

**THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN  
SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY IN  
GAUTENG PROVINCE**

**by**

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## **DECLARATION**

I, **Khapane Madute Sebidi**, confirm this research report as my original work, titled: “The Influence of Organisational Culture on Service Delivery in South Africa: A Case Study of the City of Tshwane Municipality in Gauteng Province.” All sources are herein cited and acknowledged through a reference list. This research is submitted to fulfil the requirements for the degree, Doctor of Administration in Public Administration at the University of Limpopo, South Africa. This work was never submitted before for any degree or examination to any other university or educational institution.

**Sebidi KM (Mr)**

**20 February 2022**

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*“...boarding the Marokolong train from Pretoria and Bahwaduba Bus to Mankweng as a student was an unforgettable experience. The Lord led me through the storm of apartheid’s detention without trial, emotional and physical torture, trained cadre, ailments, and recently Covid-19. Despite these challenges, I continue to rise as a differently-abled person to fight for quality service, governance, truth and justice for the good of all.”*

- KM Sebidi, 2020

## **DEDICATION**

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## **ABSTRACT**

The New Public Management (NPM) movement brought about by the changes that occurred after the first democratic elections in South Africa in 1994. The changes impact on how the three spheres of government; that is, National, Provincial and Local ought to operate when rendering services to the public. These imperatives inspired this research project. Furthermore, quality service is expected to meet acceptable service standards as promulgated in the Act of Parliament. One of them being the Batho Pele White Paper (White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1997). Public Administration is governed by principles and values as enshrined in Chapter 10 of the Constitution, Section 195(1). These legislations and related regulations bring competitive public value approach in the running of local municipalities. Local municipalities are considered drivers of service delivery in the local government sphere, one may call it the engine or heart of Public Administration. This study, therefore, seeks to highlight leadership challenges in South African municipalities from an organisational culture and leadership perspective, with the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality as a research site. This study is guided by the following research questions: Why is service delivery remaining a challenge amidst the existence of regulatory and institutional frameworks in South African municipalities? How can leadership be used to influence change in the municipalities? In South Africa, the local government has undergone numerous reforms, yet elements of bureaucracy are still highly prevalent. Bureaucratic structures like municipalities require leaders and employees with specific behaviours in a particular manner and according to a specific rule. Bureaucracy by its nature limits leaders from being flexible in making decisions that are suitable to address specific issues in different situations while at the same time being compliant with the legislation that governs them. Municipalities are then faced with a challenge of not having flexible and innovative leadership that is willing to boldly take calculated risks to address the challenges of service delivery within the legal framework. This leadership challenge makes it difficult to embed culture change in the public sector. This study posits that there is a need for a culture change to outgrow the outdated bureaucracies in an effort to allow for flexibility, innovation in leadership to ease the tension between these bureaucracies and have the desire to provide quality service while being compliant with the legislation.

This research argues that organisational culture is tied to leadership traits when attempting to address service delivery challenges in South African municipalities. A responsive and accountable culture should model the values and principles of the Constitution without fear or favour, and make realistic cost-effective and visible change that will address the imbalances of apartheid municipal system of government.

This research has it that leadership influences culture and supports and operationalises it. As much as it acknowledges other theories of leadership in the context of the current diverse challenges that municipalities confront, this study perceives that the contingency theory stands out. The contingency theory allows innovation and flexibility for different situations. It is not rigid and allows for the internal and external adaptation of culture that is effective and suitable for different situations. One size does not fit all in the application of the contingency theory leadership approach. Municipalities and organisations need leadership that is open to change, encourage and support innovation for its competitiveness and survival. For the success of culture change, leaders of organisations need to change their leadership practices, behaviour, decision making, communicate, and create a conducive environment for new ideas, constructive criticism, responsive and accountable. Kanyane (2014:89) reminds us that “the need to improve performance was underpinned by the State’s acceptance of the municipal service delivery challenges that to access descent municipal services was no longer a privilege to be enjoyed by a few.” Leaders are agents and catalyst of change. As Schein, 2004: 20 puts it, “Leadership and change are two sides of a coin, the one cannot exist without the other.” Further, leaders must walk the talk if they want to lead. Should they fail to manage the sub-cultures in the organisations they lead, those sub-cultures will end up managing the overall organisational culture. Municipalities and organisations need leaders who are keen to introduce effective culture change that is results-oriented. The stability of effective culture change comes through feedback from the environment and not from the leader because the recipient of service shall have experienced it (Kuppler & Schein, 2016).

**Keywords:** Municipalities; Culture; Leadership; Service delivery and Challenges

# Table of Contents

DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
DEDICATION	iv
ABSTRACT	v
<b>CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT	3
1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY	4
1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	5
1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	5
1.6 MOTIVATION	6
1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	7
1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	7
1.9 DEFINITIONS OF CONCEPTS	8
1.10 CHAPTER LAYOUT	9
1.11 CONCLUSION	11
<b>CHAPTER 2: THE EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION</b>	<b>12</b>
2.1. INTRODUCTION	12
2.2. THE HISTORICAL ANTECEDENTS	14
2.2.1. The history of Public Administration in the European context	16
2.2.2. The Pre-Generation	17
2.2.3. The First Generation	18
2.2.4. The history of Public Administration in Britain	18
2.2.5. The history of Public Administration in America	22
2.2.6. The history of Public Administration in South Africa	24



2.3.	PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	29
2.3.1.	Foundations of Public Administration	33
2.3.2.	The Nature of Public Administration	35
2.3.3.	Purpose of Public Administration	36
2.4.	THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION	36
2.5.	NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT PARADIGM	38
2.6.	THE PUBLIC VALUE PARADIGM	44
2.7.	THE IMPLICATIONS FOR LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	48
2.8.	THE CONTINGENCY THEORY	51
2.9.	CONCLUSION	52
	<b>CHAPTER 3: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK UNDERPINNING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE</b>	<b>55</b>
3.1.	INTRODUCTION	55
3.2.	DEFINING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	58
3.3.	SUB-CULTURES WITHIN AN ORGANISATION	62
3.4.	THEORY OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	63
3.5.	MODELS AND LEVELS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	65
3.5.1	Schein's Model of Organisational Culture	65
3.5.2	Kotter and Heskett's Model of Organisational Culture	68
3.5.3	Hofstede's Model of Organisational Culture	70
3.5.4	The Denison Organisational Culture Model	71
3.6.	THE BUREAUCRATIC, HIERARCHY AND ROLE CULTURAL DIMENSIONS	73
3.7.	THE TASK CULTURE DIMENSIONS: INNOVATIVE, ADHOCRACY AND ADAPTABILITY	77
3.8.	THE SUPPORTIVE CLAN AND PERSON CULTURE DIMENSION	80

3.9. THE MARKET ACHIEVEMENT AND POWER CULTURE DIMENSION	82
3.10. THE RELEVANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN A DEMOCRATIC STATE	86
3.11. THE IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND CHANGE	87
3.12. INFLUENCING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND CHANGE THROUGH LEADERSHIP	90
3.13. THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN SOUTH AFRICAN MUNICIPALITIES	96
3.14. STUDY AREA: CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY	99
3.15. LEADERSHIP AND CULTURE EXPERIENCED IN THE CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY	101
3.16. CULTURE EXPERIENCED IN THE CITY OF TSHWANE	105
3.17. VALUES OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE	107
3.18. PERFORMANCE OF MUNICIPALITIES IN GAUTENG PROVINCE	109
3.19. LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE	111
3.20. COMMUNICATION OF VALUES	112
3.21. MONITORING AND EVALUATION	113
3.22. CHALLENGES OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN SOUTH AFRICAN MUNICIPALITIES	113
3.23. SERVICE DELIVERY CHALLENGES IN THE CITY OF TSHWANE	115
3.24. THE REGULATORY FRAMEWORK IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT	117
3.25. THE CONSTITUTION OF SOUTH AFRICA, 1996	118
3.26. TRADITIONAL LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE ACT 41 OF 2003	118

3.27.	THE WHITE PAPER ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT	118
3.28.	THE MUNICIPAL SYSTEMS ACT 32 OF 2000	119
3.29.	MUNICIPAL FINANCE MANAGEMENT ACT 56 OF 2003	119
3.30.	THE WHITE PAPER ON IMPROVING SERVICE DELIVERY	120
3.31.	THE INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS FRAMEWORK ACT 13 OF 2005	121
3.32.	LOCAL GOVERNMENT TURNAROUND STRATEGY	122
3.33.	MEASUREMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE	125
3.34.	CONCLUSION	129
	<b>CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY</b>	<b>133</b>
4.1.	INTRODUCTION	133
4.2.	THE RESEARCH DESIGN PROCESS	134
4.2.1.	Research Design	134
4.3.	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	136
4.4.	RESEARCH APPROACH	138
4.5	THE SAMPLING STRATEGY	141
4.5.1	Sampling Method	142
4.5.2	Sampling Size	143
4.5.3	Target Population	144
4.6	DATA COLLECTION METHOD	144
4.6.1	Measuring Organisational Culture	144
4.6.2	Questionnaire	145
4.7	DOCUMENT ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY	146
4.8	DESCRIPTION OF THE DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT	147
4.9	DATA ANALYSIS	148
4.9.1	Qualitative Data Analysis	148
4.9.2	Data processing	150
4.9.3	Quantitative Data Analysis	150

4.10	VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE STUDY	151
4.11	CONCLUSION	154
<b>CHAPTER 5:</b>	<b>RESEARCH FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION</b>	<b>156</b>
5.1.	INTRODUCTION	156
5.2.	RESULTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND SERVICE DELIVERY	157
5.3.	ANALYSES OF THE FINDINGS	157
5.4.	THE RESULTS OF THE SENIOR MANAGERS (QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS)	162
5.5.	COST OF DECISION MAKING AND ACCOUNTABLE LEADERSHIP	169
5.1.1.	Respect and Compliance with The Rule of Law	175
5.6.	DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS	178
5.7.	REVISITING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES	181
5.8.	CONFIRMATION OR REJECTION OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	182
5.9.	LESSONS FROM THE FINDINGS	183
5.10.	RECOMMENDATIONS	184
5.11.	CONCLUSION	185
<b>CHAPTER 6:</b>	<b>SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS</b>	<b>188</b>
6.1.	INTRODUCTION	188
6.2.	REVISITING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS	190
6.3.	AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	190
6.4.	SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS	190

6.5. A SYNOPSIS OF THE STATISTICAL FINDINGS	195
6.6. RECOMMENDATIONS	196
6.7. REINSTATING THE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	197
6.8. CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY	198
6.9. AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	199
6.10. CONCLUSION	200
<b>REFERENCES</b>	<b>201</b>
<b>ANNEXURE A: INTRODUCTORY LETTER FOR DATA COLLECTION</b>	<b>234</b>
<b>ANNEXURE B: CONSENT FORM BY PARTICIPANTS</b>	<b>236</b>
<b>ANNEXURE C: QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE</b>	<b>237</b>
<b>ANNEXURE D: QUALITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE</b>	<b>245</b>
<b>ANNEXURE E: LETTER OF APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH</b>	<b>246</b>
<b>ANNEXURE F: UNIVERSITY ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE</b>	<b>247</b>
<b>ANNEXURE G: ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDITING CERTIFICATE</b>	<b>248</b>

## **LIST OF KEY WORDS**

Culture

Customer

Employee

Leadership

Organisation

Organisational Culture

Performance

Service delivery

Quality

## **LIST OF TABLES**

Table 1: Local Government Turnaround Strategy 2009

Table 2: The CORR Procedure Service Delivery

Table 3: The REG Procedure Model, Organisational Culture

Table 4: Water and Sanitation Service Requests

## **LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 1: Culture Components

Figure 2: A Conceptual Framework for NPM and Normative Reform Values

Figure 3: The Denison Organisational Culture Model

Figure 4: Gauteng Province Municipalities

Figure 5: Research Model

Figure 6: Scatter Plot: Observation and Correlation Service Delivery and Organisational Culture

Figure 7: Fit Plot for Service Delivery and Organisational Culture

Figure 8: Major Service delivery protests by year (2004 –2019)

Figure 9: Service delivery protests by province, 2019

## **KEY ACRONYMS**

<b>AG</b>	Auditor-General
<b>ANC</b>	African National Congress
<b>CoT</b>	City of Tshwane
<b>CPA</b>	Criminal Procedure Act
<b>DA</b>	Democratic Alliance
<b>EFF</b>	Economic Freedom Fighters
<b>EPWP</b>	Expanded Public Works Programme
<b>FICA</b>	Financial Intelligence Centre Act
<b>IDP</b>	Integrated Development Plan
<b>KM</b>	Knowledge Management
<b>MFMA</b>	Municipal Finance Management Act
<b>NGK</b>	Nederduitsch Gerformeerde Kerk
<b>NPA</b>	National Prosecuting Authority
<b>NPM</b>	New Public Administration
<b>PAIA</b>	Promotion of Access to Information Act
<b>PAJA</b>	Promotion of Administration of Justice Act

<b>SALGA</b>	South African Local Government Association
<b>SCM</b>	Supply Chain Management
<b>SDBIP</b>	Service Delivery Budget and Implementation Plan
<b>SO</b>	Strategic Objectives
<b>SOE</b>	State Owned Enterprise
<b>TAS</b>	Turnaround Strategy
<b>4IR</b>	Fourth Industrial Revolution

## **APPENDICES**

Annexure A: Introductory Letter for Data Collection

Annexure B: Consent Form by Participants

Annexure C: Quantitative Questionnaire

Annexure D: Qualitative Questionnaire

Annexure E: Letter of Approval to Conduct Research

Annexure F: University Ethics Clearance Certificate

Annexure G: English Language Editing Certificate



## **CHAPTER 1: BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

Changes witnessed in South Africa before the 1994 democratic elections had impacted how parastatals, government departments, the public finance sector, private sector and municipalities, in particular, provided service delivery business. According to Davidson (2003:30), "The old methods of acquiring and developing business have changed and new models for leadership and management have been called for. Such changes require local government leadership and management to be far more knowledgeable about their business area, and more competitive on how they approach and cope with the changing environment, which is characterised as complex, uncertain, multi-faceted, and heterogeneous." Pavlov and Kutsamunskaja (2004) state that it will take more than technical skills to be a successful leader in government. This view opposes the traditional belief that most government leaders were appointed through their experience and technical skills. Recently, technical expertise does not form a critical part of the required traits for appointing local government executive personnel. The benefits of reforms in local government can be realised when public servants are allowed to flexibly "manage by results". Schein (1992) is of the view that an organisation that needs to change requires a person who can change the old culture.

As per the new approach, public servants and government executives need to possess leadership traits and management qualifications (Pavlov and Kutsamunskaja, 2004). The authors further distinguished managers and leaders, saying the former put consistency and reliability at the fore while the latter initiate strategies to share the vision for stakeholders to strive towards. One of the things earmarked by the transformation process was to promote improved responsiveness to community needs by municipalities at the local government sphere (Thobejane, 2010). Municipalities require leadership that will create, support, implement, manage, and demonstrate through their behaviour the organisational culture and values consistently in providing effective service delivery (Schein, 1990).

The White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (also referred to as the Batho Pele White Paper, 1997, par, 2 on Principles) in South Africa contains ethos of public service good governance and leadership guidelines or principles.

According to these principles, public service leadership should assert the level of quantity and quality of service to be offered and include outcomes and processes therein. According to the Municipal Systems Act (Act 32 of 2000) in Chapter 6, “municipalities will have a ‘performance management system’ to promote a culture of performance management amongst the political structures, political office bearers, councillors and administration. The performance management system must ensure that the municipality administers its affairs in an economical, effective, efficient and accountable manner. Sangweni (2003) says public administration in South Africa instigated reforms for the improvement of municipal performance and service delivery by correcting grinding down the system of service delivery imposed by the apartheid regime based on segregation. In its two terms of democracy between 1994 and 2004, South Africa underwent through its state machinery a legislative transformation process including among other legislations the creation of Local Government Municipal Demarcation Act (Act No. 27 of 1998) aimed to reverse the apartheid intentions of providing decent municipal services to the few (Kanyane, 2014).

Lewin and Minton (1986:514) caution that “empirical research has not contributed to the development of a universal theory of organisational effectiveness, and measures of effectiveness in the past have often been based on a set of subjective measures.” This necessitated the study’s impetus for adding more knowledge around organisational development to the scholarship of Public Administration. The study uses the City of Tshwane Municipality to demonstrate the extent of organisational culture’s contribution to enhanced service delivery. This study does not only weigh in on the City of Tshwane’s determination to meet the above objective but also looks at the whole organizational effectiveness guided by its objectives of changing lives of the people they serve. The City of Tshwane is not exempted from increased pressure of meeting the basic needs of the people with a limited budget and technical capacity.

To date, organisations and municipalities are yet to meet expectations and wonder what could be wrong as their attempts are often geared towards achieving high performance (Jeuchter, Fisher and Alford, 1998).

In the same light, internationally, American organisations mentioned culture for each of their organisations as a major contributor to their success (Ouchi, 1981; Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Lewis, 1994). As such, in the context of South Africa, studying the effect of organisational culture on the performance of a public entity is essential. Hence, this research examined the culture and service delivery in the City of Tshwane as one of the South African municipalities operating in Gauteng Province. Culture in a way affects an organisation's ability to function for it imposes precincts in the organisation. One of the ways to achieve some sustained performance is when there is a buy-in from people in the organisation; that is, creating an organisational culture that embraces change initiatives as and when they are introduced. Manamela (2015:498) posits that leadership development in general and in particular in the public service, is possible through enculturation processes into the desired state of morality because recently the behaviours of politicians and public officials, including in municipalities, have been raised as points of bother and concern. According to Jeuchter et al. (1998:63), "Culture is what distinguishes truly high-performance organisations from the rest of the pack." This study focused on the relationship between organisational culture and service delivery in the City of Tshwane Municipality. The municipality is one of the metropolitan municipalities in Gauteng Province, South Africa. In the context of Public Administration, the City of Tshwane Municipality forms part of one of the three spheres of government in South Africa; that is, the local government sphere.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Schein (1990) states that many of the problems leaders experience can be attributed to their failure to measure organisational culture, and Lincoln and Guillot (2004) believe that organisational culture has become the most catchword in management lexicon. The word is regularly used in business talks to distinguish one company from the rest. Another problem in the spheres of government and public institutions is deriving a definition and adopting some measurement of organisational culture, especially concerning public service delivery. According to the public, there is a dearth of service delivery culture around public service. This is a municipal challenge for they are charged with the responsibility of taking services to the public. A preliminary literature review suggests that there are not many studies conducted on measuring

organisational culture and service delivery in the context of South African municipalities.

Organisational culture is supposedly a mediating factor in the economic performance of various countries, but corporate culture is considered the fountain of the understanding of the differences that may exist between successful state facilities and companies operating in the same national culture (Hofstede and Bond, 1998). Ouchi (1981) also noted some relationship between corporate culture and increased productivity. In addition, some authors (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Lim, 1995; Denison & Mishra, 1995; Davidson, 2003) argue that the importance of a strong culture contributes towards successful financial performance and service delivery.

A few studies (Tidball, 1988; Denison, 1990; Kotter and Heskett, 1992) appear to have examined the existence and the nature of this relationship or presented supporting evidence for it. It can thus be deduced that there is a link between culture and performance, particularly in the City of Tshwane Municipality where residents often complain about the slow pace of response to complaints such as the faulty electricity billing system, housing, water leakages, blocked sanitation pipes, and the non-removal of vagrants occupying empty spaces in and around the city. The literature surveyed suggests that the link, in other words, a correlation between organisational culture and service delivery in the City of Tshwane has not been documented and published.

Van der Post, De Koning and Smit (1998) pointed out that literature was conducted on the relationship between organisational culture and service delivery, but there is not much statistical evidence supporting this relationship, especially in the local government sphere. As a result, this study aimed to achieve the following aim and objectives.

### **1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY**

This study aims to examine the extent to which organisational culture influences service delivery within the City of Tshwane Municipality in South Africa, Gauteng Province.

## **1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The objectives of this study were to:

- Examine the conceptual frameworks of organisational culture and service delivery;
- Examine the influence of organisational culture on service delivery in the City of Tshwane Municipality;
- Determine the organisational culture and service delivery challenges in the City of Tshwane Municipality;
- Explore how organisational culture in the City of Tshwane Municipality can be measured; and
- Suggest recommendations on how organisational culture can be used to improve service delivery in the City of Tshwane Municipality.

## **1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This study adopted a culture model showing a direct link between culture and service delivery and, in the long term, elevate the importance of the concept of organisational culture in the South African public service environment. Van der Post et al. (1998:30) support this assertion, saying there is literature on the relationship between organisational culture and service delivery although without sufficient statistical evidence backing the relationship. Hence, this study sought to answer the following questions:

- What are the conceptual frameworks for organisational culture and service delivery?
- How does organisational culture influence service delivery in the City of Tshwane?
- Which challenges of organisational culture are experienced in the South African municipalities with specific reference to the City of Tshwane Municipality?
- How can organisational culture and service delivery in the City of Tshwane be measured?
- Which recommendations can be proposed to use organisational culture to improve service delivery in the City of Tshwane?

The study focused on uncovering empirical evidence that underpins the relationship between culture and service delivery in the City of Tshwane to support or refute this thesis. The discussion of the research questions of the study preceded a discussion of the significance of the study. Further, the motivation of the study is detailed below.

## **1.6 MOTIVATION**

As a resident of the City of Tshwane and an emerging scholar with a professional interest in the study of organisational culture, the researcher felt motivated to explore the influence on the provision of service in municipalities from a South African perspective, particularly the City of Tshwane. The researcher wanted to understand what could have influenced culture change in the provision of service taking into account the constitutional requirement and delivering the electoral promises to the residence. The historical challenges of providing service in South African municipalities cannot be ignored as they stem from a highly politicised National Party (NP) system of apartheid that came into power in 1948. The party deployed its loyal members to different senior positions in the public service. The deployed officials comprehended, and promoted, the party's policies of discrimination based on race, ethnicity, language and sex. It was close to impossible separating public service from the National Party (as the government of the day) (Mafunisa, 2003).

After 1994, the African National Congress (ANC), the government of the day, met challenges in its effort of transforming the public service to ensure that the programmes could be converted into government or executive policy. The new administration sought to amend the past inequalities and reverse the institutionalised inequitable human resource practices within the public service. The party is charged with the task of safeguarding the public service and turn it into a viable instrument for conveying the ruling party's resolves. In essence, a political administration has the mandate to deliver public service. Among others, loyalty and commitment to political programmes are essential. Political officials in the public office, not public servants, receive their direct mandate from the electorate to drive the manifestos. As such, the performance or non-performance of the departments assigned to these officials has to be accounted for by the very same political office bearers.

The appointed political office bearers become responsible to create and consistently demonstrate the culture of best practice in the departments they lead in the delivery of service as required by Section 195 of the Constitution of South Africa dedicated for Public Administration (Sebedi, 2012). The researcher in this study assessed the organisational culture's influence on service delivery in the City of Tshwane.

## **1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The study adds to the body of knowledge around the organisational culture and service delivery from a South African perspective, with specific reference to the City of Tshwane Municipality. The study deliberated on the type of organisational culture that is prevalent in the City of Tshwane Municipality, which plays a key role in driving change at the local government level. Also, the study adds value to the academic debate about the implementation of contingency theory within the confines of the bureaucratic organisational culture needed in addressing municipal challenges in the City of Tshwane Municipality. The findings of the study were shared with the City of Tshwane Municipality's management and published for use by scholars, other municipalities and interested parties in the South African public service. Data collected and captured for this study was made accessible to the City of Tshwane Municipality. Furthermore, the findings of this study add value to the discipline of public management in general and organisational studies in particular.

## **1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

The researcher administered a questionnaire to selected employees to investigate research on organisational culture and service delivery in the City of Tshwane Municipality by. As discussed in Chapter 4, the researcher further ensured that the research methods employed in conducting the research took into considerations ethical issues.

The researcher acquired permission from both the University of Limpopo and the City of Tshwane to conduct the research. Furthermore, the research was subjected to evaluation and approval by the Research and Ethics Committees of the University of Limpopo. Participants in this research project were treated with respect and confidentiality was maintained. The purpose of the research was fully explained to the

participants. Participants freely participated in the research and were asked to sign consent forms to this effect. Participants were thus informed of their right to withdraw their participation should they feel to do so.

Lastly, the findings of this research project were presented to the official structure(s) of the City of Tshwane as a contribution towards understanding the influence that organisational culture might have on service delivery, thereby working towards improving service delivery in the municipality.

## **1.9 DEFINITIONS OF CONCEPTS**

**Organisational Culture:** Schein (1992:12) defines organisational culture as “the pattern of shared basic assumptions invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel concerning those problems.” This definition becomes relevant in municipalities post-1994 democratic dispensation where employees and leadership in municipalities are expected to unlearn old methods of administration and adopt new ways of providing service to the communities where efficiency, accountability, quality, etc. is expected. Champoux (2011:25) looks at the complexity and level of organisational culture, defining it as “a complex and deep element of the organisations that significantly impact on the members of an organisation.” This confirms the complexity and challenges of the culture shift where municipalities are expected to render effective service in a bureaucratic environment in trying to address the backlog, demands and the historical imbalances of the previously disadvantaged communities.

**Service Delivery:** Mpofu and Hlatjwayo (2015) cite Palmer (1998) who believes that each service has a unique attribute. The features include variability (heterogeneity), intangibility, perishability, inseparability, and the incapacity to own service.

Hollensen (2012) states that variability deduces that services are hardly the same or follow the same patterns since they are rendered to different people. This is similar to different service offerings to the communities through public participation and drafting of development plans by municipalities, which creates binding expectations and promises. This view is supported by Lamb (2004:15) who said human and mechanical



doings directed at people create a service. For this study, service is considered the provision of basic services expected to be delivered by the selected municipality to the residents it serves. Matarirano (2005:40) expounds: “Services are deeds, performances or efforts that cannot physically be possessed.”

## **1.10 CHAPTER LAYOUT**

This section outlines the summary of the chapters of the study. The study comprises six chapters, each with a dedicated theme and discussions addressing the objectives of the study.

### **Chapter 1: Introduction and Background**

Also known as the introductory chapter, the section focuses on giving background to the study. Particularly, the rationale for conducting the study. The chapter provides the orientation and background of the study, problem statement and a brief outline of the aim and objectives, significance of the study, limitations as well as the primary research questions.

### **Chapter 2: The Evolution of Public Administration**

The section reflects on the origins, nature and practice of Public Administration. Importantly, public human resources management constitutes an integral element of public administration and, therefore, organisational culture finds expression in the domain of this sub-field of public administration. The theory underpinning the study was further discussed in this chapter.

### **Chapter 3: A Theoretical Framework Underpinning Organisational Culture**

This chapter presents a literature review to give a framework of organisational culture as a concept in the public sector and discuss the key aspects thereof. It is vital to comprehend organisational cultures as it plays an important role in public sector reform. The literature review defined culture as “a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered or developed by a group as it learns to cope with its problems of external and internal integration, which has worked well enough to be considered valid and is therefore taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel about those problems” (Schein, 1990:109). Organisational culture highlights

principles, beliefs and values that are the core of management system and guide management practices and conduct (Danison and Mishra, 1995).

#### **Chapter 4: Research Design and Methodology**

The study is descriptive and exploratory, and its approach borders both the quantitative and qualitative methods. The research was conducted using a mixed-method approach to meet its objectives of exploring the measurement of organisational culture and its influence on service delivery in a bureaucratic local government. The approach is explicitly stated in this section. The research was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the two variables (Mouton and Marais, 1996).

#### **Chapter 5: Research Findings, Analysis and Interpretation**

The chapter presents a discussion of the qualitative and statistical results of the study. The main results are about an exploration of the relationship between culture and service delivery. The statistical data were analysed and conclusions were drawn from the analysis through a process of inductive reasoning. The researcher discusses the results of the findings, interpretations, speculations and conclusions. The chapter further explains how the conclusion was reached. The objectives and questions of the research correlate with the literature review in a sequential, logical manner. In this chapter, the research question and the objectives as guiding elements of the study are revisited. The research findings are central to this chapter as they answer the research questions of the study. The lessons learned from the findings are presented and recommendations are made.

#### **Chapter 6: Summary, Recommendations and Conclusions**

The statistical data were analysed and conclusions were drawn from the analysis through a process of inductive reasoning. The chapter presents a summary of the findings and conclusions and provides recommendations. Notably, the researcher identifies areas for further research. The results of the findings speculate; conclusions reached do not necessarily signal the end of the research of this topic. It may be viewed as a contribution of new knowledge to Public Administration and, thus, serve as one of the important tools in the continuing journey of studying organisational culture and change management in the local government sphere, to promote good

governance and service delivery through leadership in South Africa and other countries. The research used tenets of Organisational Behaviour which are commonly used in the corporate sector to assess performance. In this study, the tenets are applied to understand organisational performance in a local government environment. Furthermore, literature review suggests that there is a need for leaders to adopt contingency theory approach to enhance flexibility and innovation while maintaining ethical standards and quality in the provision of service in a bureaucratic environment like municipalities (see Chapter 6 section 6.8).

## **1.11 CONCLUSION**

As an introductory chapter, this section outlined the rationale for conducting the study around the influence organisational culture has on service delivery in South African municipalities. The study objective was highlighted, which is to examine the extent of organisational culture's influence on service delivery within the City of Tshwane Municipality in South Africa, Gauteng Province. The chapter has also presented an introductory overview which sets the basis for the overall study.

The chapter has explained the statement of the problem, aim and objectives, and the research questions of the study. The statement of the problem is concerned with the analysing and evaluation of organisational culture in the organisation.

A general view exists that measuring government organisations, which are in the public sphere, is problematic. It concluded with an overview of the chapters to follow.

The next section - Chapter 2 deals with the history of Public Administration; among others, the historical antecedents that led to the dawn of the new dispensation in South Africa in 1994.

## CHAPTER 2: THE EVOLUTION OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

### 2.1. INTRODUCTION

Various development stages in the history that influenced the environment and some global events characterise the public administration as both a discipline and an activity (pa). Earlier, the discipline was built on the fountains of morality and politics to meet the needs of society. Enforcing law and order as well as protecting the integrity of the state necessitated structural arrangement for implementing law and order (Jordaan and Fourie, 2013).

The study of Public Administration involves administrative activities needed in government to give effect to govern through the implementation of policies. Having said there is a need for the reassessment of the domain that will meet the demands for an effective and efficient public administration and management in a globalised world. To achieve that, scholars of Public Administration need to begin to have discussions with scholars of other related disciplines, exchange ideas, knowledge and expertise with the efforts to augment the discipline's available data for an effective, efficient and quality service through the management and well-trained employees of a sound ethical base in the area of science and administration and governance (Selepe, 2009 cited in Thornhill, 2008).

Various scholars consider Public Administration as a field of study that exists in a political system aimed at achieving political decision-makers' objectives. It can also be referred to as a governmental administration as it carries the adjective "public" while "administration" is "government" (Marume, 2016:16) and "public administration's focus is on public bureaucracy, that is a bureaucratic organisation (or administrative organisation) of the government."

Regarded as the father of public administration, Woodrow Wilson (1887:506) said: "Public Administration is a detailed systematic execution of the law. Every application of the law is an act of administration. The administration is the obvious part of the government, it is a government in action, it is the executive, the operative, the most visible side of the government." Public administration vary according to government departs, organisations etc., they may also vary according to mandate, scope strategy

and function but all share a common commitment of service delivery to the public (Denhardt, 2006).

Dimock (1937:29) posits that “public administration is a process or theory not merely an accumulation of detailed facts.” Any administrative study should strive to determine the capabilities of the government, and how such capabilities can be discharged efficiently and cost-effectively. It is through this accession that quality, efficiency and value for money in government spending is emphasised in the provision of service. It emphasises the responsibility of the leadership and administrators to fulfil or enforce public policy according to the assertions of competent authorities.

Further, Public Administration is preoccupied with organisational problems and management techniques required to adhere to the laws and policies formulated by the policymaking agencies of the government. As a result, Public Administration can be considered law in action. It is geared at promoting the relationship between government and society by reconciling bureaucracy and democracy policy implementation to fulfil societal needs. As a result, Public administration is a device of combined theories and policies in action to create a greater understanding between government and societal needs to the people it governs (Henry, 1975).

The above traditional definitions of Public Administration emphasise that the discipline's core functions are implementing government programmes and policies.

It reflects further that Public Administration does not formulate policy. The definitions also considered the discipline as an executive branch, but the public administration is lately broadened more than just implementing programmes of government and enforcing policies. It contributes meaningfully to the formulation of policy within the three spheres of government, the executive, legislative and the judicial (Nigro, 1957). This view is supported by Dimock and Dimock (1969) who postulate that public administration is more of a driver of political objectives than a mere execution of government programmes. However, it is concerned with the modern world bureaucracies and a contributor to policy development.

People have high expectations in a modern welfare state and count on the government to protect them while delivering different services. For such social security and welfare to reach society, public administration is seen playing a central role. When looking at

it from an activity point of view, public administration resembles a state activity. Frankly, public administration drives all government activities.

Dating back to thousands of years, public administration field and practice existed alongside society and human and has been in effect for almost a century as an academic subject. It has gained traction as it is currently taught in many countries.

The study of administration assumed significance complexities in society enlarged, expanding the scope of state and growth of government on democratic lines to meet the demands of society's livelihood, economic development in emerging countries post World War 2. The increasing functions triggered questions such as how and what route can be taken to ensure the efficient performance of these functions. Hence, Wilson advocated for the reform of the government in the administrative field. This is because the government exist to serve the public interest and to support the political independence of emerging nations.

The main objective of public administration is to deliver efficient public services. Therefore, this research uses organisational culture and service delivery to assess how the two variables influence each other, studying how the City of Tshwane Municipality delivers this objective of public administration as a government agency in local government in South Africa.

To understand this concept of public administration in depth, the following section discusses the historical antecedents of the field in the context of Europe, the United States of America (USA), Africa and South Africa as reference. The chapter further provides an overview of the evolution of public administration, the nature of public administration, and the New Public Management (NPM).

## **2.2. THE HISTORICAL ANTECEDENTS**

In a historical evaluation, the administration appears to be the most ancient of all human endeavours. Evidence exists from archaeological excavations that Egyptians organised and administered huge complex organisations, strong leadership and well-coordinated effort at least 2000 years before the Birth of Christ, to build the Giza Pyramids consisting of 2.5 million stone blocks each weighing 2.5 tons. That would have taken 20 long years for 100,000 men. This is equivalent to the three times the size of the Shell Oil Company in the modern world (Owen, 2003). In the Han dynasty

(206 BC-AD 220), China resolved that the state would be led men of virtue and ability instead of choosing men by birth. This adoption was inspired by people's contentment. This supports the notion that the administrative system existed in Egypt to administer irrigation from the annual floods of the Nile River and build the pyramids. Similarly, a few empires were centralised through rules and procedures and were beyond administrative empires, such as in Europe, the various Empires-Greek, Roman, Holy Roman, and Spanish etc. Modern states in the middle ages were arguably developed alongside bureaucratic structures (Gerth and Mills, 1970). However, in the 19th century, there was a trace of administration that had characteristics of public administration (Owen, 1998). Additionally, Owen (1998:23-24) posits that "earlier systems of administration were 'personal'; that is, based on loyalty to a particular individual such as a king or a minister instead of being 'impersonal', based on legality and loyalty to the organisation and the state." Amidst this, corruption and misuse of the public purse for self-gain mushroomed, although the very idea that these are undesirable features of the administration itself only derives from the traditional model. Such practices were common to those who yearned to work for the government and practised patronage or nepotism, gaining employment through favour from friends and relatives or by purchasing officers; that is, to pay for the right to be a customs or tax collector, and then to charge fees to clients, both to repay the initial sum invested and to make a profit.

The military and the church were the other two institutions have made a significant contribution to the development of organisational design and administration. The Roman Catholic Church is an example of an organisational design that endured for 2000 years with a simple five-level hierarchy (i.e. Pope, Cardinal, Archbishops, Bishops and the Parish Priests). Military organisations are also mentioned as contributors to the development of organisational design as they use hierarchy, ranks and staff support advice, and use the uniform to categorise performance of tasks and discipline. This administrative and management function was also used during the time of Kings Alexandra the Great, Napoleon Bonaparte (Military Leader), Hannibal Barca (Military Commander), and Julius Caesar (Military General) who was referred to as the most intelligent commander of all times because of his war tactics, intelligence gathering, studying of the weather patterns, contingency planning etc., which today US Naval War Colleges, Navy, Army, Marine and Intelligence agencies of other

countries attend classes about his tactics of information gathering. This military contribution forms part of leadership training, stability and negotiations for peacekeeping in times of conflicts (Robbins, 1980:35).

### **2.2.1. The history of Public Administration in the European context**

In Europe, the system of development of public administration science was marked by a representative of Germany and Austrian Cameralists, which was active in the sixteenth and eighteenth centuries. The administrative system or bureaus was known as *Kammern*. As a German science of administration, Cameralism or *Kameralismus* became active around the eighteenth through to nineteenth centuries, closely linked to the development of bureaucracy in the early modern period to enhance management of centralised economy for mainly the administration of state's finances. It was divided into public finance, *Oeconomie*, which did not mean exactly 'economics' nor *Polizei* meaning 'public policy' in the modern senses (Lindenfeld, 1997). The method was created to bolden the cameralists' effectiveness to academics with a passion for the science and employees of the state administration - *Kammer*. The early modern term – oeconomics has its associations with Cameralism. The term broadly comprises, by extension, the state itself as well as both private and public issues and stewardship of households. Economics and concerns for material and moral well-being were impeccably merged, leading to a welcomed interdependence between urban and rural productivity. The focus was then put on growing agricultural produce, manufacturing and social responsibility. Notably, the Northern European embraced Cameralism, including Prussia and Sweden. The academics and practitioners of this concept featured predominantly in oeconomic, administrative knowledge, environmental and technological aspects, and cameralistic accounting is in use in public finance today. As centralised state control's power expanded, there was a need for the nation's systematic information to be centralised as well. Data collection was the main renovation as well as the use and interpretation of numeric and statistical data. The data ranged from trade statistics to harvest reports and death notices to population census. Starting in the 1760s, officials in France and Germany mainly relied on quantitative data for systematic planning.

In Europe, Northern and South Germany, the *Polizei* or Police played more than 'security and welfare role' but also an administrator function. The term *Polizei* in the



understanding of the academics continued to be associated not only with repressive measures against dissidents but with addressing the staggering social and economic problems that Germany faced as Lindenfeld (1997) cites Hegel (146). Webber (1946:196-244) postulates that “Cameratism can be credited only with a hierarchy that placed political leader, the king in Prussia, over the bureaucracy. The king and highest ministers of the state constituted the policy level separate from operations, within the bureaucracy at decision-making levels, and collegiality was the order of the day.” The post of *lieutenant de police* for Paris created in 1667 (known from 1764 as the *lieutenant-general de police*) by Louis XIV had jurisdiction over the Paris stock exchange, food supplies, street cleaning, collection of refuse etc. “*Polizei* to refer to everything needed for the maintenance of civil life and existed wherever human life was organised communally, and freeman or subjects conducted themselves in an orderly, modest, courteous and respectable fashion. Its ultimate concern was with the institution and maintenance of order in the community” (Neocleous, 1998:45).

The bureaucratic nature of administration in Germany was further illuminated by Weber, who anchored “bureaucracy” as a social sciences master narrative, through which the story of government is told and the modern German state, in its different forms, exemplified the rational order and rule-bound approach that inspired Weber to that conceptualisation. Weber was inspired by the eighteenth-century authors, like Hegel, as mentioned in the above paragraph. Langrod (1961) posits that Cameratism was characterised by sophistication, natural law concepts correlated with the modern science of Public Administration.

Characterised by the pre-generation and the first generation eras, these generations describe the history of public administration in Europe, both as an activity and discipline

### **2.2.2. The Pre-Generation**

In the pre-generation era, philosophers like Plato, Aristotle and Machiavelli were seen to work around the discipline. Before the establishment of the national state, the emphasis was on the challenges of moral and political nature, and the establishment of public administration in addressing societal needs. In the sixteenth century, the national state became a reigning model of administrative organisation in Western Europe. These states needed for an organisation for the implementation of law and

order and setting up of a defensive structure and defensive mechanism to protect the integrity of the state. Expert skills among civil servants with knowledge in taxation, statistics and administration were in need. But in this age, public administration is viewed as science strives to meet societal needs through consultation and community participation and expected outputs through service delivery (Bagby and Franke, 2001; Anon, 2007).

### **2.2.3. The First Generation**

The first-generation era was highlighted by the work of Lorenz von Stein from Vienna in 1855. Stein was a German professor who is being regarded as the founder of the science of Public Administration, which was considered to be a form of administrative law. Von Stein's view was that the above was being restrictive and viewed public administration as an integrating science with other disciplines such as Political Science, Sociology, Administrative Law and Public Finance. Von Stein believed that Public Administration was an interaction between theory and practice and suggested that it should adopt a scientific method, a view concurred with Cahnman (1966).

### **2.2.4. The history of Public Administration in Britain**

Public administration in Britain can be traced to the times of King John, who introduced a document called the Magna Carta in 1215 at Runnymede. The Magna Carta dealt with the right and privileges of the king, the elite and subjects in the administration of the feudal law by the authority and the courts in Britain. It is through the Magna Carta that "no free man shall be seized or imprisoned, or stripped of his rights or possessions, or outlawed or exiled, or deprived of his standing in any other way, nor we proceed with force against him or send others to do so, except by the lawful judgement of the equals or by the law of the land." Aiming at remedying some abuses exerted by the king, these clauses made the system just, accessible and consistent. The Magna Carta comprised values for debt collection and resolved two inconsequential cases of abuse: first, the inheritor of a debt to a Jew was a minor, the debt could not accrue interest and, second, widows and minors were protected from excessive demands for repayment. Between the 12th and 13th centuries, there was a great development in England's cities and towns. Urban population and commercial life grew and there was an emergence of complex structures of urban administration. A prosperous urban culture in England, the biggest city of London, was backed by

shoemakers, networks of craftsmen, and tradesmen. Merchant traffic kept the River Thames eventful, and the city looked after its whole financial security and self-governance.

“Only three of the clauses of the Magna Carta that were enrolled on the statute roll in 1297 are still valid today, one which declares that London and other cities, boroughs and towns shall enjoy their ancient liberties and customs” (Breay and Harrison, 2014:60). The Magna Carta became part of the British law, as the British Empire expanded beyond its borders, part of its existing laws and practices became applicable to its possession beyond its borders. Does that raise the questions as to what extent were the above rights and privileges contained in the British laws and practices be applied beyond borders in South Africa, particularly in Cape Colony, Transvaal, Natal, and the Free State? What was the reason behind the British government’s implementation of British laws and practices in South African colonies? What has been the extent of South Africa’s administration and government system’s influence on the British philosophy of government and administration (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1983)?

Caiden (1982) posits that the modern public administration originated way back in the king’s household as there was rivalry for the crown. At that time, the church was responsible for social services. The household responsibilities were grouped. One household was responsible for personal service to the monarch while the other possessed an education, special skills, and superior functions such as the administration of the king’s land, finances, justice and raising of armies. The latter household executed the crown’s will, they were the dependent and enjoyed the pleasure of exercising delegated powers bestowed upon them by the crown. The officials were recruited from the educated class of the elite of the bourgeoisie and clerics and had an everlasting occupancy and some preference. Caiden (1982:8) posits further that “the officials gained positions through patronage and purchase; in turn, the fees and prerequisites of the office were kept.” Over time officials developed the entitlement mentality to hold positions. The purpose of the officials’ businesses was to enrich the monarch and make him the most powerful person in the country while on the other hand enriching themselves. This furthered the aims of the dominance of the royal household by the king, who controlled the officials and enlarged the functions of the crown. The administration and finance were separated from the management of the king’s household. This led to the consolidation of complex

duties of the state into compartments led by ad hoc bodies of that accentuated collective leadership. There was then some standardisation at the centre, and the field of an administration remained autonomous. National administration was still cumbersome, confusing and slow.

The administration was centralised. The decisions were taken by the king's court in line with local law enforcement. Public service followed law and order provisions as well as selected public works and regulatory. Societal institutions and governmental functions were integrated, and there was a dearth of synergy within the institutions as there were no specialised units (Caiden, 1982). The eighteenth-century provided more reason and change with religion undergoing a scientific dare and society being indoctrinated into science. There was a remodelling of government and means were devised to provide solutions to the challenges of rural displacement, the large scale of warfare, technological advances, mushrooming of middle-class professionalism, and industrialism. In some countries, kings were overthrown by Republicans. Where they were not deposed altogether, their powers were delimited by the aristocrats and middle class (Caiden, 1982:10). Obstinate threats ensued from both within and without and boiled down to local administration.

The scope and services of central authorities became more concentrated. The church started received competition from the local education system and sought expertise beyond traditional sources. Caiden (1982:9) posits that "old methods and procedures were exposed and substituted with more efficient methods and technique." The new organisation for the administration of social services created the need for government to come with different forms of taxation to have more money, to have bigger armies, better weapons, better policing, more inspectors and consistent supplies. In that manner, the government began having sufficient co-ordination, uniformity and standardisation and higher efficiency.

On the other hand, people demanded better services like postal services and communication, poverty relief, abolishing of oppression, insecurity and inequality before the law. Also, doing away with the earliest privileges and legal debilities. Caiden (1982:10) asserts that "the new social classes and changes in social structure encouraged demands for participation in government and employment of more business-like methods in public administration."

African governance system before colonialism took different shapes owing to the level of development - a socio-political system in place (Mutahaba et al., 1993). Their systems did not have any components of a modern government. This can be attributed to the suppression of different traditional administrative organisations and their administrative cultural values by colonialism. For the better part of the African continent, bureaucratic organisations systems replaced the continent's traditional administrative organs. The evolving public administration culture was apparent and featured management styles, management of financial resources and information. Public administration was geared for development while responding to the interests and expectations of the government. For this to take cause, the government needed a skilled workforce.

Authors Hanekom and Thornhill (1982:200) posits that “the colonial policy provided for the introduction of political institutions and franchise into those colonies that received and enjoyed these powers wisely and moderately as viewed by the colonial powers. The British Empire followed a uniform model throughout in granting political powers to colonies, whereas a specific approach was followed in granting self-governance in colonies. As such, the military government was instituted following a defeat and this served as an interim measure until there was calm around bearing with the colonial model of government as perceived by colonial powers. The second phase saw the institution of a crown government that pushed for the crown-appointed governor to oversee the colony's executive, legislative and judicial authority. In administering the colony at a later stage, the governor received help from an administrative council that represented the colonist. It is worth highlighting that Western value systems and ideology were the fountains of the governmental systems in the British colonies. These Western beliefs and ideals were the core practice adopted by the British politicians and public officials when administrative institutions and the government were made known in the British colonies. British foreign and colonial policies changed persistently owing it to some unwarranted influence enforced by British officials handling colonial services. To transfer British systems to the colonies, the ideological rationale was the key driver.

According to Selepe (2009), the acceptance of the system of government and administration by colonies could have been enforced.

The system entailed the following characteristics:

- the mother country should benefit.
- As British interests were secured in foreign countries, England's sovereignty remained intact as laws in the colonies existed to ensure such.
- Uniformity was the guiding principle in the formation of the system of administration and government in colonies. There were efforts to avert maladministration while civilisation was promoted according to British Christianity. Like in Southern Africa.
- Other institutions of the state, like the Parliament and municipal councils were established to achieve a federation of British South Africa, for instance, and not created for only administrative goals.

This begs for a conclusion that traditions in native populations were not considered as new systems were created in colonies. The existing norms and values were not included in the new systems to promote activities of the tribal authorities. Systems in the colonies resembled the British system. As such, the colonial system was unjust, inequitable and not intended to improve service delivery. The natives in colonies were subjected to racialism and paternalism practices. Such callous practices were permeated in the colonial system as intended by White governments. It would be hard to assess such if traditional authorities were unstable (Selepe, 2009). Hanekom and Thornhill (1982:35-36) posits that "the origin of the guidelines or normative factors of the present South African public administration can be found in the system introduced by the British government in their colonies."

#### **2.2.5. The history of Public Administration in America**

Public Administration in the United States of America (USA) dates back to 18 and 19th century according to Frank Johnson Goodnow and William F. Willoughby among other authors as well as the deans of the public administration movement - Leonard D. White and John Gaus. It appears as if the USA's public administration science is not a model of any European practice and there is no similitude nor references of a system alike. As a result, American students consider the public administration discipline as a complete work of Woodrow Wilson's articles without a historical antecedent (Langrod, 1961:69). Langrod (1961:70) posits that "the American Administration approach in

some way ignores the fact that many serious methodological, expository and comparative studies have been made elsewhere and in other languages than English. Woodrow Wilson himself and other early American scholars of Public Administration looked at Europe for the beginnings of their science.”

Woodrow Wilson is thought of as the first to acknowledge the scientific nature of public administration in the USA. His landmark article around the discipline of administration published in 1887 asserted:

- the separation between politics and public administration;
- consideration of the government from a commercial perspective;
- comparative analysis between political and private organisations schemes; and
- reaching effective management by training civil servants and assessing their quality.

There has been momentous calls and discourses of separating politics and public administration through to 1945. These arguments featured the integration of the works of earlier theorist such as Henri Fayol by authors (Gulick and Urwick, 1937) on the science of public administration to comprehend administration theory. These scholars backed Fayol’s beliefs that public administration as science provided a unique systematic treatment of management at the time. Anon (2007a) said separating politics and public administration was under scrutiny with opposing views for the longest period, and such differing views drew a line in understanding the science of administration and its development.

Fayol’s thought it could be applied in the management of companies and public administration. Separating politics and public administration was dejected and there was no science of administration that was established. However, at a later stage, “the science of administration was primarily focused on governmental organisations and succeeded in developing on its own” (Anon, 2007a:2).

Around 1945, upon the emergence of the third generation, the link between politics and public administration was again a questionable marriage. Thus, the third generation argued against the deliberations of the first and second generations.

“At first, the distinction between politics and public administration was strongly familiarised by the third generation. The unsuccessful American intervention in Vietnam and the Watergate scandal politics were also discredited. In the eighties, there was a plea in favour of bureaucracy in America. That led public administration to detach from political science and it is currently reorganised as a separate science (Anon, 2007a).”

### **2.2.6. The history of Public Administration in South Africa**

Around 6 April 1652 when the Dutch settlers descended on the Cape of Good Hope, they brought with the practice of public administration as it was in the Western world. These practices were adopted by the British in 1806 following their taking over of Cape of Good Hope from the Dutch. There were numerous shifts in different territories in South Africa, which impacted significantly to the development of public administration in the country until 1910 when the territories formed a Union of South Africa, comprising Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal. Therefore, it is worth discussing these territories and their respective regimes.

#### *2.2.6.1. Cape of Good Hope under Dutch Regime*

The Cape of Good Hope was first ruled by the Dutch in 1652 and then again in 1795. There was a steady inland territory expansion while a gradual growth could also be recorded in terms of population. Between 1795 and 1819, the white population was at 14 575, which mostly engaged in farming activities in rural areas (Gouws, 1981). As such, the public administration service at Cape of Good Hope was narrow and a subject of law and order.

The Dutch regime in 1795, which was the second ruling, did not last long. After the French Revolution, the newly founded Republic of France conquered the Netherlands in 1795, and the Netherlands was then known as the Batavian Republic and the ruler - Netherlands Prince William Orange – fled for England.

The prince of England then implored the British to thwart the attempts of France of taking over the Dutch colonies. The plea was besought and the British occupied the Cape Colony in South Africa.



There were contestations among the population as not all of them admired the British occupation. This did not cause much of a setback as the British brought some developments under the British rule. One of those was officials being remunerated and no longer depended on income from fines. This was a solution to several mismanagements in the government.

The agricultural development took shape as British produce was imported while the war in Europe triggered the rising demand in agricultural produce from the Cape. This also contributed significantly to economic growth. British taxation was also lenient. A most challenging factor for the British was some unrests on the eastern frontier - the Burgers that mainly comprised Dutch farmers) and the African natives could not heed the British rule without dissent. The eastern frontier unrests intensified when Gaika ascended to the chieftaincy of the Xhosa nation. The Burgers revolted under the leadership Adriaan van Jaarsveld and the relations between the farmers and authorities deteriorated.

In 1802, the British returned the Cape Colony to the Netherlands in 1803, which ruled for just three years following a Treaty of Amies signed between England and France in 1802. The colony was then renamed to the Batavian Republic. The Cape administration was considered a huge improvement headed by the Dutch East India Company, which lasted from 1652 to 1795. Commissioner General De Mist instituted a strong central government with a balance of power between Governor Janssens and the officials. The governor was assisted by two colonists in a political council that comprised four members. Rekenkamer, an audit chamber, was charged with the responsibility of maintaining financial control to avoid misappropriation of funds. The law was overseen by an independent council of justice while an attorney general acted as a public prosecutor, and appeals were lodged at the Supreme Court of The Hague.

During that period, there was also an institution of district administration after Janssens and the De Mist had toured the colonies. Their finding was that Stellenboch, Swellendam and Graff Reinet districts were greater and resolved to establish Tulbagh and Uitenhage as a new district in 1804. A salaried district landdrost and six heemraden were chosen from among the Burghers to govern the districts, administer the law in minor civil and criminal cases, and to regulate local affairs. There was also an appointment of field cornets to augment the preservation of law and order. Their remuneration was not in salaries but exemption from taxes and quitrent. Colonists

enjoyed inordinate freedom of trade with the Netherlands. On the other hand, acquiring the services of an international expert Rhineland yielded result as farming methods were enhanced through advice on viticulture.

Despite a good story to tell in agricultural works, many factors created an unsettling atmosphere, including poor race relations marred by prejudices and attitudes. What could be regarded as a common perspective of the time, like beliefs held by Janssens and De Mist were influenced by the theories of the French writer Jean-Jaques Rousseau. Rousseau believed that humans are equal by birth but society corrupts them.

Initially, the ideas set a precedent of Janssens and De Mist's prejudice over slave-owners and insolences of settlers towards natives. However, the two, having toured the territories, changed how they viewed the natives. But the Batavian rulers worked towards sustaining white domination over the Khoi and Xhosa peoples on the frontier. Janssens, therefore, resolved that the workers ought to be offered service contracts. He also allocated locations along the Gamtoos River to certain groups and a mission station at Bethelsdorp. His attempts of keeping the peace by effecting a policy of separation of whites and blacks along the frontier were futile as the Xhosas refused to move back across the Fish River. The Ngcika (Gika) and other chieftains agreed to sign the treaties striving towards peace and set out borders. However, the chief did not consider the signed papers to be obligatory, leaving confusion about the position on the frontier.

De Mist's idea was freeing all slaves from birth by prohibiting all furte slave imports and strove to import labour from the Netherlands for the development of the colony's agriculture. However, this rule was left wanting. The ties between the church and the state led to the establishment of freedom of religious worship in 1804 through the Church Order, and all religious denominations enjoyed equivalent protection under the law. The Nederduitsch Gerformeerde Kerk (NGK) became the state church. Although the NGK submitted to the state, it still had the power to appoint assign its ministers and approve church councils. Civil marriages could be contracted before the landrost and two heemraden.

Education was placed in the hands of the sate under the control of the Council of Seventeen. The NG Kerk's Lutheran churches were represented in this council.

Humanism was intended to replace Calvinism as the main driving force in the education of future citizens. Teachers came from the Netherlands to raise the standard of education. A grammar school for boys and an intermediate school for girls were started and plans for a teacher's training college. Liberal humanitarianism was seen as suspicious by some but the colonists liked it that Dutch became the official language, believing it would upkeep the high standards of Janssens and De Mist in the Cape. "Their reforms instituted tolerance of other creeds, encouraged secular marriages, and initiated public education and to the Voortrekkers aspects of government and administration they were to take with them into the hinterland." At the time when the Xhosa nation had a notable growth and became more hostile, the Cape saw the second occupation by the British in 1806 ([www.sahistory.org.za](http://www.sahistory.org.za)).

#### 2.2.6.2. *Cape of Good Hope Under British Regime*

In 1806, Cape of Good Hope was invaded for the second time by the British, and the second time was massive characterised by greater influx of immigrants. Some years later, in 1891 to be exact, the white population had increased, something that gave impetus for a comprehensive public administration. Between 1835 and 1840, things took an instant turn as Boers who participated in the Great Trek broke out and identified themselves as *Voortrekkers*. The term meant pioneers or pathfinders – literally, fore trekkers in Dutch and Afrikaans. The colony, as a result, lost a sizeable amount of white population. Consequently, the first wave of the Great Trek gave birth to various autonomous Boer republics, namely the Natal, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal. The same wave led to the dispossession of the Northern Ndebele people, directly dwindling the Zulu Kingdom among other factors.

As circumstances changed, the British government steadily reformed the practices as well as public and governmental institutions. Since then, from 1850, the colony's public administration was strengthened following the promulgation of the first public service regulations. "This was soon after the British annexed the Cape of Good Hope and, subsequently, legislation was passed to ensure orderly financial administration of the Colony" (Gildenhuys *et al.*, 1988: 81-82).

### 2.2.6.3. *KwaZulu-Natal*

A Governor of the “United Lagers”, Piet Retief, led white Voortrekkers settlers into Natal respectively in 1834 (Bantjes) and 1837. Notably, in December 1837, Retief admired the Natal expanse and began land talks with the Zulu King, Dingane kaSenzangakhona (known as Dingane). The succeeding year saw a fight between Voortrekker laagers and Zulus – the battle was known as the Battle of Blood River One. The Boers’ Great Trek wanted to liberate themselves from the “verdommede Engelse” and the dares they faced under the British rule. In Natal, they were free of the British regimen.

Showing little prospects of growth into a state or perhaps contributing significantly to public administration, the settlement did not do much as Britain annexed the territory on 15 July 1843. This was an end to the Voortrekkers’ short-lived freedom. Disgruntled colonists could not accept the British rule and dissent, led by Susan Smit who in an emotive speech during a public meeting said: “I would rather walk barefoot over the Drakensberg than live under British rule again.” The practices in this colony, as well as the governmental and administrative institutions, resembled those of the Cape of Good Hope.

### 2.2.6.4. *Orange Free State and the Transvaal*

Following the Anglo-Boer War that took place between 1899 and 1902, the Voortrekkers emerged victors and took over two territories, and developed the Orange Free State and the South African Republic (Transvaal) as independent republics with own governmental and administrative institutions and practices. Geldenhuys et al. (1988) said that the British modelled the administrative institutions and practices for the new republics, including the Cape Colony.

### 2.2.6.5. *Unification*

As emphasised in the preceding sections that the four colonies followed nearly the same practices and governmental and administrative institutions, a move to unify them would not have been a farfetched ambition. The four colonies - Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Orange Free State, and Transvaal were on 31 May 1910 unified to form Union of South Africa.

Their similar administrative unified system was constructed to preserve financial and personnel administration. The four colonies had a career system that sustained personnel administration. However, there was a unique system of municipal government and administration for each colony. The system's differences were not significant as all of them were built on the fountains of the Cape of Good Hope in 1836 (Gildenhuis et al., 1988). Selepe (2009:34) expounded: "The administrative system of the Union of South Africa established on 31 May 1910 provided for several state departments, which functioned under the control of the Treasury as far as financial affairs were concerned and the Public Service Commission as far as personnel matters were concerned." Gildenhuis et al. (1988) noted some developments that influenced the change in several state departments to adapt to shifting circumstances. This paved way for many developments between 1938 and 1945 after World War II. The first development was the institution of several public corporations for the mainstream government. Secondly, black national states received independence in 1948, and 10 more governmental administrative systems were developed, forming the Union of South Africa in 1910. Thirdly, the 1960s, municipalities doubled to meet the needs of the newly created local authorities that catered for urban areas dominated by Blacks, Coloured and Indians. Basheka (2012:7) emphasises that the importance of history in Public Administration in pre-colonial Africa had accomplished a great deal in the area of political and social organisation, architecture, city building, arts, crafts, commerce and trade, tax administration, grievance handling and discipline, as well as democratic arrangements.

### **2.3. PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

Various authors possess different definitions of public administration, and for this study, the explanation by Van Wyk et al. (2003) draws an interest. They said when public administration carries the capitals 'P' and 'A' refers to the academic discipline in higher education, and when it is all lower cases it refers to the activities performed by officials in supervisory posts, both at strategic and operational levels in the public sector.

According to Klinger (1983:6-7), "a host of environmental factors affect what public administrators do and how they should do it. Public administration includes the functions performed by administrative agencies at each level of government and

related administrative and judicial activities. These factors in the context of public administration include cultural values, environmental conditions, interest groups, political parties and laws.” Gladden (1972) adds that administration features predominantly in social activities and becomes instrumental whenever there are a set of objectives to be attained by a few persons. It is a social activity often charged with senior officials to implement daily goings-on. “Values are the underlying beliefs and sentiments that people have concerning the nature of public administration, its purpose and the expected behaviour, how decisions are taken by the leadership of public agencies and administrators towards citizens and that informs the type of existing culture in the organisation” (Sebedi, 2012:70-71).

In the 1960s, Public Administration in South Africa relied on an administrative model that was generic. Deeply embedded in South Africa’s approach, the teaching of the model practically bore a resemblance to dogma. This deeply rooted dogma, according to Hanekom, Rowland and Bain (1986:58), “has to a large degree led to stagnation in academic thought and discussion regarding a general theory of Public Administration.”

One of the persistent ideas argued within the study of Public Administration is the bureaucratic model of Max Weber. It has been thoroughly criticised (Marais, 1991) since it was first propounded. It has been proven that a pure bureaucratic model never existed and could not exist in practice. Marais (1991) further states that “the environment of public administration had changed tremendously since Weber propounded the bureaucratic model; it has also been proven that the demands of modern civil service go far beyond the narrow prescriptions of the Weberian model. As a theory, Public Administration is too limited to be used as an instrument of prediction; it falls dismally short, but despite this, it remains a point of departure for many writers.”

Although Weber had successfully identified positives in a hierarchical organisational structure, the model resembled German political theories and could not be translated into African systems, which embodied shared traditional values and negotiated settlements as well as authority.

“However, the model ensures that public employees keep to the habitual rules and regulations and thus ensure that policies are being executed as envisaged by the governing structures. Thus, the persistence of the bureaucratic model remains in

operation, not necessarily due to its academic correctness, but due to its usefulness to persons considering themselves secure within the prescriptive model” (Marais, 1991:221).

Chipkin and Lipietz (2012) argued about the usefulness of effective bureaucracies, saying there is a popular belief that such was instrumental in delivering wide-ranging services and maintaining order while enabling the works of a modern state. From mid-19th to 20th century, the efficient bureaucracy was regarded as a top-down hierarchical and rules-bound public administration “staffed by permanent, neutral professional officials motivated by the public interest and directly accountable to the political leadership. In short, the kind of bureaucracy described and theorised by Max Weber” (Chipkin and Lipietz, 2012:2).

Max Weber advocated for a system of control using policy as a structural tool from the most senior to the least – some top to bottom management characterised by a monocratic hierarchy. The Weberian bureaucracy was a subject of reproach by various authors, such as Pfiffner, stating that “this bureaucracy includes the blind and unemotional adherence to, and application of, rules. The bureaucracy includes activity and interactions of the functional sectors which are controlled employing strict procedures and by clearly defining job positions and scope of competence. The role of the bureaucrat is strictly subordinate to the next level in the hierarchy (Pfiffner, 2004:1).” Rules, communication and formal procedures are used as leverage in this hierarchical system to sustain power, and leadership is solely premised on organisational policies, procedures and guidelines. Thornhill (2008:60) explained that “a reference to Weber is not to prove that it was indeed the most appropriate for early twentieth-century public services, it is still possible to utilise strictly defined hierarchical lines, unambiguous lines of authority and adhere to rigidly prescribed organisational structures.”

According to Davids (2015), the word bureaucracy has its positives and the negatives and opposing meanings. On the one hand, bureaucracy refers to red tape, inefficient, negative, impolite and unhelpful to citizens seeking services. On the other hand, bureaucracy has a neutral or even a favourable meaning in the professional study of administration. For this study, “bureaucracy is the formal rational organisation of relations among persons vested with administrative authority and the staffing of administration with qualified, fulltime, salaried public servants (Fesler, 1980).

Bureaucracy empowers power mongers who overlook due processes in their decisions and guides the aspirations of its firm exercisers. However, when performed accordingly, it enhances performance and relative expertise as well as security. Deviation from the standard is unacceptable and the role becomes more important than the person playing it.

Important features of bureaucracy to people is lesser risk and high stability. Managers who want security and want to perfect their operations prefer this organizational structure, saying the method offers stability and expertise. The top-down and rule seems to be based on official secrecy and permanent tenure had led more often than not too rigid, routinised and process-bound administrations unable to meet the increasingly diverse needs of fast-changing societies and economic processes (Chipkin and Lipietz, 2012).

“Bureaucracies which were large and centralised were mainly criticised for their monopolistic, inefficient nature considered to be caused by the problems of coordination and control arising from their excessive size and lack of flexibility (Gomez et al., 2009:7).” O’Flynn (2005:355) add that “bureaucracy leads to resource wastage and budget maximisation in the pursuit of power, status, income, ideology, patronage, discretionary power and ease of management, producing allocative inefficiency and oversupply.”

Nigro (1970) argues that the emerging scholars within the new public administration movement have critically dissected the ethics and values of public officials who operated in the 1970s. The new public administration believes that protecting and advancing the interests of marginalised groupings need public officials to stop emphasising neutrality and apply discretion in administering social and other programmes. Client-focused administration comes highly endorsed along with debureaucratisation, decision-making and decentralisation of administrative processes in the interests of themes in public administration. Public administration is a tool for government institutions that offer goods and services to society, unlike the private sector whose focus is maximizing profit and often do not produce certain public goods if profits are not favourable. Du Toit and Van der Waldt (1997) argue that governments have to accept responsibility for rendering these services. Hattingh (1986:1) says public administration is the government’s key vehicle for rendering inclusive services.



### **2.3.1. Foundations of Public Administration**

There are notable historical foundations that underpin the field of public administration, serving as a yardstick for those in public employment to discharge their responsibilities. Although the guidelines are identifiable, quantifying them proves impossible and are divided into three: the nature of the political dispensation, societal values and norms, and the rules of administrative law (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1995).

#### *2.3.1.1. Nature of the Political Dispensation*

The Bill of Rights, as enshrined in Section 1 of the Constitution, is the cornerstone of the Republic of South Africa's new dispensation where the right of all people in the country affirms the democratic values of human dignity, equality and freedom. The section further asserts that the government must respect, protect and fulfil the rights (Constitution, 1996).

Thus, it is obvious that the principles according to which democratic state functions should be present in the activities of those in public service:

- every political office-bearer and every appointed public official should, in the execution of official work, show responsibility to render work of such a high quality that accountability should be ensured; and
- official action at the executive level should acknowledge political supremacy.

#### *2.3.1.2. Social Values and Norms*

The Constitution holds societal values and norms highly and advocates for their incorporation into government and administration. The supreme law also proclaims that none is above these two principles, making them the cornerstone of executing administrative, managerial and functional activities. This should demonstrate:

- honesty and probity;
- fairness and justness towards every citizen, irrespective of race, language, religion or political views;
- diligence and the willingness to make sacrifices;
- respect for the religious values inherent in a community; and

- the endeavour for efficiency by ensuring that the greatest measure of qualitative and quantitative satisfaction of societal needs is achieved with the resources available.

The current society prioritises equity as a matter of political urgency. Therefore, if norms and values were to get a green light, there would have been evidence of attempts to redress equity and gender equity. The same goes for traditional authorities which are structurally patriarchal lineage and disregarding of women as leaders or chiefs, except the Modjadji kingdom. Despite provisions been made by the Constitution (1996) for an equal society as enshrined in the Bill of Rights section, this proclaim remains a highly contested area in many communities or tribes.

### 2.3.1.3. *Rules of Administrative Law*

Hanekom and Thornhill (1995:19) state that “in the administrative performance, managerial public officials take into account the rules of natural justice and the rule of law. They should rigorously follow prescriptions regarding administrative activities.”

Thus, it follows that:

- public activities can be undertaken only once they have been authorised by a legislative institution (Parliament, municipal council);
- public officials may not exceed authority; and
- public officials may not cede authority to others without honouring due processes.

As a science, the administration has prospects to improve if discoveries and observations of successive generations can be chronologically linked (Stillman, 1991). Jordaan and Fourie (2013:13) added: “The societal reform initiatives create a great need for administrative expertise and the establishment of professional institutes headed by skilled and knowledgeable academics to establish an economic and social school of thought.” To realise political goals, public sector managers have to adapt to this environment to effectively discharge their responsibilities.

### **2.3.2. The Nature of Public Administration**

According to Cloete (1981) in any context where two or more people combine efforts to achieve a predetermined goal, there is a need for administration. Cloete adds that administration exists in every human activity, whether in a formal or informal context. Administration cannot just exist; it subsists where there is an effective need to achieve objectives. Various authors such as Simon et al. (1968) describe administration as “a co-operative group action with an emphasis not only on the execution of an activity but also on the choices describing how the activity was implemented” and Gladden (1961:12) says, “public administration is concerned with the activities of government and the word administration means to care or look after people, to manage their affairs and an administrator is a servant and not a master.” Thus, Stillman (1980) draws a relationship between the discipline and activities of the executive branch or arm of government, as it deals with the formulation and implementation of public policies and involves human behaviour and co-operative human effort. Thornhill and van Dijk (2010:101) state: “Public administration operates within the political environment aimed at satisfying the needs as perceived in a specific period, and the state is uniquely placed in society. It operates in the name of its people. In terms of administration, the state contains a specialised group of people, namely the “government” which establishes priorities for the delivery of services. The government therefore can be said to provide policies aimed at establishing the goals or ends to be attained for society while public administration is concerned with creating the framework for achieving them.”

Public administrators follow government mandate, unlike private administrators who work towards realising their organisational aspirations (MacRae and Pitt, 1980). Some scholars believe that the administration does not change according to sectors. Institutions have schools of management that are premised on the notion of generic management even though within the curricula of those institutions are divisions of public management and courses specifically focusing according to these proponents on public management. However, Lerner and Wanat (1992) argue that in such views the distinctive role of politics in public service is overlooked.

Schwella, Burger, Fox and Muller (1996) said it is vital to study public administration within its set functions, structures and societal contexts, even though one was to study public management in its entirety.

In this sense, public management represents foci of separation within public administration. Thus, theoretically and practically such focuses are useful for managing public institutions. Public administration is engaged in the formulation and execution of policy. For the government to meet expectations around public service, it has to meritoriously apply policy.

### **2.3.3. Purpose of Public Administration**

Primarily, public administration is preoccupied with optimisation of resource use among staffers. It ensures that there is no waste of resources by applying preeminent practice and acute management. It strikes a good balance of resource allocation between people and materials while ensuring the overall wellbeing of the organisation. In a broad sense, the ultimate administration goal is an achieved state, as its core function is to maintain peace and order, offer justice, sustain the welfare of the public it serves. The functions of administration, however, are informed by the extent to which society expects service from the government.

White (1955:3-4) paints a more precise picture: "Throughout the Western countries, there is an increase in various demands by people on what government should provide. This trend inevitably means more administrative agencies, more officials and more urgent demands for administrative skills." Thus, Davidson (2003) argues that how business was conducted in the olden days evolved and new leadership and management were encouraged. To adapt to the changes required, local government leadership and management need business knowledge on the environs and strategies of mitigating challenges brought by the changing environment, which are assorted, more complex and uncertain.

## **2.4. THE DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

Several public administration scholars did not consider managerial philosophy asserting that it scrutinised ways of optimizing production for profit while public administration studied government institutions that deal with service. Botes, Bynard and Roux (1992:240): "Administration as an organised institutional group action can

also be managed. In the past decade, it was believed, particularly in local administration, that the larger an organization, the larger the economies of scale would be produced, the more efficient and better coordinated would be the services it provided. Further, the greater the facility for distributing professional services would be in the societal or public interest.”

This notion was influenced by the traditional (Weberian bureaucracy) which was considered the most effective form of organisation for the provision of public services. Chipkin and Lipietz (2012:2) state that “the bureaucracy was equated with top-down hierarchical and rules-bound public administration staffed by permanent, neutral professional officials motivated by the public interest and directly accountable to the political leadership.” Weber emphasised control from top to bottom, the approach was a monocratic hierarchy in which policy is set at the top and carried out through a series of offices with each manager and worker reporting to one superior and held to account by that person. This type of culture ensures a high level of safety and prediction based on a set of rules and regulations flowing from public law, namely a system of control that is rational and legal. It was a military type of system operated by way of command and control.

According to Gomez et al. (2009), large, centralised bureaucracies were criticised for lacking flexibility which created coordination inconsistencies owing to the monopolistic nature of the system. “Bureaucracy has been associated with resource wastage and budget maximisation in the pursuit of power, status, ideology, patronage, discretionary power and ease of management, producing inefficiency, an oversupply of goods in running the administrative machinery” (O’Flynn, 2005:355).

The traditional systems delineated above were not earmarked to meet social and economic development demands. They were expected to be responsive to the needs of the people. They did not recognise the function of rectifying malfunctioning social systems. These systems were less concerned with the encouragement or support of economic growth or the distribution of the benefits of that growth as with the allocation of resources to assure continuing profits and revenue to the government or rather to those who control the government. The domain public administration does not exist in isolation. The implementation view refers to the administration as the act of implementation found in forms such as the administration of legislation or the

administration of schools. The comprehensive view considers administration as the total product of human behaviour (individually and collectively) towards the realisation of any goal. The generic view of administration constitutes the functions of public administration, described by Cloete (1981). Thus recent attempts at developing Public Administration theory relates to accepted organisation theory, as stated by Smit et al. (2007) who identified 10 different administrative theories, divided into classical and contemporary theories (Thornhill and van Dijk, 2010). In this study, the contemporary theory as the guiding theory will be discussed in detail in the next chapter. Thus, this study recognises other theories in the study of public administration.

## **2.5. NEW PUBLIC MANAGEMENT PARADIGM**

There has been a significant shift within the field of Public Administration. Traditional values and norms have been undermined in several ways. One aspect of this trend is the emergence of a concept which became known as New Public Management (NPM). This concept promotes the public sector use of private sector management techniques. Due to some pressures, NPM spread across the world influencing various states. However, there are reservations over the general applicability of NPM, especially in the developing world. The author Baird (2004) argue that those who support the traditional approach believe that more must be done to address the issues of the capacity building before NPM reforms are implemented. Van de Walle (2011) states that NPM is generally used as an umbrella term for a collection of trends. The principles of the NPM or the competitive government model which included public choice theory, principal-agent theory, transaction cost economics, and competition theory. How government was viewed, constructed and arranged appeared to be firmly rooted in an economic framework. From this perspective, policy rhetoric focused on the notion that a smaller government was superior, and that government failure must be addressed to maximise efficiency.

The NPM concept promotes the public sector use of private sector management techniques that spread across the world influencing various states due to mounting pressure. However, there are reservations over the general applicability of NPM, especially in the developing world. Those who favour a more traditional approach Baird (2004). Posit that more must be done to address the issues of the capacity building before NPM reforms are implemented. Various authors Pollitt and Bouckaert's

(2004) study focused on how public management reform is formulated, implemented and evaluated. Their study traced the idea of NPM and documented how governments around the world have taken steps top-down to change the structure and processes of the public sector. They developed a model of public management reform and termed the practice NPM model. Chipkin and Lipietz, (2012) argue that NPM was derived from public choice theories and new institutional economics and sought to introduce results-oriented and performance-related operating principles to keep bureaucracy lean and mean.

Van de Walle (2011) further states that NPM trends use alternative words to describe the changes that occurred in the public sectors in Europe and elsewhere 1980's and 1990's by various authors such as managerialism (Pollit,1990), market-based public administration, and post-bureaucratic organisation (Barzely,1992) and entrepreneurial government (Hughes,1998). Christopher Hood's 1991 in the article "A Public Management for all Seasons" is generally regarded as the key work on NPM. It distinguishes between seven doctrines of NPM (Hood 1991):

- a) hands-on and entrepreneurial management;
- b) explicit standards and measures of performance;
- c) output controls;
- d) desegregation and decentralisation;
- e) competition in the provision of public services;
- f) stress on private-sector styles of management; and
- g) discipline and parsimony in resource allocation.

The fundamental logic of NPM is that management in the public sector is not in any meaningful way different from the management in the private sector. This view was supported by the proponents of NPM (Hood, 1991; Larbi, 1999; Brett, 2009). Who claimed that NPM styled bureaucracies would become more user-responsive? NPM promised a new way of controlling personnel other than through internal rules and hierarchical authority. The above proponents further suggest that the public sector has not paid much attention to the management and the role of the manager, has placed too much emphasis on the political leaders at the head of public organisations. If managers and their organisations can be released from the control of those political leaders, and the constraints that politics places on management and operations, then

the system will perform better. Peters (2003) states that they will perform tasks better and efficiently.

NPM acknowledge that public managers and other civil servants come from different backgrounds, the culture had their interests and sought to align their interests, values, ethical behaviour and those of the organisation in which they worked through a system of rewards and sanctions, most notably through performance management contracts. NPM was aimed at undoing the hierarchical Weberian public administration model and its alleged shortcomings (rigidity, fixation on legal correctness, and neglect of economic efficiency) by importing private sector managerialist concepts and tools into public administration. In keeping with the temper of a neo-liberal turn, NPM has been used as a service delivery mechanism for entrepreneurial government policies (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992; Du Gay, 1993, Hood, 1995, Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2000) that seek to contain public expenditure, encourage private sector management and forms of marketisation, to enhance public services and outcomes (delivery). In part at least NPM was a response to perceived weaknesses of the traditional bureaucratic paradigm of public administration and it encompassed a critique of monopolistic forms of service provision and an argument for a wider range of service providers, public-private partnerships and a more market-oriented approach to management (O'Flynn, 2005; Stoker, 2006). They add that NPM successfully spread throughout government and improved government in several ways. The bureaucracy became-focused" more and "customer citizens' input became valued. They add that NPM successfully spread throughout government and improved government in several ways. They further state that bureaucracy became- more "customer-focused" and citizen's inputs became valued.

Most importantly, NPM influenced creative thinking on new ways to implement programmes and conduct public policy (Vlk, 2011). NPM reforms initially sought to give political leaders more control and enhance bureaucratic responsiveness while giving frontline managers more autonomy (Christensen and Laegreid, 2007). According to the NPM philosophy, organisations that have decentralised the services they provide get better results than those that have not, because they are more flexible and provide a closer, more personalised service (Gomez et al., 2009). Gomez et al. (2009), states that organisations that have decentralised the services they provide get better results than those that have not, because they applied the customer-centric



philosophy of NPM that is more flexible and provide a closer, more personalised service. NPM focuses on efficiency style, explicit performance standards and output/outcome control. Politicians have a strategic, goal-setting role, under NPM and public servants are supposed to be autonomous managers held to account through performance arrangements and incentives.

According to Nkuna and Sebola (2012), there have been normative requirements developed which contributed to public administration in South Africa. These are the values norms worth striving for by public servants in the provision of service, and which must serve as criteria for public conduct (Botes, Brynard, Fourie and Roux, 1996). (Van der Waldt and Helmbold, 1995). In terms of South African public administration, such guidelines are as per Section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996. They are read together with provisions of Section 51 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. These guidelines for the respect for the rule of law in public administration were formed in the 20th century as discussed in this chapter including respect for the rule of law; a commitment to serving public good; and an expectation that public servants will exhibit integrity, probity and impartiality in serving public trust (Nkuna and Sebola, 2012). To achieve this Baird (2004) states NPM has two dimensions: internal organisational capacity, of human resources, management or leadership, financial resources, physical/logistic resources, and information resources; and external or institutional context within which the mobilisation and use of organisational capacity occur which are factors emanating from the economic, social and political environment. In this context the role or function which is to be carried out is that of administration, and as such capacity building refers to the promotion of the resources and environment necessary for efficient administration.

Capacity according to NPM refers to the ability of Administration as a whole to ensure efficient service delivery. Other scholars who study developing world NPM is an afterthought to be addressed once capacity building measures have been introduced, enhancing the basic skills and tools of administration. After steps have been taken to improve capacity then it may be appropriate to advocate NPM reforms, but for many experts in public administration, the initial goal should be limited to the establishment of traditional administration (Baird, 2004). To label NPM a new approach has an element of an intentional effort by political office bearers to change the structure and

processes followed by the public sector (Christensen, 2002). NPM is characterised by three chief integrating themes namely desegregation, completion and incentivisation as outlined below.

- a) Disaggregation:** Separating large public sector hierarchies into uniform structures achieving wider, flatter hierarchies internally and re-specifying information and managerial systems to facilitate this different pattern of control. In the public sector, this theme implied strong flexibility of previous government-wide practices in personnel, IT, procurement, and other functions, together with the construction of management information systems needed to sustain different practices.
- b) Competition:** The introduction of purchaser/provider separation into public structures to allow multiple forms of provision of services and to create competition among potential providers. Increasing internal use of competition processes to allocate resources (in place of hierarchical decision-making). The core areas of state administration and public services were shrunk, and suppliers were diversified.
- c) Incentivisation:** A shift from involving managers and staff and rewarding performance in terms of a diffuse public service or professional ethos. Enforcing a greater emphasis on pecuniary-based, specific performance incentives (Dunleavy and Hood, 1993).

NPM emphasises innovation and ingenuity as qualities to be rewarded and encouraged, rather than to be stifled and punished. An important aspect of NPM in the reinvention of government is entrepreneurship. At the centre of the entrepreneurial spirit is the idea of flexibility, a disdain for red tape, coupled with an emphasis on getting the job done. There is also an emphasis on common sense as the solution to red tape (Suleiman, 2014). The NPM approach advocates a decentralised leadership. NPM model of public leadership advocates for the concept of an anticipatory, proactive, customer-oriented leadership in public administration similar to private-sector leadership. Several problems arise, however, when using the notion of an anticipatory, proactive and customer-oriented leadership approach in public administration. First, a private business often has a defined customer group for its output, whereas determining a specific customer group for a public organisation is difficult and politically risky. Second, customers of government organisations may have overlapping demands. The issue here is who the government considers being

its customers. Third, scholars such as Frederickson (1997) maintain that the government has no customers at all because citizens are not customers, they are owners. Customers are offered various outputs by a firm, but citizens determine what outputs should be produced by government agencies. The constitutional and legal basis of public administration presents another challenge to anticipatory, proactive, and customer-oriented leadership.

It states that the responsibilities and duties of public administrators are determined by constitutional provisions and not by customers. Public leaders must not be motivated to take unnecessary risks and break prescribed rules and constitutional provisions by showing anticipatory, proactive and customer-oriented leadership that could jeopardise their organisations. As argued by Samier (2005:60), by the introduction of NPM principles, the three “E” of economy, efficiency, and effectiveness have replaced the three “Cs” of traditional administration - conduct, code of ethics and culture. The primary intellectual root of the market approach to changing the public sector is the belief in the efficiency of markets as the mechanism for allocating resources within a society (Peters, 2001).

O’Flynn (2005:360) states that “public manager the achievement of performance targets. The pursuit of results and cost efficiency are rewarded in the NPM approach. NPM represents an attempt to make the public sector more businesslike and efficient.” Critics such as Pollitt (1990), however, argued that it took no account of the distinctive properties of public sector organisations. The fundamental differences between government and bus deficiencies. Government has many more stakeholders and accountability issues than a typical corporation, and the fact that an administration has to work with the legislature in developing a budget makes the government much more diffuse. In business, the primary goal is profit maximisation, while goals in government can vary depending on the organisation and its many stakeholders. Many of the standard economic principles of NPM do not fit well within the framework of government. NPM emphasis on-cost service fast is often at odds with traditional public sector principles of transparency and due process.

Bureaucracy was not designed to act swiftly like a private company. Because of public accountability, it is deliberative and slow (Brookes and Grint, 2007). Entwistle and Martin (2005). Flynn (2005:25) state that “the practical application of NPM, like its

bureaucratic predecessor, suffered from a range of weaknesses which reflected both implementation challenges and fundamental tensions. For example, competitive regimes have been commonly adopted, although they were usually costly to implement and rarely delivered genuine competition.” Furthermore, there is evidence that such approaches have resulted in increased transaction costs due to the high costs of contract preparation, monitoring and enforcement (Entwistle and Martin, 2005; O’Flynn, 2005; Alford, 2005).

Olsen and Morgan (2005) claim that it is worthwhile to reconsider and rediscover bureaucracy as an administrative form, an analytical concept, and a set of ideas and observations about public administration and formally organised institutions. He does not propose going back to a Weberian-based public administration. Olsen and Morgan (2005) added that bureaucratic organisation was not the answer to all challenges of public administration. The bureaucratic organisation is part of a repertoire of overlapping, supplementary, and competing forms coexisting in contemporary democracies, and so are market organisations and network organisations. Olsen (2005:1) states that bureaucratic organisation is not the answer to all challenges of public administration.

The bureaucratic organisation is part of a repertoire of overlapping, supplementary, and competing forms coexisting in contemporary democracies, and so are market organisations and network organisations (Olsen and Morgan, 2005:1). It is important to mention the public value argument that advocates that public services are distinctive because they are characterised by the rights of citizens to services that have been authorised and funded through some democratic process. Simply stated, public value is the desire to maximise citizens’ value in the public sector.

## **2.6. THE PUBLIC VALUE PARADIGM**

Park (2010) states that NPM reforms have emphasised the values of individualism and economic rationality. "The NPM is known for systems and culture of productivity improvement, reinvention, process re-engineering, entrepreneurial leadership, and performance measurement (Kelly, 1998; Osborne, 2006; Pollitt, 1995; Fox and Miller, 1995; Lane and Woodard, 2001). Denahardt and Denhardt (2000:550) add that "The NPM offers a shift in how we think about the role of public administrators, the nature of the profession, and how and why we do what we do." It sees citizens as consumers

and taxpayers, leading people to evaluate government according to what each individual receives rather than what the community as a whole receives (King and Strivers, 1998:57). The NPM reform values can be understood in three sets:

- a) performance and results-oriented values (managerialism and debureaucratisation)
- b) market and customer-oriented values (downsizing, privatisation, decentralisation); and
- c) goal and strategy-oriented values (strategic and workforce planning management).

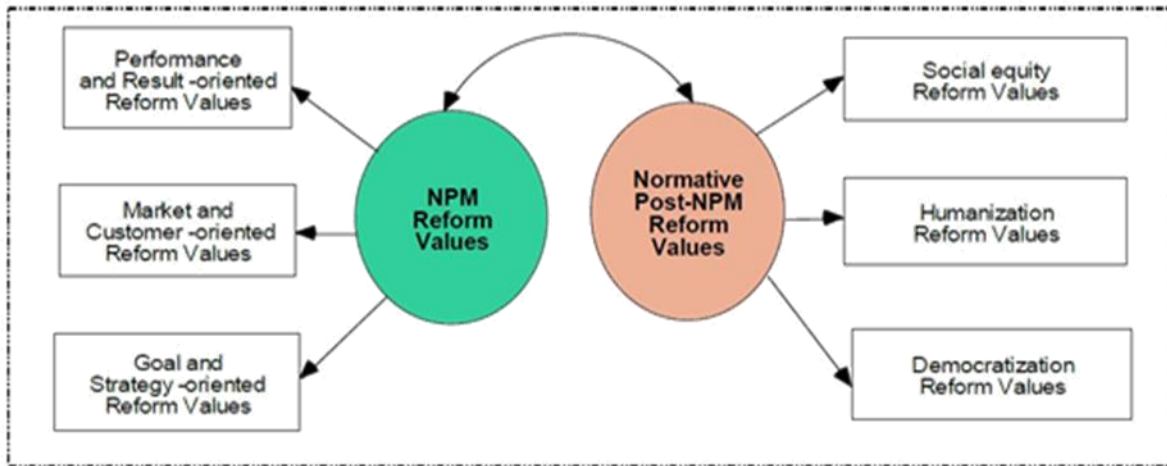
The NPM philosophy was fundamental in proposed reforms, distinguished clearly from the traditional principles of public administration (Battaglio and Condrey, 2006; Condrey, 2005). However, NPM didn't go without criticism which includes its neglect of "the creation and development of an intense relationship of the individual with the larger issues of community, constitutional government, democratic values and public service (Perry, 1996:7)." The market model for society also modified the selection process and incentives systems, adversely affecting the attitudes and performance of employees (Moynihan, 2008:25). Many critics have noted that lack of convincing evidence that government agencies are inherently less effective than private firms in performing public services (Byne, 1998; Lowery, 1998; Savas, 2000; Sclar, 2000). The case of Internal Revenue Service during the late 1990s also showed that the implementation of a radical performance measurement system did not bring about a more positive organisational culture, or more productive workforce (Thomson, 2006:30). NPM is also sad to undermine democratic and constitutional values as well as "public ethos" that provides civil service with a constitutive role in government system (Berry, Chackerian and Wechsler, 1999; Thomson, 2001).

Public value management offers a new paradigm and a different narrative of reform. Its strength lies in its redefinitions of how to meet the challenges of efficiency, accountability and equity, and in its ability to point to a motivational force that does not rely on rules or incentives to drive public service reform. It is based on a more comprehensive vision of humanity than either traditional public administration (O'Flynn, 2006). Public value management encapsulates these points into a new way of thinking and forms the basis for major change and therefore represents a paradigmatic shift. According to Vlk (2011), public value is the latest framework for

government administration and shares some similarities with NPM as it is based on economic theory and managerialism. The post-NPM reforms are also culturally oriented governance efforts.

They focus on cultivating a strong and unified sense of values, cultural integration, team building, the involvement of participating organisations, trust, value-based management, collaboration and improving the training and self-development of public servants. O'Flynn (2005) highlighted a range of leadership skills that modern public managers required to operate effectively, including tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty; recognition of omniscience (i.e. that they can never have full knowledge); maintenance of personal perspective and self-knowledge; critical reflection and distributed leadership (i.e. within and outside the immediate organisation). These leadership skill requirements link well with notions of public value, especially when considering moves towards the whole government or joint up models of governing and network governance forms.

But they represent a challenge to existing capabilities. Hambleton (2003) states that it seems clear that local leaders should adopt an approach that includes developing credible leadership, keeping promises, fulfilling commitments and creating opportunities for others to exercise power. Parks (2010) indicates in Figure 2 below that the framework for the public sector is concerned with broader societal public value management, new public management, e-governance, transparency and shared accountability in networks, rather than with single organisations. Christensen (2002) states that the new model of public management challenges both the traditional notion of the welfare state and the role of the citizen in the state. The main components of new public management are hands-on professional management which allows for active, visible, discretionary control of an organisation by officials who are authorised to manage, explicit standards of performance, greater emphasis on output control, increased competition, contracts, devolution, desegregation of units, deregulation, customer service orientation and private sector management techniques.



**Figure 1.1:** A Conceptual Framework for NPM and Normative Reform Values. Source: Park (2010:25)

Greve (2010) argues that a public management reform idea is more focused on capacity building than on immediate results. It is more focused on the longer time perspective than the shorter more economic-based time perspective. This agenda is more focused on process than on the content itself. However, NPM has been severely discredited and cannot be accepted as a paradigm that could result in a theory for public administration. Some of the criticisms against it can be summarised as follows (Noordhoek and Saner, 2005):

- a) NPM needs long-term investment, which a short-term focused government (in a dynamic and complex world) cannot afford. Thus, New Public Management is a luxury, which public organisations lacking access to basic resources cannot promote.
- b) NPM implies management principles not found in public service organisations. The benefits derived from a Weberian hierarchy, including predictability, accountability and legality, are not evident in NPM.

The above discussions and agenda of NPM reforms pose many complex public policy challenges to deal with, including the latest account of sustainability in this complex world. Managers in the public sector are required to strive to produce and create public value; they must frequently organise and engage themselves in public policy and management networks and discussions, share experiences, risks, challenges, solutions and show results. Citizens or the public are partners, co-innovators, contributors through consultative and public participation processes during policy and

developmental plans in the areas they reside. The untenable era of technology, digitisations, the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR); this represents a fundamental change in the way people live, work and relate to each other. It is a new chapter in human development, enabled by extraordinary technology advances, the speed, breadth and depth of this revolution are forcing organisations to rethink and to create value and even redefine what it means to be human. This era provides an opportunity for everyone; individuals, leaders, managers and policymakers to harness converging technologies to create an inclusive, human-centred future. This provides a possibility for transparency; many sites and opportunities for accountability and change in the traditional approach. The NPM emphasises responsive, accountable that public sector reform demands a very different organisational culture and a very different type of leader to drive this change. A detailed discussion on organisational culture will follow in the next chapters. The starting point in this section is the implications for leadership and organisational culture.

## **2.7. THE IMPLICATIONS FOR LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

Public service employees' role in contemporary governance is critical but not as clear as it once was. The old-fashioned government seems to have been clear and simple; there was some sense of how the system would be managed and what the role of the civil servant in that system was. The predictability was evident especially in public organisations and their routine implementation tasks seemed to be stable and predictable. The most astonishing change in the role of the public service, and for governance in general, is that there is much less predictability and there are often competing demands placed on officials. Peters (2009) states that the reduced number of predictabilities presented several challenges to the public sector leader. This change in public administration should be viewed as an improvement in organisational structures and managerial flexibility. Stefanescu (2012) argues that change depends on the conduct of the leader, on the values and principles promoted and modelled by the leader, how such values and principles are instilled in the employees, and on the capacity of the employees to adapt to them.

The previous sections have pointed to the principles, practices and premises of traditional bureaucracy, NPM and the post-NPM reforms. They provide the basis for



developing ideal paradigms, making comparisons and discussing implications of these reforms on public sector leaders. This is important because it is through dominant paradigms that public leaders make sense of their activity. Organisational culture is particularly important when an organisation is undergoing significant transformation or is introducing major reforms that require different value traits, or new culture change from past behaviours. The challenge with organisational culture globally is how to operationalise it. There are different organisational culture types, understanding them may assist in understanding why managerial reforms may impact differently within and between organisations (Schein, 2012). It takes courageous and committed leadership who not only talk about organisational culture but model it.

Organisational culture and leadership are the centres of the change process. Effective leadership are the main levers to influence and achieve a successful organisational culture change. The two activities of leadership and organisational culture are regarded as mutually dependent and reinforcing. New forms of organisations have evolved. Working patterns have changed with growing stress on a mobile, rapidly adaptable workforce that is well educated and trained to operate in what is increasingly described as an information or knowledge economy. In this regard, the public sector has been forced into becoming more responsive to these market trends. NPM reforms brought a paradigm; the public service was more procedural and compliance-based with a focus on inputs rather than outputs. NPM can be characterised as both post bureaucratic and competitive with a clear and dominant focus on results. In the public value paradigm, public leaders have multiple goals which, in addition to the achievement of performance targets, are more broadly concerned with aspects such as steering networks of providers in the quest for public value creation, creating and maintaining trust, and responding to the collective preferences of the citizenry (O'Flynn, 2005). According to Greve (2010), public leaders now play an important part in co-creation and are required to be in collaboration with many other role players. Key competencies are to understand and to thrive in complexity, including economics, (which implies robustness), to contribute to capacity building and process building often through institutional design, to participate in management teams, to inspire fellow collaborators and to think creatively about solutions to immediate challenges and secure results with an eye to future challenges.

Daft (1999:186) draws our attention to what he defines as the adaptive corporate culture versus the in-adaptive culture. In adaptive cultures, leaders are concerned with customers and those internal people, processes and procedures that bring about useful change. The organisational cultural context, therefore, has a very real impact on the type of leadership it fosters. The organisational cultural context, therefore, has a very real impact on the type of leadership it fosters. Schein (1992) reminds us that if an organisation is to change its culture, it must be led by someone who can break the tyranny of the old culture. This requires leadership with not only the insight and diagnostic skill to determine what the old culture is, but also to realise what alternative assumptions are available and how to start a change process for their acceptance (Schein, 1992). Schein adds that if the culture has not facilitated adaptation the organisation will not survive.

Kanyane (2014) further states that rendering of municipal services to satisfy the community's needs is a necessity, dependent on the availability of basic resources. Leadership skills and inadequate technical expertise in the running and provision of service are notable challenges in South African Municipalities. These challenges are as a result of the inability of the leadership in municipalities to adapt to change in a rapidly changing and competing environment while on the other hand they are faced with high expectations from communities to get a better life for all through service delivery. Powell (2012) supports this sentiment and confirms that the government was expected to do more with less resources and reminds us about the interventions by the former State President Thabo Mbeki through Project Consolidate which was an attempt to address crumbling skills base by deploying expertise in all affected municipalities. The expertise was deployed to municipalities which incorporated former Homelands which themselves had high backlogs of basic services and were economically distressed. The competencies needed in municipal leaders are those that are beyond functional and technical, but strategic and visionary. Transactional and transformational leadership, as well as organisational culture are not mutually exclusive. Such a leader should be flexible and choose the most suitable approach in a competitive organisation like the public sector and municipalities (Bucic et al., 2010).

The NPM and reforms have been discussed and its approach and criticisms have been outlined. It is worth mentioning that public administration is developed from various strands with diverse approaches. Those varying approaches determine the content

and focus of discourse and how the practitioners drive the schema. Public administration drawing from theoretical strands of those approaches makes it necessary. It will be a theoretical disaster to dwell only with a single theory when dealing with public administration phenomena (Nkuna and Sebola, 2012). The study recognises other theories in the study of public administration. It is at this point that the theory that borders the study is explained.

## **2.8. THE CONTINGENCY THEORY**

A theoretical framework is important as it explains why the study exists, and it responds not only to the aims and objectives of the study but also aimed at answering the research question of the study. The theory adopted in this study is the contingency theory as it is deeply rooted in various concepts of organisational literature which borders the study (Sausser, Reilly, Shenhar and Donaldson, 2003) where organisational culture finds space as organisations have cultural properties that breed meaning, values and beliefs (Allaire, Mihaella and Fisirotu, 1984:194). The contingency or situational theory approach, therefore, examines the relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness in specific situations. According to Daft (1999) for a leader to be effective there must be an appropriate fit between the leader's behaviour and style. It becomes apparent, therefore, that a leadership style that works in one situation may not necessarily work in another situation. The situational leadership model was first developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1996). They emphasised the need for leadership style to fit the particular circumstance and context. The premise of this theory is that different situations demand different kinds of leadership (Northouse, 2007).

The adoption of Contingency theory is based on the premise that the research is based on organisational culture which contributes to organisational behaviour in a municipality, which is expected to provide services to the community in a manner consistent with legislation, especially the Constitution of the country. Woodward (1965) developed the contingency theory as a behavioural theory and stressed that there was no best way to manage. Scholars (Reids and Smith, 2000; Haldma and Laats, 2002; Badara, 2017) agree with this statement and further point out that there is no perfect way to provide a good management accounting system, but rather it depends upon some contingencies which the institution has to respond (Smit et al., 2007). Different

situations require different types of leadership. Therefore, the strength of the contingency theory is that it provides management flexibility (Northouse, 2007). Barnard (1968:94) defines an organisation as a system of consciously coordinated activities. The City of Tshwane as an organisation has a bureaucratic structure and red tape type of processes in getting things done.

## **2.9. CONCLUSION**

The chapter discussed the history and development of public administration because definitive types of public administration emerged in parallel with the development of the state, whose beginnings can be discerned in the small urban units as early as the sixth millennium B.C. Throughout history in many parts of the world, the state's development has been varied and its supporting administrative machinery increasingly complex. The historical antecedents within the European and American contexts were discussed in detail. A brief history of public administration in South Africa was discussed.

The chapter also delineated on the foundations of public administration, because public administration is a special field of activity characterised by identifiable foundations, which can serve as guidelines and value norms according to which the activities of those in public employ should take place. The nature of public administration was also outlined and, traditionally, public administration is considered as the accomplishment of government goals.

The chapter reviewed the bureaucratic, post-bureaucratic and post-NPM management paradigms. The post-NPM approach was discussed to set out the alternate paradigm, and the post-bureaucratic new public management paradigms, pointing to several weakness and tensions. The main lesson is that there has not been a convergence towards bureaucratisation as argued by Max Weber or de-bureaucratisation as argued by his critics. Neither has there been a simple sequence of dominant forms. Several normative and organisational components have co-existed. Although the components were stable, the significance of each component and their relationships has varied over time. Historically, the bureaucratic organisation has had its ups and downs. Different dimensions of the bureaucratic organisation have developed differently, and sometimes de-bureaucratisation or re-bureaucratisation has developed concurrently.

The discussion above has pointed to potential challenges for public sector managers in terms of public sector reform.

The section also examined leadership implications. It is clear from these discussions that the new paradigms represent a strong challenge to managerial capabilities and capacities. Another challenge is a need for focused attention on the development of new skills if managers want to effectively navigate the complexity of paradigmatic change. The chapter outlined the theory that bordered the study. Further, the theories attempt to explain the phenomenon that occurs in and around individuals, and its intangible characteristics include values, assumptions and norms, and are defined differently depending on the mission of the organisation. The contingency theory seeks to suggest that culture is crucial in the NPM. Schein (1997) asserts that leadership culture and organisational culture cannot be understood separately. Culture and leadership are two sides of the same coin. Schein reminds us that there is a constant interplay between culture and leadership, while Bates (1994) argues that we are in an urgent need for change in the way we think about the practice of leadership. Understanding organisational culture and culture types also help in understanding why managerial reforms may impact differently within organisations. Public administration reform requires a shift away from the traditional approach to public sector leadership, one that can foster change and innovation in this age of technology to better fast track service delivery. The next chapter will discuss the literature review to define organisational culture as a concept and discuss other vital aspects.

Gibson et al. (1997:4) state that organisational behaviour is a field of study that draws on theory, methods and principles from various disciplines to learn about individuals' perceptions and values within the entire organisation. According to Gibson et al. (1997), the formal study of organisational behaviour began around 1948. The behavioural sciences, especially psychology, sociology and cultural anthropology, have provided the basic framework and principles for the organisational behaviour field. Gibson et al. (1997) remind us that organisational behaviour has a distinctly humanistic orientation. People and their attitudes, perceptions, learning capacities, feelings and goals are vital to the organisation. Each person has unique perceptions, personality and life experiences. To be effective, organisations must view each employee as a unique embodiment of all.

The viability of a way of life depends upon a reciprocal supportive relationship between a particular cultural bias and a particular pattern of social relations. Cultural bias can have various distinguishing perspectives regarding attitudes, beliefs and resolutions to different efforts. According to the theory, one's social relations can be defined in two dimensions - group and grid. Both managerially and critically minded organisational researchers assume that resistance to change is rooted in cultural stability or critical terminology that resistance to managerial oppression can be rooted in the solidarity of working-class culture (Bate, 1997). Hatch (2004) voices the managerial side of this conundrum when he claims that debilitating cultural hangovers from the past play havoc with day-to-day management processes.

## **CHAPTER 3: A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK UNDERPINNING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

### **3.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the existing body of knowledge concerning organisational culture, especially about lessons on how organisational culture can be changed with a special interest in the public sector reforms, in a long run how it affects service delivery. In this literature review, organisational culture is understood to be “the study of people in an institution whose shared values, norms and histories are intrinsically associated as part of the cultural framework of its respective environment. Organisational culture can in other instances impede prospective changes, noting that the strength of the culture is for the status quo to remain, and stating that culture is how we bring stability to the threat of change. They add that understanding organisational culture and cultural types also help in understanding why managerial reforms may impact differently within organisations” (Wynen and Verhoest, 2014:5). Organisational culture strives to comprehend the interconnectedness of cultural norms, values and beliefs. The literature on organisational culture is broad and empirical tests on the subject matter usually concentrate on large organisations but do not provide sufficient statistical proofs. Literature in this regard is generally characterised by a narrow view of the managers, thereby ignoring the vast majority of the people affected by the organisational culture; that is, the employees (Kalaiarasi and Sethuram, 2017).

A theoretical framework is important as it explains why the study exists, and it responds not only to what the study intends or aims but also aims to answer the study’s research question. This study adopted the Contingency theory because it is deeply rooted in various concepts of organisational literature which borders the study (Sauser, Reilly, Shenhar & Donaldson, 2003) where organisational culture finds space as organisations have cultural properties that breed meaning, values and beliefs (Allaire, Mihaella & Fisirotu, 1984). The decision to adopt the Contingency theory is that the research is based on organisational culture which contributes to Organisational Behaviour (OB) in a municipality that is expected to provide service to the communities per legislation and the Constitution of the country. Woodward (1965) developed the contingency theory as a behavioural theory. Emphasising that there exists no best

managing approach. Haldma and Laats (2002) and Reids and Smith (2000) agreed with this statement and went further to highlight that good management accounting system has not had a perfect execution, as it depends on eventualities relevant to a given circumstance (Badara, 2017). This suggests that managers or leaders in municipalities should come up with solutions to problems where the policy does not cater to a particular problem or situation. This further suggests that one solution to a particular situation may not serve the same problem in a different situation - every situation should be looked at on its merits.

Different situations require different types of leadership. Therefore, the strength of the contingency theory is that it provides management flexibility (Northouse, 2007). Barnard (1968:94) says “an organisation as a system of consciously coordinated activities.” Similarly, the City of Tshwane like other municipalities is structured in a manner that is bureaucratic and having red tape type of process in getting things done. That suggests that the roles of the leaders or managers of these municipalities are expected to go beyond administration an environment that regards values and has a sense of purpose. The success of an organisation depends on its leader’s aptitude to establish and promote an interconnected setting. Barnard (1968:94) further proposed that “a manager's authority is derived from subordinates' acceptance, instead of the hierarchical power structure of the organisation. The theory did not go without reproach as Schoonhoven (1981) criticised the contingency theory, saying it depends on assumptions. So did Drazin and Van de Ven (1985) who postulated that the contingency theory was not very clear and did not solve any empirical and theoretical hitches. Sauser et al. (2009) perceived the contingency theory, citing its important roles in averting catastrophes and successful management, as having what it takes since it achieves far more than traditional success. The strength of the contingency theory when it comes to project management is critical for implementation in municipal projects. Project management skills are one of the challenges faced by municipalities in South Africa as they contribute to service delivery positively and negatively. Contingency theory is considered a dominant theoretical, rational, open system model - a science which can be regarded as either a process of inquiry as it is the case in this research that seeks to enquire about the influence of the two variables; organisational culture and service delivery or an organised body of knowledge (Betts, 2003).



The application of the contingency theory in municipalities moves away from the municipalities' traditional method of only running administrative processes but presumes principles of NPM where managers are expected to think out of the box in managing situations when providing service. Municipalities' processes are transactional and attempts are being made to reduce them to several limited explicit stages that can be easily assessed and measured to concentrate on tactical goals. Seidman et al. (2013) cautions that focus on the micro-transactions and associated pressures tend to compromise skills and quality of service even though leaders get people to do the job. The notion of organisational culture did not receive adequate attention in public management in as far as it contributes to public sector productivity, effectiveness and service delivery. The study has, thus, followed the contingency theory to measure the state of organisational culture in the City of Tshwane. Lewin and Minton (1986), edifies that "empirical research has not contributed to the development of a universal theory of organisational effectiveness, and measures of effectiveness in the past have often been based on a set of subjective measures."

Several studies have explored some aspects of service delivery, but few have focused quantitatively on its relationship with organisational culture. In today's global economy, service industry plays an increasingly important role in providing quality service by employees (Baydoun, Rose and Emperado, 2001). Furthermore, employees in service organisations are influenced by the organisation itself and by the employees' individual characteristics Baydoun, Rose and Emperado (2001:603) add that "understanding organisational culture and cultural types also helps in understanding why managerial reforms may impact differently within organisations. Some organisational cultures are better at adapting to change than others. Culture can be a driver or an obstacle that affects reform in an organisation."

Wynen and Verhoest (2014) identified rule-driven, being bureaucratic, inefficient utilisation of resources and being unaccountable for results as attributes that can inhibit change in the public sector.

According to them, bureaucratic structures may point to a cultural trait that limits employees' performance. The structure like that has little room for employees to be innovative and excel beyond the structural boundaries that is against public sector reforms that require flexibility. Local government in this day should be premised on

organisational culture. Taking time to comprehend organisational culture is important for the public sector to gauge the correctness and results of a reform process.

As the public sector aspires for a culture that promotes an efficacious entrepreneurial activity, leaders need to possess skills to drive innovation. Arguably, a combination of dynamic structures and systems as well as inspiring employees to creatively go beyond the organisational walls and the call of duty ensures effective implementation of reforms. However, this transition is guided by different models or cultures. Hence, it is vital, to begin with getting to grasp levels of organisational culture and rethink how to go about instituting change.

This chapter aims to cognize the effect of reform on organisational culture in public sector organisations by presenting a conceptual analysis of organisational culture. The literature explored will help provide insight into the theory that shaped the concept of organisational culture. This section further recognises some of the definitions that scholars have presented over time and discusses the broad conceptions of organisational culture. This includes a discussion of various typologies within an organisation, such as organisational models.

The literature on organisational culture exists in different fields, including Economics, Anthropology, Sociology, Management Sciences, and Behavioural Sciences. When researchers investigate organisational culture from an anthropological paradigm, it becomes vital to engage in 'cultural audits', which comprises extensive observations of behaviour, interviews and examination of organisation documents and other artefacts. "Organisational cultures affect how people consciously and subconsciously think, how they make decisions and ultimately how they perceive, feel and act (Hansen and Wernefelt, 1989; Schein, 1990). Before concentrating on the literature on organisational culture, the definition of the concept could help set the precedence.

### **3.2. DEFINING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

According to Schein (1990), leaders are mostly confronted by challenges that can be ascribed to their lack of analysis and evaluation of the organisational culture. Lincoln and Guillot (2004:5) view culture as "arguably the most pervasive buzzword in the popular management lexicon, routinely invoked in business discourse, to sum up all that is distinctive in a company. Defining organisational culture is, however, not an

easy task. While there is a general agreement about the components of culture as a broad construct, there is considerable disagreement about:

- what constitutes organisational culture;
- whether the culture of a given organisation can ever be adequately described;
- whether culture management can ever be truly effective; and if so
- management strategies are most likely to succeed (Willcoxson and Millett, 2000:91).

It is from this perspective that this research project recognises various definitions of culture. Definitions of culture are aplenty. Therefore, the study acknowledges that not all the available definitions can be covered and considered for this literature review.

Definitions offered by internationally acclaimed authors in organisational culture such as Schein will enjoy prominence in this literature review. To start with, Denison (1990:25) defines organisational culture “as providing the underlying values, beliefs and principles that serve as a foundation for an organisation’s management system, as well as the set of management practices and behaviours that both exemplify and reinforce those basic principles. On the other hand, Schein (1992:30) says “organisational culture is the pattern of shared basic assumptions invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel concerning those problems.” In the same vein, Aiman-Smith (2004) says members of the organisation usually are the ones who carry the organisational culture as they perceive it. Its framework comprises basic values and assumptions, which are instilled in recruits as setting a precedence of how to perceive, behave and expect others to behave in the organisation.

Culture is also considered a metaphor used to grasp organisational operations and how to handle external pressures. Hence, McNamara (2007:12) defines organisational culture as “the personality of the organisation. In this sense, the organisation is personified. Therefore, culture is seen as comprising the assumptions, values, norms and tangible signs (artefacts) of organisation members and their behaviours.”

There are many definitions of organisational cultures as different researchers perceive the concept differently. “Some definitions focus on elements such as assumptions, beliefs and values while others expand the concept to include the way things are done, norms, behaviours and artefacts” (Martins and Coetzee, 2007:21; Somerville and Dyke, 2008:149), and Schein (1992) formally defines organisational culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. These patterns of shared basic assumptions have worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to those problems.”

However, Deal and Kennedy (1982) see organisational culture as to how activities are carried out and bound to a certain environment. Their view focuses on feedback from the environment in which the organisation operates. Additionally, they stated that organisational culture’s conduct is a result of shared informal rules. Instant feedback from the environment enables swift response, and risk shows the extent of uncertainty in the organisation’s activities. According to Griffin and Moorhead (2005), organisational members better understand their expected roles and consequence of their actions through a set of values derived from organisational culture, including what is deemed acceptable or not. This view is backed by Bisel et al. (2009), saying culture is patterns of meaning and interpretation that emerge among management or employees. The right way of doing things in an organisation takes time and comprises continuous negotiations, where assumptions and beliefs are formed within a certain organisation.

According to Deal and Kennedy (2007), organisational culture can be classified into four, using these parameters:

- **The tough-guy macho culture** denotes that quick feedback means high rewards. This often applies to fast-moving financial activities such as brokerage, but could also apply to a police force or athletes competing in team sports. This can be a very stressful culture.

- **The work hard/play hard culture** typically involves taking a few risks with prompt feedback. This occurs mainly in big corporations, which strive for high-quality customer service. It is often characterised by team meetings, jargon and buzzwords.
- **The bet your company culture** the results often take time to be noticed after big stakes decisions were taken. Activities of this nature are developmental or it can be an exploration project that takes years to turnover, such as oil prospecting or military aviation.
- **The process culture** “occurs in organisations where there is little or no feedback. People become bogged down with how things are done not with what is to be achieved. This is often associated with bureaucracies. While it is easy to criticise these cultures for being overly cautious or bogged down in red tape, they do produce consistent results, which is ideal in, for example, public services” (Deal and Kennedy, 2007:32).

From the South African perspective, Tsosa (2003:92) asserts that “managers are increasingly realising the importance of organisational culture as a component of the strategic management process, yet they tend to only have a vague knowledge of the concept itself.” He further argues that in contrast, most managers have more than a working knowledge of the more tangible aspects of organisational management, such as the formulation of business strategy and the structuring of the organisation.

Soal (2000) explains that in the hierarchy of organisational elements, culture comes just below "vision", and just above (inter-personal) "relationships". Culture is not simply an accumulation of the various, complex and often fraught interpersonal relationships of an organisation. It definitely expresses the organisation's character.

Elements of organisational culture may include:

- Stated and unstated values;
- Overt and implicit expectations for member behaviour;
- Customs and rituals;
- Stories and myths about the history of the group;
- Shop talk—typical language used in and about the group;
- Climate—the feelings evoked by the way members interact with each other, with outsiders, and with their environment, including the physical space they occupy; and
- Metaphors and symbols—may be unconscious but can be found embodied in other cultural elements.

Organisational Culture is an important component of the organisational identity and gels well with mission, vision and strategy, which communicate to the public what the organisation stands to achieve. However, organisational culture expresses its inner life and character - how it pursues its work in the world. It is, therefore, relevant to conclude in Lincoln's words: "Culture is the sum total of human beings' collective efforts to come to grips symbolically with a complex and uncertain world. However, it should be noted that in organisations, culture manifests itself into sub-cultures" (Lincoln, 2004:4).

### **3.3. SUB-CULTURES WITHIN AN ORGANISATION**

Members of the organisation can interpret a highly complex environment enabled by culture. Within the organisation, researchers have highlighted that there is likely to be several competing beliefs and values. These are referred to as sub-cultures. "Sometimes different cultures within an organisation define differing views of what may be the appropriate functions of that organisation. The conflict between these views may remain unresolved, and the proponents may succeed in instituting these separate functions, which in turn generate their subcultures" (Jones and Uggerslev, 2008:342).

A subculture typically forms when an organisation comprises different professional groups. This is because professionals in organisations usually hold values that cut across organisational boundaries but may differ from the values of non-professionals within the organisation. Similarly, task differentiation, size of the organisation, power

centrality and demographic composition make some organisations more susceptible to subculture divisions than others (Rose, 1988; Trice and Beyer, 1993; Van Maanen and Barley, 1985). The above classical views on subculture pave the way for the discussion of the theory of organisational culture.

### **3.4. THEORY OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

The concept of organisational culture has gained traction over the years as it was used to understand human systems. In an open system, the system and its subsystems are importantly affected by environmental conditions triggered by organisational culture. The examination of organisational culture is also a valuable analytical tool in its own right. The theoretical framework is important as it explains why the study exists, and it responds not only to the aims and objectives of the study but also answers the research. Most organisational writers consider culture as a stable, conservative and resistant force that is likely to change only through management intervention. Hendry (1999) as cited by Jackson and Phillip (2005:563) stated: "Because of its deeply embedded nature any culture, societal, institutional, or organisational, is resistant to change."

Among the most punctual to impact the works of hierarchical culture alter were Ouchi (1981); Pascale and Athos (1982); Bargain and Kennedy (1982); Kilmann (1985), and Saxton and Serpa (1985). All things considered, nearly all of this writing conversation approximately the conceivable outcomes and benefits of intentioned changing the authoritative culture to realise more prominent administrative control or improve authoritative execution. In this way, this writing pits the steadiness of hierarchical culture against administrative requests for hierarchical versatility and alter.

Cultural theory broadly depicts people's values, convictions, and inclinations, which are not steady but progressing and changing. The theory investigates the disparate cognitive focal points through which individuals translate phenomena. It perceives the significance of social constructionism, and the plausibility of recognising specific designs of commonality that makes a difference in enlightening the human development of meaning (Wuthnow and Witten, 1988). Jackson and Phillip (2005:563 cite Thompson et al., 1990) contend that social hypothesis perceives three components of the term culture. Firstly, social inclination alludes to values and

convictions. Furthermore, social relations are characterised as designs of interpersonal relations. At last, when we wish to assign a viable combination of social relations and social inclination we talk of a way of life. Cultural theory is based on the idea that social relations and inclinations are corresponding, associated and commonly fortifying the so-called “compatibility condition”, where social relations and inclinations must complement one another. Gibson et al. (1997) state that organisational behaviour may be a field of study that draws on theory, strategies and principles from different disciplines to learn about almost individuals’ recognitions, values, learning and within the entire organisation.

According to Gibson et al. (1997), the formal study of organisational behaviour began around 1948. The behavioural sciences, particularly psychology, sociology and social human studies, have given the fundamental system and standards for the field of organisational behaviour. Gibson et al. (1997) remind us that organisational behaviour features a particularly humanistic orientation. Individuals and their states of mind, recognitions, learning capacities, sentiments and objectives are vital to the organisation. Each individual has interesting recognitions, identity and life encounters. To be successful, organisations must see each worker as one of a kind encapsulating of all these behavioural variables. Organisational culture is examined for the most part as research. The reasonability of a way of life depends upon a complementary steady relationship between a specific cultural inclination and design of social relations. Cultural predisposition can have different recognizing points of view concerning demeanours, convictions and resolutions to diverse endeavours. Concurring to the hypothesis, one’s social relations can be characterised with the help of two measurements - group and grid.

Both authoritatively and basically, disapproved organisational analysts expect that resistance to change is established in cultural steadiness or, in basic phrasing, that resistance to administrative abuse can be established within the solidarity of working-class culture (Bate, 1997). Hatch (2004) voices the managerial side of this problem when he claims that weakening cultural aftereffects from the past play devastation with day-to-day administration forms. Individuals and their states of mind, recognitions, learning capacities, sentiments and objectives are critical to the organisation. Each individual has one of a kind discernment, identity and life encounters. To be compelling, organisations must see each worker as a special encapsulation of all of



these behavioural variables. Organisational culture is considered generally as a research variable within the field of organisational behaviour which incorporates regions of research devoted to progressing work execution, advancing innovation and empowering leadership (Taylor, 2018); in this way, the centre on organisational culture has started the importance of building organisations instead of aptitudes or strategies.

An improved approach to changing the culture would be to recognize and take part within the culture's own changing processes, fitting one's aspiration into the stream of solidness and change from which the culture itself is constituted. This includes, maybe over all else, a synchronous centre on what will be protected (and how) and what will be changed. It is at this point that different culture models are talked about. The beginning point is Schein's organisational culture model that borders the study.

### **3.5. MODELS AND LEVELS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

It is critical to get it that there are diverse models or levels of culture as distinguished by different researchers over a long time. The following segment presents and fundamentally analyses the four models of organisational culture. The models are recorded underneath.

- a) Schein (1992) three levels of organisational culture.
- b) Kotter and Heskett (1992) two levels of organisational culture.
- c) Hofstede (1980) four levels of organisational culture.
- d) Denison (1990) four levels of organisational cultural traits.

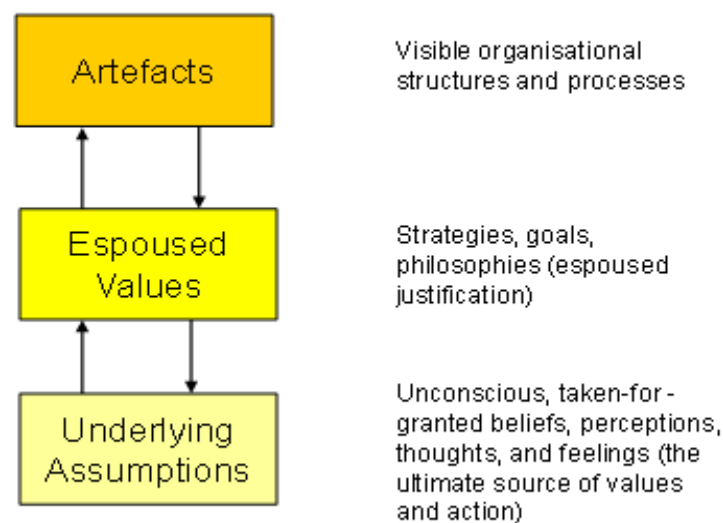
The beginning point is Schein's organisational culture model that borders the study.

#### **3.5.1 Schein's Model of Organisational Culture**

According to Schein (1992), organisational culture is the learned result of group encounters, and it is to a huge degree oblivious. Culture can be dissected at a few distinctive levels; the term level alludes to the degree to which the cultural marvel is obvious to the onlooker. These levels extend from the exceptionally substantial plain appearances that one can see and feel, to the profoundly embedded unconscious

essential presumptions. In between there are different upheld values, standards and rules or conduct.

In utilitarian hypotheses culture is considered to exist as perfect towards which one must endeavour and which one can and must take control within the company's interface. Glendon and Stanton (2005) classify Schein's organisational culture model as having a place in the interpretational theories. Schein considers culture to be a three-layer phenomenon as outlined in Figure 3.1 below.



**Figure 3.1** Schein's Model of Organisational Culture, Source: (Schein, 1992:16).

At the surface, there's the level of antiquities, which incorporates the phenomena that one sees, listens and feels when experiencing a new group with a new culture. Artefacts incorporate the obvious products of the group, such as the engineering of its physical environment, its dialect, its innovation, its fashion as encapsulated in clothing and conduct of address. For the reason of culture examination, this level incorporates the obvious conduct of the group and the organisational processes into which such conduct is made a habit. Chand (2011) alludes to these as the substantial components of organisational culture. The foremost critical focuses on this level of culture are that it is simple to watch but exceptionally troublesome to decode. In other words, the spectator can portray what they see and feel, but cannot reconstruct from that alone

what those things mean in that given group or whether they indeed reflect vital fundamental presumptions.

Parker (2000) states that organisational culture administration as an instrument of experts and as an administration strategy is regularly a coordinate continuation of Taylorism and work justification and productivity considering: also endeavour is made to create control components that are not based on compulsion or coordinate orders.

Bate (1994) compares organisational culture to an iceberg, expressing that most of an organisation's frame or structure lies submerged. He says that organisational creators tend to be working as it were at the tip of this iceberg, chipping away at only a little portion of it, namely, the surface artefact which they will go much lower to shape and alter the culture Bisel et al. (2009) sets that since numerous of the substantial, discernible artefacts of an organisation are under the domain of management (e.g. company symbol or physical arrangement of the office), management regularly assumes to be responsible and in control of organisational culture.

The second level is the upheld values level. All group learning eventually reflects someone's unique and sense of what values need to be distinctive. If the group is persuaded to act on a certain conviction and the arrangement that works, the group features a shared discernment of that success. At first, it'll be changed into a shared value per belief and eventually into a shared presumption, meaning that it is within the bigger sense "true and correct" and must reflect an exact picture of reality (Schein, 1992). Hence (Denison, 1990) states that the values reflect the members' favoured means of settling the issues that the group encounter. The values are the directing standards of the group's conduct, independent of whether they are right or off-base.

The third level alluded to by Schein is the essential assumption level. The essential presumptions have gotten to be so taken for granted that one finds small variety inside a cultural unit. In reality, in the event that a fundamental presumption is unequivocally held in a group, individuals will discover conduct based on any other preface unfathomable. Chand (2011) alludes to these as the intangible components of organisational culture that are difficult to get a handle on but includes that it is these components that deliver a stronger understanding of the organisation's genuine identity. Luthans (1998) states that when individuals are recruited into an organisation, they bring with familiar values and convictions. Very regularly, be that as it may, these

values and convictions are not adequate to assist the person to succeed within the organisation. The individual must learn how the new organisation does things and adjust his values and convictions with the organisational value. Lynch (1995) advances that when an individual joins an organisation, they do not only take on the work, but they grasp the culture of the organisation. On the off chance that an individual's values, convictions and concepts are not adjusted with those of the organisation, then that person will need to change or may leave the organisation.

Schein (2010) sets that fundamental presumptions tend to be those we neither stand up to nor talk about and, consequently, are greatly troublesome to alter. To learn something new in this domain requires us to restore, re-examine and conceivably alter a few of the steadier segments of our cognitive structure. Such learning is inherently troublesome since the re-examination of fundamental assumptions incidentally destabilises our cognitive and interpersonal world, discharging high levels of uneasiness. We tend to need to see the world around us as consistent with our suspicions, instead of enduring such uneasiness levels even in the event that it implies mutilating, denying, anticipating or in other ways adulterating to ourselves what may be going on around us. It is in this psychological process that culture has its extreme control. Hofstede (1998) depicted as the programming of the intellect which recognizes individuals of one human group from another. Hence culture as a set of fundamental presumptions characterizes for us what to centre on or pay consideration to, what things mean, how to respond candidly to what is going on and what set of such presumptions which could be called a "thought world" or "mental map" we become exceptionally comfortable with others who share the same set of presumptions and exceptionally awkward and vulnerable in situations where diverse assumptions work, either since we don't understand what is going on, or more regrettable, misperceive and misinterpret the activities of others (Schein, 2010). It is imperative to distinguish between assumptions and perceptions.

### **3.5.2 Kotter and Heskett's Model of Organisational Culture**

Both Kotter and Heskett (1992) bolster Schein's model and characterize culture as standards of conduct and values shared among a group of individuals. They depict culture as having two levels which contrast in terms of their perceivability and their resistance to change. The more profound, less obvious level alludes to values that are

shared by the individuals in a group which hold on over time, even when the group participation changes. At this level, culture can be hard to change; somewhat since group members are unconscious of the values that tie them together. These ideas about what is vital in life can shift incredibly from company to company. The more obvious level speaks to the conduct patterns or style of an organisation that new employees are consequently empowered to take after.

According to Kotter and Heskett (1992), a high degree of organisational execution is related to an organisation which contains a solid culture with a well-integrated and viable set of values, convictions and practices. Kotter and Heskett's (1992) state that organisational culture and performance concluded that organisations with execution-upgrading cultures appear to be driven by a value framework that stresses meeting the authentic needs of all constituencies, including shareholders, clients and workers. Here we are reminded of NPM which can be characterised as both post-bureaucratic and competitive with a clear and dominant focus on results. Public supervisors in this worldview had objectives built around the accomplishment of execution targets. Within the NPM worldview, the basic execution goals were centred on productivity and economy, generally reflecting the financial surrounding of government action and the recreation of citizens as clients. Within the public value paradigm or post-NPM, numerous goals are sought after by public managers counting broader results, and the creation and upkeep of trust and legitimacy. Such changes require move-in models of the responsibility away from limited performance contracts, for a case, towards the use of more complex frameworks. Kotter and Heskett (1992) highlight that culture isn't synonymous with a firm, although they are in some cases used interchangeably since they play a vital part in forming people's behaviour. The convictions and practices called for in a procedure may or may not be consistent with a firm's culture. This is a reminder that organisational climate may not be in line with organisational culture and it should be consistent with a firm's culture (Ostroff et al., 2013).

According to Rose et al. (2008), culture would only stay connected with predominant execution in the event that the culture was able to adjust to changes in natural conditions. They claim that the literature on organisational culture and execution uncovers those organisations that know how to create their cultures compellingly most likely have the good thing about advance in efficiency and the quality of work-life among employees. Employees ought to endeavour to adjust to the organisational

culture to the most extreme with exact administration rule and course to spur employees to realize targets of the organisation.

Shahzad et al. (2012) state that organisational culture incorporates a profound effect on the performance of employees and can lead to improved productivity as well as upgrade the organisational performance. Shahzad et al. (2012) report that more than 60 research studies were conducted between 1990 and 2007 covering more than 7600 small business units and companies. These studies aimed to discover the effect of organisational culture on organisational performance. Results of these studies for the most part showed a positive association between strong culture and performance advancement. Shahzad et al. (2012) conclude that organisational culture encompasses a positive effect on the workers.

### **3.5.3 Hofstede's Model of Organisational Culture**

Hofstede (1980:5) developed a four-category cultural model for the relationship between organisational cultures and their local cultures. Hofstede classified the appearance of culture into four categories, namely symbols, heroes, rituals and values.

**Symbols:** Symbols are the foremost obvious components of culture and are the signals, objects or words perceived by individuals of the same organisational culture. Symbols carry a specific meaning inside a culture (Denison, 1990).

**Heroes:** Heroes are people who are seen to have characteristics that are held high and are frequently succeeding or are respected as "winners" within the organisation. They serve as models of conduct inside a specific organisation (Hofstede, 1980). Heroes are individuals, lively or dead, genuine or fanciful, who possess characteristics exceedingly prized within the culture and who in this way serve as models for conduct (Wilkins, 1984).

**Rituals:** Rituals are collective exercises that are pointless but are considered socially fundamental inside a culture. Symbols, heroes and rituals can be called practices since they are obvious to the spectator (Hofstede, 1980). Rituals are collective exercises that are actually unnecessary but are socially essential within a culture and are carried out for their purpose.

**Values:** Hofstede (1980) stipulates that the centre of culture is shaped by values, which are wide inclinations to favour certain states to others and are the most profound level of culture. Hofstede (1980) portrays these layers as being comparable to the successive skins of an onion: from shallow superficial symbols to more profound customs. Symbols, heroes and rituals can be subsumed beneath the term practices since they are obvious to an eyewitness, even though their social meaning lies within the way they are seen by insiders. Hofstede (1980) concludes by saying these values cannot be watched but are showed in modes of conduct.

### 3.5.4 The Denison Organisational Culture Model

The model by Denison (1990) incorporates adequacy and it presents the interrelations of an organisation’s culture, its administration hones, execution and its viability. The model highlights the significance of connecting management practices with fundamental presumptions and beliefs when examining organisational culture and adequacy. The values and convictions of an organisation give rise to a set of administration practices, which are concrete exercises more often than not established within the values of the organisation. These exercises exude from and fortify the prevailing values and convictions of the organisation.

Denison distinguished four basic culture characteristics as displayed in Table 3.1 underneath.

Adaptability	Mission
Involvement	Consistency
Change and Flexibility	Stability and Direction

**Table 3.1.** *Denison Organisational Culture Model* Source: Source: Denison (1990:15).

**Adaptability:** Denison (1990) says adaptability is the capacity to interpret the demands of the commerce environment into activity. Organisations hold frameworks, standards and convictions that bolster the organisation’s capacity to get, translate and interpret signals from its environment into inside conduct changes that increase its chances for survival and development.

**Involvement:** This characteristic comprises building human capability, proprietorship and obligation. Organisational cultures characterised as profoundly involved emphatically energize employee inclusion and make a sense of possession and obligation. They depend on casual, intentional and suggested control frameworks, instead of formal, unequivocal, bureaucratic control systems (Denison, 1990).

**Mission:** This characteristic comprises the definition of a significant long-term direction for the organisation by defining a social role and external objectives for the organisation. It gives a clear course and objectives that serve to characterise a suitable course of activity for an organisation and its employees (Denison, 1990). The above table outlines the integration of the four characteristics and depicts that the inclusion and consistency essentially address the inner elements of the organisation, but don't address the interaction of the organisation with the outside environment. Flexibility and mission, in differentiate; take as their focus the relationship between the organisation and its outside environment. In this way, the four concepts can be separated into two sets, one with an inside focus and the other with an external focus. The four components can moreover be isolated in another way. Inclusion and flexibility shape one pair, flexibility and change. Consistency and mission, in differentiate, are arranged towards soundness.

**Consistency:** Consistency gives a central source of integration, coordination and control. Steady organisations create an attitude of organisational systems that make an internal framework of governance based on consensual support (Denison, 1990). From the above discourses, it is evident that the four organisational culture models share common values and it is recognised that there are profoundly situated presumptions and convictions, as well as a set of more obvious management practices and behaviours. The different models are subsequently outlined in terms of their level of awareness - either exceedingly obvious, such as artefacts or invisible and with presumptions and beliefs there are key similitudes among the different models examined. For case, Schein (1992)'s perceptible artefacts compare with Kotter and Heskett (1992)'s group behaviour and the symbolic cultural components of Hofstede (1980). We can have a closer look at the different sorts of organisational cultures that stream from the previously mentioned models. Taking after the above discourses on different types, it is imperative to talk about different types of organisational culture



that exist and are pertinent for the study by beginning with the bureaucratic, hierarchy and role culture dimensions.

### **3.6. THE BUREAUCRATIC, HIERARCHY AND ROLE CULTURAL DIMENSIONS**

The bureaucratic culture is found from studies on culture by Wallach (1983), Quinn (1988), Daft (1999) and Handy (1999) who were able to profile the bureaucratic, hierarchy and role cultural dimensions. These bureaucratic culture, hierarchy and role cultures are concerned with unequivocal rules and directions in an association. Within the hierarchical structures, there is an accentuation on control, with clear lines of obligation and authority based on power and control. Wallach (1983) sets that these organisations are overseen with unequivocal rules and an individual work in an orderly and organised way. Rules and methods in these organisations are formalised in writing. Typically, being done to offer clarity to individuals within the organisation, their assignments and prescribed regulations. This comes about within the conduct of the organisation and its individuals practising congruity to guarantee coordination and integration, as they are bound to the endorsed rules and guidelines. This sort of culture is seen as commonplace of the government setup. Bureaucratic culture has an inner centre and a consistency orientation appropriate for a steady environment. The culture underpins a systematic, judicious, efficient way of doing business. Taking after the rules and being thrifty is esteemed. The organisation succeeds by being profoundly integrated and productive.

The bureaucratic culture alludes to an organisation's culture that has clear lines of duty and authority based on control and power. The chain of command gives authenticity to senior authorities to coordinate subordinates to take after orders to attain desired goals. Within the sociological study of organisations - the work of Max Weber (1946 as cited in Moerdyk and Van Aardt, 2003), it is for the most part taken as the beginning point. Weber developed a basic model that he contended was the foremost productive means by which organisations might accomplish their goals. He called this perfect structure bureaucracy and accepted that this was the only kind of administration appropriate for expansive organisations.

Bureaucracy tends to have negative implications and is related to red tape, wastefulness and inefficiency. Bureaucracy, in any case, is additionally respected as

the foremost proficient frame of the organisation since assignments are controlled by strict rules and strategies. Objectives are clear and positions are arranged in a pyramidal hierarchy. Authority lies within the positions instead of within the individuals who involve them. The quality of bureaucracy lies in its capacity to perform institutionalised exercises in a profoundly proficient way. Gathering comparative specialities together in useful departments' results in economies of scale and least duplication of staff and equipment. Bureaucracies can oversee well with less skilled and less exorbitant middle and lower-level supervisors. The far-reaching use of rules and controls replaces the need for managerial caution in making choices, and the answers to difficult decisions can basically be looked up in a book of rules. Institutionalised operations coupled with formalisation, permit decision-making to be centralised. There's little need for inventive and experienced decision-makers underneath the level of senior officials (Moerdyk and Van Aardt, 2003). Organisations benefit from the bureaucracy that concentrates on internal maintenance to attain steadiness and control.

According to Quinn (1988), this point of view is oriented to estimation, documentation, security and order, with an accentuation on institutionalisation beside the examination of the realities to decide the ideal solution. Supervisors are anticipated to "monitor and facilitate" (Quinn, 1988:39). The prevailing qualities are an accentuation on hierarchy i.e. order, rules, controls and consistency. It is justifiable that businesses such as banking, finance, government enterprises, and social welfare put accentuation on robotic processes and internal maintenance, as these are profoundly controlled segments (Racelis, 2005). Successful leaders in hierarchical cultures are those who can sort out, facilitate, and monitor individuals and processes. Leaders endeavour to be great facilitators and coordinators who are efficiency-minded. Management needs security and consistency.

In spite of its clear focal points, the bureaucratic model does have certain drawbacks. Worker estrangement is by and large considered to be the major downside inside a bureaucratic framework, which tends to disregard human and social processes. Workers see the generic quality of the organisation as creating distance between them and their work. It gets to be troublesome, subsequently, to feel committed to the organisation. Weber did perceive that the modern world of rationalised productivity might turn into a beast that threatens to dehumanise its makers. He talks of the iron

cage of bureaucratic judiciousness. Managers in a bureaucratic organisation are great facilitators, coordinators and authorities of rules and strategies that are clearly defined.

The assignments, obligations and authority for all the organisations are clearly expressed. Hellriegel et al. (2004) attest that most municipalities and government institutions have bureaucratic cultures, which can mar their adequacy and productivity. The bureaucratic style is based on normative rules and adherence to lines of authority. The characteristics of the bureaucratic style incorporate:

- Leaders force strict and systematic discipline on their followers, and request business-like conduct within the workplace;
- Leaders are enabled through the office they hold (position power);
- Followers are advanced based on the capacity to comply with the rules of the office; and
- Followers ought to comply with leaders since authority is offered to the leader as part of their position within the organisation (Hellriegel et al., 2004).

In a bureaucratic setting, leaders tell individuals what to do and how to do it. The leader's orders are based on organisational policies, strategies and rules. Rules are outright for bureaucratic leaders. Work is done per the job description, and the manager does not acknowledge any deviation from the rules, even in cases of extraordinary technical issues. The bureaucratic leader gives individuals little or no flexibility (Rouzbahani et al., 2013).

According to Van Tonder and Roodt (2008), role culture is where individuals have designated authority inside a clearly characterised structure. Such an organisation depends on committees, structures, rationale and examinations. Charles Handy's role culture can be depicted as a building backed by columns and pillars: each column and pillar has a particular part to play, keeping up the building. In hierarchical bureaucracies, the level of control is decided by the individual's position. This sort of culture has been epitomised as a Greek sanctuary and has frequently been stereotyped as depicting bureaucracy in its purest shape. The pinnacle of the sanctuary is where the decision-making takes place; the columns of the sanctuary reflect utilitarian units of the organisation which got to actualize the decisions from the summit. This sort of organisation is characterised by solid utilitarian or particular zones facilitated by a contract band of senior administration at the best and high degree of

formalisation and institutionalisation. The work of the functional area and the interactions among them are controlled by the rules and procedures characterising the work, the authority that goes with it, the mode of communication and the settlement of disputes. Organisational culture is built around characterised occupations, rules and strategies. Such culture works per rationale and judiciousness, and its quality lies in its capacities or pros. Organisation's best structure is characterised by a little span of control and the association tends to function inside a steady environment where imaginative or inventive conduct is debilitated. This culture type is moderate to see the need for change and slow to change even if the need is obvious.

Employees who are deliberate, prompt and detail-oriented are well suited to a role culture environment. The position is the most control source within the role culture. Individuals are chosen to perform roles palatably; individual control is scowled upon and the master control is endured as it were in its legitimate put. Rules and procedures are the chief strategies of impact. The effectiveness of this culture depends on the rationality of the allotment of work and obligation instead of on individual personalities. This sort of organisation is likely to be effective in a steady environment, where the market is relentless, unsurprising or controllable or where the product incorporates a long life cycle.

The role culture finds it troublesome to adjust to change. It is more often than not slow to see the need for change and to reply fittingly. Such an organisation will be found where economies of scale are more vital than adaptability, or where specialized ability and profundity of specialization are more imperative than product development or service cost. The role culture is epitomized in government divisions, local authorities, public utilities and the public segment in general. Organisational life is overwhelmed by the presence of benefits, rights, lawfulness and authenticity, with individuals having clearly designated authorities in an exceedingly characterised structure (Harrison and Stokes, 1992).

A common feature of role and power cultures is their reliance on the use of rewards and punishments to persuade individuals (Harrison and Stirs, 1992). Role cultures tend to emerge into moderately steady environments. Significance is given to consistency and standardisation, and representatives benefit from security and consistency in work designs.

In any case, role cultures may find it difficult to alter to change for the following reasons.

- The administration of change is regularly an issue in these kinds of organisations, particularly in an unsteady environment as the supervisors frequently do not see the need to change if they do not know how to manage it.
- Rules, methods and tried ways of doing things may not fit the circumstances.
- Work in a role culture is baffling to a worker who needs tact and opportunity for development and inventiveness as these are disheartened in their work.
- The performance centres on standard desires instead of novel problem-solving to attain results.

The role culture offers security and the opportunity for workers to secure pro abilities. Execution up to a required standard is compensated on the suitable pay scale, and conceivably by advancement inside the functional area. Be that as it may, this culture is baffling for driven individuals who are control-orientated, need control over their work or are more fascinated by results than strategy. Such individuals will be substance in this culture only as senior directors. The significance of Handy's role recommends that bureaucracy itself isn't culture free. A few focal points of this introduction are that clear lines of authority diminish strife and clear policies avoid the mishandling of control (Harrison, 1993:30). A few drawbacks are that work is clearly characterised with little room for development; deviation from the norm is disheartened, and it is difficult to induce approval of changes (Harrison, 1993).

### **3.7. THE TASK CULTURE DIMENSIONS: INNOVATIVE, ADHOCRACY AND ADAPTABILITY**

Wallach (1983) sets that inventive cultures are energising and dynamic. Entrepreneurial and driven individuals flourish in these situations. They are invigorating and imaginative places to work, filled with challenges and hazard. Wallach cautions, in any case, that innovative situations are not simple places to work. He cautions that burnout and stress are routine occupational risks, as may be seen within the private sector and entrepreneurial commerce environment. The adaptability culture is characterised by vital leaders empowering values that bolster the organisation's capacity to decipher and interpret signals from the environment into

modern behaviour reactions. This recommends that an organisation's flexibility is driven by communities from outside the organisation. Community desires and requests got to be the premise for executing development in their organisation. Employees have an opportunity to decide and act unreservedly to create new needs. Leaders moreover energize development and offer rewards for inventiveness, experimentation and risk-taking.

Hence, accomplishment culture is characterised by a clear vision of authoritative objectives, and leaders focus on the accomplishment of particular targets. The organisation is concerned with securing the desires of clients within the external environment but without the need for adaptability and quick change. This is often a results-oriented culture that values competitiveness, forcefulness, individual activity and the eagerness to work long and hard to realize results. Ridiculous (1999) states that accentuation on winning is the glue that holds the organisation together.

According to Quinn's (Adhocratic, 1988), organisations esteem adaptability, flexibility, and flourish in what would have prior been seen as unmanageable chaos. High-tech companies like Google are prototypical of adhocracy. Google creates inventive web devices, taking advantage of entrepreneurial computer programming engineers and cutting-edge processes and innovations. Their capacity to rapidly create modern administrations and capture the market share has made them pioneers within the commercial sector and constrained less agile competition to play catch-up.

A dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative put to work, advancement and risk-taking are grasped by workers and leaders. The entrepreneur and trailblazer leadership styles are prevailing in adhocracy cultures. Besides, the holding instruments stretch development and improvement, whereas development and the procurement of new assets constitute the most strategic accentuation. Assignment societies are work and venture-oriented and regularly related to associations that embrace matrix or project-based structural designs. Van Tonder and Roodt (2008) state that task and culture are where groups are shaped for problem-solving and overseeing projects and tasks and thrive on expert power. It can be characterized as "the adjusted culture that lines individuals up behind a common vision or purpose" (Harrison and Feeds, 1992:17). The accentuation is on getting the work done, and the culture looks to bring together the suitable assets and the proper individuals at the correct level to amass the

significant assets for the completion of a specific project. A task culture depends on the binding together of power of the group to make strides and to assist the individual to recognise the objectives of the organisation. It may be a group culture, where the result of the team's work takes priority over personal goals and most status and style contrasts. The impact is based more on expert power than on position or individual control, and impact is more broadly scattered than in other cultures.

Task culture depends on collaboration to create results. Groups, project groups or task forces are shaped for a particular reason and can be re-formed, deserted or proceeded. The organisation can react quickly since each group in a perfect world contains all the decision-making powers required. People discover that this culture offers a high degree of independence, judgement by results, simple working connections inside groups and common respect based on capacity instead of age or status. The task culture is subsequently fitting when adaptability and affectability to the market or environment are imperative, where the market is competitive, where the life of a product is brief and/or where the speed of response is critical. Against this must be a set of the difficulty of overseeing a huge organisation as an adaptable group, and of creating economies of scale or extraordinary depth of expertise.

In any case, the task culture does not go without issues, because it is less competent in a large-scale work routine where the manager should be in control of the subtle elements of daily operations. Its control depends on the productivity of the group, and top management is obliged to permit the group daily autonomy. On the other hand, advantages of task cultures are competent and adaptable, they are based on expert power with some individual and positional control, the impact is more broadly scattered, the team status and individual style contrasts are of less centrality, and the group accomplishes collaboration to saddle inventiveness, problem-solving and make strides in productivity.

Control in these organisations can be troublesome. Basic control is held by senior supervisors, who concentrate on the allotment of projects, individuals and assets, but they apply small day-to-day control over strategies of working or methods. This works well in positive circumstances and when assets are accessible for those who can legitimise utilising them. Be that as it may, when assets are not unreservedly accessible, senior managers start to feel that they ought to control strategies as well

as results, and team leaders may start to compete for resources through political impact. Morale within the workgroups tends to decay and the work gets to be less fulfilling in itself; employees start to uncover their own goals. This requires the presentation of rules and strategies, the use of position or the control of resources by supervisors to urge productivity. The task culture encompasses an inclination to change to a role or power culture when assets are constrained or when the entire organisation is not successful.

Most supervisors, certainly at the middle and junior levels, lean toward working within the task culture, with its accentuation on groups, expert power, rewards for results and combining individual and group targets. It is most in tune with the current patterns of change and adjustment, individual flexibility and moo status differentials, but it may not be a suitable culture for all circumstances. Focal points of an accomplishment orientation incorporate employee eagerness and vitality (Harrison and Feeds, 1992), fast learning, adjustment to change and problem-solving (Harrison, 1993). An impediment is that employees may end up being baffled in case results are not maintained or may encounter burnout due to high demand (Harrison and Stirs, 1992).

Task culture is found in organisations that are centred on external situating with a high degree of adaptability and distinction. Quinn (1988) states that this culture can moreover be named a versatile culture where the viewpoint depends on the internally produced thoughts to form speedy decisions, but ceaselessly assembles data from the environment to adjust. Supervisors are anticipated to be “innovators and politically influential” (Quinn, 1988:40). The overwhelming properties in this quadrant are business enterprise, imagination, and versatility (Racekis, 2005). Engineering industries take on the characteristics of business enterprise and inventiveness as these sectors tend to be exceptionally dynamic.

### **3.8. THE SUPPORTIVE CLAN AND PERSON CULTURE DIMENSION**

In this sort of culture, there is, by and large, a sense of purpose and a feeling of family. A clear sign of a strong culture is when people care, and there is an intact focus on the overall organisation and not just on chosen groups. Mohanty et al. (2012) add that this sort of culture improves employee commitment to the organisation. The clan culture has an inside focus on the inclusion and support of workers to quickly meet



changing desires from the outside environment. More than any other, this culture places value on meeting the desires of employees. The environment is neighbourly, and workers tend to feel nearly like a family.

Leaders underline co-operation, thought for both workers and clients and tolerating status contrasts. Leaders put a premium on decency and coming to understanding with others. It speaks to an organisation that centres on internal support with adaptability, having concern for individuals and being delicate to clients (Berrio, 2003). According to Quinn (1988), the clan viewpoint is process-situated with a centre on “affiliation and harmony” among people. Supervisors are anticipated to be “mentors and facilitators” (Quinn, 1988:41). The prevailing qualities in this quadrant are cohesiveness, support, collaboration, and sense of family (Racelis, 2005). In this case, it appears consistent that retail substances show comparative characteristics, as societal desires make certain requests in this range. (Racelis, 2005). Leaders are considered to be guides or indeed parental figures. Person culture is a bizarre culture. It isn't found in numerous associations; however, numerous individuals uphold a few of its values.

In this culture, the person is the central point; in case there is a structure or an association, it exists as it were to serve and help the people inside it to encourage their interests without any superseding objective. Van Tonder and Roodt (2008) claim that person culture exists when each individual is of the conviction that he or she is prevalent to the organisation and works and exists completely for him or herself. The person is the central point within the person culture. The organisation exists to assist the person instead of the other way around. Clearly, a few organisations can exist with this sort of culture, or create it, since organisations tend to have some form of corporate objective over the individual goals. Besides, control instruments, and indeed administration hierarchies, are outlandish in these cultures except by shared assent. A person can leave the organisation, but the organisation rarely has the control to oust a person. The impact is shared and the control base, in case required, is more often than not an expert; i.e. individuals do what they are great at and are listened to for their skill.

Specialists, both inside organisations and independent specialists, and architects' associations regularly have this individual orientation - so do a few colleges. A

cooperative may endeavour for the person culture in organisational form, but as it develops it regularly gets to be, at best, a task culture, or frequently a power or role culture. Organisational life is guided by what would best fulfil members' needs. It can be characterised as being "based on shared belief between the person and the organisation" (Harrison and Stirs, 1992:20). According to Harrison and Feeds (1992), there is negligible formal central control, as consensus decision-making is favoured. The organisational structure could be a cluster where there is a little chain of command, and authority is allotted on assignment competence (Harrison, 1993).

An advantage of person culture is that workers tend to have solid values around how they work. In spite of the fact that it would be uncommon to find an organisation in which the person culture prevailed, you'll regularly experience individuals whose individual inclinations are for this sort of culture but discover themselves working in more conventional organisations. Pros in organisations such as computer people in a commerce organisation, experts in a health centre, designers in local government, and college instructors benefit from the power of their professions. Such individuals are not simple to manage. Being specialists, elective work is frequently simple to get, and they may not recognise anybody as being in a position to exercise expert control more noteworthy than their own. Position power not supported up by asset control implies nothing to such individuals, and coercive power isn't more often than not accessible. They may not be affected by group standards or relationships with colleagues, which can be anticipated to moderate their individual inclinations. This takes off as it were personal power, and such individuals are regularly not effectively inspired by identity. A few impediments of a support orientation incorporate: (1) individuals centre on connections and disregard the work, (2) when agreement cannot be reached, the group may end up uncertain, and (3) decisions may take a long time as they require everyone's endorsement (Harrison, 1993).

### **3.9. THE MARKET ACHIEVEMENT AND POWER CULTURE DIMENSION**

The market typology depicts an organisation that centres on outside support with a need for soundness and control (Berrio, 2003). This culture can moreover be named a mission culture. According to Quinn (1988), this viewpoint encompasses a centre on the accomplishment of objectives and quick decision-making. Supervisors are anticipated to deliver (Quinn, 1988). The prevailing traits in this quadrant are market

orientation, competitiveness and objective accomplishment. This can be the manufacturing industry because it must be versatile to the strengths of acting inside the industry (Racelis, 2005). These companies are comparative to the bureaucracy in that they esteem soundness and control; in any case, rather than an internal centre they have an external orientation and they value separation over integration. Leaders are demanding, hard-driving, and profitable. The accentuation on winning binds together this kind of organisation's competitiveness and objective accomplishment. This may well be the manufacturing industry because it must be adaptive to the powers acting within the industry (Racelis, 2005). Power culture is where control is concentrated within the hands of a couple of people who control the system with few rules and little bureaucracy (Van Tonder and Roodt, 2008). The closer you're to the spider; the more impact you have got. Organisations with this sort of culture can react rapidly to occasions, but they are intensely subordinate, for their proceeded success, on the capacities of the individuals at the centre; progression could be a basic issue. They will tend to draw in individuals who are power-orientated and politically-minded, who take risks and do not rate security profoundly. Control of assets is the most power base in this culture, with a few components of individual control at the centre.

A few highlights of this orientation incorporate a solid and charismatic leader who rewards steadfast devotees; the leader acts singularly but within the best interests of the organisation (Harrison, 1993). Van Tonder and Roodt (2008) and Struwig and Smith (2002) state that talks and the lion's share of activities allude back to the centre which at that point overwhelms work styles, beliefs and indeed working strategies and practices. The points of interest of this sort of culture are such that, organisations can be solid, pleased, and energetic; and respond rapidly to outside demands. Impediments, in any case, include that power cultures may have workers who endure alienation where those within the middle layers feel that they have deficiently scope. The pressure and steady have to allude to the centre may create broken competition and jostle for the support of the individual in charge. The organisation is dependent on the capacity and judgement of the central power. People succeed as long as they are power-oriented, politically-minded, and chance-taking and have a low need for security. Size may be an issue for power cultures. They find it difficult to interface numerous exercises and hold control; they tend to succeed when they create new organisations with a lot of autonomy, in spite of the fact that they more often than not

hold central budgetary control. This sort of culture depends intensely on committees. In organisations with this culture, execution is judged on the result, and such organisations tend to be tolerant of means. Working in such organisations requires that workers accurately expect what is anticipated of them by the power holders and perform appropriately.

In the event that leaders get this culture right, it can result in a cheerful, fulfilled organisation that in turn can breed a very strong commitment to corporate objectives. Foreseeing wrongly can lead to intense dissatisfaction and now and then lead to a high labour turnover as well as a common need for exertion and excitement. An advantage of this orientation is that decisions can be made quickly as there are few rules (Helpful, 1985). A few drawbacks of the power orientation include that leaders are not addressed when they may be seen to be off-base; individuals with control break the rules with exemption and, at most exceedingly bad, power-oriented organisations tend to run the show by fear (Harrison, 1993; Harrison and Stokes, 1992).

No culture is fundamentally way better than another. But in certain settings, a few cultures could be more fitting than others. The key to utilising culture to make strides is in coordinating culture or properties to organisational objectives. Moerdyk and Van Aardt (2003) contend that the conviction that a clear chain of command of authority is the only way to run an expansive organisation must be addressed. They contend that the organisational pyramid is seen as the cause of much corporate fiendish since the tip is as well distant from the base. Pyramids underscore control, advance uncertainty, mutilate communications, hinder interaction and make it exceptionally troublesome for individuals who plan and individuals who execute plans to move within the same course. Daft (1999) cautions that in today's fast-changing world, exceptionally few organisations work in a steady, efficient environment and most leaders must move away from bureaucratic cultures because of the need for more prominent adaptability. Organisations got to make a competitive environment, to degenerate decision-making and straighten the conventional chain of command (Moerdyk and Van Aardt, 2003).

Within the hunt for a viable technique for organisational reestablishment, the need for re-humanising the organisation is progressively being perceived (Moerdyk and Van Aardt, 2003). This includes the acknowledgement of individuals as the essential organisational asset and a move in focus from overseeing individuals to overseeing

the environment encompassing individuals to harness the execution capabilities of employees to permit them to inventively add value to the organisation. Moerdyk and Van Aardt (2003) state that within the battle for survival and success, numerous organisations trample over their individuals. The more organisations battle, the more they take it out on their employees. In this respect, Robbins (1996) postulates a departure from the conventional bureaucratic plan. This sort of organisation endeavours to interface values and basic preferences. Individuals are treated as people with personal needs and values or maybe as tenants of roles. Inside this sort of organisation, individuals are esteemed as human beings. It is non-opportunistic as relationships are seen as having a value in them and not just as formal means to attain organisational objectives. It offers opportunities for broad individual development. Instead of underscoring specialisation and the improvement of narrow expertise, these organisations extend their members' aptitudes and broaden their competencies by offering new learning encounter. Within the conventional bureaucracy, data and decision-making authority are pinned for and hierarchically designated. Within the period, post-bureaucratic typology organisational data is shared. All those who will be influenced by a decision are allowed to take part in that decision; control is shared over all levels and this can be a solid characteristic of this sort of organisation. We at that point start to see the need for an organisational transition that joins well with the thinking reform of post-NPM towards public value, where the accentuation is on relationships rather than as it were on results.

The leader must guarantee that organisations don't get stuck in cultural values that worked previously but are now not fruitful (Daft, 1999). In this respect, Robbins (1983) states that each organisation must fulfil the prerequisites of those basic constituencies in its environment and upon which it depends for support. These constituencies are distinctive for each organisation. The environment hence characterises the organisational strategy and what it must do to be effective.

By implication, the environment may be a noteworthy drive in forming organisational culture. In a few organisations, the accentuation is on offering, in others on product or service development while some focus on cost minimisation. These contrasts are critical since they coordinate emphasis to certain capacities and exercises inside the organisation. In case the organisational culture is incongruent with its market, it is likely to come up short. An organisational culture may not continuously be in arrangement

with the requirements of the outside environment. The values and ways may reflect what worked in the past. The distinction between desired and real values and practices is called to be much more compelling when the culture fits the outside environment (Daft, 1999). There has to be a certain sum of adaptability to adjust to an ever-changing outside environment; hence, a solid culture isn't sufficient, since a strong but undesirable culture may empower the organisation to walk steadfastly off course. Sound cultures offer assistance for companies to adjust to the outside environment. Parry and Thomson (2003) make the distinction between transformational and value-based organisational culture types to recognise those organisations supportive of development, transformation and change (transformational culture) and those that keep up the status quo are based on pre-established rules and structures and motivate constrained levels of commitment and inspiration (transactional culture).

Transformational cultures empower and bolster development and open discourse of issues and concepts so that challenges change to be opportunities instead of threats. In this way, they advance adaptability and flexibility. In contrast, an unadulterated transactional culture centres on unequivocal and verifiable legally-binding relationships. They go on to recommend that leaders within the public sector must focus towards developing a receptive and inventive organisational culture that will empower the organisation to outlive and adapt with implications of persistent change (Thomson, 2003). It is at this point that the pertinence and significance of organisational culture are examined. The beginning point is the significance of organisational culture in an equitable state.

### **3.10. THE RELEVANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN A DEMOCRATIC STATE**

Every organisation has its own unique culture. Metaphorically speaking, organisations like fingerprints are always unique. Organisations have their own history, behaviour, communication process, interpersonal relations, reward system, decision-making, philosophy and myths that, as a whole, constitute culture. Moreover, culture is expressed in a given space and a particular place from which receives influences.

Organisational culture has some effects on democracy and such effects need to be known and handled accordingly. The leadership in the organisation needs to communicate the organisational objectives and strategy to employees, so that

leadership must not be seen as the only people who understand and carry the responsibility of implementing the organisational strategy (Schein, 1992). Employees need to be involved in the formulation of the organisational strategy and

Such leadership promotes participatory democracy in the workplace, encourages recognition and promotion of inclusive organisational values, and the use of a code of conduct. When organisational leadership communicates strategy and objectives to employees in a participatory manner that allows feedback and support, it creates a culture of teamwork and service that impacts on effective, efficient and economic performance. Employees need to be clear about their purpose and objective of being in the organisation, what is expected of them and how to perform those activities. This point of view further emphasises the definition of organisational culture, as provided by Deal and Kennedy (2007). Therefore, organisational culture is relevant in all forms of state, more especially a democratic state. Now that the relevance of organisational culture has been discussed, it becomes important to discuss the importance of organisational culture in a democratic state.

### **3.11. THE IMPORTANCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND CHANGE**

Organisational culture is the spine of the organisation that is present in all capacities and activities performed by its individuals. The culture born in society is managed through the assets that society gives and represents an active figure that cultivates the advancement of that society. Culture decides how a company works because it is reflected in techniques, structures and frameworks (Watson, 1994). Why should public service managers concern themselves with the culture or what sort of culture or subculture exists in an organisation they lead? And what cultural characteristics may be craved? Culture is especially imperative when an organisation is experiencing critical change or when presenting major changes which require distinctive or modern cultural or value traits from those displayed in the past. Organisational culture and cultural types also help our understanding of why managerial changes may have a different effect within an organisation.

Organisations with overwhelmingly internal process culture, for example, may be more resistant to reforms pointed at advancing development. It is to be anticipated that staff in highly uncertain cultures will be concerned with rule-following and more hesitant to

risk changing occupations, both of which are imperative components for reformers who need to deregulate bureaucracies and empower more rapid job change within the public service. Change specialists in both the private and public sectors have come to figure it out that organisational change frequently requires changing the organisation's culture (Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2004). Cultures change, but organisations remain the same. In the back of this view, Turunen (2007) composes that cultures can be exceptionally steady over time, but they are never inactive, for the changes within the cultural system tend to change the organisational culture itself. Jackson and Phillip (2005) stress that social constructivism recognizes change as something which actors both effectively and socially develop, characterised as a continuous process of argumentation within particular organisational settings. Despite the expanded significance of organisational culture, most studies can be scrutinised for two fundamental reasons; firstly, for taking an inactive approach to culture, proposing that culture is something unaltered, bounded and settled and besides, for communicating culture in terms of conceptual dichotomies, simply separating between hierarchical and entrepreneurial modes of cultural thinking.

The CoT recognises the importance of organisational culture and service delivery and execution of the municipality's duties in line with section 152 of the Constitution of South Africa 1996 in the planning and service delivery processes. Section 153 of the constitution highlights the developmental duties of municipalities to give priority to the basic needs of the community. The process has a huge impact on the budget and planning process of municipalities (Organisational Culture Change Blueprint City of Tshwane 2019). The amalgamation of municipalities in 2000 to form the CoT brought together a combination of people with different personal and organisational cultures, making it a multicultural organisation with a mixture of subcultures.

In terms of organisational change or change management, the success of the transformation projects depends on the ability and the capacity of the administration to change the culture of the organisation and to the demands of the environment. Inside the conceptual system, organisational culture has the idiosyncrasy of exhibits over critical individuals of an organisation that encourage conduct within the same and are recognised primarily through a series of administrative and supervisory practices, as components of organisational dynamics. Schein (2004) stresses that when the organisation encompasses a purpose, a modern technique, a problem to be fathomed,



a change plan, then to decide how the culture impacts the issue is not only valuable but essential in most cases. The issue ought to be related to an organisation's adequacy and ought to be expressed as clearly as conceivable from the onset. The CoT recognises that organisational culture is reflected in many ways for instance-specific habits and working procedures that indicate the type of culture that exists in an organisation. The culture indicates the way employees should dress, think, work, behave, communicate and make decisions in the workplace unconscious level. The CoT states that the most prevalent and difficult culture level is the unconscious culture. This level builds up over many years (up to 10 years) and is the hardest to change. It consists of the unwritten ways of doing things and it is the strongest force that drives the culture of the organisation. It is a powerful influence that shapes behaviour, morale and the identity of an organisation.

The subconscious level consists of basic orientations such as ethics, rules, values and beliefs, which are guided by visible, written and verbally expressed norms, policies, guidelines, leadership orientation (the way leadership resolves conflict), employee value proposition, management style, and anything else that is expressed verbally and/or in writing. To inculcate a preferred culture, the CoT will have to review its policies, procedures, processes and practices and make sure all strategic documents support the organisation's vision and mission. It is important that all strategic decisions on these documents and practices must be enforced. The role of culture should not be underestimated. It influences organisational behaviour in the sense that it determines the actions and values of individuals. It also helps one understand employee motivation, performance, standards and actions.

In different approaches to organisational culture, it has been observed that Parker and Bradley (2000) are fascinated by seeing culture as an overview to understand the conduct of organisations. Di Maggio and Powell (1991), Metcalfe and Richards (1992), and Osborne and Gaebler (1992), as well as Rhodes (1991), have been slanted to urge to know the leadership roles, the power of managers as transmitters of a culture of organisations. Nowadays, more than ever, public sector organisations are confronting colossal pressure to adjust to critical changes within the outside environment (Schraeder et al., 2004). Schraeder et al. (2004) recommend that supervisors in public sector organisations must help their workers understand these environmental changes and the critical need for their organisations to adjust to these

changes. They further state that failure to change may also lead to dormancy that could disintegrate public and private certainty in these organisations. This could, maybe, clarify why public organisations are confronting pressure to embrace management strategies used by private organisations. Now that the significance of organisational culture and change has been examined, the type of leadership required to drive this culture change is discussed in the next section.

### **3.12. INFLUENCING ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND CHANGE THROUGH LEADERSHIP**

Public sector organisations are confronting extreme pressure to alter to the modern demands of their constituencies. These modern demands will likely impel changes within the cultures of these organisations. Schraeder et al. (2004) state that for culture change to be effective, leaders must not only alter the artefacts, but also live the changes within the things they do. Schraeder et al. (2004) set that change must not only include centering on instruments to alter the artefacts or the obvious organisational structures and processes within the organisation. For example, pictures on the walls, office setup, ceremonies, it ought to moreover focus on the fundamental values, techniques, objectives and rationalities which speak to the more profound portion of an organisation's culture. Schraeder et al. (2004) recommend that in advancing change within the public sector organisations leaders must be at the forefront. Jordon (2005) underpins the proposition by expressing that activities of organisational leaders serve as a tool for altering an organisation's culture. Schein's (1992) says culture mechanisms should be seen as valuable when attempting to alter the culture of the organisation. A few of these instruments incorporate what leaders pay consideration to, degree and control on a customary premise, how leaders respond to basic occurrences and organisational emergencies, and how leaders approach role modelling, instructing, and coaching. They too incorporate observed criteria by which leaders distribute rewards and status, and enrol, select and advance subordinates (Schraeder et al., 2004).

Bates (1994:242) contends that we are in critical need of a change in the way we think around and practice leadership. He accepts that a cultural perspective might offer assistance in attaining this. What it does is depersonalise and decentralise the leadership concept, so that we begin to see administration as a collective undertaking

spread throughout the organisation, a property of the system instead of of any single person. Bates (1994) concurs with Bennis (1989:266) and Krantz and Gilmore (1990) who stated that there was a developing emergency in leadership in both society and organisations as the individuals who are at the exceptionally higher positions have started to figure it out that they are not at full liberty to exert power to determine supposition or implement things, at slightest not the way they would like. Most leadership is culture-driven within the context that common convictions and standards direct how the leader acts. Leadership is recognisable inside instead of outside the culture of an organisation. The need for culture change in the CoT is as a result of Employee Satisfaction Survey 2014/15 results, and also from engagements with the regions, it is clear that many employees still do not feel being part of the greater CoT, especially since many benefits and conditions of service are not yet aligned (Organisational Culture Change Blueprint, 2019).

Organisational culture plays a role in shaping an organisation's structure and social forms. It can be seen as an allegory for organisational examination. In a culture setting, the role of leadership is seen as having extraordinary significance. Moynihan et al. (2011) mention that leadership must empower a more versatile or formative culture by underlining worker development, issue solving, and advancement. Moynihan et al. (2011) alert that, be that as it may, when thinking about how leadership could cultivate development, culture must be viewed as a figure that can mare, accept or re-shape changes in ways that are reliable with organisational standards. Altering an organisation's culture includes changing in portion, at slightest, human resources practices and approaches. Schein (1992) prescribes that in case the leaders of nowadays need to form organisational cultures that will be more amenable to learning they ought to set the case by getting themselves more useful within the learning process. It is fundamental that change comes from inside; you cannot purchase a particular organisational culture and you cannot duplicate it from somebody else; you must develop it (Bates, 1994). Bisel et al. (2009) cautioned that since numerous of the substantial, perceptible artefacts of an organisation are beneath the domain of management, they frequently accept that they are mindful and in control of organisational culture. Literature shows, be that as it may, that there is a more prominent chance that culture will alter leadership in case they are not deliberately cognizant of the imperatives in which they operate. Mishra and Raykundaliya (2011)

imply that attention on cultural change is the elemental part of the leader in bringing about and cementing the usage of change in an organisation.

Moynihan et al. (2011) mention that leaders can alter their followers' conduct by demonstrating the significance of cooperation or organisational results. Leaders can influence a deliberate, committed, and inventive approach to management and results. More particularly, leadership is anticipated to shape worker's conduct (Bass et al., 2003). Leaders ought to coordinate and rouse employees' endeavors by raising organisational awareness, values and results. This process needs leaders to form a sense of vision, mission, and reason among workers, ingrains confidence and provides direction on prospects of the organisation. The appeal to broader objectives enacts the higher-order needs of workers, empowering them to rise above their own self-interest for the sake of the organisation and its clientele. Leaders ought to motivate employees, work as role models, and construct workers' certainty and pride within the organisation. Leaders ought to offer assistance to their followers to accomplish the organisation's mission by invigorating them to challenge ancient presumptions around organisational issues and practices. Leaders ought to perceive the distinctive desires and needs of followers and avail opportunities that empower their development. Moynihan et al. (2011) assert that leaders give precedence for change since they create essential environment related to improved objective clarity coming about in a more inventive culture that in turn guides execution. By driving the employee towards collective results, instead of self-interest, on development instead of coherence, leadership establishes an environment where workers will be more willing to guarantee execution management, are aware of its benefits, and are inventive to understand those benefits. Moynihan et al. (201) said that this sort of a leader applies impact by forming the organisational culture.

Leadership, hence, plays an essential part because it will focus the organisation, approaches and procedures on developing a solid and shared sense of values, cultural integration, team building, the inclusion of partaking organisations, trust, value-based management, collaboration, improving the training and self-development of public servants as we move within NPM and post-NPM transformation. NPM culture infers a blended design of in-house, marketed services and conveyance systems, a client based, all-encompassing management style, boundary spanning skills, joined-up targets, a procedural focus, unbiasedness and moral standards and more grounded

centralised control. Christensen (2012) says that NPM changes are culturally-situated endeavors. The NPM organisational culture appears by and large to be more approximately working together in a practical and cleverly way than formalised collaboration. Collaborative endeavors are pointed at conveying a consistent service. We are reminded by Mauri and Muccio (2012) that culture and public administration change are closely connected. They say that there appears to be a meaningful relationship between the challenges in upholding modern models of public administration change and cultural variables. They assert that the changes expressed by legislation too often remain primarily a political deliberate rather than an inescapable regulatory change. Due to the different levels of organisational culture, there are components of an organisational culture which can be altered and impacted and in which change can be accomplished by impacting formal components such as strategy, structure, and organisational capacity. There are casual forms and interactions related to culture which are casually organised and cannot be as effectively straightforwardly influenced by deliberate mediation. It is conceivable to have combinations of cultures which can be concordant or in strife. The unstated point of change inside public administration is attitude change within the public sphere, specifically the modification of the hierarchical culture of the public sector. The victory or disappointment of the reform lies on how effectively the change fits into the environment or culture of the system and how the leaders encourage this change.

The logic of leaders on ways of making, creating and leading an organisation, their conduct, states of mind, values and desires all contribute to making organisational change. These crucial values overseeing the movement and conduct of leaders inside an organisation are evident in the choices and activities they embrace and put into practice in running the organisation. The individual values of the leader take on organisational measurements, getting to be an indispensable part of the system. Their demeanours and desires impact on organisational conduct. Subsequently, the performance of public officials in local government is profoundly dependent on the conduct of the leader and the values and standards the leader advances and the way these are instilled in representatives. Leaders set the tone for the whole attitudes and conducts and cascade it down through the organisation. There is a solid association between the leader and the culture of the organisation, since leaders create

organisational cultures in their own image and after that those cultures replicate leaders in that sense.

Leadership has got to be able to create pro-active procedures pointed at making strides in organisational structures and culture, upgrading the proficiency and viability of government (Stefanescu and Panzaru, 2009). Moeryk and Van Aardt (2003) say that in the event that we do not support world-class organisations we are going to stay at the foot of the class. There is a need for modern kinds of public institutions that are more adaptable, and more client and results orientated. Since culture and organisational performance are said to be inextricably connected (Denison, 1990; Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Sorensen, 2002; Cameron and Ettington, 1988) organisational change and attempting to progress execution are similarly connected to organisational culture (Wynen and Verhoest, 2014). Leadership is at the heart of driving this change.

Organisational cultures within the public sector are likely to hinder public service change unless they are adjusted with the present day role of government (O'Donnell and Boyle 2008). Culture is therefore key to change within the public service. Oversimplified approaches propose that the ancient bureaucratic culture of the public service must be disassembled and supplanted by a more private sector sort of entrepreneurial culture. Such shortsighted approaches will not work. A broader comprehension of culture and the motive for specific organisational cultures within the public service are the core of effective management change (O'Donnell and Boyle 2008).

Culture change includes moving an organisation from one frame of culture to another, often through a cultural change programme. Overseeing this cultural change programme requires a consideration of a few matters that must include making an open climate for change, having top leadership inclusion, and commitment that incorporates an expressive and clarified vision from the top. Culture has remained a center of inquiry reflected in books such as 'Built it to Last' and 'Corporate Culture and Performance', illustrating why culture is considered the main quality in organisations. That led to development in number of directors valuing the power of corporate culture in forming employees' convictions and activities. A well-conceived and well-managed organisational culture is closely connected to a successful organisational strategy, and

can draw the distinction between prosperity and underperformance in today's demanding environment (Cummings and Worley, 2015). The following leadership challenges were highlighted by the Auditor General with regard to negative trends in municipal entities. The Auditor-General analysed 11 municipal entities of the City of Johannesburg Metro and three municipal entities of the City of Ekurhuleni Metro, while four small municipal entities are excluded from this report due to their size. The audit outcomes of three municipal entities regressed, including two City of Johannesburg Metro audits namely Joburg Property Company and Johannesburg City Parks, which regressed from clean audit outcomes to unqualified opinions with findings on compliance. This was due to inadequate monitoring by these two entities of their system of internal control, which led to new instances of non-compliance with legislation. In addition, and as explained in further detail below, the Brakpan Bus Company regressed from an unqualified opinion with findings to a disclaimed opinion with findings.

The four largest municipal entities by budget, namely City Power Johannesburg, Johannesburg Water, Johannesburg Roads Agency and Pikitup Johannesburg, are responsible for a combined R33 billion of the total municipal entity budget of R40 billion. We are encouraged that these entities maintained their audit outcomes of unqualified with findings and recommend that they follow the example of the fifth largest entity, the Johannesburg Development Agency, which has sustained a clean audit outcome for the past three years due to disciplined monitoring of key controls.

While municipalities in the province have sustained their outcomes, the metros should pay attention to the governance of entities under their control to reverse the negative trend in some entities' audit outcomes, primarily due to non-compliance. The status of procurement should be a specific focus, as irregular expenditure incurred by municipal entities increased from R1.3 billion in the previous year to R1.8 billion. The bulk of this (R1.6 billion) was incurred by the four largest City of Johannesburg Metro entities (as listed above) together with Johannesburg Metropolitan Bus Services and one City of Ekurhuleni Metro entity, the East Rand Water Care Company. The administrative leadership of metros should ensure that best practices at municipal level, as detailed in this report, are implemented across the municipal group.

Having discussed influence of organisational culture and change through leadership, the organisational culture challenges in the City of Tshwane Municipality are discussed. It is therefore relevant to start by discussing the influence of organisational culture and its effects on service delivery in South African municipalities and exploring it as it is the thrust of this research.

### **3.13. THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN SOUTH AFRICAN MUNICIPALITIES**

It is important at this stage of the research to briefly start by discussing how organisational culture finds space in public administration by starting with the empirical literature. Nzewi et al. (2016:42) posit that “organisational culture as a variable has generalisable attributes in both public and private organisations.” Typically, organisations are social institutions (Bedeian, 1980) and the central premise of organisational culture (people and human interaction) is fundamental to all organisations including municipalities (Zamanou and Glaser, 1994). Kanyane (2014) states that municipalities, including the City of Tshwane, are under pressure to meet the basic needs of society due to limited budgets and lack of technical capacity. The need to improve performance was underpinned by the State’s acceptance of the municipal service delivery challenges that to access descent municipal services was no longer a privilege to be enjoyed by a few. The State’s incapacity to provide basic services is a challenge in developing countries, including South Africa (Wallis and Dollery, 2001). Therefore, leadership skills and inadequate technical expertise in the running and provision of services remain major challenges in the South African municipalities. These challenges are the results of the inability of the leadership in municipalities to adapt in a rapidly changing and competing environment coupled with high expectations from communities to get a better life for all through service delivery. Powell (2012) confirms that the government was expected to do more with fewer resources and reminds us that the intervention by the former State President, Thabo Mbeki, through Project Consolidate attempted to address crumbling skills base by deploying expertise in all affected municipalities. The organisational culture prevailing in municipalities has some effects on service delivery. The CoT acknowledges that the needs of the community are immense and diverse and gives rise to service delivery protests regularly (Organisational Culture Change Blueprint City of Tshwane 2019).



Municipalities in South Africa are confronted with huge improvement challenges. To start to solve these challenges basic institutional developmental issues must also be recognized. These issues relate to the particular leadership aptitudes that are required to make strides in service delivery in local government; aptitudes are especially required to address the ever-changing demands on local authorities for improved administrations and to address the disparities of the past. Dalglish et al. (2009) state that a particular focus must be put on dealing with the challenges predominant in South Africa. They add that nowadays trade is conducted in an environment that varies markedly from that of ancient South Africa. According to Dalglish et al. (2009), leaders have an assortment of challenges going up against them in whatever sector they are leading. They distinguish a few of these challenges as operating in a socially and environmentally responsible way, standing up to long-standing destitution and impediment, constrained education and health infrastructure, the extraordinary difference in access to technological advancement and modern communication, cultural differences and a history of colonisation which regularly implies that individuals are looking back to blame instead of looking forward to achieving. Pretorius and Schurink (2007) set that given the challenges standing up to leaders within the public service nowadays, a need exists to create modern leadership aptitudes, a diverse sort of leader is required to drive change within the present-day local government. Johnson (2004) states that any government worldwide has the responsibility to provide basic services in the utmost responsive and efficiency. These service delivery challenges are not unique to South Africa as governments globally face similar challenges as alluded to by Manning (2006).

Municipalities like other organisations ought to have great recruitment and maintenance techniques in place to guarantee that they utilise appropriate candidates in administrative positions to perform to the optimum since supervisors play a pivotal part in satisfying the goals of an organisation (Mpehle, 2012). Mpehle (2012) cites Nengwekhulu (2009) who asserts that the organisation's recruitment, selection and appointment ought to be justifiable and imminent workers ought to be subjected to competitive examinations and interviews. Nengwekhulu (2009) further hypothesise that for the public service to perform ideally, there must be a lack of bias within the employment of public servants in higher positions in public institutions. Political alliance ought to not be utilised as criteria in such appointments. Utilising political party

membership as a permit to climb the ladder may hinder smooth service delivery; since those set in such roles may be protected because of “political patronage”. He further states that in South Africa the idea of political nonpartisanship of the public service may be a far off illusion in connection to senior public servants. Be that as it may, the contention raised by politicians that employment of public institution supervisors having a place to the ruling party will guarantee that they bolster the philosophies of the party and direct government’s conveyance of services to the ideal level still must be tried. Mpehle (2012) contends that an optimum public service has great approaches for battling debasement. Be that as it may, having great approaches do not ensure great service delivery, but the effective execution, monitoring and assessment of such policies do.

Municipalities as public service operators closer to society ought to guarantee that there are procedures in place that are executed effectively to prevent both officials (the corruptee) and a few members of the public who degenerate (the corruptor) from engaging in exercises that weaken and annihilate morals, values and culture within the working environment (Sangweni and Balia, 1999). Debasement, if not expeditiously attended to, can before long become the sub-culture of an organisation that will end up disintegrating the general organisational culture and its managers (Schein, 2004). Lloyd and Mey (2005) state that corruption results in stagnation and institutional failure that can lead to poor service delivery and lower economic growth - a recipe for a dysfunctional government. After having discussed the influence of organisational culture on service delivery. One of the reasons for the CoT to embark on an approach for organisational culture change was that the leadership realised that it was important to look at the organisational commitment of the CoT because if there is a commitment to change within the organisation, the employees will identify with the Municipality and its goals Organisational Culture Change Blueprint City of Tshwane, 2019:9). One of the culture change tasks in the CoT is to implement and manage Knowledge Management (KM), which when well managed can contribute to service delivery. The CoT is operating in the age of technology; knowledge and information are strategic tools in an organisation. They create the opportunity for local government to become a knowledge-based institution that thrives on the competence of knowledge workers. KM implies methodical creation, preservation and optimal use of extensive knowledge in the organisation. The implementation of KM should enable the

municipality to deliver the best possible services, function effectively and be transparent and accountable. This will ensure that the delivery of services is more effective and efficient and that the CoT is not held hostage by its past. After having discussed the influence of organisational culture on service delivery on South African municipalities, the focus is on the organisation being studied.

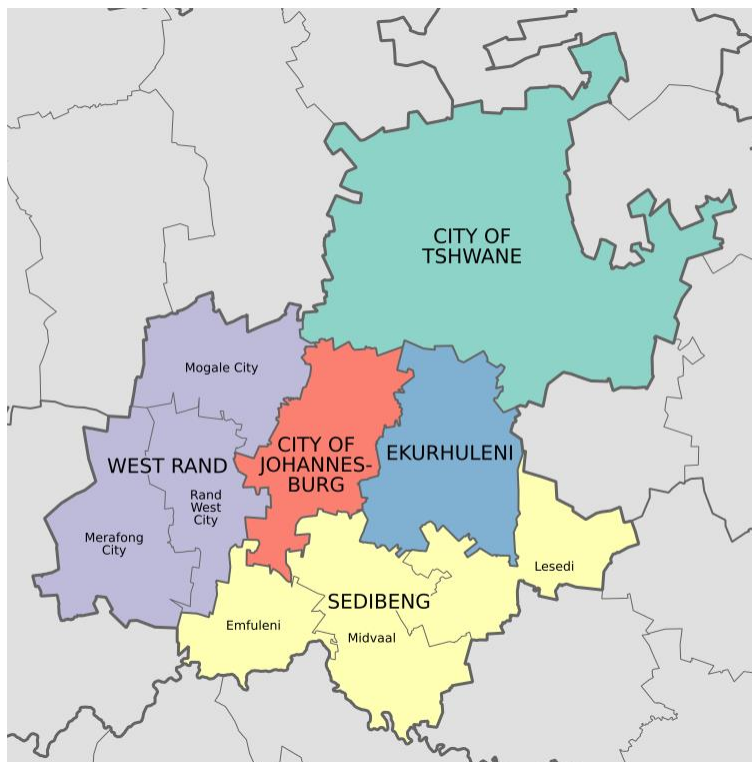
### **3.14. STUDY AREA: CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY**

The City of Tshwane was selected as the study area because it comprises districts and local municipalities as a metropolitan. Also, the researcher is a resident of Tshwane municipal area, making it convenient to access the municipality for research purposes. The municipality was initiated on 5 December 2000 through the integration of different regions and chambers that had already served the greater Pretoria administration and its environs. On 28 May 2008, a decree through the Government Gazette was made to amalgamate the previous Metsweding District Municipality, including Dinokeng tsa Taemane (Cullinan) and Kungwini (Bronkhorstspuit) into the borders of City of Tshwane. The consolidation, which led to the modern City of Tshwane in May 2011 after the local government elections, was in line with the Gauteng Global City Region Strategy to decrease the number of regions in Gauteng by the year 2016 (<http://www.dermarcation.org.za>).

The City of Tshwane is the capital of South Africa and is the biggest district, as measured by landmass. The modern City of Tshwane, which has 107 wards, 214 councillors and about 2.5 million inhabitants, is partitioned into seven regions. It covers 6 368km<sup>2</sup> of Gauteng's 19 055km<sup>2</sup> and extends to nearly 121 km from east to west and 108 km from north to south, making it the third-largest city in the world in terms of land range, after New York and Tokyo/Yokohama. As the administrative seat of Government and facilitating several Embassies, the City of Tshwane has demonstrated to be a leader on the African continent in giving reasonable industrial destinations, different businesses, office space, education and research facilities (<http://www.tshwane.gov.za>). The city of Tshwane is among the six biggest metropolitan regions in South Africa and the second biggest in Gauteng, as measured by Gross Domestic Product (GDP). The Tshwane region covers 6 368km<sup>2</sup> of Gauteng's 19 055km<sup>2</sup> and houses around it is 5th (fifth) positioned by populace oversize 3.3 million inhabitants. Tshwane comprises seven regions with 107 wards

and 214 elected ward councillors. The City features a dynamic and assorted economy, which empowers it to contribute, at slightest, 26.8% of the Gauteng Province's GDP and 9.4% of the GDP of the national economy (<http://interactive2.statssa.gov.za>).

The City of Tshwane (CoT) is the administrative capital of South Africa and houses the Union Buildings with government-related business playing a vital part in the local economy. As a result, the city is taking dynamic measures to solidly position itself as Africa's driving capital city of brilliance. The municipality's fundamental economic sectors are community services and government, followed by finance and manufacturing. Metal products, machinery and family items are the biggest sub-sectors within manufacturing. The CoT contains a well-established manufacturing sector, with the automotive industry speaking to the foremost critical component. The CoT should contribute towards the country's maintainable development. The city is a critical role player in quickening development within the South African economy by rendering services to the people of Tshwane.



**Figure 3.2.** Municipalities in Gauteng Province, Source: <https://en.m.wikipedia.org>

Challenges faced by such a large municipality among others include providing clean water and sanitation, housing, infrastructure development, job creation, revenue collection, immigration, and internal migration for people looking for job opportunities.

It is against this background that the research focused on the administration in the CoT, leadership and culture experience in the CoT Municipality.

### **3.15. LEADERSHIP AND CULTURE EXPERIENCED IN THE CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY**

The City of Tshwane Municipality has experienced two leadership changes at the Mayoral level between the periods 2016 -2019 and 2019-2020. The Municipality had acting roles in the position of the City Manager since the month of August 2019 (Mhlokwane, 2019: Pretoria News, 2020). The above led to the Gauteng Provincial government to take any appropriate steps to help a failing local government meet its obligations and put it under administration in terms of section 139(1)(c) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996 (South African News Agency, 2020). The acting roles include acting divisional heads in various departments, such as the Organisational Efficiency Improvement.

Part of the CoT's mandate from which this research study is drawn is to render a service of good quality to the public in the area of enabling the community to develop and succeed in a healthy and secure environment, to attain a fruitful model of residence, and to preserve high benchmarks to thrive ways of living within the environment, provide adequate reasons that lead the society to accept that there is room for advancement in service delivery. The Municipality's central strategy objectives are: to ensure access all through the city to quality service for each inhabitant in terms of infrastructure building; to expand and upgrade the local economic development rate and advancement speed; the battle to end destitution and to create beyond any doubt the hygienic environment, sanitation, wellbeing, security, and overall, to secure communities; cultivating participatory democracy and by applying Batho Pele principles through providing accessible services for everybody; be a municipality that is fiscally practical with great administration; and, to extend capacities in such a way as to meet the timelines according to the Municipality's mandate (<http://tshwanemunicipalityvacancies.com/vision-mission-of-tshwane/>). This considers endeavours to not only evaluate the City of Tshwane's efforts toward achieving the above objectives, but also to focus on the general organisational adequacy, as informed by the objectives, in line with the Batho Pele principles. This

view is upheld by Madue and Sebedi (2011) when they cite Schein (2004) that culture is an abstraction, however, the powers that are made in social and organisational circumstances that are determined from culture are powerful. In the event that we do not understand the operations of these powers, we become casualties to them.

These prevailing circumstances in the CoT created instability, lack of strategic direction, delayed decision making and approvals for the implementation of the strategy geared towards service delivery. Further that there seems to be a challenge between the Political, administrative and the community in understanding the Service Delivery Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP) and how it is communicated and feedback on its progress.

The overriding function of management is to provide order and consistency to organisations, whereas the primary focus of leadership is to provide change by creating an enabling environment for a culture that influences change through organisational values, and constitutional and legislative prescripts for better service delivery internally and externally to the public (Northouse, 2007). The transitional process as a result of the change of the new political leadership (a coalition between the Democratic Alliance - DA and the Economic Freedom Front - EFF) after the local government elections 2016 was a culture shock to employees. The outcome of the elections led to the review of the Macro Organisational Structure of the CoT.

According to Aucamp (2019), Council Resolution 24 November 2016 Office of the Mayor Report on the Review of the Macro Organisational Structure of the CoT with the focus on the following Strategic Objectives (SO):

- SO 4: Promote good sound governance and active citizenry;
- SO 5: improve financial sustainability; and
- SO6: Continued institutional development, transformation and innovation.

The organisation was restructured to respond and deliver the priorities of local government. Key to that was the establishment of the framers that should form the foundation of the restructuring process. The pillars were summarised as follows:

- To ensure that the organisation/administration is stable during transitional period while ensuring that there are as little disruptions as possible and that all services continue to be rendered.

- To revitalise the institution, inclusive of its people, systems and structure in order to better respond to the need of the service recipients.
- To ensure service delivery in a more efficient, effective and economic way.

According to the Municipal Systems Act, 32 of 2000, the Municipal Manager (Accounting Officer) who is responsible for the administration of the municipality should, within the policy framework, develop a staff establishment for the municipality and submit to council for approval. Furthermore, the City Manager should establish a process to regularly evaluate such staff establishment and, if necessary, review it together with its remuneration and conditions of service. The above discussion emphasises the significant role of the position of the City Manager in a municipality as part of the leadership together with the council in influencing organisational culture. The above 2018 request for approval of the structure was not approved by the Mayoral Committee at the time of the data collection of the study in November 2019. The request required the signing by the City Manager and Executive Mayor (Special Mayoral Committee, 25 July 2018). The position of the City Manager was in an acting capacity and the reputation of the Mayor was at stake (Mohlakwane, 2019). The incidence coincided with the expected Council meeting where it was anticipated that the proposed City Manager would have been announced. It is the leadership behaviour that influences organisational culture and poses a risk of instability, mushrooming of sub-cultures that may negatively affect compliance to good governance, ethical behaviour, financial management lapses, performance and service delivery. Decision making is costly because of the instability in the organisation. That affects the administrative and managerial level which operates on autopilot mode because there is no commitment at the top. It gives rise to the gap between the Political and Administrative level and lack of strategic direction. Such a culture leads to the municipality neglecting its constitutional responsibilities of providing services to the communities it is supposed to serve and deliver on the election promises. Management is about seeking order and stability; leadership is about seeking adaptive and constructive change.

To achieve that the CoT has come up with Tshwane Vision 2030 which was adopted on 25 May 2017 for 2030 and it states that “Tshwane: A prosperous capital city through

fairness, freedom and opportunity”. The new vision capitalises on the position as South Africa’s capital of opportunity and is embedded in the values of fairness, freedom and opportunity. The achievement of the above vision depends on the embedding of the above governance values in the plans and actions of the City and its partners.

These values will propel the CoT towards its vision provided the following strategic pillars for development are embraced:

- Advancing economic growth and job creation;
- Creating a caring environment and promoting inclusivity;
- Delivering excellent services and protecting the environment;
- Keeping the residence safe; and
- Being open, honest and responsive.

The vision set the review of the IDP and further develops the various deliverables for 2019-2020 and the term in support the five strategic pillars:

- *Governance and Institutional Arrangements:* The chapter articulates the broad governance and institutional framework of the City after its review and links with the governance model of the City.
- *Intergovernmental Alignment:* Intergovernmental relations (IGR) refer to the complex and interdependent relations the national, provincial and local spheres of government including a contribution of the public policies of these three spheres including the arrangements operating at the interface between national, provincial and local governments must be managed to promote the effective delivery of services.
- *Community Participation:* in this chapter, the City’s participatory planning processes towards the review of this IDP and beyond are provided.
- *Special Development Framework:* The chapter outlines high-level interventions of the Metropolitan Spatial Development Framework and Capital Investment Programmes into the City’s settlement restructuring agenda.
  - *Capital Investment Framework:* This chapter focuses on the priority spatial development proposals which also inform the allocation of resources. It contains detailed capital project list for the MTREF.
  - *Deliverables for 2019-2022:* This chapter highlights key performance measures towards the delivery of key services to the residents of Tshwane. It also



includes the information required in terms of the service delivery and budget implementation plans required in terms of MFMA Circular 13.

- *Performance Management:* The chapter highlights performance management structures of the City that ensure delivery against the planned deliverables for the term of office.
- *Review of the City of Tshwane Disaster Management Plan:* Section 53(2) of the Act specifies that the disaster management plan for a municipality must form an integral part of the municipality: Municipality Systems, Act 2000 reinforces this requirement by listing “applicable disaster management plans” as a core component of an IDP.
- *Financial Plan:* This chapter outlines the Medium-term Revenue and Expenditure Framework (MTREF) in terms of the allocation of resources to implement the new IDP.

It also presents the tariff proposed for 2019/20 (Executive Committee, 20 May 2019 and Mayoral Committee, 22 May 2019). The CoT recognises the role of leadership and that it has a profound influence on corporate culture, but also that corporate culture is crucial to leadership. The role management plays in the establishment and maintenance of corporate culture is clear. Alignment between leadership and corporate culture (Organisational Culture Change Blueprint City of Tshwane, 2019).

The challenge for the CoT is to gain a competitive advantage in the market by identifying new opportunities and following an integral approach in positioning and promoting the city as an African city of a stature that can compete with other capital cities around the world. The ongoing challenges are to bring an organisation-wide identity to the fore; and modify practices and procedures to discourage the fragmentation of business operations and the fostering of organisational silos.

### **3.16. CULTURE EXPERIENCED IN THE CITY OF TSHWANE**

The municipality is shaped by the broader South African socio-political context, as it has an impact on the organisational culture. As a government institution, the CoT is a process-orientated, low-risk organisation with a slow feedback rate. Its culture type can be described as a role culture, sometimes also known as a bureaucracy that is based on certain functional specialities that function along the lines of certain stipulated logical and rational procedures. A small number of senior managers are

responsible for coordinating the whole organisation. The characteristics of the organisational culture are as follows:

- Job descriptions are valued highly;
- The roles of officials in the organisation are important;
- An individual is appointed specifically to play a role successfully; and
- Processes and procedures are bureaucratic and cumbersome.

The role culture type can be successful in a stable environment where individuals can be assured important benefits, such as security, predictability, promotions at a constant rate and opportunities to acquire skilled knowledge. However, the CoT does not have a stable environment and is continuously affected by organisational changes. As the CoT is highly sensitive to the market environment and has to operate under constant changes, a project-orientated culture is more suitable. The researcher observed and obtained the following culture traits during the interviews with the management team. The absence of an approved Performance Management System and performance contracts of lower-ranking employees - labour unions instruct their members not to sign annual performance contracts. As a result, some employees do not participate in quarterly performance reviews. It is believed that the majority of top management officials do participate in quarterly performance reviews. This type of culture inhibits productivity, growth and development of employees. Furthermore, there is a lack of operational discipline. For example, consistent late coming without consequence management, monthly reporting, and quality of reports do not meet the required expectation. Reports are submitted for the sake of reporting. Cases of insubordination stay up to four months without disciplinary action being taken. The political climate within the municipality lowers the staff morale and delays approvals; for instance, the Macro Structure was approved in 2019 since 2013 and placed different issues for placements. The absence of a Group Head Human Resources affects the drive for filling of vacant positions at administration and service delivery levels. There is a gap between top management and administration. There was no formal induction conducted for interns and Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) employees. Induction is important for employees to learn about the values and associated behaviours, policies and expectations - the ethos that will ultimately inform the culture of the organisation. According to the participants at senior management level, there was no change management when the restructuring

changes; employees were affected and, as a result, a culture of fear of victimisation surfaced and affected trust levels. It became a culture shock when senior managers were appointed after the new administration took over. Previous senior managers were afraid to take decisions fearing that they would be held accountable by the new leadership. The 2055 vision on the previous administration was neglected and replaced with 2030 vision. The new administration had no effective change management, balancing expectation between senior management and the lower level is necessary. This culture is a team culture based on cooperation among groups to achieve greater efficiency.

### **3.17. VALUES OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE**

Values are guidelines for conduct as they saturate and shape the organisation. Values are implanted within the organisational culture over time and are reflected in outward manifestations. The values of the CoT incorporate:

- *Community orientation*: Give and provide maintainable services and exercises for the complete community based on needs evaluations.
- *Transparency*: Welcome and empower public sharing and equitable cooperation within the City's activities.
- *Commitment*: Steadily focus and concentrate on the City's central roles.
- *Business orientation*: Subscribe to and comply with best business practices.
- *Accountability*: Report regularly to all stakeholders regarding the CoT's performance.
- *Integrity*: Conduct the CoT's trade in a reasonable, mindful, adaptable, impartial and fair manner.
- *Non-racism and non-sexism*: Advance shared regard and non-discriminatory approaches

The Brand Identity Strategy of the CoT refers to “Inspiring the world, influencing Africa and leading South Africa.” This positioning statement makes for an inferred strong moral, ethical and leadership high ground. The core brand values emphasise leadership, inspiration, innovation and excellence. The purpose of CoT's ideal organisational culture is to drive a high-performance culture that will increase the levels of service delivery in the organisation. To change the culture of an organisation, you have to change the culture of leadership. Employees cannot call the shots, but

they do need to have a significant influence on the organisational culture change. Changes will not happen overnight, but the organisation needs to “nudge” the culture in the right direction. The municipality further embraces the culture of innovation to change the current culture of the CoT. Innovation in the CoT refers to recognising past cultural differences and setting realistic expectations for change weakening and replacing the old cultures over a while; advancing the new culture by reconciling the differences between the old cultures and the new culture and consolidating the new culture by importing its structures, processes and systems (Organisational Culture Change Blueprint, 2019). This can be accomplished if the following culture characteristics may well be accomplished: openness and lowliness from the top to bottom of the organisation; an environment of responsibility and individual obligation, the flexibility of risk-taking within suitable limits; a furious commitment to "do it right"; an eagerness to endure and learn from botches; unquestioned integrity and consistency; an interest in cooperation, integration and all-encompassing thinking and boldness and determination during difficulties.

The CoT also reflects the rich and diverse cultural heritage of the organisation. The challenge is to merge the different cultures into a strong organisational culture that is aligned with the strategic intent of the organisation. Currently, the CoT has an undefined culture; there is little alignment with organisational values, and control is exercised through extensive procedures and bureaucracy. The associated patterns and assumptions about business are visible in the external environment and compromised service delivery. Through 2012/13 and 2014/15 Employee Satisfaction Surveys, the following observations were made regarding the current culture of the municipality as a local authority:

- The Municipality has a hierarchical structure that has a negative impact on employee participation and communication.
- Poor management/employee relations exist, resulting in negative feelings in the workforce (low morale).
- Inadequate communication and dissemination of information exist.
- The leadership does not necessarily embody the desired culture.
- Stress management, lack of resources and a lack of safety are also mentioned consistently.

The December 2016 electronic independent Employee Engagement Survey was conducted among employees with access to computers. The results showed that employee engagement was consistently between low and moderate quadrants. Satisfied employees did not necessarily mean engaged employees. The two areas identified that needed the most attention was the lack of opportunity for growth and the lack of formal and informal recognition (Organisational Culture Change Blueprint of City of Tshwane, 2019).

### **3.18. PERFORMANCE OF MUNICIPALITIES IN GAUTENG PROVINCE**

Performance in the public sector is a buzz word whereas it remains a challenge in various sectors, including municipalities in light of public sector reforms. Public sector reforms are necessary to improve service delivery in a bureaucratic local government environment (Bouckaert and Halligan: 2010). Rood (2009) state that managing performance involves accountable leadership, planning, decision and monitoring, which are critical in the public sector. Various scholars (Norman, 2004; Arnaboldi, Lapsley and Steccolini, 2015) perceive performance management as finding prominence in the New Public Management (NPM), which emphasises results-based management. NPM further emphasises the measurement of output and outcomes. It aims to put new policies and management activities based on information that is informed by efficient and effective policy implementation. Performance management in the public sector, among other dimensions of performance, focuses on:

- Mission - the compelling accomplishment of the statutory intents, executive's aim and commitments and the agency's capacities and reason.
- Service - responsiveness and convenience, availability and value, and affability to client groups and stakeholders.
- Economy/efficiency - spending within affirmed budgets, responsibility for use of public funds and exhibition of value-for-money and efficiency.

According to the Auditor-General's report, Local Government Audit Outcomes (2018/19:48-49), the Gauteng local government consists of 11 municipalities and 14 municipal entities. The cut-off date for inclusion of the audit outcomes in this report was set as 31 January 2020. By this date, two audits (Emfuleni and City of Tshwane Metro) were outstanding. Although not included in the snapshot analysis, the CoT is included in the narrative due to its significance in terms of size and budget. It is

commendable that municipalities in the province have improved the quality of the financial statements that they submit for auditing. This improvement was due to two municipalities, namely the City of Ekurhuleni Metro and Mogale City who joined Midvaal and Merafong City, being proactive and upskilling the finance function. These municipalities took the previous year's messages seriously and positively responded to the concerns regarding the unsustainable practice of reliance on auditors to identify errors in the financial statements, which are then corrected by municipalities. The province also used public funds efficiently by mostly using internal staff to prepare financial statements. Five municipalities spent R29 million on consultants mostly for technical work on infrastructure assets. Of these, there were identified errors at only one municipality (Lesedi) in the accounting for financial assets on which the consultant assisted, as the municipality did not provide all relevant documentation to the consultant. A further R312 million in consultancy fees was paid by Emfuleni and the CoT. Both these audits were still outstanding at the cut-off of this report. The improvement in the quality of financial statements is a demonstration to residents that public funds are being accounted for correctly, and an indicator of increased accountability and transparency.

While non-compliance with legislation has traditionally been the main reason for municipalities not obtaining clean outcomes, the reported performance information deteriorated to the same level as that of compliance, in that all eight municipalities that did not achieve a clean outcome had material findings on their performance reports, compared to five in the previous year. The regressions in performance reporting occurred at the City of Ekurhuleni Metro, Merafong City and West Rand District, as these municipalities did not ensure that all controls necessary for performance reporting were adequately monitored. Instead, they focused only on areas raised as findings in prior years which led to similar findings when municipalities added new service delivery performance indicators or when new performance indicators were audited.

The audit outcomes as described above are a reflection of a province that is doing well in reporting on their financial accounts, with minimal reliance on consultants but needs to pay attention to complying with relevant laws and reversing the emerging trend of not reporting accurately on service delivery. This can be done by ensuring that the necessary checks and balances, which are key preventative controls, are adequately

monitored. The above confirms what Schein (2010) and Madue and Sebedi (2011) asserted, that if managers did not manage the sub-cultures, they end up being managed by these subcultures in the organisations they lead.

### **3.19. LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE**

The Auditor-General's Report, Local Government Audit Outcomes (2018/19), stresses that despite efforts made irregular expenditure increased. All municipalities except Midvaal continued to have material compliance findings, mainly relating to procurement and contracts (in other words, supply chain management). There was also a trend of the high utilisation of supply chain management regulation 32, where four municipalities and five municipal entities made awards to suppliers by relying on contracts awarded by other state institutions, without adhering to all regulation 32 requirements. The breakdown of the R4.6 billion irregular expenditure indicates a sharp decrease in the irregular expenditure relating to current year awards issued from R1.6 billion to R735 million.

This demonstrates that the province has been making strides to reduce irregular expenditure from new awards. However, the balance of the irregular expenditure relating to non-compliance on prior-year awards amounted to R3.9 billion. As such, there remained some concern about the high level of irregular expenditure. When goods and services are procured through a fair and competitive process, this is likely to lead to residents' funds being spent efficiently, resulting in more funds being available for service delivery.

The City of Johannesburg Metro, the economic hub of South Africa stretching from Orange Farm in the south to Midrand in the north, incurred irregular expenditure of R816 million, of which R643 million related to continuing expenditure on prior-year contracts. This included R334 million and R126 million on the previous year's fleet and information technology contracts, respectively. These were invalidly awarded as deviations in contravention of supply chain management regulation 36. This could have been prevented had proper planning and contract management been followed. Furthermore, an irregular expenditure of R37 million was identified due to contraventions of supply chain management regulation 32 on contracts awarded during the year. The City of Ekurhuleni Metro incurred irregular expenditure of R413

million, including R385 million on a prior-year chemical toilets contract that was awarded based on functionality criteria different from the original tender invitation. Similarly, this could have been prevented through controls such as using a compliance checklist before adjudicating awards. At Sedibeng District, supply chain management processes were disregarded, as most awards were processed by officials outside the supply chain management division, resulting in irregular expenditure of R9 million.

Based on the analysis above, the Auditor-General (AG) acknowledges that the province has taken steps to reduce irregular expenditure from new instances of non-compliance. However, more work needs to be done to address the trend of an overall increase in irregular expenditure. The report also continued to recommend that municipalities conduct investigations into unauthorised, irregular and fruitless and wasteful expenditure with a sense of urgency. Also, it was recommended that officials who deliberately or negligently do not comply with legislation should be held accountable for their actions. This will provide comfort that public funds are being spent properly on services that are important to the lives of citizens and that a culture of impunity will not arise in the province.

### **3.20. COMMUNICATION OF VALUES**

There seemed to be a general lack of trust, togetherness and clarity about goals and objectives. The lack of well-communicated and implemented strategies across the Municipality is of greatest concern on a macro level. Although the CoT has several good strategies, it is generally not well communicated and lacks overall buy-in and implementation. Poor communication and lack of continuous communication on corporate values, the vision and critical success factors are the most common risks concerning a successful culture change programme, and at the same time for poor organisational performance, poor morale and internal confusion.

Corporate values, the vision and critical success factors must be communicated clearly, regularly and reciprocally. Communication in this context is a key management activity and includes oral, face-to-face, formal, informal, personal, interpersonal, nonverbal and written communication.



### **3.21. MONITORING AND EVALUATION**

The best strategy is not worth the effort if it is not implemented effectively. Therefore, the implementation of the culture change programme must be monitored and controlled. Tools should be developed to measure progress with the implementation of the culture change initiative of the Municipality. Reporting has to be done quarterly to amend plans, if necessary. To commit to organisational culture, the CoT culture change proposed that the main service chain driver of the Municipality's culture change programme remains the top level of the organisation. There are challenges despite efforts meant to improve municipalities' operations. According to the Deputy Director-General of the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, "Provinces tend to deploy one person as an administrator without concomitant experts as per the diagnosis of the challenges encountered in the municipality, such as financial or human resources expert where required." Inadequate oversight by some provincial legislatures led to non-submission of progress reports. The AG confirmed this perspective of each province concerning oversight, governance and monitoring of municipalities in general" (Auditor-General Report, 2018/19). This sometimes led to the intervention not yielding positive results to ensure buy-in from the executives of the Municipality, it is proposed that their scorecards should be linked to customer satisfaction in general and key delivery metrics that will include:

- Batho Pele institutionalisation; and
- Culture change programmes.

Challenges faced by such a large municipality include providing clean water and sanitation, housing, infrastructure development, job creation, revenue collection, immigration, and internal migration for people looking for job opportunities. It is important to discuss the challenges of organisational culture in South African municipalities.

### **3.22. CHALLENGES OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE IN SOUTH AFRICAN MUNICIPALITIES**

Local government is an essential role player in ensuring a better life for the citizens of South Africa and a key part within the development of the nation. Koma (2010) says that delivering on the essential needs of citizens is the elemental objective of local

government. In South Africa, the point of democratising society and developing the economy inclusively is achieved through a responsive, responsible, compelling and effective local government framework that is part of a progressive state. The White Paper on Local Government (1998) has it that advancement emphasises the key role local government plays in service delivery. A perfect municipality will endeavour to contribute to building the developmental state in South Africa. The White Paper provides a modern vision of a post-apartheid society, encapsulated within the concept of progressive local government.

In this respect, there has been a process of change of local government lately. As implied in Chapter 2 of this thesis, the NPM and post-NPM changes are to a great extent pointed at expanding organisational performance and to some degree require the control of the customarily bureaucratic organisational culture. Parry and Thomson (2003) state that inside the public sector there is a high pressure between the need for a cultural transformation of obsolete bureaucracies to upgrade adaptability and advancement, and the need to preserve the measures and strategies that are fundamental for quality service. The post-1994 political changes in South Africa call for organisations to be diverse when managing hardships emanating from the harsh past. In expansion, the nature and size of public sector organisations require more control and direction than private sector organisations. Rather than seeing the transformational and value-based paradigms as competing standards, the interrelatedness of these ideal models might yield critical positive results for the public. Other than these chronicled difficulties and policy prescripts, the standard of living and service delivery in municipality remains a challenge.

The following organisational culture challenges are experienced in South African municipalities:

- Municipalities across the country are failing to reduce irregular expenditure;
- Lack of responsiveness by some municipalities to implement and monitor action plans; and
- Interventions by provincial governments have at times worsened the problems in municipalities.

Poor financial audit results and political precariousness are a few of the issues that resulted in the provincial mediations at 45 municipalities across the country. In a few municipalities that were put under administration per section 139 of the Constitution, reserves have dried up and conveying services have become close to inconceivable. According to the Auditor-General (AG)'s report, Gauteng Province raised a concern that with endeavours to reduce irregular expenditure, the overall sporadic expenditure remained high. The CoT is characterised by a history of high levels of sporadic expenditure brought about by non-monitoring of preventative controls, which resulted in supply chain management non-compliance. An illustration of this includes R2.72 billion and R643 million for the smart prepaid meter and infrastructure project management services contracts, respectively. Amid the 2018/19 financial year, the AG recognised sporadic consumption of R2.9 billion of which the larger part (R2.4 billion) related to expenditure on contracts granted in preceding years (Felix, 2020).

### **3.23. SERVICE DELIVERY CHALLENGES IN THE CITY OF TSHWANE**

The status of the CoT's performance on service delivery presented a combination of some notable progress and severe challenges that impede meaningful delivery of targeted services. While the City attempts to promote a predictable and consistent supply of basic services, including expanding access to these services while maintaining a predictable supply in already serviced areas, it continues to experience overwhelming challenges that derail the adherence to its service commitments. Some of the challenges that impact negatively on service delivery include the following:

- Community unrest leading to project work stoppages;
- Delays in the supply chain management processes which in turn leads to delays in the commencement and completion of projects targeted to deliver on some of the service delivery outputs intended;
- Less than adequate performance by some of the service providers; thus, delaying the completion of projects which also translates to non-achievement of service delivery targets;
- Challenges with project and service delivery planning and execution (project management);
- Ageing infrastructure that does not support the efforts to reduce water and electricity losses; and

- Other criminal conducts like tampering with the infrastructure, i.e. capable theft.

Despite these challenges, the City continued to provide services and made progress in the following service delivery areas, to name a few:

- Alleviating the plight of informality through the consistent provision of rudimentary services in the form of waste collection, water and sanitation provided to the informal settlement in the City;
- Promoted the implantation of the environmental sustainability programmes despite a number of challenges that still need commitment and dedication;
- Intensified urban management to deal expeditiously with service breakages and interruptions although there is still a lot to improve;
- Effected new connections to water services, sanitation services and electricity services; and
- Provided the dedicated package of services to the identified indigent households in the City.

The CoT has started implementing some improvement plans such as improving planning (both projects planning, budgeting and general targeting of outputs) through the implementation of robust project management reform that introduced the Stage Gate Model to address the challenges that impact negatively on service delivery.

It improved the monitoring of the targeted progress on capital projects as part of the early warning system. Some of the improvement plans include interventions to address supply chain-related problems and finding ways to improve the activities undertaken to deliver (City of Tshwane Annual Report, 2018/19:24-25).

The CoT noted with concern poor target achievement as it impacts negatively on service delivery. Of great concern is the less than adequate performance on the reduction of non-revenue water and electricity, housing development and other targets relating to service delivery.

The CoT has begun a process of implementing tailored corrective improvement plans to address the impediments that derail the full achievement of the targeted deliverables. The corrective actions are geared to address the root causes of audit findings of the previous financial year. The administrator acknowledged in the annual

report that the CoT did not have functioning ward committees, which is the backbone of the municipalities through meetings and engagements with various communities.

These engagements play a strategic role in ensuring that the City brings communities closer to participate and influence governance and service delivery agenda of the City (City of Tshwane Annual Report, 2018/19). Having discussed the service delivery challenges, successes and planned interventions of the CoT, the regulatory framework in local government in South Africa will be discussed in the next section.

### **3.24. THE REGULATORY FRAMEWORK IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

Local government is characterised as a sphere of government found inside communities and well set to reply fittingly to the local needs, interests and desires of communities (Koma 2010). Koma further says that local government is at the cutting edge of public service delivery. This perception is additionally enunciated by Thornhill (2008:492) when he states that local government is frequently the primary port of call between an individual and a government institution. It is regularly said that local government is the government closest to the people. It is to be anticipated, in this manner, that a central work of municipalities is the rendering of an assortment of essential but fundamental services to the community within its purview. "The provision of services by municipalities is a constitutional obligation Part B of Schedule 5 of the Constitution concerning functions of the municipality, includes water; electricity; town and city planning; road and storm water drainage; waste management; emergency services such as firefighting; licenses; fresh produce market; parks and recreation; security; libraries; economic planning; air pollution; building regulations; child care facilities; electricity and gas reticulation; local tourism; municipal airports; municipal planning; municipal health services; municipal public transport; and municipal public works" (Koma 2010).

The conduct of municipal leadership and its authorities of not complying to best practice to fulfill the above constitutional commitment has become a risk and culture of exemption and debasement in municipalities in general in South Africa.

### **3.25. THE CONSTITUTION OF SOUTH AFRICA, 1996**

According to Section 152 (1) of the Constitution, “the objective of local government is to provide democratic and accountable government to the local community; ensure that there is the provision of services to communities in a sustainable manner; to promote social and economic development; to promote a safe and healthy environment; and to encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government.” Subsection 152(1) also asserts that a municipality ought to endeavour, within its budgetary and regulatory capacity, to attain the predetermined objectives.

### **3.26. TRADITIONAL LEADERSHIP AND GOVERNANCE ACT 41 OF 2003**

Section 4 of the Traditional Leadership and Governance Act proclaims that a traditional council must encourage the inclusion of the traditional community within the advancement or revision of the integrated development plan of a community. Municipalities should empower members of the community to recognise key projects that they would like the municipality to execute in their particular regions. They ought to advance those that are operational in nature to be hoisted to particular Regional Offices. A participatory system for the 2019/20 IDP audit Community and Stakeholder consultative process was endorsed by the Council. To guarantee quality community cooperation, traditional authorities formed part of the community stakeholders.

### **3.27. THE WHITE PAPER ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

The White Paper’s accentuation is on a formative local government, as specified prior, that requires municipalities to become more strategic, visionary and eventually powerful around how they work (South Africa, 1998). A developmental municipality ought to play a key role in policy-formulation and the visionary role and look for to assemble a range of assets to meet essential needs and accomplish formative objectives. This presents a diverse approach to how local government institutions worked in the past. Not only does it accentuate the significance of being strategic, but it requires that the manager consider and interface assets (monetary, human or infrastructural) to particular results. This technique emanates from the NPM and post-NPM reform activities.

To realise this objective, administration in local government must embrace modern approaches as it endeavours to bring around these envisaged changes. These approaches require diverse connections between leaders and their supporters or devotees as well as the local government and the communities it serves (Madumo, 2015:156). In this respect, the Municipal Systems Act (No 32 of 2000) is a vital premise for encouraging modern connections aimed at making strides in service delivery.

### **3.28. THE MUNICIPAL SYSTEMS ACT 32 OF 2000**

According to Chapter 4 of the Local Government Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000, a provision of a culture of participatory governance is provided. In terms of this Act, “Municipalities are encouraged to create conditions for the local communities to participate in their affairs. This includes the preparation and review of the municipalities Integrated Development Plans (IDPs).” The Act provides for the core standards, instruments and forms that are essential to empower municipality to move dynamically towards the social and economic advancement of local communities and guarantee widespread access to fundamental services that are reasonable to all. The Act moreover characterises the legitimate nature of a municipality as including the local community within the municipality range, working in association with the municipality’s political and regulatory structures. It provides for how municipal powers and capacities are worked out and performed and provides for community cooperation to set up a basic empowering system for the core of planning, performance management, asset assembly and organisational change which support the idea of formative local government and give a system for local public administration and human resource development.

### **3.29. MUNICIPAL FINANCE MANAGEMENT ACT 56 OF 2003**

Kanyane and Koma (2014:167) posit that “public finance is considered to be the overriding factor in determining the viability of local government. Presumably without sound financial management systems, municipalities will be forced to discontinue their operations. It is important that municipal stakeholders, such as municipal officials, mayors, ward councillors, traditional leaders and interested groups, should have a sound basic knowledge and application of the Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003 (MFMA) and other related legislation.” The Act was presented to attain appropriate and reasonable management of the financial undertakings of

municipalities within the local spheres of government. National Treasury (2006) affirms that MFMA allocates clear roles and obligations to different players involved in municipal financial management and exists to attain and keep up among others the following:

- Public accountability;
- Transparency;
- Good governance; and
- Financial sustainability.

The above may be an effective apparatus that sets the framework for municipal budgetary changes. Other than the National Treasury, Local Government Budgets and Expenditure review, the MFMA is based on the following four principles:

- Promoting sound financial governance by clarifying the roles and responsibilities of councils and officials;
- Ensuring a strategic approach to budgeting;
- Modernising financial management; and
- Promoting sustainable local government.

Adherence to these principles, including accountability, monitoring, financial controls and norms and standards, will lay a base for accelerated service delivery through developmental local government (Kanyane and Koma, 2014).

### **3.30. THE WHITE PAPER ON IMPROVING SERVICE DELIVERY**

The White Paper on Transforming Service Delivery - Batho Pele (1998) forwards the post-competitive or public value approach to bear on the trade of local municipalities. It gives a viable system for the change of service delivery for the benefit of the beneficiaries of services. Within the South African setting, this client focus is commonly alluded to as Batho Pele. It centres on how services are given, permits clients or citizens to complain and advocate for a persistent advancement strategy in the quantity and quality of services (Mudzamba and Sibanda, 2012). Public servants frequently view complaints as an aggravation and interruption in their working lives. Where complaints procedures do not exist, public servants may tend to protect or legitimise a department's failure to deliver. By offering redress, Batho Pele not only conciliates perturbed or despondent clients but also hopes to alter the mentality of



service providers from a preoccupation with the method of service delivery to a focus on deliverables and results. It in this way puts in motion a process of progressing service delivery and eventually persistent advancement and quality service delivery. Hambleton (2003) states that this market approach that treats individuals as customers may at times be suitable to treat public service clients as customers of products or clients of services, but these conceptualisations of members of the public are significantly restricting within the setting of a democratic institution. This can be that they are built on the thought that government ought to become more like a business when in reality this is often a misinformed perception. Most of the vital decisions in government include complex tradeoffs between competing interests and they have distinctive impacts on diverse groups of citizens. Hambleton (2003) alludes to a move in thinking, in the worlds of both administration and management which takes thinking beyond the limiting concepts of modern public management and opens up a modern set of conceivable outcomes for politicians and officers within the local government framework. Rather than attempting to redefine local people as either customers or clients, the modern approach puts democratic renewal high on the managerial and not just the political plan. In this model, which is being pioneered by a few of the leading local authorities in the world, modern and valuable relationships between politicians, officers and citizens are being made. The following segment examines the intergovernmental relations framework as part of the instruments to make strides in basic service delivery in government.

### **3.31. THE INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS FRAMEWORK ACT 13 OF 2005**

In South Africa, the Intergovernmental Relations Framework sets up a system to encourage participation across the spheres of government in the hope of progressing essential delivery and other related constitutional privileges. It provides for mechanism and strategies to encourage settlement of intergovernmental disputes and to provide for things associated with the extreme aim of improved service delivery. The Intergovernmental Relations Framework is supported by the collective responsibility of all spheres of government for the desires and interests of the citizens of South Africa.

These previously mentioned administrative systems illuminate the nature that supports the organisational change and guarantee that services rendered to local communities ought to be given in a maintainable and impartial way. The accentuation on being strategic, inventive and persuasive highlights a departure from ancient convictions, conventions and practices that impacted public sector organisations of the past. Additionally, the nature of the administrative system and its accentuation on results and value requires modern thinking on (i) the relationship between government and its citizens and (ii) how public sector organisations perceive and commit to human capital. The concept of NPM has been an imperative source of motivation for local government changes (Reitan et al., 2012).

The focus on more administrative independence, privatisation, marketisation and other measures of expanding customer choice speak to a few of the reform methodologies. NPM incorporates instruments for reinforcing the role of the local council vis-à-vis the local administration for integrating citizens into regulatory decision processes, as a result expanding the democratic aspect of local politics (Hold et al., 2012:5) Monitoring quality assurance may be a prevalent NPM device utilised to track, assess and audit service delivery execution.

Responsibility guarantees that basic, strong data is utilised to illustrate performance. Transparency needs decisions to be open, with proof of clear thinking. Service delivery ownership grants anybody with an interest in local authority services to be included, it also signifies a corresponding relationship between public service delivery and its stakeholders. Not marking down the significance of having sound laws and approaches in place, the past oppressive administration continues to darken, for numerous local government institutions, the potential gains inherent within the regulatory frameworks.

### **3.32. LOCAL GOVERNMENT TURNAROUND STRATEGY**

According to Mogale (2003), the modern allotment in South Africa post 1994 brought a new era for the local government informed by the objectives to fast-track service delivery to local communities, upgrade of the budgetary execution of municipalities, the fortifying of human resources capacity and broad solidification of organisational capacity for municipalities. The regions of the country were partitioned into

municipalities, each administered by a chosen municipal council. Municipalities integrated racially separated group areas under a single local authority and a common tax base. Local development plans direct programmes of national recreation and advancement. Residents collaborate with municipalities to construct non-racial communities. Municipalities are approved to redistribute expenditure to service delivery in destitute communities. The December 2000 local government elections stamped the conclusion of South Africa’s transition period and diminished the May 2011 local government elections. Great strides have been made in expanding access to free essential services to destitute families. Table 3.1 shows that municipalities have contributed essentially to decreasing infrastructure excesses and delivering services.

Access to electricity for lighting	Access to piped Water	Access to full and intermediate sanitation	Access to refuse removal service
W Cape (94.0%)	W Cape (98.9%)	W Cape (93.4%)	W Cape (91.1%)
N Cape (87.3%)	Gauteng (97.9%)	Gauteng (87.8%)	Gauteng (86.2%)
F State (86.6%)	F State (97.5%)	N West (81.6%)	F State (76.1%)
N West (82.3%)	N West (89.9%)	S Africa (67.6%)	S Africa (61.6%)

**Table 3.1 Municipalities that reduced infrastructure backlogs**

Source: Local Government Turnaround Strategy (2009)

Much as there is progress, there are critical imperatives to accelerated service delivery. These limitations relate to municipal capacity and ability of the state to supply satisfactory infrastructure, especially in regions of rapid development. The Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA) carried out an investigation in 2009 into the state of local government, which found that although there had been strides, there were still major issues (CoGTA TAS, 2009). The issues included service delivery backlogs, a breakdown in council communication, the responsibility to citizens, political impedances in administration, debasement, extortion, awful administration, increasingly savage service delivery demonstrations, factionalism in political parties and exhausted municipal capacity (CoGTA TAS,

2009:13). In a few cases, the report uncovers that responsible government and the rule of law had collapsed or was collapsing due to corruption, profiteering and mismanagement. The Local Government Turnaround Strategy (TAS) was developed from CoGTA's evaluation. It is through this report that the government conceded that the local government was in shambles. Municipalities were anticipated to consolidate the turnaround strategies in their IDPs, focused on the following three priorities for TAS, specifically: improving access to essential services; extending participatory democracy; and improving financial administration and administrative capacity.

The overarching objectives of the TAS are first to reestablish the certainty of the larger part of South Africans within the municipalities. Second, to rebuild and improve the essential prerequisites for a useful, responsive, responsible, successful and proficient developmental local government. Another point of the TAS was to fortify best practices and great administration in line with the prescripts of section 195 of the Constitution of South Africa and pertinent legislation, Chapter 10 of the Public Finance Management Act 1 of 1999 deals with Financial misconduct by public officials; Local Government: Municipal Finance Management Act 56 of 2003; and the Local Government: Municipality Systems Act 32 of 2000 advancing participatory democracy within the running of municipalities. The TAS aims to address the root causes of issues affecting municipal performance and to guarantee that these are confronted effectively. Root causes for a few of these issues incorporate systemic variables i.e. connected to the model of local government, policy and legislative factors, political components, shortcomings in responsibility frameworks, inadequacy and lack of aptitudes, frail inter-governmental support and oversight, and issues related to the intergovernmental fiscal framework. The TAS recognises that there are genuine leadership challenges in municipalities. To turn this around, the TAS has it that execution and professionalism in municipalities must be improved (CoGTA TAS, 2009).

Having discussed the organisational culture, its challenges, influence on service delivery in municipalities and legislative framework guiding local government, it is important how organisational culture can be measured.

### **3.33. MEASUREMENT OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE**

This research follows the culture model by Schein (1990, 1992, 2004, 2010) of measuring organisational culture on the basis that “a theory based examination of artefacts, espoused values, and shared basic assumptions using a variety of semi-structured questionnaire and qualitative interview techniques, evaluates ‘fit’ between people and organisation.” Other researchers opine that surveys as an organisational culture instrument assesses organisational focus (internal and external focus) and organisational flexibility (flexible and stable) (Denison, 1990). A holistic view of organisational culture is a challenge for selecting a measurement instrument for organisational culture (Scott et al., 2003:105). Measurement is an important consideration as this research intends to measure culture in the CoT using a questionnaire. Various organisational measurement tools exist in the literature, however, there seems to be little agreement regarding which accurate measurement instrument can be used to measure organisational culture (Gershon et al., 2004; Scott et al., 2003). Schein and Schein (2016) recognise the diagnostic quantitative and dialogic qualitative culture assessment approaches in which they suggest that “an effective measurement strategy (questionnaire) must capture the core characteristics of culture. Further, that a tool for classifying various organisational types along with associated strategies for implementation would be most valuable.” It is therefore relevant to discuss the research design and methodology of the study.

Measurement is an important consideration if an organisation intends to measure its culture. Various organisational measurement tools exist in the literature, however, there seems to be little agreement regarding which accurate measurement instrument can be used to measure organisational culture (Gershon et al., 2004; Scott et al., 2003). Schein (2010) recommends that a viable estimation methodology must capture the core traits of culture. He added that an instrument for categorising different organisational types, in conjunction with related methodologies for execution, would be most profitable. He then says that a theory-based examination of artefacts, upheld values, and shared fundamental presumptions employing a variety of semi-structured strategies and observational methods, evaluates “fit” between individuals and organisation.

The following organisational culture measurement instruments were used to measure organisational culture:

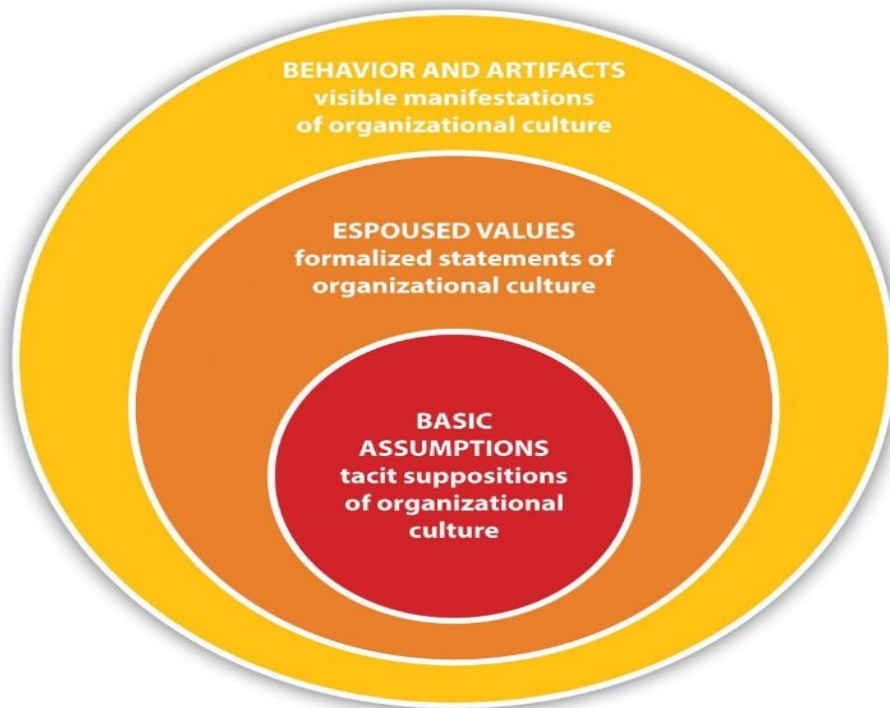
- Communication by the leadership in the organisation to allow staff to provide feedback on practice changes as they occurred.
- A survey was used as an organisational culture measurement instrument where feedback was obtained from staff to determine if changes improved the rendering of service. The results showed an overwhelmingly positive response. Other researchers believe that surveys as organisational culture instruments assess organisational focus (internal and external focus) and organisational flexibility (flexible and stable) (Denison and Neale, 2009). Denison Consulting (2009) argues that “this approach allows for assessment of how organisations (or sub-groups within organisations) deal with seemingly contradictory or paradoxical goals and demands.”
- Incident reports were also used as organisational culture measurement instruments for staff to report operational incidents. The survey showed that only serious incidents were reported and there was a need for improvement on the instrument with increased staff recognition of the value of completing incidents reports (Leone et al., 2005).

A holistic view of organisational culture is a challenge for selecting a measurement instrument for organisational culture (Scott et al., 2003). Cameron and Quinn (2011) came up with a view that to measure culture at the organisation level of analysis, the following three strategies are recommended:

- **Holistic approach** in which the culture and engages in in-depth participant perception, that the examiner tries to become a “native” within the organisation.
- **Metaphorical or language** approaches in which the investigator uses language designs in reports, records, stories to reveal cultural patterns.
- **Qualitative approaches** in which the investigator adopts questionnaires or interviews to evaluate specific measurements of culture. A qualitative approach permits numerous perspectives to be considered in assessing the qualities of an organisation’s culture.

Besides, Shortell et al., (2000) examined the relationship between culture and adoption of quality of service procedures within the public service sector, and their approach included two major measurements (relationship versus robotic process orientation and internal versus external focus). Even though these approaches showed prospect, they have not however been subjected to rigorous psychometric assessment, and that led to the current investigation that the above organisational culture measurement instruments on culture are not a single disconnected state or behavioural trait that can be observed autonomously from the organisational setting. According to the CoT, service delivery throughout Tshwane can be improved by diagnosing the organisational commitment and the organisational culture of its employees and aligning these aspects (Organisational Culture Change Blueprint, 2019:9).

Some authors (Bryant and Darwin, 2003; Senge and Sterman, 1992) have stressed the value of how complex interactions can affect organisational behaviour to further provide a clearer influence that culture has on behavioural patterns of employees. Organisational culture measures can be a profoundly valuable diagnostic apparatus for envisioning the balance within the organisation between Consistency and Steadiness, between Mission focus and Involvement, between Internal and External focus (Moblely and Wang, 2005). Following Schein's organisational model which this research adopted, (Cummings and Worley, 2015) states that there is a good agreement with Organisational Development (OD) Practitioners about the elements or features of culture that are typically measured, as shown in the culture components in Figure 3.2 below (Kilmann, Saxton and Serpan, 1985).



**Figure 3.2:** Culture Components. Source: Cummings and Worley (2015:555)

The meanings attached to the elements help employees make sense of everyday life in the organisation. The meaning signals how work is performed and evaluated, how employees relate to each other and significant others, such as government agencies, customers or service providers etc. However, measuring organisational culture poses at least three difficult problems as Schein (1985:10) puts it, “collecting pertinent information. First, to the extent culture reflects the more or less shared assumptions about what is important, how things are done, and how people should behave in organisations. Members of the organisation or employees generally take cultural assumptions for granted and rarely speaks about them directly.” This implies that significant time and exertion must be spent watching, filtering through and asking individuals questions about cultural outcroppings, such as everyday schedules, customs, language, and understanding their more profound significance for the organisation. Second, values and convictions come as upheld values and values in use. Embraced values are the convictions organisations pronounce transparently as imperative. Organisations frequently post their embraced values on the posters in the office, website, and plaques. Values-in-use is those values that drive practices. Individuals in some cases embrace values that have little to do with the ones they truly



hold and subscribe to. Individuals rarely concede this inconsistency, yet somehow the genuine presumptions underlying the idealised depictions of culture must be found. Third, expansive diverse or worldwide organisations are likely to have a few subcultures or “differentiated” cultures, including countercultures going against the grain of the more extensive organisation culture.

This could be a genuine issue in enormous organisations, and it means that focusing on restricted parts of the organisation or a couple of selected people may provide a misshaped perception of the organisation’s culture and subcultures. The ideal situation will be all-important groups within the organisation must be distinguished and their cultural presumptions examined to reach a comprehensive evaluation after having utilised valuable approaches for measuring organisational culture with each diagnostic point of view focusing on a specific perspective of organisational culture. CoT’s approach to the measurement of organisational culture change is that “If it is not defined, it cannot be communicated. If it cannot be communicated, it cannot be measured. What gets measured gets done” (Organisational Culture Change Blueprint, 2019).

### **3.34. CONCLUSION**

This chapter has explored the definitions of culture as provided by various authors. The definitions are characterised by common key elements that include the fact that organisational culture is a shared phenomenon, is a learned product of group experience and is found where there is a perceptible group with a critical history. Wilson (2006:355) writes that “the majority of authors, except for Schein (1992), believe that there are three levels of culture - the visible level, deeper level and less visible level. Different leadership approaches under the traditional and contemporary approaches were identified.” Organisational culture influences how individuals deliberately and subconsciously think, make choices and eventually how they perceive, feel and behave (Hansen and Wernerfelt, 1989; Schein, 1990). The deduction from the definitions discussed in this chapter reveals that in dealing with organisational culture, we see organisations as a whole, living systems. This implies that when a person "meets" an organisation, he or she is encountering its culture. When this is described in a report (often using metaphor and analogy), the reporter is

sketching the organisational culture. The emphasis is now on co-operation, collaboration and communication as we move within NPM and the public value reform.

The accentuation shifts from unimportant outcomes to keeping up and cultivating relationships. The chapter aimed to provide a holistic view in terms of some of the challenges that leadership confronts when attempting to embrace a more modern approach within a complex organisation. The chapter highlighted and discussed the organisational culture and service delivery challenges, its influence on leadership in municipalities in South Africa, legislative frameworks and intervention. The leadership challenges experienced within the CoT were distinguished and examined. Municipal leaders are entrusted with a cluster of obligations amidst limited resources and within the consistent scrutiny of the public domain. The complex challenges require that local government leadership be equipped with the essential foreknowledge, responsiveness and vision to viably deal with the issues at hand.

The traditional approach to leadership is now not adequate to address current challenges. This chapter contended that the modern local government leadership setting is about the treatment of thoughts, thinking, instruments and strategies from across the public, private and community sectors. Different culture types and espoused values stemming from the country's Constitution and related legislation which are code of good practice were discussed. Unfortunately, in South Africa for over decades, companies, academics, civil society and public sector have increasingly started to raise questions about organisational culture and ethics, and situations of organisational misconduct in the private sector, State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs), national and local government and municipalities (Ehlers and Lazenby, 2019). The King IV Principles highlight the importance of ethics in sound corporate governance "the governing body should govern the ethics of the organisation in a way that supports the establishment of an ethical culture" (King IV Report, 2016:44). A need for strong cooperation for contributing to a new combination of leadership philosophies is eminent. Noor (2010) expressed that striking, conclusive and transformational activities by the public sector and its leaders are essential to meet the complex present and future challenges of the country. The chapter discussed the CoT human resources and leadership's interventions in assessing culture in the organisation through Satisfaction Surveys. Further, the need for Organisational Culture Change in the

municipality as it changes leadership, but also to assess the effect of organisational culture on service delivery as a service organisation. The chapter further discussed the vision, values, strategy, strategic objectives and pillars of the strategy geared towards the provision of accelerated service delivery. The legislative frameworks bordering good governance in the running of the municipality were highlighted. The role and expected culture at leadership, management and administration levels in leaving and modelling the values and culture have been discussed.

Leaders must work as pioneers of versatile change where they can viably explore between distinctive types of leadership styles and approaches to best encourage change. The chapter demonstrated that the challenge then was to move leaders through the process of being only value-based, where the focus is short term, to the transformational state that is established within the individual side of administration.

The chapter further discussed the measurement of organisational culture, instruments, challenges and support of Schein's culture measurement by various authors. Organisations need to build and invest in their cultural capital to manage the operational and strategic risk that a "toxic culture" brings (Stiroh, 2018).

An evaluation of a few of the foremost critical human resources mediation within the CoT reflected its commitment to alter the current organisational culture towards improved service delivery and related organisational objectives. This is reflected in the study on the Employee Satisfaction Survey 2018/19 by the Bureau of Market Research (Pty) Ltd, University of South Africa. It is clear, in any case, that local government is confronted with basic challenges and issues relating to the compelling and maintainable provision of fundamental services, regulatory capacity and institutional performance. Local government reform as conceived in the White Paper has not been simple, and the move has not been perfect. The survey results detail that a huge portion of the workforce shows positive attitudes towards the CoT. This survey highlights staff commitment to delivering services and gives vital experiences as to where the CoT's leadership can guarantee a positive work experience for all. The CoT recognises that it cannot accomplish its vision without the committed endeavours of its staff. A local government may be a key part of the transformation effort in South Africa. Local government is central in terms of improving the day by day lives of South African citizens. It is apparent, however, that local government is faced with critical

challenges and problems about the effective and sustainable provision of basic services, administrative capacity and institutional performance. Local government reform as envisaged in the White Paper has not been easy, and the transition has not been ideal. This presents the local government transformation process as a complex one, but one that is dependent on the right kind of leadership and new organisational culture.

Notwithstanding the experiences presented in this chapter, the relationship between bureaucratic organisational culture, leadership and the service delivery will be further explored in Chapter 5. The next chapter presents the methodological approach adopted to examine how organisational culture can be measured in the bureaucratic organisation like the CoT.

## CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

### 4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter outlines the theoretical and practical aspects of the research methodology and research design. The study mainly explored whether organisational culture influenced service delivery in a bureaucratic local government setting. The study explored the general view of the foremost leadership approach and the type of organisational culture within the CoT. The chapter further discusses the methodology used to conduct this research at the CoT. The researcher acknowledges that there are various research approaches and methods adopted in crafting a research project. Williamson, Karp, Dalphin and Gray (1982) define methodology as the logic of the application of scientific methods to the investigation of phenomena. While there are various research methods and definitions, this research is based on the definition and approach of Mouton and Marais (1996) in which they state that methodology is the logic of the decision-making process in scientific research. Mixed-methods research was adopted since the 1950s but formally became popular around the late 1980s and is progressively utilised by many analysts (Creswell, 2003; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Dunning, Williams, Abonyi and Hooligans, 2008). The increment in mixed methods research legitimises the question of deciding the perceived value of mixed methods research compared with a quantitative or subjective study. Mixed-methods research requires extra time due to the need to collect and analyse two diverse sorts of data (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Since this study takes the frame of a mixed-method approach i.e. the quantitative and qualitative, a measuring instrument was utilised among other research techniques.

This chapter gives bits of knowledge into the research paradigm, sampling and measuring instruments and preparatory experimental results on the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments. In this way, this chapter explains the nature of the theoretical and viable perspectives of the qualitative and quantitative research in connection to the discipline of Public Administration, to find the study inside the parameters of scientific standards. It is imperative within the discipline of Public Administration to understand the research methodology because it helps in clarifying the inclinations and presumptions of the researcher. The research methodology helps

in connecting the research question and the discoveries of the study. The esteem of blended strategies is the integration component which gives perusers more certainty in the results and the conclusions they draw from the study (O’Cathain, Murphy and Nicholl, 2010). The beginning point is a deliberation on the aspects of the research design of the study. Also, it is vital to discuss the supporting method to legitimise the quality and importance of the procedure followed in the study.

## **4.2. THE RESEARCH DESIGN PROCESS**

Before depicting the detail of the research methodology that was used in this study, it is vital to think about what it means by research methodology. Punch (2008) largely characterises research as the collection of information, building theories to clarify the information, and after that testing those hypotheses against further data. Bless and Higson-Smith (2004) state that research is an orderly examination of a question, phenomenon or problem applying certain standards. They back their definition by depicting the key features of research as follows: research is empirical since the aim is to know the reality. Each step is based on perception, whether it includes capturing the actualities, clarifying or evaluating the prediction. It is orderly and coherent. Observations must subsequently be done methodically and follow a coherent sequence. For example, an examination of the distinctive factors involved must be attempted before the formulation of the questions to be replied to by the participants. It is replicable and transmittable. This infers that given a similar context, the study can be rehashed providing the same clarification or conclusion. It too suggests that the steps followed in the study can be portrayed and communicated to transmit the obtained information and the research is reductive. To deal with the focus of the study, the complexity of reality is reduced. In this manner, all points of interest that have little or no impact on the study are overlooked (Davids, 2015).

### **4.2.1. Research Design**

The study utilised a mixed method approach to benefit from the qualities of both the quantitative and qualitative methods. The approach of blended methods in this research is guided by the research questions and objectives. The mixed method is being recognised in social sciences research (De Vos et al., 2005) and Mouton and Marais (1996:20) refer to epistemological dimension as “search for truth”. This research used valid and reliable instruments as well as manipulation of information on

sound scientific basis. For the purpose of this study, this methodology was planned to ensure that the research results were true and presented a practical reality of the situation of the City of Tshwane Municipality. Riccucci (2008:6) explains that “Public Administration is a field of study that has historically generated a rich body of qualitative research, often empirically based (e.g. descriptive, best studies and case studies).” Mouton and Marais (1996) allude to the ontological dimension as the domain; hence, the research domain in this study was limited to culture among employees, their sentiments, discernments and attitudes, and how it influenced the way they provided service. The use of the mixed methods approach in this study was further supported by McKim (2017) citing Hurmerinta–Peltomaki and Nummela (2006) as they argued that mixed methods adds value by increasing validity in the findings, that it informs the collection of the of the second data source and assists with knowledge creation. These authors further argued that studies that used mixed methods approach gained deeper, broader understanding than the studies that did not employ both quantitative and qualitative approaches. O’Cathain et al. (2010) argue that mixed methods approach assists researchers to cultivate ideas for further research that seeks to respond to the research objectives and question of the study. McKim (2017:203) further states that “the value of the mixed methods studies is that it is a methodology that is able to make sense of the world, help readers with better understanding, the study increase confidence in the findings, improve accuracy and completeness, and contribute to overall validity.”

Gibson et al. (2012) states that the study of Organisational Development (OD) from which organisational culture emerge depends more on recognised disciplines, the scientific method is important in studying variables (in this study culture and service) and relationships. As the scientific method has been applied in comparable studies to investigate on organisational behaviour, a set of standards and rules on what constitutes good research has developed. The examinations of numeric information collected is standard in quantitative research, and the portrayal or elucidation of that numeric data could be a standard in qualitative research in replying to the research question (Creswell, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2005). The overwhelming instruments used for collecting data were questionnaires and structured interviews.

A distinction has to be made between research design and research methodology. Bless and Higson-Smith (2004) and Babbie, Mouton, Vorster and Prozesky (2001)

assert that there is a tendency to confuse research design with research methodology. They outline the differences between research design and research methodology as follows: research design focuses on the end product and outlines the type of study and results that are sought. The research problem or question represents the point of departure. Research design therefore focuses on the logic of the research and considers the evidence required to address the research question. Now that the research design has been discussed, it is therefore relevant to discuss the research methodology of the study.

### **4.3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The study's research methodology centres on the research process and the kind of instruments and methods followed. Particular assignments such as data collection techniques or sampling questionnaires speak to the point of takeoff. Research methodology, according to Babbie et al. (2001), centres on the individual steps within the research process and the foremost objective procedures to be utilised. The following are the eight steps laid out by Leedy (1997):

- Research originates with a question or problem
- Research requires clear articulation of a goal
- Research follows a specific plan or procedure
- Research usually divides the principal problem into more manageable sub-problems
- Research is guided by the specific research problem and question(s)
- Research accepts certain critical assumptions
- Research requires the collection and interpretation of data in attempting to resolve the problem that initiated the research
- Research is cyclical, or more exactly, helical.

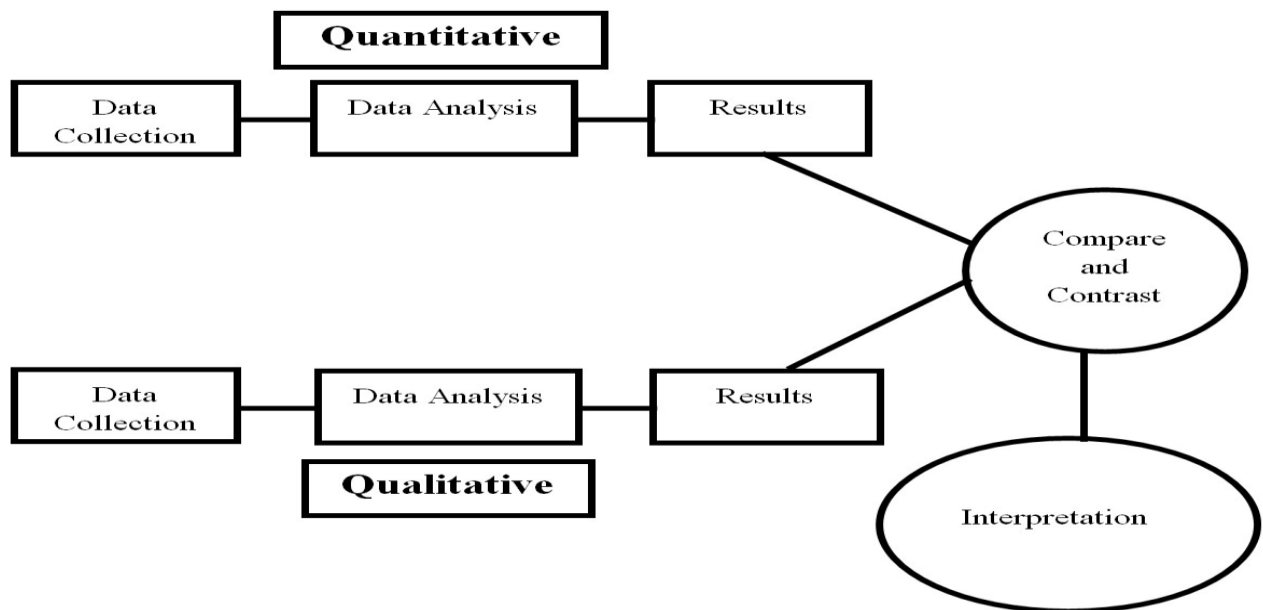
From the eight steps laid out above, Leedy (1997) says that research methodology controls the study, manages the securing of information, and orchestrates them in coherent relationships. The raw data are at that point re-imagined employing suitable approaches that infer meaning from the data, which comes full circle in drawing conclusions that add to the extension of knowledge.



Leedy (1997) abridges the two essential functions of research methodology as follows:

- It controls and dictates the acquisition of data; and
- Allows for the grouping of data after the acquisition thereof and allows for meaningful extractions.

The research design process is represented graphically in the Figure 4.1 below.



**Figure 4.1: The research design process**

Source: The research process Adapted from Creswell and Plano (2011:35)

The research exertion can be divided into various tasks or components that must be dealt with as sub-units of the research project. By managing each task, the researcher closes up with a complete research report that meets the common prerequisites of the research methodology (Leedy, 1989). The choice of a research design for this study was influenced by the purposes and circumstances of the researcher as well as the qualities and confinements of the approach. The research design of this study is grounded in both the quantitative and qualitative descriptive paradigm. Brynard and Hanekom (2006) posit that in the implementation of the research project or crafting the thesis, the researcher has to select specific approaches that guide the study to the attainment of its objectives as stated in Chapter 1, Section 1.4 to address the research problem of the study.

This chapter deals with the methodology in the study, which provides direction and focus of the thesis. The chapter continues with a broad discussion of the research approach.

#### **4.4. RESEARCH APPROACH**

According to Collis and Hussey (2003:35): “There are two main approaches to research, namely the positivistic and the phenomenological approaches. In the positivistic or quantitative approach, the relationship between two variables - organisational culture and service delivery - is measured. Data about these variables were collected through methods such as questionnaires, focus groups, interviews, case studies and experiment. The relationship among the variables was measured employing statistical methods such as multiple regression analysis, structural equation analysis and Pearson product-moment correlation analysis. The phenomenological or qualitative research worldview proposes that social reality is inside the unit of research and that examining reality has an impact on reality. This paradigm pays significant respect to the subjective state of the person. Researchers applying the phenomenological approach centre on the meaning instead of the measurement of social problems. Qualitative research is occupied with approaches, such as ecological psychology, symbolic interactionism and postmodernism, and utilises methods such as observation, archival source, interviews, focus groups and content analysis.

According to Elliott (1999:216), “qualitative research aimed to understand and represent the experiences and actions of people as they encounter, engage in and live through situations.” In qualitative research, the researcher endeavours to anchor understandings of the phenomena being studied as much as conceivable with the viewpoint of those being examined. Golafshani (2003:600) adds that “qualitative research uses a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings, such as real-world settings where the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest.” Golafshani further says that qualitative research largely characterised means of any kind of research that produces discoveries not arrived at through statistical procedures or other means of measurement.

The study's research aim was to examine and explore whether organisational culture could exist and influence service delivery within a bureaucratic municipal setting. Two research paradigms were considered: positivistic/quantitative approach, and phenomenological/qualitative approach. The researcher examined phenomena in their normal contexts and endeavoured to form a sense of, and decipher, phenomena in terms of implications individuals brought to them. The qualitative techniques were designed to provide genuine and invigorating meaning to the leadership role as an operator of organisational culture change inside the CoT and to guarantee that the researcher was involved straightforwardly or indirectly in the process. The study utilised qualitative techniques since it aimed at explaining what the participants (Directors Acting Divisional Head) had to say about the leadership roles and culture within the CoT.

Authors such as Mertens (2005:229) state that “qualitative research is a situational activity that locates the researcher in the real world” and Wiersma and Jurs (2005:203) concur, saying: “Qualitative researchers do not try to manipulate or intervene in the situation, but operate in a non-manipulating and non-controlling manner with openness to the natural setting.” This infers that the researcher embraces techniques that parallel how participants act within the course of their day by day lives. Qualitative research is seen by Suter (2006) as research pointed at clarifying complex phenomena through verbal depictions instead of testing research targets by all-encompassing forms of examination and clarifications. The qualitative techniques informed the different topical conclusions that were drawn as part of the study. Mays and Pope (1995) set that as in quantitative research, the fundamental strategy to guarantee thoroughness within the qualitative research is precise and a self-conscious research design, data collection, interpretation, and communication. There are two objectives that the qualitative researcher ought to strive to attain: (a) to make an account of method and data that can stand autonomously so that another researcher may examine the same information, in the same way, and arrive at basically the same conclusions, and (b) to deliver a conceivable and coherent explanation of the phenomenon being examined. Mays and Pope (1995:110) add that “although it is not normally appropriate to write up qualitative research in the conventional format of the scientific paper, with a rigid distinction between the results and discussion sections of the account, it is important that the presentation of the

research allows the reader as far as possible to distinguish the data, the analytic framework used, and the interpretation. In quantitative research, these distinctions are conventionally and neatly presented in the methods section, numerical tables and the accompanying commentary.”

Qualitative research relies, to an incredible degree, on creating a persuasive account. In attempting to do so, it is easy to develop a narrative that depends on the readers’ trust within the astuteness and fairness of the researcher. The proportionate in quantitative research is to show tables of data representing the statistical relationships between operational definitions of variables without giving any thought of how the phenomena they represent display themselves in natural settings. The issue with displaying qualitative examinations impartially is the sheer volume of data ordinarily accessible and the trouble of outlining qualitative data. An alternative is to combine qualitative analysis with a few quantitative rundowns of the results. The quantification is employed only to abridge the results for effective comprehensibility. Mays and Pope (1995) also said that the approach to the examination remains qualitative since naturally happening occasions distinguished on theoretical grounds are being tallied.

According to Sandelowski (2000:338), “quantitative research explains phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods in particular statistics.” Quantitative research is basically around collecting numerical data to clarify a specific phenomenon. We see that quantitative research strategies are characterised by the collection of data that can be dissected numerically; the results of which are ordinarily displayed through statistics, tables and graphs. In this respect, using quantitative methods within the study was valuable because it permitted the researcher to talk about the reactions and contrasts between responses, alluding to descriptive statistics and thematic analyses. For this thesis, data were abridged in graphs and tables through expressive statistics to dissect the discoveries. The connections among the variables were measured employing statistical methods such as multiple regression analysis, structural equation analysis and the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis.

The study applied a mixed-method approach to benefit from the qualities of both the qualitative and quantitative methods. The approach of blended methods in social sciences research is applied in this research because it requires the researcher to

employ both approaches (De Vos et al., 2005). Mouton and Marais (1996) refer to the epistemological dimension as “search for truth”. This research utilised substantial and dependable instruments as well as manipulation of data on sound scientific premise. For this study, this methodology was planned to ensure that the research results were true and presented a practical reality of the situation of the CoT. Riccucci (2008:6) explains that “Public Administration is a field of study that has historically generated a rich body of qualitative research, often empirically based (e.g., descriptive; best studies; case studies).” Mouton and Marais (1996) refer to the ontological dimension as the domain. Therefore, the research domain in this study was restricted to the culture among employees, their feelings, perceptions and attitudes and how it affected the way they provided service.

Gibson et al. (2012) said that the study of Organisational Behaviour (OB) from which organisational culture develop depends intensely on perceived disciplines, the scientific method is imperative in examining variables (in this study culture and service delivery) and connections. As the scientific method has been applied in comparable studies to inquire about the organisational behaviour, a set of standards and rules on what constitutes good research has developed. The examinations of numeric data collected are standard in quantitative research and the portrayal or elucidation of that numeric data may be a standard in qualitative research in answering the research question (Creswell, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2005). The prevailing instruments adopted for collecting data was the developed questionnaires and structured interviews. The research discoveries were suggestive and not conclusive in this respect. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) enunciate that since both approaches have inborn qualities and shortcomings, researchers ought to use the strengths of both methods to better understand social phenomena.

#### **4.5 THE SAMPLING STRATEGY**

In this study, both purposive and random sampling methods were used for data collection and sampling. To ensure the validity of the quantitative data collected, random sampling was done through a questionnaire distributed to the entire Shared Services and Group Human Capital Management Departments in the CoT. The advantage of random sampling method was that each element of the population had an equal chance of being included, further that a complete listing of all population

elements was available, and that means the sample frame was developed (Williamson, Karp, Dalphin and Gray, 1982). This approach is supported by Babbie (1998:25), who postulates that “to do a simple random sampling one must have a sampling frame which is a list of the sampling population. As a result of the size of the population, it is usually not practically and economically feasible to involve all its members in a research project.” Thus, researchers should depend on the data gotten from a sample of the populace. Individuals or components of the populace are alluded to as the units of analysis. Next, the sampling frame has got to be a total list on which each unit of examination is recorded once they have been compiled. Unless such a sampling frame is compiled, it may be incomprehensible to judge the representativeness of the sample obtained. To be representative, it ought to represent something and the last mentioned is the sampling frame. The sampling method for the study is discussed below.

#### **4.5.1 Sampling Method**

Even though different sampling methods can be recognised, Punch (2005) prescribes that the sampling method that will guarantee the most elevated degree of representativeness of the sample ought to be chosen. According to Huysamen (1994:26) and Punch (2005:102), “random sampling is conceptually the most attractive sampling method.” They underscore that in spite of the fact that different techniques have been created to guarantee representativeness, none are as effective in guaranteeing representativeness as the random sampling method. Mays and Pope (1995:110) add that “much social science is concerned with classifying different types of behaviour and distinguishing the typical from the atypical. In quantitative research, this concern with similarity and difference leads to the use of statistical sampling to maximise eternal validity or generality.” They further said that statistical representativeness is not a core necessity when the aim is to understand a social process. The purpose is not to set up a random or representative sample drawn from a populace but rather to recognise particular group of individuals who either have characteristics or live in circumstances significant to the social phenomenon being studied. Sources are recognised since they empower investigation of a specific aspect of conduct pertinent to the research.

This approach to sampling allows the researcher to purposely incorporate a wide extend of sources additionally to choose key sources with access to critical sources of knowledge. Through purposive sampling, the study purposefully selected the following units in the CoT: Group Head, Divisional Heads, and Directors in Shared Services; Group Human Capital Management (GHCM): Group Head, Divisional Heads, and Directors. When granting the permission to collect data, the CoT broadened the scope to include the following departments: Organisational Efficiency and Improvement, Organisational Performance, Knowledge Management, Management and Administration, Water and Sanitation, two labour unions - the South African Municipal Workers' Union (SAMWU) and Independent Municipal and Allied Trade Union (IMATU). A further consideration that underscores sampling technique is the sample size. The data collection of the study is discussed.

#### **4.5.2 Sampling Size**

In this study, both purposive and random sampling methods were used for data collection and sampling. To ensure the validity of the quantitative data to be collected, random sampling was conducted through a questionnaire distributed to the entire Shared Services and Group Human Capital Management Departments in the CoT. Huysamen (1994:48) states that “the desired sample size does not depend on the size of the population only but also the variance (heterogeneity) of the variable. As a general rule, the larger the variance of the variable, the larger the sample required.” In deciding the sample size, researchers ought to consider the number of subjects for whom usable data will inevitably be gotten may be much smaller than the number that was drawn initially. It may not be conceivable to follow a few people, others may not want to take part in the research, whereas others may not give all the essential data or may not complete their questionnaires with the results that information has got to be disposed of. It is subsequently prudent to draw a huge sample at the beginning to moderate these conceivable challenges (Huysamen, 1994). Salkind (2000) suggests that the sample size be expanded when the changeability inside a group is more prominent, and the contrast between the two groups gets smaller. He exhorts that when groups are created, the perfect size of the group be 30 percent; hence, allowing for significant statistical analysis. Further recommendation relating to the use of surveys and questionnaires is to extend the sample size to 40 or 50 percent to allow for misplaced mail and uncooperative subjects.

For this study, before the researcher decided on a sampling method appropriate to the research, different other strategies were looked at. Through purposive sampling, the study purposefully selected the following occupational levels: Acting Divisional Head, Divisional Head, Two Labour Union representatives. Six Directors and two Deputy Directors were chosen as a representative of the general sample. This constitutes the CoT's management structure tasked with leading and guiding the Shared Services in the CoT.

### **4.5.3 Target Population**

The study population is the employees of the City of Tshwane in the Corporate Shared Services Department, which has a workforce of 470 employees (City of Tshwane Macro Structure, 2017). The searcher decided to administer the quantitative questionnaire to 250 participants. The researcher was requested to extend the study to the following divisions and sections: City Strategy and Organisational Performance, Innovation, Water and Sanitation, Management and Administration, Knowledge Management, Organisational Performance, and Organisational Efficiency Improvement.

## **4.6 DATA COLLECTION METHOD**

### **4.6.1 Measuring Organisational Culture**

This research followed the culture model by Schein (1990, 1992, 2004, 2010) of measuring organisational culture on the basis that a theory-based examination of artefacts, espoused values, and shared basic assumptions using a variety of semi-structured questionnaire and qualitative interview techniques, evaluates "fit" between people and organisation. Other researchers opine that survey as an organisational culture instrument assesses organisational focus (internal and external focus) and organisational flexibility (flexible and stable) (Denison, 1990). A holistic view of organisational culture is a challenge for selecting a measurement instrument for organisational culture (Scott et al., 2003). Measurement was considered as this research measured culture in the CoT using a questionnaire. Various organisational measurement tools exist in the literature, however, there seems to be little agreement concerning which accurate measurement instrument can be used to measure organisational culture (Gershon et al., 2004; Scott et al., 2003). Schein and Schein



(2016) recognise the diagnostic quantitative and dialogic qualitative culture assessment approaches. They suggest that an effective measurement strategy (questionnaire) must capture the core characteristics of a culture. Also, a tool for classifying various organisational types, along with associated strategies for implementation, would be most valuable. It is therefore relevant to discuss the instrument for data collection of the study.

#### **4.6.2 Questionnaire**

The essential instrument for data collection for the research was a questionnaire that centred on both culture and service delivery. A culture questionnaire was utilized for the estimation of the autonomous variable (organisational culture). Parasuraman et al. (2004) point out that there is no census determination for the number and nature of pre-tests that ought to be conducted. However, they suggest that the following guidelines in structuring pre-tests be followed:

- One pre-test, regardless of the administration method, should be conducted using a personal interview. A face-to-face interview may reveal areas of confusion that would otherwise go unnoticed.
- Pre-testing should be conducted on a small sample of respondents who are familiar with the subject matter. The emphasis is on quality rather than quantity.
- Pre-testing the questionnaire on colleagues can be extremely useful, since they are likely to view it more critically than survey respondents.

The approach used to pilot the questionnaire in this study is described below.

The initial hard copy questionnaire was given to managers to evoke their reactions and understanding of the survey. They suggested a few minor changes that were for the most part linguistic. Other than that, the content and common feel of the survey was clear to them. The revised questionnaire was then e-mailed to test for challenges that may be experienced in administration to selected respondents who were representatives of the populace utilized in the empirical study. They were inquired to complete and assess the questionnaire with extraordinary reference to the following: the time it took to complete the questionnaire; clarity of instructions and language usage; topics that may have been overlooked; format and equivocalness of questions.

A survey was used as an organisational culture measurement instrument where feedback was obtained from all employees of the CoT, including managers, to determine if changes brought about by the post-1994 democratic elections and the 2016 Local Government Elections improved their operations and internal processes in rendering service delivery to clients. Other researchers opine that surveys as an organisational culture instrument assess organisational focus (internal and external focus) and organisational flexibility (flexible and stable) (Denison, 1990:35). Denison argues that this approach allows for assessment of how organisations (or sub-groups within organisations) deal with seemingly contradictory or paradoxical goals and demands. In this research, a questionnaire for the independent variable (service delivery) was designed and validated before its usage. But because a questionnaire is a lengthy instrument and may impact negatively on operational time to administer, a decision was taken to obtain a perception rating of service delivery in the identified sample.

#### **4.7 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS OF THE STUDY**

Document analysis is a form of data collection. The researcher used documents to collect data to supplement and corroborate the primary sources, which were semi-structured personal interviews of the senior managers as participant observation. Documents can be used to collect both primary and secondary data. The source data used in document analysis included both published and unpublished documents provided by the CoT. These included institutional reports, published documents, Auditor-General's reports, books, articles etc. Nieuwenhuis (2007:86) states that "unpublished data represents primary data and published data source represents secondary data." The researcher noted the distinction between what is considered primary data and secondary data in terms of the documents used, and both unpublished and unpublished documents were used. Authors such as Creswell (2009) argue that qualitative documents may either be public or private documents. While noting that public documents refer to newspapers, online publications, official reports, minutes of official meetings and, on the other hand, private documents include journals, emails, letters etc. relevant for the data collection.

The researcher used collected public documents such as official committee reports and research documents, which assisted him to analyse existing official documents

that included reports, minutes etc. Also, surveys conducted and reports of oversight structure of the CoT, the Auditor-General's reports promoting a culture of good governance, and best practices in rendering service were considered. It is from this perspective that qualitative documents, semi-structured personal interviews and observations were vital for data analysis of the study.

#### **4.8 DESCRIPTION OF THE DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT**

An all-encompassing view of organisational culture could be a challenge for selecting a measurement instrument for organisational culture (Scott et al., 2003). Measurement was an imperative consideration as this research intended to measure culture within the CoT employing a questionnaire technique. Perception rating was chosen as a measurement on service orientation within the sample for viable application. The organisational culture measurement instrument - High Performance Culture Questionnaire, was employed within the South African Organisations using the same population sample and was approved in 2017. The High Performance Culture Questionnaire does not measure the values and convictions but is centres on the practices inside the organisation, is more widespread and has the potential for use in particular societies and different organisations, including Public Administration. The climate questionnaire was created to measure the non-exclusive climate dimensions related to high levels of organisational performance. A high-performance culture is a set of behaviours and standards that lead an organisation to attain predominant results. In other words, it is a culture that drives a high-performance organisation, which according to Cornell ILR School is an organisation that accomplishes superior results such as client fulfilment, workforce retention etc. than those of its peers over time. As mentioned above, organisational culture is how and why things get done in an organisation (Schein, 1985). Various organisational measurement tools exist in the literature; however, there seems to be little agreement concerning which accurate measurement instrument can be used to measure organisational culture (Gershon et al., 2004; Scott et al., 2003). Schein and Schein (2016) recognise the diagnostic quantitative, and dialogic qualitative culture assessment approaches in which they suggest that an effective measurement strategy (questionnaire) must capture the core characteristics of culture, further that a tool for classifying various organisational types along with associated strategies for implementation would be most valuable.

The questionnaires were designed to capture the following themes, starting with the quantitative questionnaire administered to the general staff: Section 1: Demographic Information which includes the length of service; the number of years in the current position; age; race, level of education; category describing position; and business unit. Section 2: Organisational Culture in the CoT ranging from strongly agree; agree; neither agree; disagree; and strongly disagree. Section 3: Organisational Culture and Service Delivery. Section 4: Challenges of Organisational Culture on Service Delivery. Section 5: Measurement of Organisational Culture. The qualitative questionnaire was crafted for the senior managers confirming the quantitative questionnaire by elaborating in their responses. It is therefore relevant to discuss the limitations of the study.

## **4.9 DATA ANALYSIS**

### **4.9.1 Qualitative Data Analysis**

*“Were the procedures for data analysis clearly described and theoretically justified? Did they relate to the original research questions? How were themes and concepts identified from the data?” (Mays and Pope, 1995:112).*

This section deliberates on the methods employed in this study to interpret the empirical data. It also endeavours to answer the above question put forward by Mays and Pope. Qualitative content analysis is the preferred examination strategy in qualitative descriptive studies. Qualitative content analysis is a dynamic form of examination of verbal and visual information that is arranged toward abridging the informational content of that data. Qualitative content analysis is additionally reflexive and interactive. Both quantitative and qualitative content analyses involve tallying reactions and the number of members in each response category. On the other hand, in qualitative content analysis, counting is a means to a conclusion, not the conclusion itself. Researchers may employ a quasi-statistical analysis style (Sandelowski, 2000) by outlining their data numerically with clear measurements. In any case, the end result of counting is not a quasi-statistical rendering of the information, rather a depiction of the patterns or regularities within the information. The qualitative content analysis further moves into the space of interpretation. The themes were analysed based on the experienced organisational culture and how it impacted service delivery within the City of Tshwane Municipality. The drawback of the interview methods is that

the interview process expends more time and resources compared to other data collection strategies (Jacob and Furgerson, 2012). The researcher allocated 60 minutes to interview each participant. The other disadvantage of the interview method is the potential for interview biases (Yin, 2014). The research employed interview guidelines to avoid biases by using semi-structured interview questions. Semi-structured interview questions and other data validation techniques are essential to avoid and control potential biases during the interview process (Bevan, 2014; Kaczynski et al., 2014). Khan (2014:35) posits that “a well-organised data is easy to access and track relevant information for the study.” The interview transcripts were marked with the designated participants' name, date, designation and business unit/department. The researcher used in-depth interviews to explore the unique aspect of the study (Yin, 2013). The advantages of the interview method include an opportunity to understand the topic in-depth (Cleary et al., 2014). Using follow-up questions during the interview is essential to gather additional data and to control the interview process (Bevan, 2014).

The data organisation includes organising the interview responses and questions (Pierre and Jackson, 2014). Grouping similar information under each question led to patterns in the analysis phase (Yin, 2014: 30). The interview transcripts and the electronic data were stored, and member checking summary was stored in a secure place for safekeeping and would be destroyed after a period of five years in a highly-secured manner. The data and confidentiality of participants were protected and secured in data storage and hard copy documents were locked in a file cabinet. The interview participants' names received placement into codes that help to secure the confidentiality of the information (Brewis, 2014; Radcliffe, 2013). The qualitative analysis further assessed the senior managers' experience, understanding and the extent of the experienced culture in their responses to confirm or refute the research objectives and questions of the study in section 1.4 and 1.5 in chapter 1. Qualitative researchers are concerned with understanding the context in which behaviour occurs, not just the statistical extent to which it occurs (Babbie, 1992). Qualitative analysis, according to Jarbandhan and De Wet Schutte (2006:672), “is concerned with the description and interaction of multiple variables, sometimes over some time.” Auriacombe (2005:80) as cited in Mouton et al. (2006:58) posits that “qualitative data collection is usually done with small numbers of respondents using unstructured (not

unplanned) interviews.” The one-on-one in-depth interviews were intended to get a sense of municipal leadership’s understanding of organisational culture and service delivery.

The Qualitative data collection process did not go without challenges as planned. The researcher experienced challenges to secure appointment for the remaining face to face interviews because of the prohibitions of the Disaster Management Act 57 of 2002 [www.gov.za](http://www.gov.za) during the hard lockdown during the COVID-19 pandemic. This was overcome by using alternative methods of telephonic interviews (see Chapter 5 section 5.2 and Chapter 6 section 6.4). Before discussing the quantitative data analysis, the data processing of the study is explained.

#### **4.9.2 Data processing**

The completed quantitative questionnaires were checked, sorted in numbers, batched ready for capturing. All batches were stamped by the capturer and the electronic file was sent to the main server. The verifiers retrieved batch from the server and recaptured it. During the verification process, the software Quintessence based on the IBM 3741 and 3742 data capturing machine compared each character, captured the files and gave an error message for each discrepancy. The verifier corrected each character or field and proceeded with the verification process and stamped the batch after completion. The error rate is limited to less than 0.04% after the verification process. The researcher discloses that 100% accuracy is impossible as verifiers also make mistakes. After verification, the Clarion Data File was converted into an ASCII, which was in an Excel layout before analysis using statistical software. Mouton (2005:79) asserts that “it is now possible and increasingly easy to use a software programme to analyse numeric or textual data, whenever empirical research is involved. The questionnaire has resulted in several diverse answers that needed to be processed and analysed.”

#### **4.9.3 Quantitative Data Analysis**

In this study, a statistical package - SAS ver 9.4 software - was used to perform the analysis. The SAS software has an advantage over other packages because of its power, programmability and graphic stools. It performs general statistics methods like other softwares, but it is more code-driven. This means that the user must know how to write the code. Each completed questionnaire was captured onto the computer

software programme for analysis. Mouton (2005:80) stresses that “whenever empirical research involves the analysis of numeric or textual data, it is possible and increasingly easy to use a software programme to do so.” Mouton et al. (2006:58) cite Auriacombe (2005) that “quantitative research generally involves the collection of primary data from large numbers of individuals and projecting the results to a wider population.” Having discussed the data analysis strategy, it becomes imperative to also highlight the validity and reliability of the study.

#### **4.10 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE STUDY**

The process of creating and approving an instrument is in an expansive portion focused on lessening mistakes within the measurement process. Social researchers are regularly fascinated by measuring complicated and abstract phenomena, such as happiness, estrangement, culture, and different psychological conditions. As a result, the situational nature of these abstractions makes it more difficult to manipulate than concepts like height, density and distance in physical science. The problems of defining the concepts used in social research frequently create a dilemma. Is the researcher measuring what he intends or claims to be measuring? Williamson, Karp, Dalphin and Gray (1982) in addressing the question, define validity as the “fit” between the concept that the researcher wants to examine and the evidence for that concept. Similarly, Mouton and Marais (1996:69) emphasise that “based on the inter-correlations between indicators, it remains the responsibility of the researcher to demonstrate the relationship between two factors, and the theory that has been used.” As such, validity is being characterised as the degree to which the elucidations of the results of a test are justified, which relies on the specific use that the test is aiming to serve (Carole, Kimberlin, Almut and Winterstein, 2008). The factor structure of the questionnaire in this research is firmly supported by exploratory factor analysis.

To ensure that validity and reliability are being maintained, the quantitative questionnaire was piloted to test its strength, validity and reliability before it was administered to the whole population. The results of the pilot study did not form part of the overall results of the study. The researcher ensured that the data collection process and the results were credible, by ensuring that the capturing process was conducted transparently and reliably in line with ethical capturing procedures. The data collection was self-administered by the researcher to ensure that participants

understood how to complete the questionnaire, to gain their confidence and trust by being fair and transparent (Williamson et al., 1982). Hence, the study verification of data was carried out through prolonged data collection and member-checking to attain credibility, identification of resemblances in the findings for transferability, and provide a clear and detail explanation of the research process to assist in assessing dependability (Lincoln and Cuba, 1985). While rigour amplifies the need for reliability and validity, it is argued that reliability and validity relate better to quantitative than qualitative research (Morse et al., 2002; Twycross and Shields, 2005).

To measure the dependent variable (service delivery), the questionnaire was designed and validated before the actual implementation of the research to assess organisational culture and service delivery. The survey questions contained closed-ended questions involving a set of responses from the respondents, such survey response included categories of agree, strongly agree, neither agree and disagree (Mouton and Marais, 1996). The open-ended questionnaire was developed specifically for Group Heads, Heads of Department, and Directors for their understanding of organisational culture and service delivery in the Department of Shared Services in the CoT.

Blumberg et al. (2005:458) consider Cronbach's  $\alpha$  (alpha) as a statistic instrument which is commonly used as a measure of the internal consistency reliability of a psychometric instrument (Cronbach, Richard and Shavelson, 2004). These authors emphasise that Cronbach's alpha is said to be break-even with the stepped-up consistency form of the Intra-class relationship coefficient, which is commonly utilised in observational studies. Cronbach's alpha was chosen to decide the inner consistency of the sample groups' results. Cronbach's alpha ranges and a value of 0.7 or more was considered as an indication of its unwavering quality. A reliable measure is measuring something consistently that is the two variables culture and service delivery (Cortina, 1993:98). The researcher ensured that the process for data analysis was carried out through a reliable instrument to produce reliable and credible results that could be tested repeatedly. Williamson et al. (1982:14) support the replication in that "research should be conducted in such a way that when its outcomes are questioned, it can be repeated and obtain the same results." They further specify that a measurement instrument that produces the same results when rehashed holds high reliability. This view is supported by Allen and Yen (2002). The reliability (as measured



by Cronbach's alpha) of the total questionnaire as well as the sub-scales meets exceptional psychometric standards and is reported below (n=2467). To confirm the reliability of the measuring instrument, the composite reliability of the variables exceeding the threshold of 0.5 is a good convergent validity. The continuous usage of the instrument in researches increase its validity and reliability for the following aspects: organisational diagnostic purposes, inform organisational development, and organisational change interventions. Also, to create benchmarks and to measure impacts of interventions and focus on the expansion of the generic (molar) model as well as to predict performance. To ensure reliability and validity of data, Morse et al. (2002) suggest that in activities such as methodological coherence, sampling sufficiency, theory development, collecting and analysing data concurrently are important. The researcher used different overtones during the interview with the participants to get clarity responses (Long and Johnson, 2000), this was followed by follow-up interviews for verification purpose (Creswell, 2011). Mays and Pope (1995:110) state that "alongside issues of reliability, qualitative researchers give attention to the validity of their findings. Triangulation refers to an approach to data collection in which evidence is deliberately sought from a wide range of different, independent sources and often by different means." Golafshani (2003:600) supports the use of triangulation by stating that "triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods." This will mean using a few sorts of strategies or information, including employing both quantitative and qualitative approaches. According to Aroni et al. (1999), meticulousness is how credibility and competence are illustrated within the research, notwithstanding the paradigm. This can be alluded to as triangulation. Triangulation is a legitimacy procedure whereby researchers look for merging among numerous and distinctive sources of data to create topics or categories in a study. Thoroughness was built up in this study through the orderly examination and comparison of different information sources. Validity in terms of a research instrument meets the question of whether the specific instrument genuinely measures what it purports to measure. The core challenge around validity is the degree to which the empirical data uncover the truth about what was measured so that the conclusions made cannot lead to a circumstance where perusers of the research start to question the deductions being presented. The use of purposive sampling in the study enabled the researcher to include participants who were at a senior level, knowledgeable and experienced about the local government in different municipalities in Gauteng

Province, including the organisation under study. What the researcher wanted to establish was the extent of the validity of these questionnaires that sought to provide credible information on leadership behaviour and organisational culture in the sample being investigated. To increase the validity, the researcher compared the findings with what the literature highlighted. The research instruments were analysed concerning a literature review to ensure reliability.

#### **4.11 CONCLUSION**

This chapter examined two issues – the research design and research methodology. The chapter highlighted that the research exertion may well be broken down into several tasks or components that required to be handled as sub-units of the research project. That is, by managing each task, the researcher closes up with a complete research report which meets the common prerequisites of the research methodology. The choice of the research design for this study was influenced by the purpose and circumstances of the researcher as well as the confinements of the approach. The research design used both quantitative and qualitative techniques. It was indicated that the research process comprised the following sequential stages: identification of the problem to be resolved by the study; the objectives of the study; a literature review on the subject being investigated; a strategy or method that guided the researcher during the data collection stage; sampling design; how data was collected; and processed and analysed so that findings, conclusions and recommendations could be inferred. The purposive sampling method was used to select participants with knowledge and experience. This was to explore the subject's effects, which as indicated by the reviewed literature in previous chapters - Chapter 3, little has been studied.

The chapter further discussed the research instrument that was used to collect data. A questionnaire was used for data collection, and a brief discussion of the questionnaire as a data collection instrument was provided as well as the validity and reliability of the questionnaire as a data collection instrument. The chapter introduced both quantitative and qualitative questionnaires as the preferred measurement instruments for this study. The focus was on the influence of organisational culture on service delivery in the CoT, wherein the views and experiences of the participants of the study were considered. In addition, both published and unpublished data sources,

such as official reports, minutes, surveys and published official reports and articles were utilised in the study. The following chapter centres on the research findings, analysis and interpretation of the data collected using the laid out methods employed in this study.

## **CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION**

### **5.1. INTRODUCTION**

This chapter presents an analysis of the findings of the study. The main results explored a direct link between organisational culture and service delivery. Therefore, it is necessary to revisit the research question and the objective as guiding elements of the study. The study chiefly aimed to explore organisational and service delivery challenges within a local government setting. In this regard, the study set out to explore the overall perception of the leadership approach and the type of organisational culture within the City of Tshwane (CoT) as it embarks on change triggered by the recent reformation trends within local government. The raw data was presented to assess the general responses to the questionnaires, statements on organisational culture and service delivery in terms of the identified variables defined in the study. These variables were identified as organisational culture and service delivery. The findings of the research study are, therefore, given along these aforementioned objectives. Also, this chapter presents the themes that emerged. These themes relate to the existing organisational culture and how it influences service delivery in a bureaucratic local government setting.

Organisational culture and service delivery are discussed as per the categorised questions in the survey and the responses of the leadership in the qualitative data collected. These questions were grouped to identify the themes using the selected measurement tool. The elements of organisational culture, service delivery, challenges of service delivery and measurement of organisational culture are discussed as per the categorised questions in the survey. Furthermore, a discussion of the research findings forms the basis of this chapter. The researcher used the in-depth interviews to explore the unique aspect of the study (Yin, 2013). The advantages of the interview method include an opportunity to understand the topic in-depth (Cleary et al., 2014). Using follow-up questions during the interview is essential to gather additional data and control the interview process (Bevan, 2014). The starting point will be to discuss the research findings, revisit the researcher's research question and the objectives and later discuss the lessons learnt from the findings.

## 5.2. RESULTS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE AND SERVICE DELIVERY

The results of the organisational culture and service orientation are presented in the following paragraphs. The response rate of the quantitative questionnaire was 144 employees. Efforts to access other business units as suggested were hampered by the Covid-19 Regulations and the lockdown period. The study was set out to explore the overall perception of the dominant leadership approach and the type of organisational culture in the CoT as it embraces reformation within local government. The analyses of the findings of the study, starting with the quantitative results are presented in the next sections.

## 5.3. ANALYSES OF THE FINDINGS

The results of the questionnaire administered in the CoT are presented below, starting with the correlation between service delivery and organisational culture. The correlation procedure for the analysis of the findings is presented in Table 5.1 below.

*Service Delivery  
The CORR Procedure*

<b>1 With Variables:</b>	Service Delivery
<b>1 Variables:</b>	Organisational Culture

Simple Statistics						
Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Sum	Minimum	Maximum
Service delivery	144	2.35758	0.56768	339.49193	1.00000	4.00000
Organisational Culture	144	2.39462	0.50102	344.82475	1.11940	3.83582

Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 144	
Prob >  r  under H0: Rho=0	
	Organisational Culture
Service delivery	0.85956 <.0001

**Table 5.1:** The CORR procedure Service Delivery. Source: Statistician report

The Pearson correlation method was performed to test if there was a correlation between service delivery and organisational culture. The Pearson “r” coefficient ranges between (-1, 1), with values close to 1 indicating a high correlation. –r implies that there is a negative correlation between the variables measured and a positive +r implies that there is a positive relationship, i.e. if results increase, the outperformance also increases.

In Table 5.1 above, there is a correlation = 0.85956 and is significant at 0.05 implying that there is a statistical correlation between service delivery and organisational culture i.e. if the organisational culture score increases, service delivery also increases or vice versa. The same principle can be used to interpret the correlation between sub-dimensions as depicted in Table 5.2 below.

*Service Delivery  
The CORR Procedure*

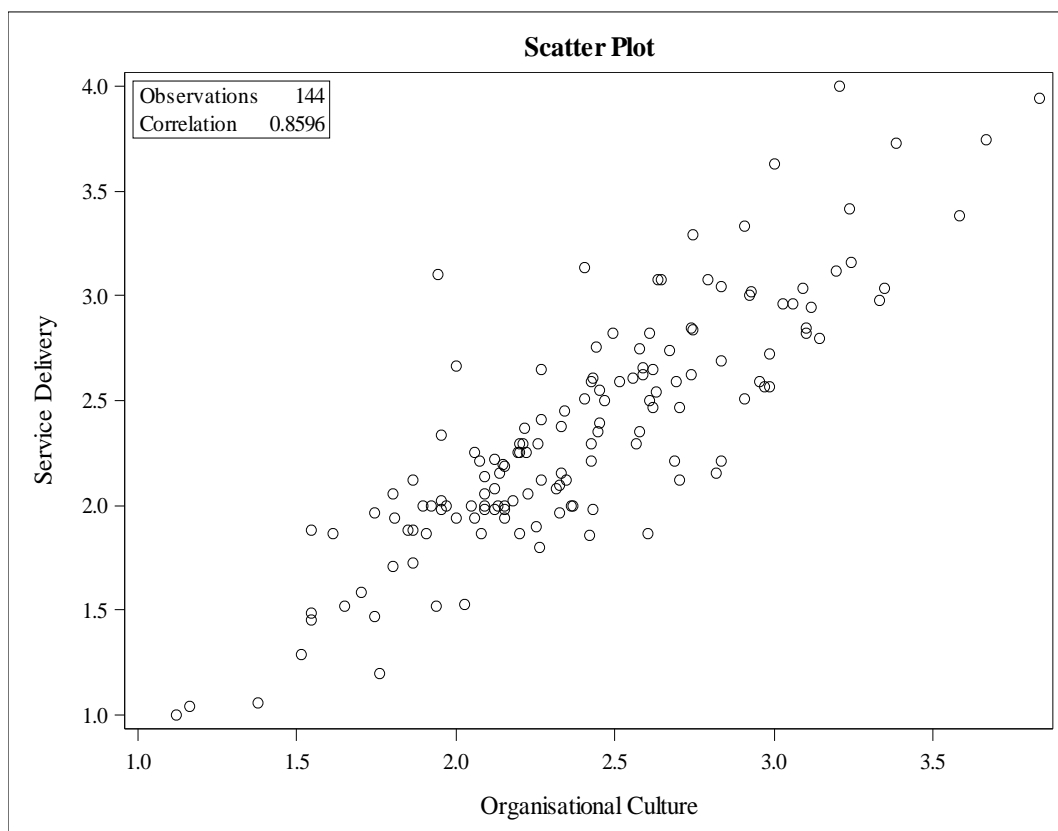
<b>1 With Variables:</b>	Service delivery
<b>1 Variables:</b>	Organisational Culture

Simple Statistics						
Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Sum	Minimum	Maximum
Service delivery	144	2.35758	0.56768	339.49193	1.00000	4.00000
Organisational Culture	144	2.39462	0.50102	344.82475	1.11940	3.83582

Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 144	
Prob >  r  under H0: Rho=0	
	Organisational Culture
Service delivery	0.85956 <.0001

**Table 5.2:** Service Delivery. The CORR Procure, Source: Statistician report

The Pearson correlation method was performed to test if there was a correlation between service delivery and organisational culture. The Pearson “r” coefficient ranges between (-1, 1), with values close to 1 indicating a high correlation.  $-r$  implies that there is a negative correlation between the variables measured and a positive  $+r$  implies that there is a positive relationship i.e. if results increase, the outperformance also increases. In Table 5.2 above, there is a correlation = 0.85956 and is significant at 0.05 implying that there is a statistical correlation between service delivery and organisational culture i.e. if the organisational culture score increases, the same goes for service delivery or vice versa. The same principle can be used to interpret the correlation between sub-dimensions as depicted in Figure 5.3 below.



**Figure 5.3:** Scatter Plot: Observation and Correlation Service Delivery and Organisational Culture. Source: Statistician report

The correlation between service delivery and organisational culture is further outlined in Table 5.4 below.

*The REG procedure Model:  
Dependent Variable: Service Delivery*

<b>Number of Observations Read</b>	145
<b>Number of Observations Used</b>	144
<b>Number of Observations with Missing Values</b>	1

<b>Analysis of Variance</b>					
<b>Source</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>Sum of Squares</b>	<b>Mean Square</b>	<b>F Value</b>	<b>Pr &gt; F</b>
<b>Model</b>	1	34.04904	34.04904	401.74	<.0001
<b>Error</b>	142	12.03493	0.08475		
<b>Corrected Total</b>	143	46.08397			

<b>Root MSE</b>	0.29112	<b>R-Square</b>	0.7388
<b>Dependent Mean</b>	2.35758	<b>Adj R-Sq</b>	0.7370
<b>Coeff Var</b>	12.34840		

<b>Parameter Estimates</b>						
<b>Variable</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>Parameter Estimate</b>	<b>Standard Error</b>	<b>t Value</b>	<b>Pr &gt;  t </b>	<b>Standardised Estimate</b>
<b>Intercept</b>	1	0.02538	0.11886	0.21	0.8312	0
<b>Organisational Culture</b>	1	0.97394	0.04859	20.04	<.0001	0.85956

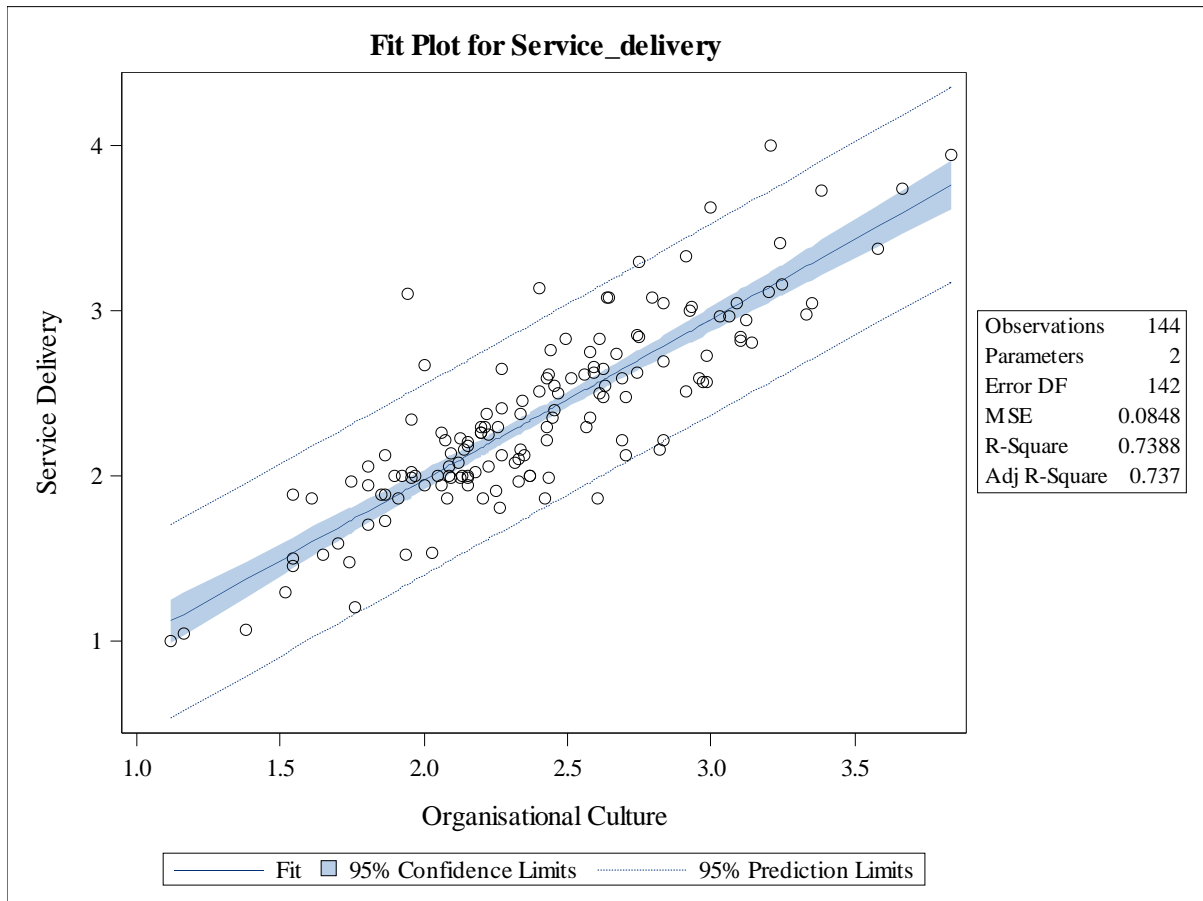
**Table 5.4:** The REG procedure model, Organisational Culture. Source: Statistician report

An interpretation of Table 5.4 reveals that the regression analysis is significant: the p (value) is > 0.00. This indicates that organisational culture predicts service delivery. In other words, organisation culture predicts 74% of the variance of the service culture.



The relationship between service delivery and organisational culture in the City of Tshwane is shown in Figure 5.4 below.

*Service Delivery  
The CORR Procedure*



**Figure 5.5:** Fit Plot for Service Delivery and Organisational Culture. Source: Statistician report.

In Figure 5.5 above, the results indicate that organisational culture influences service delivery in the CoT. A deduction can thus be made that the leadership at the CoT needs to focus attention on addressing the administrative and operational issues of its employees. Organisational culture is seen as a contributing factor to the overall performance of the organisation.

#### **5.4. THE RESULTS OF THE SENIOR MANAGERS (QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS)**

The qualitative results of the interviews of the Senior Managers representing the leadership of the CoT are presented in the following paragraphs. The objective of the study as stated in paragraph 5.2 above was to explore whether organisational culture was present within a local government organisational culture setting. In this regard, the study set out to explore the overall perception of the dominant leadership approach and the type of organisational culture in the CoT as it embraces reformation within local government. This section begins by presenting the perceptions of the prevalence of transformational leadership approaches within the CoT. Bass and Avolio (1993, 1994) cited in Northhouse (2007:181) states that “transformational leaders behave in ways intended to achieve superior results by employing idealised influence. They become models for their followers.” *The following responses were some of statements that respondents gave. “I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose”. “I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group”. “I am part of the family within the division”. “I consider the morale and ethical consequences of decisions”.*

Are you proud to work for the CoT and being a leader of your division? Do you feel motivated to do your work well? When there is a problem in the division, do you take ownership thereof, and why? In response to these questions, individual Senior Managers responded and motivated their response more on a positive note and highlighted the area of challenges emanating for their political principals, the impact of the challenges on the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and service delivery and offered ideal situations.

The following questions were asked at a Senior Management level to get a sense of their understanding of their roles and share their experiences. How well do you understand the vision and mission of the CoT? Is everyone in your unit having clear goals and objectives? How well does gender, culture, religion issues affect your work? How do you use them to improve your service delivery? Would you say the CoT as a service organisation placed a strong emphasis on customer service? Do you understand the CoT’s Development Plan? Do you understand the CoT’s Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP)? Is the quality of service a priority in the CoT?

Their responses exhibited high levels of idealised influence. Leaders in CoT therefore perceived themselves as demonstrating this element of transformational leadership more frequently. In response to the same questions, but from a different perspective to their followers, their responses confirmed the rating of the existence of the influence of organisational culture on performance and later service delivery in Table 5.3 above. Leaders displayed idealised influence within the CoT. The following organisational culture, change management, service delivery, leadership challenges were captured. I am well motivated for having served the CoT under different administrations and shared skills and experience in resolving service challenges within my business unit.

Major problems emanate from politicians' lack of understanding of the technical knowledge and expertise on how the municipality is constituted. As a result, politicians make political and not administrative statements which are practically impossible to implement as planning and budgetary constraints are not considered. Political infighting delays decision making and approvals on appointments and policies e.g. the Performance Management Policy, which has been non-existent for years before the current administration. Lack of maintenance of existing infrastructure, in the case of Hammanskraal water crisis, is almost over a decade old since 2010 of unclean water because of untreated sewage leakages into the town's water system in Rooiwal - the City's largest wastewater treatment plant.

The tender process is the centre of the problem; between 2011 and 2015 upgrades cost the CoT R338 million, while residents were left stranded and depended on water tankers, which is still the case at the time of this research.

Inadequate communication between administrative and political leadership concerning budget planning. Operational Performance Task Team, Departmental and Regional Heads were supposed to meet weekly with Finance, Supply Chain to provide feedback, raise challenges to have a hands-on service delivery. Its success depended on the right people attending the meeting, contributing to operational performance and adding value to service delivery and understanding problems, managing the symptoms and not the problem. A need for monitoring of compliance to adhere to policies for fair labour practice.

There is a concern from labour regarding their role in the recruitment processes; their objection on procedural fairness during appointments of officials does withhold the appointment. If one of the labour unions or employer is absent, the Policy Review Forum does not sit. The Employment Equity (EE) Forum is made up of 7 Regions and 24 Divisions, they experience interference of the Accounting Officer and that hampers its function. The Forum is responsible for EE targets and implementation of the EE Plan. The City's Transformation Plan annually presents skewed targets at a lower level in the areas of Utility, Water and Sanitation, and Agriculture; it reflects predominantly African males, but in the Department of Health women are more visible.

The CoT's Recruitment Plan does not make provision for three years funding for EE positions, the second and third years are not funded, this poses a challenge in aligning the Recruitment with EE Committee that decides on positions. Vacancies are not being filled after resignation even when there is a need, a person can be put in an acting position for more than six months and the funds for the vacancy get redistributed to the pool.

Divisions submit unsubstantiated EE report without evidence to the Department of Labour (DoL), the Accounting Officer (City Manager) signs it off without evidence, the DoL does not assist in addressing such issues and does not enforce penalties. General workers do not have uniforms to execute their duties, they take unrecorded leaves at Depots, they knock off at 12:00 instead of 16:00 as per contract on employment, they claim overtime because they knock off early, their supervisors are weak to manage them, and this is a challenge that affects the quality of service. Their reason for such a behaviour is that their jobs have been outsourced, they report to the office after 16:00 to claim overtime - this is an unacceptable culture.

Table 5.6 below shows how the CoT response to the Water Departments' handled queries in the period July-November 2019.

Water and Sanitation	Number of Service Requests	Completed	Completed %
Region 1	5,834	4,718	81 %
Region 2	2,026	1,461	72 %
Region 3	8,604	7,946	92 %
Region 4	5,823	5,555	95 %
Region 5	1,055	903	86 %
Region 6	6,779	5,995	88 %
Region 7	292	262	90 %

**Table 5.6:** Water and Sanitation Service Requests. Source: City of Tshwane, Department of Water and Sanitation.

Table 5.6 above shows good service delivery. However, the supervision and overtime cost tell a different story. A deduction can be made that more can be delivered with effective and efficient supervision. The CoT should invest in IT as part of its innovation and service improvement by having a visual service tracking and monitoring tool to enhance real-time service on site. Further, to align the tool with the performance management system and address the overtime challenges. The responses suggest that from the overall results management is experiencing organisational culture, leadership and service delivery challenges within the CoT municipality. They lacked leadership who acted as role models and who showed determination in the pursuit of goals, displaying high standards of moral and ethical conduct. Also, they were willing to sacrifice self-gain for the good of others. Their subordinates also held the perception that their leaders displayed elements of idealised influence. By implication, these managers need leadership they can trust and support in championing the mandate of the CoT; leadership that the followers can admire, and they can identify with and try to imitate. The Senior Managers represented role models for their followers; they did the right things, demonstrating high moral and ethical behaviour. They did not use their position to advance personal interests, but they used the potential of their followers to

achieve the aims of the organisation. Dunning et al. (2004:87) posit that "in organisational life, the biggest surprises generated by lack of self-knowledge may be those that are produced when self-evaluations are not echoed by one's peers." Dunning et al. (2004:86) add that for several reasons individuals may find it difficult to learn about how well they are performing. First, the environment may be difficult. Organisational standards of performance may be shifting, complex or subject to disagreement. Second, individuals may avoid seeking feedback because getting feedback requires them to balance the potential benefits of improvement against the knowledge of learning something that would be a blow to their self-esteem. Also, individuals may resist seeking feedback even if they might like to have it because asking for feedback might make them appear insecure or needy.

Northouse (2007:181) reminds us that "transformational leaders behave in ways intended to achieve superior results by employing elements of idealised influence. They become role models for their followers. They can be counted on to do the right thing, demonstrating high standards of ethical and moral conduct." Transformational leaders avoid using power for personal gain. Idealised influence involves the creation of an ethical vision and setting high ethical standards to be emulated to achieve this vision. Davids (2015) cites Aswegen and Engelbrecht (2000) that the leader proposes the most elevated moral guidelines to his or her devotees, which are executed in his or her own life, both publicly and privately. The admired impact will result as it were in followers imitating the leader and supporting his or her vision in the event that ethical guidelines are actualised in his or her own life.

Therefore, while there are political and resource dimensions to challenges faced by the municipality, the leadership at the CoT needs to focus on institutional dimensions, meaning that current organisational level practices need to change to uncover these culture traits (Ndzewi et al., 2016). The findings indicated that there was a considerable understanding of strategic intent in terms of the purpose of the municipality through the IDP though with minimal communication for a deeper understanding that ought to be unpacked and aligned with planning and implementation at the administrative level. Additionally, departments that dealt directly with the public (e.g. services) recognised the service delivery to the public as their core mandate. Although there was some value placed by individual units on working together towards a common goal, employees within these units felt mutually

accountable to one another. It can therefore be deduced that organisational culture influenced the level of client service delivery of employees in the City of Tshwane. The responses further confirmed Schein's three-layer culture model, which bordered the study, namely Artefacts - the visible elements of organisational culture, including work process, the workplace setting and organisational structures. Values represent the beliefs of the organisation members and their business strategy (Childress, 2013). The Assumptions reflect unofficial but important rules in the organisation. The assumptions are taken for granted yet they become dominant if the overall organisational culture is not managed by the leadership of the organisation. They contribute to the negative sub-culture which will frustrate the espoused organisational culture that is informed by position and power. In this study, the political power and followers in the position of influence at the administrative level. It makes it difficult for the administrative leadership to execute the mandate of the organisation and even take corrective measures or apply consequence management. This element of sub-culture is confirmed by the response that "when labour wins a labour case against the employer, the Municipality's Legal Advisors will deliberately apply for the review of the outcome with an attempt to keep the suspended official on suspension with salary". The three elements of Schein's culture model contribute to maintaining an effective culture in the organisation (Tedla, 2016).

The findings on leadership suggest that accounting officer did not exercise adequate oversight responsibility regarding compliance with laws and regulations and related controls, which resulted in instances of non-compliance with the MFMA and SCM regulations. As far as financial and performance management is concerned, Senior Management was found not to be implementing sufficient monitoring controls in compliance with legislation and that the financial statements were supported by credible information, which resulted in a material adjustment to the annual financial statements and material non-compliance with key legislation. There were no controls in place to ensure that the annual performance report was supported by valid, accurate and complete information. There were no engagements conducted by various parties that have or could potentially have an impact on the municipal entity's financial statements, reported performance information and compliance with applicable legislation and other related matters.

The concerns mentioned in the Group Audit and Risk Department, Audit and Performance Committee (Quarter Two 2017/18, p.8) noted that Line Departments often failed on effective consequence management and that there were several outstanding investigations. Schein (2012:25) states: "If managers fail to manage subcultures in an organisation, the managers end up being managed by these subcultures." Sebedi (2012) argues that managers should walk the talk and manage if they are to lead.

Sarros et al. (2008:154) also remind us that a leader with vision makes a culture of change that encourages the appropriation of development and persistent advancement. They help state that as a component of administration, a vision both extends organisational processes and culture and contributes to innovative work situations. They claim that change is satisfied through the implementation of an extraordinary vision for the organisation planned to change internal organisational cultural forms. This authority component, in this way, gets to be a basic inclination when leaders need to drive change within local government.

The CoT leaders have a duty to steer public sector change that makes the bureaucracy get to be more customer-focused, where citizens' inputs are esteemed. These leaders ought to oversee change that views the execution of explicit guidelines and clear performance assessment. They got to implant this new vision and other ways of doing trade by promoting an empowering and adaptable organisational culture that resonates with change and advancement. The results indicated that Senior Managers of the CoT displayed idealised trait and in need of such leadership. This leadership trait promotes employee loyalty to the organisation.

However, 2011-2018/19 indicated low satisfaction rating by employees concerning incentives and rewards, performance appraisals, critical and urgent interventions are required of Task clarity/Performance/Purpose appraisals, Teamwork/consensus decision making **Support**, Communication Relationships, Climate, Human Resources **Support**, Advancement Training and Development, and Respect towards employees **Management**. These challenges, if not addressed, would contribute negatively towards transforming the CoT and hamper performance and service delivery. Now that the findings have been discussed, it is key to highlight the cost of decision making and accountable leadership.



## **5.5. COST OF DECISION MAKING AND ACCOUNTABLE LEADERSHIP**

It appears that bureaucratic structures can now not work viably given the recent patterns and changes that are taking place. Change and the method of change can now not be drawn closer through the conventional, authoritarian and bureaucratic strategies. Public sector administration ought to look to construct on knowledge and expertise, on vision, clear mission articulations, team building, cooperation and the strengthening of all key players. An organisation is only as efficient as its workforce. As such, the public sector must enrol and retain public servants of the most elevated calibre. This process requires leaders and directors to arrange and coordinate the course in conjunction with their groups. Administrative reform centred on de-bureaucratisation and decentralisation has to resonate with modern approaches to leadership, openness, flexibility, participation, adaptability and responsiveness. Leadership plays a critical part in executing change since it includes two of the foremost important components of reform, specifically change and people. Changing an organisation is basically about changing people's conduct and, thus, organisations experiencing change require solid and viable administration. Leaders can set up and keep up the modern values fundamental for public sector reform.

The research argues that there is a contradiction between public administration reforms and the reality of consistent and alarming 2018/19 AG's findings in the public sector SOEs and municipalities in South Africa. These reports and other reports are seen within the context of ethical and governance lapses facing South Africa. According to the Fragile States Index Report (2019), South Africa is perceived as long-term most worsened country 2009-019 that is on the brink of collapse. The index examines various factors and legitimacy is one of the crucial indicators that it used. This indicator takes into account openness in government, accountability and levels of corruption. There are various reports and surveys that focus on citizens' trust in government, including the survey by Afro-Barometer, titled: Are South Africans giving up on democracy? The report reveals that there is a correlation between trust in institutions and beliefs about institutional corruption. South Africa entered 2020 with a limp, even before the COVID-19 pandemic and its lockdown began to make most things worse (Roux, 2020). The more corrupt South Africans believe the officials to be, the less likely they are to trust them.

The Judicial Commission of Inquiry into allegations of State Capture, also known as the Zondo Commission, was investigating the large scale of alleged corruption in government and private companies (Southall, 2019). There were numerous Commissions of Inquiry in the key state organisation responsible for the facilitation of the country's trade, protection of the economy and collection of revenue, namely the South African Revenue Service (SARS), and the Commission of Inquiry into the Tax Administration and Governance by SARS known as the Nugent Commission. The final report revealed that there was a collapse of governance and integrity and huge amounts of state money were used in procurement and restructuring, which resulted in unfair suspensions of employees, dismantling of the capability of the organisations and unfair dismissals of key personnel who fought for the soul of the organisation, its governance and integrity at the executive level. There are numerous commissions of inquiry and investigations into allegations of corruption in state institutions. In a nutshell, the trust levels between citizens and government institutions are at a deficit. Lack of trust in the Public Protector whose reports have been frequently contested in court reached epic proportions as Parliament began steps to have her removed from office (Gerber, 2020). South Africans were looking to political leaders for answers that they did not get; this was shown by a low voter turnout of 49% of the voting-age population.

The above discussion is an indication of frustration borne out of a culture of impunity, lack of accountability and failure to implement consequences throughout the public sector. Some of the enablers of the destruction of the government institutions remain in the employment of these institutions earning huge salaries while others are given golden handshakes and allowed to resign without being held to account for their actions. This is an indication of indecisiveness, misalignment of words and deeds, dereliction of duty on the part of the leadership of these institutions, including local government by turning a blind eye in the face of evidence rendering internal disciplinary proceedings, criminal prosecutions and changes to restore these organisations. There are also external enablers of corruption and unethical conduct who, in the researcher's view, should equally be held to account and pay back the country's revenue. These are consulting, accounting, auditing and law firms in the private sector e.g. Bain and Company, Gartner South Africa (Pty) Ltd, McKinsey & Company, KPMG South Africa, Ernest and Young (EY), Delloite, and Price

Waterhouse Coopers (PWC) to name a few were mentioned in these Commissions and other media platforms on allegations of dishonesty and played a role in economic crimes against the State Capture. How will organisations be rebuilt in the face of such leadership? An ancient Indian philosopher, Kautilya, once said: “One should not be too straightforward. Go to see the forest – “The straight trees are cut down: the crooked once are left standing” (Green and Elffers, 1998:211). This lays a platform for future research. Accountability is non-negotiable in South Africa given the entrenchment of the country’s constitutional democracy. Hence government as (Koma, 2020) puts it, have recently emphasised the need to build “a capable state “an honest state” or “ethical state” because they are conscious of the low levels of trust, endemic unethical and corrupt practices and revelations coming out of the Zondo Commission and other finalised commissions of inquiry focusing on state capture, corruption and fraud allegations in organs of state.

Indecisiveness to hold leaders and officials to account for the decision they made has cost South Africa huge loss of trillions through corruption and fraud in the government departments, state institutions and local government. Indecisiveness leads to missed deadlines, demotivation, project paralysis, loss of quality and possible financial disaster. Procrastination often results in a greater loss than a faulty decision (Saravanja, 2008). Auditor-General (AG) is one of the Chapter 9 Institutions that are constitutionally mandated to annually conduct auditing work and provide the public and Parliament with the picture regarding the state of efficiencies or inefficiencies or inadequacies of organs of state entrusted with a public function, public funds and resources to fulfil their constitutional obligations. The AG’s Report (2016/17) on the annual performance reported the following findings on the CoT on Sandspruit Works Association trading as ODI Water Services. The entity suffered material losses of 6 967 206 kilolitres (2016: R6 038 167) kilolitres with a net value of R58 454 858 (2016: R45 225 873). Ethics is a set of standards or universal laws that administer the conduct of a system, be it a person, association or society. It is the glue that binds distinctive components of the system together. Without morals, government, society and business cannot function legitimately. Government leaders will need to contribute more to corporate governance and ethical practice.

Moral conduct ought to be perceived as a source of competitive advantage since it advances organisational astuteness and decency and produces enthusiasm, trust,

commitment and high-performance culture (Saravanja, 2008; Schein, 2010; Madue and Sebedi, 2010). The material findings on compliance with specific matters in key legislations were the following:

**a) Annual Financial Statement**

The financial statements were not arranged in all material respects in agreement with the necessities of section 122 of the MFMA. Material misstatements of income, receivable, inventory and disclosure items distinguished by the inspectors within the submitted financial statement were subsequently rectified, resulting in the final statements getting an unqualified audit opinion.

**b) Consequence Management**

Sporadic expenditures brought about by municipal entity were not examined to decide if any individual is liable for the expenditure, as required by Municipal budget and reporting regulations 75 (1).

**c) Revenue Management**

An effective system of internal control for debtors and revenue was not in place, as required by section 97 (i) of the MFMA.

**d) Expenditure Management**

Reasonable steps were not taken to prevent irregular expenditure disclosed note 38 to the financial statements, as required by section 95 (d) of the MFMA. The irregular expenditure was caused by contravention of the Supply Chain Management SCM regulations 17 (a) and (c).

**e) Procurement and contract management**

Some of the goods and services with transaction value below R2 000 000 were procured without the required price quotations, in contravention of SCM regulations 17 (a) and (c). Similar non-compliance was also reported in the preceding year.

#### **f) Internal control deficiencies**

The matters reported are limited to the significant internal control deficiencies that resulted in the findings on annual performance report and findings on compliance with legislation.

#### **g) Leadership**

The accounting officer did not exercise adequate oversight responsibility regarding compliance with laws and regulations and related controls, which resulted in instances of non-compliance with the MFMA and SCM regulations.

#### **h) Financial and performance management**

Senior management did not implement sufficient monitoring controls on compliance with legislation to ensure that the financial statements were supported by credible information, which resulted in material adjustments to the financial statements and material non-compliance with key legislation. Senior management did not have effective monitoring controls in place that the annual performance report was supported by valid, accurate and complete information.

This research argues that government institutions, leaders and officials cannot escape public scrutiny and transparency. One of the truest of integrity is its blunt refusal to be compromised. Mulgan (2000:555) refers to accountability as “the internal aspect of official behaviour, beyond the external of being called to account. It is a process of making officials responsive to public wishes other than calling them to account for one’s actions to a form of authority.” Grindle and Hilderbrand (1995) perceive that the efficient allocation and usage of human resources once enlisted is the foremost pivotal variant in deciding the efficiency levels of public officials (cf. AGSA, 2017). The concept of good governance forms part of the overarching discussion of governance. Attributes of good governance amongst others are the existence of the rule of law, a written constitution, transparency and accountability. Good governance has the potential to lead to the achievement of the goal of creating a good life for all, which may lead to a satisfactory quality life for citizens (Sindane and Nambalirwa, 2012; AGSA, 2017; Koma, 2017).

According to the Ethical Culture Maturity of the Ethics Institute (2016-2020), ethical failures are to be blamed for the state of affairs of SoEs and government departments, including local government.

These organisations were embroiled in ethical failures which included implicated in state capture; wasteful expenditure; employee intimidation; procurement fraud; employee and leadership incompetence; and inability to meet core mandate for which they were initially formed. Kanyane (2020) posits that according to the South African Social Attitude Survey (SASAS), data on the erosion of public trust in core public institutions between the years 1998 and 2018 has been on a declining trajectory, namely national government, parliament, local government and courts. This is a result of the above-mentioned discussion and unethical leadership, lack of trust, and inadequate or lack of service delivery in other areas.

The South African Local Government Association (SALGA) was deeply concerned about the regression in overall AG's 2018/19 audit outcomes that it was a setback towards the vision to achieve a developmental government built on the pillars of clean governance and financial accountability "*The audit findings highlight a lack of accountability and consequence management by the municipal leadership. The picture before us can only change if municipal managers and leadership are held accountable to ensure that we strengthen our resolve of extracting accountability using existing levers provided in the legislation*" (SALGA Media Release 1 July 2020).

Leadership behaviour towards compliance to audit outcomes and unethical conduct is an unacceptable culture that frustrates service delivery and denies residents their constitutional right to live a dignified life in acquiring basic services such as shelter, clean running water and sanitation.

The following paragraph discusses the respect for the law and compliance with the rule of law as building blocks of ethical norms towards a developmental local government in South Africa.

### 5.1.1. Respect and Compliance with The Rule of Law

Kanyane (2014:163-165) states: "The concept of the rule of law allows the powers of the state to be conditioned by law. The activities of the authorities should conform to particular ethical norms. Those in authority should exercise their power with the trust of the people; an important value that is deficient if not missing in South Africa." Public administration ought to take effect in such a way that the rule of law is sustained. Bayat and Meyer (1994) agree that a mere and least moral conduct by public officials in a democratic society needs regard for the rule of law and nobility of the person. To extend the concept, the rule of law could be an essential constitutional guideline in a genuine democracy.

The rule of law is the oldest constitutional necessity with its root within the English constitutional laws such as the Magna Carta as examined in Chapter 2 of this study, Petition of Rights, Habeas Corpus Act, and the Declaration of Rights, among others. Dicey, a well-known 19th Century English constitutional expert, clarifies the rule of law as the outright supremacy or prevalence of standard law other than the impact of subjective control or a wide optional authority on the power of the law alone. English men are ruled by the law and rebuffed by the very law itself (Gildenhuys and Knipe, 2000). Golembiewski and Gibson (1983:227) argue that "one legacy of our western political heritage is a high regard for the law. The rule of law, in that context, does not tolerate any situation, which is *ultra vires*. Respect for compliance with the rule of law could therefore be a solution to the current prevailing corruption." This implies that the status must be strengthened to run the show and discipline the culprits, which calls for the use of a "carrot and a stick" approach. Codes of conduct are accessible in particular nations to debilitate corruption.

In France, the Penal Code notices conflict of interest (Article 432-12 and 13); misappropriation of public funds (Article 432-10); theft, predisposition, segregation (Articles 225-1 to 4); and partiality in granting contracts or appointing responsibilities (article 432-14) as well as encroachment of individual flexibility. Procedures must be devised to maintain a strategic distance from such offences. Strikingly in France, a public official who plans change a job inside a specific organisation he served previously as senior or had a dealing with for more than five years must inform his seniors. After consulting a committee on ethics, permission may be allowed or denied.

African public officials could learn from this approach instead of transferring a problem to another public entity or government without having gone through the disciplinary process and the outcome clears the affected official. This is a prevalent South African scenario of abusing the maxim “innocent until proven guilty”. Public and private officials resign and get appointed before the disciplinary process resumes or concluded. African states and South Africa can attempt to come out of their prefectures and start to consider profoundly the morals and professionalism within the working environment.

In South Africa, new thinking in professionalising the public is yet expected since the dawn of the new dispensation, its success depends on the political will to deal with corruption and support of the Chapter 9 Institutions and existing constitutionally-established state institutions specifically established to deal with corruption like the HAWKS, National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) etc. and the application of legislations e.g. Promotion of Access Information Act 2 of 2000 (PAIA); Promotion of Administration of Justice Act 3 OF 2000 (PAJA); Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act 12 of 2004 (PRECCA), Financial Intelligence Centre Act 38 of 2011 (FICA) dealing with white-collar crime in South Africa. The Criminal Procedure Act 51 of 1977 (CPA) administers methods and related things in criminal procedures. Section 18 of the CPA states that the right to prosecute any offence will slip by after 20 years from the time of the offence, but for certain offences, such as killing, rape or treason. White-collar violations would not drop into the list of offences that surpass 20-year period in terms of which prosecution must be instituted. In this regard, the CPA defines an offence as “an act or omission that is punishable by law. Section 332 of the CPA contains express provisions deeming certain acts and omissions of the directors and ‘servants’ (i) when exercising their powers or performing their duties (ii) undertaken in furtherance of the company’s interests are attributed to the company the purposes of imposing criminal liability on the company for any statutory or common-law offences.”

The researcher highlighted these pieces of legislation to raise awareness about the responsibility and ethical expectations, and accountability leaders on both public and private sector carry in discharging their duties and public expectations, to see perpetrators being held to account and be punished by these laws. Both a company and individuals involved may be prosecuted for the same crime for offences committed while they were employed (under their watch).



It is for this reason that the acts, omission, intentions, purposes and knowledge of certain individuals within the company are regarded. Leaders of SoEs, Municipalities, Government departments and their officials are expected to exercise caution and best practice in line with the prescripts of Section 195 of the Constitution for the best interest of the public, residents in the case of the municipality and fiduciary duties of directors in terms of Section 76 of Companies Act 71 of 2008, signed into law on 8 April 2009 and operative from 1 May 2011 to act in good faith in the best interest of the company and the country at large rather than personal interest.

As Chinua Achebe (2020) posits: “The damage done in one year can sometimes take 10-20 years to repair.” The findings of AG’s report - current and finalised Commissions of Inquiry - have cost harm to the country’s economy and public funds all because of the decisions made by leaders or officials in both public and private organisations, including municipalities and the organisation under study - the CoT.

The National Executive Committee (NEC) of SALGA resolved to communicate directly with Mayors and Accounting Officers of municipalities who have transgressed in terms of the relevant legislation to demand accountability, call on municipalities to develop audit response plans that are to be monitored quarterly, conduct skills assessment in Municipal Finance units and for Senior Managers to be subjected to professional bodies in their profession to oversee their professional conduct.

SALGA further called upon law enforcement agencies to act expeditiously on their investigations as they relate to maladministration and called for the political parties to hold their employees accountable. The legal framework may serve as a powerful instrument to fight corruption. The law alone is not a panacea to resolve corruption. It requires a sum total of strong governance, political willingness, application of the nicely crafted organisational values, and leadership behaviour in leading by example of high moral compass to fight corruption (Kanyane, 2014).

Now that respect and compliance with the rule of law has been discussed, the research findings of the study are further discussed.

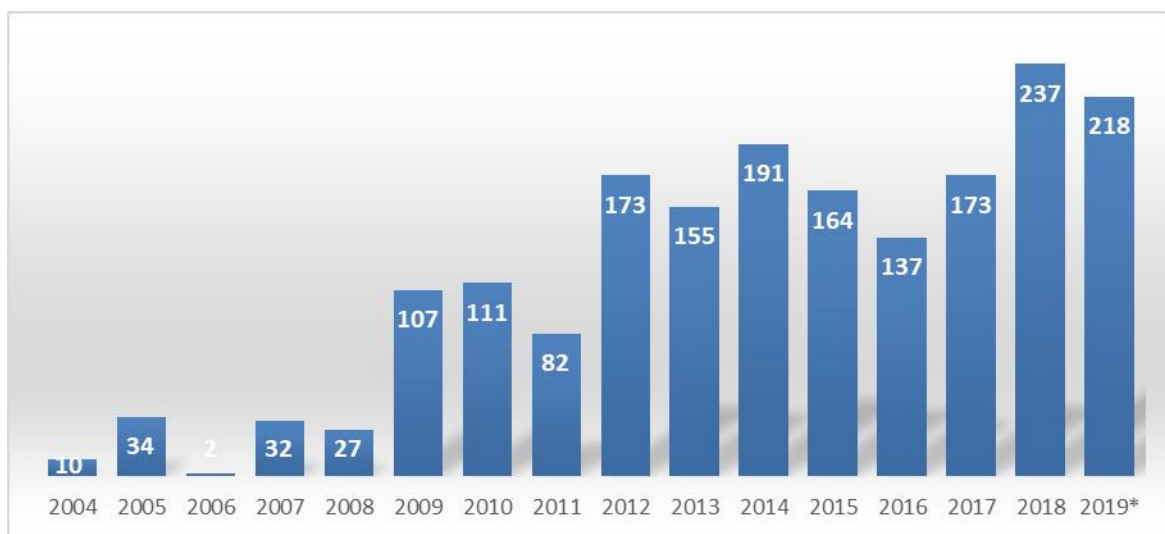
## **5.6. DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS**

The results of both organisational culture and service delivery questionnaires administered within the City of Tshwane (CoT) as part of the Public Administration have assisted with the rationale behind confirming the research objectives. The findings revealed that there was a correlation between organisational culture and service delivery in the CoT. The research findings in the organisation under study - CoT, did not only show the correlation between culture and service delivery but also an impact of culture on organisational performance and quality of service. The findings revealed that the role of strong leadership behaviour and the promotion of organisational values ought to be emphasised in achieving excellent service quality through giving support to employees to enable them to achieve organisational goals and objectives. Also, see Chapter 3 for a discussion on the relationship between organisational culture and service delivery. The findings further revealed that organisational culture predicted service delivery. Precisely, organisational culture predicted 74% of the variance of the service culture. A deduction could, thus, be made that CoT needed to pay attention to these additional levels when addressing the satisfaction levels of its employees in attempting to improve on the rate of the overall performance of the organisation.

The above is further confirmed by the results of the 2018/19 Employee Satisfaction Survey in the CoT, which revealed among others that Support and Respect by senior officials scored low - 50.36 and 47.52, respectively. Further, an incentive to reward good performance was at 47.25 (Bureau of Market Research (Pty) Ltd, University of South Africa/CoT, 2019:25-26). A similar employee satisfaction survey was conducted in the CoT by the same company in 2011, with an overall score of 60.72 points and the 2018/19 score showed a slight decline of 59.58 points. This is a critical environment that requires urgent intervention by the leadership of CoT. These results and the results of the current study indicated that organisational culture in the CoT was on a downward stream. It could be deduced that organisational service orientation affected service performance and its influence on service quality and client loyalty. Service delivery might be used in a management process as a concept for service delivery assessment. Moreover, culture also provided a framework for service organisation improvement. The impact of organisational culture on service delivery organisational performance and quality of service in the CoT was visible.

Mafora (2009:1) claims that “despite the many efforts on the part of local government to improve service delivery, local governments have experienced ongoing protest marches and riots and uprisings, arguably against the slow pace of service delivery.” Therefore, the researcher further discusses the outward reaction or response of the residents who are affected by the prevailing culture and its impact of service delivery by looking at the emerging trends of service delivery protests in South African municipalities.

Figure 5.7 underneath depicts main service delivery protests by year from 2004 to 2019.



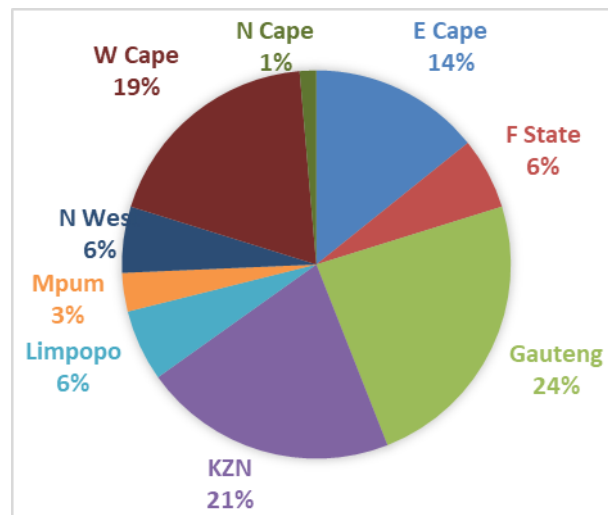
**Figure 5.7:** Major Service delivery protests by year (2004 –2019). Source: Municipal IQ Municipal Hotspots Monitor

According to MunicipallQ (2019), in spite of the fact that 2019 recorded a noteworthy number of service delivery protests, particularly within the first few months of the year, this took a turn after May’s general elections, bringing the yearly count behind 2018’s (see Figure 9 above). In spite of unfavourable economic pointers, service delivery protests subsided essentially between October and December 2019. Kevin Allan (2019:2) of Municipal IQ argues: “While the relative lull in service delivery protests does not mean that all is well in local government, communities appear not to take their unhappiness to the streets as frequently as they did around general elections.”

Municipal IQ (2019:2) further claims that “Gauteng remains the most prominent site of service delivery protests, followed by unusually prominent protest activity in KwaZulu-

Natal and the Western Cape. The Eastern Cape fell slightly in prominence, with the North West, Northern Cape and Mpumalanga also receding. The Free State remained relatively static in its contribution to protest levels, while Limpopo was slightly more conspicuous than usual.”

Figure 5.8 below shows service delivery protests by province in 2019.



**Figure 5.8:** Service delivery protests by province in 2019. Source: Municipal IQ Municipal Hotspots Monitor, January – September 2019

According to Karen Heese, Economist at Municipal IQ (2019:3), “It may be possible for 2018 to keep the record for numbers of service delivery protests. There appears to be an opportunity to channel community engagement through democratic processes (like ward committees, petition processes and community meetings) to avert protests. With a challenging year likely to be ahead for local government, councillors and administrations must work collectively to ensure service delivery and consolidate this apparent goodwill.” Service delivery protest is a person’s constitutional right to housing as enshrined in the Bill of Rights. These second-generation rights, according to Koma (2016:31), “strive for improvement of the socio-economic conditions of the individual.” He sets that the said socio-economic rights are interested in the government’s commitment to exercise a dynamic role in giving certain fundamental goods and services in case it has the means to do so. There is a lack of responsiveness and responsibility to communities, and municipalities are incapable of conveying essential services.

Naidoo (2010) alludes to the continuous dissents by communities in reaction to poor service delivery. The constitutional and lawful premise of public administration presents another challenge to expectant, proactive and customer-oriented administration. It says that the duties and obligations of public administrators are decided by constitutional provisions and not by clients. Public leaders must not be spurred to require superfluous risks and break endorsed rules and constitutional provisions by showing anticipatory, proactive and customer-oriented leadership that may risk their organisations. As argued by Samier (2005:82): “By the introduction of NPM principles, the three “Es” - economy, efficiency and effectiveness have replaced the three “Cs” of traditional administration conduct, code of ethics and culture.” The essential intellectual root of the market approach to changing the public sector is the conviction in the productivity of markets as the instrument for designating assets within a society (Peters, 2001:25). In Naidoo (2010)’s views, “the problems of poor service delivery need to be addressed through effective leadership.”

The researcher in this study believes that based on the above discussion, it is important to revisit the research questions and objectives of the study.

## **5.7. REVISITING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND OBJECTIVES**

This study used a model that showed a direct link between culture and performance that elevated the concept of organisational culture in the South African bureaucratic municipal environment. It is therefore important to revisit the research questions and later the objectives of the study. The research questions that guided this study were:

- a) What are the conceptual frameworks for organisational culture and service delivery?
- b) How does organisational culture influence service delivery in the City of Tshwane?
- c) Which challenges of organisational culture are experienced in the South African municipalities with specific reference to the City of Tshwane Municipality?
- d) How can organisational culture and service delivery in the City of Tshwane be measured?
- e) Which recommendations can be proposed to use organisational culture to improve service delivery in the City of Tshwane?

The study further aimed to provide the readers and Public Administration scholars with statistical evidence to support this relationship. Van der Post et al. (1998:30) remind us that there is not much evidence written about this relationship between organisational culture and service delivery. Not only is it important to revisit the research questions, but also the objectives of the study to establish whether they were achieved or not. The research objectives in this quantitative and qualitative oriented research were used because of their explicit nature. They were formulated in such a manner that could be falsified or rejected (Mouton and Marais, 1996). The research objectives had to be formulated regarding the relationship between organisational culture and service delivery to allow the testing of these two variables. The research objectives for this study were to:

- Examine the conceptual frameworks of organisational culture and service delivery;
- Examine the influence of organisational culture on service delivery in City of Tshwane Municipality;
- Determine the organisational culture and service delivery challenges in the City of Tshwane Municipality;
- Explore how organisational culture in the City of Tshwane Municipality can be measured; and
- Suggest recommendations on how organisational culture can be used to improve service delivery in the City of Tshwane Municipality.

Now that the research objectives have been reintroduced, this gives precedence to checking how data collection strategy was used in this research, which assisted the researcher in answering the research questions and objectives of the study.

## **5.8. CONFIRMATION OR REJECTION OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The results of both organisational culture and service delivery questionnaires administered within the CoT as part of the Public Administration have assisted with the rationale behind confirming the research objectives. The study argued that there was a correlation between organisational culture and service delivery in the CoT. It could be certainly asserted that the results of this study had confirmed the objectives as presented in Chapter 1. Therefore, the study validated the propositions that (1) organisational culture has a direct influence on service delivery and service quality and (2) has an impact on organisational performance. The findings further confirmed

the validity and reliability of the measurement instruments used in this study as described in Chapter 4. It could be assuredly proclaimed that the measurement was universal and could be operationalised by being applied in specific cultures, including Public Administration. Confirming the objectives of this study allows for the provision of, to the readers and Public Administration scholars, lessons learnt from undertaking this study.

## **5.9. LESSONS FROM THE FINDINGS**

The process of this research project presented various lessons, but only a few were worth noting. The following five major lessons are worth a discussion.

- There are numerous definitions of the term “culture”. Various scholars have attempted to provide a universal definition of culture, but scholars do not agree on such to date. Having said that, there appears to be a general agreement on a definition provided by Edgar Schein, who is regarded as the father of organisational culture. Schein defines culture concerning its relevance to service delivery. It was, therefore, necessary to adopt a definition that was closer to a culture prevalent in the South African context.
- An understanding of what service delivery is and how it relates to service quality and excellence was achieved.
- The role played by organisational leadership in influencing organisational culture, service, and the quality of service and excellence through adherence to policies and procedures and employees was emphasised throughout this study.
- The role of employees as the central element in the strategic plans and objectives of the organisation. Also, how they are affected or influenced by organisational culture in their performance formed the basis of a better understanding of the relationship between organisational culture and service delivery.
- A crucial lesson for managers and organisational leadership is that ignoring employees’ behaviour and focusing only on the results, e.g. employee satisfaction, diversity and employee retention may negatively impact on the overall organisational performance.

## 5.10. RECOMMENDATIONS

This study primarily recommends that the City of Tshwane (CoT) as a service organisation needs strong ethical, accountable leadership. The kind of leadership that will not only stress excellent service to residents of CoT and other municipalities in Gauteng Province but also management that will walk the talk and live the values of the organisation they lead and manage. Schneider, Briefs and Guzzo (1996) explain that there is a need within any service orientated organisation for management to communicate new service values and beliefs needed in changing daily service practices and procedures, imparting knowledge, skill and guiding employee activity on “how things are done around here”.

Schneider, Salvaggio and Subirats (2002) further recommend that the organisation should also focus on employees’ shared perceptions of the policies, practices and procedures that are rewarded, supported and expected in meeting the said standard of service to clients. Furthermore, the organisation should also have an employee retention strategy and programmes that will be implemented, monitored and reviewed as part of skills development and career ladder. A focus on diversity as part of the transformation process needs attention as well. It will assist in developing employees from diverse backgrounds that will add value to the organisation. We have seen from previous chapters that there has been a change in public sector administration. This change has presented a distinctive approach to management within the public sector because it tries to bring about change. So too by implication should leadership competencies be adjusted in terms of this change. Taylor and Morse (2011:5) claim that “the study of leadership and leadership competencies is often considered to span all organisations and sectors. One only has to peruse literature to realise that dozens, if not hundreds, of leadership competencies, are described. It is impractical, if not impossible, to focus on dozens of leadership competencies.” How can we understand leadership competencies in the organisational world of today and tomorrow? Terry et al. (2004) suggest that there are a few important pointers that can be utilised to determine which of the leadership aptitudes are the foremost pivotal to the organisation. An audit of the strategic plan of the organisation will uncover the key drivers for achieving predetermined results in the future. Often a skills audit revealed that there was a significant gap in certain key competencies required to deliver future success (Terry and Boninelli, 2004).



Typically, success in the future prompt for a distinctive set of abilities and skills than in the past. They include that nothing remains the same in a fast-changing environment.

The balanced scorecard can regularly give ideas of the skills set required to convey success. Adjusting the choice of leadership competencies closely to the required yields contained in the balanced scorecard can act as a guide to which leadership competencies the foremost to the organisation. The values of a company ought to give a sense as to what is imperative in the leadership competencies. The previous section suggests that leadership must adjust to changing orders, expectations, and climates. The reforms within the public sector have brought with them a better approach to doing business. Leaders are hence anticipated to grasp a diverse approach to present-day organisations, requiring a distinctive set of competencies. Jones et al. (2012:10) state that leaders develop in organisations notwithstanding the work title. Leaders may be managers and managers may be leaders, but it is evident that the competencies related to management as opposed to leadership can be exceptionally distinctive. Jones et al. (2012:10) add: "A winning corporate strategy has to include both skills sets in its leadership ranks to be successful. Balance is key; lopsided skill clusters do not lead to success."

## **5.11. CONCLUSION**

To help lay out the findings of the study, this chapter emphasised the context in which this project was undertaken by revisiting the research questions and objectives, which helped to justify the findings. The major finding of this study was that there was a strong correlation between organisational culture and service delivery in the City of Tshwane (CoT). The chapter managed to answer the research questions, which stated that culture had an impact on organisational performance in the CoT and that culture influenced the quality of service and residence loyalty. The chapter has also presented the lessons from undertaking this study. As with other studies, the recommendations for management and the scholarship at large were presented. From the above recommendations, other research projects can be ignited. This section also argued that transformational leadership incorporated cognition and emotional intelligence while transcendental leadership incorporated cognition, emotional intelligence and spiritual intelligence. The above definitions and schools of leadership thought suggested that leaders ought to understand the roles they need to perform in situations

of rapid change, be able to shape agile employees and understand that leadership is a strategic issue. It has become increasingly clear that the 21st century demands new kinds of leaders with new competencies. The competencies that may have worked in a more stable, predictable environment would be inadequate in the new era of uncertainty and rapid change, where it is difficult to define the problem and even more difficult to engineer possible solutions. Taylor and Morse (2011:5) state that “while traditional models of leadership development help clarify the challenges of leading within organisational boundaries, the demands associated with working across organisational and sectoral boundaries to address shared challenges requires new leadership paradigms. Connected to this are how we define public leaders and associated leadership competencies.” Further, Taylor and Morse claim that the transformation of government centred problem solving to boundary spanning collaborative governance illustrates the challenge of leading in the 21st century. Complex problems and resource interdependence highlight the inadequacies of antiquated organisational structures and the need for new forms of leadership. Simic (1998:49) reminds us that “the success in realising organisational changes means that the key people in an organisation, namely its leaders, must develop a set of appropriate skills and attributes that will enable the desired changes. The skills are found in the contemporary leadership approaches suited to modern organisations.” The findings suggested that the preferred leadership approach within the CoT pointed to the transformational paradigm, but that, to a lesser degree, also incorporated elements of transactional leadership. According to Sarros et al. (2008:154): “A leader with a vision creates a culture of change that facilitates the adoption of innovation and continuous improvement.” If the CoT indeed required the transformational leadership approach that encouraged individual attention, motivation and intellectual stimulation, the research findings would hopefully offer some indication that strides were made to move the organisational culture from being purely bureaucratic with an emphasis on just the transactional. The leadership needs to address critical findings of the current study and recommendations of other surveys conducted as they border around similar organisational culture and service delivery and performance through its employees.

The discoveries further affirmed the need for a contingency leadership theory, given its adaptability and winning circumstances within the CoT. The approach would be pertinent to the leadership that might be more steady and inventive with components

of NPM embedded in today's local government. This culture depends on internally produced thoughts to make speedy choices but persistently accumulates data from the environment to adjust. This sort of culture is driven by leaders that are results-orientated, that offer consistent incitement and guarantee that there are modern and exciting challenges. This culture is characterised by leaders who have a clear vision of organisation goals and focus on the achievement of specific targets (Wallach, 1983). This research underpins that transformational idealised impact and mental incitement were present inside the CoT. These components were pivotal in driving change and bringing about the versatility related to the inventive culture. The innovative or transformational environment support advancement and open discussion about issues and concepts so that challenges become opportunities instead of threats; they advance adaptability and flexibility. Based on the results of this study, the researcher concluded that the selection of a service strategy that is informed by a culture model would lead to progressed service quality and improved employee fulfilment. Of the two dimensions measured - culture and service delivery and residents who are clients, centring on service is more effective in terms of explaining varieties in the service quality measurement of tangibles, unwavering quality, affirmation, responsiveness and compassion.

## CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

### 6.1. INTRODUCTION

This section succinctly captures the essence of this research project, by first rounding off the research methodology adopted, paving the way to a revisit of an analysis of both the statistical and qualitative data. Deductions drawn from the findings are abridged in the form of a conclusion, taking both the organisational and academic point of view. The results of the findings will be interpreted, allowing the researcher to speculate and discourse on the inferences made. The chapter also discusses how the objectives and questions of the research correlate with the literature review sequentially and logically. Organisational culture and leadership found prominence in the research specifically in a bureaucratic municipal setting in South Africa. Schein (1997:15) says: "Leaders first create cultures when they create organisations. Once the culture exists, it determines the criteria for leadership and, consequently, who will or will not be a leader." It is important to take cognisance of the conservativeness reflected in beliefs, values and assumptions embedded in the organisational culture, which can hinder efforts to bring about effective leadership development. Bass (1985) contends that in creating an organisation, organisational culture is the "stick" that holds the organisation together as a source of personality. However, over time the organisational culture can also be a limitation against presenting inventive and modern approaches to leadership. Leaders confront the challenge of driving organisations amid a time of significant change. The research contended that today's changing environment keeping up the status quo would render organisations incapable to respond to the demands within the environment for it is only through development that change can transpire. The research explored the research problem as discussed (see Chapter 1, section 1.2) *"most of the problems confronting leaders can be traced to their inability to analyse and evaluate organisational culture. The public often views public service as lacking a service delivery culture. This problem is directed to the municipalities since they are responsible for directly providing service to the public."*

The study provides the theoretical and practical exposition of organisational culture, leadership, service delivery and challenges facing municipalities in South Africa, particularly the CoT in Gauteng Province - the economic powerhouse of the country.

The study was influenced by the researcher's interest in understanding what had influenced culture change in the provision of service taking into account the constitutional requirement and delivering the electoral promises to the residence. Furthermore, the study also was set out to explore and contribute to the existing scholarship on how the municipalities post-1994 dispensation are addressing the historical challenges of providing service in South African municipalities.

The study could not be ignored as the challenges stemmed from a highly politicised National Party (NP) of the apartheid system, which was racially based on separate development and enshrined in their policies in the provision of basic service (see Chapter 2).

The study highlighted the relevance of organisational culture in a democratic state. The researcher discussed that organisations had their history, behaviour, communication process, interpersonal relations, reward system, decision-making, philosophy and myths that, as a whole, constitute culture. Moreover, culture is expressed in a given space and a particular place from which receives influences, as discussed in Chapter 3, section 3.10.

The constitutional provisions for the provision of service by municipalities were discussed in Section 152(1) (see Chapter 3, section 3.22), to promote social and economic development, to promote a safe and healthy environment, and to encourage the involvement of communities and community organisations in the matters of local government.

In a rundown, the conclusion gives a comprehensive foundation and rationale for the study. The research problem aims and objectives of the study are presented as well as the confinements of the study that shaped the premise of this study (see chapter 1). This concluding chapter is aimed at presenting an overview of the preceding chapters, propose areas for further research and to close off the study. The study recognises that despite endeavours to realise the study objectives, other studies may still be conducted to produce more knowledge about the influence of organisational culture on service delivery in a municipal setting. It is, hence, logical to begin by returning to the research questions that this study sought to address.

## **6.2. REVISITING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

Can we clearly see the influence of organisational culture on service delivery within the City of Tshwane Municipality? In the event that there is, to what degree does this contribute towards service delivery? The research questions were revisited in Chapter 5, section 5.7 and have helped the researcher to centre his study. From the research questions, research objectives were formulated.

## **6.3. AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The research objectives were defined to explore the relationship between organisational culture and service delivery in a bureaucratic organisation, like the CoT. It allowed for the testing of these two factors. Also, to investigate this relationship in determining how these factors influence service delivery. The objectives presented (see Chapter 1, section 1.4) were tended to the setting of the latest and classical literature highlighted in Chapter 3.

## **6.4. SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS**

Before deliberating on the main findings, it is imperative to outline the key issues that emanated from the different chapters.

**Chapter 1** laid out the research problem, preparatory presumptions, objectives and research methodology that was utilised. Considering the issues experienced by local municipalities, the elemental role of leadership in encouraging and driving change interventions was accentuated. The chapter has given a relevant foundation of the need for a distinctive administration required to cultivate organisational culture change for successful service delivery. The preliminary literature review underscored the need for a distinctive leadership to steer change in public sector organisations. Historically, public sector organisations such as local government were defined by value-based leadership styles that worked in an in-adaptive culture, reflecting dormancy, lethargy to citizens' needs and interests, and over accentuation on frameworks, processes and practices. That was the essential reason for looking at the CoT as a municipality that has tested approaches to leadership in the hope of cultivating culture change.

**Chapter 2** examined the establishments of public administration since the discipline is an extraordinary field of activity characterised by identifiable foundations, which can serve as directives and value standards concurring with the activities of those in public employment. The nature of public administration was also laid out since customarily public administration is seen as the arm required in fulfilling legislative objectives. The chapter examined and talked about the different public sector changes set out since the early 1980s. Public sector reforms can be categorised as competitive and post-competitive. The New Public Management (NPM) concept advances the public sector use of private sector management procedures (see Chapter 2, section 2.5).

The normal bureaucratic or in-adaptive culture was highlighted as one that centred on deflecting threat by entirely following rules and methods; regarding the views of politicians as the specialists; and overseeing inputs into the bureaucracy. The chapter highlighted the influence of the British colonial system in South African Public Administration, *systems established in the colonies did not acknowledge the traditions and customs of the indigenous population. It did not cater to the specific norms and values of each tribal authority which existed. What was experienced was a mere duplication of the British system* (see chapter 2, section 2.2). In this way, the colonial framework did not embody justness, equality and effective service delivery. Racially and paternalism-based practises were regularly presented to the burden of the inborn populace. Subsequently, public sector directors would have trouble embracing and grasping modern ideal models of thinking about their environment and how to address the issues of service delivery, among others, in the 21st century. The theory adopted in the study was discussed in this chapter and was backed by literature and *“finding contingency or situational theory approach; therefore, examines the relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness in specific situations* (see Chapter 2, section 2.7). *Societal values and norms are rendered supreme in the constitution thus they do not stand apart from government and administration”* (see Chapter 2, section 2.3.1.2).

The chapter highlighted the purpose and the scope of public administration since the study of Public Administration is an area occupied with the administrative functions, structure and roles of government as well as the study of institutions of government, which is the fundamental premise from which studies in this field must coherently take root. The capacities of public administration were moreover examined in detail in this

chapter because they are the basic building pieces within the practice of any public institution. No institution can come to be or grow without these building blocks. Public administration is the lifeblood of all government institutions as well as conventional authority structures. It will be inconceivable for conventional leaders to render services without regarding the functions of public administration.

**Chapter 3** discussed the literature review in this research to set out the most appropriate definition or universally accepted definition of organisational culture as a concept and to discuss the key aspects of organisational culture. Internationally acclaimed authors in organisational culture, such as Schein, enjoyed prominence in this literature review. The highlight of the literature review was that organisational culture was universally defined as a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered or developed by a group as it learnt to cope with its problems of external and internal integration. Such definitions were achieved from the literature presented as a concept in the public sector and discussed the key aspects thereof. Understanding organisational culture is of specific interest because of the transformation within the public sector. The definition worked sufficiently to be considered substantial and is hence instructed to new members as the right way to perceive, think and feel in connection to those issues. The literature examined the organisational culture challenges in South African municipalities, *“the aim of democratising society and growing the economy inclusively is primarily realised through a responsive, accountable, effective and efficient local government system that is part of a developmental state”* (see chapter3, section 3.22).

The conceptual frameworks of organisational culture on service delivery formed the thrust of the research in finding out the existing conceptual frameworks for these two variables in addressing objective 1 of the study which is: *What are the conceptual frameworks for organisational culture and service delivery?* (see Chapter 3, section 3.1). The literature review also deliberated on the influence of organisational culture and service delivery in the CoT through documents, reports supported by literature in exploring the objective 2 of the study (see chapter 3, section 3.13): *“To examine the influence of organisational culture on service delivery in City of Tshwane Municipality.”* Moreover, the chapter looked at organisational culture challenges in municipalities. In the midst of these challenges, basic institutional formative issues must also be recognised. These issues relate to the particular leadership aptitudes



that are required to progress service delivery in local government (see chapter 3, section 3.13), as a response to objective 3: “*Which challenges of organisational culture are experienced in the South African Municipalities with specific reference to the City of Tshwane Municipality?*” Different culture models were extensively discoursed, including the measurement of organisational culture which responded to the objective 4 of the study: “*To explore how organisational culture in the City of Tshwane Municipality can be measured*” (see Chapter 1, section 1.4). A deduction was made that in dealing with organisational culture, an organisation is viewed in its totality, comprising living systems. This implies that when you "meet" an organisation, you are encountering its culture.

The other aspect that was defined in this study was service delivery and its relationship with organisational culture. The relevance and importance of service delivery to the CoT were thoroughly elaborated on in Chapter 3, section 3.11. The chapter revealed that there was no clear cut definition of service delivery, but there appeared to be a consensus on a generic definition, which originated from the constitutional prescripts in Public Administration from a South African context and architectural sciences. Service delivery challenges were acknowledged by the CoT and interventions to address these challenges were noted: “*the CoT has begun a process of implementing tailored corrective improvement plans to address the impediments that derail the full achievement of the targeted deliverables*” (see Chapter 3, section 3.23). The study also stressed the importance of influencing change in municipalities through leadership by stating that in effecting change, “*leadership should not only focus on visible organisational structures and processes in the organisation, for example, pictures on the walls, office setup, ceremonies, it should also focus on the underlying values, strategies, goals and philosophies which represent the deeper part of an organisation’s culture*” (see Chapter 3, section 3.12).

Service delivery was thus defined as a design paradigm that specifies the creation of automation logic in the form of service that is applied as a strategic goal in developing a service-oriented architecture. The literature review has assisted the researcher to adopt the most appropriate organisational culture model and measurement techniques relevant to the study.

**Chapter 4** reflected on the methodological approach to measure the two variables of organisational culture on service delivery and how they influence each other. The research design of this study was grounded in both quantitative and qualitative techniques. The qualitative method was distinguished as suitable since it empowered the study of phenomena in their normal settings and permitted the researcher to form a sense of and decipher phenomena in terms of implications individuals bring to them. In other words, the approach encouraged a more profound understanding of the type of leadership and organisational culture present through examining the perceptions of different people over a wide range of standards, scenarios and values. Successfully, questionnaires were the most instruments utilised for information collection for this study. In particular, leadership questionnaire to accumulate data regarding their understanding of the organisational culture that exists within the CoT, city's mandate, strategic objectives and plans. Furthermore, the leadership, culture, service delivery challenges and change were explored. The quantitative technique was also incorporated into the study to present and interpret various responses. The rate, considering the manual nature of the survey administration, was fairly covered considering the challenges of Covid-19 Regulations on face-to-face interviews and handling of hard copy documents, which were overcome through alternative methods (see Chapter 5, section 5.2). Consideration of findings cannot necessarily be generated across all branch offices of the CoT, however, it is limited to identified departments (see Chapter 4, section 4.6.3) within the CoT. The chosen research design assisted the researcher to obtain an in-depth understanding of the experienced organisational culture in the CoT municipality, *"the researcher has to select specific approaches which guide the study to achieve its objectives that guide the study"* (see Chapter 4, section 4.3).

**Chapter 5** presented a critical discussion of the findings emanating from the quantitative and qualitative questionnaires. The discussion and analysis of the discoveries were presented in terms of the transformational leadership components that took after Schein's Model of Organisational Culture, utilising the dependable and chosen instruments of examination with inductive reasoning and interpretation. The study effectively recognised that managers working in local government displayed transformational leadership traits and practices as seen by their devotees and themselves. The study uncovered, in any case, that the practices of the leaders

studied were both transactional and transformational. There appeared to be a blended or mixed approach within the CoT. The chapter further highlighted the importance of integrity, ethical leadership and cost of decision making by recent and current reports, *“the law alone is not a panacea to resolve corruption. It requires a sum total of strong governance, political willingness, application of the nicely crafted organisational values, and leadership behaviour in leading by example of high moral compass to fight corruption”* (see Chapter 5, section 5.5.1). Moreover, the study identified the bureaucratic organisational culture as dominant in the CoT.

Understanding the above summary of the chapters prompts for a discussion on the synopsis of the findings.

## **6.5. A SYNOPSIS OF THE STATISTICAL FINDINGS**

A brief analysis of the statistical data is worth noting to lay a foundation for the findings. The study was quantitative and qualitative in nature. The findings of this research indicated that the correlation = 0.85956 and was significant at 0.05, implying that there was a statistical correlation between service delivery and organisational culture. That is, if the organisational culture score increases, the service delivery also increases or vice versa. The regression analysis is significant - the p (value) is > 0.00. This indicated that organisational culture predicted service delivery. In other words, organisation culture predicted 74% of the variance of the service culture. From the findings of this study, it could be concluded that CoT as an organisation needed to focus its attention on addressing the satisfaction levels of its employees, which was regarded as a contributing factor to the overall performance of the organisation. As such, it can be re-emphasised that the results of the questionnaire had successfully confirmed the objectives of the study.

Conclusively, in describing the relationship between organisational culture and service delivery, organisational service delivery affected service performance and its influence on service quality and client loyalty. Service delivery might be used in a management process as a tool for service organisation assessment. While the above results are acknowledged, the study managed to yield some important recommendations for both managers and scholars.

## 6.6. RECOMMENDATIONS

The results of both organisational culture and service delivery questionnaires administered within the CoT as part of the Public Administration have assisted with the rationale behind confirming the research objectives. The study argues that there is a correlation between organisational culture and service delivery in the CoT. Primarily, this study recommends that the CoT, as a service organisation, needs strong leadership. The leadership that will not only stress excellent service to the clientele by employees but also have management walk the talk. Schneider, Briefs and Guzzo (1996) explain that there is a need within any service-orientated organisation for management that will communicate new service values and beliefs needed in changing daily service practices and procedures, imparting knowledge, skill and guiding employee activity on “how things are done around here”. Negative subcultures end up frustrating the overall organisational culture that will impact on service delivery. Therefore, this study recommends that there should be consequence management for transgressions of the laws and procedures in the CoT. The leadership in the CoT should be vigilant and have a zero-tolerance approach to non-compliance to governance issues. Sebedi (2012) further states that managers should live the values and culture of the organisation if they are to lead. The study confirmed that the need for training of employees and leaders could enhance effectiveness and efficiency in the promotion of municipal service delivery. To reinforce the culture of studying in different fields in municipalities, the study recommends that training such as public administration, leadership, finance and commerce is critical. Moreover, the study proposes provisions for formal training of the existing and future traditional leaders at the tertiary level in matters of public administration to eliminate the tensions of a leadership role with the municipal council.

As in any research study, there were limitations to this study. Revisiting the limitations, which can also be used by other researchers to focus their future studies, remains important to chart a way forward around the phenomena being investigated.

## 6.7. REINSTATING THE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The six limitations that may have influenced the results of the study were:

- The service delivery questionnaire is modern and has not been broadly validated. As a portion of the research design, the researcher has diminished the confinement by testing and approving the questionnaire prior to official administering;
- The limitation of the empirical study is the sample or populace group. All respondents were from the same organisation and branch office, which might have an impact on their perceptions due to its practices and other components that may exist/prevail;
- The survey used in the empirical study was a cross-sectional design, which included getting the results at first attempt. The researcher opines that a longitudinal study, conducted over time, would be vital for determining the impact of changing culture and the service delivery in a long run;
- Both questionnaires were based on the perceptions of the research topic and, therefore, might increase the chances of subjectivity when completing the questionnaires;
- The researcher limited the literature to the discussions on culture and service delivery to the theoretical relationship between these variables. This was deemed necessary to determine the theoretical relationship between culture and service delivery;
- The population for the study was limited to around 470 employees within shared services and selected departments, and the study and sampling was limited to 250 employees.

While the above limitations are acknowledged, the study managed to yield some important suggestions for further research for managers and scholars.

## **6.8. CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY**

The research is significant to the leadership of the CoT as the area of study as it successfully identified the perceived leadership approach as well as a prevalent organisational culture. This is important in the face of driving change within the bureaucratic local government setting. Municipalities have a responsibility to be more responsive to residents' needs by offering quality service that is effective and accountable, as is strives to meet the service standards and value for money.

To achieve these targets, leaders need to have the necessary skills, right behaviours, and knowledge to drive this change in a bureaucratic environment. On the one hand, given the nature of organisational culture and service delivery challenges in municipalities, the research confirmed the need for leaders to adopt contingency theory approach to enhance flexibility and innovation. On the other hand, leaders ought to maintain the ethical standards necessary for quality and accountable service to stakeholders. The results of the study on organisational culture and service delivery can be used as a benchmark for other municipalities intending to embark on change.

The study adds value to the scholarly debate on how organisational culture can be used in transformation and transactional leadership in effecting change in municipalities. The study illuminates the diverse approach of using tenets of Organisational Behaviour like culture to assess performance of a public sector organ like municipality. It further highlights the need for further collaboration and research in this regard. The study found that change in public sector organisations was probably more influenced by a blended leadership paradigm than a transformational paradigm.

Other municipalities could learn from the lessons obtained in this research. The researcher stands to benefit from the experience and the knowledge accumulated through the research process. The study further stated how organisational culture could be measured in a municipal environment. This experience and knowledge may be useful in both a professional context and a personal capacity.

## 6.9. AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

There are several areas for further research on the influence of organisational culture and service delivery in South African municipalities. These are outlined as follows:

- Organisational culture and performance are two sides of the same coin. The study has highlighted the need for the management of existing culture to improve service delivery and meeting the constitutional mandate for the provision of basic services to the historically marginalised residents.
- Management of culture and effective change management strategies during a change in administration and transition can be useful to avoid culture shock that affects performance.
- The study has extensively discussed the importance and the role of leadership in complying with ethical prescripts by municipalities, including the CoT and other SOEs.
- The importance of accountability in leadership and implementation of consequence management can be a useful tool for fostering an ethical culture in the provision of services.
- A comparative exploratory study on two municipalities in different socio-economic contexts to explore perceptions of staff across all occupational categories about the leadership style and organisational culture in those municipalities.
- The quality of work, responses of both questionnaires, the responses and recommendations of the Senior Managers, AG and SALGA's reports and statements regarding the provision of service.
- Contingency theory can assist in operationalising organisational culture with project management practice in fostering a blended and flexible leadership approach while maintaining standards that will support innovation and knowledge management capacity present in the CoT. This is to ensure effective performance monitoring in the provision of service.
- Considering recommendations of surveys and research conducted around organisational culture, it could assist the CoT and other municipalities to improve performance.

## **6.10. CONCLUSION**

The main finding of this study is that there is a strong correlation between organisational culture and service delivery in the City of Tshwane (CoT) Municipality. Arrival at this finding has been achieved by employing both the quantitative and qualitative research techniques. The study cuts across various fields and contributions by these fields have been acknowledged in the broader discussions of this study. The study made inputs and contributions to broaden understanding of the subject of organisational culture and service delivery in a bureaucratic setting like municipalities. The study did not only identify challenges facing municipalities and the CoT but also provided practical solutions that could assist in resolving some of these challenges to improve municipal leadership approach, culture and service delivery.

The study perceives the role of traditional leaders in the advancement of municipal service delivery and has it that such cooperation adds value in redressing municipal service delivery disparities in South Africa. The study affirmed that traditional leaders might add value to municipal service delivery; be that as it may, they do not have access and control over such funds concerning their tribal regions. As such, this study suggests that the traditional leadership legislation declared in KwaZulu-Natal to advantage traditional leaders ought to be ordered in all other eight provinces in South Africa, to clear the current inequalities among traditional leaders (Selepe, 2009). The KwaZulu-Natal provincial legislature enacted the Royal Household Trust Act, No.2 of 2007, and in conjunction with this Act, the KwaZulu-Natal Traditional Leadership and Governance Act, No.5 of 2005, the premier and the members of the Provincial Executive Council have acknowledged the role of traditional leadership in KwaZulu-Natal Province. Traditional leaders are custodians of their tribe in the rural areas, who ought to also benefit from the provision of basic services and infrastructure development. The research was not only aimed at addressing the management of the organisation but also to add value to the scholarship of Public Administration and organisational culture.



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## ANNEXURE A: INTRODUCTORY LETTER FOR DATA COLLECTION

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

School of Economics and Management

Dear Respondent,

### Doctor of Administration in Public Administration Research Project

**Researcher:** Khapane Madute Sebidi [Tel:+2783 7544052](tel:+27837544052)

**Supervisor:** Prof. SM Madue [Tel: 012- 012 346 6589](tel:012-0123466589)/+2782958191

**Acting Head of Department:** Ms MA Mamabolo: [Tel: 015-268 3655](tel:015-2683655)

**Acting Director of School & Co Supervisor:** Prof MP Sebola:

[Tel: 015 268 2424](tel:0152682424)

I, Khapane Madute Sebidi, am a Doctor of Administration in Public Administration student in the School of Economics and Management at the University of Limpopo (UL). You are invited to participate in a research project titled: *THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY, GAUTENG PROVINCE.*

The aim of this study is to examine the extent to which organisational culture influences service delivery within the City of Tshwane Municipality as a public service organisation and to explore this relationship to see how these variables affect service delivery.

Through your participation in a focus group, I hope to understand:

- (i) the conceptual frameworks of organisational culture and service delivery;
- (ii) the organisational culture and service delivery challenges in the City of Tshwane Municipality;
- (iii) the influence of organisational culture on service delivery in City of Tshwane Municipality;
- (iv) how organisational culture in the City of Tshwane Municipality can be measured; and
- (v) suggest recommendations on how organisational culture can be used to improve service delivery in the City of Tshwane Municipality.

The results of the focus group are intended to assist me to contribute to the scholarship and knowledge base of organisational culture and service delivery from a South African

perspective. Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequences. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this focus group.

Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained by the School of Economics and Management, UL. However, as this is a participation in a focus group, please be aware that I cannot assure that other focus group members will retain confidentiality. If you have any questions or concerns about participating in this study, please contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above. The focus group discussion should take you about 1 hour to complete. I hope you will take the time to participate in the focus group.

Sincerely

Researcher \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

*This page is to be retained by the participant*

## ANNEXURE B: CONSENT FORM BY PARTICIPANTS

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

School of Economics and Management

Doctor of Administration in Public Administration Research Project

Researcher: Khapane Sebidi [Tel:+27837544052](tel:+27837544052)

Supervisor: Prof. SM Madue [Tel: 012- 346 6589](tel:012-3466589)/+2782958191

Acting Head of Department: Ms MA Mamabolo [Tel:015-268 3655](tel:015-2683655)

Acting Director of School & Co Supervisor: Prof MP Sebola: [Tel: 015 268 2424](tel:0152682424)

### CONSENT

I \_\_\_\_\_ (full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature of Participant

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

*This page is to be retained by researcher*

## **ANNEXURE C: QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE**

**UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO**

**School of Economics and Management**

**Doctor of Administration in Public Administration Research Project**

**Researcher:** Khapane Madute Sebidi [Tel:+2783 7544052](tel:+27837544052)

**Supervisor:** Prof. SM Madue: [Tel:012- 012 346 6589](tel:0120123466589)/[+2782958191](tel:+2782958191)

**Acting Head of Department:** Ms MA Mamabolo: [Tel 015 268 3655](tel:0152683655)

**Acting Director of School & Co Supervisor:** Prof MP Sebola: [Tel:015 268 2424](tel:0152682424)

**TITLE OF THE STUDY: THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY IN GAUTENG PROVINCE**

### **RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE**

#### **ABOUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE**

##### **Why should I answer this questionnaire?**

It gives you as an employee a chance to provide confidential feedback to your Municipality to let them know how you feel about working at the City of Tshwane.

##### **What will happen to the results?**

The results will be shared with the City of Tshwane's Management and to enable it to understand how its employees feel about working there, and to compare its performance with other Municipalities. Specific issues coming out of the results will be shared by management.

##### **Is my confidentiality guaranteed?**

Yes. All responses remain strictly confidential and your answers will be mixed with those of other respondents. There is no comparison of how any person responded. There are no right or wrong answers. We ask you to give your honest opinions and perceptions when answering questions. Some questions may be based on your experience, current situation, impressions and perceptions. We therefore request you to express your honest opinion and perceptions of your current employer (the City of Tshwane).

## GUIDELINE

Please answer by marking with a tick or shade the appropriate circle.

The following definitions will guide you to complete this questionnaire:

- I. Company/ Organisation: refers to the City of Tshwane
- II. Management: Refers to Leader(s) tasked with the responsibility to provide direction of the organisation and employees, and make decisions
- III. Senior Leadership: refers to the Group Head, Divisional Head, Directors and Senior Managers
- IV. Manager/Team Leader/Supervisor refers to the person to whom you report

<b>SECTION 1. Demographic Information</b>	
These questions assist the researcher to classify results to find general trends. Your answers will not be used to see how any one person answered. Your answers are completely confidential. Please select only one response for each question	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>How long have you worked at City of Tshwane?</b>	
Less than 1 year	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-2 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
3-5 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
6-9 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
10 years or more	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>How long have you been in your current position at the City of Tshwane?</b>	
Less than 1 year	<input type="checkbox"/>
1-2 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
3-5 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
6-9 years	<input type="checkbox"/>
10 years or more	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Are you ...?</b>	
Asian	<input type="checkbox"/>
Black	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coloured	<input type="checkbox"/>
White	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

<b>How old are you?</b>	
Under 19	<input type="checkbox"/>
19-25	<input type="checkbox"/>
26-30	<input type="checkbox"/>
31-35	<input type="checkbox"/>
36-40	<input type="checkbox"/>
41-45	<input type="checkbox"/>
46-50	<input type="checkbox"/>
51-55	<input type="checkbox"/>
56-60	<input type="checkbox"/>
61-65	<input type="checkbox"/>
66 +	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>What is your highest level of education?</b>	
Less than Grade 12 including ABET-Level 4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Grade 12 NQF Level 1	<input type="checkbox"/>
Further Education and Training certificate- NQF Level 5-6	<input type="checkbox"/>
Bachelor's Degree- NQF Level 7	<input type="checkbox"/>
Honours Degree/B. Tech NQF Level 8	<input type="checkbox"/>
Master's Degree, Doctoral and Post-Doctoral degree NQF Level 9/10	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Which category best describes your current position?</b>	
Top Management	<input type="checkbox"/>
Middle Management	<input type="checkbox"/>
Team Leader/Supervisor	<input type="checkbox"/>
Individual Contributor (does not supervise)	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>(others)</b>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>What Business unit are you in?</b>	
<b>SHARED SERVICES</b>	
Human Resources	<input type="checkbox"/>
Corporate Relations and Communications	<input type="checkbox"/>
Facilities and Properties	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enterprise Resource Planning	<input type="checkbox"/>
Business Information Systems	<input type="checkbox"/>

<b>Enforcement and Risk</b>	
Risk Management	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enforcement	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>FINANCE</b>	
Finance	<input type="checkbox"/>
Procurement	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>LEGAL AND POLICY</b>	
Legal and Policy	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>OFFICE OF THE CHIEF EXECUTIVE</b>	
Government Relations	<input type="checkbox"/>
Spatial Integrated Management	<input type="checkbox"/>
Corporate Fleet management	<input type="checkbox"/>
Customer Service	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>OPERATIONS</b>	
ICT Network Management	<input type="checkbox"/>
Governance	<input type="checkbox"/>
SAP Service Delivery	<input type="checkbox"/>
Operations Policies and Standards	<input type="checkbox"/>
Operations support	<input type="checkbox"/>
Small businesses	<input type="checkbox"/>
City of Tshwane service monitoring	<input type="checkbox"/>
Operations Performance Management and Analysis	<input type="checkbox"/>
Events Management	<input type="checkbox"/>
Corporate Administration	<input type="checkbox"/>
other	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>PROCESS AND INFORMATION MANAGEMENT</b>	
Process and Information Management	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>SECTION 2: Organisational Culture in the City of Tshwane;</b>	
<b>Please mark with a cross or tick in the block that best describes your opinion regarding the following:</b>	<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between; align-items: center;"> <div style="text-align: center;">strongly agree</div> <div style="text-align: center;">agree</div> <div style="text-align: center;">Neither Agree</div> <div style="text-align: center;">Disagree</div> <div style="text-align: center;">strongly disagree</div> </div>



I do things at work that are “above and beyond the call of duty”	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I would recommend the City of Tshwane as the best organisation to work for	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Considering my work responsibilities and your experience the <b>overall quality</b> of my current job is good	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Compared to other organisations I would consider working for, the City of Tshwane is just as good for me</b>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advancement and growth opportunities in the City of Tshwane are good	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Training and Development is adequate	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My talents and skills are recognised and fully utilised	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Other Opinions About City of Tshwane</b>					
<b>Please mark the circle that best describes your opinion regarding the following:</b>	<b>strongly agree</b>	<b>agree</b>	<b>Neither Agree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>strongly disagree</b>
I believe the City of Tshwane is one of the best municipalities in the country	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane treats employees as its most important assets	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I believe in the City of Tshwane	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane is a financially sound organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane is an innovative organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The organisation is focused on its residents/customers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Fairness at Work and Care and Concern of Employees</b>					
At the City of Tshwane, policies that affect employees are fair	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane shows genuine care and concern for its employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My team leader/manager pays attention to how people feel at work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane cares about developing people for long-term careers, not just the current job	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Trust in Employees</b>					

I am trusted with information about the City of Tshwane that is not shared with the general public	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Having a well-defined Job</b>					
Management makes it clear what they expect of me at work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My job description (JD) helps me to define my daily work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Appreciation of Employees Ideas/Contribution</b>					
The City of Tshwane appreciates employees ideas and suggestions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
When people have good ideas, they get noticed and rewarded at the City of Tshwane	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I am given the right amount of information about the City of Tshwane	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Information is communicated timely at the City of Tshwane	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>Training and Development</b>					
The City of Tshwane highly values training and development so employees can continuously “learn” new things	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane offers training and development that helps with the advancement of my long-term Career objectives	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>SECTION 3. Organisational Culture and Service Delivery</b>					
<b>Please mark the circle that best describes your opinion regarding the following</b>	<b>strongly agree</b>	<b>agree</b>	<b>Neither Agree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>strongly disagree</b>
The City of Tshwane as a Service Organisation places strong emphasis on customer service	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
In the City of Tshwane, quality of service is a priority	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My Job makes me experience above average pressure and stress	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane’s brand name is one that is preferred over other brands	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The reputation of the City of Tshwane is excellent	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane is a leader in the public sector	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane has outreach campaigns that I really like	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane as a Service Organisation places strong emphasis on Customer service	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

In the City of Tshwane, services are delivered with utmost care	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
There is a good fit between the job I do and my skills and abilities	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane provides me with a safe and healthy working environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane provides its employees with a high quality physical work environment	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

#### SECTION 4. Challenges of Organisational Culture on Service Delivery

Please mark the circle that best describes your opinion regarding the following:	strongly agree	agree	Neither Agree	disagree	strongly disagree
The City of Tshwane is a financially sound organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane is an organisation I can trust	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane is respectful of the union to which I belong	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Management in the City of Tshwane bargains in good faith with my union	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane has a strong and capable senior leadership	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

#### SECTION 5. Measurement of Organisational Culture

In the next section please think about each statement and rate it accordingly	strongly agree	agree	Neither Agree	disagree	strongly disagree
I am truly empowered by my manager/team leader/supervisor to make decisions and take actions that I think will be best for the division and organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
People whose opinions really matter to me think this is a good place to work for	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I have such a strong relationship with people in the City of Tshwane that I end up staying here even when I feel like leaving	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I may leave the City of Tshwane to acquire experience/education in areas relevant for my career development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
One of the main reasons I continue working for the City of Tshwane is that another organisation may not offer the same overall benefits I get here	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The overall quality of my current job is good	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
I feel the City of Tshwane treats its employees fairly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

The way policies are carried out at the City of Tshwane is fair and just	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Evaluations of my performance at work have been done fairly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane gives me the freedom to make my own decisions at work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employees are given enough time to complete their work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane gives employees the right equipment and adequate supplies for their jobs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane is good in assigning the right number of staff members to get the jobs done	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane has a process by which employees can offer feedback and ideas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane puts employees' ideas into practice	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
The City of Tshwane makes a real effort to give public recognition for employees' achievements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
At work I am given mixed messages about what I am supposed to be doing	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

# ANNEXURE D: QUALITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

School of Economics and Management

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

School of Economics and Management

## Doctor of Administration in Public Administration Research Project

**Researcher:** Khapane Madute Sebidi [Tel:+2783 7544052](tel:+27837544052)

**Supervisor:** Prof. SM Madue: [Tel:012- 012 346 6589](tel:0120123466589)/+2782958191

**Acting Head of Department:** Ms MA Mamabolo : [Tel 015 268 3655](tel:0152683655)

**Acting Director of School & Co Supervisor:** Prof MP Sebola: [Tel:015 268 2424](tel:0152682424)

**TITLE OF THE STUDY: THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY IN GAUTENG PROVINCE**

### Interview Guide for Senior Manager (Qualitative aspects)

Do you feel like you are “part of the family” within your division? Please elaborate.

How do you feel about your attachment to your division?

Are you proud to work for the City of Tshwane and being the leader of your division? Please elaborate.

Do you feel motivated to do your work well? How motivated are you?

When there is problem in the division, do you take ownership thereof? Why?

How well do you understand the vision and mission of the City of Tshwane? What strategies do you have to live up to them?

Is everyone in your unit having clear goals and objectives?

How does gender, culture, religion issues affect your work? And how can you use them to improve your service delivery?

Would you say that the City of Tshwane as a Service Organisation places strong emphasis on customer service? Qualify your answer.

Do you understand the City of Tshwane’s Development Plan? Please elaborate.

Do you understand the City of Tshwane’s Budget Implementation Plan (SDBIP)? Please elaborate?

Is the quality of service a priority in the City of Tshwane? Please justify your answer.

## ANNEXURE E: LETTER OF APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



### City Strategy and Organizational Performance

Room CSP22 | Ground Floor, West Wing, Block D | Tshwane House | 320 Madiba Street | Pretoria | 0002 | PO Box 440 | Pretoria | 0001  
Tel: 012 358 7423/0798  
Email: [Nosiphoh@tshwane.gov.za](mailto:Nosiphoh@tshwane.gov.za) | [www.tshwane.gov.za](http://www.tshwane.gov.za) | [www.facebook.com/CityOfTshwane](https://www.facebook.com/CityOfTshwane)

My ref: **Permission Letter/K.Sebidi**  
Contact person: **Pearl Maponya**  
Section/Unit: **Knowledge Management**

Tel: 012 358 4559  
Email: [PearlMap3@tshwane.gov.za](mailto:PearlMap3@tshwane.gov.za)  
Date 05 September 2019

Mr Khapane Madute Sebidi  
PO Box 911522  
Rosslyn  
0200

Dear Mr Sebidi,

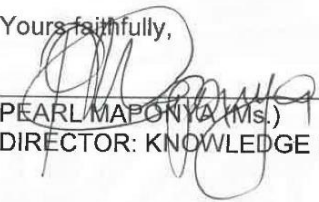
#### APPROVAL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON "THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY IN GAUTENG PROVINCE"

Permission is hereby granted to Mr Khapane Sebidi, a candidate for Doctor of Administration in Public Administration from the School of Economics and Management at the University of Limpopo, to conduct research in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

It is noted that the research project aims to examine the extent to which organisational culture influence service delivery within the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. The City of Tshwane further notes that all ethical aspects of the research will be covered within the provisions of the University of Limpopo. You will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement form with the City of Tshwane prior to conducting research.

Relevant information required for the purpose of the research project will be made available as per applicable laws and regulations. The City of Tshwane is not liable to cover the costs of the research. Upon completion of the research study, it would be appreciated that the findings in the form of a report and or presentation be shared with the City of Tshwane.

Yours faithfully,

  
PEARL MAPONYA (Ms.)  
DIRECTOR: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

City Strategy and Organisational Performance • Stadstrategie en Organisasoriese Prestasie • Lefapha la Thulaganyo ya Tiro le Togamaano ya Toropokgolo • UmNyango wezokuSebenza namaQhinga aHleliwoko kaMasipala • Kgoro ya Leanopeakanyo la Toropokgolo le Bodiragatsi bja Mmasipala • Muhasho wa Vhupulani ha Dorobo khulwane na Mashumele • Ndzawulo ya Maqhinga ya Dorobakulu na Matirhele ya Masipala • Umnyango Wezeqhinga Ledolobha Nokusebenza Kwesikhungo

## ANNEXURE F: UNIVERSITY ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



University of Limpopo  
Department of Research Administration and Development  
Private Bag X1106, Sovenga, 0727, South Africa  
Tel: (015) 268 3935, Fax: (015) 268 2306, Email: anastasia.ngobe@ul.ac.za

**TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**  
**ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE**

**MEETING:** 16 September 2020

**PROJECT NUMBER:** TREC/189/2019: PG - Renewed

**PROJECT:**

**Title:** The Influence of Organisational Culture On Service Delivery in South Africa: A Case Study of City of Tshwane Municipality in Gauteng Province.  
**Researcher:** KM Sebidi  
**Supervisor:** Prof SM Madue  
**Co-Supervisor/s:** Prof MP Sebola  
**School:** Economics and Management  
**Degree:** PhD in Administration of Public Administration

**PROF P MASOKO**  
**CHAIRPERSON: TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**

The Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC) is registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council, Registration Number: REC-0310111-031

**Note:**

- i) This Ethics Clearance Certificate will be valid for one (1) year, as from the abovementioned date. Application for annual renewal (or annual review) need to be received by TREC one month before lapse of this period.
- ii) Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure as approved, the researcher(s) must re-submit the protocol to the committee, together with the Application for Amendment form.
- iii) PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES.

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## ANNEXURE G: ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDITING CERTIFICATE



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TO: WHOM IT MAY CONCERN  
SUBJECT: Language Editing  
DATE: Friday, 05 February 2021

### PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING

This is to certify that a research project titled *"THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON SERVICE DELIVERY IN SOUTH AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY IN GAUTENG PROVINCE"* submitted to us by KHAPANE MADUTE SEBIDI (8503809) has been duly edited for language and formatting by Information Giants (Pty) Ltd.

It is hoped that if all the editorial aspects suggested therein were considered, the target readers of the work would find the document decipherable.

For any enquiries relating to the above, please contact the office during working hours at 015 004 1101 or [info@informationgiants.co.za](mailto:info@informationgiants.co.za).

Kind Regards,

Ms Sheryl Lawrence  
Accounts Manager

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be "Sheryl Lawrence", written in a cursive style.