effectively performing legal system is not the single driving force behind sustained economic development. A number of socio-political and socio-economical factors influence such a developmental state intent. However, factors significant to this study can be listed as: "High quality human capital" ("good education and high literacy rates"), "merit based bureaucracies",

“low-income inequality” and “political stability” (Peerenboom, 2004:xviii). Peerenboom (2002:27) alerts to the fact that the rule of law in China exists within a prejudiced context and subsequently primarily serves to strengthen the state as opposed to the commonly understood definition of the rule of law, which is to defend the constitutional rights of citizens. The administrative rule of law in China is motivated by the nation’s philosophy and societal behaviours and particularly government practices (Peerenboom, 2002:400). Peerenboom (2002:400) furthermore highlights that the rule of law implemented during Imperial China was strongly against an unbiased and regulated government and supportive of a robust authoritarian state that regulated the ethical objectives of the Chinese citizens. The Chinese Constitution, 1999, explicitly instructs government to act within the law. According to Chang (2000:xi), neither the Republic of China (Taiwan) nor the People’s Republic of China have accomplished the successful application of the rule of law. As China’s role in globalisation becomes more superior, global stakeholders will stress the intensification of the role that the rule of law plays in China (Diamond, 2000:xii).

As stated by Kerrigan and Dalton (2006:13), the rule of law is an active intent in the political dimension of Indonesia. The “executive power” and all representatives of state that exercise “public powers” are legally bound to act within the prescripts of the rule of law and the Constitution. Erb and Sulistiyano (2009:5) confirm Indonesia’s acknowledgement of an active and efficient rule of law through the implementation of a “presidential system” in the state.

4.2 China and Indonesia’s economic dimension

The economic dimensions of China as an incipient, superior sovereignty and Indonesia as a noteworthy “low income” (Mackie, 1999:123) state’s economic dimensions and rapid fiscal growth configures the substance of following paragraphs.

4.2.1 Economic growth

Deng Xiaoping led China from 1978 to 1992. His legacy shared the details of an activist that championed “market-oriented economic reforms” (Diamond, 2000:1). China has been described as the “emerging super-power” of the 21st century (Diamond, 2000:ix) as it indicated sustained economic growth throughout the last two decades of the 20th Century into the 21st Century and has a significant impact on global markets. Fukuyama (1992:xv) noted that China, as a socialist country and a “highly centralised economy”, was able to reach the level of economic development suggested by Europe during the 1950’s but that it is not producing equivalent success rates in support of the “complex post-industrialisation economies” phase where “information” and “technological innovation” are primary role players. Zhao (2000:2) indicates that the economic transformation in China was not able to support a liberal democracy. As said by Wu (2004:1), China’s economic reform prides itself in: Agricultural programmes – “development of the rural non-farming sector”; foreign trade and investment – “massive inflow of foreign capital” and “the promotion of trade”; “structural transformation”; and “reform induced efficiency improvement”.

Mackie (1999:123) described Indonesia as one of the most significant “low-income” states displaying a steady, rapidly growing economy in the Asia-Pacific region. Mackie (1999:123) is of the opinion that President Soeharto’s “New Order” driven regime and the oil windfall during the 1970’s largely contributed towards triggering the authoritarian status and the ruling aptitude of the state. It is observed that until the latter part of the 1980’s, power and hegemony was centralised within the political dimension of the state and society was rendered powerless. Since 1986, a strengthening of middle class, as a result of deregulating the economy, changed the situation slightly (Mackie, 1999:123). However, Mackie (1999:123) remarked that in comparison to other low-income states, Indonesia’s middle class is still the weakest in terms of political influence and economic strength. Mackie (1999:123) observed that Indonesia bears a resemblance to other low-income developmental states such as China and Burma, more so than what it simulated the “Four Asian Tigers”, but with distinct features prescribed by its own past (Van Leeuwen, 2007:200).

4.3 China and Indonesia’s social dimension

Nation-building and national identity, social equality and social capital navigate the focus of the next sections as it motivates the substance of the social dimensions of both China and Indonesia.

4.3.1 *Nation-building and national identity*

Wachman (1994:25) defined national identity as an individual’s collective individuality. National identity encapsulates the sentimentalities that the collective individuality has for the nation state, its “ideals, myths, symbols and values” (Wachman, 1994:25). During the second quarter of the twentieth century, China experienced swift and vivid changes as Nationalists started building the nation (Young, 1971:3). On the word of Young (1971:3), the Nationalists enabled the formation of an effective government that focused all their efforts towards an improved economic landscape that paid dividends of rapid socio-economic growth. Gungwu (2005:265) highlighted that when Nationalists established China as a state, the process of nation building had to commence with two specific intents in mind. Gungwu (2005:265) describes these two intents as political harmony and a rapidly growing economy. Gungwu (2005:265) also explains that when political authorities are appointed, the expectation on them from the nation is to effectively deliver on the objectives of the state. Gungwu (2005:265) portrays China as a modern state with nation building listed high on its priorities. Gungwu (2005:266) is of the opinion that states leader’s political heritage largely shapes the way in which governance has an impact on the direction of development that such a state will take. Even though China is a reputable state in the global arena, the task of nation building will require continuous, focused efforts (Gungwu, 2005:112).

In accordance with Dittmer and Kim, (1999:xi), China’s pursuit for national identity had an abounding bequest but is simultaneously extremely complex. Friedman (1995:xi) and Fukuyama

(1992:xii,xiii) in his interpretation of “The End of History and the Last Man” noted a post modern era phenomena of how all societies eventually move in the direction of democracy and then by implication, “democratic human dignity”. Friedman (1995:xi) claimed that an inherent desire within communities is to design, implement and direct practical philosophies of their respective “national community” aligned to “democratic nationalism”. Friedman (1995:xi) affirmed that communities position themselves within the nation state, once they have adopted the notion of “democratic nationalism”, to challenge any behaviour that is not in accordance with democratic beliefs. Friedman (1995:xi) classified China as no exception to this rule. Qin (2003) shares the details of a global awareness in China as it constructs its national identity in line with globalisation, and subsequently prioritises “strategic culture” and “security interests” to take precedence.

4.3.2 Social equality

The concept of social equality and its encompassing practical implications became significant to nations across the globe since the time of the French Revolution (Wei, 2006:11). In line with Wei (2006:11) social equality has a significant relation to “all men and women are equal before the Law”, perhaps more so than to “one man one vote” as it relates to the distribution of wealth and social mobility. Social equality is less complex to achieve when it is reinforced by a well functioning rule of law (Wei, 2006:11). Zhou (2004:315) imparts the facts of remarkable socio-political and socio economic vicissitudes that characterise China’s liberation as developmental state since the 1949 era. Social inequalities became an addressed matter as millions of previously poverty stricken Chinese citizens became part of the labour force, enjoyed “basic standards of living and health care” and left extreme destitution behind (Zhou, 2004:315). Zhou (2004:315) simultaneously forewarns that low social inequality in China had a price to pay. China’s low rate of social inequalities occurred in tandem with economic and political crises such as deteriorating fiscal welfares and dwindling opportunities for the whole Chinese populace.

Rocamora (2002:83) confirms that the Soeharto’s suppressive leadership style had a large impact on the Indonesian society. Bowen (2003:4) recognises that Indonesian social equality reform programmes have an internal and external focus. Bowen (2003:4) identified that the internal focus of social equality reform programmes in Indonesia delineates “indigenous authenticity” and Indonesian “values” as significant. The motivation behind the selection of internal reform is to contest “global moral corruption” (Bowen, 2003:4). Indonesia’s external focus highlights “universality”, “modernity” and “transcultural values” as substantial in its social equality reform programmes (Bowen, 2003:4). As stated by Bowen (2003:4) the inspiration driving the external focus of the social equality reform is to prevent indigenous prejudices.

4.3.3 Social capital

With reference to the sensitive influences that the political, economic and social dimensions of a developmental state have on each other (Hjort, 2008:42), Hamrin (2006) acknowledges China as

one of the economically most prosperous nations on the globe (Zweig & Jianhai, 2005:1; Diamond, 2000:ix). Hamrin (2006) substantiates this fact with the following evidence: China is the international leader in receiving “foreign direct investment” and will likely exceed Japan’s record of possessing “foreign currency”. However, Hamrin (2006) alerts to an instability in China’s social dimension and advises towards a reconditioning of the balance between the economic and social dimensions. He also (2006) refers to “trust” and “cooperation” as the adhesive between the economic and social dimensions. Hamrin (2006) describes key signs of the social capital deficit in China as: A “low-trust authoritarian culture”; a “weak philanthropic tradition”; “moral corrosion”; “social tensions”; and “spiritual/ideological contention”.

Guggenheim (2006:118) informs that there are challenges embedded in Indonesia’s development. Despite a number of government initiated poverty reduction programmes, Guggenheim (2006:118) points out that financial assistance granted by means of these initiatives, seldom reached the intended target group as unethical behaviour was rife within the “local administration”. Edwards (2006:100) alludes to the following important social capital relationships: Individuals with an extended social network still require legislation to obtain the optimum benefit from these networks; a democratically responsible state plays a fundamental role in initiating programmes and exterminating destitution within the social capital context. Portes and Landolt (2000:547) noted that developing social capital may never be a replacement for poverty alleviation programmes and its resources. Social capital should primarily strengthen individual voluntary efforts (Portes and Landolt, 2000:547).

5. THE 3RD WAVE OF DEVELOPMENTAL STATES: THE PARADIGMATIC EVOLUTION, BOTSWANA AND THE REPUBLIC OF INDIA

Since its independence from British colonial rule in 1966, the Botswana state has distinguished itself through four determinant factors as a developmental “strong or hard” state (Tsie, 1998:1; Leftwich, 2007:52). Tsie (1998:1) described these four factors as follows: Botswana’s uniqueness as a hard or strong state, differentiates it from other “sub-Saharan” African states; the particular nexus between the Botswana state and the global economy; the Botswana state has promoted capitalist development since obtaining sovereignty in 1966; and the Botswana state’s particular approach to political domination entrenched in a democratic system. Tsie (1998:2) associated the success of the Botswana state’s developmental status with two significant drivers of the aforementioned factors namely, a “competent public service” that executes an achievable strategy and its development policies under the direction of a “political leadership” that is devoted to its policy intents. Leftwich (2002:64) and Du Toit (1995:100) noted in addition to these positive attributes held by the Botswana state that the Botswana Democratic Party (BDP) has been in power since the country’s independence. Leftwich (2007:160) alerts to the fact that Botswana, under the leadership and resolve of Sir Seretse Khama as “developmental elite” was able to display an irrevocable socio-economic success.

Moraes (1957) indicated that the Prime Minister of India, Jawaharlal Nehru pronounced on the eve of the Republic of India's independence from British colonial rule, 15 August 1947, "It means the end of poverty and ignorance and disease and inequality, of opportunity" (Leftwich, 2007:80). Leftwich (2007:80) and Corbridge and Harriss (2000:20) note that two decades later, Indian citizens are still trapped in the claws of indigence, "ignorance and disease". Tharoor (2008:82) further explains that India's name stems from the Indus River which now flows through Pakistan as a result of the division of the country during colonial rule. Tharoor (2008:83) describes the magnitude of diversity in India when he alludes to the multitude of religions, caste or class and ethnicity challenges.

5.1 Botswana and the Republic of India's political dimension

The political dimensions of Botswana and the Republic of India are deliberated in the succeeding paragraphs, descriptive of its particular circumstantial data and enveloped under state building, democracy and rule of law as distinctive intents.

5.1.1 State building

Leftwich (2002:64) remarks that Botswana received no inheritance of recognised coalitions denoting former, influential "interests". Du Toit (1995:89) discerned three interdependent premises on which the post-independent, state building initiatives in Botswana was built. Du Toit (1995:89) noted that the first initiative engaged in a process to convert "chiefs" from "political leaders" into bureaucrats; Botswana continued to strengthen the system of "legal dualism"; and the transformation of the public sector (national and local levels) into contemporary governmental institutes (Du Toit, 1995:98) and "representative political institutions" were formed.

Jawaharlal Nehru's hopes and intentions to bring an end to ignorance, disease and inequality still had not materialised by the 1960's (Leftwich, 2007:80). In an attempt to provide a scientific elucidation to the phenomena of sluggish socio-economic growth which Myrdal (1968, 1970a) noticed in South Asia and Ekeh (1975) observed in Africa, the scholars began to identify particular characteristics evidently related to the incidents. Myrdal (1968, 1970a) developed the philosophy of the "soft state" that included distinct characteristics. According to Myrdal (1970b:229) these characteristics can be summarised as follows: "A lack of social discipline in underdeveloped countries; deficiencies in legislation, law observance and law enforcement; lack of obedience to rules and directives from authorities; a resistance of public controls and their implementation; and corruption". Bardhan (1984), Kohli (1991) and Corbridge and Harriss (2000) resonated Myrdal's (1970b) apprehensions when they recognised India's complexities as being: "territory, religion, intra-elite, Congressional and class & caste politics".

5.1.2 Democracy

Przeworski et al. (1996) engaged in an assessment to determine the analytical circumstances within which democracy perseveres. Leftwich (2007:145) records these four circumstances as follows: In being a democracy over a period of time and being surrounded by other democracies enhances a democracy's probabilities to exist successfully. The intensity of prosperity was a diagnostic forecaster of democratic existence. Leftwich (2007:145) highlights that a team of American, political scientists', findings was that the "per capita income" had to be above \$6 000 "per annum". As stated by Przeworski et al. (1996), not one "third wave" democracy in Africa adheres to this prerequisite. However, Leftwich (2007:145) notes that Botswana is known as a "poor democracy" and that it has been able to subsist as a democracy; the second finding indicates that poor democracies will only subsist if their economies do not deteriorate; "poor democracies" indicate an enhanced tendency for survival if their "income inequalities" display a reasonable or decreasing status; If a democracy was exposed to an overthrow of government, the opportunities for survival are less; and "parliamentary democratic systems" last much longer than "presidential systems" (Riggs, 1991) and (Przeworski et al., 1996:49). Holm (1988), Robinson (2002:168), Du Toit (1995:71) and Huntington (1984) applauded Botswana as an African state that upheld democratic rule as it has been meticulously consulting its citizens opinions on significant policy issues by means of ³"kgotla's". According to Du Toit (1995:93) the Constitution of Botswana describes the state as a "unitary state" and a "parliamentary Republic". Somolekae (1998:7) informed that Botswana follows a West-minister influenced Constitution supported by a multi-party democratic structure that act (Leith, 2005:27), (Fawcus & Tilbury, 2000:69,126,136) as Botswana's cornerstones. Somolekae (1998:7) delineated Botswana's Constitution as having an engrained Bill of Rights.

Corbridge and Harriss (2000:xvii) captured the details of the Indian nation that was engaged in the processes of re-inventing itself unnoticed whilst the rest of the globe was fixated on the collapse of the Soviet structure. During December 1946, the Constituent Assembly of India got together to discuss and draw up the Constitution of the Republic of India which was promulgated in November 1949 (Corbridge & Harriss, 2000:xvii). India's Constitution envisioned that the nation would be a contemporary, liberal, democratic state with development as its most prominent intent (Corbridge and Harriss, 2000:xvii&xviii). Development and a modern-day state became the theory of authenticity in India (Corbridge and Harriss, 2000:xviii). Tharoor (2008:82) observes that the Constitution of the Republic of India recognises 23 different languages but amongst the population of India, 35 different regional languages are spoken.

³ Kgotla's are local councils convened by traditional Tswana chiefs where "civil servants can elicit the views of rural people on programme priorities" (Molutsi & Holm, 1990).

5.1.3 Rule of law

Du Toit (1995:93) stated that the arrangement of the legal system in Botswana, largely contributed to democratic stability. The extract from Lt. General Seretse Ian Khama (2009:1) reinforces the latter statement with: “Sustaining the Rule of Law to promote socio-economic development in the Eastern and Southern regions is testimony to your commitment to searching for solutions to the challenges we face”; and “for socio-economic development can only take place in the context of a robust, transparent, predictable and enforceable legal framework. Experience has shown that where justice and the rule of law are absent, the result is usually stagnation, poverty and general discontent”.

In June 1999, during the 106th Congressional meeting in the United States of America, the Honourable Jack Kinston (Georgia House of Representatives) made the following remark: “Without respect for the rule of law, countries with stunning natural resource wealth, extraordinary human capital, and even formidable military might are nothing more than failed models.” Two different perceptions are shared below. Daghamwar (2006) shares the perception of the Indian tribal population with respect to the rule of law. Daghamwar (2006:348) notes the indisputably negative perception that India’s tribal population has towards the rule of law. The perception is that there is a direct link between the law and colonialism and that the law continues to serve only those in power (Daghamwar, 2006:354). Verma (2008:188&194) interprets the rule of law as the cornerstone of any democracy and that all India’s citizens should feel protected by it. Verma (2008:195) suggests that judicial review is a central part of India’s Constitution to guarantee the fundamental rights of individuals.

5.2 Botswana and the Republic of India’s economic dimension

The ensuing passages provide testimony to Botswana and the Republic of India’s economic dimensions as it is venerated and reproached, each for its own unique successes and failures.

5.2.1 Economic growth

Consistent with Leftwich (2002:52), Botswana is one of the few developmental states that were able to lift the majority of their citizens out of destitution, adversity and defencelessness. Stockbridge (2006:51) emphasizes that Botswana’s Gross Domestic Product was well below average in the sub-Saharan Region during the 1960’s, but by 2003 it had escalated to nearly ten times the average. Stockbridge (2006:51) and Leith (2005:7) alert to the discovery of diamonds in 1967, agriculture and recently tourism as contributing factors towards rapid economic growth in Botswana. Leith (2005:4) is of the opinion that there is no other country on the globe, that displayed a more rapid growth rate of Gross Domestic Product per capita than what Botswana has exhibited. Leith (2005:5) remarks that transformation of the Botswana state’s economic edifice ran in tandem with its fast growing, open market economy.

Kumar and Kapur (2008:11) refer to Goldman Sach's forecast of India's economy developing into the third largest on the globe over a period of the next 30 years. However, Kumar and Kapur (2008:11) alert to the abstemious voices, of which India's Prime Minister, Manmohan Singh is one, that signals a failure of social inclusivity and efforts to ensure that economic growth reaches the masses (Kumar and Kapur, 2008:11). Chidambaram (2008:21) depicts that 65% of India's population is largely dependent on agriculture and that 60% of India's work force are farm labourers (i.e., 600 million people). Chidambaram (2008:21) illustrates that this 600 million people only share in 18% of India's Gross Domestic Product. In addition to Kumar and Kapur (2008:11) and Chidambaram's (2008:21) observations, Mukherjee (2008:15) is of the opinion that Indians have generated wealth and employment on a magnificent scale through change interventions but he also alerts that the environment does not only consist of economic and technological development but that the landscape is continuously affected by national and international force-fields. Mukherjee describes these force-fields as "poverty, environmental degradation, constriction of political freedom and choice, growth of extremism and intolerance, international terrorism, proliferation of weapons of mass destruction and pandemics, energy security and a climate change" (Mukherjee, 2008:15). Ramakrishna (2008:313) explains the service sector as a key supporter of India's economic growth.

5.3 Botswana and the Republic of India's social dimension

The unique conditions that profile each of the two nations, Botswana and the Republic of India's social dimension is depicted against nation-building and national identity, social equality and social capital to provide factual information critical to these social intents.

5.3.1 *Nation-building and national identity*

Nyamnjoh (2007:318) imparts the details of nation building in Botswana, post independence when he voices the challenges and social nuances that prevail in this nation. Nyamnjoh (2007:318,319) makes reference to the details of a nation that struggles with the favour given to large scale indigeneity; and a pursuit to establish analogies between culture and polity; ethnic belonging; and admission to authority. Nyamnjoh (2007:318,319) reveals a citizenry's perplexity with being true to an inherent indigenous compartment when displaying ethnic purity and simultaneously displaying an effortlessness towards a cosmopolitan demeanour required by contemporary liberal democracy. Nyamnjoh (2007:319) contemplates the proverbial price of the concept of a liberal democracy as introduced to Africa and the fact that it does not consider existing, indigenous social nuances within a citizenry or the social behaviour that it imposes on its devotees.

Tharoor (2008:84) explains the concept of pluralism as an ingrained part of India's citizens and that there can be "unity in diversity" and how the Western Idea of "secularism" takes on a whole

new meaning in India as being an acceptance of a cornucopia of religions but with the difference that none of these religions would be favoured by the state. Naqvi (2008:204) highlights the inability of the state to provide basic education, basic health services and inattention of the state to basic infrastructure as three dilemmas that India faces. Naqvi (2008:204) also suggests the restoration of good governance by rebuilding a civil service that understands the concept of servant hood; a re-instatement of the rule of law to inhabit its lawful place in the state by means of policy reforms and responsive judicial procedures; basic education, basic health and infrastructure should take precedence; institutionalising land reform programmes; and eliminate bureaucratic obstacles to ensure economic growth. In addition to the challenges and proposed solutions that Naqvi (2008:204) offers, Singvi (2008:51) alludes to additional challenges that also exist in India. These challenges can be described as the mammoth task to find solutions in terms of alleviating 300 million Indian citizens from absolute poverty; noting and acting upon the risks of precipitous ecological dilapidation; the HIV/AIDS pandemic; and restoring democratic principles.

5.3.2 Social equality

Good (1993:205) alluded to modern inequalities in Botswana that will not be understood unless consideration is given to how it came about. Botswana's history forms a fundamental part of social relations as it exists (Good, 1993:205). According to Good (1993), Nyamnjoh (2007: 318,319) and Somolekae (1998) the most obvious social inequalities in Botswana are located in land reform matters, gender equality and the minority groups.

Augustine (1991:9) sketched the momentous occasion of 27 November 1949 when the Constitution of India was approved and subsequently made all citizens equal, regardless of their social standing (Stern, 1993:184). Augustine (1991:11) shared the atypical social structure held in India which governed the nation's history, global relations and future. Augustine (1991:175) highlighted the challenges of changing the inherent nature of a society, that used to function on a "caste-based" and "class-based" structure, to an egalitarianism approach which affirms a belief in equal political, economic, social and civil rights for all people.

5.3.3 Social capital

Fukuyama (1999:7) defines social capital as the collaboration "between two or more individuals". Leftwich (2002:66), Good (1993) and Yeager (1993) are in agreement that Botswana did not only display successes in the economic dimension through "capital accumulation" and "economic growth", they have simultaneously addressed issues of "social inequality" and "environmental decline".

Tiwari and Singhal (2009:414) inform of three key elements that determine social capital. These three elements are networks, resource mobilisation and symbolic diversity (Tiwari & Singhal, 2009:414). Tharoor (2008:84) mentions the concept of pluralism and Mishra, Akoijam and Misra

(2009:88) alert to the relation between community conflict and violence and confirming the plural and secular nature of communities in India. Sonderskov (2009) and Krishna and Uphoff (2002) specify that social capital in India increases the participation of communities in government and World Bank supported programmes. Mishra, Akoijam and Misra (2009:88) alert to the impact of globalisation, not only on the political, social and economic dimensions of a nation where individuals and groups function, but also on individuals and communities' values and beliefs.

6. CONCLUSION

In a quest to relate the factual data, captured in this study, to the problem statement, research questions and objectives, it is imperative to mention, in conclusion, that even though there are some similarities between these nations, their dissimilarities overpower their resemblances. Woo-Cumings (1999) asserted to each nation's interconnectedness with its own past. Whether these countries were war-ravaged, disordered by colonialism, identified the need for modernisation or were attracted by the advantages of rapid economic growth, all of them found the developmental philosophy appealing in an attempt to move forward. Castells (1992:65) claimed that long before national or foreign capital became important, successful developmental states have established and consolidated their power, authority and relative autonomy. Each of the six selected nations reacted on particular primary triggers such as expansionism, warfare, colonialism, modernisation through export-oriented capitalism, poverty reduction, inclusivity, economic independence, legal dualism with contemporary government institutes that catapulted them into the philosophy of a being a developmental state. It is within such consolidated strength that states adopt an interactive vigour from which it inspires and empowers distinct, purposeful relationships with the private sector to promote continued socio-economic growth. The state simultaneously forges strong trust relationships with its citizenry.

China, India and Indonesia have very large populations, Botswana does not. Indonesia has oil and Botswana has diamonds as valued, exportable raw materials, the others do not. Indonesia and India are thought of as plural in its socio-cultural and ethnic structures whilst others are typically homogenous (Leftwich, 2007:154) configurations. There are significant economic policy and practice differences between these nations as each nation is affected differently and chooses to react differently to global and national force-fields. At this point there are two fundamental matters that can be inferred. Firstly, not all of these nations are democratic. Some of these nations have arduous processes of transformation that lie between them and democracy and some are "poor democracies". The fact remains that more and more nations strive to become democracies as they experience internal and external pressures to adapt this phenomena. The rule of law should have a significant status in each of these nations but as facts reveal, each of them are on a particular pathway in their own historical timeline, engaged in an attempt to ingrain the rule of law as a significant roll player in their individual systems.

It can be extrapolated from this chapter that the leadership of these developmental states are developmental elites whom have shown exceptional developmental resolve, an obligation towards economic growth and transformation with an innate ability to realise the objective of being a developmental state. The states which these leaders have led, revealed themselves either as strong or hard states that were able to select particular strategies that were propelled into action through optimally functioning, results oriented, streamlined bureaucratic organisations, or they revealed themselves as soft states that continued to grapple with issues of territory, religion, intra-elite and other politics. Important to note is the hybrid of relations and networks between the public and private sectors to drive the developmental agenda within a nation as a collective with an acute awareness of global and national activities.

Leftwich (2007:162) identifies “real power, authority, technical competence, insulation and continuity” as significant characteristics amongst the key government organisations that advanced the philosophy of being a developmental state within nations. These key organisations are recognised amongst the nations relevant to this study as: Japan – Ministry for International Trade and Industry (MITI); South Korea – Economic Planning Board; China – Salt Inspectorate, Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Foreign Affairs; Botswana – Ministry of Finance and Development Planning. Chapter 2 furthermore affirms that citizens expect its public sector to act on the basis of ethical values, principles and norms and that the rule of law should effectively support, protect and promote equality.

In order to obtain perspective against scientifically validated data, Leftwich (2007:153,154) shares the outstanding economic growth and successes, measured against Gross National Income (GNI) per capita, of the following nations: Botswana (7.7%), South Korea (6.7%), Taiwan (7.0%), China (6.8%) and Indonesia (4.8%) (Council for Economic Planning and Development, 1992; World Bank, 1999). It is induced that India is not carrying its generated wealth through to advantage - 65% of its nation subsequently remains poverty stricken.

It is evident that no developmental state characteristic can be superimposed from one nation to another. Elements thereof might be useful but eventually that element will be transformed by the culture, socio economic and socio political circumstances within that nation. National customs and practices will play a pertinent role in the form that intents such as nation building and national identity, social equality and social capital will adopt. We are once again reminded of Edigeji's (2009) finding: “In every historical epoch, developmental states have been constructed to respond to specific contextual developmental challenges”.

The next chapter will pay particular attention to the uniqueness of the Republic of South Africa as modern, democratic, developmental state. An attempt is made to explore South Africa against the landscape dimensions and intents of developmental states as well as the always-present reflection yielded by its populace. Chapter 3 simultaneously reflects on the first segment of the problem statement offered by this study as what motivates the citizens of the South African

democratic, developmental state to publicly display their dissatisfaction with public sector service delivery.

Chapter 3

THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA: THE UNIQUENESS OF A CONTEMPORARY, DEMOCRATIC, DEVELOPMENTAL STATE

“What keeps some persons poor? And what has made some others rich? The true answers to these queries would often make the poor man more proud of his poverty, than the rich man is of his wealth, and the rich man more justly ashamed of his wealth, than the poor man unjustly now is, of his poverty.”

C.C. Colton

CHAPTER 3: THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA: THE UNIQUENESS OF A CONTEMPORARY, DEMOCRATIC DEVELOPMENTAL STATE

1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 alluded to the democratic, developmental state chronicles of six nations across the globe. The paradigmatic evolutions of Japan, South Korea, China, Indonesia, Botswana and India, as developmental states, are mapped against the three dimensions of this distinct landscape and its intents. The likeness between these nations is that they are all on their own, unique path of being democratic, developmental states. The dissimilarities are considerable. Single patterns of resemblance towards the successful achievement of each nation's ultimate ambition, to offer a nation and the international arena an economically successful, strong, democratic, developmental state, are almost unrecognisable. Each nation grapples with the disfigurements of its own past, challenges of the present and expectations of what the future might hold when it considers national and global force-fields. There are however a number of aspects that can be considered as valuable guides in the South African developmental context.

Chapter 1 made reference to Low (2004:12) that asserts the following: In extracting a bureaucracy's potential to deliver on a nation's developmental agenda as singled-out and only element for consideration would prove to be naïve. Reflecting on Low's caution, it is important to clarify that even though the purpose of this study is to focus on the competencies required by the South African senior bureaucracy, the Administration's competency requirements are observed within the broader developmental landscape and context. Chapter 3 therefore maps the individuality of the Republic of South Africa against the democratic, developmental state landscape dimensions and intents, as explained in Chapter 2. A particular emphasis is placed on the South African population's perception of the service delivery that it receives from the nation's Administration. The chapter, in addition, considers global and national force-fields that have an impact on South Africa. Besides an inclusion of the force-fields, the chapter also considers scholarly and political elites' efforts relevant to the South African developmental landscape. Primary triggers, specific developmental challenges, exclusive characteristics, developmental objectives and timelines are mentioned within the South African context.

The last week of April 1994 marked an acute juncture in the historical journals of the Republic of South Africa. "One adult (every South African citizen that is over the age of 18 and that is registered), one vote" frames the entrance into a Constitution-directed, democratic state. Reminders of why the Republic of South Africa's first President as democratic, developmental state, Mr Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela, spent 25 years of his life incarcerated are tabled as: No discrimination because of colour, race religion and gender; all are equal before the law; and equal opportunities to all (Maathai, 2008:45). Mr N.R. Mandela led South Africa from 10 May 1994 to 16 June 1999, during which he has received global iconic status and the Nobel Peace Prize in 1993. Mr Mandela's successor as President of the Republic of South Africa was Mr T.M. Mbeki. Mr

Mbeki led South Africa from 16 June 1999 to 24 September 2008 and announced the era after the second democratic elections as “a nation at work for a better life for all” (McLennan, 2008:3). Mr Mbeki announced his resignation in 2008 after being recalled by the African National Congress’s National Executive Committee. Mr Mbeki’s legatee was Mr Kgalema Petrus Motlanthe. Mr Motlanthe led the Republic of South Africa from 25 September 2008 to 9 May 2009. During the 52nd National Conference, held in Polokwane, 2007, Mr Jacob Gedleyihlekisa Zuma was elected as new President of the African National Congress and soon afterwards he was elected by Parliament following the ANC’s victory in the 2009 elections. Mr Zuma became the President of the Republic of South Africa on 9 May 2009.

In the inner quads of the African National Congress (ANC) and government, two prominent concepts are articulated. These two concepts can be defined as: South Africa needs to transform into a “developmental state” with the “people’s contract” as prominent segment within the transformation process (Edigheji, 2007b:1; Duvenhage, 2009:12). The focal proposition of Chapter 3 is to delineate the paradigmatic evolution of the South African developmental state against transformational, inclusive, institutional capacity and attributes to realise its specific developmental objectives, outlined against the dimensions and intents of a developmental state. The researcher will furthermore introduce the uniqueness of South Africa as a democratic, developmental state, supported by the principles of democratic governance in the 21st century. The chapter will furthermore reflect on what informs South Africa as a democratic, developmental state; how South Africa’s coherent developmental agenda is delineated through its unique primary triggers, (making a decision to transform the state into a developmental state); specific developmental challenges (that compel the state to respond); as well as exclusive characteristics; and outcomes (that which the state specifically wishes to achieve).

One of the key primary questions that this study explores is to discover and recognise South African, public sector “distinctive competencies” and “core distinctive competencies” (Eden & Ackermann, 2000) through the paradigmatic evolution of democratic, developmental states. The process of defining, discovering and recognising such competencies will be investigated and delineated in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 will engage in an empirical investigation through a focus group session to obtain an in-depth, “distinctive competencies” and “core distinctive competencies” identification, as result, from practitioner specialists within the South African public sector. Whilst documenting the paradigmatic evolution of South Africa as democratic, developmental state, a coinciding process of detecting public sector competencies will transpire. Eden and Ackermann (2000) guide the trailed process (to detect competencies from the documented efforts of scholars in South Africa’s paradigmatic evolution as democratic, developmental state) as follows: In understanding that the South African public sector fulfils a particular purpose within the state, significant items for consideration are:

- The identification of South Africa’s strategic aspirations;
 - Creating the strategic future;
 - Making sense of the past;

- Constructing rather than predicting and responding to future realities; and
- Long term flexibility and strategic opportunism.
- Considering the individuality of the South African public sector as tool to mediate the state's strategic aspirations;
- Recognising patterns of emergent strategizing relative to decision making, thinking, action, what is often taken for granted, ways of working and problem solving.
- Noteworthy is that organisational culture (habits, history and 'hand-me-downs') has an impact on each pattern.

2. THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA'S POLITICAL DIMENSION

Heller (2001:133) applauds South Africa's evolution into a democratic state as "one of the most inclusive of its kind". However, Heller (2001:132) formulates pertinent questions that are associated with the political dimension of a developing nation and its administration's ability to demonstrate a well-defined, conspicuous character that can achieve its developmental goals. Heller (2001:132) defines these questions as follows: Are the administrative organisations receptive to public participation? Has the bureaucracy initiated innovative and modern "modes of governance?" Have they reviewed who their "social partners" are and which developmental goals they prioritize?; "Is the reach and robustness of public legality sufficient to guarantee the uniform application of rights of citizenship?" Heller (2001:132) is of the opinion that transformation has undoubtedly taken place in the South African state, when he poses another pertinent question. "Are they closer to the people?" Heller's questions shape the backdrop against which this study will look into the political dimension of South Africa's developmental landscape.

2.1 State building

The primary character of the democratic, South African state was described in an ANC discussion document, "The State, Property Relations and Social Transformation" (1998), as developmental. To be developmental implies equity, justice, enabling a rapid growing economy and improving the quality of life of all South African citizens (Edigheji, 2007b:3). Evans (1999:72) identified a key characteristic of successful East Asian developmental states and transfers the lesson as institutions and bureaucracies are "hard won edifices constantly under construction". White (1995:20) described that even though developmental states promote growth and improve productivity they are simultaneously key actors in initiating economic activities that spawn augmented material degrees of subsistence. Edigheji (2007b:7) adds that the capacity of the state becomes a formulator and an implementer of the state's developmental agenda.

McLennan (2008:1) identifies the character of the "first decade of democracy" as that authentic and "symbolic" change took place. McLennan (2009:38) portrays the physiognomies of the "first

decade of democracy” in South Africa as governed by the ⁴“Washington Consensus”, supplemented by a “lean and mean state delivery system”. Whilst considering an international economic landscape and the difficulties of transmuting a “racially and ethnically fragmented public service delivery system” into a system that would address the requirements of an emancipated nation, South Africa simultaneously had to increase social development and delivery (McLennan, 2009:39). Four key features are associated with the first years of democracy (McLennan, 2009:39). These strategic qualities are described as: “transformation; rationalisation of the apartheid infrastructure; and extensive policy revision and development” (McLennan, 2009:39). During these early years of South African democracy, the strategic focus was to provide South African citizens with at least, basic services (McLennan, 2009:39).

Duvenhage (2009:1) comments that the perception is often held that because the ANC had a 62.65% majority vote through which a majority victory was obtained in the 1994 elections, that the “struggle” was over and the battle was won. The following remark is noted in the ANC Strategy and Tactics document, (1997): “We have only started along a long road towards justice and true equity”. This event merely announced and marked the launch pad of the revolution. In order to appreciate the uniqueness of South Africa as a contemporary, democratic, developmental state, in context of its own political dimension, it is critical to appreciate the presence of the National Democratic Revolution (NDR) as complex ideological school of thought and as agenda of the ANC, the role that it fulfils within the South African polity (political, economic and social dimensions) against the broader viewpoint and philosophy of the term “revolution” as adopted in the South African context (Duvenhage, 2009:4). Duvenhage (2009:5) scientifically reasons that the NDR exists as the nucleus of the ANC as it shapes the ideological framework of the ANC and the South African bureaucracy. Duvenhage’s (2009:5) definition of a revolution is based on the work of political scientist, S.P. Huntington (1968) and Pettee (1971) when he clarifies the term revolution. Pettee (1971:3) defined revolution as the “reconstitution of the state”. Duvenhage (2009:5) also refers to Huntington’s (1968:264) “complete” and “incomplete” revolutions. Duvenhage (2009:7) comments that the political reform and democratisation of the South African state drove the NDR into a new political trajectory and had an “incomplete revolution” as a result. Three documents that shape the course that the state will take in its National Democratic Revolution (NDR) are the ANC’s Strategy and Tactics, the ANC Constitution and the Freedom Charter. The NDR’s five pillars of social transformation are noted as:

“The state: Expanding its role to become a developmental state that provides effective basic services and with capabilities to take forward a far-reaching agenda of national economic development, whilst at the same time placing the people and their involvement at the centre of this process”.

“The economy: Building a thriving, labour-absorbent and inclusive mixed economy, in the process transforming economic relations based on race, super-exploitation and patriarchy”.

⁴ Washington Consensus is a term devised by John Williamson in 1989 to describe a set of 10 specific economic policy prescriptions that he considered should constitute the standard reform package promoted for crises wracked developing countries

“Organisational work: Strengthening the organisational abilities and capabilities of the ANC to organise and lead the people and society in the process of transformation”.

“Ideological struggle: Promoting values of a caring society, human solidarity, unity of our people, non-racialism and non-sexism in line with the society we seek to build”.

“International work: The on-going renewal and development of Africa, improved South-South relations and a more just global order”. (ANC: Strategy and Tactics, 2010, par. 20).

Duvenhage (2009:3) extracts statistical information from the Socialist World (2003:1) in which the BRIC (Brazil, Russia, India and China) countries are compared against poverty rates. According to Socialist World (2003:1), South Africa displays the largest gap, globally, between rich and poor after Brazil. Ramokgopa (2009:1) furthermore highlights the ⁵Gini-coefficient (as indicator of inequality in terms of income distribution) of the BRIC countries as follows: Russia (0.41%), India (0.37%), China (0.47%) and South Africa (0.72%). Additional challenges that South Africa face are described by Kraak (2009:85) as that the South African graduate labour market is an alarming and growing problem. McLennan (2008:2) adds to the challenges within South Africa when she points to “a growing tide of popular protests around service delivery issues”. However, democratic challenges became more evident (McLennan, 2008:1) than ever as South Africa wrestles with an energy crises and service delivery protests. Chabane (2010:1,2) affirms extreme levels of poverty, joblessness and inequality.

Duvenhage (2009:11) and Cohen (2002:423) suggest the importance of education as an imperative transformative apparatus as it prepares the youth for a “new future”. This occurrence is again not unique to South Africa and as mentioned before, Peerenboom (2004:xviii) introduces a “high quality human capital” and Esping-Andersen (2004:211) and Ishida (1993:67) asserted the importance of education in the transformation process as phenomenon amongst the East Asian welfare states. Duvenhage (2009:11) mentions in addition, that this practice occurred in China during the Cultural Revolution as well as Turkey when Kemal initiated the Latin alphabet into the system. During its 3rd General Council meeting in Durban, issues of media, nationalisation of the mines, health and education got tabled for discussion. The ANC has engaged in a process to determine strategies that will continue to support South Africa as developmental state (African National Congress, online, September 2010).

Entering the Mbeki era, which was labelled as “a nation at work for a better life for all”, exclusion and poverty amongst the larger part of the populace continues to be evident (McLennan, 2009:39). During this period, a “modernisation strategy to improve delivery was initiated (McLennan, 2009:40). As said by McLennan (2009:40), “social protection, economic growth and successful revenue collection” are some of the positive highlights that mark this phase. Primed, specialised proficiency and capability may never be presupposed in South Africa. McLennan (2009:40) alerts to “basic infrastructure” challenges and an “unbalanced civil society where

⁵ Gini coefficient is a measure of statistical dispersion and measures the inequality of a distribution.

privileged interest groups are able to dominate, as prominent features of the Mbeki era. McLennan (2009:40) is of the opinion that adopted global delivery strategies do not produce evidence that it is successful. Illusive control mechanisms may cause the delivery process to erode (McLennan, 2009:40).

President Jacob Zuma states the following during his inaugural address, (2009): “The new government is aware of these challenges, but continues to assume that dedicated hard work and improved government machinery will contribute in a direct and meaningful way to the improvement of the lives of our people”. Soon after President Zuma assumed his position, two ministries were instituted in the Presidency to effectively address the persisting challenges that haunt South Africa as a democratic developmental state. These two Ministries are known as National Planning and Performance Monitoring, Evaluation and Administration, located in the Presidency. The focus areas stipulated for the latter Ministry and its Department are: “Management of outcomes through Ministerial accountability for improving delivery performance”; “Institutionalising the Government-wide Monitoring and Evaluation system (GWM&E)”; “Unblocking service delivery”. Minister Chabane (2010:3) suggests that “a culture of accountability starts at the top” as he makes reference of President Zuma’s “performance agreements with ministers” and President Zuma’s request that ministers should cascade these “priorities throughout the administration”. Considering the ⁶Mo Ibrahim African prize for leadership and good governance, specifically aimed at African leadership, the Mail and Guardian Online (2010:1) enunciates a significant statement. The statement articulates detractor’s perplexity with the quality of rulers on the African continent and hence constructs a statement that “the road to hell is paved with good intentions”. Such a statement is expressive as it denotes a sizeable emphasis and relation between a bureaucracy’s ability to provide undisputed evidence of a world-class Constitution and supporting policy documents against translating such intents into action (McLennan, 2009:42) to achieve that nation’s developmental goals. According to the Mail and Guardian Online (2010:1), the Mo Ibrahim Index of African Governance released its 3rd annual report, measuring 53 countries against 84 criteria. The report ranks South Africa as 5th best governed state on the African continent with a rating of 71.5 against Mauritius as 1st positioned, best governed state (83.0) and Somalia in the 53rd position (7.9).

The ANC-led government identified 12 Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2009-2014 outcomes with measurable outputs and optimal activities, as coherent developmental agenda, in building South Africa as a developmental state that is capable of delivering effective basic services and national development (2010). These 12 outcomes are:

- **“Outcome 1:** Quality basic education”;
- **“Outcome 2:** A long and healthy life for all South Africans”;
- **“Outcome 3:** All people in South Africa are and feel safe”;
- **“Outcome 4:** Decent employment through inclusive economic growth”;

⁶ Mo Ibrahim, a wealthy Sudanese businessman that launched a foundation to recognise and award good leaders on the African continent that is “blighted by conflict, corruption and mismanagement. *Mail & Guardian Online*, Cape Town. South Africa. June 2010. <http://www.mg.co.za/article/2009-10-05-southern-africa-best-governed-on-continent-says-report>

- **“Outcome 5:** Skilled and capable workforce to support an inclusive growth path”;
- **“Outcome 6:** An efficient, competitive and responsive economic infrastructure network”;
- **“Outcome 7:** Vibrant, equitable, sustainable rural communities contributing towards food security for all”;
- **“Outcome 8:** Sustainable human settlements and improved quality of household life”;
- **“Outcome 9:** Responsive, accountable, effective and efficient local government system”;
- **“Outcome 10:** Protect and enhance our environmental assets and natural resources”;
- **“Outcome 11:** Create a better South Africa, a better Africa and a better world”;
- **“Outcome 12:** An efficient, effective and development oriented public service and an empowered, fair and inclusive citizenship.”

State building, as intent to the political dimension of South Africa, delineates a particular evolution. Duvenhage (2009:1) introduces the commencement and continuation of a revolution as core motivator that gives impetus to the South African ruling party and the nation’s developmental agenda. Considering such a stimulus as vehicle and thread throughout the first and second decades of democracy, it is noted that during the leadership of President Mandela the face of a new state, underpinned by democratic principles, saw the light to address specific challenges of inequality and poverty, evoked by this nation’s past. The Mbeki administration had no deliverance from the complexities of inequality and poverty amongst many other convolutions. It appears however if the Mbeki administration delivered successful results in the economic dimension that will be explored later in this Chapter, but created with it, a whole new set of challenges as new elites groups’ expectations became more prominent than the expectations of the poor. In his inaugural speech, 2009, President Zuma captured his recognition of existing challenges within the South African developmental landscape as follows: “For as long as there are South Africans who die from preventable disease; for as long as there are workers who struggle to feed their families; for as long as there are communities without clean water, decent shelter or proper sanitation; for as long as there are rural dwellers unable to make a decent living from the land on which they live; for as long as there are women who are subjected to discrimination, exploitation or abuse; for as long as there are children who do not have the means nor the opportunity to receive a decent education; for as long as there are people who are unable to find work, we shall not rest, and we dare not falter.” President Zuma expressed definite responsibilities for action to his Administration. Important to assert at this point is the looming questionable rise of legislation and committees such as the Protection of Information Bill No.6 of 2010; the Expenditure Authorisation Bill and the ANC led Media Appeals Tribunal as it fosters mistrust where trust-building is essential and much needed. It simultaneously creates opportunities for corruption and exploitation where ethics and accountability is of the essence to move ahead as democratic, developmental state. It is furthermore evident that President Zuma and his associated administration are making distinct structural and strategic sounds in terms of planning and performance measurement of South Africa’s developmental goals that constitutes a top-down approach. Gumede (2009:95) remarks that President Zuma adopted “populist economic policies” that imply that each message is shaped to be appropriate for the audience. Against the latter

observation, Gumede (2009:95) re-affirms that developmental states can only be constructed on a well-defined vision, strategies and policies, not populism. Successful progress towards the achievement of South Africa as developmental state, amidst national and global forces, therefore remains to be seen.

2.2 Democracy

The Mo Ibrahim Index, indicator definition and sources (2010) measures “Participation and Human Rights” as descriptor of democracy against clustered indicators associated with democracy. The following three element scores are displayed in the index: “Participation (76.6), Rights (69.4) and Gender (74.1). Adler and Webster (1995:2) contend that according to the way in which transition theorists define democratisation, South Africa has been a “text book case”. Transition theorists associate successful treaties and discussions between “reformers” in the “ruling regime” and “moderates in the opposition” to result in positive transitions (Adler & Webster, 1995:2). Adler and Webster (1995:2) indicated that the cooperation between activists and “moderates” has a political implication and a subsequent “price” for the collaboration. The political implication of such collaboration is that the democracy would be economically and socially conservative (Adler & Webster, 1995:2). Adler and Webster (1995:25) single the South African labour movement out as pivotal to the democratic transition process and a “strategy of radical reform”. As said by McLennan (2008:3), democratic practices are embedded in the South African nation and visible proof thereof is clear in a strong civil community, an independent media, the judiciary and powerful industrial sector. According to the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (1994), the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of the Republic of South Africa is a socio-economic policy framework implemented by the ANC government in 1994. The primary objective of the RDP is to address sizeable socio-economic challenges inherited from the “apartheid” regime. Poverty alleviation (socially minded social services), infrastructure programmes and economic growth (contained fiscal spending, sustained or lowered taxes, reduction of government debt, trade liberalisation) are two primary outcomes of the RDP. Even though the policy framework incorporates elements from both socialist and neo-liberal viewpoints, it cannot be associated exclusively with either of the two. The six basic principles of the RDP can be defined as follows:

- “Integration and sustainability”;
- “People driven” (Batho Pele, people first, principles);
- “Peace and Security”;
- “Nation building”;
- “Meeting basic needs and building infrastructure”; and
- “Democratisation”.

In addition to the RDP, the South African government initiated and led almost 54 different programmes and projects of which the Accelerated Shared and Growth Initiative for South Africa

(ASGISA) and the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) are two successful programmes that specifically address unemployment and poverty.

Hendricks (2003:5) identifies South Africa as having one of the most outstanding Constitutions on the globe with a liberal Bill of Rights to support it. South Africa's Constitution was the consequence of extraordinary, meticulous and comprehensive consultations. The three establishing provisos of the Constitution are grounded on equality, law and democracy and can be described as follows:

- "Non racialism and non sexism";
- "Supremacy of the Constitution and the rule of law"; and
- "The provision that lays down the country's democratic philosophy by stipulating "universal adult suffrage, a national common voter's roll, regular elections and a multi-party system of democratic government, to ensure accountability, responsiveness and openness".

Hendricks (2003:7) highlights crucial elements that should support the transformation process between "apartheid" and the democracy and that would ensure democracy's permanence. Two vital necessities are emphasised as follows:

- Inequality fissures between rich and poor and black and white citizens should be addressed; and
- The formation of an authentic state that reveres the rule of law.

The second election, held in 1999, confirmed that democracy was acknowledged and grounded in South Africa and that the political dimension in the country has transformed dramatically but political change did not inevitably ensure economical change (Hendricks, 2003:8). Duvenhage (2009:13) and Hendricks (2003:10) observe Mr Mbeki, a former President of the Republic of South Africa's, remark when he said: "South Africa is a country of two nations" (Mbeki, 1998). Hendricks (2003:10) and Duvenhage (2009:13) take note of Mr Mbeki's statement and referred to it as the graphic capturing of disparities in South Africa (Hendricks, 2003:10) whilst Duvenhage (2009:13) interprets the statement as confirmation that transformation will continue through revolution. The outcomes captured before and as stated in the 2010 Medium Term Strategic Framework confirm that the process of transformation will be evolutionary in nature. Gumede and Dikene (2009:4) are of the opinion that South Africa has reached a significant point in the nation's endeavours to develop a sustainable and even-handed democracy. Gumede (2009:11) relates the failure of developing countries to sustain democracy as an inability to change from a self-governing, unconventional political society into a democratic political culture which can be measured by its development when in supremacy. Gumede (2009:11) alerts to the aperture between having a globally superior Constitution, intricate democratic organisations, "public watchdogs" and consistent "free and fair" elections on paper and experiencing it as part of the culture of a nation. Gumede (2009:12) explains that political culture defines the "type of government institutions" and the "authority" vested in government, it also denotes "who has the

power in society and government”; “who is allowed to participate in policy and decision making”; and “how citizens hold their leaders accountable”. Gumede (2009:12) and Paletz and Lipinsky (1994) define a democratic political culture as commonly shared (governments, organisations and individuals), fundamental beliefs (norms and standards of behaviour) with political consequences. Gumede (2009:12) further explains that the citizens of a nation will experience, through systems (“executive, legislature, bureaucracy, judiciary, political parties and civil groups”) and processes (“behaviour of parties, groups and civil groups”), whether the political culture is democratic or not.

Democracy as political intent and indissoluble, cultural element of South Africa’s political dimension stretches much further than democratic voting practices as it reflects its authenticity and existence through the behaviour of a nation’s populace. It requires steadfast, visionary, democratic elites and leadership and related bureaucratic implementation to concede that it exists within a nation. Measured against the Mo Ibrahim Index (2010), South Africa performs in line with the top achievers, but measured against the principles of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (1994), the results are less favourable as the basic needs of the majority of the population, peace and security and a people driven bureaucracy, amongst many other inefficiencies that have yet to be met.

2.3 Rule of law

Horbaczewski and Elsevier (2010:1) are of the opinion that sustained, tough economic growth will only be present in nations where the rule of law is pivotal and governs societies and commerce. The presence of well-defined laws that direct government, citizens and the market; a robust, autonomous and neutral judiciary shapes the crucial elements of a developmental nation that is achievement driven (Horbaczewski & Elsevier, 2010:1). Carothers (1998:95) imparted that very few policy deliberations takes place without the inclusion of the rule of law as key resolution to global challenges. The rule of law is circumscribed as that it is communal knowledge that is embedded in the general practice of communities and concerns individuals and communities similarly (Carothers, 1998:96). It is commonly understood in a democracy that the administration’s reverence for the predominant power of the nation’s citizens and the constitution reflects in its recognition of the law (Carothers, 1998:97).

With reference to the Mo Ibrahim Index (2010) that measures “safety and the rule of law” in South Africa as follows: Personal safety (32.5) which implicates that South Africa ranks 44th out of 53 nations; Rule of law (84.9), South Africa ranks 3rd out of 53 nations; Accountability and corruption (76.5), South Africa achieves 5th position; and National security (92.9), South Africa achieved 12th position. Pityana (2004:47) points out that the Bill of Rights, as Chapter 2 of the South African Constitution, is a fundamental instrument in democracy as it compels the state to venerate, safeguard, advocate and observe the rights in the Bill of Rights. The Constitution (1996) describes that “everybody is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law”. The Bill of Rights simultaneously describes the “equal rights, enjoyment and

freedom” that individuals may have as well as the boundaries within which the state may execute its powers. According to Africa’s Governance Monitoring and Advocacy Project (AfriMAP) report of the Open Society Foundation (2005:3), South Africa’s legal and institutional (constitutional reform) landscape has changed considerably since 1994. The Constitution ensures a distinct division of powers between the judiciary and the executive. The AfriMAP report (2005:3) informed that even though a lot of progress has been made since 1994, a desired status quo has still not been achieved. Aspects such as the domestication of international law still require complete inclusion through systematic processes (AfriMAP, 2005:3). The report noted that during the “apartheid era” South Africa followed a doctrine of parliamentary sovereignty that suggests Parliament as “supreme law-giver” (AfriMAP, 2005:3). Since 1994, through a comprehensive process of transformation and reform, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, inclusive of the Bill of Rights, became supreme (AfriMAP, 2005:3). The AfriMAP report (2005:25) accounted that there is a general vigorous practice of judicial review and executive action. It however also reports that there has been instances where government was unsuccessful in ruling compliance. The AfriMAP report (2005:25) affirms an instance where legislation was passed that was generally observed as serving the ANC. This legislation was introduced in 2002 and was known as “floor crossing” which allowed Members of Parliament to join other parties. According to the Promotion of Administrative Justice Act (2000), regulations are subject to “judicial review” of “administrative action” under the “common-law system”.

The South African government introduced an Act that requires organisations within government to avail operational information (AfriMAP report, 2005:27). This act is known as the Promotion of Access to Information Act (2000). The AfriMAP report (2005:27) noted that government is not always diligent in terms of compliance to its own laws. Carothers (1998:99) highlighted that criminality and ferocity are two elements that aggressively erode a nation’s patronage towards the philosophy of democracy and is increasingly visible in countries such as South Africa. In addition, nations such as South Africa that is reform-oriented, included crime and corruption diminution to its developmental agenda (Carothers, 1998:99). Therefore, political, economic and social policy developers and scholars no longer observe the rule of law as restorative measure for transitional states, despite its inherent linkages with democracy and capitalism, as the rule of law is based on a non-philosophical, methodological resolution (Carothers, 1998:99).

The rule of law in South Africa, as measured by the Mo Ibrahim Index (2010) confirms that the law plays a fundamental role in this nation. South Africa’s challenges are furthermore explicitly obvious through such measurement and can be highlighted as personal safety, which places this nation almost at the bottom of the countries evaluated. In extracting evidence from the study and subsequently making sense of this nation’s past, it can be deduced that the lack of personal safety in South Africa may have a direct link to the historical legacy of this nation-state.

Throughout the three intents of the political dimension, a central theme that becomes inevitably visible is that of attempts that deliver stagnant results to address issues of distrust, corruption,

safety and security, unequal patterns of delivery and in general to create a better life for all South Africa's citizens. McLennan (2009:20) argues that when service delivery to a nation fails, as is evident in South Africa, the first fundamental approach and remedial action is often to redefine and enhance management practices, governance, systems and the implementation of specialized proficiencies. However, a continued neglect to attach effective service delivery with an innate link to the political dimension will result in sustained failure (McLennan, 2009:20). McLennan (2009:20) is of the opinion that the "politics of delivery" represents the nexus between the position and function of the "state, markets, civil society, business and citizens." Hemson and Owusu-Ampomah (2005:512,513) suggest that service delivery in South Africa stretches beyond the provision of services as it should include: The "redress" of "raised standards of living of the majority of citizens, confirming their citizenship".

Despite the fact that the Mo Ibrahim Index (2010) scores public management in South Africa at (76.5), 1st out of 53 countries, the emphasis that McLennan (2009:20) places on the relation between effective delivery and the political dimension is fundamental as the individuality of the South African public sector as tool to mediate the state's strategic aspirations can be deduced (Eden & Ackermann, 2000). As bureaucratic machinery, with a vested authority within the political dimension (Gumede, 2009:12), the South African government should display an inherent proficiency to establish, enable, lead and manage a conducive, inter-connectedness and robust relationship between the state, markets, civil society, private sector and South African citizens to collectively achieve its developmental goals. In recognising the patterns of emergent strategizing, McLennan (2009:20) warns against replicating unequal patterns of delivery that continue to produce the same results of omission and relegation. It can be inferred that current bureaucratic practices (decision making, thinking, action assumed, work protocol and problem solving techniques) may not promote inclusivity. It will be investigated through a focus group session to ascertain whether the existing organisational culture enables the promotion of inclusivity or exclusion and marginalisation.

Chapter 3, paragraph 3 explores South Africa's economic dimension and in particular the country's economic growth and facilitation of redistribution as intents to the economic landscape. It will simultaneously investigate whether there are any patterns that suggest competencies or core competencies relevant to the South African public sector Senior Management Service (SMS).

3. THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA'S ECONOMIC DIMENSION

The essence, that distinguishes South Africa and its developing, economic standing from the majority of states on the African continent, resembles a comparatively small measure of international "debt"; "high levels of domestic investment capital"; substantial "foreign currency reserves"; industrial resources; and mineral reserves (Heller, 2001:134). South Africa's economic profile therefore encourages a moderated reliance on international markets for monetary,

products, goods and services aid (Heller, 2001:134). Despite Heller's buoyant reflections, the following two sections make reference to "two economies" that exist in the economic dimension of South Africa and the fundamental challenges that it induces within the socio-economic dimension of this nation. Factual data disclose whether the South African state, and then by inference its bureaucracy, displays an aptitude to narrow the fissure that exists between these two economies and in addition to such a contribution enabled better living conditions for the poorest of the poor.

3.1 Economic growth

Fan et al. (2008:47) emphasise the fact that the ability of a nation to develop and present an enabling economic environment is largely influenced and shaped by historical and institutional "exogenous" force-fields. Fan et al. (2008:47) note that a typical example in South Africa is presented through socio-economic inequalities and high crime rates that have a direct link to the "legacy of apartheid". Van Schalkwyk (2005) reminds of Mr Mbeki, a former President of the Republic of South Africa's economic context description. Mr Mbeki (2004) noted that the South African economy consists of a first and second economy. Mbeki (2004) and Van Schalkwyk (2005) describe the first economy as reflecting a white dominance and that it is "globally competitive and prosperous". Mbeki (2004) and Van Schalkwyk (2005) pronounced the second economy as primarily "non-white, under-employed or unemployed and significantly excluded from the benefits of our economy". In 2007, the previous Minister of Finance, Mr Trevor Manuel, suggested that South Africa's "new growth paths" will display two distinct influences as part of its profile. The first stimulus is that the "new growth paths" will recognise the nation's history and the second impetus will denote indigenous and global innovation that forms a nexus between South Africa's history and its future as developmental state (Manuel, 2007:1). Manuel (2007:2) describes South Africa as a "mineral-rich, exporting" economy. Reflecting on South Africa's historical legacy, Manuel (2007:2) states that "apartheid" limited citizen's access to the economy; it presented a disabled public sector that was reliant on obsolete models and frameworks with an inability to execute public policy and incapacity to deal with the requirements of the larger South African population (Manuel, 2007:3). Micro and macro reforms shaped the South African economic landscape in the first years of the new ANC-led government and were expressed in the RDP (Manuel, 2007:3). A "growth-oriented fiscal contraction" promoted economic growth during the period 1996 to 2000 as it "lowered financial cost of the budget deficit" (Manuel 2007:3). Manuel (2007:3) notes fiscal and macro-economic modifications which resulted in "investment and growth in productivity". Fan et al. (2008:42) emphasise that government systems and therefore regulation should display a propensity to include execution. Fan et al. (2008:42) are of the opinion that in instances where regulation is composite and sometimes unattainable, bureaucracies, government officials and judicial bodies do not enforce such regulations in a diligent, efficient, transparent, predictable and honest manner which in turn has negative results.

Fan et al. (2008:5) and the World Bank (2005) define an investment climate as a formal, policy directed, governed and monitored setting within which organisations function as a spring board for economic success. Economic and political strength and constancy, rule of law, methodology to rule, infrastructure, control and taxes, performance of a workforce and economic markets and elements of governance (with corruption as secondary factor) are strategic factors in the investment market (Fan, et al., 2008:5). Agarwal, (1980), Tsai (1994), Billington (1999) and Chakrabarti (2001) extrapolate and indicate that a country's market size is of significant importance to attract inward or Foreign Direct Investment (FDI). Fan et al. (2008:5) and the World Bank (2007) reveal that South Africa ranks 29th on the list of 175 countries displaying an advantageous investment landscape and therefore require substantial scope for improvement. The Africa Competitiveness Report (2009) ranks South Africa, as part of Sub-Saharan Africa, 2nd amongst African countries with a score of (4.4). According to the World Economic Forum (2009), competitive business in Africa has a lot of room for improvement. The World Economic Forum (2009) suggests two short term and three longer term policy themes to support "competitiveness in African economies". The short term themes are introduced as: "Increasing access to finance through market-enabling policies"; and "keeping markets open to trade." The three long term themes are introduced as: "Infrastructure remains one of the top constraints to businesses in Africa"; "inefficient basic education and healthcare systems constrain Africa's productive potential"; and "more examples of good governance and strong and visionary leadership are needed". South Africa ranks 54th with a score of (4.32) against the Global Competitiveness measure with Switzerland in a 1st position with a score of (5.63) and Zimbabwe in 136th ranking with a score of (3.03) and Chad in 139th ranking with a score of (2.73). As stated by the World Economic Forum's (2010/11:10), income threshold for establishing stages of development, South Africa is a stage 2 nation where the stage of development is "efficiency driven" as opposed to a stage 1 nation, such as Zimbabwe, where the stage of development is "factor driven" and a stage 3 nation, such as Switzerland, who's stage of development is "innovation driven". The Global Competitiveness Report (2010/11:10) presents stage 2 nation's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita at an average of between 3,000 - 9,000 US\$. Fan et al. (2008:7) refer to survey rates that point to a macro-economic instability as second highest concern in South Africa. The Britannica Concise Encyclopaedia Online describe macro-economics as "the entire economy in terms of the total amount of goods and services produced total income earned, level of employment of productive resources, and general behaviour of prices. The goals of macro-economic policy include economic growth, price stability, and full employment". In addition to macro-economic instability, Fan et al. (2008:8) highlight obtainability and cost of a skilled labour force as additional challenges within South Africa's economic dimension. A former Deputy President of the Republic of South Africa, Me. Mlambo-Ngcuka (2007) announced that, despite the fact that South Africa's economic dimension displays unparalleled economic growth, the advantages thereof have not transmuted to sufficient "employment creation" and "shared development" that focus on poverty alleviation. The Quarterly Labour Force Survey (2008:10) defines unemployment as "an extreme situation of total lack of work. Less extreme situations of partial lack of work are all embodied within the broader concept of employment, defined as

engagement in any economic activity for at least one hour during the survey period. “In line with the Quarterly Labour Force Survey (2008:12) and Key Indicators of the Labour Market, an unemployment rate is commonly used to measure the unabridged accomplishments of the economy and the labour market.” The International Labour Organisation denotes that a labour challenge in developing countries presents itself as a “lack of decent and productive work” and not necessarily as unemployment.

A positive achievement in South Africa is the implementation of best practice through its South African Revenue Service (SARS) as government organisation and its ability to reach consensus on the reforms required to improve tax service operations. Fan et al. (2008:74) are furthermore of the opinion that the SARS model of a “corporate tax system” contributed to the reduction of policy uncertainty and a reaffirmation of trust. Fan et al. (2008:74) simultaneously single the case of the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA) out to depict how government and stakeholders can implement data and tools (“detailed diagnostics and analytical frameworks”) to ascertain reform priorities.

South Africa’s Macro-economic Strategy (2005), better known as Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) explains that elevated, sustained economic growth should display a transformation towards a “competitive outward-oriented economy”. Four critical contributing factors towards socio-economic growth in South Africa are noted as:

- “A competitive, fast growing economy which creates sufficient jobs for all work seekers”;
- “A redistribution of income and opportunities in favour of the poor”;
- “A society in which sound health, education and other services are available to all”; and
- “An environment in which homes are secure and places of work are productive.”

South Africa’s Macro-economic Strategy (2005) or GEAR was not developed in isolation from the country’s Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), (1994) as it kept the objectives of the RDP aligned to the GEAR (2005) vision.

Gumede and Dikene (2009:4) recognise external force-fields such as the global financial recession to offer both a challenge and opportunity to the South African economic dimension. As said by Gumede and Dikene (2009:4), the global financial predicament offers South Africa an opportunity to revise its own economy and simultaneously provide innovative solutions towards re-designing the global economy. Despite sound fiscal and monetary policies, McLennan (2008:3) notes that the South African economic dimension still does not offer a relief for the poorest of the poor and substantial job creation. Fan et al. (2008:91,95) observe that the larger population continue to exist in destitution with high unemployment percentages and inadequate access to crucial services such as education and health as critical socio-economic challenges, even though the ANC directed government launched the South African economy in the global arena and continues to strengthen its public finances through steady, annual reform processes.

Considering South Africa's economic growth as intent to the economic dimension within its developmental landscape, it can be deduced that this nation wrestles with unique economic complexities. The reality of two concurrent economies is evident as each economy articulates a different status of wellbeing. The first economy displays the positive results of having a mineral rich, exporting market and an ability to grow and compete favourably in the global economic arena. South Africa's second economy however, exhibits severe challenges such as extreme poverty and unemployment or underemployment as it is influenced and directed by exogenous force-fields.

3.2 Facilitation of redistribution

Chapter 2 of this mini-dissertation alerted to a country such as India whose benefits of economic growth do not reach 65% of the Indian population. As asserted by a former Deputy President, Me. Mlambo-Ngcuka (2007), South Africa faces the exact same challenge. Fiscal growth, as an economic dimension intent will not support the facilitation of redistribution on its own (Edigheji, 2007b:11). The ANC and the South African government are mindful and deliberate in terms of the distributional outcomes of its policies as equity and redistribution receives considerable attention (Edigheji, 2007b:11). Such sensitivity, heed and mindfulness was clearly visible in the White Paper on the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RSA, 1994), and the White Paper on Developmental Social Welfare (RSA, 1997) as this social dimension intent exemplifies South Africa's obligation to foster a more just and equal society in which a stable progress is made in tapering the fissure between "rich and poor, black and white, men and women, rural and urban" (Manuel, 2007:11). In 2001, a former President of the Republic of South Africa, Mr T. Mbeki introduced the Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) programme as macro-economic strategy to the RDP. However, regardless of a visionary alignment between the RDP and GEAR, the challenge was that the RDP had the state at the centre of development and GEAR had its focus on stringent fiscal and monetary targets, i.e., "the market" (Edigheji, 2007ba:10). According to Edigheji (2007b:11), South African social policy has diminished citizens to "consumers, clients and users" which had a direct influence on state-society relations. McLennan (2008:4) highlights that South Africa's socio-economic initiatives, given its particular history of minority domination and inequalities are essentially underpinned by the higher aim of the facilitation of "redistribution, social justice, poverty alleviation and economic growth". McLennan (2008:5,6) is of the opinion that socio-economic initiatives, aimed at creating "a better life for all the citizens of South Africa" should initiate and institutionalise innovation to free a system from traditionally accustomed authoritative performance and dispersal. McLennan (2008:6) proposes that the bureaucracy should display a deep seated comprehension and interpretation of the politics of delivery, a non-complacent, inquisitive nature to the nexus between government, markets, civil society, industry, communities and citizens to continuously implement innovative socio-economic interventions that deliver the desired results. McLennan (2008:20) remarks that merely "policy-literate", methodical communities are capable of interpreting "formal pathways" of administrative consultation and intervention that spearheads "enhanced service delivery" to the poorest and most relegated.

Minister Chabane (2010:1,2) affirms that almost two decades into a new democracy, South Africa continues to deal with the challenges of “significant levels of poverty, joblessness and inequality, despite increased expenditure over the years towards improvement of the lives of our people”. Minister Chabane (2010:3) indicated that the South African government’s strategy and “intent” to address the aforementioned challenges through creating “a better life for all” are “informed by the election manifesto of the ruling party which identified 5 priorities namely: education, health, creation of decent work and sustainable livelihoods, rural development and the fight against crime and corruption, government translated these priorities into the Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2009-2014”. As stated by Chabane (2010:3), the 5 priorities are translated into action through the 12 Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2009-2014 outcomes.

It is evident from paragraph 3.2 that facilitation of redistribution has an intrinsic association with South Africa’s second economy and the challenges connected to it by historical association. It is furthermore apparent that the South African nation-state is severely affected by poverty and an inability to redirect the profits gained from a rapidly growing economy to benefit the nation evenly and particularly the poorest of the poor. It can be concluded that such redistribution remains to be a high priority of South Africa’s government as its strategic planning documents exhibit a determined focus to work towards poverty alleviation.

The economic dimension of South Africa supplicates an in-depth understanding of the historical legacy of this nation and the scars that it has left. Manuel (2007) explains that new growth paths can only be explored once indigenous and global innovation forms the nexus between South Africa’s history and its future. With reference to Table 3.1, it can be inferred that it is at this exact connection of indigenous and global innovation, where the 5 priorities of the ANC Election Manifesto and the 12 Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2009-2014 outcomes may thrust a positive, inclusive, government enabled, and redistribution with a rapid growing South African economy.

The vehicle and enabler impelling South Africa’s strategic aspirations are visible in Table 3.1 as the public sector. Its distinct position and individuality compel government to facilitate, lead, promote and **innovate** towards an inclusive environment that comprises South Africa’s markets, civil society, industry, communities and citizens. In recognising emergent patterns, as the study at this point pursues a connection with distinct competencies or distinct core competencies, the following can be construed from the facts and scholarly efforts as it presented itself through this study in the South Africa’s economic dimension. Manuel (2007:1) suggests indigenous and global innovation as stimulus to new growth paths. Gumede and Dikene (2009:4) recognise an opportunity for the South African public sector, through the global financial recession, for innovative solutions in revising its own economy and re-designing the global economy. McLennan (2008:5,6) asserts that socio-economic initiatives should initiate and institutionalise innovation to free a system from traditionally accustomed authoritative performance and dispersal.

Table 3.1: New growth paths: Indigenous and global innovation as nexus between South Africa's history and its future
(Manuel, 2007 and Cabinet statement, 2010).



South Africa's history

MTSF (2009-2014) Outcomes	ANC Election Manifesto Priorities
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**South African public sector (enabler),
Significant role players: Markets, civil society, industry, communities and citizens.**

1. An efficient, effective and **development oriented public service** and an empowered, fair and **inclusive citizenship**.
2. An efficient, competitive and responsive economic **infrastructure** network.
3. Responsive, accountable, effective and efficient **local government** system.
4. Skilled and capable workforce to support an inclusive growth path.

- | | |
|---|---|
| 5. Quality basic education . | 1. Education . |
| 6. A long and healthy life for all South Africans. | 2. Health . |
| 7. Decent employment through inclusive economic growth. | 3. Creation of decent work and sustainable livelihoods . |
| 8. Vibrant, equitable, sustainable rural communities contributing towards food security for all. | 4. Rural development . |
| 9. All people in South Africa are and feel safe . | 5. Fight against crime and corruption . |

10. Sustainable **human settlements** and improved quality of household life.
11. Protect and enhance our **environmental** assets and natural resources.
12. Create a **better South Africa**, a better **Africa** and a better **world**.

South Africa's future



Section 4 explores South Africa's social dimension, nation-building and national identity, social equality and social capital as intents related to this dimension. It refers to an interactive relationship with the political and economic dimensions present in the developmental landscape.

4. THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA'S SOCIAL DIMENSION

White (1995:31) and Gumede (2009:44) contend that the core of a democratic, developmental state stretches far beyond a "narrow base of elites". Modern, democratic, developmental states encircle the broader society as social basis and sequentially provide a "range of accountability" (White, 1995:31; Gumede, 2009:44). South Africa's social dimension is of significant importance as it encompasses the dimension of the developmental landscape that largely reveals whether a nation's economic achievements altered living conditions within that state. In exploring South Africa's nation building and national identity, social equality and social capital, facts will reveal the nature of this state's social status.

4.1 Nation-building and national identity

As stated by Chidester, Dexter and James (2003:vii), nation-building is defined as a nation at the exact juncture between "national identity, social cohesion, human coherence" and interplaying national and global force-fields. Koelble (2003:144) notes that the creation of a vivacious public domain relies strongly on a governmental assurance to remain detached from the "politics of associational life", "cultural activity" and the interaction between citizens. According to Koelble (2003:144), the political elite in South Africa have made giant leaps towards the creation of nationhood. In 1998, Mr Thabo Mbeki defined nation-building in the South African context as "our own response would be that nation-building is the construction of the reality and the sense of common nationhood which would result from the abolition of disparities in the quality of life among South Africans based on the racial, gender and geographic inequalities we all inherited from the past." Mbeki (1998) simultaneously made two abstractions to the challenge of nation building in the South African context. The first abstraction was that "it will take time to create the material base for nation building and reconciliation"; and secondly, that the "subjective factor", complemented by the "tangible process" in the formation of "the new material base" will sustain "hope and the conviction" of the citizens that the programme of "nation-building and reconciliation" will prosper. Gumede and Dikene (2009:3) mention that the 1984 Nobel Prize winner, Archbishop Emeritus Desmond Tutu, remarked that "South Africans have lost their idealism and moral direction". A social integrity, entrenched within the South African citizenry that strives for ideals larger than their own capital enrichment seems to be disappearing from the moral fibre and intentions of this nation (Gumede & Dikene, 2009:3). Gumede and Dikene (2009:3) ascribe some of the blame to the Mbeki era where the space and platform for analytical deliberations, philosophical or scholarly restitution and the tolerance for different sentiments were dismissed. Gumede and Dikene (2009:3) simultaneously point out that the legacy of the Mbeki

era will be challenging to repair as Mr Mbeki recognised a societal value system that embraced individual enrichment as personal achievement and accomplishment “at all cost”.

The South African White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (1994) describes the South African nation as follows: “We are a single country, with a single economy, functioning within a constitutional framework that establishes provincial and local powers, respect and protection for minorities, and a process to accommodate those wishing to retain their cultural identity. It is on the basis of our unity in diversity that we will consolidate or national sovereignty.” Schlemmer and Møller (1997:15) described South Africa as one of the most multifaceted societies on the globe. The South African society’s division is noticeable in four particular areas (Schlemmer & Møller, 1997:15). These areas are noted as: “Socio-economic inequality”; “ethnicity”; “race”; and a first (“well established industrialised and commercialised economy”) and second economy (“marginal economy based on subsistence production in traditional rural areas”) (Schlemmer & Møller, 1997:15). In line with Schlemmer and Møller (1997:15), the social indicators of the South African nation and its past are revealed as “caste formation”, shifting coalitions of politically favoured factions and the “reforms”; and an economy that is labelled as a “late starter” amongst global economies.

Despite the fact that the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development (1994) mentioned “one nation” and “one economy” the reality of this nation is that there are “two nations” (Mbeki, 2004) and “two economies” (Mbeki, 2004). Whether examining the political, economic or social dimension of South Africa as democratic, developmental state, the realism and powerlessness of this nation to present one nation and one economy remains embedded in reducing the gap between “rich and poor, black and white, men and women, rural and urban” (Manuel, 2007:11).

4.2 Social equality

South Africa as a nation has triggered countless debates and tabled numerous topical reports on moral issues related to inequalities prevailing within the socio-economic dimension of the nation-state. Such matters concern race, gender, people living with a disability, but the most prominent agenda items are certainly issues of poverty reduction, health, crime reduction and education. Brown (2004) indicates the advent of the new South African democracy as a period of regeneration to replace out-dated hypotheses and philosophies with fresh concepts and workable solutions to address salient and stark inequalities. Brown (2004) and Landman et al. (2003) agree, together with a number of economic and political analysts that out of the then (2003/04), 45 million people, 18 million people have not had the advantage of experiencing South Africa’s growing economy. Along with a report released by Statistics South Africa (2010), the population of the Republic as recorded and released in July 2010 (14:30) was 49 991 300 million citizens, thus an increase of 5 million people in the past 7 years. A deduction can therefore be made that during the 2003/04 period, 40% of the South African population was living in poverty. According to Landman et al. (2003), 15% of South Africa’s citizens were living in desperate poverty and

fought for existence. As identified by Mbeki (2004) and later mentioned by Van Schalkwyk (2005), Brown (2004) also refer to South Africa and its two economies, in tandem with Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) and housing initiatives that still had no substantial effect on poverty relief. Landman et al. (2003) emphasise that the two economies in South Africa are tangible and that a realistic objective would be to recognise that “not all of the poor will be absorbed into the formal or informal economy”. It is therefore necessary to project efforts towards the mitigation of the most severe poverty which the South African government have initiated programmes such as “children’s grants, old age pensions, school feeding programmes and extended health services” (Landman et al., 2003). Brown (2004) affirms residential segregation between townships, rural areas and inner cities and mentioned that townships make social-mobility an arduous undertaking. Brown (2004) highlights the challenges surrounding the South African government’s maximum requirement of a grade 8 and simultaneously a diluted attention to mathematics and science as subjects in some of South Africa’s best schools, let alone competent and skilled mathematics and science teachers that will prepare the next generation for admission to further education. Borat (2003:12-14) and Landman et al. (2003) emphasise that employers are continuously in search of “higher skills levels”, hence the undisputable importance of education and skills development to remain as significant agenda points on labour market strategies. Brown (2004) is of the opinion that the 40% poverty rate in South Africa, visible amongst Blacks and Whites has a direct link to varying returns from education.

Landman et al. (2003) advised that the state has to determine a budgetary balance between social wages and matters of inequalities such as crime reduction, education, infrastructural development, health and promoting a rapidly growing economy. Brown (2004) offers two solutions that could contribute to poverty alleviation in South Africa. These suggestions that he offers are as follows:

- Establish undisturbed cultural and language links between economic development and social mobility; and
- Associate culture with economic empowerment.

The following conclusion is extrapolated from the paragraphs discussing social equality: Inclusive innovation is required to suggest and implement interventions that have a well-defined probability to alleviate poverty with a focus on the 15% of South Africans living in desperate poverty. Initiatives might include higher levels of education and skills levels and the facilitation of cultural and language relations in the socio-economic landscape.

4.3 Social capital

In addition to the definitions noted on social capital in Chapter 2, Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998:243) describe social capital as: “The sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit. Social capital thus comprises both the network and the assets that may

be mobilized through that network". Dekker and Uslaner (2001:2) and Uslaner (1999:2) explained social capital as the significant worth of "social networks", as connecting analogous groups, joining disparate societies through standards and mutuality. Sander (2002:213) gives a particular impetus to the significance of individuals believing that they will achieve more from their social relationships than what they will do from inherent cognitive knowledge and self-reliance. Adler & Kwon (2002) elucidate that the goodwill that others have towards us is: A "valuable resource"; and simultaneously the nucleus that subconsciously influences social capital. Adler and Kwon (2002) therefore define social capital as "the goodwill available to individuals or groups."

Louw (1998) explained that "Ubuntu" is the South African version and essence of social capital. Louw (1998) furthermore related the term "Ubuntu" to a Zulu aphorism "umuntu ngumuntu ngabantu". The aphorism suggests that "a person is a person through (other) persons" Louw (1998) moreover explained that the proverb has a particular religious context in the African culture that suggests that "a person who upholds the principle of Ubuntu in life will in death achieve the unity of those still living". Archbishop Emeritus Desmond Tutu, (1999) described "Ubuntu" as follows: "A person with Ubuntu is open and available to others, affirming of others, does not feel threatened that others are able and good, for he or she has a proper self-assurance that comes from knowing that he or she belongs in a greater whole and is diminished when others are humiliated or diminished, when others are tortured or oppressed". Tutu (1999) further noted that "Ubuntu" relates to the quintessence of being human and that human beings do not exist in isolation from one other. A previous deputy President, Ms Phumzile Mlambo-Ngcuka (2006:1) states that introspection into South Africa as a nation denotes "Ubuntu" as it is "fundamentally about the soul of the South African nation". Mlambo-Ngcuka (2006:1) reminds of a previous President of the Republic of South Africa, Mr Nelson Mandela's call when he spoke of the Reconstruction and Development Programme "(RDP) of the Soul". Mlambo-Ngcuka (2006:1) refers to "Ubuntu" as an "effort to find the right formula for social cohesion, national reconciliation and in defining our national identity".

It is inferred that the fibre and nature of the South African nation's social capital lies entrenched in the belief system that individuals do not exist in isolation from each other and this nation's individuals therefore have access to the valuable resource of networks and its assets.

The realism and powerlessness of the South African nation lies fixed in the disparities and inequalities inferred through a historical legacy. Inclusive networks (public sector, private sector and citizens), its associated assets and innovative initiatives may provide turnkey solutions to poverty reduction with a focus on the poorest of the poor.

The South African public sector is positioned in such a way that it has the ability to create the stage where inclusive networks can produce innovative initiatives and solutions to address the historical challenges left by its own past and that will have an involuntary positive effect on the socio-political and socio-economic dimensions of this nation.

5. CONCLUSION

The following unequivocal deductions can be made from the data captured in Chapter 3 as the paradigmatic evolution of South Africa as democratic, developmental state. South Africa is internationally admired for its Constitution and included Bill of Rights, for it is thorough and all encompassing legislation supported by revolutionary, innovative and inter-linked programmes to address internal socio-political and socio-economic challenges. It is similarly admired for the honourable way in which the nation got together to perform its first, and those thereafter, democratic elections and hence visibly celebrated one of the core confirmations of being a democratic nation. But, a reminder from scholars point out that “one man one vote” doesn’t necessarily imply that the nation has indeed transformed into a democracy and is democratic to its deepest core. Transformation and reform within the South African nation is evident as it is propelled by the philosophy of an unwavering National Democratic Revolution. Judiciary structures and statures are undeniably first-class and in place to support the rule of law in South Africa, but as exorbitant crime rates and corruption are reflected back to the populace through the media, it opens a new debate of inequality and poverty noticeably present in this nation. South Africa’s two economies create a multifaceted environment that begs for parallel processes of continuous solution driven development. A litmus test of results driven achievement provides undisputable, negative evidence in that what the state set out do, “to create a better life for all” is reaching 40% of the nation’s most poverty stricken citizens. Pockets of excellence such as the South African Revenue Services have made their appearance but an enquiry remains whether such excellence should not be the norm as opposed to the exception to the rule in a state that wishes to achieve a rapidly growing economy from which dire inequalities and the facilitation of redistribution may be addressed? Social equality hauls a host of challenges with it and it appears that education in the nation falls short of embedding a culture of life-long learning and preparing a youth to contribute to a globally recognised state. But as Evans (1999:2) rightfully pointed out “hard won edifices constantly under construction” as transformation and reform continues.

Chapter 4 delineates public sector competence, the concept of competencies, proficiency levels and its desired outcomes. It will introduce the importance of distinct competencies, distinct core competencies and proficiency levels within bureaucratic organisations but simultaneously alerts to the fact that it is merely one of the elements that contribute towards a state’s developmental success. The chapter will display the Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework (LDMSF), designed, developed and introduced by the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa), as a guideline that supports public service departments in a coherent manner towards comparable “Organisational Performance Management”. Specific emphasis will be placed on the Leadership Management Competency Framework (LMC), as demonstrated in the LDMSF to examine the competencies displayed therein at a close range and to establish these competencies public sector uniqueness. The chapter will mention the uninterrupted implementation of dynamic management and leadership skills development within the public sector amongst Senior Management Services (SMS) through the Public Administration

Leadership and Management Academy's (PALAMA) mandate and subsequent implementation of management and leadership programmes.

Chapter 4

AN APTITUDE TO EXCELL AS A PUBLIC SECTOR SENIOR MANAGER

“Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense, lie in three words, - health, peace, and competence”

A. Pope (1688 – 1744)

1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 revealed that South Africa is discerned by distinct economic features that ascribe a leadership status amongst its peers on the Continent of Africa. During the introductory paragraphs of Chapter 3, the researcher recorded internal and external force-fields that largely impacted on the socio-economic and socio-political circumstances of the South African nation. With reference to the addition of scholarly efforts, it became obvious, early on in the Chapter, that none of the landscape dimensions extant within this developmental state may be explored without an explicit and fundamental relation to South Africa's history.

Literature and therefore intellectual efforts soon revealed that the economic complexities within South Africa are packaged into two economies by a former President, Mr Mbeki (2004). Through this nation's historical association, each one of these two economies reveal a particular nature and character that either connects the economy with affluence and prosperity or with destitution and dire poverty. Over the past sixteen years of democracy, the South African leadership and related public sector was unable to create and promote an environment where significant role players such as markets, private sector, civil society and citizens could collectively negotiate South Africa's second economy to benefit from its rapidly growing first economy. Manuel (2007) elucidates that endeavours to offer future, innovative economic solutions in South Africa should have its origins in the nation's history with recognition of the challenges that this unique past has unleashed within the state. This study therefore recognises that a number of complex internal and external factors have an influence on whether the space between South Africa's first and second economies are narrowed and whether the second economy benefits from a precipitously, budding first economy. One of the most critical internal factors to achieve the state's developmental goals is its public sector's aptitude to be a significant stakeholder, authority and negotiator within the South African developmental landscape.

Based on the fact that Chapter 4's primary investigation relates to the South African public sector senior management and its ability, capacity or aptitude to negotiate and redress significant areas of developmental importance in the socio-economic arena, it is critical to note that the newly appointed political leadership suggests fundamental changes to the existing approach.

The public sector senior management plays a unique and important role, that of initiator, enabler, negotiator and leader within South Africa as democratic, developmental state. The role that the public sector adopts signifies that of a vehicle or enabler that should facilitate the developmental priorities and outcomes of South Africa as democratic, developmental state. Chapter 3 provided the background, essential facts and data from which the researcher will extrapolate key features that support the process of competency identification relevant to senior management in the South African public sector.

Conceding the fact that a bureaucracy's competence is merely one of the elements that contribute to a state's developmental success, Chapter 4 sources a further investigation, into specific data of South Africa's public sector and its senior management competence on the data gathered in Chapter 3, as background. Chapter 4 investigates the different intricacies associated with a public sector that prepares itself to manage and lead in a democratic, developmental landscape as follows: It considers the unique role of South Africa's public sector within a modern democratic, developmental landscape; it considers the unique role of South Africa's public sector senior management within the state; it defines competence, the concept of competence, proficiency levels and existing competence models through scholarly efforts and subsequently select a suitable systemic approach through which apt competencies, supportive of South Africa's public sector senior management can be defined.

In constituting these broader areas, Chapter 4 attempts to address the primary questions that underpin this research study. These questions can be typified as follows: What is expected from a South African public sector senior manager? How are these expectations measured, external to the workplace and internally? Which senior management competencies are currently highlighted as core to the efficient and effective functioning of the South African public sector Senior Management Service (SMS)? Which public sector senior management competencies are highlighted through the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state? Are there similarities and disparities between the current South African public sector senior management competencies and the competencies highlighted through the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state?

The secondary questions that will be addressed in Chapter 4 are stated as follows: What is the role of competencies in a democratic developmental state? What does the development of competencies in a democratic, developmental state entail?

In addition to the deductions that will be extrapolated from the data that is gathered in Chapter 4, it concludes with an example of the uninterrupted implementation of dynamic management and leadership skills development within the South African public sector amongst Senior Management Services (SMS) through the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy's (PALAMA) mandate in collaboration with South African Higher Education Institutions and subsequent implementation of management and leadership programmes.

2. A PUBLIC SECTOR PREPARING TO MANAGE AND LEAD IN A DEMOCRATIC, DEVELOPMENTAL LANDSCAPE

Considering the data gathered throughout this study, a myriad of supportive elements shape the centre of Chapter 4. The facts gathered, simultaneously provide a spring-board from which Chapter 4 will construct and elucidate an exploratory study into the required South African,

developmental, public sector senior management proficiencies to theorise and substantiate an inclusive, enabling, modern Administration. Prominent features of South Africa's developmental landscape, such as the political, economic and social dimensions (inclusive of their intents) directed important points for consideration in the process of competency identification. As a point of departure, Chapter 4 deliberates South Africa's eight Millennium Development Goals and each goal's distinct targets. The chapter furthermore reflects on Table 3.1, in Chapter 3, as it denotes the following four Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2009/2014 outcomes for consideration as: "An efficient, effective and development oriented public service and an empowered, fair and inclusive citizenship"; "An efficient, competent and responsive economic infrastructure network"; "responsive, accountable, effective and efficient local government system; and a skilled and capable workforce to support an inclusive growth path". Manuel's (2007) indigenous and global innovation, as nexus between South Africa's history and its future, features a prominent factor for consideration to map new growth paths. For purposes of clarity, henceforth, the term public sector will include all three spheres of government.

2.1 Considering the unique role of South Africa's public sector within a modern democratic, developmental landscape

The conceptualisation and interpretation of the unique role of South Africa's public sector within a democratic, developmental landscape may not be constructed without an appreciation and an insight into its position against continuous transformation, as transformation has been an active internal force-field since 1994, and still is. It is therefore critical to concede the precariousness of a continuous state of change and the role of a "high performance" organisation that enables the achievement of South Africa's developmental goals. If recognition is given to a continuous state of change, apperception should also be assumed to organisation building. An absolute inference can be made that the Administration should hence display an adaptive, flexibility and alacrity (Harvey & Brown, 2001:8) that facilitates performance driven, goal achievement. Both the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995) and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) initiated the blueprint of the exclusive context within which the democratic, South African public sector has to fulfil a major role. Section 195(1) of the Constitution explicitly outlines that the authority of the public sector should be underpinned by democratic values and principles.

Pondering on South Africa as a "late developer" in the developmental context, and that it might not display the original, authentic developmental characteristics, it is important to remark that this developmental state simultaneously exhibits receptacles of modern, developmental features as well as areas for significant improvement. Areas for considerable enhancement are particularly discerned in the nation's socio-economic dimensions that are affected by the disposition of its past in relation to the state's expectations of its future. When probing deeper into the characteristics of a "soft or weak" developmental state (Fukuyama, 2004:ix&x; Stiglitz, 2003:34) against a "hard or strong" developmental state (Rai, 1996:29), it appears as if the features

exemplifying the latter would significantly enable South Africa towards the achievements of its developmental goals. Such features, as already displayed, would represent a hybrid of strategic and intentional relationships between different departments within the Administration, between the public and private sectors, communities and citizens. “Strong state” features would furthermore include a robust, resolute, optimally functioning, results oriented, streamlined civil community that is closely controlled and held accountable. It would simultaneously embody an independent media and judiciary. A powerful industrial sector will visibly contribute to South Africa’s sustained economic growth. The state will no longer grapple with internal issues in the political dimension that includes intra-elite challenges, education, health and land reform. It can be deduced from previous chapters that even though South Africa’s public sector may display pockets of excellence, it does not yet, fully represent the physiognomies of a strong or hard state which might either signal a number of internal movements on a political and structural level, or it might present a number of related challenges that might hamper the bureaucracy’s ability to achieve the developmental goals of South Africa.

Previous chapters concurrently provided suggested evidence of an uncompromised, affiliated agreement between political elites and academic scholars such as, Low (2004:12), Mbeki (2004), Manuel (2007:1), McLennan (2008:5,6), Fan et al. (2008:47), Edigheji (2009:61), Evans (2009:1) and Rozman (2009:1), that a nation’s future is fundamentally assembled through its own, unique past. Chapter 3 alluded to the exclusive, historical journey of South Africa as a nation. Therefore, Chapter 4, cognisant of political elites and academic scholar’s contributions, re-collects the national bequests as it considers the unique role of South Africa’s public sector within a modern, democratic, developmental landscape. Whilst recognising its unique socio-economic challenges, South Africa engaged in an active process through the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to address each challenge. South Africa’s Millennium Development Goals are as follows:

- Goal 1: “Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger”
- Goal 2: “Achieve universal primary education”
- Goal 3: “Promote gender equality and empower women”
- Goal 4: “Reduce child mortality”
- Goal 5: “Improve maternal health”
- Goal 6: “Combat HIV and Aids, malaria and other diseases”
- Goal 7: “Ensure environmental sustainability”
- Goal 8: “Develop a global partnership for development”

South Africa’s Mid Term Country Report (2007) on the Millennium Development Goals indicated that the country is in a position to achieve the set goals as originally determined, by 2015, but that there are persistent challenges such as: Household numbers that are rising at a more rapid pace than the rate of population growth, which suggests that the South African government’s tasks and responsibility simultaneously grow and that the challenges are evidently larger than initially planned for. In addition to South Africa’s exponentially growing internal challenges, the nation-

state concurrently has to find solutions to global force-fields such as an international recession that did not exclude this country from its tight grip.

The socio-economic challenges that still haunt the South African nation, after 16 years of democracy, are poverty, unemployment, underdevelopment, marginalisation of people and communities, safety and security, pockets of deprivation, difference in the provision of infrastructure and services in urban versus rural communities, and issues of health and education (McLennan, 2009:35,41; Gumede, 2009:45; Everatt, 2009:186).

The Presidency issued a draft document on Measurable Performance and Accountable Delivery (2010) against the 12 outcomes, as listed in the Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) (2009-2014) that provides evidence of a significant decline in South Africa's citizenry's satisfaction in terms of basic service delivery. As stated in the draft document on Measurable Performance and Accountable Delivery (2010:107) the satisfaction rate has dropped from 81% in 2004 to 58% in 2009. The draft document (2010:107) furthermore alerts to a "persistent underperformance by management, slow bureaucratic decision making and processes and corrupt behaviour" which all contribute to citizen's dissatisfaction. The draft document on Measurable Performance and Accountable Delivery (2010:107) alludes to "sub-optimal" systems that support "back offices" and human resources that have a direct, negative effect on nation building and national identity. Four outputs are suggested to deliberately address the core of the challenge, i.e., a public sector that is not yet efficient, effective, development oriented and that promotes an empowered, fair and inclusive citizenship (2010:107). These outputs are displayed as follows:

- "Service delivery quality";
- "Human Resource administration and accountability management";
- "Business processes, systems and decision rights"; and
- "Tracking corruption in the public service".

The draft document on Measurable Performance and Accountable Delivery (2010:107) defines outcome 12 of the Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) (2009-2014) as that "an efficient and effective public sector capacity is essential for government to deliver services and subsequently achieve more with less." The draft document further expands the hypothesis of "more with less" by suggesting that the budgets related to service delivery should reduce whilst the quality of services to the citizens should increase substantially (2010:108). The lead ambition behind this proposition is to transform South Africa's bureaucracy into a "high performance organisation" (2010:108). The draft document on Measurable Performance and Accountable Delivery (2010:108) affirms South Africa's public sector as a "key influencer of citizenship".

In a renewed effort to consciously address these dilemmas, a Cabinet statement (2010:1,2) on "New Growth Paths" further strengthens the South African Government's commitment to address the socio-economic challenges associated with its second economy when it announces "employment" to be "at the centre of government's economic policy". The statement denotes six

key sectors and activities which the Administration has identified to place the nation's economy on a production-led path. The six key sectors and activities are identified as follows:

- “Infrastructure, through massive expansion of transport, energy, water, communications capacity and housing, underpinned by a strong focus on domestic industry to supply the components for the build-programmes”;
- “The agriculture value chain, with a particular focus on expanding farm-output and employment and increasing the agro-processing sector”;
- “The mining value chain, with a particular emphasis on mineral beneficiation as well as on increasing the rate of minerals extraction”; and
- “The green economy, with programmes in green energy, component manufacture and services”.

Graham (1998:73) informed that Green politics consist of 4 basic pillars. These pillars are tabled as:

Table 4.1: The four basic pillars of Green politics (Graham, 1998:73).

Ecology	Understanding nature's interconnected webs that lead to holistic network-thinking and acting
Social responsibility	Social justice incorporated within national and international class concerns
Grass roots democracy	Decentralised, non-hierarchical participatory blends of direct and representative democracy
Non-violence	Rejection of personal and structural violence; Occasional civil disobedience (Spretnak and Capra, 1984).

An example is mentioned here of a Cluster-associated, inter-departmental partnership in the South African bureaucracy that is similar to the China and Botswana examples mentioned in earlier chapters. This partnership is known as the Renewable Energy and Energy Efficiency Partnership (REEEP). The Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2009-2014 makes reference to the National Framework for Sustainable Development (NFSD) to emphasize the importance of a sustainable development trajectory as a key priority of the South African nation. Members of the Economic Sector and Employment Cluster undertook the leadership as an example of partnership between government institutions. These departments are: Economic development; Environmental Affairs; Science and Technology; and Trade and Industry National Treasury, Energy, Public Works, Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries as well as the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) and the South African Cities Network (SACN). As documented in the Green Economy Summit, 18-20 May 2010, discussion document (2010:5), South Africa's green economy is defined as “a system of economic activities related to the production, distribution and consumption of goods and services that result in improved human well-being over the long term, while not exposing future generations to significant environmental risks or ecological scarcities.”

- “Manufacturing sectors in ⁷IPAP₂”; and
- “Tourism and certain high-level services.”

⁷ IPAP₂: Industrial Policy Action Plan.

In addition to the identified six key sectors that are earmarked as major contributors to the “New Growth Paths”, the cabinet statement commits the nation, as a collective, to address unemployment, inequality and poverty through job increases, mainly in the private sector. The projected target for unemployment reduction is from 25% to 15% during the next ten years. The South African Cabinet authorised a cohesive collection of macroeconomic and microeconomic mediations to promote a rapid and inclusive growth.

It is evident at this juncture that South Africa’s political elites are suggesting a novel approach to address the socio-economic dilemmas inherent to this nation and that fundamental paradigm shifts, in the applied methodology is about to take place. An archetypical transferal from an individualist approach to a more inclusive methodology is noticeable as political heads initiate and suggest an inclusion of all the significant key role players (public sector, private sector, communities and citizens) to collaborate in the nation-state’s efforts of achieving its developmental goals in a sustained modus, and as a collective. The question that arises from the latter intention, relates to the politically directed bureaucracy and the unique role that this sector has to play in such a state of change. Is the South African public sector prepared and equipped to assume its new leadership role as inclusive conscious, cross departmental, cross sectorial, intervention initiator that has the substance to achieve the developmental goals and subsequently make a significant contribution towards the nation’s socio economic challenges? At a Public Service Trainers Forum (2009), Minister Baloyi identified 10 characteristics of public servants performing in a democratic, developmental bureaucracy. Public servants and then in particular the senior manager cadre is required to display the following qualities:

- “Breaking new ground”;
- “Inspiring success”;
- “Raising the standard”;
- “Nothing is impossible”;
- “Will never use policy and resource constraints as an excuse for poor service delivery”;
- “Making a difference to the lives of people”;
- “Collective responsibility and teamwork”;
- “On board”;
- “Ability to identify early warnings; and
- “International activism”.

Minister Baloyi (2010:4) announced that “the building of a democratic, developmental state and meeting the expectations of all our citizens is central to the aims of the new administration, voted into power in April 2009. We need to develop the technical capacity and ethos that will ensure these aims and objectives are translated into action.”

Mandated as the management and leadership training organisation within the South African public sector, the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy’s (PALAMA)

Annual Report (2009/10:11) highlight four key qualities that South Africa as developmental state should display. These key features are tabled as follows:

- “Government’s strategic orientation is **people centred** and driven”;
 - “Put people first in everything that it does”;
 - “Responding to people’s needs efficiently and effectively in a caring manner.”
- “Government’s **leadership capacity** is capable of defining a national agenda”;
 - “Mobilising society for its buy-in and implementation”;
 - “Acknowledging that the state requires the support and involvement of all of society in moving forward”;
 - “The state accepts the responsibility to lead in the developmental agenda it has defined whilst similarly ensuring that society at large is on board.”
- “Government’s **organisational capacity**, including its systems and structures, will allow for it not only to define the national agenda and mobilize society around its implementation, but will also allow the state to become an active player in the economic trajectory of the country”;
- “The state’s **technical capacity** is willing and able to translate aims and objectives into action and delivers in a manner serving the national interests of the country.”

In the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy’s (PALAMA) Annual Report (Baloyi, 2009/10:11), Minister Baloyi isolates 10 key areas around which PALAMA will design capacity building programmes to support the South African, developmental bureaucracy. The disciplines should include:

- Public sector cadre development programme;
- Ethics, anti-corruption and administrative justice training;
- Management and leadership development;
- Breaking barriers to Public Service employment;
- Human, financial, project and programme management;
- Building the capacity of public servants to implement programmes through skills development and deployment to the coal face of service delivery;
- Frontline and support staff training;
- Support local government turn-around strategy through training;
- Monitoring and evaluation training; and
- Continental and international capacity building.

Chapter 3 of this mini-dissertation revealed how President Zuma (2009) defines the nature of his Administration as that it would relentlessly pursue, through a steadfast, indefatigable mission, a better life for the citizens of South Africa. Details are recorded of an Administration that is equipped to execute democratic principles as it is directed by resolute, inventive leadership. Gumede (2009,12) attributes authority to the South African public sector that would facilitate and lead an inter-connectedness and inclusivity amongst role players and stakeholders in the democratic, developmental state whilst McLennan (2009:20) alerts against repeating out-dated

blueprints that will inevitably continue to deliver the same, undesired consequences of exclusion and discrimination. Manuel (2007:1), Gumede and Dikene (2009:4) and McLennan (2008:5,6) necessitate a South African public sector that can present home-grown and international innovation as inducement to new growth paths initiated by political leadership.

Thus far, Chapter 4 alluded to the architecture of a bureaucracy, crafted and led by political elite that outlines a conspicuous role for South Africa's public sector, in order to achieve the country's developmental goals. The fundamental foundation against which a "high performance" public sector will be built, adopts the shape of an enabling, aerodynamic organisation that manages and leads inclusive affiliations and collaborations to achieve the developmental goals of the nation that it serves. Harrison (2005:195) ascribes four attributes to a "high performance" organisation that functions admirably and competently in a multifaceted, volatile environment. These attributes are: "high-trust, high-discretion, high ambition and flexibility". The foundation of such a civil community would furthermore exhibit formidable traits of being vigorous, decisive, performance driven, results oriented, controlled, accountable and fundamentally honest. It can be deduced that in order for the South African public sector to address this nation's socio economic adversities, it will have to demonstrate that it has placed citizen's privations at the centre of every strategy, policy and programme. The Administration will have to expose resolute leadership and a national, continental and global intellectual expertise in the execution of national strategies, policies and programmes. Existing organisational capacity, understood as the machinery (processes, systems and structures) of the civil community should continuously be questioned and re-engineered to optimally deliver on citizen's needs in an expeditious, efficient and effective manner. The public sector is expected to demonstrate a revered and an inherent technical capacity that will propel South Africa's developmental objectives into action. In addition to the South African public sector organisation's features, senior managers are expected to reveal competence and aptitude through intrepid innovation, management and leadership qualities and an ability to re-engineer current processes, structures and systems that obstruct effective service delivery. It is evident from the data captured that public servant senior managers are expected to have ingrained qualities such as being resolute, responsible, displaying ownership and inclusivity with a passion for South Africa and its citizens.

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995), political economists, academic scholars and political leadership define the silhouette of the South African public sector as organisation as significant mechanism within the democratic, developmental state in such a manner that it embodies a value driven motive and an embedded thrust towards the achievement of this nation's developmental goals. Similarly evident is the political leadership's particular expectation of the human capacity, serving in the Administration to display distinct features on a cognitive (knowledge and understanding), skills (ability and talent) and behavioural (attitude and values) levels (Knowles, 1975).

2.2 Considering the unique role of South Africa's public sector senior management within the state

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995) informed against public sector managers and leaders, which re-actively respond to preconceived rubrics and practices. It ascribed non-negotiable qualities to managers in the public sector such as leadership, futurists, originators, motivators, effective conversationalists and resolution architects. Caulkin (2003) and McLennan (2008:5,6) are of the opinion that public sectors should engage in an essential modification from the conventional authoritative and regulatory style of management to a "high performance" model, grounded on sovereignty and conviction. Caulkin (2003) deduced that such public sectors should visibly display a people or staff centeredness. A state that is constantly "under construction" (White, 1998:20) requires a meticulously designed, "insulated" (Leftwich, 2007:162) environment that promotes continuity, within which a soundly orchestrated transformation and reform can take place. Within such a mutable environment, the competence of the bureaucracy's senior managers becomes critically important.

Chapter 3 emphasised critical facts for consideration in the socio-political and socio economic, developmental landscape that respond directly to the competence requirements of particularly senior management, as executors of developmental initiatives in the South African Administration. It has already been established that, a little over a decade and half since the new democratic government assumed power, the state continues to grapple with critical challenges. It has furthermore also been established that thus far, the success rate to address these challenges was low as it becomes evident through service delivery protests. Socio-political challenges that are affirmed in Chapter 3 become evident through a landscape investigation of dimension intents. Chapter 3 concludes South Africa's political dimension as developmental state by highlighting some of the less and some of the more obvious difficulties that political leadership and the senior bureaucracy should address on route to the achievement of this nation's developmental goals.

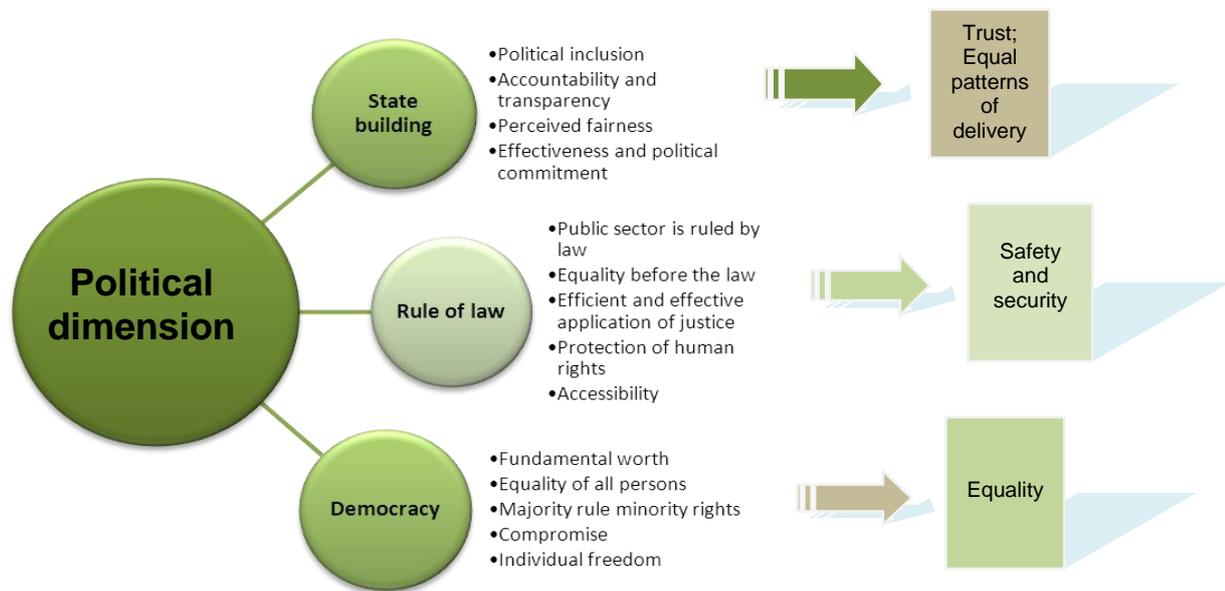
Everest-Phillips (2008:123) ascribes 5 core principles to state building through which the state gains a legitimacy amongst its populace. These principles are political inclusion, accountability and transparency, perceived fairness, effectiveness and political commitment to shared prosperity (Everest-Phillips, 2008:123; Browder, 2008:66).

Belton (2005:29) and Stephen (1982:2) defined the principles of the rule of law as follows: The public sector is "bound by" and "ruled by law" as the "law applies to and should be observed by government and its agencies as well as those whom were given power in communities, just as it applies to ordinary citizens"; there should be absolute "equality before the law", the "law of the land should therefore be certain, general and equal in its operation; the law should "establish order"; "Efficient and effective application of justice" should be common place to enable the powers that administer the law should be "independent and uninfluenced by government" to ensure "that the rule of law is a working reality and not just a catch phrase"; the "protection of

human rights” is tantamount; and members of the nation-state should have “ready access to the courts of law” (Belton, 2005:29; Stephen, 1982:2).

The term democracy includes an understanding that citizens contribute, either directly or through representatives, in directing the activities of the state to manage and organise their institutions to benefit them and as it honours a fundamental worth, equality of all persons, majority rule minority rights, compromise and individual freedom (Cf. Helgesen, 1995:29; Fukuyama, 1992:xi).

Figure 4.1: A visual representation of political dimension intent principles in relation to some of South Africa’s primary and secondary developmental challenges.

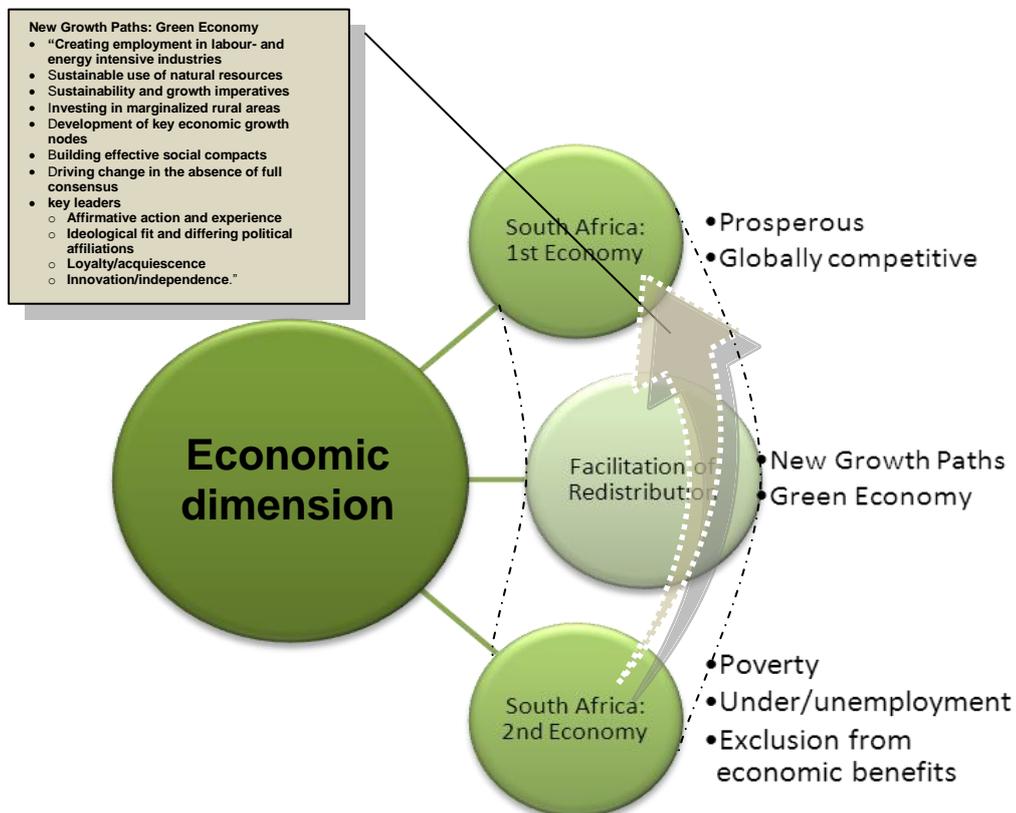


Even though there may be pockets of excellence, the South African bureaucracy’s competence or unconscious aptitude (Taylor, 2007:8) to implement the fundamental principles related to each of the political dimension’s intents appear not to deliver the desired results as the state continues to contend with issues of trust, unequal patterns of delivery, safety and security and inequality. An inability to deliver will be explored later in this chapter against Bloom’s taxonomy of the learning domain (1956) in order to ascertain which previous phases within the classification were missed and subsequently result in non-delivery.

South Africa’s socio-economic dimension delivers a uniquely complex position as it exposes two economies. One economy reveals affluence and opulence and the other dire poverty, deficiency and hardship. Chapter 3 highlighted the South African public sector’s incapacity to manage and implement policy and to lead initiatives that would enable the second economy to benefit substantially from the first, translated into the facilitation of redistribution. It is critical to reference Fan et al. (2008:42) and Manuel’s (2007:2) opinions respectively in terms of the responsibility of a bureaucracy and its ability to execute regulations against an administration’s inability to

implement public policy. Manuel (2007:2) extrapolates that the South African bureaucracy continues to make use of antiquated models and frameworks that subsequently result in a disjuncture between desired and actual outcomes. Hannesson (2000:752) reminds that “it takes decades to reach a steady state” and Low (2004:12) alerts to an unsophisticated approach if all the solutions to national challenges are regressed to the bureaucracy’s ability or inability to establish solutions. Based on the focus of this study, bearing the latter two scholars’ viewpoints in mind, an inability to innovatively design and develop new and relevant, discipline related models and frameworks, as the environment requires, will be explored against Bloom’s taxonomy of the learning domain (1956) to position the challenge and to determine potential previous stages of neglected competence development as building blocks.

Figure 4.2: A visual representation of economic dimension intent principles in relation to a primary South African developmental challenge (MTSF 2009-2014, National Framework for Sustainable Development (NFSD) and SA Green Economy Summit, discussion document (2010).



Gylfason (2000:579) and Molomo (2001:40) correspondingly ascribe the following principles to economic growth: Foreign investment; Economic efficiency; Institutional arrangement; policy implementation; social justice; economic independence; and sustained development (Cf. Manuel, 2007; Fan et al., 2008:5,8,42; Agarwal, 1980; Tsai, 1994; Billington; 1999; Chakrabarti 2001). Figure 4.2, visually represents South Africa’s economic dilemma. With reference to the “new growth paths” (Manual, 2007) and the Green Economy (2010) initiatives, it is evident that the South African government is following an internal collectivist approach by delving into the

collective resources and organisational intelligence, available within the Economic Sector and Employment Cluster. Relevant to the fact that the initiative engages the economy and society within the socio-economic debate, the question remains begging whether the bureaucracy has the impetus, leadership, capacity and competence to enable the inclusion of the prominent stakeholders and society, as a next phase, to achieve a positive movement for the second economy towards the first?

Despite the fact that a segment of South Africa's economic landscape displays positive statistics, another segment reveals socio-economic challenges that are growing exponentially as the population becomes larger. Considering the unique role of South Africa's public sector senior management within its socio-economic dimension, it is clear from data gathered in Chapter 3 and 4, that this particular layer within the bureaucracy is required to display an aptitude: for designing and implementing supportive policies; to nurture social networks that support social compacts; to embody confidence notwithstanding change; to display unwavering leadership abilities; and to be efficacious innovators. It is observed that the list of competencies required in the socio-economic dimension is not restricted to the identified competencies mentioned here.

The Senior Management Service (SMS) Handbook (2003) was compiled in agreement with: the Public Service Act (1994); Regulation 1D, Chapter 4 of the Public Service Regulations (2001); Public Service Coordinating Bargaining Council (PSCBC), Resolution No. 13 of 1998; and the Treasury Regulations (2001). The SMS Handbook (2003) is explicitly clear in terms of the kind of senior manager that is required in a modern, people-centred, democratic, developmental state. Senior managers are perceived as critical role players and "primary agents" in a complex organisational environment where a variety of individuals from different backgrounds, cultures and experiences assemble to thrust South Africa's developmental agenda. This particular layer of the organisation is expected to demonstrate a collection of "hard and soft skills" in an incessant manner towards enhanced service delivery. The SMS Handbook highlights key managerial and leadership features as that senior managers should accept challenges and make the most of opportunities. Flexibility, creativity and innovation should be ingrained characteristics amongst senior managers. Partnerships with the community, government departments, and organs of state, private sector, civil society organisations and international associates should be encouraged and stimulated. It is expected that senior managers should display an excellence in the execution of their tasks through proficiency, responsibility, dedication and strong leadership and management. In addition to the above, senior managers have to elicit policy priorities and organisational mandates into successful strategies, plans and intervention through an effective application of human and material resources. (SMS Handbook, 2003:2.)

Deliberating on the unique role of public sector senior managers within the developmental state, it is of significance to ascertain the external measures and internal approaches through which senior managers in the Administration are evaluated in terms of performance. In accordance with Smith and Goddard (2002:248) Performance Management (PM) serves as an organisational

rheostat against pre-determined goals. Rogers (1990) defined Performance Management (PM) as “an integrated set of planning and review procedures which cascade down through the organisation to provide a link between each individual and the overall strategy of the organisation.” It is useful to be reminded that, in line with the SMS Handbook (2003), senior managers are expected to transform policy priorities and organisational mandates into successful interventions that would benefit the South African populace. It can therefore be deduced that the citizen’s level of contempt with the services rendered to them, by the bureaucracy, would be a considerable external measure of the South African government’s senior manager’s proficiency levels. Extracts gathered from data throughout this study reveal that the citizens of South Africa progressively engage in service delivery protests (McLennan, 2008:1; McLennan, 2009:20; Chabane, 2010:1,2) due to sub-standard service delivery. As internal performance measure of the South African public service, the SMS Handbook (2003), Chapter 4 outlines a Performance Management and Development as guided by the Public Service Act (1994) and the Public Service Regulations (2001). Chapter 4 of the SMS Handbook (2003) generally considers a competency framework, Performance Management generally and Performance Agreements specifically. It furthermore informs in terms of a mandatory assessment of demonstrated managerial competence, a standardized rating scale against a two tiered performance reward system and Personal Development Plans (PDPs).

Thus far, Chapter 4 gathered facts to elicit information supportive of the unique role of the South African public sector and its senior management within the democratic, developmental state landscape. The chapter offered noteworthy extrapolations such as the bureaucracy’s inability to display equal patterns of delivery and to innovatively design and develop models and frameworks as and when the environment requires it. In addition to the latter, the study has subsequently also pointed to the fact that the bureaucracy is required to: Display an aptitude for designing and implementing supportive policies; to promote social networks that underpin social compacts; display a buoyancy and confidence, despite change; exhibit unwavering leadership abilities; and demonstrate an unconscious aptitude as efficacious innovators.

It is imperative at this point to confirm a bureaucratic process on a senior managerial level and its broad steps that lead to the implementation phase of such a process that is in essence causal to service delivery. The nexus between the process map outlined in Figure 4.3 and the public sector delivery challenges identified in Chapter 4, paragraph 2.2 of this study would elucidate inferences relevant to this study.

Figure 4.3: Broad public sector, administrative process map, relevant to senior levels that are causal to service delivery.

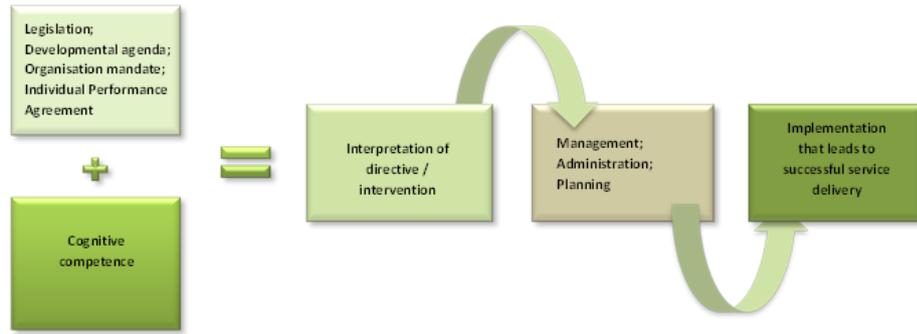


Figure 4.3 can simultaneously be compared with, and evaluated against Morgan’s (1997a:2) Management Competency Model as it refers to: Planning and Administration competency; Communication competency; Teamwork competency; Multi-cultural competency; Self-management competency; and Strategic action competency.

Bloom (1956:4) led a committee of college examiners that provided a specific construct against which the conjectures of Chapter 4, paragraph 2.2 of this study can be measured. Bloom’s (1956:1,7) taxonomy or classification Figure 4.4, demystified the concrete objectives of an educational system as it underpins knowledge, attitude and skills. It delineates 6 progressive categories of educational development against three domains, referred to as cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. Bloom (1956:7) defined the cognitive domain (knowledge and skills) as that which deals with the “recall or recognition of knowledge and the development of intellectual abilities and skills”. Bloom (1956:7) described the affective domain (attitudes) as “changes in interests, attitudes and values, the development of appreciations and adequate adjustment.” The psychomotor domain (skills) relates to manual or physical skills.

Figure 4.4: Bloom's taxonomy (1956) in its original form. Important to note that a former scholar of Bloom, Lorin Anderson altered Bloom's taxonomy names from nouns to verbs, i.e. Knowledge to Remembering; Comprehension to Understanding; Application to Applying; Analysis to Analysing; Synthesis to Creating; and Evaluation to Evaluating. In addition, Anderson also switched Synthesis and Evaluation so that Evaluation would come first in the hierarchy and Synthesis would be at the top (Pohl, 2000).

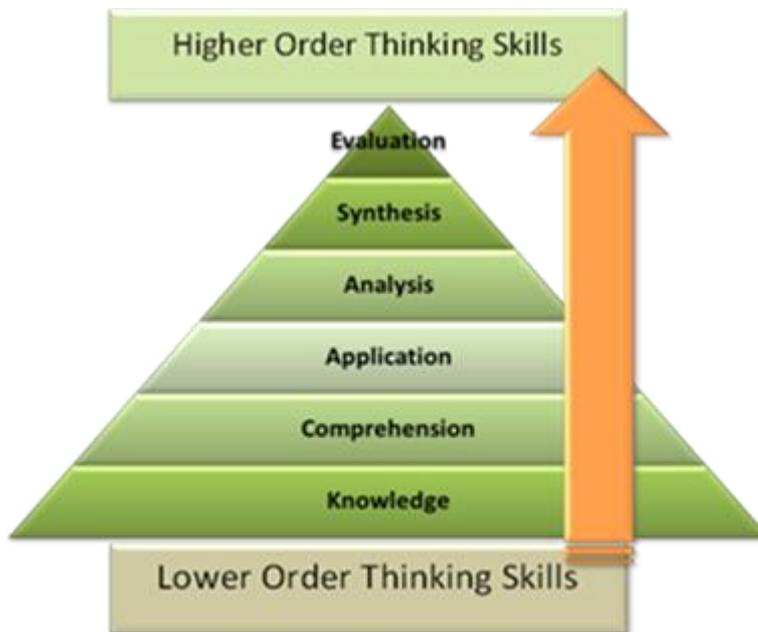


Table 4.2: The 6 categories and category descriptions (Bloom, 1956).

The 6 categories and category descriptions are tabled as follows:

Categories	Category descriptions
1. "Knowledge"	Recollection of data or information.
2. "Comprehension"	Appreciate and comprehend the denotation, interpretation, exclamation and clarification of directives and challenges.
3. "Application"	Display an ability to transfer theory or models to a novel condition or deliver a spontaneous construct in relevant occupational circumstances.
4. "Analysis"	Disconnect data (information or hypotheses) into segments; Display an understanding of the composition; and Can identify and separate truths from extrapolations.
5. "Synthesis"	Design a construct or prototype from distinct components. Identify relevant elements and combine to configure a <i>new</i> denotation or unit. (A prominence is assigned to a new denotation or unit).
6. "Evaluation"	Assess and appraise the significance of philosophies or content.

Data captured in Chapter 4 has thus far suggested a number of competencies that should be entrenched within the South African public sector senior management. Competencies such as: Formulating and implementing policies; Establishing and managing partnerships and networks with other public sector departments, the private sector and communities; establish and lead

social networks that would strengthen the social compact display leadership capacity; re-establish trust between the public sector and citizens; display equal patterns of delivery; manage, lead and implement new national interventions; display steadfast leadership despite continuous change; design and develop modern models and frameworks as and when the environment requires it to support the developmental agenda of government amongst many more. One of the most prominent challenges highlighted by numerous scholars in this study is the public sector's inability to continuously deliver at least basic services to the South African citizenry. Considering the fact the competence of the public sector senior management is but one of the elements that have an impact on poor service delivery, competence and competency of senior managers within the South African Bureaucracy remains to be the research question of this study. In an unadorned manner, the process delineated in Figure 4.3, that either leads to successful or inferior service delivery will be measured against Bloom's taxonomy as displayed in Figure 4.4 and explained in Table 4.2 to extrapolate potential areas for improvement.

A first observation is the challenge of inadequate service delivery. Considering Figure 4.3, service delivery is preceded by a bureaucratic process that requires distinct behaviours and skills from senior management in order to translate into successful delivery. Against Bloom's (1956) identified categories and the category description, an inference can be made that a challenge is experienced against the 3rd category of the taxonomy. If the level of application, where implementation occurs, is unstable, it potentially points out that the 1st and 2nd layers of categories as Knowledge and Comprehension are perhaps not well established to successfully enable implementation and delivery. Important to note that levels of knowledge and comprehension have reference to a myriad of aspects such as bureaucratic or organisation systems and procedures, legislation, policy interpretation, a cognitive appreciation for the state's developmental landscape, intents and agenda, partnerships and networks, social compacts and cultural diversity and many more.

To ascertain a suitable delineation of the concept of competence and competencies, the next paragraph will consult the scholarly efforts and contributions made by scholars and South African legislation. In conclusion, the next paragraph will measure the highlighted inferences and the current Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework (LDMSF) Core and Process competencies against the contributions of these scholars in order to ascertain if any competencies were omitted from the current framework that might support elevated levels of delivery.

2.3 Competence and competencies defined: Conceptual structure

Wien and Dudley-Marling (1998:405) and Chappel (1996) observed that there are scholars whom are of the opinion that competence based approaches are reductionist, behaviourist, restrictive, intransigent, empirically and didactically unjustly based on the generic notion that such approaches are transferrable and multi-functional. However, such debate will not be examined

during this study. The data is merely for the purpose of citing different scholarly opinions on the concept of following a competence based approach. A further validation for the non entertainment of the initial introductory remarks lies captured in the fact that the South African public service as organisation is compelled by the Green Paper on Public Service Training and Education (1997), Part 2, Chapter 5, to implement a competency based approach. Paragraph 5.7.5.4 of Part 2, Chapter 5 of the Green Paper on Public Service Training and Education (1997), directed that “All public service institutions will be required to conduct job evaluations or re-evaluations of all posts, with the purpose of ensuring that they are expressed in terms of the essential competencies required for effective job performance in the context of the new vision and mission laid down for the public service in the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (1995). This will involve both sector-specific competencies and core transversal competencies.” MacGillivray (2002:7) then aptly states that public sector organisations that are competence-based, meticulously select, employ, empower, and foster excellence amongst its bureaucracy.

Firstly, it is of meaningful consequence to underscore the divergence between the definitions, relative to competence, and the definitions relative to competencies, as there are so many of each. Horton, Hondeghem and Farnham (2002:4) alert to fact that the clarification of the semantics between competence and competency is a potential “minefield” as there are at least two concepts, different opinions, definitions and spelling and then different interpretations with a diverse foci and relevance to different layers of management. Whiddett and Hollyforde (2003:5) suggest the difference between competence and competency as that competence is an individual’s aptitude, founded on job related duties whereas competency is an individual’s ability based on conduct. Hogg (2010:1) and the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) propose the following different definitions: Competence correlates with a practice of marginal values and can be validated by execution and deliverables; competency relates to the behaviours that a workforce is required or that a workforce should obtain to contribute to specific circumstances to accomplish a high level output. Horton, Hondeghem and Farnham (2002:4) elucidate that competence connects with “outcomes of competence” and competencies can be explained as “inputs that help to achieve successful performance in a job.” Competence is therefore about the job and job-outcomes and competencies are about the individual staff members that “do the work” (Horton, Hondeghem and Farnham, 2002:4). It can therefore be assumed that an individual is employed for his/her competence (displayed and validated aptitude) and the duties that he or she will assume, require specific competencies (behavioural input and execution).

Bellis (1997:1) explained “applied competence as the overarching term for three kinds of competence, practical, foundational and reflexive. Within the South African context, the Green Paper on Public Service Training and Education (1997), Part 2, Chapter 5, paragraph 5.7.5.3 defined competence as “the application of skills, knowledge and attitudes to tasks or combination of tasks to standards under operational conditions. As such, competence does not refer to unique characteristics of an individual worker, but rather serves as a measure against which individuals

may be judged for the purpose of formal or informal evaluation and accreditation.” Barnett (1994) described competence as “a skill or integrated cluster of skills executed within an indicated range or context to specific standards of performance; of integrated understanding of the performance and its knowledge base; of an understanding of the system in which the performance is carried out; of the ability to transfer to other related contexts; and of the ability to innovate when appropriate.” Woodruffe (1992) denoted competence as “aspects of the person that enable her or him to be competent” and competency as “aspects of the job at which the person is competent.” Fletcher (1991) explained competence as the “ability to perform activities within an occupation to a prescribed standard.”

From the variety of definitions offered above, it can be deduced that competence is an individual's application of a context transferrable aptitude (skills, knowledge and attitude) to execute one or more job related tasks (functional, introductory or spontaneous) that are measurable against specific standards of performance where the individual possesses an embedded intelligence of her or his performance within the organisational system. In relation to South Africa as a democratic, developmental state, such a definition would translate into: A South African public sector senior manager's diligence to affect a context transferrable aptitude (skills, knowledge and attitude) to successfully manage and lead multi-faceted tasks (functional, introductory or spontaneous), measured against individual Performance Agreements to achieve organisational objectives in line with the state's developmental agenda and goals.

Kurz and Bartram (2002), Woodruffe (1992) and Whiddett and Hollyforde (2003) are all of the opinion that competencies should be noun related and therefore specified as an action. Holmes and Joyce (1993) explain competency as “action or behaviour which a person should be able to demonstrate, or the ability to transfer skills and knowledge to new situations within an occupational area.” Boyatzis (1982:12, 1992:260) referred to competencies as the “behavioural characteristics of an individual” (motive, trait or skill) which is causally related to effective or superior performance in a job.” Hellriegel et al. (1999:4) and Noordegraaf (2007:322) expressed that behaviour underpins competency. MacGillivray (2002:7) defines competencies as inclusive of cognitive knowledge, dexterities, and “nebulous entities” such as intentions, insights and principles that in essence determine the dissimilarity between individuals that cannot perform in a particular position as opposed to an individual that will deliver work of a continuous superior quality. Heffernan and Flood's (2000) studies indicate that there is a direct affiliation between “performance and competencies”, although the causality may not be distinct. In the South African public sector context, the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa) produced a Framework for Human Resources and Development (HR&D) that guides public sector departments such as National Treasury when it designs competency frameworks, relevant to a particular expertise. Treasury produced a Competency Framework for Financial Management (2010) that adopted definitions, outlined by the dpsa. Treasury's Competency Framework for Financial Management (2010) defines competencies as “a mix of skills, related knowledge and attributes to produce a job/task against a defined standard”. The Competency Framework for

Financial Management (2010) furthermore defines competence as “the outcomes which would define effective performance, i.e. aspects of the job at which a person is competent”. The latter document provides definitions to the following terminology for purposes of clarification: Skill is defined as “the innate or learned capacity to achieve pre-determined results consistently with the minimum outlay of time, energy or both. It is observed that a specific public sector context is imported and referenced to the SMS Handbook (2003:2) “effective application of human and material resources” and the Measurable Performance and Accountable Delivery (2010:107) as the concept of “more with less” is required. The Competency Framework for Financial Management (2010) describes knowledge as: “the theoretical and/or practical understanding of a subject; facts and information. Attributes are explained as: “the quality of character required to be an effective and successful performer in a specific job.

Whilst there are many interpretations of the concept of competencies, most of them feature shared elements. The following understanding of competencies can therefore be extrapolated from scholarly efforts. Competencies suggest an individual’s (action) provision (input, execution, contribution) of behaviours (intensions, insights, principles) and skills (abilities, cognitive knowledge, attributes) relevant to a job related situation within an occupational area to achieve successful performance.

Ruminating scholar’s interpretations of competence and competencies, the next paragraph will study the evolution of competency frameworks for senior managers in the South African public sector.

Cognisant of South Africa’s history and a subsequent deficit deposit on the nation’s skills, it would prove to be ignorant to exclude public sector, senior managers from this elucidation. Reflecting on the public sector, senior manager’s remit and obligation within the developmental landscape dimensions and its intents, in relation to required competencies, a point of departure would be to identify the focal discipline related areas of relevance. Virtanen (2000:333-341) and Schwella and Rossouw (2005) identify five domains of specialisation against which public sector senior managers should deliver successful results. These five spheres are recognised as:

- Assignment or task competence;
- Professional competence in:
 - Discipline; and
 - Public Administration.
- Political competence; and
- Ethical competence.

Making an allowance for the data gathered in this study, there is a case for the inclusion of:

- Economic competence;
- Social competence; and
- Public business competence.

In recognising that the eight domains identified in the previous paragraph carries an equal weight towards successful service delivery, this study will prominently focus on the generic elements of public sector competence as it relates to South Africa's developmental goals. These areas are identified as:

- Political competence;
- Economic competence;
- Social competence;
- Professional competence in public administration; and
- Public business competence.

Table 4.3 below, displays a captured synopsis or list of key public sector, competency contributors identified throughout the study and relevant to a democratic developmental state, supportive of a public sector, senior management competency framework (Strebler et al., 1997).

Table 4.3: Public sector competency contributors. (The competency contributors are extracts from Chapters 1, 2 and 3).

Political competence			Economic competence		Social competence		
State building	Rule of Law	Democracy	Economic Growth	Facilitation of redistribution	Nation building / National identity	Social equality	Social capital
Guided by the rule of law Rule of law as citizen protection and grounded on the base of purpose not power			Economic expansion		Stimulate and encourage interface and discourse		
Strong state structure			Transformation in Industrious sectors		Engagement in the collective public		
Organisation constitution (p.19)			Economic achievements		Inclusion of citizens to agree on the developmental agenda		
Form and character of developmental accomplishments			Launching high speed economic growth				
Interaction between states and markets							
Typography of SA' history and its influence on the future; and Recovering from the past							
Politics and development							
Establishing an interactive strength : strategy selection and action							
Maturation paths of transformation							
People matters			←————→		People matters		
Internal and external force-fields, National and global relation International and national force-fields Global awareness							
Interaction between states, banks and business Expanding the status of the rule of law – legality, regulation and transparency							
			Transformation of the economy and infrastructure				
			Conception of industrial policy tools				
			Promotion of industry, commerce and capital liberalisation				
			Industrial and financial conglomerates				
Social relations			←————→		Social relations		
Construct and re-organise social, cultural and political dimensions					Re-institute dignity and self-esteem		
					Pertinent role of national customs		
					Entrance into the global society		
					Political precursors are in place to enable social equality through economic growth		

Political competence			Economic competence		Social competence		
State building	Rule of Law	Democracy	Economic Growth	Facilitation of redistribution	Nation building / National identity	Social equality	Social capital
An awareness and sensitivity to both international and national affairs							
Social capital and trust building Relationships matter							
Trust and cooperation							
Social and economic capital efforts							
Networks							
					Diversity management		
Accountable global leader					High quality human capital		
					Improved economic landscape – socio economic growth		
Governance							
Relation between rule of law and social equality							
Leadership, Accountable leadership							
					Indigenous authenticity and values		
					Social inclusivity		
Service delivery							
Exceptional developmental state resolve							
					Public participation in policy and decision making		
Official approach to politics							
Enable, lead and manage inter-connectedness and robust relationships between state, markets, civil society, private sector and citizens							
Indigenous and global Innovation							

Table 4.4, below, outlines a list, in no order of priority that indicates the professional and public business key competency contributors identified throughout the study and relevant to a democratic developmental state, supportive of a public sector, senior management competency framework (Strebler et al., 1997).

Table 4.4: Public sector competency contributors. (The competency contributors are extracts from Chapters 1, 2 and 3).

Professional competence		Public business competence
Public administration	Discipline	
Legislation and policies		Bureaucratic independence
Resolute, effectual, closely controlled and answerable		Minimalist approach
Anti corruption Ethical values, principles and norms		Alterations to the way in which business is conducted, both private and public and interaction between private and public sectors (
Effective implementation of policies; Formulate and implement policies; Ability to execute economic policies Strong policy control		Information and technological innovation
Direct administrative and political resources to achieve economic development		Organisational transformation
Organisation constitution		Autonomous problem solving and decision making
Contending and collaborating dimensions in a developmental state		Operational effectiveness
Skilled and moral		Communication
Robust character of government		Negotiation skills
Change enablers		Resilience
Inter-departmental partnerships		Resource effectiveness – “more with less”
Optimally functioning, results oriented bureaucracy		Re-engineer business processes and systems
Organisation that can safeguard against		Organisational development
		Human Resource Management and Development

Professional competence		Public business competence
global force-fields		
Moderniser and innovator of socio-economic development		Programme and Project Management
Pre-emptive and forceful		Financial Management
Strategies for achievement		Process and system analysis
Recognise landscape		Technical innovation
Strengthened administrative, specialised and depersonalised standards		Institution building
Well defined medium term organisational goals to organisational mission		
Bureaucratic polity		
Merit based		
Reform induced efficiency improvement		
Ability to translate strategy and developmental policies into action		
Optimally functioning, results oriented, streamlined organisations		
Resource mobilisation		
Real power, authority, technical competence, insulation and continuity		
Innovation		
Flexibility		
Development oriented		
Accountability		
High trust, high discretion, high ambition, Honesty		
Passion for the nation and its citizens		
Responsible, ownership, inclusivity , decisive, vigorous		
Management and leadership		
Performance driven, results oriented		
Communications		
Public sector management (

The lists of competency contributors will be arranged and categorised further in Chapter 5, collectively with information gathered during a focus group session and information gathered from the Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework (LDMSF) for the Senior Management Service (SMS). In addition to the lists extrapolated in Tables 4.3 and 4.4, it is of importance to display and explain the current Senior Management Service (SMS) Competency Framework, designed and developed by the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa). The SMS competency framework is part of a larger framework, known as the Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework (LDMSF) for the Senior Management Service (SMS).

Grounded on legislation, referenced in paragraph 2.2 of Chapter 4 of this study, the evolution of a competency-based approach to performance management and development for senior managers in the new democratic Republic of South Africa's public service had its origins in the Performance Management and Development System (PMDS) for the Senior Management Service (SMS) as outlined in Chapter 5 of the SMS Handbook (2003). It is noted in Chapter 5 of the SMS Handbook (2003:1) that the PMDS was designed with a focus on generic competencies rather than functional or technical competencies. The PMDS suggests 11 SMS Core Management Competency (CMC) criteria and descriptions. The 11 SMS competencies included the following criteria:

- Strategic capability and leadership;
- Programme and project management;

- Financial management;
- Change management;
- Knowledge management;
- Service delivery innovation;
- Problem solving and analysis;
- People management and empowerment;
- Client orientation and customer focus;
- Communication; and
- Honesty and integrity.

Each of these competencies is displayed against a **competency name**: “Name used to identify the Senior Manager’s behaviour or groupings of behaviours”; **competency definition**: “General description of behaviours and activities that must be demonstrated by Senior Managers to achieve the desired competency; and **proficiency level**: “Description of the degree to which a Senior Manager has mastered the criteria of a competency. The competency scale classifies observable and measurable behaviours (behavioural indicators) sequentially. Individual progresses through the hierarchy by mastering the knowledge, skills, behaviours, or outcomes required at the level below.” (SMS Handbook, Chapter 5, 2003:3). Proficiency levels are described as: **Basic** (“Applies basic concepts and methods but requires supervision and coaching”); **Competent** (“Independently develops and applies more advanced concepts and methods, plans and guides the work of others. Performs analysis”); **Advanced** (“Understands and applies more complex concepts and methods. Leads and directs people or groups of recognised specialists. Able to perform in-depth analysis”); and **Expert** (“Sought out for deep, specialised expertise. Lead the direction of the organisation. Define models/theory”).

Schwella and Rossouw (2005) conducted an evaluative assessment on the PMDS and inferred a number of challenges with the CMCs of which a few will be mentioned here. Schwella and Rossouw (2005) deduced that the CMCs have a robust emphasis on behavioural competence with limited attention paid to technological competence and an even more reduced efforts towards organisational transformation and development. They have concluded their study by asserting a doubt whether SMS members would really be empowered and whether SMS members would really display an impact on organisational development and transformation as the CMCs related to such a 20% portion of the members assessments during performance appraisals (Cf. Schwella & Rossouw, 2005.)

In 2007, an evolved edition of the PMDS and CMCs was developed and released by the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa). The framework, known as the Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework (LDMSF) (2007) presented core and process competencies against the structure of a Parthenon house as displayed below in Figure 4.5. Minister Fraser-Moleketi, a former Minister of Public Service and Administration wrote in the foreword, “It is the human capital development value chain that the LDMSF seeks to enhance.” In

December 2008, Cabinet approved that competency assessment for SMS is compulsory. In addition to the development of core and process competencies, a Development Assessment Centre was simultaneously established to implement a series of diagnostic exercises skills, ability and future potential of SMS members.

Figure 4.5: South African public sector senior management competency framework. Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework (LDMSF).

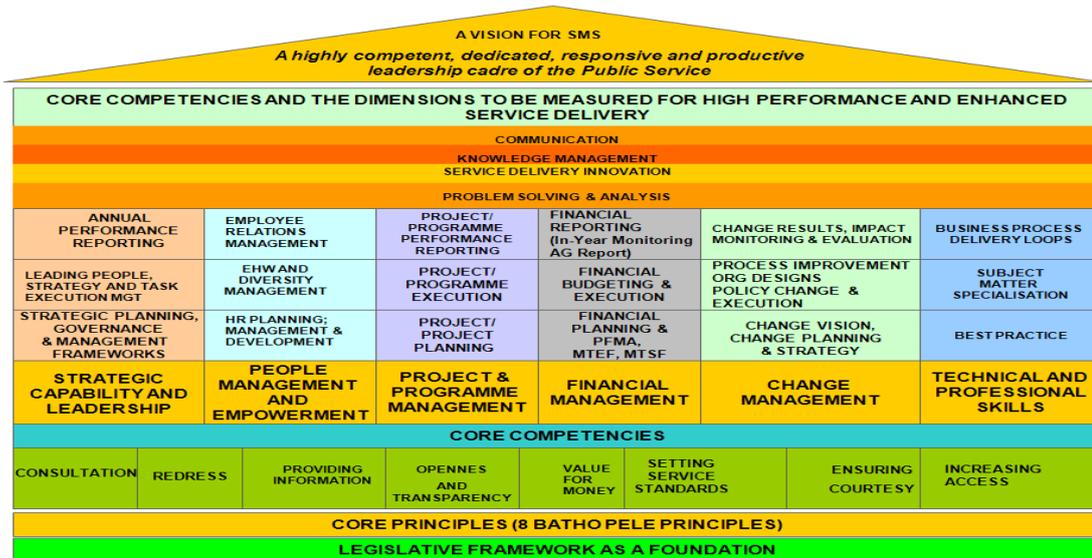


Figure 4.5 as the Leadership and Management Competency Model display five core competencies as:

- Strategic capability and leadership;
- People management and empowerment;
- Project and programme management;
- Financial management; and
- Change management.

The process competencies that are measures against each of the core competencies are:

- Problem solving and analysis;
- Service delivery innovation;
- Knowledge management; and
- Communication.

To give effect to the Department of Public Service and Administration’s (dpsa) core and process competencies, the Public Administration, Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA) (2009/10:11), in collaboration with South African Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) designed the Executive Development Programme (EDP). PALAMA has the statutory responsibility for arranging or overseeing management and leadership development training within the South African public sector. Its mandate supports the professionalising, capacity building and career

advancement of public service leadership and management, serving in the South African, democratic, developmental state. True to its mandate, PALAMA offers a portfolio of management and leadership development interventions to the South African public sector senior management cadre that effectively contributes towards a sustained increase in development competence whilst serving in a highly dynamic, democratic, developmental state.

Ten different disciplines were identified for inclusion into the EDP. The ten fields of speciality inherently connect with the LDMSF. The six Core modules on NQF Level 8 of the EDP are as follows:

- Strategic Planning and Management
- Financial Management and Budgeting
- Strategic Human Resource Management
- Programme and Project Management
- Policy Formulation and Implementation
- Leadership for Good Governance

In addition to the six core modules, four additional modules on NQF Level 9 are listed as follows:

- Communication and Customer Focused Strategies
- Leading Change
- Research Methodology for SMS in the Public Sector
- South African Economy in a Global Context. (De Wet, 2010.)

3. CONCLUSION

The study introduced Chapter 4 with a full recognition that the South African public service's competence shapes one component that contributes to a state's developmental success. Relevant data, extrapolated from Chapters 2 and 3 shaped the core of Chapter 4 to illuminate further deductions against South Africa's public sector and its senior management competencies. Chapter 4 considered the unique role of South Africa's public sector within a modern democratic, developmental landscape and the study delivered the following inferences: Poor service delivery remains to be one of the public service's main challenges. As service delivery has a direct link with the bureaucracy's ability or inability to implement or perform application, Bloom's taxonomy of the learning domains was consulted to elucidate potential areas of obstruction. Measured against Bloom's taxonomy, it became clear that knowledge and comprehension, as first two layers of the taxonomy, might be the areas of challenge as it translates into competence relevant to the organisation systems and procedures, legislation, policy interpretation, a cognitive appreciation of the state's developmental landscape, intents and agenda, partnerships and networks, social compacts and cultural diversity, amongst many more.

The chapter furthermore considered the unique role of South Africa's public sector senior management within the state. Lists of key competency contributors were extorted from Chapters

2, 3 and 4 to detail some of the relevant public service senior management competency domains. These domains were identified as the political competence domain; economic competence domain; social competence domain; professional competence in public administration domain; and the public business domain. Chapter 5 will provide a domain arrangement of competencies, considering the lists of competency contributors, the LDMSF and views and opinions of public sector senior managers participating in a focus group session supportive of empirical findings and a comparative analysis.

Chapter 4 simultaneously defined competence as: an individual's application of a context transferrable aptitude (skills, knowledge and attitude) to execute one or more job related tasks (functional, introductory or spontaneous) that are measurable against specific standards of performance where the individual possesses an embedded intelligence of her or his performance within the organisational system. A single definition for competencies suggested that it is an individual's (action) provision (input, execution, contribution) of behaviours (intensions, insights, principles) and skills (abilities, cognitive knowledge, attributes), relevant to a job related situation within an occupational area to achieve successful performance. The chapter moreover offered internal and external performance measures existent to the nature of the organisation and simplified to internal performance agreements and external populace reactions and international measures.

It can be inferred at this point that the competence expectations of the nation and the development state are potentially much larger than what is reflected in the current LDMSF.

Chapter 4 concluded with detail of the Executive Development Programme (EDP), an example of a competency motivated programme currently implemented in the South African public service through the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA) in collaboration with Higher Education Institutions.

Chapter 5 will disclose the methodology and empirical findings of data collected during a focus group session. The chapter will conclude with a triangulated list of identified domain competencies. The triangulation will exist between a list of key competency contributors, the existing public service LDMSF and empirical findings from the focus group.

Chapter 5

PUBLIC SECTOR SENIOR MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES REQUIRED FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN DEMOCRATIC, DEVELOPMENTAL STATE: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS AND COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

“It would seem that mature practice involves a mature recognition that one is inevitably ignorant of many things one does not know.”

W. Taylor (2007)

CHAPTER 5: PUBLIC SECTOR SENIOR MANAGEMENT COMPETENCIES REQUIRED FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN DEMOCRATIC, DEVELOPMENTAL STATE: EMPIRICAL FINDINGS AND COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 explored the notion of a public sector senior manager's aptitude to excel within South Africa as a democratic, developmental state, against the backdrop of service delivery challenges that highlight one of the related bureaucracy's largest challenges. The introductory notes recognised that public sector senior management competence is merely one of the rudiments that contributes or hinders developmental success. Measured against Bloom's taxonomy (1956) of the learning domains, it became evident that if the South African bureaucracy experiences difficulties to translate strategies, policies and developmental goals into action, that an inefficiency might be present in the first two layers of the taxonomy, noted as "knowledge" ("recollection of data or information") and "comprehension" (the "appreciation, comprehension, denotation, interpretation, exclamation and clarification of directives and challenges") (Bloom, 1956). In addition, Chapter 4 explored and deduced suitable definitions for competence and competencies as theories as well as internal and external performance measures that quantify and qualify individual capabilities and public sector proficiency in relation to the South African public sector, functioning within a democratic, developmental state.

Chapter 1 introduced the research problem that this study, considered with an understanding that there is a relation between extraordinary service delivery and a proficient bureaucracy. With such intellect as basis, it then defined the research problem as follows: If the populace of the South African democratic, developmental state overtly exhibits their discontent with the related bureaucracy's level of service delivery, are there incongruences between the current Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework's (LDMSF) (2007) core and process competencies and competencies required by a bureaucracy to perform optimally in a democratic, developmental state. A particular ambition therefore of this study, and in particular Chapter 4, was to identify public sector competence domains with supporting key competency contributors as identified from Chapters 2, 3 and 4.

Chapter 5 will pronounce exhaustive data that confirms the qualitative methodology and the pertinent data collection techniques that were applied to construct valid and reliable scientific facts that support the study's problem statement, research questions, research objectives and central theoretic statements as alluded to in Chapter 1. Chapter 5 will articulate empirical findings from data obtained through a focus group session conducted on Tuesday, 26 October 2010. It will triangulate data assembled, as comparative analysis, from:

- The list of key competency contributors, collected from Chapters 2, 3 and 4 signified against 5 competence domains for the South African public sector and relevant to this study, (i.e.,

- Political competence; Economic competence; Social competence; Professional competence in public administration; and Public business competence);
- Core and process competencies included in the Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework's (LDMSF) (2007) as expressed in Chapter 4; and
 - Competencies identified through empirical findings gathered during a focus group session and displayed in Chapter 5.

2. METHODOLOGY

The methodology sustaining this research study was identified in Chapter 1 as conceptual research through qualitative inquiry, supported by an in-depth literature review and a focus group session as data collection techniques. Kaniki (2009:19) explains that no research study subsists separate from previous inquiry. It was therefore of critical importance to recognise the paradigmatic evolution of developmental states, South Africa's democratic, developmental status and its bureaucracy's aptitude to deliver on developmental objectives through existing scholarly efforts, recorded in Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4 of this study. Such critical importance refers to the relation between scholarly efforts that are scientifically tied to this research's relevant context and that specifically speak to the problem statement and questions identified in Chapter 1. Chapter 6 will highlight these specific ties in context to deduce the recommendations of this particular study.

2.1 Conceptual research design

Durrheim (2009:34-37); Mouton and Marais (1990); and Mouton (2008:49, 55-57, 122-123, 144-147) explain conceptual research design as that it is inclusive of a plan and structure that support augmented validity of the research findings. The research design of this study is rooted in the identified problem statement that seeks to ascertain disparities between current South African public service senior management competencies and competencies required by a public service senior management, managing and leading in a democratic, developmental state. The first phase of this research plan, as explained in Chapter 1, paragraph 1, was to: Explore the paradigmatic evolution of six developmental states as model or framework within a specific context where the progression of each developmental state is measured through definite examples, patterns and concepts over a specific timeline, to ultimately ascertain the role of a bureaucracy as it presented itself through extremely diverse circumstances. The second phase of the research plan explored South Africa as a democratic, developmental state which simultaneously micro-focussed the study and therefore its problem statement within a specific context. Phase three delineated the border posts that demarcate public sector, senior management expectations within South Africa as democratic, developmental state, current senior management competencies and key competency contributors as it became discernible through data gathered. Phase four triangulates the gathered key competency contributors against the current Senior Management Service (SMS) competency framework and competency contributors stated by respondents in the focus group session from which competencies will be structured

against five competency domains as mentioned in Chapter 4, paragraph 2.3. Phase five of this study's blueprint will reflect on the first, four phases and its inferences to conclude with recommendations. The structure applied to this study, which simultaneously augmented the validity of the research findings, is documented in Chapter 1 paragraph 4 as part of the secondary research objectives. The structure evidently ensured that all seven developmental states are explored in a scientific coherent manner.

2.2 Variables

The researcher adopted a naturalistic orientation in this study through which extraneous or nuisance variables, as primary elements of the "real-world" landscape were included to avoid deceptive deductions (Van der Riet & Durrheim, 2009:91). Considering the problem statement underpinning this study, an example of the types of variables related to the context of this study can be explained as follows: The "independent variable" is the theorised contributing variable. Translated to the context of this study, the "independent variable" represents the South African citizen's satisfaction or dissatisfaction with good or poor service delivery, respectively. The "dependent variable" is the achievement of South Africa's developmental goals. The "mediating variable can be described as a competent or inept bureaucracy and the "extraneous or nuisance variables" are described as the developmental landscape, representative of the political, economic and social dimensions and the intents linked to each dimension (Durrheim, 2009:42.).

2.3 Validity

Van der Riet and Durrheim (2009:90) define validity in research as the measure against which it can be concluded that the inferences are rigorous and trustworthy. Van der Riet and Durrheim (2009:91) further mention that the credibility of qualitative studies transpires whilst the study is in process as the researcher is continuously aware of inconsistent substantiation. The investigation of the paradigmatic evolution of six different developmental states and later, South Africa as a developmental state, through analysis against a clear structure which outlined the developmental landscape, enabled the detection of inconsistent substantiation and therefore contributed to the validity of this research study. The measure, against which the inferences were made, can be concluded as rigorous, trustworthy and therefore valid.

2.4 Reliability

Van der Riet and Durrheim (2009:92) define reliability of the study as the measure against which findings are recurring. Chapter 4, Tables 4.3 and 4.4 offer key competency contributors as recurring findings throughout Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4. In addition Chapter 5 suggests a triangulation through qualitative methodologies as follows: In Chapter 5, the researcher will test the reliability of key competency contributors through recurring evidence extrapolated from the key competency contributors provided in Chapter 4, the current South African public service

Senior Management Service competency framework and results from the focus group session as empirical investigation. Chapter 5 will present key senior management, public sector competencies, enveloped against five developmental state public service relevant domains.

2.5 Qualitative research

The researcher followed a qualitative analysis and therefore descriptive methodology, as the study includes an in-depth literature review. Kaniki (2009:19) establishes that a literature review positions a research study in a particular context through the identification of its unique fit into a particular discipline. With reference to this study and as already mentioned in this chapter, Chapter 1, paragraph 1 defined the paradigmatic evolution of a democratic developmental state and Chapter 2, paragraph 2 offered the structure against which evidence was gathered.

2.5.1 *In-depth literature review*

The in-depth literature study enabled data collection that supported the paradigmatic evolution of six developmental states recorded in Chapter 2 as Japan, South Korea, China and Indonesia, Botswana and the Republic of India. A literature review further supported an investigation of South Africa as democratic, developmental state. Kaniki (2009:21) alludes to four typical categories of literature reviews. These four categories can be described as: “Historical reviews”; “thematic reviews”; theoretical reviews”; and empirical reviews” (Kaniki, 2009:21). The researcher applied a “thematic review type” as it supported the enquiry and thematic developments on each of the relevant intents to the political, economic and social dimensions of the developmental state landscape. In addition to thematic developments in a particular theme, the thematic review simultaneously included different scholarly contributions to each of the themes.

2.5.2 *Empirical investigation: Focus group session*

An empirical investigation was conducted through a focus group session, held on the 26th October 2010. A sample size of 20 respondents was invited, from the target population, to attend the focus group session. 15 Respondents were able to attend the focus group session. The researcher arranged the structure of the focus group session on Morgan’s (1997b) viewpoint. Focus group interviews differ from conventional interviews based on the fact that the latter has a dependency on the response obtained from the interviewee to a specific question whereas focus group interventions rely on the researchers’ focus and the interface between members of the focus group as they discuss a particular topic (Morgan, 1997b:13).

2.5.2.1 Design and procedure of the focus group session

Stewart, Shamdasani and Rook (2007:1) outline the fact that focus group interviews are also referred to as “group depth interviews” and are used as an origin of “primary qualitative data”.

Stewart, Shamdasani and Rook (2007:60) delineate the primary purpose of the design guide as providing structure to the focus group sessions. The design guide should relate directly to the primary and secondary research questions (Stewart, Shamdasani & Rook, 2007:60). Based on the advice of Wassenaar (2009:72,76), the researcher established matters relevant for ethical consideration during the introduction and opening. The respondents were informed about the purpose of the focus group session, the researcher's study topic and its relevance to the respondent's hierarchical level within the South African bureaucracy and working environment. After the researcher has made sure that all respondents have a clear understanding of the rationale behind the focus group session, its objectives and outcomes, the researcher introduced the topic of a democratic, developmental state by means of a presentation (Annexure A) as well as a video clip in which Dr Omano Edigheji presented comments on the Green Paper for National Planning Commission (2010). The correct environment was established as learners were eager to respond and interact with each other on the four topical questions that shaped the backbone of the focus group session. Morgan (1997b:2,13) advised that the researcher should provide group participants with topics for interactive discussion to generate relevant "qualitative data". As reflected in the presentation (Annexure A), the four questions were as follows:

- What is the role of the senior manager in the South African democratic, developmental state?
- Is there a difference between a public sector senior manager's roles in a democratic state as opposed to a democratic developmental state?
- Do you anticipate that the current SMS Competencies as designed by the dpsa will change significantly? List all the competencies that you have noted thus far.
- What makes these areas of competence or competencies public sector specific?

During the focus group session, the researcher gathered a deeper level of understanding with regards to the complexities and dynamics underpinning the selection of competency contributors that would verify the competency contributors identified during the literature study and the Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework (LDMSF) to scientifically determine and triangulate unique public sector, senior manager competencies. In addition, the focus group interview afforded the researcher with an opportunity to observe and document complexities and dynamics that may potentially not be found in current literature.

In conclusion, it can be noted that the respondents found the focus group session so interactive and useful that they have requested for additional follow-up sessions to deliberate the topic even more.

2.5.2.2 Respondents

The target population relevant to this study was defined as members of the Senior Management Service (SMS) of the South African public sector that determines and develops competency frameworks and the proficiency levels thereof. There are currently approximately 20 senior

managers actively engaged in the task to design, develop and implement South African public service senior management competencies. These individuals serve in the Public Administration Leadership and Management Academy (PALAMA), the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa) and Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA). Out of the 20 respondents that were invited to participate in the focus group session, 15 respondents were able to attend the session.

2.5.2.3 Favourable risks/benefits ratio

Considering the fact, that qualitative interviews contain a high probability of “subjective distress in participants”, the researcher did not make use of audio or audio-visual recording of the session. Copious field notes were made by the researcher from which data will be extrapolated and presented in Chapter 5 paragraph 3 (Wassenaar, 2009:76; Kelly, 2009:315).

2.5.2.4 Ethical considerations

The focus group session was conducted with the following ethical considerations, suggested by Wassenaar (2009:72,76) as guide:

- Participants were provided with background information on the focus group session and were requested to provide informed consent that their opinions on the four questions may be used as data, supportive to the research study. Consent was given by all participants.
 - An appropriate background and information was provided;
 - Participants understood voluntary participation and were free to decline or withdraw after the focus group session had started;
 - Consent was captured by an independent scribe;
- An explicit confidentiality agreement was observed verbally prior to the commencement of the focus group session which was upheld through anonymous, written data capturing. The data will be displayed in Chapter 5 without any reference to a particular individual but rather as the group responded to the questions as a collective.
- In addition, the researcher will apply “a rigorous analytical process to ensure that valid and reliable conclusions are drawn” and displayed in Chapter 5.

2.5.2.5 Processing and verification of data

The data obtained from an in-depth literature review and a focus group interview were analysed scientifically against the research objectives. A representation of the data gathered during the focus group session will be exhibited in Chapter 5, paragraph 3. Recommendations will be made in Chapter 6 of this study.

In conclusion, the fundamental purpose of this study is to determine disparities, if there are any, between existing public sector senior management competencies and competencies required by

a public sector senior management, functioning in a democratic, developmental state. This study adopted a qualitative inquiry as supportive methodology that included a literature review and a focus group session to establish resolutions to the problem statement and research questions identified in Chapter 1. The literature or thematic review largely contributed to and enabled the researcher to extrapolate data in support of the fundamental purpose of this study. The literature review made it possible to implement a 5 phase plan and structure that guided the study systematically towards solutions in terms of the study's problem statement and research questions. The focus group session was structured in such a way that it adhered to a design and procedure phase. In addition, the respondents, a risk benefit ratio, ethical considerations and process verification of data were simultaneously considered. The validity and reliability of the study was pronounced as rigorous and trustworthy and that recurring findings were highlighted, respectively.

With such methodology as foundation, section 3 will provide empirical findings gathered during the focus group session to support a comparative analysis or triangulation between data gathered from the literature review, the focus group session and existing Senior Management Service (SMS) core and process competencies.

3. EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

On the 26th October 2010, the researcher facilitated a focus group session within which 15 South African public service senior managers participated as respondents to four study related questions. The following field data, gathered during the session, represents the empirical findings of discussions that took place amongst members of the selected respondent group.

3.1 What is the role of the public service senior manager in the South African democratic, developmental state?

In crafting a clear role for public service senior managers in the South African democratic, developmental state the respondents engaged in a discussion from which the following data can be extrapolated:

Discussion point 1:

The developmental state implies that the public sector and then by implication its bureaucracy adopt the role of initiators and mobilisers of the State organs of civil society to cause social mobilisation and subsequently achieve South Africa's developmental imperatives. The Senior Management Service (SMS) contributes towards shaping the National agenda. New leadership should not define the direction of the organisation.

South Africa's economic policies are the determinants (guide) of how the Administration should achieve the developmental imperatives. The discourse should be simplified. An unpretentious

motivation could be: How do the people become sustainable? How do we solve the real challenges such as water and quality schooling? Ideology and structure influences development. The ideology of the present State should be unpacked and problematized to ascertain the extent to which present policy is advantaging the rich. Deeper questions should be asked in terms of the State and economic policy. The core of our developmental goals is not being addressed. The relation between the State, the economy and development should be overt and directive. As long as we mirror what the global economy wants us to mirror, we will never solve poverty issues.

From the respondent's discussion, the following competency contributors can be inferred: Initiators, mobilisers (Leftwich, 2007:5,7; Tiwari and Singhal, 2009:414; PALAMA Annual Report, 2009/10:11), inclusion of stakeholders and civil society (Cf. McLennan, 2008:6; Gumede, 2009:12 and McLennan, 2009:20) and an innate understanding of South Africa's economic policies (Mkandawire, 2001:2 and Gumede, 2009:95) that determine the way in which developmental imperatives will be achieved. In addition, the relation between the State, the economy and development should be clear.

Discussion point 2:

Public service senior management should have an aptitude to manage the political-administrative interface, with a particular focus on local government as this might be the largest factor of failure after 16 years. Senior managers should not keep themselves busy to satisfy the political agenda of the day but rather the developmental goals as it outlives the tenure of any political term. It is challenging for the Administration to implement political undertakings within the limitations of legislation and bureaucratic "red-tape". Senior managers have power and authority and should question political heads' opinions and motives and engage in debate with political heads. Public sector senior managers should also display a capacity to change citizen's perspective from a culture of entitlement to a culture of participation.

From this discussion, it is clear that senior managers in the public service should have the ability to manage and influence the political-administrative interface, as it is closely inter-linked, to remain focused on the developmental goals. Senior managers should simultaneously be change agents (Esping-Andersen, 2004:211), on a societal level to mobilise stakeholders towards the achievement of South Africa's developmental goals. The importance of the political-administrative interface is echoed throughout this study by scholars such as (Low, 2004:12; Leftwich, 2007:4; Weiss & Hobson, 1995:12; Helgesen, 1995:29; McLennan, 2008:6; McLennan, 2009:20 and Gumede, 2009:12). Gumede and Dikene (2009:3) alert to the challenges of political tolerance for alternative sentiments in Chapter 3 of this study.

3.2 Is there a difference between a public sector senior manager's role in a democratic state as opposed to a democratic, developmental state?

Discussion point 1:

Serious introspection is required on the level where public service senior management competencies are identified and developed. There is a need to supplement the existing competency framework. Perhaps have an integrated approach. The definitions of competencies should be broadened. When for example, programme and project management and strategic capabilities and leadership are defined, how does competence in the discipline enable senior managers to achieve the developmental agenda from planning to implementation? Seen in the light of a democratic, developmental state, it is perhaps time to explore the next level of for example Programme and Project Management to highlight cross sectorial or cross departmental functioning. Stakeholder involvement might require a whole different set of competencies inclusive of stakeholder involvement to take South Africa to a whole new level. A passion for the people and our country should be at the core of every competency.

Discussion point 2:

With regards to the democratic state, the status quo remains but in terms of the democratic, developmental state, we are not where we need to be. Our thinking should include global and domestic landscapes. The developmental state requires innovative solutions from senior managers to include citizens and to enable citizens to benefit from acquired skills for example.

Discussion point 3:

The Ubuntu culture should be displayed by the Administration. There should be an application of seriousness and commitment in line with the environment and developmental objectives.

Discussions surrounding Question 2 indicated that public sector senior managers as practitioners would promote that the existing competencies should be explored further in order to address the requirements of a developmental state. In addition, it was acknowledged that the social dimension requires inclusion which will have a different set from the existing competencies to support it. The inclusion of innovation and Ubuntu were highlighted as important for inclusion into the SMS competency framework.

3.3 Do you anticipate that the current Senior Management Services (SMS) Competencies as designed by the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa) will change significantly?

Discussion point 1:

To have the technical capacity or capability to deliver requires so much more than a mere competency. Maybe it is not about defining more competencies but defining what we package inside the competencies in context with what South Africa is all about. There is a disjuncture between the generic competencies and the democratic developmental context. Is the individual socialised in a dominant western way, managing issues and compliance rather than innovating solutions to challenges. Leadership speaks to the orientation of the person. It is subtle and sometimes goes beyond competencies. Matrix management could prove to be an innovative addition.

Discussion point 2:

We don't have to re-invent the competency framework, but we can add to the existing framework. Perhaps add "softer" or subtle competence such as discretion. If there is a crisis do you have to follow procedures? The Public Finance Management Act (PFMA), (1999) states clearly "...at the discretion of the Director-General. Organisational leaders should not ask: What are the consequences if I sign this. – A lack of discretionary powers to make delivery happen. Would this fall under competencies or application? – Senior managers should be taught properly what the PFMA prescribes – there are clauses that allow space for delivery within the requirements supportive of service delivery. Competencies are immediately related to: How do I measure this, how do I develop it? Discretion is proved over 5-10 years of continuously making the right decisions. It is all about a mind set – how you go about doing your business. Conduct and approach are additional to competencies and of critical importance. The focus should be on limit the efforts so that the efforts are focussed on the right things.

Discussion point 3:

Public service senior managers should encourage innovation and creativity and simultaneously instil a culture of threat-less innovation. Innovation is discouraged at this point. Senior managers should simultaneously have an aptitude to identify and nurture talent. Trust should be visible at organisational level and beyond and should negate frustration and inspire empowerment.

The aspects identified in this discussion relate to the fact that members of the focus group do not anticipate a re-design of the current competency framework and that the developmental state might require senior management abilities that stretch far beyond the boundaries of a

competency framework. However, it was noticed that there are challenges on the layers of application. The inclusion of softer skills into the framework was also highlighted.

3.4 What makes these areas of competence or competencies public sector specific?

Discussion point 1:

When competencies are identified and displayed, its core should reflect as serving the citizens of South Africa.

In conclusion, a number of competency contributors were identified during the focus group session. It is furthermore important to note the identified competency contributors. Equally important is the unidentified competency contributors identified throughout this study. A comparative analysis will be conducted in paragraph 4 to provide a visual representation of a triangulation between competency contributors identified during the literature study, the LDMSF and competency contributors identified during the focus group session.

4. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

The comparative analysis considered data supportive of competency contributors gathered throughout this study. Data obtained from three different sources, the literature study, the focus group session and the LDMSF, will enable a triangulation of competency contributors to infer recommendations in Chapter 6. The data from the afore mentioned sources will be populated against the 5 public service competency domains, identified in Chapter 4, paragraph 3.2. Competencies will, in addition be reflected in graphs to display each contributor's importance factor.

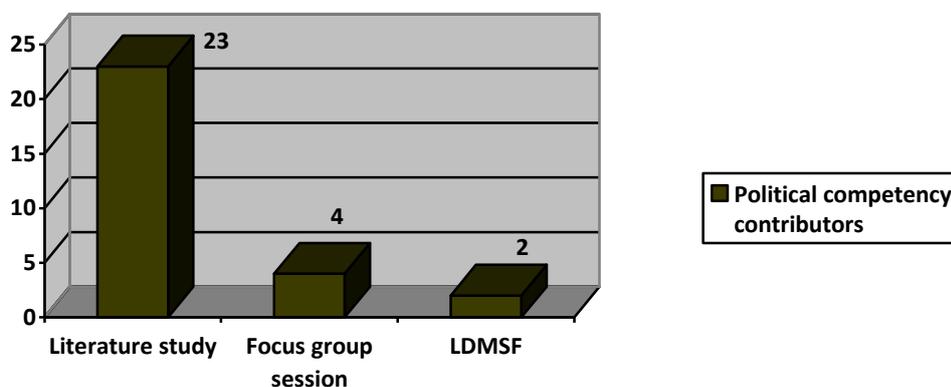
4.1 Political competency contributors

Table 5.1: Political competency contributors identified through the literature study, focus group session and LDMSF.

Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
The rule of law Legality, regulation and transparency The rule of law and social equality	Political-administrative interface	
Strong state structure		
Organisation constitution		
Form and character of developmental accomplishments		
Interaction between State and markets		
Typography of South Africa's history and its influence on the future		
Politics and development Social and economic capital efforts	Political ideology and the State	
Establishing an interactive strength: Strategy selection and action		
Maturation paths of transformation		
People matters in politics		
Internal and external force-fields	Global and domestic landscapes	

National and global relation		
Entrance into the global society		
Social relations		
Construct and re-organise cultural, social and political dimensions		
Political precursors that enable social equality through economic growth		
Social capital, trust building and cooperation	Trust building	
Enable, lead and manage networks		
Accountable global leadership		
Governance		Strategic capability and leadership: Strategic planning Governance and management frameworks
Accountable leadership		Strategic capability and leadership: Leading people Strategy and task execution
The politics of service delivery		
Developmental state resolve		
Official approach to politics		
Indigenous and global innovation		

Chart 5.1: Visual representation of political competence importance inferred from data captured in the literature study, the focus group session and the LDMSF.



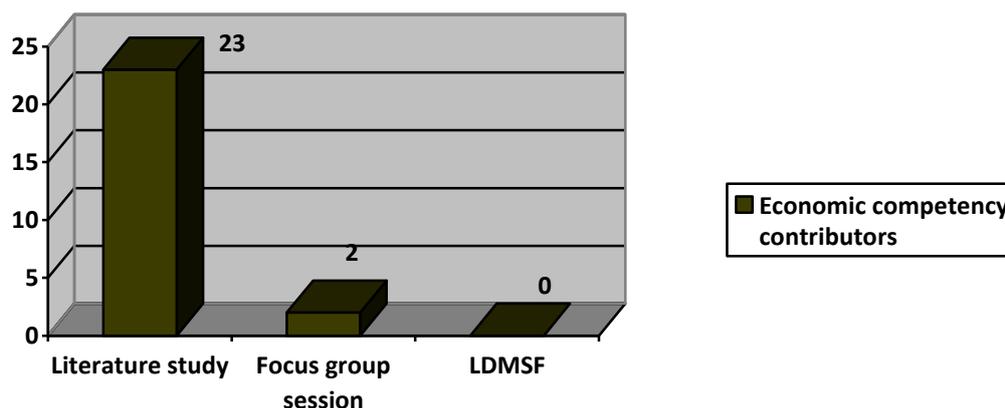
4.2 Economic competency contributors

Table 5.2: Economic competency contributors identified through the literature study, focus group session and LDMSF.

Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
Economic expansion		
Transformation in industrious sectors		
Economic achievements		
Launching high speed economic growth		
Interaction between State and markets		
Typography of South Africa's history and its influence on the future		
Interactive strength: Strategy selection and action		
Maturation paths of transformation		
International and national force-fields		
Global awareness		
Interaction between states, banks and business	The State, the economy and development	
Transformation of the economy and infrastructure		
Conception of industrial policy tools	Economic policies	
Promotion of industry commerce and capital liberalisation		
Industrial and financial conglomerates		
Entrance into the global society		

Political precursors that enable social equality through economic growth		
Social capital, trust building and cooperation		
Social and economic capital efforts		
Improved economic landscape: Socio-economic growth		
Developmental state resolve		
Enable, lead and manage robust networks		
Indigenous and global innovation		

Chart 5.2: Visual representation of economic competence importance inferred from data captured in the literature study, the focus group session and the LDMSF.



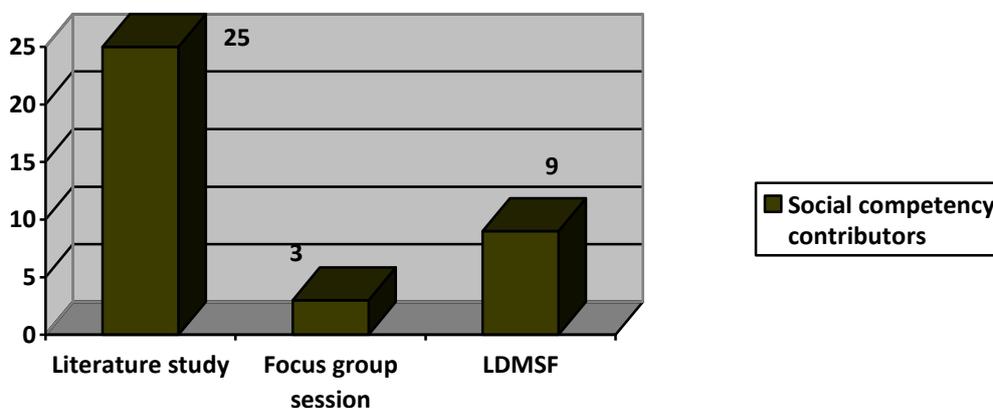
4.3 Social competency contributors

Table 5.3: Social competency contributors identified through the literature study, focus group session and LDMSF.

Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
Stimulate and encourage interface and discourse		Service delivery innovation
Engagement in the collective public	How do people become sustainable?	Consultation
Inclusion of citizens to agree on the developmental agenda		Redress
Typography of South Africa's history and its influence on the future		Providing information
Interactive strength: Strategy selection and action		Openness and transparency
Maturation paths of transformation		Value for money
People matters		Setting service standards
Social relations	Initiators and mobilisers of civil society	Ensuring courtesy
Re-institute dignity and self-esteem		Increasing access
The role of national customs		
Entrance into the global society		
Political precursors to enable social equality through economic growth		
Social capital, trust building and cooperation		
Social and economic capital efforts		
Networks		
Diversity management		
High quality human capital		
Improved economic landscape: Socio-economic growth		
Rule of law and social equality		
Indigenous authenticity and values		
Social inclusivity	Include and enable citizens Passion for the people and the country	

Exceptional developmental state resolve		
Public participation in policy and decision making		
Enable, lead and manage robust networks		
Indigenous and global innovation		

Chart 5.3: Visual representation of social competence importance inferred from data captured in the literature study, the focus group session and the LDMSF.



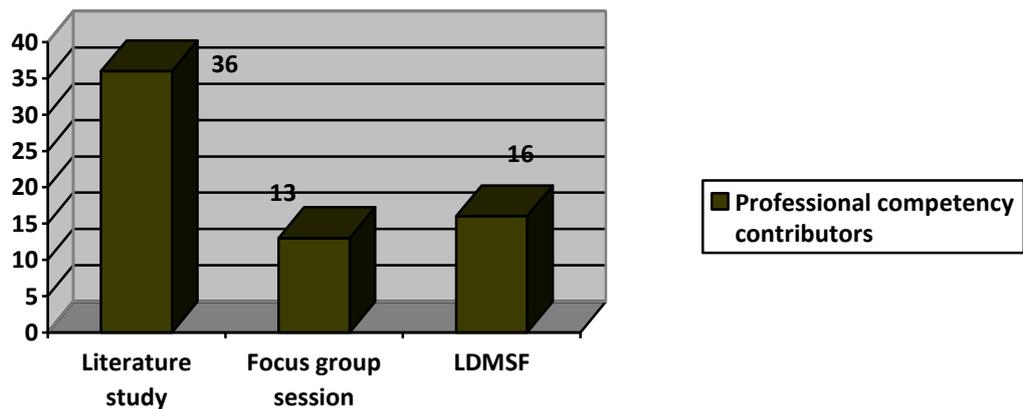
4.4 Professional competency contributors: Public Administration

Table 5.4: Professional competency contributors: Public Administration identified through the literature study, focus group session and LDMSF.

Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
Legislation and policies		Legislative framework
Resolute, effectual, closely controlled and answerable		Annual performance reporting Financial reporting Project and programme performance reporting Change results impact: Monitoring and evaluation
Anti corruption Ethical values, principles and norms	Conduct and approach	
Effective implementation of policies Formulate and implement policies Ability to execute economic policies Strong policy control		
Direct administrative and political resources to achieve economic development		
Organisation constitution		
Contending and collaborating dimensions in a developmental state		
Skilled and moral		
Robust character of government		
Change enablers		Change management
Inter-departmental partnerships		
Optimally functioning, results oriented bureaucracy		
Organisation that can safeguard against global force-fields	Global and domestic landscape	
Moderniser and innovator of socio-economic development		
Pre-emptive and forceful		
Strategies for achievement		
Recognise landscape		
Strengthened administrative, specialised and depersonalised		

Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
standards		
Well defined medium term organisational goals to organisational mission		
Bureaucratic polity		
Merit based		
Reform induced efficiency improvement		
Ability to translate strategy and developmental policies into action		
Optimally functioning, results oriented, streamlined organisations		
Resource mobilisation		
Real power, authority, technical competence, insulation and continuity		
Innovation	Innovative solutions	Service delivery innovation
Flexibility	Conduct and approach	
Development oriented		
Accountability		
High trust, high discretion, high ambition, Honesty		
Passion for the nation and its citizens	Passion for the people and the country	
Responsible, ownership, inclusivity , decisive, vigorous		
Management and leadership	Strategic capability and leadership	Strategic capability and leadership
Performance driven, results oriented		
Communications		Communication
Public sector management	Matrix management Programme and project management Financial management Human resource management	Management: People management and empowerment Project and programme management Financial management Change management Knowledge management
	Culture of Ubuntu	
	Individual orientation Seriousness and commitment in line with environment and developmental objectives	

Chart 5.4: Visual representation of professional competence importance inferred from data captured in the literature study, the focus group session and the LDMSF.

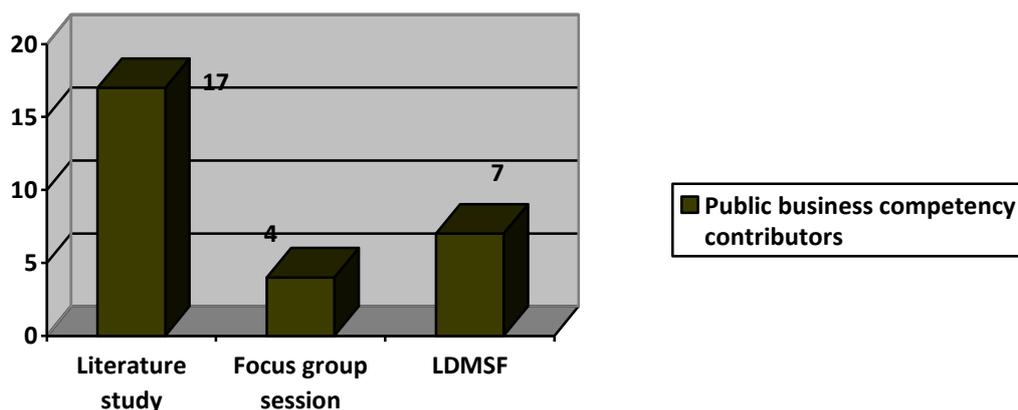


4.5 Public business competency contributors

Table 5.5: Public business competency contributors: Public Administration identified through the literature study, focus group session and LDMSF.

Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
Alterations to the way in which business is conducted (p.26), both private and public and interaction between private and public sectors (p.26)		
Information and technological innovation (p.32)		
Organisational transformation		Business process delivery loops
Autonomous problem solving and decision making		
Operational effectiveness		
Communication		
Negotiation skills		
Resilience		
Resource effectiveness – “more with less”		
Re-engineer business processes and systems Organisational development		
Human resource management and development		People management and empowerment
Programme and project management	Programme and project management	Programme and project management
Financial management	Financial management	Financial management
Process and system analysis		
Technical innovation	Technical skills	Technical and professional skills
Institution building		
Streamlined organisations		
Innovation	Innovation	Best practice
		Problem solving and analysis

Chart 5.5: Visual representation of public business competence importance inferred from data captured in the literature study, the focus group session and the LDMSF.



5. CONCLUSION

The following assumptions and conclusions can be drawn from the data represented in Tables 5.1 to 5.5 and Charts 5.1 to 5.5:

If the assumption is made that the literature study focused exclusively on developmental states and subsequently related bureaucratic competence, the baseline information would be that the data representing the literature study figure in Graphs 5.1 to 5.5 would be a 100% in every graph.

Table 5.6: Competency contributors identified through the literature study, focus group session and LDMSF: statistical values.

Political competency contributors			
	Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
Value	23	4	2
%	100%	17%	8.7%
Economic competency contributors			
	Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
Value	23	2	0
%	100%	8.7%	0%
Social competency contributors			
	Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
Value	25	3	9
%	100%	12%	36%
Sub-total: Developmental state landscape	71	9	11
Average %	100%	12.7%	15.5%
Professional competency contributors: Public administration			
	Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
Value	36	13	16
%	100%	36%	44%
Public business competency contributors			
	Literature study	Focus group session	LDMSF
Value	17	4	7
%	100%	23.5%	41%
Average total	124	26	34
Average %	100%	21%	27.4%

The second assumption would be that the literature study representation in Tables 5.1 to 5.5 and Charts 5.1 to 5.5 would demonstrate a bureaucracy's desired state in terms of preparedness to function optimally in a developmental state. Measured against such desired state, the following inferences can be made in terms of the South African bureaucracy's preparedness to guide senior managers towards optimal function in the democratic, developmental state:

Considering the developmental state landscape and its political dimension, the literature study offered 23 competency contributors, the focus group respondents offered 4 competency contributors and the LDMSF offered 2 competency contributors. The percentage value of the literature study, reflected as the desired state, as it focused solely on the developmental state presents a value of 100%, focus group respondents offered 17% and the LDMSF offered 8.7%. It can therefore be deduced that the LDMSF might consider a substantial increase competencies to address the political dimension.

Data gathered on the economic dimension presented the following statistics: The literature study suggested 23 competency contributors whilst focus group respondents suggested 2 competency contributors and the LDMSF suggested 0 competency contributors. The percentage value of the literature study presented a value of 100%, focus group respondents presented 8.6% and the LDMSF presented 0%. It can therefore be reasoned that there is substantial reason for the inclusion of competencies in the LDMSF, that address public sector, senior management competence in the economic dimension.

Competency contributors gathered to support the social dimension of a developmental state intimated 25 from the literature study, 3 from focus group respondents and 9 from the LDMSF. The percentage value of the literature study is 100%, from focus group respondents is 12% and the LDMSF is 36%. It can be argued that there is significant reason for the inclusion of competencies to address the social dimension of a democratic, developmental state in the LDMSF.

Based on the fact that South Africa is a democratic, developmental state, it can be reasoned that the LDMSF is due for a re-engineering if the intension is to equip public sector senior managers to perform optimally towards the achievement of this nation's developmental objectives.

In terms of professional competency contributors: Public administration, the literature study contributed 36 competency contributors, focus group respondents offered 13 and the LDMSF provided 16 competency contributors. The percentage value against the literature review is 100%, focus group respondent's percentage value is 36% and the LDMSF percentage value is 44%. The notion of improved public service specific competencies becomes evident.

Public business competency contributors are representative of modern bureaucracies and therefore potentially critical to have in the public service senior management's competency framework. The literature study presented a value of 17 competency contributors; focus group respondents offered 4 and the LDMSF displayed 7 competency contributors. The percentage value for the literature study is 100%, the percentage value for focus group respondents is 23.5% and the percentage value for the LDMSF is 41%. Significant improvements can therefore be made to support public service senior management to affect a contemporary public service.

In conclusion, if the literature study presented a benchmark of 100% total, the figures display that the focus group was able to identify a total of 21% competency contributors and the LDMSF presented a total of 27.4% competency contributors. It can therefore be reasoned that there is substantial room for improvement on the public sector senior management competency framework and the competencies that it suggests to support a modern bureaucracy to achieve the nation's developmental goals.

Based on the data gathered throughout this study, Chapter 6 will offer conclusions and recommendations to address the problem statement and research questions displayed in Chapter 1.

Chapter 6

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

“It is important to hear what is being said, but perhaps it is more important to hear what has not been said.”

Unknown

1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 detailed the methodology of this study as conceptual research through qualitative inquiry that scientifically structured and tied: the introduction; the paradigmatic evolution of six developmental states; South Africa as democratic, developmental state; and the importance of the South African public services displayed competence, through the application of competencies in distinct public sector domains. Chapter 5 furthermore compared competency contributors, extracted from the literature study, the focus group session and the existing, current South African public sector senior management competency framework to enable a rich contribution of competency contributors in five of the eight relevant domains (Virtanen, 2000:333-341; Schwella & Rossouw, 2005) that are applicable to this study.

Chapter 6 will provide concluding remarks and recommendations to this study, commencing with the primary and secondary objectives as it is reflected in Chapter 1. It will furthermore consider the study's problem statement, primary and secondary research questions as the Chapter reflects on inferences made from the data gathered in each chapter. Grounded on the synopsis of inferences made in Chapters 2 to 5, as introduced and structured in Chapter 1, Chapter 6 will conclude with recommendations to elucidate the topic of this study that was identified as, Public sector senior management competencies required for the South African democratic, developmental state.

2. CONCLUSION

Low (2004:12) reminds in Chapter 1 of this study that within a highly complex, interactive, inter-responding layered system, public sector senior management competence is merely one of the essential components that enable a state to achieve its developmental objectives. Bearing Low's (2004:12) statement in mind, (Marwala, 2006:3; Gumede, 2007:57; Baloyi, 2009:4; Hwedi, 2001:7; Edigheji, 2009:16; McLennan, 2008:20; Fan et al. 2008:42; Manuel, 2007:2) refer to the pivotal role that the bureaucracy plays in the achievement of a nation's developmental agenda. Considering such scholarly efforts, the emphasis of this study was therefore directed at the competence that a bureaucracy should display to enable a democratic, developmental state to achieve its developmental agenda.

The title of this study distillates the attention on four areas of interest. These four areas are described as the South African public sector; senior management; competencies and the democratic developmental state. The association between the title of this study and the study's primary objective becomes evident as these key areas pillar the primary objective of this study. The primary objective was described in Chapter 1 as: Determining the disparities, if any, between

the current South African public sector Senior Management Service (SMS) competencies and the competencies required by public sector senior managers when functioning optimally in a democratic, developmental state. The secondary objectives suggested the documentation of the paradigmatic evolution of developmental landscape dimensions and intents, national and international force-fields, the documentation of the principles of democratic governance; the documentation of the role of the South African public service senior manager; and the documentation of the role of competencies in a democratic developmental state. In addition to the relation between the title of this research study and its objectives, the identified key features are simultaneously recognised in the problem statement which in turn effected the primary and secondary research questions. The primary research questions against which Chapter 6 will measure the contributions and inferences made in each Chapter are noted as follows: What is expected from a South African public sector senior manager?; How are these expectations measured, external to the workplace and internally?; Which senior management competencies are currently highlighted as core to the efficient and effective functioning of the South African public sector Senior Management Service (SMS)?; Which public sector senior management competencies are highlighted through the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state?; Are there similarities and disparities between the current South African public sector senior management competencies and the competencies highlighted through the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state?

The secondary research questions, outlined in Chapter 1 of this study, are as follows: What is the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state?; What are the similarities and differences between developmental state's primary triggers, specific developmental challenges, exclusive characteristics and outcomes within a set timeline of evolution?; What are the principles of democratic governance?; What is the role of the South African public service senior manager?; What is the role of competencies in a democratic developmental state? The enquiry and inferences of each chapter from Chapters 2 to 5 will be detailed against the aforementioned border posts as it is outlined in Chapter 1. In addressing the research questions, it is noted that Chapter 1 has triggered the process of establishing responses to the research questions as it defined the concept of a paradigmatic evolution of a developmental state. Such definition shaped the basic understanding of a developmental state's paradigmatic evolution throughout the research study.

Chapter 2 introduced and unlocked the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of the structure of this study against which the paradigmatic evolution of developmental states will be explored by suggesting a framework which signifies the scholarly efforts of (Edigheji, 2008; Hjort, 2008; Fukuyama, 2008; Natrass & Seekings, 2002). As a point of departure, Chapter 2 engaged in the paradigmatic evolution of six developmental states against a distinct structure. Such a structure provided surface evidence of the paradigmatic evolution of each developmental state as a model or framework within which the progression of each state was measured against the developmental landscape dimensions and each dimension's intents, synonymous to the nature of

its hypothesis and context. Perhaps of greater importance to this research study, was the deeper embedded evidence of distinct developmental characteristics, organisational structure, leadership philosophies and developmental best practice that became evident throughout the process of mapping each nation's paradigmatic developmental evolution. The deeper embedded evidence interjected significant intelligence (competency contributors) into the objective of this study which was to determine the existence of disparities between competencies determined for a public sector bureaucracy, functioning in a democratic state as opposed to a democratic developmental state. The competency contributors extricated from Chapter 2 are tabled in Chapters 4 and 5. Significant to deduce at this point then is that the process connected to this structure enabled information that scientifically contributed to the elucidation of the research topic, the problem statement and primary and secondary research questions.

It was deduced from Chapter 2 that there are some similarities between the six analysed developmental states but, important to note is that each state displayed unique elements which caused that the dissimilarities subsumed their similarities. Woo-Cumings (1999) then rightfully reminded that each developmental state has a distinct connection to its own past. It was simultaneously noted that each state reacted differently to particular primary triggers such as expansionism, warfare, colonialism, modernisation, poverty reduction and economic independence to name a few of the examples cited in Chapter 2. Economic policy and practices varied from nation to nation as each state chose different ways in which it reacted differently to national and global force-fields. Chapter 2 revealed that some of the nations still have an arduous process of transformation between a current state and a desired democratic state as they have not yet fully embraced the democratic philosophy. It was also construed that the rule of law has not yet found its rightful place in many of these developmental states and that in order for the developmental philosophy to become positively sustained into the future, consideration should be given to the equitable positioning thereof within the functioning of the state.

The similarities that became prominent amongst these developmental states were a particular attraction to the advantages of rapid economic growth and contemporary governments that projected nations into the developmental philosophy. Successful developmental states concurrently adopted an interactive vigour from which it inspired and empowered distinct, purposeful relationships that rigorously promoted socio-economic growth.

Chapter 1 defines the concept of a paradigmatic evolution of a developmental state and both Chapters 2 and 3 measure contributions made by scholars and political elites against a distinct scholarly proposed framework that outlines the developmental landscape dimensions and its intents. In addition, Chapters 2 and 3 map state building, the rule of law, principles of democratic governance, economic growth, facilitation of redistribution, nation-building and national identity, social equality and social capital as intents to the political, economic and social dimensions of a developmental state, respectively. Chapter 3 maps the individuality of the Republic of South Africa against the democratic, developmental landscape dimensions and its intents in addition to

global and national force-fields. Scholarly and political contributions populated the scientific data of this chapter to establish a background and facts that would support forthcoming chapters when it addresses primary and secondary research questions. Once again, as in Chapter 2 there are two layers from which data can be drawn. The first layer speaks to issues of a nation that has world renowned policies and legislature in place but at the same time grapples with severe socio-economic challenges. The second layer reveals scientific data in terms of the South African bureaucracy's competence as organisation within a highly complex, interactive, inter-responding layered system which provides useful scientific data (competency indicators) to future chapters. It is noted that both Chapters 2 and 3 provided clear physiognomies of successful developmental states as well as the not so successful developmental characteristics.

Chapter 3 reveals a micro or national approach against Chapter 2's international approach, as it narrows the study area down to South Africa as democratic, developmental state. In addition, Chapter 3 positively addresses the paradigmatic evolution of South Africa as democratic, developmental state against developmental dimensions and intents.

With a specific focus on South Africa, Chapter 4 revealed the data supportive of a public sector preparing to manage and lead in a democratic, developmental state. In doing so, the chapter considered the unique role of South Africa's public sector within a modern democratic landscape. Chapter 4 therefore alluded to the architecture of a bureaucracy that is crafted and led by political elites with a determined purpose which is to achieve the developmental agenda of this nation. Chapter 4 also considered the unique role of South Africa's public sector senior management within the state and hence addressed a primary and secondary research questions supportive of this study. The chapter furthermore offered internal and external performance measures. In addition, the chapter defined competence and competencies, supportive of a conceptual structure, relevant to the South African public sector context. Based on scholarly efforts, public sector relevant competency domains were identified against which competency contributors were identified in Chapters 2 and 3 and packaged as each is relevant to a competency domain. Chapter 4 introduced the Senior Management Service (SMS) competency framework that is currently applied in the South African public sector.

Considering South Africa's socio-economic dilemmas and its subsequent developmental goals, the following inferences can be made from Chapter 4: Political elites are certainly suggesting modern approaches and initiatives that have direct effects on organisation structure, the way in which organisations collaborates and functions as well as senior management competence. The current core and process competencies as introduced by the Department of Public Service and Administration (dpsa) are valid and applicable to the working environment of public sector senior managers. However, an inability to address South Africa's socio-economic challenges is measured against Bloom's taxonomy of the learning domains (1956) which disclosed a challenge on the third layer of the taxonomy, which potentially then identifies the first and second layers as unsolidified and questionable. From the latter it is inferred that public sector knowledge and

comprehension precedes application but perhaps requires to be addressed before application can be expected. It is furthermore noted that levels of knowledge and comprehension have reference to a myriad of aspects such as bureaucratic or organisation systems and procedures, legislation, policy interpretation, a cognitive appreciation for the state's developmental landscape, intents and agenda, partnerships and networks, social compact and cultural diversity. Five public sector competency domains were elucidated against which competency contributors were selected from Chapters 2 and 3 to populate tabled data. It can be inferred that the competence expectations of the nation and the developmental state are potentially much larger than what is reflected in the current LDMSF.

Chapter 4 elucidated particular research questions such as which competencies are currently applied in the South African public sector to enable effective functioning and which competency contributors are highlighted through the paradigmatic evolution of the developmental state.

Chapter 5 offered data that confirms the qualitative methodology and the pertinent data collection techniques that were applied to construct valid and reliable scientific facts that support the study's problem statement, research questions, research objectives and central theoretic statements as alluded to in Chapter 1. Chapter 5 articulated empirical findings from data obtained through a focus group session. Assembled data were triangulated, as comparative analysis, from a list of key competency contributors, collected from Chapters 2, 3 and 4 signified against 5 competence domains for the South African public sector and relevant to this study, (i.e., Political competence; Economic competence; Social competence; Professional competence in public administration; and Public business competence); Core and process competencies included in the Leadership Development Management Strategic Framework's (LDMSF) (2007) as expressed in Chapter 4; and Competencies identified through empirical findings gathered during a focus group session and displayed in Chapter 5.

The fundamental purpose of this study was to determine disparities, if there are any, between existing public sector senior management competencies and competencies required by a public sector senior management, functioning in a democratic, developmental state. This study adopted a qualitative inquiry as supportive methodology that included a literature review and a focus group session to establish resolutions to the problem statement and research questions identified in Chapter 1. The literature or thematic review largely contributed to and enabled the researcher to extrapolate data in support of the fundamental purpose of this study. The literature review made it possible to implement a 5 phase plan and structure that guided the study systematically towards solutions in terms of the study's problem statement and research questions. The focus group session was structured in such a way that it adhered to a design and procedure phase. In addition, the respondents, a risk benefit ratio, ethical considerations and process verification of data were simultaneously considered. The validity and reliability of the study were pronounced as rigorous and trustworthy and that recurring findings were highlighted, respectively.

In conclusion, if the literature study presented a benchmark of 100% total, the figures display that the focus group was able to identify a total of 15.52% competency contributors and the LDMSF presented a total of 19.12% competency contributors. It can therefore be reasoned that there is substantial room for improvement on the public sector senior management competency framework and the competencies that it suggests to support a modern bureaucracy to achieve the nation's developmental goals. Based on the fact that South Africa is a democratic, developmental state, it can be reasoned that the LDMSF is due for a re-engineering if the intension is to equip public sector senior managers to perform optimally towards the achievement of this nation's developmental objectives.

3. RECOMMENDATIONS

Considering South Africa, its history and the developmental state philosophy, to which this nation has subscribed as well as resistant socio-economic challenges linked to a second economy, immediately filters to the surface. Despite the fact that South Africa's 1st economy competes fairly successfully in the global arena and has displayed economic growth, the state has not been able to get South Africa's 2nd economy to benefit from the first. Throughout the study, challenges of unequal patterns of service delivery are mentioned in addition to challenges of poverty reduction, standard of education, safety and security, inequality and under or unemployment.

Observed against the problem statement documented in Chapter 1 as the relation between supreme service delivery, capable and efficient state institutions, a well functioning government, effective growth and development programmes and appropriately developed skills that contribute to the achievement of a nation's developmental agenda, the following recommendations are made:

- Public sector relevant competence domains are strengthened on the levels of knowledge and comprehension to ensure effective and efficient service delivery and application.
- Once knowledge and comprehension are strengthened and application is observed levels of analysis, synthesis and evaluation can be reinforced to be in line with political elite's expectations of applied innovation.
- An inclusion of the five competence domains into the LDMSF that guides senior management competence in the South African public sector. The five domains are noted as: Political competence; economic competence; social competence; professional competence in public administration; and public business competence.

When considering the disparities that exist between the current LDMSF competency framework and a competency framework that enables public sector senior managers to manage and lead in a democratic developmental state, it is not suggested that the existing competencies should be

eliminated but rather suggests a different line of incidence to existing competencies and the inclusion of additional competencies that are aligned to the five identified competence domains as identified in Chapter 4 of this study. The following competency inclusions are recommended as inferred from this study:

- An inclusion of domain relevant competencies, denoted as actions, into the LDMSF.
 - **Political competence** could for example display the following competencies:
Managing the political-administrative interface; applying the rule of law to enable social equality; accountable leadership; governing in a strong state structure; detecting and directing political precursors that enable social equality through economic growth; relating the typography of South Africa's history that influences its future; Influencing the form and character of developmental accomplishments; official approaches to politics and service delivery; official approaches to politics and development; accountable global leadership; enabling pathways into a global society; building trust; creating maturation paths of transformation; developmental state resolve; enable manage and lead networks; indigenous and global innovation; construct and re-organise cultural, social and political dimensions; establish interactive strengths – strategy selection and action; engineering organisation constitution; political ideology and the State; global and domestic landscapes.
 - **Economic competence** could for example display the following competencies:
Linking the State, the economy and development; enabling economic expansion; planning and implementing transformation in industrious sectors; leading towards economic achievements; launching high speed economic growth; building interactive networks between the State and markets; global economic awareness; improving the economic landscape to promote socio-economic growth; indigenous and global economic innovation; transforming the economy and infrastructure; conceptualise industrial policy tools; promoting industry, commerce and capital liberalisation; detecting political precursors that enable social equality through economic growth.
 - **Social competence** could for example display the following competencies:
Stimulate and encourage interface and discourse; engaging the collective public to agree on the developmental agenda; building social relations; re-instituting dignity and self-esteem; social capital, trust building and cooperation; service delivery innovation; initiating and mobilising civil society; innovating initiatives that make people sustainable; building, manage and lead robust societal networks; managing diversity; enabling high quality human capital; improving socio-economic growth; linking the rule of law and social equality; strengthening indigenous authenticity and values; enabling public participation in policy making.

- **Professional competence: Public administration** could for example display the following competencies:

Promoting development through effective implementation of legislative frameworks; encouraging anti corruption, ethical values, principles and norms; displaying resolute, effectual, closely controlled, accountable conduct and approach; direct administrative and political resources to achieve economic development; aligning organisational constitution to developmental agenda; enabling a robust governmental character; identification and application of change enablers; establish inter-departmental partnerships; public administration in a domestic and global developmental landscape; leading change; performance reporting; change results impact: Monitoring and evaluation; programme and project management; promote optimal functioning and a results orientated bureaucracy; Instil a culture of Ubuntu; matrix public sector management: People management and empowerment; project and programme management; Financial management; Change management; and Knowledge management; display the following characteristics: Moderniser; innovator; pre-emptive; forceful; recognise landscape; real power; authority; technical competence; insulation; continuity; accountability; high trust; high discretion; high ambition; honesty; performance driven; results oriented; a passion for the nation and its citizens; development oriented; flexibility; responsible; ownership; inclusivity; decisive; vigorous; leadership; an ability to effectively mobilise resources; outstanding communicator; designers of optimally functioning, results oriented, streamlined organisations that can safeguard against global force-fields; devise strategies for achievement; display strengthened administrative, specialised and de-personalised standards; implement well defined medium term organisational goals to organisational mission; successfully manage bureaucratic polity; promote merit based approaches; reform induced efficiency improvement; ability to translate strategy and developmental policies into action.

- **Public business competence** could for example display the following competencies:

Design alterations to the way in which business is conducted, both private and public and interaction between private and public sectors; information and technology innovation; organisational transformation; innovate business process delivery loops; autonomous problem solving and decision making skills; lead operational effectiveness; excellent communication skills; negotiation skills; resilience; display resource effectiveness – “more with less”; re-engineer business processes and systems; promote continuous organisational development; human resource management and development; programme and project management; financial management; process and system analysis; technical and professional innovation; institution building; leading towards streamlined organisations; innovation; identify and promote best practice; problem solving and analysis.

With a final reflection on the research topic as public sector senior management competencies required for the South African democratic, developmental state, the problem statement and research objectives as outlined in Chapter 1 and 6 respectively, this study contributed through literature review, a focus group session and existing data in practice to intensify and redirect the focus of public sector senior management competencies firstly on Public Administration as a specific active discipline. In addition, the study enabled levels within the learning domain that require strengthening to enable successful bureaucratic service delivery towards the achievement of a nation's developmental goals. The inquiry furthermore highlighted 5 domains for inclusion into a public sector senior management competency framework that would strengthen and enable the senior bureaucracy to manage and lead successful interventions towards the achievement of South Africa's developmental agenda. These 5 domains were identified as: Political competence; economic competence; social competence; professional competence: Public administration; and public business competence. The study reinforced each of the five domains with competency contributors that could model a fresh, new set of public sector senior management competencies in South Africa as democratic, developmental state.

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