

I.0 Making the Most of Staff

1.1 Setting the Overall Framework

1.1.1 Achieving/communicating a mission orientation

The mission of a public or private sector organisation captures its overall purposes, what it exists for, and what it intends to achieve within its area of operation and responsibility.

Achieving a *mission orientation* is concerned with establishing a clear sense of direction and commitment within the organisation.

A central feature is the mission statement, which captures the best intentions of the organisation.

However, producing a mission statement is only a stage in the whole process of achieving a mission orientation and gaining commitment to its aims and purposes among managers and staff.

Mission is closely related to other terms concerning the purposes of the organisation, which can be set out in a hierarchy for planning and direction-setting as follows:

- *Vision*: looking ahead to the best possible outcome; where the organisation intends to be in, for example, three or five years time. It is related to policy formulation and, therefore, in government organisations, has a strong political dimension.
- *Mission*: how the organisation intends to operate in order to bring about that vision. This is a primary responsibility of the chief executive or administrative head of the organisation, but should reflect the importance of adaptable and consultative management.
- *Objectives/targets*: more specific achievements, which the organisation hopes to bring about within the mission framework.
- *Key tasks*: what individual units of the organisation need to do.

From here, strategies will be devised to determine what actions the organisation and its component units will take in order to achieve its purposes at various levels; and performance indicators will be devised to determine whether these purposes are being achieved.

The context for change

Mission orientation programmes have increased rapidly in recent years as a direct result of the tighter and more businesslike trends in organisations within the public service. There is an increasing tendency for smaller units and agencies to establish their own mission statements and agendas for change.

The main purposes in establishing a mission orientation are:

- to help managers clarify in their own minds what the business of the organisation is;
- to provide a focus for managers and other staff in meeting organisational goals;
- to stimulate among the staff a sense of membership of the organisation rather than being merely employees; and
- to provide a framework within which to determine targets and more precise objectives.

Mission statements have an important role in the process by providing a specific reference point which can be published and displayed for the benefit of both staff and clients of the organisation.

The process of developing a mission statement, including employees at all levels, is as important as the statement itself.

Reasons for caution

Moves to orient staff and activities towards the achievement of organisational goals will highlight existing institutional weaknesses. A decision to focus on mission must imply a willingness to address challenges, which may include:

- Low morale among staff and its linkages with low levels of remuneration and poor working conditions, overstaffing, understaffing and insecurity of employment;
- high turnover of personnel within the organisation;
- political apathy or lack of top management commitment; and
- strong trade union opposition.

Mission statements are means and not ends. They will not achieve their purpose of providing a “banner” behind which the organisation can “rally” if they are:

- too vague and generalised to have any substantial value;
- too idealistic to have any realistic hope of implementation;
- not felt to be owned by all levels of staff;
- not seen to be owned by top management;
- not regularly reviewed and renewed; and
- not publicised widely.

Organisations within the public service are not autonomous business units. They each contribute to the public service. Enthusiasm for mission definition at unit or ministry level must be consistent with larger strategies.

Achieving change

The preconditions for developing a mission orientation are:

- commitment and active support by top management and political leaders;
- understanding and appreciation within the organisation of client/customer needs;
- a collaborative environment between management, staff and, where relevant, public service unions;
- a determination to monitor performance and provide feedback to all levels through effective communication channels within the organisation; and
- a willingness by top managers and political leaders to set challenging targets which are realistically achievable within the available resources.

When the development of a mission statement is considered to be a useful contribution to the mission orientation, the stages typically included are:

- a meeting between the chief executive (Permanent Secretary, administrative head) and his/her Minister. Where the initiative comes from the executive head rather than his/her political superior, it will be essential to sound out the Minister's views on the organisation's mission, in relation to current policy, planning and vision for the future, before proceeding further;
- staff meetings/workshops at various levels, including top management, to consider what the organisation exists for, and wants to achieve;
- written suggestions for a mission statement from staff throughout the organisation;
- consideration by top/senior management, including the Minister, of outcomes of meetings and written suggestions;
- formulation of a draft statement in clear and concise language;
- testing the draft statement on representative groups of staff and, where these can be defined, consumers;
- refining the draft for final approval by top management and political leaders; and
- publication of the mission statement and incorporating it into all promotional materials.

Mission statements emphasise the responsibilities of managers at all levels to:

- set challenges (expectations for subordinates ensure that all officers understand how their activities contribute towards the mission);
- provide feedback on the organisation's achievement of its mission; and
- value suggestions as to how the mission might be better accomplished.

Examples of change

In *Canada*, over 4,500 employees participated directly in the development of the Agricultural Department's mission statement. At Correctional Service Canada, the mission statement exercise led to over 3,500 concrete proposals from staff, and almost all have been acted upon.

In *Malaysia*, following the introduction of Total Quality Management in the Civil Service in 1992, Government departments are required to formulate vision and mission statements, and these have encouraged managers and staff to be more customer focused.

In the *UK*, a set of objectives published by the Department of Trade and Industry in 1987 has led to individual agencies and businesses within the Department producing their own mission statements.

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

Managing Change in the Public Service – A Guide for the Perplexed. The Task Force on Workforce Adaptiveness. Public Service 2000, Ottawa, 1991 (CAN)

Public Service 2000. A Report on Progress. P. M. Tellier, Clerk of the Privy Council and Secretary to the Cabinet, Ottawa, 1992 (CAN)

Development Administration Circular No. 6, 1991, Guidelines on Productivity Improvement in the Public Service. Malaysia (MAL)

Development Administration Circular No. 1, 1992, Guidelines on Total Quality Management in the Public Service. Malaysia (MAL)

Service Circular No. 4, 1992, Guidelines for the Implementation of the Performance Appraisal System of the Malaysian Public Service (MAL)

1.1.2 Developing a merit culture

Effective public administration needs the continuity and stability provided by a professional and trustworthy body of efficient public servants, concerned with due process, but responsive to changing politically defined priorities. The recognition of *merit* is a fundamental prerequisite of such administration.

Competent public servants are selected, retained and promoted on the basis of qualification, experience and the ability to achieve the organisational objectives of government within a legal and ethical framework. They are not selected, retained or promoted on the basis of creed, colour, caste, wealth, family connections, gender or physical ability (unless the latter is directly related to the nature of the tasks to be performed).

Recognising merit within systems for managing staff recruitment, development, retention, and exit requires the application of two principles: to emphasise capability and achievement, and to deter patronage.

The context for change

Experiences across the Commonwealth emphasise that:

- historically, capability has been under-emphasised in many settings;
- significant patronage is present in some settings; and
- the machinery for deterring patronage can also deter recognition of achievement.

Public service strategies for avoiding patronage and inequity have relied on a highly structured professional career system. Appropriately qualified recruits have followed career paths which are determined to a large degree by the training they have received, and by the length and breadth of their public service work experience. Security of tenure, a regular and sufficient income, provision for retirement, working as part of a team, and an opportunity to serve the public interest, have been seen as adequate incentives for good performance.

Such a system seeks to be fair to every official. However, it provides little motivation for the most able public servants because proven ability to deliver forms but one, frequently small, component of decisions concerning career advancement. The system encourages conformity and, while routine task administration can be an efficient means of harnessing the efforts of lower grade staff, senior managers undertaking more loosely defined strategic activities will be inhibited by inflexible and mechanistic rules.

The challenge for a public service is to ensure that reasonable prospects are available for all public servants, whilst at the same time ensuring in the public interest that the best rise to the top.

The structured public service career systems found in most Commonwealth countries have been founded on specialist training programmes in Public Administration and on service commissions, constitutionally protected from political interference. Where these devices have been successful, the neutrality of the resulting public service systems is widely valued; but the effectiveness of the traditional bureaucracy in achieving the policy aims of reformist governments, and in securing significant productivity improvements in the delivery of services to the public, is increasingly questioned. Public servants' slavish adherence to outdated rules is held to frustrate, or at least to fail to advance sufficiently rapidly, the policies and priorities of the government. Additionally, the systems have shown themselves prone to maintaining the elitism which has characterised many post-colonial public services.

In recent years, more results-oriented approaches have been developed within the public service designed to counter such traditional bureaucracy and elitism. In some settings the concern has been to renew the government commitment to deterring patronage. In other settings, particularly the industrially developed countries of the Commonwealth, human resource management systems have been introduced which emphasise the significance of achieving organisational goals.

Reasons for caution

Changing the public service culture to emphasise the place of achievement within the assessment of merit presents three areas of risk:

1. Divisiveness

An emphasis on the recognition and reward of personal ability and results achieved inevitably risks promoting some degree of divisiveness within the public service, not least by alienating those public servants who are denied such recognition. This unavoidable risk has two particular implications. First, it denotes clearly that flexible reward schemes can only be safely implemented in situations where charges of patronage or undue influence can be firmly rebutted.

Second, it highlights the need for all human resource management developments to be underpinned by a strong and collective sense of mission running through the public service. The ethic of service to the public is not self-generating; it requires careful nurturing and explicit leadership.

2. Opaque appraisal

It is not easy to differentiate fairly between good and poor performers in public service. Many tasks do not have any clearly measurable outputs. Ambiguity is inevitable in situations where economy or efficiency may well be achieved only at the expense of effectiveness or equity. The responsibilities of more senior Civil Servants are complex and changeable to the extent that objective criteria which can be used for assessment can be elusive. At more junior levels, innovative management by individuals risks being disruptive for the service as a whole. Methodological solutions can be found, but they are conditional on sensitive consultations and continuing determination and commitment to change from the highest levels.

3. Tensions between service managers and the service commissions

Changing the role and remit of the service commissions, and devolving greater operational freedom in human resource management to service units, within a broad framework of principles to be followed, brings with it two particular concerns.

The commissions were established to minimise patronage; this is an ever present risk, and reducing the control of commissions over the detail of appointments and promotion presents an opportunity for its resurgence within the public service. Audit systems of sufficient strength are necessary to confirm that operational units maintain adequate consistency in recruitment and retention decisions and practices.

A more subtle risk concerns the change process itself. Experience in many settings indicates that in a period of evolution for service commissions, frequently with complex legal and constitutional implications, roles may become confused. As a result, unproductive battle lines may be drawn between managers and commissioners at worst derailing, and at best delaying, broader strategies for public service reform.

Achieving change

In many Commonwealth countries, the merit principles of emphasising capability and achievement and deterring patronage have been embedded more firmly within the working culture by taking three steps:

- attracting and retaining the best staff;
- removing the worst; and
- identifying organisational goals as a focus for achievement.

These three steps have been taken at each of the key points in the human resource management cycle, as given below.

Emphasise merit in systems for acquiring staff

- devolve responsibilities for recruitment and retention from central control departments to line Ministries and business units, allowing more flexible and locally-determined systems for recruitment;
- develop the role of the service commissions from “quality control” (a mission to inspect and approve the detail of recruitment and promotion practices) to “quality assurance” (a mission to advise on and audit locally-managed processes);
- strengthen measures to guard against discrimination on the grounds of sex, religion, race or other factors irrelevant to ability;
- recruit openly for many positions; and
- provide remuneration at levels closer to that of the private sector.

Encourage merit in staff retention and development

- introduce performance management systems to link clearly-defined organisational objectives to individual work objectives;
- establish performance appraisal systems to ensure that individual officers receive consistent feedback on how their efforts contribute towards the whole;
- link performance appraisal systems with clear incentives ranging from positive endorsement by the supervising officer to (with caution) performance-related pay;
- focus staff training and development programmes more clearly on the need to achieve organisational goals; and
- strengthen codes of conduct.

Emphasise merit in systems for managing staff exit

- introduce different forms of contractual employment, enabling the more prompt removal of poorly performing staff and ensuring that staff expertise relates to changing organisational requirements; and
- increase the risk and decrease the rewards available through corruption.

Examples of change

After five years' experience as pioneers in the development of public service chief executive performance management, officials in *New Zealand* stress the importance of:

- adequately specifying performance expectations in a manner that can be measured or readily assessed;
- adequately monitoring against these specifications during the year so that issues can be dealt with as close to their occurrence as possible;
- undertaking assessment and review, using a procedure that is accepted as fair, and that draws on a broad base of good evidence; and
- undertaking follow-up actions that reinforce good performance and encourage improvement from poor performance.

In *Singapore*, the Personnel Management Steering Committee has introduced a system of potential appraisal, asking, "What is the highest level a person can achieve in his/her career while giving continually satisfactory performance?" Such a policy is employee-centred rather than task-centred, it means that promotion is not based on past performance alone, but also on long-term capability and readiness for higher positions.

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

From Problem to Solution: Commonwealth Strategies for Reform. Managing the Public Service. Strategies for Improvement Series: No. 1. Commonwealth Secretariat, 1995 (ComSec)

Management Advisory Board. Building a Better Public Service. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, 1993 (AUS)

1.1.3 Introducing/improving performance management

Performance management is the means by which public service goals are linked to individual target-setting, appraisal, and development. It provides a strategy for delivering a higher quality service, and for increasing efficiency by enhancing accountability and individual motivation, and improving communication to assist organisational change.

The context for change

Performance management builds on two major themes in public service improvement programmes. Identifying the mission of an organisation within the public service defines its broad objectives and intentions, and encourages a climate in which achievements are measured. Appraising the performance of individuals provides them with feedback and encouragement. Linking the organisational and individual goals within a performance management framework clarifies responsibilities at all levels. In particular, performance management establishes a clear connection between individual effort and organisational performance.

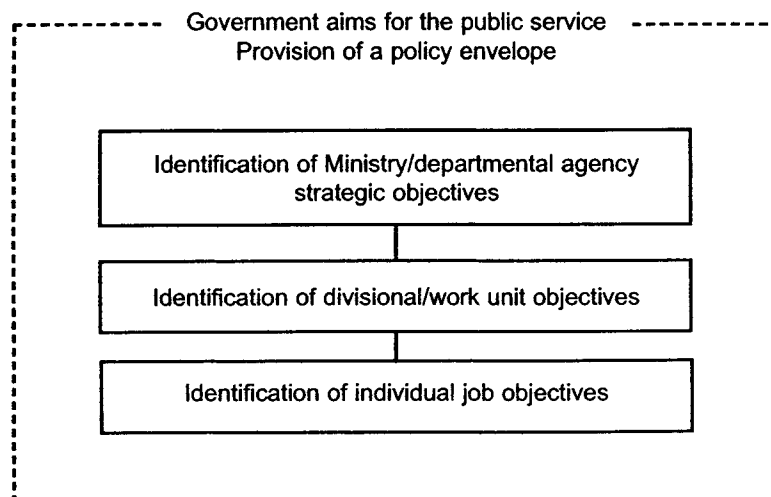
Reasons for caution

Performance management requires a change in thinking on the part of managers, requiring a “cultural change” in the organisation. Honesty and dialogue are fundamental prerequisites. If a more open approach cannot be envisaged, then it may not be worth contemplating the introduction of performance management.

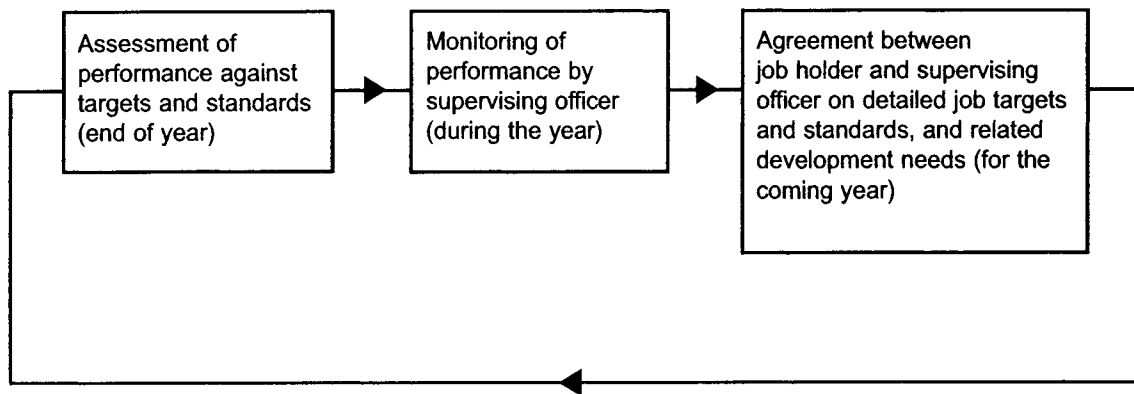
Where performance management has been introduced, one of the consistent ingredients of success has been the ability to respond to the new needs of managers through management development programmes. Effective performance management produces service gains, but it is not without cost.

Achieving change

In general, experience across the Commonwealth indicates that the components of a performance management system are as shown in the diagram below:



The cycle for managers is as follows:



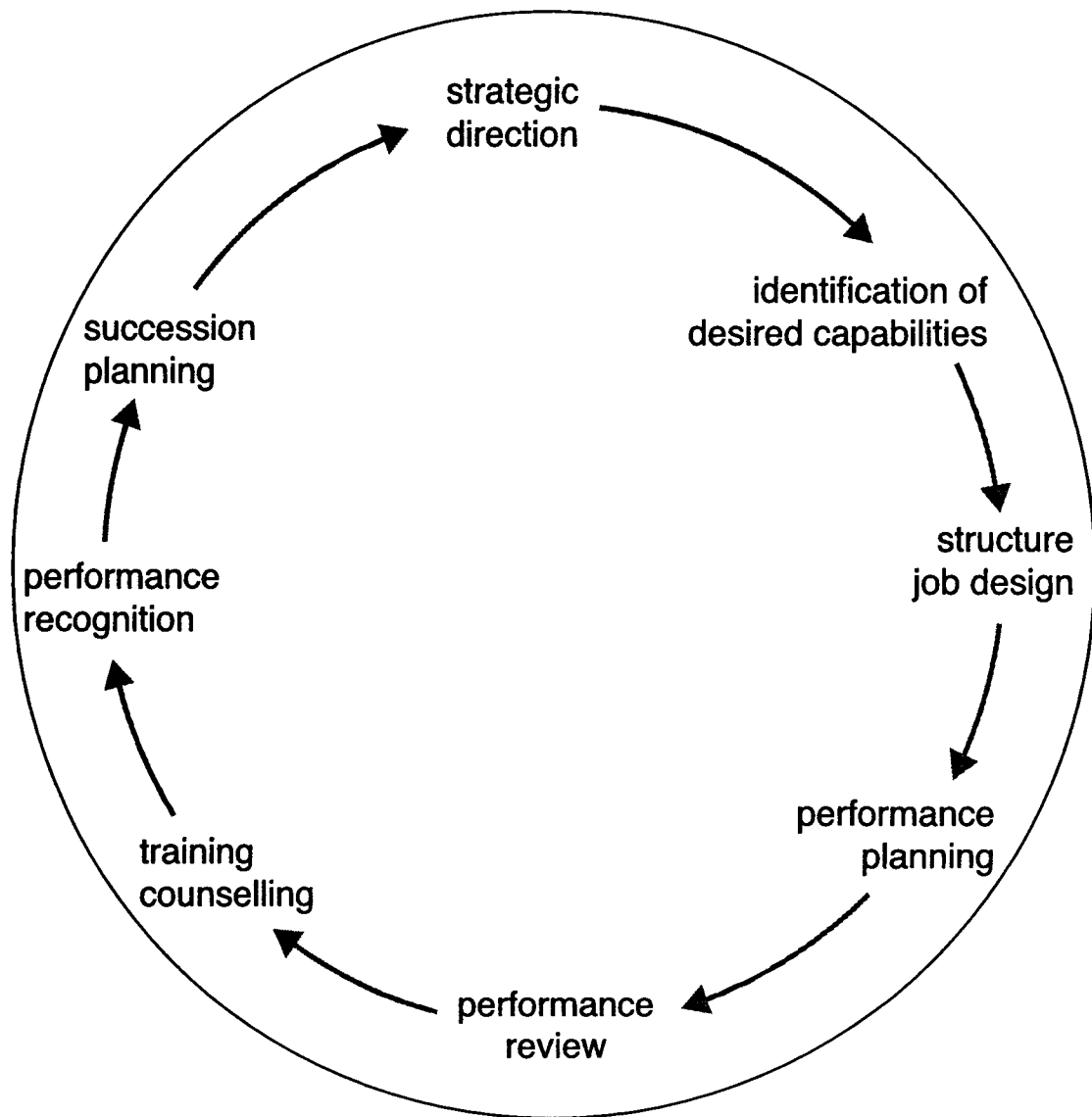
In working to identify objectives from Ministry to work-unit levels, the key areas to consider are:

- the needs of specific “customers” (internal and/or external);
- the “critical success factors” – those things which must be done well in order to meet those needs;
- where the organisation is now in relation to those “success factors”;
- what the organisation needs to do to close the gap; and
- specific objectives for the planned period which would assist in meeting those aims.

At top management level, individual objectives are synonymous with the overall organisational objectives identified through the above process. The objectives for other staff will represent an accountable contribution to the achievement of objectives at the level of their unit.

Linking individual targets with organisational objectives may be considered as a seven-step process. Systems must be in place which broadly ensure that these steps are taken for each post. Ideally, target-setting at individual level follows the identification of organisational objectives. Experience suggests that in practice this is not a one-way street, and that examining individual targets contributes to a climate in which organisational objectives are more readily considered.

The Performance Management System



The Performance Management Cycle



Step 1: Clarify purpose of job

Key question: Why does this person's job exist?

Step 2: Define "key result areas" for which the job holder is accountable

Having established the overall job purpose, the next step is to break it down into four to six areas of significant activity, which reflect priorities for the reporting period. For example, in a policy area, the "key result areas" may include: developing an effective research capability; seeing through a significant piece of legislation; running an efficient committee secretariat service.

Key questions:

- Which activities contribute most to organisational performance?
- What are the areas in which this individual has personal responsibility for achieving results?
- What are the areas in which any failure on his or her part may damage the overall performance of the division/branch/section?
- What does this person do that neither their line manager nor the staff reporting to them do?

Step 3: Identify desired objectives for each key result area

There may be more than one objective for each key result area, however, a total of more than 12 objectives for the job becomes unwieldy.

Key question: What does this job holder need to achieve in each key result area?

Step 4: Decide how performance will be assessed

Measures have to be derived for each of the objectives identified. Qualitative measures are clearly the most difficult to develop, and judgement and common sense play an equally important role, provided that managers and staff are in agreement.

Key question: How will we know when this objective has been achieved?

Step 5: Review the objectives

The next stage is to check that objectives work together as a whole.

Key questions:

- Are the objectives compatible/achievable as a whole? Are they compatible with those of other job holders?
- Is there an appropriate balance between work, management and personal development objectives?
- Will they stimulate and motivate, or exhaust and discourage?

Step 6: Monitor and review performance against objectives

Regular monitoring and review is effectively the only means by which objective-setting progresses from a paper-based system to an integral part of the management process.

Key question: Is there a risk that the only time this employee will know how he or she is perceived is at the annual appraisal?

Step 7: Evaluate achievement against objectives

Key questions:

- Were the objectives met to the required standard? If not, to what extent was the job holder responsible?
- Were objectives met within agreed timescales? If not, to what extent was the job holder responsible?
- How were resources used?
- What skills and competencies were demonstrated in the course of working towards objectives?
- What was the degree of personal effectiveness demonstrated by the job holder?
- Were any objectives achieved at the expense of other people/activities? If outside factors intervened, how did the job holder respond?
- Was the overall performance in line with standards set or expected (e.g. for the grade), or did it exceed expectations, or fail to meet expectations?

The collective level of achievement against objectives forms part of the context for determining the following year's organisational objectives, thus forming a continuous performance management cycle.

Examples of change

Recent changes in the public services of many Commonwealth and other countries, including *Australia, Canada, Ghana, Malta, Mauritius, New Zealand, the UK and Zimbabwe*, have all stressed the important role of performance management in achieving lasting change. The specific systems adopted have reflected the varying government circumstances, but all have contributed to an enduring change in the attitudes of managers towards clients and achieving value for money.

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

Managing People's Performance. Advice for Managers. Public Service Commission, Canberra, 1994 (AUS)

Performance Management: The Integrated Use of Recognition, Rewards and Sanctions. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, October 1994 (AUS)

Generic Executive Performance Management System. Executive Service. Occasional Paper No. 2. Premier's Department, New South Wales, 1993 (AUS)

Objective Setting in Personal Review. Cabinet Office, London, 1993 (UK)

1.1.4 Human resource information and planning systems

Human resource information and planning systems provide the means for creating a public service workforce of appropriate size and quality to deliver the government's projects and programmes in a cost-effective manner. Overall responsibility for the systems must rest within a central agency of the public service, such as a Ministry of Public Service or a Ministry of Finance; systems with split responsibilities have a poor record of success.

The context for change

Planning for future developments in the public service workforce is a key component in improving the performance of the public service. Strategic planning systems, supported by accurate information, are necessary:

- to monitor and control the growth of the public service establishment in line with financial targets;
- to ensure that existing staff are utilised and deployed in response to development priorities; and
- to instigate strategies in line with priorities for staff acquisition, retention, development and exit.

Reasons for caution

Improvements in human resource information and planning systems are essential. However, experience suggests that there are several risks associated with the development of strategic systems:

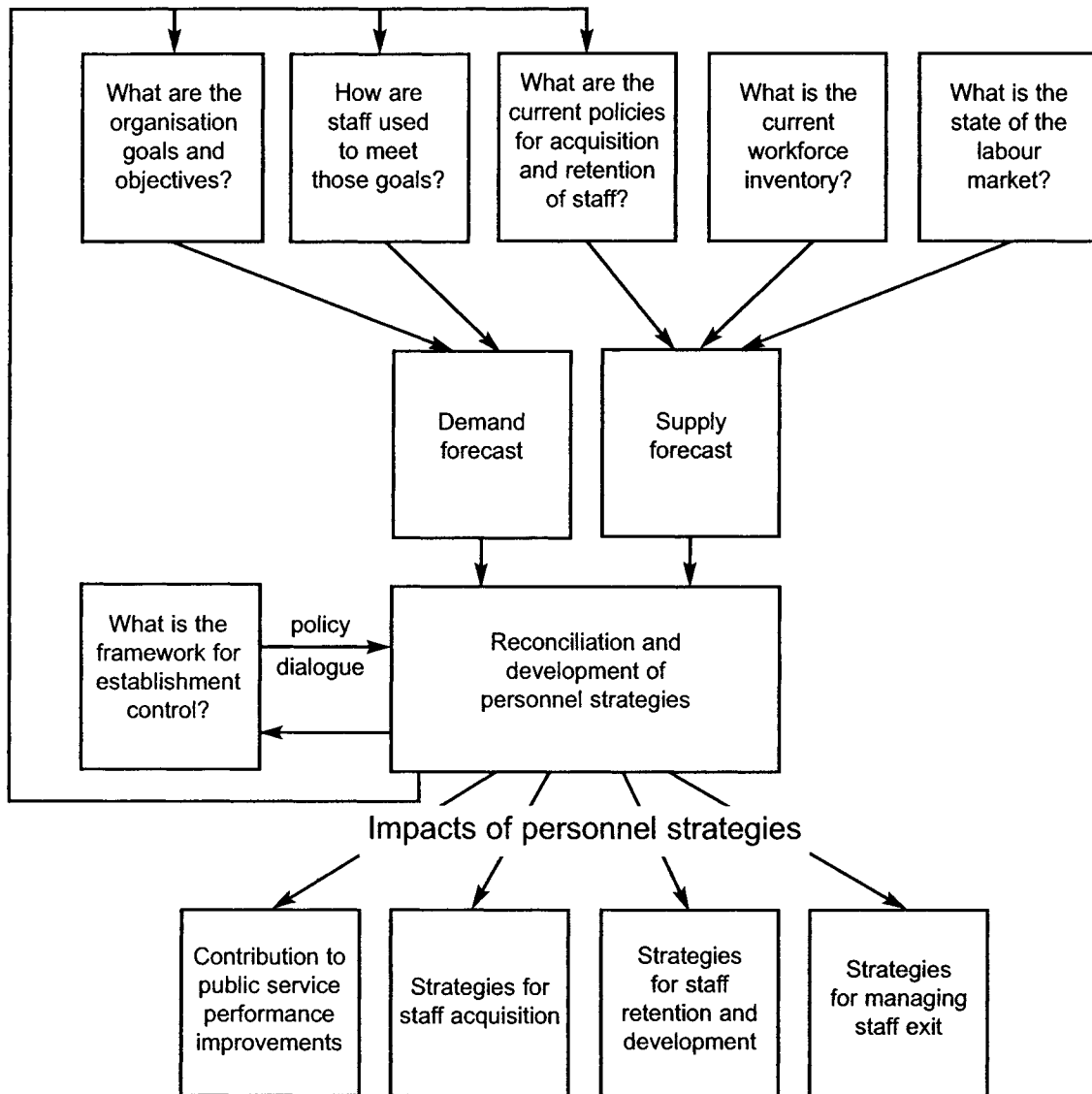
- they can be experienced as a "top-down" control system, removing establishment control pressures from local managers;
- they can encourage an attitude of mind in which common sense is undermined by anticipated scientific precision i.e. nothing happens for many years pending the installation of an elaborate planning system; and
- they can be interpreted too narrowly, e.g. they can be seen as a tool for downsizing at the expense of recognising their significance for productivity improvement.

Achieving change

At its centre, a human resource planning and information system provides the mechanism for reconciling three conflicting pressures:

- the forecast of demand for human resources;
- the likely supply; and
- establishment controls.

Commonwealth experience suggests that typically a fully developed system entails the following elements:



Four key elements within the system are:

1. A workforce inventory information system

An adequate personnel records information system is an essential prerequisite for human resource planning. The information required can be separated into two categories:

(i) Information about people

- numbers and characteristics of employees (age, gender, qualifications, skills, experience);
- location of employees (Ministry/department/unit); and
- acquisition, promotion and exit, including transfers and dismissals.

(ii) Information about posts

- job types and levels;
- numbers, locations, types and levels of established posts, posts filled and vacancies; and
- grade, pay and conditions.

2. An overall framework for establishment control

There are two methods which may be adopted in relation to Ministries/departments/units: stated ceilings may be placed on the number of personnel; or the running costs (i.e. the costs of administering the particular unit excluding transfer payments to beneficiaries and any revenue derived from clients) may be controlled.

Personnel ceilings can be unproductive if they encourage units to subcontract work at added cost. Controlling the running costs is preferable as it can allow some flexibility in terms of how resources are used (including temporary additional staff, contracting-out, planned overtime), while retaining overall control of costs.

3. Demand forecasting

The demand forecast for an occupational group is the number of posts required in a future time period based on the organisational objectives, and is made by:

- identifying an output indicator for an occupational group by selecting from the following range:
 - performance indicators (showing how much output may be expected per employee);
 - time indicators (showing how long is required to complete a task);
 - demographic indicators (showing the number of people served by one employee); and
 - location indicators (showing the number of locations served by one employee).
- checking that the indicator is:
 - quantifiable;
 - readily understood;
 - reasonably consistent over time and between different units;
 - acceptable to staff; and
 - based on readily available data.
- establishing a current value for the indicator which represents the average workload to be expected from a staff member;
- establishing a preferred value for the indicator bearing in mind reasonable efficiency improvements; and
- combining the preferred indicator value with the total level of activity expected to establish the number of staff required in the category.

4. Supply forecasting

The supply forecast is an investigation of current personnel policies for staff acquisition, retention and development, and exit, to assess their potential effect in closing the gap between projected human resource demand and supply. Supply forecasting examines the possible impact of changes in these policies, in the light of labour market conditions on the available workforce. In particular, it examines the impact of policy changes on:

- high rates of staff turnover;
- skills shortages;
- high overtime levels;
- recruitment difficulties; and
- shortage of suitable promoters.

The development of a human resource information and planning system is not a short-term task. Pilot studies and some determination are necessary to disseminate its potential value to managers to move the idea forward. Consensus and, at the very least, extensive dialogue, is essential in an area which requires agreement on the basis of some highly sensitive forecasts and policy judgements. The key questions to be addressed in implementation are:

- What are the objectives for introducing the system?
- Who is ultimately responsible for the elements of the system and for its co-ordination?
- How will the co-operation of all Ministries, departments/units be secured in developing and managing the system?
- What additional specialist support is required, if any, to introduce the system?
- Will the development of the system delay changes which are inevitable?
- What are the current information sources for the system, and how can deficiencies be remedied?

Examples of change

Public service reforms in *Botswana, Canada, Malaysia, Malta and the UK* have utilised a strategic approach to human resource planning to put their respective services on a sound financial basis and to improve service delivery.

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

Blueprint for Renewing Government Service Using Information Technology. Treasury Board Secretariat, 1994 (AUS)

A Framework for Human Resource Management in the Australian Public Service. Public Service Commission, Canberra, 1992 (AUS)

Proceedings of the 1992 Public Sector Convention. New Zealand Society of Accountants, 1992, Wellington (NZ)

Manpower Planning in the Civil Service. UK Treasury, London, 1990 (UK)

I.2 Acquisition of Staff

I.2.1 Improving recruitment and retention practices

Recruitment is widely used as an umbrella term to cover two specific elements: recruitment and selection. The recruitment and selection process involves a sequence of activities which, if planned and undertaken fairly and effectively, will enable the organisation to identify and appoint the most suitable candidate for a vacancy.

The recruitment phase covers the stage of the process from the identification of the post to be filled, the completion of the scheme of service (or job description and person specification), to the attraction of suitable candidates who wish to be considered for the post.

The selection phase covers the activities which are used to assess and select the most suitable candidate.

Retention of employees within the organisation is achieved by ensuring that sufficient measures are in place to encourage employees to work and want to continue working for that particular organisation.

The context for change

Sound recruitment, selection and retention are fundamental to the effective performance of the public service. Poor policy, procedures or practice can result in the wrong quality or quantity of recruits, leading to poor individual and organisational performance, low morale, and high levels of absence and turnover.

However, achieving effective recruitment and retention involves balancing the need for consistency in organisational standards with the need for flexibility and “ownership” at local level, and this balance can be difficult to achieve.

Traditionally, in government organisations, recruitment and retention activities have been centrally co-ordinated with a central public services commission, or equivalent, setting or defining policy and assuming responsibility for all activity in this area. Although this approach can be effective in establishing and maintaining standards and in concentrating expertise, it also has limitations.

Potential shortcomings include long delays in making appointments, rigidity, frustration and a failure to meet the operational needs of the employing department or the career needs of individual employees. This can lead to inefficiencies and poor service delivery to the public.

At the opposite end of the continuum, some governments are moving towards the total delegation of recruitment activity to Ministries or departments, with light co-ordination of recruitment policy undertaken at the centre. This approach allows flexibility at local level and an improved “ownership” of decision making and of responsibility for the employees recruited.

However, it too can have drawbacks, such as variations in recruitment standards and in employment terms and conditions. These, in turn, may limit future mobility and development of staff across the public service. Arguably, a reduced independent monitoring function at the centre might also fail to correct unfair or biased practice.

Between these two extremes, the public service in many countries is moving gradually towards the selective devolution to departments of personnel management functions, including recruitment. This is being done within an overall umbrella of centrally-defined policy and standards, and alongside a process of systematic monitoring of practice and results. These strategic functions remain the responsibility of the public service commission or other independent co-ordinating body.

Most commonly, an approach of gradual devolution is followed. Any transition from centralised recruitment towards local recruitment with central quality assurance mechanisms highlights the responsibility of Ministries and departments to improve retention. There is little advantage to recruiting the best if they are not retained within the public service.

Pay and grading issues are generally outside the control of the Ministries and departments – training and understanding of organisational goals, the two key ingredients of job satisfaction, are not.

Successful devolution of personal management functions can result in:

- fewer delays in recruitment;
- a better “match” of candidate and departmental needs;
- greater staff retention and lower staff absenteeism;
- more customer commendations and fewer complaints;
- improved individual and organisational efficiency and productivity;
- improved staff and management morale; and
- greater cost-effectiveness in meeting organisational objectives.

Reasons for caution

Effective change requires a facilitating structure to be established which:

- assists Ministries and departments to focus on their goals as service providers;
- develops commitment across the public service to improvement of the present system; and
- monitors results.

Proposed devolution of decision making to departmental level will represent a major change to the traditional role of the public service commission or equivalent body. Resistance to change should be anticipated and planned for.

Initial limiting factors to be expected and overcome are:

- a lack of relevant personnel management experience and expertise at Ministry/departmental level;
- a lack of capacity at departmental level to undertake new functions;
- procedural inconsistency with variations in organisational standards;
- poor communication between departments; and
- in the short-term, duplication of organisational resources.

Achieving change

Improving recruitment and retention within the public service entails a realignment of the responsibilities of the three key players in public service personnel management: the service commission; the central personnel office; and the line Ministries and departments.

- *Line Ministries and departments* will increasingly take responsibility for selection, appointment and discipline within a framework set by the central personnel office and the service commission.
- *The central personnel office*, where this is separate from the service commission, will increasingly set that framework, translating broad directions from the service commission into detailed guidelines.
- *The service commission* will use a lighter touch in setting the overall regulatory framework, but will increasingly focus its attention on the longer-term issues of professional standards and commitment.

This movement of responsibilities is, at the very least, challenging for all involved and will inevitably bring with it the full diversity of organisational reactions to change. However, it is unlikely that the public service in any setting will find itself completely insulated from the changing climate of public expectations and labour mobility which are forcing a new look at traditional personnel management practices throughout the public sector.

Commonwealth experience suggests that there are ten lessons for the line Ministries and departments, central personnel office, and the service commission, at a time of management change: These are as follows:

1. The only hope of minimising sterile win/lose debates is to ensure that there must be a sense of direction and some strategic targets which all can recognise.
2. Incremental change is more probable than revolution, and even if the revolution happens, that will not be the end of the story – dialogue must be established between the three key players in personnel management.
3. Start sooner rather than later – some movement can be achieved despite the complexity of the constitutional entrenchment of the service commission.
4. Change will be extremely difficult and support will be hard to find – build a constituency for change from the public, from politicians, and from within the public service.
5. No-one wants to build a failure, but it is against all experience to assume inevitable and continuous success. Given the significance of the public service to national development, some attention must be focused on refining the changes, and even on the possibility of retreat where major problems are emerging.
6. Create some sense of safety for all involved by introducing explicit safeguards in advance of the changes.
7. Build line-management capacities – new tasks require new skills and outlooks.
8. The changes in responsibilities imply new tasks requiring a new balance between powers and accountabilities. Develop the avenues of accountability in step with the reforms.
9. Training is no panacea, but all staff must understand the new personnel management arrangements, and the outlook they imply – train the users of the system.
10. Delegation does not leave a vacuum at the centre, there is a strategic gap and the service commissions are in the best position to fill it – encourage the development of a new role for the service commissions in which they are looking beyond the immediate horizon.

Examples of change

The 1986 O&M Review of the *Botswana* Directorate of Personnel, aimed at improving organisational efficiency and making the Government more responsive to clients' needs, has resulted in a shift in personnel responsibility to Ministries and departments. This approach was endorsed by Ministers in 1991, with the Directorate of Public Service Management issuing procedures and guidance manuals to ensure consistency and uniform standards.

Legislation in *New Zealand* in the late 1980s, aimed at improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the Public Service, has emphasised accountability at departmental level for the management of resources and performance. Chief executives now have responsibility for the appointment of all staff to their own departments on the basis of the person "best suited to the position".

In the *UK*, there has been a gradual delegation of responsibility to departmental managers since the 1960s for all recruitment except senior grades and fast-stream entrants. This started in shortage areas, but has extended as the UK Government has emphasised the need for improved management and quality of service in Government. Recruitment advice and expertise is available on a cost-recovery basis through the Recruitment and Assessment Services Agency, although all recruitment must comply with the requirement for "fair and open competition".

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

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I.2.2 Non-discrimination in recruitment

Discrimination in recruitment is unfair and undermines the principle of merit. The personnel management functions that are susceptible to racial, sexual, cultural and other discriminatory biases are:

- recruitment and selection;
- appraisal; and
- promotion.

In this complex and sensitive area, communicating and explaining why non-discriminatory policies should be introduced and implemented are as important as the policies themselves. Senior managers within Ministries and departments have a crucial role to play.

The context for change

In every country, there are minorities who experience discrimination. Racial prejudice is a powerful negative force in recruitment practices. Moreover, a lot of evidence shows that women with similar experience, skills, ability and career motivation to men are still excluded from senior positions. Furthermore, people with disabilities and those from “minority” or “indigenous” cultures are assumed to lack ability.

Recruitment and appraisal processes in the public service must ensure that posts are genuinely open to all, and must assess ability fairly and objectively overcoming stereotype and bias. Attracting previously discriminated groups into public service employment serves little purpose if they will face a hostile climate within it. Reducing discrimination in recruitment must be accompanied by culture change within the organisation.

Non-discrimination is more than a moral imperative for public service. Discrimination means a loss of talent, a loss of diversity, and in particular, a loss of service. The only public service that can serve the entire public is a service which is broadly representative of that public.

Reasons for caution

Challenging discrimination enters sensitive territory and produces strongly emotional reactions. Discrimination within public service employment practices and in dealings with the public is unacceptable. But a highly contentious debate which has shifted the focus from serving the public to institutional in-fighting represents little progress. Determined progress must balance the need for change with the need to engage the support of all parties.

Achieving change

General Approach

Typically, anti-discrimination strategies for the public service can involve three steps:

- legislative action to outlaw discrimination;
- reforms in the recruitment and selection of staff; and
- promotion of attitudinal changes.

Affirmative action goes further than these steps by allowing special measures to be taken to ensure that people with appropriate potential from disadvantaged groups, inside and outside the public service, are identified and appointed with the aim of improving the representativeness of the public service.

Successful strategies for minimising discrimination in the public service are as follows:

- promote the public service as representative of the nation;
- counter resistance with strong arguments for diversity;
- increase awareness by regular training;
- introduce specific selection techniques;
- ensure physical access to all facilities; – set targets and monitor action plans;
- publicise good practice; and
- monitor recruitments, re-gradings, and promotions.

Key issues

Positive/affirmative action

- emphasise that positive action is not positive discrimination; and
- encourage action by managers to motivate a broader range of people to apply for posts.

Advertising

- word adverts carefully to avoid implying preference for a particular group; and
- use additional publications to reach under-represented groups.

Scheme of Service (job description)

- test the “Scheme of Service” for in-built bias;
- avoid overstated requirements which may discourage competent applicants; and
- inform the applicants of the equal opportunity policies and practices.

Person specification

- refer only to those skills and talents which are essential for the job to avoid unconscious bias;
- avoid unnecessary requirements (e.g. age-bands) that restrict access to positions; and
- recognise potential as well as experience.

Interviewing and selection procedures

- focus on factual information rather than impressions;
- ask all candidates the same questions;
- prompt for individual potential, interests and capabilities;
- avoid personal questions about domestic plans and arrangements;
- take all selection decisions as a panel;
- record and retain the basis and reason for selection to allow for subsequent monitoring; and
- make grievance procedures available to all applicants and employees.

Promotion and re-grading

- institute formal appraisal systems;
- publicise promotion posts to all possible candidates; and
- re-grade on the basis of proven ability in the existing job.

Indicators of change

- monitor entry and exit to grades and units;
- assess change through focus groups drawn from the organisation and the wider community; and
- monitor sickness rates, absenteeism and turnover.

Examples of change

Since 1984, the *Australian Public Service Act* has required organisations to develop equal employment opportunity programmes to address the employment inequities of non-English speaking peoples, women, and those with disabilities. Individual organisations have introduced more flexible working, formal appraisal systems, paternity leave and child care.

The Public Services in *India, Jamaica, Sierra Leone and Tanzania*, have undertaken research which indicates that women's management skills are no different from those of men. Training to change attitudes and to develop managerial potential has been undertaken.

A gender planning strategy in *Lesotho* has been developed through open and participatory research techniques.

In *New Zealand*, all Public Service Departments are required to submit equal employment opportunities reports to the State Services Commission annually. The Commission is required by law to promote, develop and monitor equal employment opportunities and programmes in each department.

In the Public Service of the former Republic of *South Africa*, 95% or more of posts at all levels were held by whites. By 1995, whites held slightly less than half (48%) of the posts, and at the front line, Africans held the largest percentage (50%) of posts.

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1.3 Developing/Enhancing Staff Skills and Motivation

1.3.1 Enhancing staff training and development

Broadly, *training* is the planned process by which staff are equipped to carry out their existing tasks; and *development* is the means by which they are prepared for future roles, for increased or wider responsibilities, and to utilise their potential within the organisation.

Training and development are means towards ends, not ends in themselves. Training and development plans must stem from the needs of the business and be measured by the improved business performance which they achieve.

The context for change

Staff training and development is increasingly central to performance improvement strategies in the public service for the following reasons:

- the pace of organisational and technical change is accelerating, requiring staff to assimilate new skills and attitudes throughout their career in the public service;
- the reductions in staff numbers require individuals to be competent in a wider range of skills;
- public expectations of the public service are rising, requiring sharper technical skills and changed attitudes; and
- the continuing pressure for demonstrable efficiency improvements in the public service requires enhanced business planning and strategic change skills at all levels.

Reasons for caution

Training is neither a panacea nor an entitlement created by long service. Training is a potential solution to a business problem. Strategies for enhancing staff training and development which do not critically examine the assistance they will provide to meeting short and long-term business goals waste opportunities.

Disconnected training strategies perpetuate two notions in the public service which restrict its ability to change and respond to altered circumstances.

First, unless a clear link can be established between training inputs on the one hand, and service and strategic outputs on the other, training activities can be seen as “time off for good behaviour” – a period of relaxation away from the daily pressures of the service.

Second, and related, hard-pressed managers will consider training to be a distraction they can ill afford or an indignity they will not suffer.

Both notions highlight the risk of devaluing training activities, removing a significant item from the tool-kit available to a hard-pressed public service at a time of rapid change.

Achieving change

A sound staff training and development strategy has four elements:

1. The strategy embodies a clearly-stated commitment from senior management to develop all employees to achieve business objectives.
 - This frequently entails a written plan which identifies business goals and targets, and which assesses how employees can be developed to meet those targets.
 - It requires a clear sense of mission for the organisation, understood widely within the public service.
2. A staff training and development strategy focuses on the needs of new recruits.
 - Technical competence must be complemented by a detailed understanding of the organisation, its functioning, its objectives, and its culture.
3. The strategy requires the continuing regular review of the training and development needs of employees throughout their employment.
 - This requires detailed consideration of the business plan.
 - The identification of realistic training needs must be a core element within the performance appraisal system.
4. The strategy emphasises evaluation to assess achievements, and to improve future effectiveness.
 - The investment in training, the impact on the competence and commitment of employees, and the use made of skills learned, should be reviewed at all levels against business goals and targets.

Putting the training and development strategy into practice will require:

- On-the-job training, which will need:
 - development of institutional knowledge of the processes of the department or agency, and of the broader public service;
 - experience of related positions, including job rotation;
 - peer review and discussion; and
 - regular briefings by management.
- Formal training through external courses.
- Professional development, which will require:
 - access to information on courses;
 - arrangements for part-time study;
 - contributions towards fees; and
 - assistance and encouragement in joining professional associations.

Examples of change

A recent review of training and development policies and objectives in *Canada* recommended a shift in the role of the existing central body to one of co-ordination, with delegation of needs assessment, and training and development provision to departments. There has also been an emphasis on improved monitoring and evaluation of programmes, with the aim of improving the appropriateness and cost-effectiveness of the methods adopted.

In line with the emphasis on the creation of a Total Quality Management culture and the adoption of the "Client's Charter", training in *Malaysia* has been recognised as a vehicle for achieving the knowledge, skills, and necessary values to ensure that the Civil Service "is continuously staffed with highly-skilled and knowledgeable personnel to provide excellent public service".

Recent legislation in *New Zealand* aimed at achieving efficiency in the Public Service has highlighted the need for effective management skills, developed through systematic programmes of management development. New Zealand has already adopted a strong policy of decentralisation of responsibility to departments, but is now recognising the need for a more co-ordinated strategic, service-wide approach to management development, based upon a set of core competencies for a "Public Service Senior Manager". This has led to calls for improved central co-ordination of the process to complement departmental activity.

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

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1.3.2 Career Management

Career management strategies aim to provide a path for competent staff through the public service, enabling them to occupy positions which they will find satisfying and in which they will contribute significantly to meeting business objectives. In essence, successful career management combines personal satisfaction with succession planning for positions, ensuring that those positions will be filled by people able to deliver organisational results.

The context for change

Career management strategies provide a positive and rewarding path for competent staff at a time of significant change within the public service.

The conviction that probity and impartiality in the service are best maintained by guaranteeing secure, lifelong employment with progression determined significantly by seniority is fading. This traditional model assumed that promotion would be based on merit that is best assessed by neutral, centralised procedures. It also assumed that employees would spend their entire careers within the public service and that the range of career options and progression possibilities would be fully known at the outset.

This model was altered somewhat by the development of “high-flyer” training and promotion schemes in which particularly talented individuals would be placed on a fast track to more senior positions. The picture has altered more substantially with the introduction of open recruitment schemes which attract applicants from outside the public service for positions at all levels.

These developments, responding to the changes and less secure business circumstances of the public service, represent a major challenge to the career assumptions of many public servants. In this transition period, there is a particular need for strategies which combine opportunities for individual achievement and job satisfaction with an increased focus on meeting the business targets of the public service.

Reasons for caution

The development of career management strategies presupposed that there is the capacity for career planning within the public service; that flexible alternatives to lifelong permanent employment are available, including short-term contracts, secondments, and career breaks; and that expectations can be managed.

Few public or private sector organisations operate a fully developed, comprehensive career management strategy, but where aspects are in place, they rely on a strong culture of realism, and on explicit and well publicised policy statements on management support for career development.

Achieving change

Career management strategies are built on clear policy decisions concerning:

- the use of fixed-term contracts;
- secondments within the public service and to the private and NGO sectors;
- the possibility of career breaks;

- the scope for open recruitment at senior level; and
- the organisational investment to be made in the central personnel management office and, where devolved, in the departmental units.

Realistically, career management strategies will target senior positions in the public service. Stemming from those policy decisions, the career management strategy will have three components:

Component 1: Development of the organisational capacity to plan and manage career paths

In most settings this entails developing capacity within the central personnel management office or, where devolved, in the departmental units to:

- identify senior positions which are key to service improvement;
- assess recruitment trends and likely skill shortages; and
- provide counselling to staff whose career paths could lead them towards key senior positions.

Component 2: Establishment of mechanisms for developing staff in preparation for key senior positions

This requires a coherent policy of management training and an effective performance appraisal procedure. Career counselling is again significant.

Component 3: Improving systems for recruitment of senior staff

Experience indicates that this entails:

- the appropriate use of open recruitment, balancing the need to attract skills from outside the public service with career opportunities for experienced and talented public servants;
- the development of appropriate reward frameworks for senior staff; and
- counselling for potential applicants.

At all stages, career management strategies require the organisational capacity to provide confidential and credible counselling for staff. This is the key to:

- reviewing the options available for “plateaued managers” who are operating competently but are unlikely to be promoted and whose interest and motivation must be maintained; and
- breaking the “glass ceiling” for women and others whose careers may be unfairly restricted.

Examples of change

A Task Force on Management Improvement for the *Australian* Public Service reported in December 1992 that there was a “substantial commitment” to implementing “career planning” in agencies. However, it drew attention to the contradiction between career planning in the sense of mapping out career paths for individuals and the preferred Civil Service approach to promotion via open competition for vacancies.

In the *UK*, a Career Management and Succession Planning Study was carried out by the Efficiency Unit of the Office of Public Service and Science in 1993, which attempted to lay down (and reaffirm) principles of career development for senior Civil Servants, in particular, the “Senior Open Structure”. Amongst its recommendations were more explicit selection criteria, published policy

statements on career development, a review of “fast-stream” entry, schemes for interchange between the Civil Service and the private sector, selection for promotion more closely tied to achievement, increased emphasis on equal opportunities, and flexibility in contracts of employment.

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

Administrative and Managerial Reform in Government: A Commonwealth Portfolio of Current Good Practice. Proceedings of a Pan-Commonwealth Working Group Meeting held in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 19-22 April 1993. Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993 (ComSec)

Developing People in the Australian Public Service. Report on the Public Service Commission’s Human Resource Development Survey, 1991/92. Public Service Commission, May 1993 (AUS)

Career Management and Succession Planning Study. Efficiency Unit, Cabinet Office. HMSO, London 1993 (UK)

1.3.3 Performance appraisal

Performance appraisal is a system by which an individual is guided towards making an effective contribution to the work of the public service.

Performance appraisal systems achieve one or more of the following:

- relate individual performance to organisational goals;
- test competence; and
- contribute towards a climate of open discussion within the public service.

The context for change

At a time of rapid change within the public service, there is an urgent need to ensure that public servants are working effectively as well as efficiently – that they are doing the right things and doing those things well.

This concern is addressed by ensuring that employees understand how their work contributes to the achievement of organisational goals, by ensuring that employees have the skills to make that contribution and, above all, by developing a climate of open discussion in which performance, achievements, and difficulties can be approached openly and supportively.

The traditional annual confidential report system in operation in many Commonwealth countries is inadequate for this purpose. It is subjective, unrelated to corporate objectives, and poorly regarded by employees at all levels and their appraising officers. As it is a closed system, appraisees are provided with feedback on their performance only when it is negative, providing little encouragement or motivation.

Open performance appraisal systems:

- relate individual performance to organisational goals by:
 - identifying personal targets for employees;
 - clarifying the linkages between those targets, the key tasks for the unit or department, and the broader objectives for the service; and
 - providing examples of appropriate behaviours which will assist in meeting those personal targets.
- test competence by:
 - identifying the obstacles faced by the employee in meeting targets;
 - identifying areas where training and other inputs can assist in overcoming those obstacles;
- contribute towards a climate of open discussion within the public service by:
 - providing a closed and safe meeting environment in which the appraisee and the appraising officer can discuss achievements and difficulties openly; and
 - providing an opportunity for managers to receive feedback concerning the systems and procedures in operation in a format which they will not perceive as threatening or undermining.

Reasons for caution

Of the three objectives of performance appraisal, the establishment of a climate of open discussion within the public service is the most significant. Establishing appraisal systems with a narrower emphasis on relating individual performance to organisational goals, and testing competence, run two risks.

First, it can allow a negative perception of the system to develop, with employees reacting suspiciously to a proposal that they feel carries little benefit for themselves.

Second, it may encourage the establishment of further systems for driving improved performance on an inadequately tested base. Performance-related pay, or automatic linkages between appraisal and promotion, are possible strategies to be introduced over time. Both are contentious and require a sound and well-tested system of appraisal, which attracts widespread support across the public service. Hasty moves in this direction, neglecting the overriding goal of establishing a climate of open discussion, can result in the construction of unpopular and managerially time-consuming systems, on the basis of an appraisal methodology which will be the subject of continuing and demoralising methodological dispute.

Achieving change

The development of a performance appraisal system within the public service must be signalled by an unambiguous commitment from senior management to introduce a mechanism which:

- ensures that the work programme of each employee reflects the goals of the unit or division and the overall goals of the Ministry or department;
- ensures that supervisors and employees have a common understanding of the job requirements;
- reviews individual performance against mutually-agreed standards, some of which are specific to that individual, and some general to the level or position;
- provides feedback on performance to employees and identifies training and skill development needs;
- develops a more open and participative environment through improved communication between supervisors and employees; and
- encourages improvement and recognises good performance.

This commitment provides the basis on which the performance appraisal system will be evaluated and owned across the public service.

Most performance appraisal systems require a four-stage annual cycle, as follows:

Stage 1 – Developing the work plan

At this point, the key tasks for the individual are agreed. The individual performance standards for the employee are set out against those key tasks, providing a clear statement of expectations. The key tasks and individual performance standards should as far as possible be agreed by the appraisee and appraising officer.

The identification of the key tasks is facilitated if the unit or department have a clear business plan identifying its broader objectives for the year.

The work plan also includes general performance standards which provide guidance on appropriate behaviours for all employees in the public service or in a particular occupational group.

Stage 2 – Progress review

Although discussions on the employee’s performance should be continuous throughout the year, a formal progress review meeting serves to focus minds and to provide an early warning of any emerging difficulties.

Stage 3 – Annual performance review

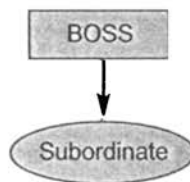
This provides the opportunity to assess achievements in meeting the individual performance targets, and in meeting the general performance standards. In well-established performance appraisal systems, it is regarded as a sign of failure if an appraisee first learns of management concern about his or her performance at a formal review meeting.

The performance review includes a recognition of any particular contributions made by the employee during the year, recommendations for training and development, and might include some assessment of the employee’s career potential.

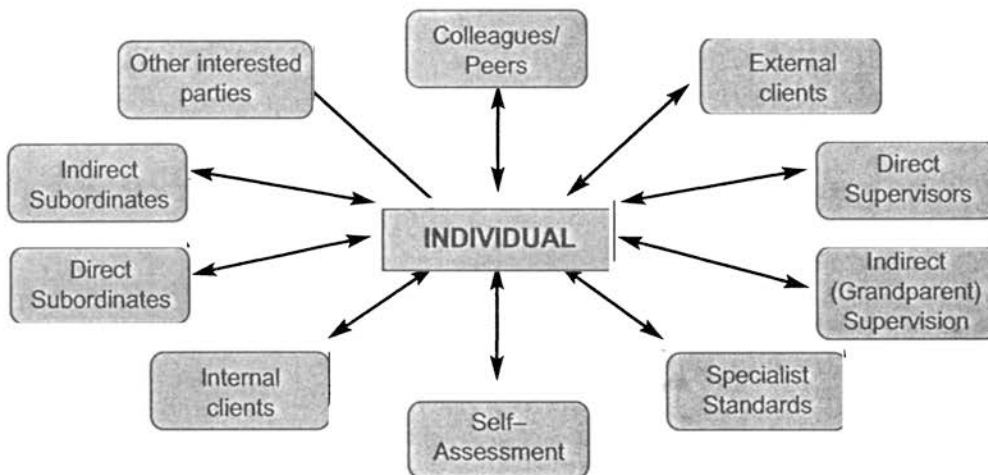
In terms of best practices across the Commonwealth, many public service organisations have moved from the traditional hierarchical model of performance appraisal where staff are assessed by their immediate supervisors to the more comprehensive 360 degree Developmental Feedback Model. This model is used to provide staff and management with broader input on an individual’s performance. Staff members at all levels of the organisation conduct a self-assessment of their performance and receive performance feedback from those they interact with in performing their duties including their peers, clients, subordinates, and superiors. This model of the performance appraisal process is designed to give staff a more balanced perspective of performance for follow-up decision making and for identifying areas for improvement and development.

Hierarchical vs. Developmental Feedback Model

Traditional Hierarchical Feedback Model



The Developmental (360%) Feedback Model



Stage 4 – Decisions

The appraising officer, based on review recommendations which are, as far as possible, agreed with the employee, and in discussion with other managers, must decide on appropriate action.

This may include:

- recognition of good performance and the acknowledgement of a job well done, nomination for special training or other career development opportunities, acting up possibilities, and entry into public service award schemes; and
- responding to unsatisfactory performance, with continuous discussion and mentoring and, in more extreme situations, the development of an individually-tailored performance improvement plan, in collaboration with personnel management staff.

Documentation must be clear, simple, and readily understood.

Examples of change

The Public Services in *Lesotho* and *Zimbabwe* have developed comprehensive performance appraisal procedures and arrangements to train all public servants in their operation.

The *Mauritius* Public Service has introduced a performance appraisal system reflecting the four stages given above.

In *Zambia*, the Annual Performance Appraisal System is being introduced in parallel with the review and restructuring of all Ministries, ensuring that newly-clarified organisational goals are translated into clear performance targets for individual employees.

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I.3.4 Relating awards to performance

Awards for excellent performance are increasingly employed within the public service. These may or may not have a financial value. Performance-related pay can be the most contentious of the approaches, but has been widely adopted. Public servants, like all other employees, require recognition of their achievements to maintain their motivation in a demanding and fast-changing environment.

The context for change

The use of performance awards has a long history, especially in manufacturing operations, marketing, and, to some extent, top executive remuneration. However, because of increased competitive pressure and the need to tie individual performance more closely to corporate objectives and strategy, their application has spread to other areas, including public sector employment. Although performance awards can take a variety of forms, the most noticeable recent development has been the increasing introduction of performance-related pay.

Performance awards have become a tool in the move away from the static, reactive notion of salary administration towards a more dynamic, strategic approach to rewards management. Bureaucratic payment systems, where people doing the same work are paid the same, are being replaced by more flexible and personalised reward structures which specifically set out to reward an individual's contribution.

Reasons for caution

Performance awards are intentionally divisive in that they single out well-performing individuals. The systems employed to identify individuals for particular recognition must be robust and well respected if they are to have credibility across the public service.

Performance-related pay raises some particular risks:

- *Short-termism.* There is little evidence that extra payments do improve overall performance. Most motivational theories stress intrinsic motivation (i.e. the job itself) rather than extrinsic motivation (money and benefits). Performance-related pay schemes must avoid the risk that employers' long-term targets will be replaced by short-term responses which trigger the rewards.
- *Inappropriate targets.* In setting explicit and well-defined targets, units and departments must avoid the risk of squeezing out broad public interest considerations which are less amenable to target-setting.
- *Weak methodologies.* Performance-related pay can be a contentious development and may be subject to some resistance within the public service. If it is to be credible and sustainable, it must avoid any risk of serious challenge to the performance appraisal methodology which underpins it.

Achieving change

Non-financial performance awards honour and reward public servants who have shown a willingness to make an extra effort in carrying out their duties or who have distinguished themselves in serving the public.

Introducing such awards requires a clear policy statement indicating the intention to recognise particularly meritorious contributions, the range of awards to be provided, and the means by which outstanding contributions are to be identified, including the development of performance appraisal systems.

Non-financial awards may be at departmental level or service-wide, and can cover groups or individuals only. The key to their credibility is that they are associated with recognition from the highest levels of the public service.

Strategies for introducing financial awards, including performance-related pay, require:

- a determination to challenge the perceived right to automatic annual pay increases, irrespective of performance;
- a comprehensive dialogue with staff associations and other representative bodies;
- a full explanation to all affected staff; and
- a sound, tested and credible system for performance appraisal.

Three overall models can be identified across the Commonwealth.

Model 1: Performance-related pay for senior staff

Supported by a performance appraisal system, which recognises the particular responsibility on senior staff to play a leadership role in the public service, performance-related bonuses can be allocated subject to an overall distribution curve which ensures service-wide equity and consistency.

Model 2: Performance-related pay across the public service

Such broad-based systems require a reconsideration of the generally fragmented and over-elaborate grading structures existing within the public service.

Rationalising and reducing schemes of service, and classifying them into fewer broad service classifications, provides an opportunity to:

- emphasise talent, experience and expertise in place of academic qualifications;
- incorporate assessed performance as the key to annual salary progression; and
- develop a performance appraisal methodology which relates to each of the broad service classifications.

Model 3: Devolved performance-related pay

In such systems, departments or agencies are given authority to negotiate pay and pay-related conditions of service and develop locally-appropriate performance-related pay frameworks.

Such delegation requires continuing central control of the total pay bill. Departments and agencies cannot negotiate the total beyond an agreed control total. Delegation also requires a clearly established negotiating remit, agreed between the department and the Ministry of Finance at the outset, which defines the limits of the department's negotiating authority.

Examples of change

In 1990, the *Australian* Government was considering introducing performance-related pay into the Senior Executive Service. However, a Senate Standing Committee concluded “[we] are far from convinced that it is desirable to introduce performance-based pay at all” and suggested a thorough cost-benefit analysis, piloting of various appraisal systems, and ascertaining staff acceptance of performance-related pay prior to implementation.

In 1992, the New Remuneration System was introduced into the *Malaysian* Civil Service in order to overhaul its total reward management system. It formed part of a comprehensive package of reforms and rationalisations and intended to base annual salary progressions on individual performance rather than seniority.

Performance-related pay has been introduced for the top three levels of the *Maltese* Civil Service, linking this to the notion of a three-year “Performance Contract”. It is based on the assumptions of fairness and consistency, pay for performance, linking of individual and organisational objectives, participative leadership, and openness.

A Flexible Wage System was introduced into the whole *Singapore* economy in 1986 to attempt to overcome the contradictory pressures of the need for flexibility versus the need for security/stability of earnings. This was extended into the public sector in 1988 whereby variable payments could be made to Civil Servants depending on the performance in the economy. Additionally, the Flexible Wage System sets a guideline maximum of 20 per cent for the variable component of reward.

In the *UK*, the 1994 White Paper, *Continuity and Change*, proposed an extension to existing delegated pay and grading arrangements in order to establish a clear link between pay and performance. By 1996, responsibility for all staff below senior levels was passed to individual departments and agencies. All pay increases are now made through performance-related pay systems.

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

From Problem to Solution: Commonwealth Strategies for Reform. Managing the Public Service. Strategies for Improvement Series: No. 1. Commonwealth Secretariat, 1995 (ComSec)

The Development of the Senior Executive Service: Performance-Based Pay. Senate Standing Committee on Finance and Public Administration. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, May 1990 (AUS)

Enterprise Bargaining in the New South Wales Public Sector. Guidelines for Chief Executive Officers. April 1993. NSW Department of Industrial Relations, Employment, Training and Further Education (AUS)

The Manager’s Deskbook. Treasury Board of Canada, Third Edition (CAN)

Treasury Board Manual. Human Resources Volume, Chapters 1-6 (CAN)

Public Service 2000: The Renewal of the Public Service of Canada. The Government of Canada, 1990 (CAN)

Improvements and Development in the Public Service 1992, Chapter 9, pp 461-464 (MAL)

Development Administration Circular No. 3, 1991 entitled "Public Service Innovation Awards", 1 April 1991 (MAL)

Development Administration Circular No. 2, 1993 entitled "Guidelines for the Award of the Public Service Excellent Service Awards", 27 January 1991 (MAL)

1.3.5 Developing a public service code of conduct

A *public service code of conduct* provides guidance on required behaviour within the service and prescribes required standards of integrity and professional conduct. Such codes relate directly to conditions of employment and legally enforceable regulations.

They differ from codes of ethics, found in many professional organisations, which have an emphasis on self-regulation rather than externally imposed rules of behaviour.

The context for change

At a time of rapid change, when organisational goals are increasingly emphasised and flexibility of process encouraged, codes of conduct are assuming a particular significance. Corruption and disloyalty have always been present to some degree within the public service, but the increasing emphasis on flexibility and entrepreneurship may need some balancing with a clear statement of appropriate conduct.

There is increasing recognition that:

- codes of conduct should be dynamic and not static, reflecting the changing environment and circumstances in which public services work; and
- they should focus on the positive as well as the more negative aspects of conduct, on values and ideals of service which public officers can aspire to, as well as on the bottom line of acceptable conduct, and on discipline and penalties for transgression.

The public services of many Commonwealth countries have recently revised or re-written their codes of conduct, or are in the process of doing so, in order to:

- provide a reference point to which all stakeholders and other interested parties can turn;
- offer assurances to the public that the public service is subject to specified standards;
- provide Civil Servants with clear statements of the standards of behaviour below which they are not expected to fail;
- maintain safeguards within the service at a time of increasing devolution and commercialisation;
- inculcate a sense of discipline, responsibility and integrity in public servants;
- form the basis for effective human resource and management development within the service; and
- provide support for heads of departments in the management of their department, and in their responsibility for the development of their staff.

Reasons for caution

A code of conduct may be necessary, but not sufficient, as a mechanism for maintaining professional standards. One single code cannot cover all aspects of conduct for all groups within the service, and there are a number of cautions to be considered:

- Codes of conduct should not be regarded as “being written in stone”. Although some aspects will remain permanent and universal, others will need to be reviewed and amended to meet changing circumstances and relationships.

- Codes of conduct should avoid focusing excessively on negative aspects of behaviour. A clear framework of disciplinary rules and regulations, with appropriate sanctions is important, but does not of itself inculcate positive values.
- A code of conduct must be seen to apply to all levels of the public service.
- A code of conduct for the core public service may require bolstering from consistent and compatible codes of conduct for Ministers and elected representatives, on the one hand, and parastatals, boards and other organisations, on the other.

Achieving change

Recent revisions to codes of conduct for the public service in Commonwealth countries show a concern to develop codes which cover the process of appointment to the service, and the accountability of a public servant while in office, and immediately following dismissal, resignation, or retirement.

Accountability is a very broad term encompassing the duty of a public servant to manage public funds properly, and to discharge duties effectively, in response to government priorities and national needs.

In relation both to the process of appointment and to the subsequent accountability of appointed public servants, codes of conduct generally refer to the need for political neutrality, the duty of public servants to make their best efforts on behalf of the service, and the necessity of avoiding bringing the government or the public service, into disrepute.

More than any other instrument of the public service, codes of conduct are specific to the setting and to the time at which they are introduced. Developing or revising a code of conduct requires three broad policy decisions:

- The legislative or regulatory framework for the code.
 - How is it to be enforced?
 - Is it to be voluntary, enshrined in public service regulations, or placed on a statutory basis?
- The impact on conduct in the public service of political pressures, and of standards of conduct and discipline in other public sector bodies.
 - Is there a need for a code of conduct for Ministers?
 - How should conduct be reviewed in parastatals, boards and other organisations?
- The breadth of the public service code of conduct.

In this latter area the policy decision might be that the code should cover any or all of the areas given in the table overleaf.

Issues which might be covered	Appointments to the service	Accountability in the service
Neutrality	Example: strict emphasis on skills for the job.	Examples: avoidance of political activity and not allowing a perception of political influence; compliance with existing laws; the need to alert senior staff to undue pressure (whistle-blowing).
Best efforts	Examples: need to achieve a representative workforce through recruitment efforts; need to declare any personal interest.	Examples: management of public funds and use of government resources, including vehicles; a concern for service to the public at all times; provision of sound advice to Ministers regardless of personal political affiliations.
Avoiding disrepute	Example: no direct or indirect incentives to appoint unfairly.	Examples: avoidance of negligence/irresponsibility; appropriate dress; confidentiality of government business

Examples of change

The *Malaysian* Government undertook a comprehensive review of the codes of conduct and discipline for Civil Servants in 1991.

A revised Code of Conduct is being developed for the Public Service of *Mauritius* covering: the values and principles of the Civil Service; the obligations of public servants to Government; the need for political neutrality; the importance of service to the public; the need for leadership; the avoidance of conflicts of interest; avoiding bringing the Government into disrepute; the use of Government resources; and the relationships with colleagues.

The *Kenyan* Government has recently revised its Code of Regulations for Civil Servants and is currently working on a new Code of Ethics.

In the *UK*, the Nolan Committee has emphasised the need for a strong code of conduct for Civil Servants compatible with the Code for Ministers.

In *Malta*, on 31 October 1994, a Code of Conduct was released by the Prime Minister replacing previous instructions in the Staff Management Guidelines (ESTACODE).

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

The Twelve Pillars: Values, Norms and Ethics in the Public Service. Government of Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur, 1992 (MAL)

Martin, J. Public Service and the Public Servant. New Zealand State Services Commission, Auckland, 1991 (NZ)

The Civil Service Management Code. Standards of Public Life. Report of the Nolan Committee. HMSO, London, 1995 (UK)

I.4 Managing Workforce Reduction and Exit

I.4.1 Utilising contractual employment

Contractual employment generally refers to employment status which is not full-time, permanent and pensionable, even if it does not involve a specific contract.

Traditionally the vast majority of public service employees have been on permanent and pensionable terms.

The current trend in the public service is towards more flexible working arrangements for at least a substantial minority of employees. This stems partly from the pressure on the public service to develop staffing patterns which can be changed rapidly in response to changing needs. It is also driven by the increasing demand from employees for employment arrangements which fit more comfortably with fast-changing lifestyles.

The context for change

This trend towards employment flexibility represents a response to the needs of both employers and employees.

On the side of public service employers, there is a general need to reduce costs and to downsize the workforce. Flexible contractual arrangements can make savings while avoiding or reducing the need for stark choices between full-time, permanent employment and redundancies.

At the same time, flexible employment arrangements may be more acceptable to some people who do not want to commit themselves to full-time or continuous employment, such as women with young families.

The main forms of variation from full-time, permanent terms of employment are as follows:

Fixed-term contracts. These are made for a specific project or period of time, with defined start and expiry dates. They may be used where the task has limited duration, where there is a short-term need to employ staff for a limited period, or where a programme or unit is being terminated. There is a major movement towards fixed-term contracts for senior staff. Fixed-term contracts may also be used to employ non-nationals or others who for various reasons do not qualify for permanent employment within the public service.

Rolling contracts. These are also for a fixed term, but are “rolled-on” annually for two or three years, and thus offer somewhat longer-term security for the employee. Again, rolling contracts are being increasingly applied to higher-level appointments instead of the traditional full-time, permanent terms.

Part-time employment. These employees are those working less than the standard weekly hours of the grade concerned. Part-time employment is increasing in many public service organisations, offering potential advantage to both employer and employee. Part-time employment may be permanent or temporary. It may also apply to the job, or to the person (e.g. an employee may occupy a part-time post temporarily without sacrificing rights to full-time employment).

Job sharing. This is an example of part-time working where two people share one full-time job, normally by each working one-half of each week.

Seasonal~temporal/casual/standby. These combine elements of both fixed-term and part-time appointments, but are usually for a shorter period. They may be used to cover unexpected increases in workloads, maternity or sick leave, seasonal or recurring increases in workloads.

Consultancy contracts. When specific consultancy services are contracted out, the persons undertaking such services for a government department or other public service organisation are not, and do not become, public service employees.

Reasons for caution

The increase in contractual employment arouses resistance from interest groups and staff associations. Concerns expressed are:

- “flexibility” is a euphemism for reducing job security, threatening full-time jobs and lowering conditions of employment;
- part-time staff are vulnerable to management pressure to produce the same work in less time;
- women tend to be further discriminated against and segregated into a limited range of poorly-paid and low-skilled jobs; and
- contract work increases management control over the work process and the workers.

Failure to demonstrate that contractual employment is in response to employee demand as well as a managerial preference will exacerbate these concerns.

Public service organisations require a staff profile which balances continuity and new blood. Personnel policies that involve too frequent transfer of senior and other key staff can lead to loss of institutional memory and a lessening of institutional loyalty.

Achieving change

In moving towards greater flexibility in employment arrangements, safeguards must be in place to ensure continuity in the workplace and to protect the reasonable career aspirations of employees. Commonwealth experience points to four key questions:

- More flexible and more diverse working arrangements will make supervisory control more complex. – *Has an appropriate performance management system been developed?*
- If staff needs for alternative working patterns are to be balanced against the need for continuity in the workplace, a planning framework for identifying numbers and types of staff needed in the future must be in place. – *Has an appropriate human resource information system been installed?*
- Where the numbers of part-time workers are to be increased, this could have the effect of marginalising those staff. – *Are mechanisms in place for protecting the career aspirations of employees who are not full-time and permanent?*
- To balance employees’ and managers’ needs. – *Has a distinction been made between position-based and person-specific arrangements for non-full-time and permanent working?*

Negotiations with trade unions and staff associations will precede amendments to public service legislation and orders, and must build on these four strategic areas.

Examples of change

In the *Australian* Public Service, the main area of improved flexibility in working arrangements over the past ten years has been in permanent part-time work.

The *Canadian* Government has recently issued a booklet entitled *Flexibility in the Workplace* to all departments, encouraging managers to approve employee requests for varied employment arrangements.

The *Malaysian* Public Services Department is emphasising flexibility in new appointments.

In the *UK*, the Mueller Report in the late 1980s recommended more flexibility in the Civil Service following the example of the private sector. By 1993, over 30,000 Civil Servants were working part-time, and flexible arrangements varied from working for part of the year to fixed-term appointments, and working from home.

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

The Australian Public Service Reformed. Government of Australia, Canberra, 1992 (AUS)

Flexibility in the Workplace. Treasury Board of Canada, Ottawa, 1993 (CAN)

Treasury Board Manual. Human Resources volume, Chapters 1 & 2. Ottawa (CAN)

New Zealand Public Sector Reform. State Services Commission. Wellington. 1993 (NZ)

Changing the Public Service Culture: A Radical Approach. State Services Commission, Wellington, 1991 (NZ)

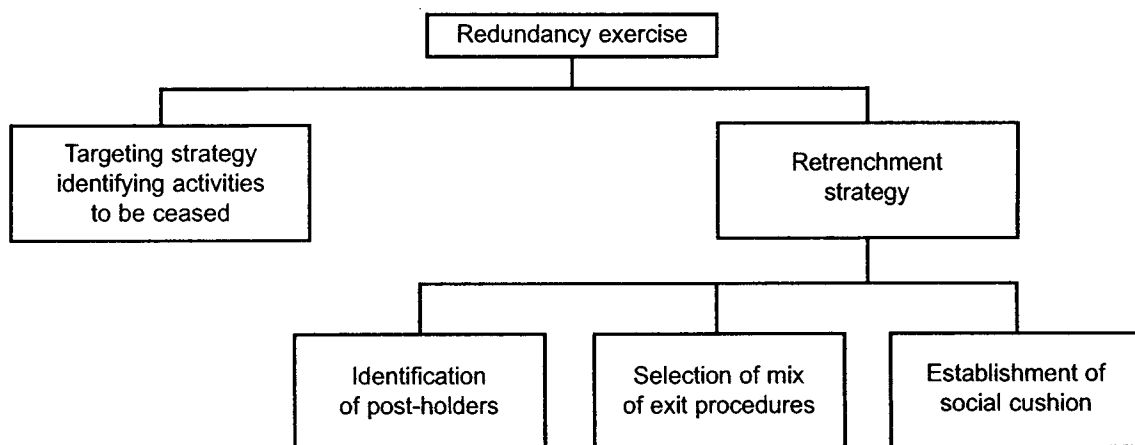
Made to Measure: Patterns of Work in the Civil Service. HM Treasury, London (UK)

1.4.2 Managing redundancy exercises

Redundancy implies that an area of activity is no longer necessary or affordable within the public service. Where dismissal presupposes that the activity is required but the individual is not, redundancy emphasises that it is the particular activity which is no longer required within the public service.

Typically, redundancies arise when cost reductions are required or when efficiency improvements have been achieved.

Managing redundancy exercises requires a twin strategy: first, a targeting strategy for identifying those activities which should be ceased; and second, a strategy for retrenching an equivalent number of employees.



The context for change

The scale of public service employment in many Commonwealth countries expanded massively throughout the 1980s. A lack of comprehensive human resource planning and limited commitment to retrenchment policies have seen the effectiveness and role of traditional government bureaucracies come under scrutiny. Several pressures have had a significant impact on the size, structure and cost-effectiveness of operations:

- deregulation and transformation of statutory authorities to corporate or agency status;
- improvements by outside contractors with innovative methods of service delivery and raised performance standards;
- a culture of realism in a period of national economic difficulties, resulting in zero growth strategies, financial capping and public sector salary cuts;
- high public sector deficits, economic reforms and crises triggered by falling commodity prices and national disasters; and
- conditional funding from donor countries, the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund necessitating public service restructuring.

Management of public service redundancies has become a pressing issue across the Commonwealth.

Reasons for caution

Four principal risks can be identified in redundancy programmes.

First, and most self-evidently, the political risks are significant. Ironically, these risks are highest in situations where the public service is largest, as it is in these situations that public service pay, however inadequate, supports the living standards of the largest proportion of the electorate.

Second, at a technical level, the varied experience of redundancy programmes across the Commonwealth suggests that severance arrangements are likely to be most attractive to the most employable public servants as they have better prospects for alternative employment. Redundancy programmes can result in a loss of the best talent.

Third, the cost of redundancy programmes can outweigh the savings within a given budget period. In a situation where donor funds or credit may be unavailable for retrenchment, the short-term costs may make it impossible to achieve the long-term benefits.

For example, in one Commonwealth country, initial cost projections for a three-year programme came to more than six times the savings over the same three-year period. The total payback period would be about ten years. Statutory benefits amounted to 45 per cent of the costs, whilst 55 per cent of the costs related to ex-gratia payments.

Finally, there are the risks associated with sustainability. Unless payroll and human resource information systems are tightly and consistently limited to the redundancy policy, experience has indicated that major redundancy programmes can be followed by significant re-employment of retrenched.

Achieving change

Ultimately, any redundancy programme requires two inter-related strategies as described above. Typically, targeting strategies entails:

- a review of the goals, objectives, functions, and structures of existing Ministries, departments, and units with a view to rationalising public service structures in the light of budget realities and plausible efficiency gains;
- the identification of areas of overlap and duplication of functions;
- an assessment of public service activities which could more efficiently be performed by private and NGO sector organisations;
- a review of personnel management procedures and regulations with a view to reducing the numbers of public servants employed in managing the systems and regulatory framework; and
- staff audits to ascertain whether the numbers and levels of staff employed correspond to the authorised establishment.

The related retrenchment strategies have three components: the identification of post-holders for retrenchment; the selection of the mix of exit procedures; and the establishment of social cushions for retrenched.

The identification of post-holders for retrenchment requires a tactical and political assessment of the feasibility of introducing competence-testing, an approach much discussed but with relatively little track record of success.

In selecting exit procedures, redundancy management programmes are in essence drawing from five approaches:

- voluntary retirement, with a financial package which may be tax-free and pensionable;
- early retirement, on enhanced terms for public servants who are within a few years of retiring;
- mandatory retirement, although noting that attempts to change previously agreed retirement dates have been successfully challenged in many Commonwealth countries;
- involuntary retrenchment, noting the risk of partiality in the identification of target employees; and
- natural wastage resulting from a recruitment freeze.

Redeployment programmes must accompany any mix of exit procedures selected. Retrenchment will not be even across the service and procedures for encouraging the lateral movement of employees must be in place.

In establishing social cushions for retrenched, again there are relatively few examples of successful government intervention. The options include:

- resettlement assistance through the distribution of land;
- cash payments;
- access to credit at below market rates; and
- entrepreneurship training and re-skilling.

It is the twin strategies of targeting and retrenchment which together must avoid the four principal risks described earlier. However, these strategies must be underpinned by a clear and sustained determination to avoid the need for further major redundancy programmes in the future. The pace of change in the public service is such that stability cannot be expected, and the possibility of future flexibility must be structured into all personnel management developments. Delegation in recruitment responsibilities, the changing role of service commissions, and the increasing emphasis on contractual employment must all be harnessed to ensure that staffing costs can be adjusted at the same accelerating pace as changing public service responsibilities.

Examples of change

Cutback management and retrenchment has become a feature of public service life in most Commonwealth countries.

In *Australia*, commercialisation policies, transfer of functions from within the Department of Defence to Australian defence industries, modernisation of the Civil Aviation Authority, and office automation programmes in administrative departments and taxation offices, have led to a lower requirement for labour. Australian public sector employment fell by 6 per cent from 1986 to 1991, with a reduction of 14,562 staff.

The *UK* reduced the number of Civil Service staff by 22 per cent from 1979 to 1989, revising its code of practice in September 1991 by devolving more responsibility and freedom of action to departments, which negotiate their own redundancy agreements and implementations under the guidance of central policy from HM Treasury. The share of public spending taken up by organisational running costs was expected to fall from 8.9 per cent in 1992/93 to 8.0 per cent in 1995/6.

The *Zimbabwe* Civil Service reduced employment by 26,000 in 1994/95 as part of a phased 25 per cent reduction. A study is being undertaken to assist the formulation and design of the redundancy strategy.

Similar programmes and review processes have been introduced in *Tanzania* (15 per cent reduction), and *Zambia* (where the World Bank and IMF have linked structural funds to a 25 per cent reduction in head count over five years). Compulsory redundancies are being minimised. For example, phased reductions of 16,000 a year for three years in Kenya are expected to be achieved through 6,000 voluntary leavers and 10,000 volunteers taking early retirement.

Other useful material (current as of 1996)

Administrative and Managerial Reform in Government: A Commonwealth Portfolio of Current Good Practice. Proceedings of a Pan-Commonwealth Working Group Meeting held in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 19-22 April 1993. Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993 (ComSec)

From Problem to Solution: Commonwealth Strategies for Reform. Managing the Public Service. Strategies for Improvement Series: No. 1. Commonwealth Secretariat, 1995 (ComSec)

1.5 Capacity Building and Management Development Institutes in the Context of Public Sector Reforms

Public sector reforms have been carried out in most Commonwealth countries. While the nature and type of reforms have varied from one country to another, they have been determined by both external and internal factors. Some reforms have been radical and fundamental while others have been largely incremental, resulting in changes in the structure and functions of the state. The reform process appears to have been facilitated and accelerated by Management Development Institutions or national public administration training institutes. These organisations have themselves undergone reforms based on a series of evaluative questions including:

- Who do they seek to influence (politicians or public servants) and are they effective in reaching intended audiences?
- Do these institutes have potential competitors when seeking to influence public managers and the public?
- What capacity do these institutes have in providing the required services?
- Do they need to reform themselves before participating in the public service reform process? What skills do they require?
- Have training needs been identified and if so, has the curriculum changed to suit the changing environment? and;
- How can management development institutes be strengthened in their role of facilitating the public administration reform process?

These questions and more, are based on the assumptions that:

- People can be made more effective as managers in the reform process if they develop knowledge, skills and attitudes;
- Knowledge and skills can be developed through training programmes;
- Attitudes including the value of other people, the value of providing service to clients of the highest possible standard, motivation, commitment, integrity, cultural and gender sensitivity are important in developing good managers;
- The training institutes must also go through a change process with a very strong client orientation ensuring that provision is demand driven rather than dominated by the interests of the training staff; and;
- Given the appropriate human and financial resources and the right environment, management institutes can deliver their services effectively and efficiently.

Background

Management Development Institutes were established in most of the Commonwealth countries soon after independence. Their role was to provide training, consultancy and research services to governments. The main target group and recipients of their services were top level, senior and middle managers within the bureaucracy. In addition to building capacity for the public sector, they

were also expected to serve as think tanks through their research into public policy formulation and policy reforms.

In the developed Commonwealth countries, public administration was centred on the University. Traditionally, universities have been active in the pre-career training of public managers, primarily at the graduate level. Undergraduate training in public administration has usually been offered as part of an undergraduate political science programme. The set of undergraduate courses in public administration is rarely thorough enough to be complete preparation for a career in public management. In addition private sector and non-government organisation institutions have provided executive development programmes which public managers have attended.

The mandates for establishing management training institutions and for training top and senior managers in the public sector (Civil Service, local government and public enterprises) were fairly similar in essence. They were formulated on the same basis and as a result, the structures and objectives of these institutes bore the same characteristics. Some of these organisations were funded directly by governments and others were supposed to be autonomous and self-financing. Public sector reform in many Commonwealth countries, however, introduced pressures for these organisations to become increasingly self-sustainable. These pressures were reinforced by some of the following weaknesses of management institutes identified after they were formally established:

- Training tended to be treated as a discrete event rather than an ongoing, integral part of human resource management and development;
- The training function was seldom regarded by managers as a matter for their concern;
- Training policies were non-existent, but where they did exist, they often bore little relation to wider development policies or tended not to be implemented;
- Training needs were seldom assessed accurately or tended not to be acted on; and
- The design of training programmes and curricula too often ignored both policy and public sector needs and relied heavily on borrowed models, which were not adapted to the local conditions and environment.

The context for change

Because of bureaucratic procedures and practices, hierarchical reporting structures, the deterioration of infrastructure facilities, underfunding, understaffing and being underrated, the original image and importance of the Institute declined tremendously. Consequently, institutes were unable to provide the required services or to function adequately. The pressures for change were in the governance, objectives, methods of training and more importantly on customised delivery of services.

An evaluation of the role of the institutes revealed that, if their performance was to improve, they had to extricate themselves from bureaucratic procedures and re-examine their structures, the coordinating relationship and, above all, the control by parent or responsible Ministry of public service, personnel or human resources. Civil Service structures inherited from the colonial administration had many attributes that rendered the institutes unsuitable for the challenges of modern management. For instance, Civil Service posts were filled by administrators without adequate professional qualifications, promotions were excessively dependent on seniority rather than merit with negative implications for morale and the efficiency of the staff.

Review of the performance of Management Development Institutes

The critical review of most institutes, particularly in developing countries, bore the following criticisms and shortcomings:

- They were not focusing their curriculum and its delivery on the real needs of the client or consumer. Such needs were changing in line with the global and environmental changes taking place in society;
- Human resource management techniques were not moving away from mechanistic structures since human resource policies had become aligned with organisational strategy. Their approach was therefore, not client-centred;
- They remained hierarchical in structure, even in situations which required lean and flat organisations capable of delivering services to clients efficiently and effectively;
- Their organizational culture was pyramidal with the chief executive at the apex and staff along the base;
- While the clients had changed, the institutes had not changed fundamentally; and
- Consequently, the needs of the clients were not adequately served and criticisms were publicly expressed by the clientele.

The need for change in the status, structure and direction of the institutes was facilitated by the nature and type of Civil Service reform. In response to the challenges facing the public sector needs, the institute had to change their practices and focus.

The degeneration of Management Development Institutes

The institutes in developing countries were gradually pushed from the centre of advice and expertise to the periphery of the administration. They were no longer consulted before governments made policy decisions and were consequently accorded low status, inadequate funding and insufficiently skilled personnel to provide the required services. As a result, the institutes were no longer capable of offering the technical advice and services expected of them and were effectively marginalised by the system. Their training and research functions were referred to outside agencies to which governments paid heavily for the services that could have been provided by the institutes.

The following are some of the contradictory factors which lead to the decline of Management Development Institutes being involved in the policy reform process:

- Limited budgetary allocation by governments making it impossible to conduct research, offer best training services, attract qualified, competent personnel and provide facilities and infrastructure for executive training;
- Lack of a systematic approach to human resources development and an absence of a well co-ordinated and defined training policy for senior managers in policy development and management;
- Absence of institutional linkages for co-ordination and co-operation with the institutes became evidence of a poor management development policy and a lack of necessary leadership and guidance which sometimes resulted in the design of inappropriate curricula;
- Lack of appreciation of the value of training and development and its contribution to improved performance and policy management. This has resulted in the emergence of misplaced and negative attitudes towards management training, especially among the professional and technical personnel who often regard themselves as above training;
- Management development was, in the main, offered by the donor agencies often abroad or in the region by institutions, which often had little knowledge of local needs and social environment;
- Poor remuneration and conditions of service of staff made it difficult to attract and retain suitably qualified personnel, while the institutes' close links with the government denied them the necessary autonomy and flexibility needed for independent decision making in the recruitment, appointment and promotion of staff;

- Because of limited funding, lack of attraction of qualified and competent staff, whatever little training offered by the institutes became ineffective and insignificant. The impact of training on personnel was not effective, noticeable, or formally recognised as an important tool in improving the performance of human resources, particularly in the changing environment in which the public service was being reformed; and
- The low morale, poor remuneration, lack of incentives, absenteeism, poor promotion opportunities and fear of becoming redundant, which prevailed in the public service, also existed in the Management Development Institutes which were still part of the Civil Service. The institutes were therefore, bedeviled by the very same negative factors prevailing in the public service.

The paradox of marginalisation

The privatisation of certain public enterprises and the related commercialisation of agencies of government resulted not only in an increase in competition to provide services to government but also made it possible for Ministries to select training services from outside government institutions. Because of the deteriorating competitiveness in the institutes, they could not compete favourably with the already established institutions in the private sector. Government could now purchase services anywhere and, in most cases, preferred the more modernised, customer friendly, private sector training institutions which tended to design their training to suit the needs of the customer.

In some instances, when the government needed training services urgently but did not have adequate funds, it would expect the institutes to provide such services since they were government owned institutions. In equally worse situations, governments delayed making payments for services rendered by the institutes. Some of the institutes complained of non-payment by governments because Ministries exhausted their budgets before the end of the financial year.

Delay in payment or non-payment for services already rendered by the institutes affects their survival and incapacitates the delivery of services. They cannot compete favourably with other training institutions if financial resources are not available. One of the indirect and unintended consequences of these situations is that an institute is forced to provide services to clients who can pay promptly. In such instances, the institutes would be more than likely to offer training services to the private sector or non-government organisations who can pay on service delivered.

Attempts to transform the institutes in order to suit the changing environment and client needs is, therefore, paradoxical. The paradox lies in deciding whether to offer training services to government knowing full well that the government may or may not pay for the services rendered. Such decisions are made in the circumstances in which the grant from the government is no longer made available since the institute is supposed to be autonomous and self financing. The other side of the paradox is whether the institute should concentrate on those clients who can pay for services rendered even if they are in the private sector which had not been covered in the original intention of establishing the management institute. This transitional process is paradoxical.

The public service, as a learning organization, will require a culture characterised by:

- Commitment to continuous learning and turning individual learning into organisational expertise;
- Co-ordinating the results of studies, giving insights into best practice and disseminating results;
- Rewarding the process of learning; and
- Adding to and keeping up to date the intellectual capital available through research and study.

This is the environment and vision of the new public administration, which must inform training and development initiatives. One approach to translating this environment and vision into a training framework is through the development of competency-based human resource management.

Using competency-based human resource development approaches

Many public services have begun to use competency-based human resource management approaches. This competency approach facilitates the introduction of more effective, valid and useful criteria for recruitment, succession management and personnel and career planning for managers. It, therefore, provides a basis on which training and development programmes can be developed and instituted. The competency approach focuses on the content of training.

The following competencies seem critical given the environmental challenges outlined above:

- Building and sustaining relationships;
- Commitment to achievement;
- Effective communication;
- Honesty and integrity;
- Intellectual capability;
- Management transformation;
- Managing in the political cultural context; and
- Strategic leadership.

Towards curriculum and programme development

Curricula and programmes must facilitate the development of managers, capable of leading public service organisations which:

- focus on outcomes with an emphasis on people's needs and their convenience rather than administrative processes and structures, giving effective service to the public;
- move beyond efficiency in silos to high quality, outcome-focused strategic thinking. This must involve anticipating problems, networking and partnership;
- focus on service delivery partnerships with other parts of the Civil Service, using the power of information technology (IT). The training and development agenda would therefore, need to include the following elements:
 - the management of effective service delivery to the public;
 - the development of quality policy advice;
 - high quality, outcome-oriented strategic thinking;
 - effectiveness in communication, even with the media;
 - the effective handling of global dimensions to policy making;
 - management skills;
 - financial management and assessment of value for money;
 - leadership skills;
 - mentoring and coaching skills;
 - diversity management; and
 - ethics, values and principles of the public sector.

Examples

- The *Canadian* Public Service has developed a Management Trainee's Programme targeted at new managers;
- In *India*, there is a particular focus on the Indian Administrative Service, which is a group of 6,000 career officers who hold the most senior appointed positions in district, state and national government;
- Much of *Singapore* training for the senior public service focuses on preparing for the future. This concentrates on three themes: welcoming change, anticipating change and implementing change; and
- *Nigeria, Botswana, and Zambia* have developed programmes for senior and top executives.
- The *Canadian* Centre for Management Development (CCMD), the *UK* Civil Service College, *Eastern and Southern African* Institute (ESAMI), *Malaysian* National Institute of Public Administration (INTAN) have introduced corporate leadership programmes which have the following modules: leadership renewal, coaching, service quality, coordinated policy development and continuous learning.

Training and development methodologies

Public services are now utilising a range of approaches to ensure the effective delivery of training and development. Some of the methodologies used in the public service are: job assignments, mentoring and coaching. Some countries are also using distance learning innovations and technologies.

Training policy

The Management Development Institute's work can be programmed more effectively if a training policy exists. Training policies that are officially recognised, carry authority, are understood and implemented are rare. A well-formulated training policy can be invaluable to both managers and trainers concerned with the development and training of personnel. A training policy may cover the nation as a whole or the public service. National training policies are government's declared objectives and commitment to human resource development involving training. In broad terms it covers such issues as the nature of government's commitment to human resource development and training; how it is to be organised and managed; priorities in terms of content areas, levels or approaches; and how the organisation designated to deliver training will be structured and function.

The training that is offered by management institutes is generally based on a training needs analysis. Training needs analysis is a process encompassing the three stages of:

1. Identifying the range and extent of the training needs of the public sector;
2. Specifying those training needs very precisely; and
3. Analyzing how best the training needs might be met.

The third stage can be further subdivided into two parts:

1. Identifying the need for improvement in performance or addition to the competencies of the organisation's staff; and
2. Identifying which of these needs require a training intervention.

The needs that require training can be identified through the use of five main tools or windows that help to look into the business needs of the organisation and these are:

1. Human resource planning;
2. Succession planning;
3. Critical incidents;
4. Management information systems; and
5. Performance appraisal systems.

Training needs analysis can be looked at three different levels at which training needs are assessed. The levels can either be used to indicate the extent of the training or as ways to classify methods for identifying training needs. The most common structure of levels is as follows:

1. The organisational level – identifying training needs which affect the whole organisation e.g. orientation/induction training or training aimed at introducing cultural change across the organisation,;
2. The occupational group level – identifying training needs which affect particular occupations or groups e.g. training in new accounting procedures for finance staff or training for new managers; and
3. The individual level – identifying the training needs of individuals e.g. a particular member of staff requiring time management, or the skills to operate a new piece of machinery.

A distinction is sometimes used in finding out whether training is for present or for future needs. For example:

- Present needs are seen to relate to current objectives, for example training in competencies required for a current job; and
- Future needs relate to long term objectives e.g. training for some future jobs to deal with some future planned change of direction for the business or longer term change in the environment.

This distinction has its relevance in helping to plan the timing of training.

Reasons for caution

In some countries, Management Development Institutes have been able to cope with radical changes in society without going through a crisis of transformation. This is particularly prevalent in countries in which changes have been largely determined by internal factors. However, where external factors such as donor driven reforms have contributed to structural bureaucratic changes, the pace of response has been slow and in some cases has been met with resistance.

What is discussed here is a general observation of the changes with the institutes and does not necessarily apply to all Commonwealth countries.

The autonomy sought by Management Development Institutes has varied from one country to another. Some institutes were commercialised, such as the Civil Service College in the UK, while others have been privatised, such as the Royal Institute of Public Administration (RIPA) in the UK. This variation in autonomy is closely associated with the political, economic and social environment with in which it operates. The autonomous institutes can now offer services not only to government but also to the private sector and non-government organizations as long as they can pay for the services rendered. Privatisation of management institutes may not necessarily lead to an

improvement in the provision of training services as the goal is likely to be affected by the profit motive. Fees may be too high for some Ministries to afford sending managers for training. Equally making the management institutes autonomous may not on its own enable them to improve their delivery of service to the public sector.

Training needs analysis should be treated with caution as not all training needs are identified through rigorous research. Methodologies used in needs analysis also vary with the nature and type of reforms and the availability of funds to conduct the needs analysis. The pace of expected change by society also contributes to lack of training needs analysis or to inadequate investigation of the required needs. In addition, not all training needs analysis stages of investigation are followed. They vary with time, availability of resources, skills etc.

Achieving change

The changes in the Management Development Institutes were achieved through the following processes or approaches:

- Commercialisation: autonomy was granted in the collection and expenditure of revenue. Economic rates are charged to customers with little interference from the parent Ministry. The recruitment, appointment, promotion and transfer of staff from one department to another became the responsibility of the Chief Executive. He or she had the right to hire and fire. The salaries of staff were competitive and not based on the public service scale. Autonomous status bestows upon the management institute the right to offer training services to any client who can pay for the services whether in government or in the private sector. The hierarchical structure also changes to suit the business needs of the institute.

Objectives for training were clearly defined and appropriate resources and methodology put in place in accordance with the needs of the client. The delivery of service was client focused and varied with the ability to pay commercial rates. Following the commercialisation process, Ministries were free to seek appropriate training from any source whether private or public or based abroad. They were not bound to stick to the services of the institute. Autonomous status implied that the institute was still owned by government and still accountable to it. The board of governors might be appointed by the state but might come from various backgrounds. They were not necessarily Civil Servants.

- Privatisation: the Management Development Institute was completely owned by private individuals or organisations. It offers services to any including the public sector and charges market rates. The conditions of service for staff are in line with private sector organisations.
- Within the public service and the institute, there was a progressive shift from the mostly bureaucratic management model of the past to a learning organisation management model. A learning organisation is characterized by its ability to continually improve performance through new ideas, knowledge and insights. It is continually changing its behaviour to reflect new ideas. The institute, as a think tank, continues to search for and provide new ideas on management and interact with the public service as it delivers the service based on identified needs. The challenge for the institute is to determine how best to assist and guide the transformation without compromising core values of democracy e.g. rule of law, impartiality, integrity, competence, etc. In their new roles the institutes promote learning, learn from experience, value people, integrate learning into management practices, learn from serving people and evaluate process and outcome.
- Structural changes both within the public service and the institute were implemented. Organisations were downsized, had objectives and clearly defined performance targets set and appraisal systems put in place in order to ensure efficient and effective service delivery.

Examples of change

Civil Service College, *UK*, has become a learning organisation in that it has changed its structures, system and focus while continuing with its traditional values of objectivity, equity, impartiality, accountability and selection based on merit.

The Royal Institute of Public Administration (RIPA) in the *UK* has become a for-profit organisation.

The *Canadian* Centre for Management and Development (CCMD) is an autonomous institution while retaining its status and linkages with the Federal government. It has developed quality programmes suitable for top level, senior and middle managers in the Civil Service and directs a related research agenda.

The Management Development Institutes of *Zambia, Zimbabwe, Nigeria, Malawi* etc have been commercialised and become more autonomous.

The National Institute of Public Administration (INTAN) in *Malaysia* is also an autonomous Management Training Institute.

The Center for Management in *Barbados*, which is an autonomous body within the University of West Indies, delivers graduate and executive programmes. It recently launched an MBA for public service managers.

The Institute of Public Administration of *Australia* has advocated for an extension of its interests beyond the public service to encompass all the institutions of public administration, For example, changes should cover accountability, ethical values, probity, policy processes.

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1.6 Top Executive Management Development Programmes

The changes that are taking place within the public service have an impact on the way services are delivered, the method of delivery, style of management and use of resources and technology. Some of the changes are so radical and structural that change agents and change sponsors require new knowledge, techniques, skills, information and resources in order to cope with the level and pace of change. The changes also impose upon public sector managers, bureaucracy and consumers the need for changes in the traditional behaviour patterns of those who deliver the services and those who manage. Consumers also expect a change in top management style as society responds to the internal and external pressures of change.

In response to these pressures and in an attempt to improve the delivery of service, a need has been identified to develop those who manage the service. Over the years within the Commonwealth, public administration institutes or schools of management have developed, organised and conducted several top executive programmes for public service and corporate sector managers. Participants in such programmes have included Ministers, Heads of Civil Services, Permanent Secretaries, Public Service Commissioners, Chief and top executives of public enterprises, Directors and Board Chairmen. The programmes have covered a wide range of topical areas and management issues. Within each area, specific issues of policy and management have been identified for the thorough examination and development of appropriate intervention strategies.

Two important features of the top executive programmes have been, first, the need to consolidate the comprehensive approach to managing organisations through strengthening the linkages between policy, strategy and operations; second, the need to broaden the perspectives of top executives and stimulate their thinking on how best management performance can be improved in their organisations within the framework of a changing environment. Underlying the two features is the continuous need to enhance management skills, build knowledge and to develop requisite attitudes in order to be effective leaders.

The programmes may take several forms such as policy oriented seminars, workshops focusing on specific issues requiring solutions, symposia, conferences and issue-based roundtables. In general the seminars, provide Chief Executives in the public sector with the strategic perspectives and functional skills necessary to lead their organisations into the future. The new millennium, for example, brings increasingly complex challenges for organisations, placing greater pressures for performance on CEO's and their organisations. The seminars can introduce participants to many recent innovations in management thinking and practice, and to management tools and frameworks that will enable them to deal with these challenges.

Recent events in Asia, Africa and the Caribbean, ongoing changes in international trading arrangements arising from the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and the ending of the LOME IV Conventions, serve to stay on top of current and potential geopolitical, social and economic changes. In a globally connected world, changes in far-flung countries and in other industries can have a sharp and significant impact on organisations in dispersed Commonwealth countries. The potential for sudden and dramatic changes in the environment prompts a close look at two other themes of reform programmes: the need for senior executives to develop skills in managing change, and the need for knowledge and skills to deal with the political and social aspects of public service management. Both are essential parts of leadership development.

Challenges for leadership

The issue of leadership is a major item on the agendas of both public and private sector organisations in the developing as well as the developed countries of the world. This is being driven in large part by the challenges facing organisations in all sectors in environments that are constantly changing. Some of the forces impacting organisations and creating challenges for leadership are:

- the pace of technological change, specifically information and communication technology;
- globalisation;
- the rising expectations of citizens and consumers in terms of the quality of service and demands for participation in decision making;
- the increasing diversity of society and the growing acceptance of the need for organisations to be more inclusive in their approaches to people;
- more performance focused organisations;
- managing networked organisations under the importance of alliances and partnerships; and
- the need to lead significant transformations in organisations.

One of the major strategic issues facing Commonwealth countries and their leaders is the need to alleviate poverty, which challenges both policy work and the service delivery activities of the public service. There is a growing need for more comprehensive approaches to development. Leaders must move away from the one-dimensional economic approach and this presents new challenges for public service leadership.

The context for change

In the last decade much emphasis, in the change process, has been placed on the need to improve productivity and meet citizens rising expectations of delivery of public services. This means that public sector organisations must innovate in order to deliver services more effectively and efficiently. In response to these changes a number of strategic questions are being asked, such as the following:

- How can public sector bodies further improve productivity while meeting expectations for better services? Are partnerships and contracting good alternatives?
- How can public sector managers and executives respond to the challenge of shifting boundaries and manage the increasingly complex multiple relationships which result from these shifts?
- How can public sector leaders and organisations respond in a holistic way to issues such as social exclusion, the environment and preventing crime?
- How should central government and local governments work with other public and private sector bodies to improve their public services and promote regional economic development?
- How do individuals, pressure groups, communities and others ensure that we become a representative democracy in which new policy developments command general public support?
- How to foster a public service ethos which the public and public service employees can share, in order to achieve social goals and objectives and improve accountability to taxpayers and users of public services?
- How to identify and develop the skills and competencies required by future public service leaders? and
- How to develop effective leadership in the public sector which is sensitive to the environment, focuses on the future, turns vision into action, learns from mistakes and builds support teams?

The pursuit of excellence requires a management style throughout the organisation, which encourages initiative and personal fulfillment. This can be achieved through a high level of training and development for staff and management. Work is changing more rapidly than ever. This is probably most obvious in the public sector, but demands on managers everywhere are changing. Organisations need to constantly develop their people and just keep pace with change. Consequently, human resource development is now a planned and structured process interwoven with an organisation's business strategy because that is seen as essential to its survival. Human resource development also includes self-development, which has two shades of meaning:

- Taking responsibility on oneself to develop one's career.
- Developing the whole self and not just the part of the person that fills the job role.

Some of the principles involved in self-development are as follows:

- Responsibility for learning and development is taken by the learners and not by the trainer or the line managers;
- The focus is on an individual's unique development needs, not the general needs of a work group to which an individual happens to belong;
- The individual is involved in the diagnosis of needs; and
- Involvement generates commitments to personal action.

Training and development programmes are designed to enable individuals, teams, and organisations to become more effective. They are aimed at overcoming deficiencies and maximising performance.

Training and Development Strategy

- Subset of human resource strategy;
- Human resource strategy designed to support corporate strategy;
- Reflects values of the organisation;
- Success dependent upon commitment;
- Needs to be forward-looking/proactive;
- Clear objectives and deliverables;
- Strong plans with tactical flexibility;
- Requires clear analysis, diagnosis and specification;
- Effective measurement processes; and
- Developing leaders for public service.

Methods of development

- Education programmes and training courses;
- Action learning projects;
- Coaching, mentoring, peer relationships, natural learning, self-development and learning contracts; and
- The use of informal management development methods:
 - Job rotation, job-sharing - "sitting by Joe", learning on the job, mentoring, coaching.

Four levels of evaluation

- Reaction: to course/training event;
- Learning: able to transfer extra skills/knowledge to job;
- Behaviour: changes as a result of training impact, seen effectiveness, relation with others; and
- Results: impact on performance of team, department, business, etc.– bottom line.

The learning organisation:

- Encourage people at all levels of the organisation to learn regularly and rigorously from their work;
- Have systems for capturing learning and moving it where is needed; and
- Value learning and continuously able to transform themselves.

Culture as a conscious strategy driven by the organisation

- It provides a sense of identity for employees, increasing commitment, making their work more intrinsically rewarding and making them identify more closely with fellow workers;
- It allows workers to “make sense” of what goes on around them, enabling them to interpret the meaning of different organisational events;
- It helps to reinforce the values of the organisation that is senior management;
- It serves as a control device for management with which to shape employee behaviour;
- It serves to co-ordinate the results of studies, giving insights into best practices and disseminating the results; and
- The process of learning should be rewarded, adding to and keeping up to date the intellectual capital available through research and study.

Achieving change

Significant changes have been observed among the participants of management courses organised by the Civil Service Colleges, Management Development Institutes, etc. In some countries, the performance of Permanent Secretaries on policy development and management has been noticeable while in other countries the impact of training has been negligible. Some Permanent Secretaries and Chief Executives who have been placed on contracts have produced good results in that their objectives were achieved efficiently and were appropriately rewarded. Training and development has also become part of executive contracts in some Commonwealth countries such as Singapore.

The competencies of Permanent Secretaries and Chief Executives have equally shown some improvement as exemplified by the results achieved. These improvements have come about as a result of properly planned curriculum and programme development.

Curriculum and programme development

Curricula and programmes must facilitate managers capable of leading public service organisations which:

- Focus on outcomes with an emphasis on people’s needs and their convenience rather than administrative processes and structures, giving effective service to the public;
- Move beyond efficiency “in silos” to high quality, outcome-focused strategic thinking. This must involve anticipating problems, networking and partnership building; and

- Focus on service delivery partnerships with other parts of the Civil Service; using the power of IT and the management of risk.

The training and development agenda for public sector executives would, therefore, need to include the following elements:

- Management of effective service delivery to the public;
- The development of quality policy advice;
- High quality, outcome-oriented strategic thinking;
- Effectiveness in communication;
- Effective handling of global dimensions to policy making; and
- Management skills.

Curriculum and programme development must be firmly embedded in sound strategic human resource management and development frameworks. This framework must include appropriate recruitment and selection, sound performance management and appraisal systems, and career counselling and planning. The framework acknowledges the desirability of identifying “high flyers” and providing fast track mechanisms for their movement to the top of the public service organisations.

Curriculum and programme development must also be results focused and performance oriented. It is also clear that a training methodology is critical. Much adult learning happens on the job. For training to be successful it must be linked closely to work. Ideally, modules should be short but the learning programmes should be continuous. Experimental methodology is critical; coaching and mentoring are important components.

The training which brings about change generally refers to the acquisition of skills, knowledge and information by those who occupy decision-making positions in government. It aims to equip practitioners with the skills to enable them to improve their performance and ultimately, to deliver services to society. Training in these circumstances must be continuous, relevant and responsive to emerging trends and issues. Training is, therefore, regarded as an enabling instrument with which to develop a capacity to grapple with emerging trends, principles and perspectives of management, often drawn from practical experience.

Management development is used here to refer to the upgrading, advancing and improving of the skills and knowledge base of those practitioners who manage human, financial and material resources. Change in management practices and performance is achieved through training and development. To the extent that they enable managers to be efficient and effective, they are critical instruments in strategic planning, management and, more important, in the improvement and delivery of service to the public. The capacity to manage successfully is based on the extent to which knowledge and skill have been acquired and utilised positively and meaningfully.

The focus on top executive programmes is based on the following assumptions related to leadership:

- Good leadership is essential in all organisations if they are to produce high quality goods and services. This feature of management cuts across cultural boundaries;
- Leadership should be transformational. This means that leaders should be able to provide vision and direction for the organisation and that they should be able to energise and inspire other members of the organisation in the pursuit of organisational objectives;
- Leaders should encourage development and change, as opposed to control and maintenance of the status quo; and
- Leadership is necessary and sufficient for promoting effective organisational performance.

Examples of change

Top executive programmes have been planned and managed by various organisations throughout the Commonwealth countries. For example:

- *New Zealand* has, through its reforms, substantially altered the nature of public service leadership. Chief Executive Officers are now employed under limited-term performance based on contracts, as are all other senior managers. The focus is now very sharply on performance.
- In the *UK*, the Centre for Management and Policy Studies (CAMPS) was established in June 1999 as an integral part of modernising government agenda. The CAMPS is sited at the heart of government within the Cabinet Office and incorporates the Civil Service College. The CAMPS provides support to government through:
 - policy studies which will be a centre of excellence in research and development;
 - a range of programmes and seminars to support Ministerial and senior Civil Service corporate and professional development;
 - the Civil Service College with its range of programmes on modernisation, managing change and formal skills training; and
 - a programme of peer reviews to support departments in the implementation of the modernisation agenda.
- In the *Caribbean* the Centre for Management Development (CMD) is at the forefront of executive training. Its role is to prepare holistic managers to effectively face and manage the challenges of the business environment in the new millennium. It also offers diploma and advanced degrees for executive managers. The centre has also made significant achievements and continues to contribute to the enhancement of executive and organisational development throughout the Caribbean.
- The Commonwealth Association for Public Administration and Management (CAPAM) is a membership organisation of individuals and organisations interested in the study and practice of public management, and offers short-term courses and seminars for senior public sector executives. These programmes are sometimes held in partnership with the Commonwealth Secretariat and other centres of excellence in Commonwealth countries. The courses generally cover:
 - Overview of public sector reform;
 - Human resource management and development;
 - Organisational change and partnerships;
 - Information systems and standards of service;
 - Financial management and control; and
 - Policy development

In addition, CAPAM holds national, regional and biennial conferences on current issues in public sector management.

- The *Eastern and Southern African Management Institute* (ESAMI), a premier management development on the African continent, offers short courses for senior and top public sector managers. ESAMI provides executives and managers the opportunities to widen their horizons, improved executive skills and to understand management as a process of balanced judgment;

- The *Canadian* Centre for Management and Development (CCMD) introduced a corporate leadership programme. The programme has five modules namely: leadership renewal; leadership and learning with an emphasis on coaching; service quality; co-ordinated policy development; and continuous learning.
- The National Institute of Public Administration (INTAN) in *Malaysia* offers management courses for top executives. Some of the programmes are held in partnership with the Commonwealth Secretariat, etc.

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