**AN ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE PERSPECTIVE ON
THE IMPACT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES
ON THE QUALITY OF SERVICE DELIVERY IN MUNICIPALITIES IN
THE FREE STATE PROVINCE OF SOUTH AFRICA**

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DECLARATION

I, Lineo Winifred Dzansi, student number 210504838 do hereby declare that this research report submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State for the degree D Tech: Human Resource Management is my own independent work and has not previously been submitted by me at another university/faculty. I further cede the copyright of the thesis in favour of the Central University of Technology, Free State.

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ABSTRACT

How to address the apparent failure of South African municipalities to deliver service that meets citizens' expectations, poses a major challenge. The often violent protests that have resulted in deliberate destruction of private and public property, and sometimes fatalities, have been used by the public to demonstrate their dissatisfaction with the poor quality of service received from municipalities. With all these incidents, and no visible solutions yet in place, one can bluntly say that some South African municipalities have failed to deliver quality service to citizens, and they appear to be at a loss of how to change this state of affairs.

This study proposes that the poor service delivery of municipalities in South Africa can be attributed to their human resource practices, which have been rendered ineffective by political interference.

Borrowing from organisational justice theory, the researcher argues that ***political interference in human resource management (HRM) in municipalities in South Africa will lead to low employee perceptions of HRM fairness (or justness) (PHF) in the practices of municipalities, and this, in turn, will lead to low levels of employee organisational commitment (EOC) and employee motivation (MOT), conditions which are enough to make municipal employees develop negative or unacceptable employee citizenship behaviour (ECB), which may affect the quality of service delivery (QSD) that municipalities render to customers***.

This theory was tested using ten (10) emergent hypotheses. The theory was partially validated with empirical data collected from nine municipalities in the Free State province.

Key findings of the study point to political interference in the HRM practices of municipalities, employees' perception of HRM practices of municipalities as largely unfair, and service delivery that does not meet citizens' expectations. These and other findings are presented and fully discussed in this research report. The report also provides recommendations for practice and further research.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CoGTA	-	Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
DA	-	Democratic Alliance
DPLG	-	Department of Provincial and Local Government
ECB	-	Employee citizenship behaviour
EEA	-	Employment Equity Act
EMM	-	Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Municipality
EOC	-	Employee organisational commitment
ERG	-	Existence, relatedness, and growth
GBATA	-	Global Business and Technology Association
HRD	-	Human resource development
HRM	-	Human resource management
LGAs	-	Local government associations
LGRP	-	Local Government Reform Programme
LRA	-	Labour Relations Act
MOT	-	Employee motivation
NWP	-	North West Province
OJ	-	Organisational justice
PHF	-	Perceptions of HRM (human resource management) fairness in its practices
PJ	-	Procedural justice
PM	-	Personnel management
PPI	-	Perceived political interference
PSM	-	Public service motivation
QSD	-	Quality of service delivery
RBV	-	Resource-based view
RSA	-	Republic of South Africa
SADTU	-	South African Democratic Teachers Union
SALGA	-	South African Local Government Association
SDT	-	Self-determination theory
SME	-	Small and medium enterprises
T&D	-	Training and development
TQM	-	Total quality management
UK	-	United Kingdom
USA	-	United States of America
WIFM	-	What's in it for me?

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study is concerned with the perennial problem of poor service delivery in municipalities in South Africa, a problem that seems to elude all attempts to find a lasting solution. The study offers an approach to address the problem of poor service delivery from an organisational justice perspective.

This chapter provides a general overview of the study, including the problem and its setting, a statement of the problem, the conceptual framework of the study, the research objectives, an outline of the research methodology employed in the study, the contribution of the study, concept clarification, limitations of the study, and, finally, a summary of the chapter.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) makes it mandatory for all levels of government, including municipalities, to ensure that service delivered to citizens is of the highest quality. This makes *quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities* an important government agenda. In South Africa, municipalities are responsible for providing services such as water supply, refuse disposal, etc. Yet judging by current levels of protests, one is inclined to agree with Portfolio (2008:74) that the quality of service delivery by municipalities, in the opinion of citizens, is not at an acceptable level. In fact, poor service delivery by municipalities has led to many protests across the country. Many problems arise from these protests. For example, dealing with protests can be time-consuming, it can be stressful for those dealing with them, such as the employees of municipalities and affected communities, and some protests become so violent that they result in destruction of property and fatalities. Finding effective ways to ensure quality service delivery is important in minimising, if not eliminating, such protests.

At the same time, the South African government seems to have recognised the important role of effective human resource management (HRM) in quality service delivery. In its White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service

(Department of Public Service and Administration 1997:2), the South African government commits to excellence in HRM, by stating that "human resource management in the Public Service will result in a diverse competent and well-managed workforce; capable of and committed to delivering high quality services to the people of South Africa". The White Paper further reads that "human resource management in the Public Service should become a model of excellence, in which service to society stems from individual commitment instead of compulsion. The management of people should be regarded as a significant task for those who have been charged with the responsibility and should be conducted in professional manner" (Department of Public Service and Administration 1997:2). Yet, as in the case of service delivery, the HRM practices of municipalities do not seem to be faring well, as this has been the subject of much criticism on an almost daily basis.

It is therefore fair to say that although quality service delivery is high on the agenda in South Africa, achieving this objective seems to be an on-going problem for most municipalities. It is also clear that while central government recognises the important supportive role of proper HRM in ensuring quality service delivery, sadly the HRM practices of municipalities do not seem to be playing this important role.

1.2.1 Problem statement

In the present study, it is theorised that there is ***political interference in human resource management (HRM) in municipalities in South Africa, and that this leads to low employee perceptions of HRM fairness (or justness) (PHF) in the practices of municipalities, and that this, in turn, leads to low levels of employee organisational commitment (EOC) and employee motivation (MOT) – conditions that are enough to make municipal employees develop negative or unacceptable employee citizenship behaviour (ECB), which eventually affects the quality of service delivery (QSD) that municipalities render to customers***. This problem is explicated in a conceptual framework that is illustrated with justification in Chapter 5, the methodology chapter.

1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.3.1 Primary objective

Using the municipalities in the Free State Province of South Africa as a case study, the study investigates employees' justice perceptions of HRM practices on the quality of service delivery in municipalities.

1.3.2 Secondary objectives

To achieve the primary objective, the following secondary objectives must be met:

1. To propose a conceptual model that describes the relationship among the variables "perceived political interference in HRM practices (PPI)", "employee perceptions of organisational fairness (justness) in the HRM practices of municipalities (PHF)", "employee organisational commitment (EOC)", "employee motivation (MOT)", "employee citizenship behaviour (ECB)", and "quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities".

2. To use data collected from employees and customers of municipalities to validate the theoretical model (test the 10 hypotheses arising from the theoretical framework).

3. To provide guidelines which municipalities could use to develop employee-sensitive HRM practices, as well as customer sensitivity among their employees.

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY EMPLOYED

This section provides only an outline of the methodology employed in the study. A more detailed account of the methodology used is provided in Chapter 5.

This was a cross-sectional study designed to collect quantitative data at a point in time, and to employ largely statistical (quantitative) techniques in the analysis of the data collected. The study is descriptive by nature – it establishes associations between variables. It is an analytical study made in the Free State, using inputs from municipal employees and customers.

1.4.1 Research approach

There are many approaches to research, and it is difficult to judge which approach is superior. This study was conducted from a positivist perspective, where mainly quantitative methods were employed in data collection and analysis. While the basic premise of positivism is the same as that of other research philosophies, namely that one cannot make meaningful observations without theory, positivism insists that in order to qualify as scientific knowledge, research must test theoretical constructs against the reality of empirical facts (Mouton, as cited in Snyman 1997:9). In this study, a theoretical framework was developed to show relationships between variables (section 5.4). These relationships were expressed in the form of hypotheses. Thereafter, the hypotheses were tested against data (empirical facts) collected from respondents.

1.4.2 Research design

Consistent with the positivist paradigm, the research was designed to collect mostly quantitative data and to use statistical techniques in analysing the data. A detailed description of the research design is provided in Chapter 5.

1.4.3 Geographical scope, population, and sampling

The study was planned to cover municipalities in the Free State Province of South Africa. There are 20 municipalities in the Free State, of which one (Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality [MMM] is a metropolis and the remaining 19 are divided into four District municipalities, namely: Fezile Dabi, Lejweleputswa, Thabo Mofutsanyana and Xhariep. The primary unit of analysis is each individual local or metropolitan municipality. There were two sets of respondents. Group 1 consisted of municipal employees and group 2 was made up of a sample of residents, or customers, from each municipality.

1.4.4 Data collection

Structured Likert-scale questionnaires were used to collect data from respondents. Trained interviewers were used to collect the data.

1.4.5 Data analysis

Descriptive statistics such as frequency tables were used to display respondents' demographic information. Inferential statistics, including Chi square tests, were used to verify the hypotheses.

1.4.6 Ethical considerations

The study was conducted in the most ethical manner possible. Among other things, respondents were provided with all information concerning the study, so as to ensure informed consent. Furthermore, no respondent was forced to participate. In addition, since it was possible that employees might be unwilling to participate for fear of victimisation, respondents were told that they could withdraw from the study at any stage if they felt threatened. A detailed description of ethical issues and how they were dealt with is provided in the methodology chapter.

1.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

While the following two limitations are worth noting, they should, however, not reduce the value of the study. Firstly, perceptions are often criticised for lacking objectivity. However, as Werner (2007:49) pointed out, perceptions are important because, among other things, they allow individuals to organise, interpret, and form sensory impressions of the environment, and to act on these impressions. Odendaal (2009), as cited in Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2009:106), also acknowledged the importance of perceptions, stating that individual decision-making is inextricably linked to the perceptual process. Thus, in spite of the criticisms that have been levelled against perceptions, the study of social perceptions is inevitable in understanding why people behave in certain ways. In the current study, data collected related to individual perceptions of fairness in HRM practices will enable the researcher to link employee citizenship behaviour to HRM practices, employee motivation, and employee organisational commitment.

Secondly, the geographical scope of the study could have been extended to include the whole of South Africa, so as to enable wider generalisation of the results. However, the scope could not be extended beyond a single province because of limitations posed by the purpose of the study, as well as resource constraints. Nonetheless,

conditions in the municipalities in the Free State are not expected to be that dissimilar from conditions in the other provinces. This makes it possible to extrapolate findings from the current study to other provinces, without compromising the validity of the findings to any significant degree.

1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE INVESTIGATION

The study is structured as follows: Chapter 1 serves as an introduction to the study. It outlines the problem statement and the background to the problem, the objectives of the study, the methodology employed, and the limitations of the study. Chapter 2 focuses on the South African human resource management in perspective. Implications of human resource management fairness for municipalities in South Africa are discussed in Chapter 3, while Chapter 4 focuses on implications of perceptions of human resource management fairness (PHF) on the practices of municipalities for employee motivation (MOT), employee commitment (EOC), citizenship behaviour (ECB), and quality of service delivery (QSD) of municipalities. The methodology of the thesis is presented in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 presents the results of the study and, Chapter 7 presents the conclusions and recommendations for future research.

1.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, poor quality of service delivery in municipalities in South Africa was identified as the study theme, was researched within the theoretical framework of organisational justice theory. In this study the thesis is proposed that *low employee justness perceptions of municipalities could result from unethical HRM practices, and that this may lead to low levels of employee motivation and commitment – conditions that are enough to make municipal employees develop negative or unacceptable behaviour, which may affect the quality of service delivery that they render to customers*. Based on this framework, a number of hypotheses were put forward for testing. From the formulation of the problem statement to the formulation of the hypotheses, four salient issues emerged that need to be understood. These are: (a) the HRM practices of municipalities; (b) organisational justice (OJ), or employee justness perceptions of municipalities; (c) municipal employees' motivation, commitment, and citizenship behaviour; and (d) the quality of service delivery in

municipalities. These four broad issues form the basis of the literature review, to which the following three chapters (Chapters 2, 3 and 4) are devoted.

CHAPTER 2: SOUTH AFRICA'S MUNICIPAL HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT IN PERSPECTIVE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided an overview of the study on the perennial problem of poor service delivery in municipalities in South Africa. In the same chapter, organisational justice theory was proposed as the underlying theoretical framework for the study. The thesis proposed in the previous chapter maintains that *unethical HRM practices result in negative employee perceptions about the organisation, which inexorably impact employees' commitment and motivation, and ultimately their performance and service delivery*. Based on the thesis statement, a number of hypotheses were put forward for testing.

This chapter considers the first issue, namely HRM within the South African municipality environment. The chapter is arranged as follows: first, a general overview of HRM is undertaken, including a review of existing definitions of HRM, leading to the development of an operational definition of HRM and followed by an examination of the key HRM functions that form the problem area for the study. International municipal HRM issues are then explored, followed by an explication of the regulatory and political contexts of municipal HRM in South Africa. The chapter concludes with a summary.

The study identified four issues for further clarification through a review of the literature, before empirically testing the hypotheses. The four issues identified are: (a) HRM in municipalities; (b) organisational justice, or employee perceptions of justness in municipalities; (c) municipal employees' motivation, commitment, and citizenship behaviour; and finally, (d) quality of service delivery in municipalities.

2.2 AN OVERVIEW OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Among the myriad of organisational resources which are considered critical to organisational performance, and ultimately organisational survival, the human resource component is often regarded as the most important. In support of this view, Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, Poisat, Sono and Schultz (2008:7) argued that organisations cannot function without people. The capacity of municipalities to sustain themselves

lies in their potential to employ the right people, make the best use of employees, and manage them properly.

The following section elaborates on HRM, with the emphasis on its meaning, nature, and importance, with the understanding that it is through judicious HRM practices that municipalities can achieve their mandated objective of providing quality services to citizens. Contrasting starkly with this understanding, however, it has been claimed by the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (CoGTA 2009:69) that poor HRM is prevalent in municipalities in South Africa. This state of affairs in municipalities in the country will not assist in attracting and retaining skilled and professional personnel. The Auditor General (2013:4) asserted that municipalities that have progressed to achieve clean audits and that have maintained clean audits have done so by consistently taking ownership of their municipal performance practices and insisting on adequately qualified staff and effective performance management practices. This means that adequately qualified employees are capable of performing as expected, since they carry out their tasks efficiently and effectively to meet quality service expectations.

2.2.1 HRM as a new concept

Occasionally, the terms "HRM", "employee relations", and "personnel management" (PM) have been used interchangeably, to the extent that there is confusion as to what the term "HRM" really means. Banfield and Kay (2008:35) pointed out that PM and HRM are specialisations in the function of *people management* in organisations. Koster (2005:5) maintained that the procedures and techniques of HRM and PM are similar to each other, even though the strategic and philosophical context of HRM makes HRM appear more purposeful, relevant, and consequently more effective than PM. Doaei and Najminia (2012:167) distinguished HRM from PM, suggesting that HRM is proactive, nurturing, organic and instinctively seems more positive and attractive than PM. Sison (2000:35) and Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2011:8) pointed out that HRM is a new term that is being used in people management, in place of the terms "industrial management", "employee management", or "PM". According to Grobler et al. (2011:8), the concept of HRM became popular as a result of the behavioural science research conducted by Professor Henry Mintzberg in the

early 1970s, which showed that people need to be managed as resources, rather than as factors of production, or as human beings that act solely on the basis of emotions. This implies that PM assumes that people are inputs for achieving desired output, while HRM assumes that people are vital and valuable assets for achieving desired organisational goals. Gennard and Judge (2005:4) confirmed the importance of employee relations within organisations by asserting that a personnel or HRM practitioner that lacks professional competence in employee relations will be a less effective manager. This makes it imperative to have an operational definition of HRM before any enquiry into the subject can be undertaken. For this reason, an informed working definition is provided to address the ambiguity with regard to the concept of HRM.

2.2.2 Defining HRM

Berman, Bowman, West and Van Wart (2010:393) defined HRM as "a perspective that recognises people as important institutional assets that must be managed strategically and proactively, to improve organisational performance". The implication of this definition for municipal HRM in municipalities in South Africa is that the municipalities must be strategic and proactive in the management of their employees. In particular, municipalities in South Africa must exercise foresight in managing their human resources (their employees), in order to deliver quality service to citizens. According to Munusamy, Chelliah and Mun (2010:398), in any business-to-customer type of environment, satisfying the customer is the ultimate goal and objective. This implies that whatever services the business offers should be quality services that will satisfy the customer. The growing body of literature on the negative perceptions of HRM in municipalities seems to paint a bleak picture in terms of the quality of service delivery in South Africa. For example, Paradza, Mokwena and Richards (2010:19) conducted a study of 12 municipalities in the Western Cape, Northern Cape, Free State, and KwaZulu-Natal and found that most residents perceived the presence of nepotism, corruption, and discrimination in municipal appointments.

Having considered the above definitions, and taking into account the fact that this study concerns HRM in municipalities, HRM is operationally defined as:

strategic and proactive management of employees in a manner that
guarantees optimal fit between employees, their jobs, and the organisation,
so that employees can reach desired levels of satisfaction and the
organisation can meet its desired goals.

This definition makes it possible to examine HRM in municipalities from the stated theoretical framework that emphasises HRM practices, employee motivation and commitment, employee citizenship behaviour and performance, and organisational goal achievement. The following section discusses the various functions of HRM, and it explains how, if practised justly and fairly, HRM could enhance organisational performance.

2.2.3 HRM as an organisational function

The preceding sections show that HRM is a function that needs to be managed and executed as effectively as possible to achieve desired organisational goals. This section considers the HRM function within municipalities, and how its effective execution can benefit both employers and municipalities alike. To begin with, Grobler et al. (2011:18) mentioned that the HRM function does not reside only in the HR department. This implies that managers at all levels within the organisation should share in the HRM responsibility. Strydom (2008:232) described HRM as involving *planning, organising, leading, motivating,* and *controlling* a business's human resources. Aswathappa (2005:23) asserted that the HRM function helps managers to plan, recruit, select, train, develop, remunerate, and maintain members for the organisation. This means that all the management functions are important for effective HRM.

In the context of municipalities in South Africa, this implies that HRM must be well planned, well organised, well led, well controlled, and, perhaps most importantly, well-motivated, to ensure that the organisation's goals are achieved. It is in the same tone that George (2008:13) asserted that the capacity to deliver, lies in the ability of public servants to undertake their assigned responsibilities as public officials with the necessary level of skills, knowledge, experience, and commitment to serve and perform to the best of their ability.

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However, in view of the reported shortage of skilled personnel (Nzimande 2011:1) in municipalities, it can be assumed that HRM planning in municipalities is inadequate. The same could be assumed of the leading and controlling management functions, since inadequacies in planning could easily be improved through proper leadership and control. Furthermore, claims made by CoGTA (2009:69) and Paradza et al. (2010:19) that there is political interference in HRM in municipalities, raise the question whether the labour force in South Africa's municipalities is motivated.

It is evident from the previous sections that HRM practices, when properly practised, can enhance the performance of individuals and groups in organisational settings. Omolo, Oginda and Otengah's (2013:133) study on small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Kisumu Municipality in Kenya found that HRM practices such as recruitment, selection, training and development are significant predictors or determinants of performance within a municipality. Nel et al. (2008:7) asserted that HRM involves the productive use of people in achieving an organisation's strategic objectives, through satisfaction of the needs of individual employees. Because municipalities in South Africa have failed to achieve their objective of providing quality service to communities (Jain 2010:31; Karamoko 2011:32), it is safe to conclude that they are not meeting the standards of proper HRM, as implied by Nel et al.'s (2008:7) definition of HRM. CoGTA (2009:69) links poor service delivery to, among other things, political interference in the recruitment process, appointment of persons to non-existent positions, and disparities in salary scales.

2.2.4 The HRM environment

The HRM environment can be a determinant of superior performance within organisations. It can be assumed that having a person-environment fit in an organisation will be conducive to superior performance, productivity, and a competitive advantage within the organisation. The concept of person-job and person-organisation fit was highlighted by Sekiguchi (2007:124), who emphasised the importance of having an optimal fit between the employee, the job, the organisation, and the environment, so that employees can reach their desired level of engagement, satisfaction, and performance, and so that the organisation can meet its goals. This implies that it is important to ensure that the employer, the employee, and the organisational

environment are compatible. Sutarjo (2011:227) suggested that person-environment fit and person-organisation fit occur when a person possesses characteristics which are similar to other individuals within the work environment. The HR environment may also demand contributions from individuals in terms of time, effort, commitment, knowledge, skills and abilities (Sekiguchi 2007:125).

A key issue in the HR environment that has implications for HRM in municipalities is *person-environment fit*, as well as *person-job fit*. Sekiguchi's (2007:125) assertion implies that *person-environment fit* means that an incumbent must possess the right characteristics that are similar to those of his or her or co-workers, while *person-job fit* implies that an incumbent has knowledge, skills, and abilities that will enable the organisation to stay competitive and achieve its set goals. According to Zubane (2011:16), much effort has been made in the South African public service to create a favourable work environment for public servants to execute their duties efficiently and to contribute to quality delivery of services. However, a study by Johnston and Bernstein (2007) revealed a lack of person-job fit in Khutsong and Phumelela municipalities in North West Province and Free State Province, respectively. Johnston and Bernstein (2007:56) stated that public unrest in municipalities reveals incompetence, political favouritism, and a devastating lack of capacity, not only of technical skills, but also of leadership, vision, and accountability.

These deficiencies are likely to hamper service delivery and result in complaints from citizens, and ultimately public unrest. Nel et al. (2008:7) cautioned that a mismatch between the person, the job and the organisational environment could hamper the achievement of both personal and organisational goals. In the light of mismatches that have been observed, it is not surprising that municipalities are accused of not rendering quality service to communities. Johnston and Bernstein (2007:56) stated that if problems of nepotism, corruption, and political favouritism stemming from a lack of transparency in senior managerial appointments in local government are not tackled vigorously, more incidents of violent protest could be expected.

2.2.5 The HRM functions

A wide range of HRM activities have been mentioned in literature by authors such as Sippola (2007:33), Absar, Azim, Balasundaram and Akhter (2010:32), and Doaei and Najminia (2012:162), to mention a few. Absar et al. (2010:32) posited that HRM functions include, among other things, staffing/hiring, retention, remuneration, rewards, performance management, training and development, employee motivation, profit sharing, employment security, voice mechanisms and job definition, and selection. Doaei and Najminia (2012:162) viewed HRM as a strategic and coherent approach to the management of an organisation's most valued assets, the people, who individually and collectively contribute to the achievement of the goals of the organisation. Sippola (2007:33) perceived proper management of people to be a distinctive approach to employment management. It is thus imperative that organisations that seek to gain a competitive advantage, observe proper HRM practices through the strategic deployment of a highly committed and capable workforce, using an integrated range of cultural and personnel techniques.

For the purpose of this study, job analysis, recruitment and selection, job evaluation and compensation, employee training and development, promotion, performance management and appraisal, disciplinary issues, labour issues, talent management, and total quality management (TQM) in HRM are explored in the following sections.

2.2.5.1 Job analysis

According to Strydom (2008:235), job analysis is performed after strategic HRM planning has been conducted by top management, in line with the strategy of the organisation. Essentially, job analysis determines job content and those attributes that are necessary to master the job (Strydom 2008:325). It identifies the tasks, skills, duties, knowledge or activities, and responsibilities required by an employee to do the job (Kleynhans, Markham, Meyer & Van Aswegen 2009:50). The two end-products of job analysis are (a) job description, which stipulates the nature of the job content, the environment in which the job takes place, and the conditions under which the job is done, and (b) job specification, which describes those personal skills and characteristics that an employee needs to get the job done (Strydom 2008:235). In the light of the above assertions pertaining to job analysis, municipalities could benefit

from conducting a thorough analysis of the duties of the job and the personal characteristics needed for the job or for a certain position. This process will ensure that there is a valid and defensible recruitment and selection process within the organisation.

According to Kleynhans et al. (2009:51), job analysis is critical, because it forms the foundation of all other HRM activities. For instance, staffing depends on job analysis to provide the foundation for forecasting current and future human resource needs. Likewise, job evaluation and compensation require job analysis to rank or compare jobs in terms of their total value to an organisation, and to distinguish between different jobs for compensation purposes (Nel et al. 2008:190). Taylor (2008:189) maintained that job analysis formed the basis for personnel selection decisions. Taylor (2008:189) asserted that during the selection process there is a need to focus not just on the tasks that will be carried out, but also on the skills required for the job, the equipment needed, and the environment in which the various activities will be carried out. One can therefore conclude that once job description and job specification, the two end products of job analysis, have been conducted, it becomes easier for managers to identify the qualifications, experience, competencies, and personal attributes required of prospective candidates.

Nel et al. (2008:190) asserted that job analysis forms the basis for training and development and career planning by providing accurate identification of training needs (skills gaps) and identifying the development needs of employees; it can also be used to set employees' level of performance according to work standards, and for workplace ergonomics, where it helps to design a job or workplace equipment for comfort, efficiency, safety, and productivity (Nel et al. 2008:190).

Singh (2008:3) asserted that job analysis often shapes and influences management decisions on labour relations issues, particularly employment equity and affirmative action. Heron (2005:17) maintained that job analysis is useful in promoting employment opportunities for persons with disabilities. This implies that through proper analysis of the job, managers will be able to determine whether or not a duty can be carried out by a disabled person, and what resources the employer will need to provide

for such an employee to carry out his or her duties successfully. The Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 requires that employers' recruitment and selection policies be free from all forms of discrimination. Job analysis provides criteria for the identification of job content for recruitment and selection purposes, and it potentially eliminates the possibility of discrimination and unlawful recruitment and selection practices.

In municipalities, which constitute political creations of central government, where 'cadreship' is often valued over merit and qualifications, the proclivity towards patronage cannot be ruled out. It is in such scenarios that bureaucratic rules and procedures such as job analysis can serve to ensure integrity and transparency in selection and placement processes through unbiased application of impersonal procedures. However, proper job analysis alone will not be enough, because possible abuse or malpractice can occur when skills requirements are overlooked in making appointments. In fact, Chikulo (2011:10) reported a perceived widespread culture of patronage and nepotism in most local authorities in South Africa. Unfortunately, this has been the case in municipalities in South Africa, where CoGTA (2009:67) has reported widespread cases of posts being filled without proper recruitment and selection processes having been followed. It is easy to understand from these findings why there are reports in the media that municipal appointments are made to satisfy political requirements at the expense of skills and competence.

2.2.5.2 Recruitment and selection

After job analysis has been conducted, recruitment and selection take place to fill the job opening within the organisation. Anh and Kleiner (2005:101) posited that in a competitive service industry, the focus should be on recruitment strategies that lead to attracting or selecting only those personnel who match the job best, so that quality service can be delivered.

A number of authors, such as Singanto (2003:46); Booi (2005:3); Erasmus, Swanepoel, Schenk, Van der Westhuizen and Wessels (2005:206); Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk and Schenk (2007:259); Rehman (2009:55); Anyim, Ikemefuna and Shadare (2011:40); and Motsoeneng (2011:10), to mention a few, have a common view of recruitment. Rehman (2009:55) for example, defined the recruitment process

as part of the staffing process, where the individual and the organisation become partners to form the employment relationship. Booi (2005:3) described recruitment as HRM activities aimed at attracting potential job seekers to fill a specific vacant post. Swanepoel et al. (2007:259) indicated that recruitment includes activities undertaken to attract sufficient job candidates, either internally or externally, with the necessary potential, competencies, and traits, to assist the organisation to achieve its objectives. Gordon (1986), as cited in Singanto (2003:46), defined recruitment as the process of locating, identifying, and attracting applicants that are capable of and interested in filling job vacancies. Anyim et al. (2011:40) claimed that recruitment is an activity that generates a pool of applicants who have a desire to be employed by the organisation, from which suitable applicants can be selected. Erasmus et al. (2005:206) viewed recruitment as those activities in HR management which are undertaken in order to attract sufficient job candidates who have the necessary potential, competencies, and traits to assist the particular public service institution in achieving its objectives. Motsoeneng (2011:10) indicated that recruitment is about making sure that qualified people are available to meet employment needs. This author adds that ineffective recruitment precludes any chance of effective candidate selection, because when recruitment falls short, selection must proceed with a pool of poorly qualified candidates.

According to Anh and Kleiner (2005:102), a good way to attract the best people is to be known as a preferred employer in a particular industry or region. In a similar vein to Anh and Kleiner (2011:37) and Anyim et al. (2011:37), Sekiguchi (2007:124) asserted that individuals are not randomly assigned to situations, but rather seek out situations that are attractive to them. One can conclude from the preceding assertions about recruitment that it is a staffing process intended to attract potential and suitable employees with necessary competencies, and that employees should be attracted by and should match and share the values and vision of the organisation, in order to fit in with the organisation. Sekiguchi (2007:125) asserted that employee-organisation fit involves work attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It can be inferred, then, that the selection process becomes considerably more manageable if the recruitment process that was followed was flawless. Zubane (2011:66) asserted that problems of public service delivery are aggravated by, among other things,

interference by political principals through nepotism. It is thus conceivable that nepotism and political interference may undermine the recruitment and selection processes, factors that may negatively impact on the quality of service delivery.

According to Swanepoel et al. (2007:280), selection may be defined as the process of trying to determine which individuals will best match particular jobs in the organisational context. For Sekiguchi (2007:125), selection should be based on factors associated with organisational effectiveness, as well as considering candidates who share the values and vision of the organisation. Mohsan, Nawaz, Khan, Shaukat and Aslam (2011:226) asserted that committed employees with a high level of job involvement are the most important asset in any organisation, and that they are vital to quality and productivity improvements in the organisation. Mohsan et al. further claimed that great organisations are built on the inherent value of their human resources, and that highly involved and committed employees almost always allow an organisation to grow faster than similar competitive organisations. Employees can thus be viewed as vital resources or assets in the organisation.

Borrowing from Wernerfelt (1984) and Rumelt's (1984) resource-based view (RBV) approach to achieving competitive advantage, one could view employees as assets, like any other assets in the organisation, which should contribute towards organisational goal achievement. The resource-based view approach views the organisation's assets as a bundle of resources that should enable the organisation to conceive and implement strategies that will lead to above-average industry returns (Brewster, Carey, Holland & Warnich 2008:31). The resource-based view, according to Halawi, Aronson and McCarthy (2005:75) was developed to understand how organisations achieve a sustainable competitive advantage with the resources at their disposal. Brewster et al. (2008:31) drew attention to the importance of management's ability to exploit resources under its control for organisational success. Tzafrir (2006:113) asserted that the aim of the selection process is to improve the fit between employees and the organisation, teams, and work requirements, thereby creating a better work environment. According to Tzafrir (2006:113), the fit requires "adequate compensation, realistic performance expectations, manageable workloads, effective leadership and supervision, training and development opportunities, and a supportive

work environment". He argued that too often these prerequisites are not in place, which leads to poor performance and poor delivery of services.

HRM practices, such as recruitment and selection, could enable municipalities to recruit and select the best candidates, who possess the most needed qualities for the available job openings. Therefore, any interference from the external environment that leads to neglect of the recommendations for selecting the best candidate will be detrimental to organisational success. For municipalities, this means that employing people based on their political affiliation or personal interests, and ignoring the needs of the organisation and the citizenry, could negatively impact on service delivery. Chikulo (2011:10) argued that political opportunism, corruption, a culture of patronage, nepotism, infighting, and factionalism have all caused some local authorities to become dysfunctional. Furthermore, recruitment and selection, if perceived by municipal employees to be unfair due to corruption, political opportunism, and nepotism, can affect employees' attitudes and behaviour, and ultimately service delivery. Chikulo's (2011:10) view is consistent with that of Mettler (2004:21), who suggested that the improved service delivery and HR planning towards that will be out of reach if recruitment and selection are not done proficiently and in accordance with best practices. For this reason, recruitment and selection are strategic people management issues with a potentially high impact on service delivery. It can be argued that human resource selection should be mindful of who is selected. It should select the right people, at the right time, and in the right numbers – people who will contribute positively towards the achievement of organisational goals. Anh and Kleiner (2005:102) suggested that for companies to attract the best employees, they must develop a hiring approach that involves identifying a person's passions and matching him or her to the right position. Unfortunately, municipalities in South Africa seem to be failing in attracting and retaining the best talent, because of politically acceptable appointments at the expense of technical competence (CoGTA 2009:66).

2.2.5.3 Job evaluation and compensation

Job evaluation and compensation are directly linked because, to determine compensation the job has to be evaluated and ranked in relation to other jobs within

the organisation (Plunkett, Attner & Allen 2008:350). Job evaluation and compensation are discussed and their importance is explained below.

Job evaluation

Marchington and Wilkinson (2007:350) defined job evaluation as the process where jobs are placed in a rank order according to overall demands placed upon the job holder, thereby providing a fair and orderly grading structure. The purpose is to rank jobs within a hierarchy, reflecting the relative importance, or worth, of each job within the organisation. Suff and Reilly (2006:3) regarded job evaluation as a systematic and constant approach to defining the relative worth of jobs within the workplace or single-plant or multi-site organisations. Suff and Reilly (2006:5) further posited that job evaluation provides the basis for the design and maintenance of a rational and equitable pay structure, it helps to manage job relativities, and it ensures the principle of equal pay for work of equal value. Nel et al. (2006:155) conceived job evaluation as a focal point in the unionised environment, so as to build a trusting and effective relationship with unions. Pandey and Leelashree (2012:182) contended that job evaluation is also used to minimise wage discrimination based on sex, age, caste, region of origin, religion, and so on.

It can be envisaged that job evaluation plays a pivotal role in payment plans, and it enables employees to become conversant with the way salaries are arrived at. Holzer and Martinson (2006:31) asserted that incentive and/or remuneration plans can be effective in decreasing turnover rates and are related to higher revenues, increased profits, and decreased costs. The assertions above indicate that job evaluation is a tool that can assist organisations, including municipalities, to arrive at acceptable employee remunerations and employment terms and conditions, thereby harmonising work relationships between management and employees. If a robust and well-structured job evaluation has been carried out, employee compensation and terms and conditions of employment will be in order, and will not be based on any attributes other than the job grading or rank.

Compensation

Employee compensation is one of the major functions of HRM (Absar et al. 2010:1). According to Absar et al. (2010:1), compensation is important for both employers and employees, in terms of attracting, retaining, and motivating employees. Ray and Ray (2011:25) regarded compensation as important for employees, since it is one of the main reasons people work. Compensation includes claims on goods and services paid to an employee in the form of money, or a form that is quickly and easily exchangeable into money at the discretion of the employee (Nel et al. 2011:231). Compensation, or total compensation, is "the total of all rewards provided to employees in return for their services" (Phonsanam 2010:6). Nel et al. (2011:234) and Phonsanam (2010:6) claimed that total compensation includes monetary and non-monetary rewards, as well as direct and indirect rewards, while Armstrong and Stephens (2006:7) conceived of monetary and non-monetary compensation together as "total reward". Total reward is a combination of both financial and non-financial rewards made available to employees, which includes all types of rewards, both direct and indirect, and intrinsic and extrinsic (Armstrong & Stephens 2006:7).

Nienaber (2009:4) categorised compensation as consisting of both financial and non-financial rewards. Nienaber) claimed that financial rewards include base pay, contingency pay, and any other financial benefits, while non-financial rewards include performance and career management, quality work environment, and work and home integration. Total compensation is the combination of four core elements: pay, benefits, financial incentives, and non-financial compensation (Phonsanam 2010:6). A common view in the literature is that the main reasons for the provision of compensation are attracting a quality workforce, maintaining the satisfaction of existing employees, keeping quality employees from leaving, and motivating employees in the workplace (Arnold 2005:137; Anis, Rehman, Rehman, Khan & Humayoun 2011:7318; Grobler et al. 2011:402). Compensation can thus be seen as a key to motivation that unlocks human potential and enhances employee morale. Within organisations, individual employees have different interpretations of compensation.

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According to Ismail and Junoh (2005:35), people often view compensation as reward entitlements and obligations that are determined based on the employment contract, the value of the job, the level of personal contributions, and/or the level of performance. Differences in pay packages are often as a result of the range of pay rates that are provided for the various types of jobs, skills, and/or performance in an organisation (Ismail, Guatleng, Cheekiong, Ibrahim, Ajis and Dollah 2009:235). In a hierarchical pay distribution, pay structure policies tend to use many levels, tiers, and large pay differentials, and pay differences between levels are usually seen as the degree of equality or dispersion of rates between job levels (Ismail et al. 2009:236).

For compensation to be seen as equitable or fair, it has to be systematically determined by job evaluation. Any anomaly in the pay differential (particularly in bureaucratic establishments of high stability and control) is likely to provoke feelings of unfairness (EL-Hajji 2011:131). According to Malik and Naeem (2011:92), social scientists have long recognised the importance of the ideals of justice as a basic requirement for the effective functioning of organisations and the personal satisfaction of the individuals they employ. For this reason, Amos, Ristow and Ristow (2004:167) posited that the objective of any compensation function should be to create a system of rewards that is equitable to the employer and the employee alike.

It is thus imperative that municipalities compensate employees on the basis of skills, responsibilities, and qualifications. Consistent with the thesis statement proposed for this study, inappropriate compensation policies or inappropriate implementation of HRM practices that are perceived by employees to be unjust or unfair could lead to low employee morale, high levels of employee turnover and, consequently, adverse implications for service quality. This implies that when municipal employees perceive the compensation process to be fair and just, there will be little or no room for complaints. This, in turn, should elicit the best response from employees, in the form of commitment to achieving quality service delivery targets in municipalities. Fair and justifiable pay systems could be another retention strategy. Organisations could secure human resources by employing competitive reward systems in the face of labour shortages, competition for scarce skills, and constraints in labour market mobility (Analoui 2007:233).

As Adams (1965:65) pointed out, employees do not only naturally conduct their own evaluations to determine whether pay is equitable within the organisation, but they also strive for equity between themselves and other workers. Houser and Xiao (2010:21) indicated that if the conclusions are that compensation is unfairly distributed, employees will always find ways of letting management know, or they will seek to reduce inequity by punishing the employer or exacting vengeance. The large majority of compensation receivers who choose to punish also choose to destroy sufficient dictator earnings to ensure that receivers are left in a position of advantageous inequality (Houser & Xiao 2010:21). Organisations can achieve equity by trying to pay their employees what other employers are paying their employees, so that the organisations can stay competitive and so that employee turnover can be reduced.

Elamin and Alomaim (2011:39) asserted that employees could compare their wages with those of other people doing the same job in other organisations. According to Elamin and Alomaim (2011:40), the result of comparison (whether negative or positive) is strongly associated with the employee's perception of, and reaction to, the system. If the comparison result is positive, employees are likely to feel positive towards the compensation system of the organisation. However, if the comparison result is negative, they may wish to challenge the system that has given rise to this state of affairs (Suliman 2007:300). Furthermore, a number of potentially adverse behavioural reactions may follow from this perception, such as reduced job performance, embarking on the use of withdrawal behaviour such as absenteeism, a decrease in turnover, and reduced cooperation (Elamin & Alomaim 2011:40). Tudor (2011:96) argued that perceptions of external pay inequity will increase employee job dissatisfaction, and it is likely that better workers will not be attracted or retained. Therefore, in order to keep their employees, organisations should be loyal to the principle of equity, by establishing a fair wage system (Lam, Schaubroeck & Aryee 2002:1).

A study by CoGTA (2009:68) revealed that salaries and benefits of municipal employees in South Africa are not standardised and that disparities among employees of similar rank are common in many municipalities. This situation violates equity theory and thus may lead to low levels of morale, low levels of performance, and adverse

service delivery. If, however, municipalities were to compensate employees based on job evaluation, employees are likely to see compensation packages as fair and just. Fair and equitable compensation may therefore lead to high levels of employee morale, low levels of employee turnover, high levels of performance, and subsequent quality service delivery in municipalities.

2.2.5.4 Employee training and development (T&D)

In order to succeed in a customer-oriented business environment such as a municipality, there is a dire need to train and develop employees to deliver quality service. Various definitions have been proposed for employee training and development (T&D) by a number of authors, who all seem to have the common understanding of T&D as a field concerned with improving the performance of individuals (Carliner, Ally, Zhao, Bairstow, Khoury & Johnston 2006:14; Afzal, Rehman & Mehboob 2010:76; Adnan, Abdullah & Ahmad 2011:63).

Even if employees are recruited and selected with the appropriate skills, knowledge, and attitudes, existing HRM theories, which are discussed in section 2.2.1, require that employees are trained and developed for specific jobs. The government of South Africa, through the Skills Development, Act 97 of 1998 (South Africa 1998a), provides for the improvement of employee competencies that meet both organisational and individual needs. In terms of the stipulations of this legislation, organisations are obliged to skill their workforce.

Training and development are not the same thing. Training focuses on the job, while development focuses on the individual. Aguinis and Kraiger (2009:452) claimed that training refers to a systematic approach to learning and development to improve individual, team and organisational effectiveness, while development refers to activities leading to the acquisition of new knowledge or skills for purposes of personal growth. According to Nel et al. (2011:359), development refers to formal education and job experiences that help employees prepare for the future manpower needs of organisations. Adnan et al. (2011:63) asserted that training and development practice aims to prepare employees for future work responsibilities, as well as to provide them with the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed to perform their current jobs. Training

and development are discussed separately below, so as to clarify the difference between them.

Training

Training helps employees to identify with the organisation, so that they can bring consistent service and project the right image to customers (Nguyen & Brian 2005:28). Erasmus et al. (2005:36) posited that human resource management in South Africa's public service is intended to assist national departments and provincial administrations to develop capacity. This view is emphasised by the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (Department of Public Service and Administration 1997:23), which suggests that municipal capacity can be improved by training. Adnan et al. (2011:63) indicated that training is an essential means to continuously update employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities. Consistent with this definition, Olaniyan and Ojo (2008:327) viewed training to be important in increasing productivity, improving the quality of work, improving skills, knowledge, understanding, and attitudes, enhancing the use of tools and machinery, reducing waste, accidents, employee turnover, lateness, absenteeism, and other overhead costs, and eliminating obsolescence of skills, technologies, methods, products, and capital management.

Development

Development, often referred to as human resource development (HRD), is a dynamic and evolving practice used to enhance organisational effectiveness (Gilley, Eggland & Gilley 2002:1). These authors posited that HRD constituted an important strategic approach to improved productivity, efficiency and profitability. Maxwell (2003), as cited in Clarke (2007:35), insightfully explained the difference between training and development, and the importance of development, when he states that:

> *When we train people, we focus on the job and we are adding value to specific things such as what their job description is. When we develop people we focus on the person we add value to, they do not only become better in their jobs, and they become better in life. Employee training is a necessity for any business that wants to remain competitive in today's marketplace. But leaders who want to make lasting a difference also recognize that training itself is not enough.*

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Training is helpful for a short time, developing people is helpful for a lifetime …..

Swanepoel et al. (2007:451) referred to HRD as "a learning experience, organised mainly by an employer, usually within a specified period of time – to bring about the possibility of performance improvement and/or personal growth". According to these authors, the main focus of HRD is learning, with the principal aim of attaining both organisational and individual objectives. Ciulu (2011:656) was of the view that HRD is any process or activity that, either initially or over the long term, has the potential to develop adults' work-based knowledge, expertise, productivity, and satisfaction, whether for personal, group or team gain, or for the benefit of an organisation, community, nation, or, ultimately, the whole of humanity. Analoui (2007:164) linked HRD to strategic human resource management in a natural way, considering that HRD provides policies and practices which support the accomplishment of organisational goals. Nel et al. (2011:359) regarded development as formal education, job experiences, relationships, and assessment of personality and abilities that help employees prepare for the future.

One can conclude, based on the above explanations of training and development, that development involves improving self-knowledge and identity, nurturing talent and potential, building human capital and employability, enhancing quality of life, and contributing to the realisation of dreams and aspirations. Both the organisation and individual employees benefit from training and development. Obisi (2011:83) asserted that training and development activities do not only improve job performance, but also bring about growth in personality. Obisi's assertion implies that municipalities that develop their employees will have satisfied and motivated employees who will contribute to the attainment of delivering quality service to citizens.

2.2.5.5 Promotional issues

Chang, Tsai and Tsai (2011:32) asserted that employee promotion involves assigning an employee to a job of higher rank, and that it comes with superior responsibilities and status and higher wages. Brewster et al. (2008:189) argued that promotion should be based on job-related criteria, particularly performance, and that promotion

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procedures should be free from bias and discrimination against employees on the basis of inappropriate criteria, such as gender, race, and religion. Heathfield (2011:1) maintained that promotion is a desirable form of recognition for those who make significant and effective work contributions, it impacts positively on pay, authority, and responsibility, and it raises the status of the employee, a visible sign of esteem bestowed by the employer.

Pfeifer, Janssen, Yang and Backes-Gellner (2011:3) claimed that while employees benefit from promotion through monetary gain and a higher reputation, employers could use promotion for efficient job assignment. These claims suggest that promotion is important for both employer and employee.

Chung-Herrera, Enz and Lankau (2003:17) indicated that some organisations prefer to groom, promote, and develop an internal labour market. An internal labour market, according to Lazear and Oyer (2004:1), refers to a system where workers are hired into entry-level jobs, while higher-level jobs are filled from within. Makovskay (2008:153) suggested that employing through an internal labour market decreases the risk of making a mistake when filling vacant posts. Pfeifer et al. (2011:3) explained that the firm learns about the abilities and skills of workers and on that basis could promote the best-fitting (most productive) worker to the next job in the hierarchy. Tzafrir (2005:1603) maintained that managers who trust their employees are more likely to promote them, thereby enhancing employee abilities and increasing organisational performance and employee commitment. As implied by the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (South Africa 1997a:40), employees should only be promoted if they applied successfully for a vacant position at a higher level, and in competition with others.

The Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 as amended in 2002 prescribes fair and non-discriminatory promotion procedures, which should be followed. If perceived to be fair by employees, promotion can improve commitment and job satisfaction. Promotion can only be seen as fair if employees contest for the position and an appointment is made based on performance. This implies that negative perceptions are likely to

attract employee disputes, dissatisfaction, increased lack of trust, and a high employee turnover.

Monis and Sreedhara (2011:112) identified chances for promotion and the opportunities for professional growth as important factors in motivating employees. These authors postulated that having no or few opportunities for growth or promotion are important reasons for employees leaving their jobs or seeking "greener pastures". According to Monis and Sreedhara career development plans that lead to promotion for individuals have been found to be effective in fostering future leadership within organisations. Importantly, too, practices that contribute to employee advancement (promotion) have been linked to employee commitment to the organisation, increased productivity, and decreased absenteeism and employee turnover (Grawitch, Gottschalk & Munz 2006:131).

Grobler et al. (2011:262) cautioned that organisations should guard against discrimination in promotion, and advocated that promotion opportunities should be provided equally to all employees. It can be concluded that promotion could be a useful tool for municipalities in their quest to improve service delivery. Tzafrir (2005:1603) indicated that promotion from within is likely to be associated with low employee turnover. These authors further stated that companies that promote employees from within the firm are likely to perform well, because this feature provides a strong motivation for employees to work hard, so that they will be promoted. However, promotion has to be fair and non-discriminatory, so that municipalities can improve commitment and job satisfaction among employees who are mandated to deliver service to citizens.

2.2.5.6 Performance appraisal and performance management

Kleynhans et al. (2009:143) defined performance appraisal as a formal process of evaluating or assessing the work done by an employee or a team of employees, which is meant to improve individual and organisational performance. Walsh (2003:13) asserted that performance appraisal is a process by which a superior evaluates and judges the work performance of a subordinate, and performance appraisal is therefore evaluative and judgemental.

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Performance appraisal can be an effective tool in determining merit increases, employee bonuses and pay, decisions concerning promotions, demotions, transfers, and lay-offs, and decisions on recruitment, selection, and placements (Grobler et al. 2011:298). Boachie-Mensah and Dogbe (2011:270) were of the view that jobs with performance-related pay attracted high-calibre workers and motivated workers to exert greater effort. This view confirms the link between rewards, employee performance, and organisational performance and success.

Performance appraisal is perceived as a mechanism to honestly evaluate performance, to know exactly who is responsible for doing what, and how the job has to be done (More & Miller 2011:246). More and Miller (2011:246) explained that effective performance evaluation involves applying a standard designed to specify the minimum level of acceptable performance for each particular job. Taylor (2008:342) however, pointed out that managers use performance appraisal to impose their personal authority and to discriminate. Taylor (2008:385) advised managers to ensure that decisions taken as a result of a performance appraisal are made objectively, and that no unlawful discrimination occurs. If performance appraisal is perceived to be unfair, or biased, it will inevitably lead to a distortion of the appraisal process.

Performance appraisal systems are meant to improve the level of performance in the workplace, and organisations are concerned with the perceived fairness of appraisal systems (Parker 2006:45). Municipalities therefore need to be cautious when assessing employees' performance, to guard against unethical activities. Taylor (2008:386) indicated that such activities could have adverse effects for the organisation, such as demotivating employees and contributing to a poor reputation in key labour markets.

One can conclude from this section that performance appraisal is all about evaluating employee performance, identifying skills shortages and gaps, and employing appropriate corrective measures. Performance appraisal needs to be managed to ensure that planned goals, set standards and competency requirements are met. Performance also needs to be managed, to ensure that performance targets are realised. Performance management is discussed in the following section.

Performance management

Armstrong (1994:23), as cited in Dowling (2007:1), defined performance management as a means of obtaining better results from organisations, teams, and individuals by understanding and managing performance within an agreed framework of planned goals, standards, and attributes, or competency requirements. Amos et al. (2004:64) defined performance management as an approach to managing people to improve employee performance in line with the overall strategic objectives of the organisation. Marchington and Wilkinson (2007:187) asserted that performance management is the policies, procedures, and practices that focus on employee performance as a means of fulfilling organisational goals and objectives. Hunter (2012:167) stated that performance management involves employee training and a developmental component, where the manager's role is one of a coach who supports and guides the people who report to him or her. Performance management should therefore be viewed as an instrument within the organisation that defines employee performance, with the ultimate aim of improving the overall organisational performance.

Saks and Gruman (2011:125) suggested that the involvement of employees in all phases of performance management could induce positive attitudes and commitment. Municipal employee involvement in performance management and appraisal activities could encourage employees to do honest assessments of themselves to determine their shortfalls, as well as come up with suggestions on how they can improve on their deficiencies. Improving on deficiencies could enhance employee performance and, ultimately, goal attainment.

2.2.5.7 Disciplinary issues

Organisations strive to achieve their goals through people. However, deviations usually occur, and people might not always perform as expected, hence the occurrence of disciplinary actions in workplaces. Grobler et al. (2011:522) stated that even with the most sophisticated organisations, with highly qualified employees, there will still be employees who will be unwilling or unable to achieve a satisfactory level of performance. Likewise, there will always be disciplinary issues in organisations.

Chelliah and Tyrone (2010:93) defined disciplining as a procedure for dealing with job-related behaviour of an employee who does not meet the performance standards and/or a code of proper behaviour, as set out by the employer. Chelliah and Tyrone (2010:93) posited that discipline is intended to assist an employee to improve his or her work behaviour by giving him or her necessary feedback and support to adjust to workplace requirements, rather than to simply face unemployment at the whim of the employer. Chelliah and Tyrone (2010:93) stated that employers are generally expected to give their employees an opportunity to remedy their shortcomings in performance or conduct prior to termination of their employment. Disciplining in the workplace is therefore the means by which behavioural deficiencies are corrected.

Disciplinary issues can be contentious depending on how they are handled. Cooke (2006:692) argued that the effects of discipline are strongly mediated by the way in which the discipline is carried out, and the perceived fairness of the discipline. When discipline is believed to be unjust, it holds little legitimacy with the workforce, and it may encourage future breaking of rules (Cooke 2006:692). Kleynhans et al. (2009:286) stated that when employers are unhappy with the behaviour of employees, they need to discipline them through managers, who must ensure that employees conform to standards of behaviour that support the effectiveness of the organisation.

Discipline can be carried out through any of three modes, namely: incorrect discipline, preventive discipline, and positive discipline (Grobler et al. 2011:526). According to Grobler et al. incorrect discipline refers to mistakes associated with the disciplinary process in a workplace – in other words, it involves procedural issues related to disciplining employees. With preventive discipline people are managed in a way that prevents behaviour that needs to be disciplined; this is the most desirable form of discipline. Managers that practise preventive discipline create an organisational climate that is conducive to high levels of employee satisfaction and productivity (Grobler et al. 2011:526). The third form of discipline, positive discipline, is meant to correct unsatisfactory employee behaviour through support, respect, and people-oriented leadership. According to Grobler et al. (2011:526) positive discipline helps rather than harasses the employee; it is not an attempt to soft-pedal or side-step an employee-related problem. Grobler et al. (2011:526) added that it is a management

philosophy that assumes that improved employee behaviour is most likely to be long-lived when discipline is administered without revenge, abuse, or vindictiveness.

In any organisational environment, including the municipal environment, any form of incorrect discipline will be counter-productive to service delivery. In accordance with organisational justice, employees who feel that they have been incorrectly disciplined will see the discipline as unfair, which will lead to negative behavioural patterns, such as lack of commitment to organisational goals, which will ultimately affect service delivery. It is clear that preventive discipline will be more desirable in most organisations, including municipalities, which means that employees must be managed in a way that prevents behaviour that needs to be disciplined. However, this type of disciplining seems difficult to achieve in the municipal environment, due to managerial incapacity (Paradza, Mokwena & Richards 2011:35).

One can conclude from the above discussion that there will always be deviants, whose misbehaviour needs to attract discipline. This is where *positive discipline* can be employed. Employers do not need to ignore employees' misdeeds, as this has the potential to retard progress, and ultimately organisational performance. From the organisational justice perspective, other employees who are aware of unpunished transgressions by other employees will feel that injustice is being done. In accordance with the thesis proposed for this study, perceptions of unfairness, or unjustness, will lead to low motivation, low citizenship behaviour, and ultimately poor service delivery. Discipline can be a source of misunderstanding and conflict in organisations, and it calls for management to be able to manage it in such a way that employment relationships are enhanced. Employment relationships will be discussed in the following section.

2.2.5.8 Labour relations issues

Organisations use people to achieve their goals. Swanepoel et al. (2007:61) viewed labour relations as being concerned with the relations between employer(s) and workers regarding conflict resolution, cooperation, involvement, and communication. One can conclude then that labour relations exist where employers, because of their mutual involvement in a work situation, are in a specific relationship with one another.

As in any work environment or relationship, misunderstandings and conflicts are bound to occur from time to time in municipalities. Such conflicts, if not managed appropriately, could lead to delays in work, lack of interest in work, and lack of action (Hotepo, Asokere, Abdul-Azeez & Ajemunigbohun 2010:3). The preceding assertion by Hotepo et al. (2010:3) could simply mean that, in any unstable organisational environment it is reasonable to expect little or no performance, which could ultimately be detrimental to goal achievement. The role of labour relations is thus to ensure that management-employee conflicts are minimised, and speedily resolved when they do occur. Bendix (2010:4) suggested that work relationships should provide a sound labour relationship in workplaces. This means that employers and employees need to be on good working terms, to work effectively together. The Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 (South Africa 1995) provides a legal framework for handling labour relations issues in South Africa. It is thus realistic to conclude that labour relations are all about maintaining relationships in organisations.

HRM and labour relations have the employment relationship as their foundation, and such a relationship between the two parties of employer and employee need to be monitored and regulated to ensure that harmony prevails. The daily human relations or employment relations, particularly between superiors and subordinates, are an important element of working life (Swanepoel et al. 2007:617). It is important to secure and maintain employee commitment, knowing that commitment leads to improved organisational performance (Maxwell & Steele 2003:364). The discussion below elucidates the role of collective bargaining in labour relations.

It is important to handle issues that affect employees, such as bargaining with employers, and labour-related disputes and conflicts, through collective bargaining, as provided for by the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 as amended in 2002. There is no doubt that through collective bargaining, municipalities can manage and handle labour-related issues amicably, so that both the goals of both the employer and the employee can be achieved at the same time.

In the Free State Province (the research site), it has been reported that a number of municipalities experienced serious labour challenges (CoGTA 2009:65), and this has

prompted the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) to put in place strategies aimed at ensuring municipal compliance with legislation, for the purpose of promoting labour peace and enhancing service delivery. The idea is that labour peace leads to achievement of the goals of both employee and employer, and of high levels of employee satisfaction, which ultimately leads to maximum employee productivity and higher levels of organisational success.

The following section focuses on talent management (an HRM practice) as one approach that could be applied by HR managers to ensure employee productivity and organisational success.

2.2.5.9 Talent management

Although it is difficult to assign a precise meaning to talent management (Lewis & Heckman, 2006:139), a review of the literature shows that it is an HRM concept that places emphasis on the special management of talented human resources. Nel et al. (2011:566) contended that talent management is an approach that could be applied by HR managers to manage people effectively. Brewster et al. (2008:129) argued that there is a need for more creative human resource practices to attract and retain talented employees. Examination of a few definitions will show that talent management is indeed an HRM concept.

Brewster et al. (2008:127) claimed that talent management is the HRM function that focuses on the development of policies and systems that attract, retain, and develop key resources to ensure that organisations generate a sustainable competitive advantage through people. Lockwood (2006:1) suggested that talent management is the implementation of integrated strategies or systems designed to increase workplace productivity by developing improved processes for attracting, developing, retaining, and utilising people with the required skills and aptitudes to meet current and future business needs.

According to Nel et al. (2011:566), talent management is a complementary practice to strategic HRM, for attracting, engaging, and retaining key and leadership talent. Talent management is a contemporary concept which is vital for organisations because of

the ever-changing organisational environment, and it is concerned with identifying talented people, finding out what they want, and giving it to them – if you do not give it to them, your competitors will (Al-Awamleh 2009:18). Al-Awamleh claimed that talent management strives to motivate and retain employees with more relevant talent (employees and leaders that are valuable in driving the business forward). These are the top achievers and the people who can inspire others to achieve superior performance.

Talent management calls for dynamic interaction between many functions and processes. It is an on-going, proactive activity designed to attract, identify, recruit, develop, motivate, promote, and retain people that have strong potential to succeed within an organisation (Al-Awamleh, 2009:18:23). An inability on the part of municipalities to attract, retain, develop, and nurture talent could hinder the realisation of organisational goals in the long run.

It is clear from the above exposition that talent management is a contemporary concept that municipalities could consider implementing to complement their HRM practices. In so doing, municipalities would not only attract employees to join their workforce, but it will also help them to retain and develop employees for quality service delivery. The challenge for municipalities will be how to approach talent management without incurring the wrath of employees. From an organisational justice perspective, talent management will need to be handled with care, so that the entire process is seen as fair and just, in order to elicit a positive response from employees. What follows is a discussion of the concept of TQM, which HR managers can adopt to enhance continual quality in the HR department, and in the organisation as a whole.

2.2.5.10 Total quality management (TQM) in HRM

The quality of service delivered by municipalities has been the subject of debate since the democratisation of South Africa in 1994. This is evidenced by the increasing number of riots by citizens throughout South Africa, who have displayed their dissatisfaction with the service rendered to them. Hollands and Mageza (2010:4) claimed that the 2004/2005 nationwide civil protests against low quality municipal service delivery started in the Free State, and then rapidly spread to other provinces.

These protests over customer dissatisfaction with services rendered by municipalities occurred despite the long-held view that TQM, which is continual improvement to meet customer satisfaction, could assist organisations to address problems in the quality of service delivery (Yang, 2006:162). As a result of persistent protests over lack of quality in service delivery, it is only fair that TQM in municipalities is scrutinised, and that municipalities, like any other organisation, pay more attention to TQM if they want to satisfy the needs of citizens (their customers).

TQM is a holistic concept that requires motivation of all members of an organisation to seek customer satisfaction (Yang, 2006:163). Bellou and Andronikidis (2008:945) viewed TQM as continual improvement to meet customer satisfaction, increase internal service quality, and increase employee involvement with reduced rework or a reduction in the use of resources. This may explain why companies resort to TQM to achieve customer satisfaction and organisational success with minimal resources.

Yang (2006:163) sees HRM as a unit that can reinforce human relationships and group consciousness, raise employee competence, and achieve change. HRM is thus seen as a catalyst for implementation of TQM. Karani and Bichanga (2012:60) viewed TQM as an organisational management approach which is centred on quality, based on the participation of all its members, and aimed at long-term success. TQM, according to Karani and Bichanga (2012:60), is achieved through customer satisfaction and benefits to all members of the organisation, as well as society.

Yang (2006:171) argued that HRM practices such as "training and development", "incentive compensation", and "employee development" produced the greatest influences on TQM. Shammot (2011:157) and Yang (2006:171) were of the view that HRM implementations significantly affect the TQM practices of culture "change and development", "customer satisfaction management", and "statistical quality control". Organisations must focus not only on the products and services provided to customers, but also on their resources, such as materials, human resources, procedures, communication with all stakeholders, and their relationships with those stakeholders, which include customers and suppliers and other parties. Yang (2006:165) designed a research framework that depicts the relationship between the

HRM practices of TQM and the employee, and ultimately customer satisfaction. This is, however, not relevant to the topic of this research, so it will not be discussed any further.

2.3 AN OVERVIEW OF INTERNATIONAL MUNICIPAL HRM ISSUES

Before exploring in depth the subject of HRM in municipalities in South Africa, it is considered useful to first briefly reflect on HRM issues in municipalities globally. To achieve this objective, this section reviews selected country cases of HRM in the public sector, with specific focus on municipalities.

Gould-Williams and Mohamed (2010:653) posited that the performance effects of best practices are universal. This implies that best practices could be shared, and that municipalities worldwide could learn from one another. The review in this section could therefore provide key lessons to inform municipalities in South Africa in their human resource management. The choice of countries reviewed was dictated by the availability of literature.

2.3.1 Malaysia

A study conducted by Gould-Williams and Mohamed (2010:653) indicated that the public service and municipalities in Malaysia recognised the strategic importance of the HRM function for organisational performance. According to these authors, HRM in the Malaysian public service in general has evolved from a focus on employee welfare alone to one that emphasises both human development and optimal productivity. The authors reported that important Islamic values, emphasising the need for honesty, self-discipline, motivation, teamwork, and consensus are now embedded in HRM practices in the Malaysian public service, including municipalities. One of the findings of the study was that these changes in HRM practices had a significant effect on the Malaysian workforce's quit intentions. The authors concluded that public sector organisations such as municipalities could benefit from introducing innovative HRM best practices that should lead to desirable employee outcomes, which, in turn, should have an impact on organisational performance.

2.3.2 United Kingdom

Gould-Williams (2007:1641) evaluated social exchange relationships among local government employees in the United Kingdom (UK). His study revealed that high exchange relationships lead to greater discretionary effort and worker motivation, while low exchange relationships reduce worker motivation, increase worker stress levels, reduce quality of life, and increase desire to leave the organisation. Blau (2009) defined social exchange as voluntary actions which may be initiated by an organisation's treatment of its employees, with the expectation that such treatment will eventually be reciprocated in kind. Based on the findings of the study conducted in the UK, as well as Blau's (2009) definition of social exchange, Gould-Williams (2007:1641) concluded that when employees are subjected to unfair treatment at work, they are more likely to leave. A very important finding of Gould-Williams (2007:1641) was that equitable rewards affected staff motivation, making staff want to stay and increase their work performance, and ultimately organisational performance.

2.3.3 USA

In the USA, McDowell and Leavitt (2011:239) reported that many local governments have at least three groups or organisational units that share HRM functions and responsibilities. According to these authors, the units work together as a team to successfully resolve HR issues. They also found that the number and complexity of federal and state laws were regarded by municipalities as affecting the smooth workflow of local government human resource departments. As a result, municipalities in the USA have resorted to seeking the guidance of attorneys. The laws that were found most difficult to deal with include the Age Discrimination in Employment Act, the Americans with Disabilities Act, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Fair Labour Standards Act, Family and Medical Leave Act, and the Uniformed Services Employment Rights Act (McDowell & Leavitt 2011:240).

2.3.4 Tanzania

In the case of Tanzania, the Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) was introduced to improve, among other things, the quality of service provided by the local government (Mgonja & Tundui, 2012:206). However, a study by Pallangyo and Rees (2010) identified deficiencies in almost all local government associations (LGAs) in

Tanzania. The study found lack of human capacity in terms of the required number of employees, lack of competencies and skills and educational qualifications, and failure by the LGAs to attract and retain competent employees. Khaleghian and Das Gupta (2005:1088) found that, just as with municipalities in many countries, LGAs in Tanzania lacked basic administrative capacity to execute their roles, leading to poor service delivery.

2.3.5 Summative assessment of municipal HRM issues

This section has reviewed some important available empirical research literature on HRM in municipalities from an international perspective. Although not exhaustive, it reveals typical issues faced by human resource managers of municipalities throughout the world, which are also likely to be faced in South Africa. One may be tempted to assume that management response and management practice in municipalities in South Africa should be similar, as Negandhi (1975: 275) would want us to believe. However, as Forster and Whipp (1995:439) and Gould-Williams and Mohamed (2010:657) cautioned, it would be naïve to assume that there is one best approach for managing people. Rather, municipalities in South Africa would do well to ensure that HRM practices consider cultural and regional differences (Gould-Williams & Mohamed 2010:657).

The underlying common thread in the countries discussed in the previous section is their quest for enhancement of service delivery through a competent, self-disciplined, and motivated workforce. In Malaysia, for example, municipalities recognise the strategic importance of the HRM function for organisational performance, and this is the case even in South Africa. In South Africa the public sector, through the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (Department of Public Service and Administration 1997) and the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998, emphasise enhancement of employee performance through skilling of employees in public service, and consequent improvement of service delivery. The USA has been found to be the only country among the countries discussed where the municipalities seek guidance from attorneys, due to the number and complexity of federal and state laws in the country, which are perceived to be affecting the smooth workflow of the

local government human resource departments. The following section describes the regulatory context of HRM in South Africa.

2.4 THE REGULATORY CONTEXT OF HRM IN SOUTH AFRICA

In South Africa, whether in the public or the private sector, HRM is regulated by a number of laws. According to Ferreira (2012:133), the intention of labour policy is to create a labour environment that is free from conflict and conducive to constructive and harmonious labour relations. Below is some of the most important legislation governing HRM in South Africa, which municipalities must comply with.

2.4.1 The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996)

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) is the overriding law of the country, from which all other laws derive. Legislation on HRM practices is subject to the Constitution and is meant to ensure justness, equality, and fairness, which are fundamental human rights.

2.4.2 The Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995 as amended in 2002)

The Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995 as amended in 2002) specifies the rights and responsibilities of employees and employers. The purpose of the Act is to advance economic development, social justice, labour peace, and democratisation of the workplace. The Act deals with issues such as freedom of association, collective bargaining, strikes and lockouts, and unfair labour practices, such as unfair dismissal.

2.4.3 The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act 75 of 1997 as amended in 2002)

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (Act 75 of 1997 as amended in 2002) specifies the rights and responsibilities of employees and employers. The purpose of the Act is to ensure that employees enjoy certain minimum conditions of employment, through the creation of secure, equitable, and harmonious working relationships (Ferreira 2012:143). This Act regulates working time, leave, remuneration and termination of employment.

2.4.4 The Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998)

The purpose of the Employment Equity Act (Act 55 of 1998) is to achieve equity in the workplace, by promoting equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment, through the elimination of unfair discrimination. Nconco (2012:36) asserted that all employers must take steps to promote equal opportunity in the workplace and to eliminate unfair discrimination in any employment policy or practice. Nconco stated that employment equity is concerned with eradication of unfair discrimination of any kind, and it stipulates measures to encourage employers to undertake organisational transformation to remove unjustified barriers to employment for all South Africans and to accelerate training and promotion of individuals from historically disadvantaged groups.

The Act also deals with unfair discrimination and affirmative action. It is in the name of affirmative action that HRM is often alleged to be manipulated to suit the political whims of the dominant political parties in municipalities, with detrimental consequences for service delivery.

2.4.5 Other labour-related legislation

Besides the above laws, there is the Public Service Act 103 of 1994, the Skills Development Act 97 of 1998, and many others that are too numerous to list or to discuss here, which have a bearing on how HRM should be practised in South Africa.

It is evident from the above that all the legal ingredients exist in South Africa for promoting justness and fairness in the workplace. Regrettably, however, a shortage of qualified staff has been identified as a challenge to service delivery in municipalities in South Africa, as well as to the filling of vacant positions in municipal administration management structures (Paradza et al., 2010:35). This means that it may take more than legislation alone to improve HRM in municipalities in South Africa. In other words, one needs to consider other forces that impact on HRM in municipalities in the country.

One can conclude from the existence of the above legislation that South Africa aims to achieve good HRM practices, to ensure justness and equality in employees' rights and responsibilities.

2.5 THE POLITICAL CONTEXT OF HRM IN MUNICIPALITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

In section 1.2.2, it was posited that politically motivated HRM practices could offer some explanation for the perceived poor HRM record of municipalities in South Africa. In this regard, it is interesting to note that Senyucel (2009:14) observed that effective HRM depends upon the conditions that the organisational setting provides. The political polarisation of municipalities in South Africa might well create a negative environment for HRM in municipalities. This is because in South Africa the HRM practices of municipalities have been subjected to so much criticism, on an almost daily basis, with officials usually accused of unsanctioned self-serving, but most of the time it has been because of politically motivated HRM practices which are divisive, illegitimate, dysfunctional, and counter-productive (Ahmad 2010:33). From the literature discussed in this chapter, it is evident that other HR-related challenges facing South Africa include, but are not limited to, equal opportunities for all citizens, worker motivation, the brain drain, and management competency. This state of affairs is not favourable for any country, particularly a growing economy, such as South Africa is. Mofamadi (2005) rightly stated that interventions must be in place to make a positive impact on the way challenges such as creating conditions for sustainable service delivery and economic development are met (Pretorius & Schurink 2007:19).

The danger of political polarisation is real and is a common feature in municipalities in South Africa. In a study by Paradza et al. (2010:40) in Randfontein municipality, it was claimed that there was political interference and polarisation in Randfontein Local Municipality. The study also found evidence of political interference in HRM practices in municipalities in the Western Cape, Northern Cape, Free State, and KwaZulu-Natal. Furthermore, CoGTA (2009:67) found in municipalities evidence of nepotism, favouritism, erratic appointments and promotions, and posts being filled without having first been advertised. This seemingly deep-rooted political polarisation in municipalities in South Africa creates fertile ground for unacceptable HRM practices, such as 'nepotism', based on political affiliation, as well as the openly admitted to strategy of so-called 'cadre deployment'. Mashala (2012:3) confirmed this by citing the North West Province (NWP) Premier's criticism of cadre deployment in government departments. The leader of the Democratic Alliance (DA) political party in South Africa (2012:1) in NWP shared the sentiments of the Premier, when he asserted that most

municipalities have become dumping grounds for cadres who have no understanding or capacity to run local government.

The problem with cadre deployment, according to Kanyane (2012:1), is that it is a deployment strategy that systematically places loyalty ahead of merit and competence, and it is therefore a serious obstacle to efficient public service. Areff (2012:1) pointed out that incompetent and unqualified people are unable to deliver services efficiently and effectively. Areff (2012:1) further stated that competence and ethical standards are critical for effective public service.

With regard to Areff's (2012a, 2012b) and Kanyane's (2012:1) statements, one can assume that while cadre deployment is viewed by some as a means of redressing inequity, it is also seen as abused by HRM officials in public service when making employment decisions, in that it is used in such a way that party affiliates are favoured, without due consideration to organisational performance.

In fact, allegations abound in the South African press, claiming that some, if not most, employees of municipalities owe their employment, promotion, remuneration, and development opportunities to party affiliation, rather than merit – claims that Paradza et al. (2010:40) have substantiated in their assessment of the role of councillors in service delivery at local government level in South Africa.

Even if some or most of these allegations were to remain unsubstantiated, it could be argued that suspicions alone could impact negatively on employees and the organisation. It is a fact that employee perceptions of organisational politics have been linked to a variety of negative outcomes for organisations, including low levels of employee citizenship behaviour (ECB), task performance, employee organisational commitment (EOC), and job satisfaction (Ahmad 2010:45). For example, when it is suspected that a person is employed, promoted, given a pay increase, or given the opportunity to develop, on the basis of some party affiliation or certain 'connections' other than merit, this could be perceived by other employees as unfair. This perception could impact negatively on, for example, employees' motivation, commitment and

citizenship behaviour, which could eventually affect the quality of service delivered by the municipalities in which the employees work.

It can be deduced from the exposition in the above sections that political expediency is a major force that is impacting on the way HRM is practised in municipalities in South Africa. At the same time, it is heartening to know that the national government seems to have become aware of the detrimental effects of politically motivated HRM practices, such as its infamous cadre deployment strategy, on municipal service delivery. A further positive development towards possible action to eradicate HRM malpractices in municipalities is the release of a draft report of a government-sponsored audit on local government that admits that the practice of nepotism and employing unqualified staff are major impediments to service delivery in municipalities (Dzansi & Dzansi 2010:997).

Claims by important stakeholders in the South African government also confirm the prevalence of HRM malpractices in municipalities in South Africa. For example, as stated earlier, the DA (2012) recently claimed that municipalities throughout South Africa are guilty of appointing officials, particularly senior ones, solely on the basis of political connections, and that municipal managers tend to be under-qualified and overpaid, and consequently do not perform, leading to poor service delivery. Furthermore, the South African Local Government Association (SALGA) (2011:12) has conceded that the general expectation that HRM should be the appropriate vehicle for quality service delivery has not materialised. SALGA's statements are a clear self-indictment on the quality of HRM in municipalities, and one cannot help but conclude that political interference, which was alluded to above, could in part be the cause.

2.6 TOWARDS FAIR, OR JUST, HRM IN MUNICIPALITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

It is clear from the discussion so far that organisations and their employees have objectives that need to be met. Strydom (2008:233) posited that neither the goals of the organisation nor the goals of the employee should be achieved at the expense of the goals of the other. Strydom (2008:232) emphasised that if HRM is performed well, it could lead to success for the organisation. Judicious HRM therefore appears to be the means through which employee goals could be met, without compromising the

achievement of organisational goals. Proper management of people in the workplace is therefore essential for organisations.

Employees join organisations to satisfy their needs. Nel et al. (2008:7) perceived employment as an opportunity to satisfy intrinsic and extrinsic needs. Swanepoel et al. (2007:13) argued that once a person joined an organisation, a social exchange relationship came into being (Yoon & Suh 2003:600), where employees provided knowledge, skills, attitudes, abilities, and energy to do work in return for some form of remuneration or reward. Gould-Williams (2007:1628) stated that the process of social exchange is initiated by organisations when they signalled that they valued employees' contributions and were prepared to care for the individual interests and personal well-being of their employees. If this were achieved, then, according to exchange theory, employees would reciprocate with positive work attitudes and behaviours; in other words, they would be more willing to exert extra effort and less likely to withdraw membership from the organisation (Gould-Williams 2007:1628).

Municipalities, or any organisations that seek a long-term exchange relationship with their employees, should heed the views of Gould-Williams and Davies (2005:2). These authors asserted that positive worker attitudes depend on employees' perceptions of how committed the employing organisation is to them. Tremblaya, Cloutierb, Simardb, Cheˆneverta and Vandenberghea (2010:407) were of the view that HRM practices that recognise individuals' contributions and encourage investment in employees, should be perceived as a manifestation of support and a sign that the organisation seeks to establish a fairly long-term exchange relationship with its employees. One can construe, then, that organisations that care for their employees and recognise their contributions are likely to have satisfied employees who will contribute effectively and productively to the overall accomplishment of the organisation's goals. This implies that proper HRM will result in employee motivation and satisfaction, and consequent high levels of employee commitment to quality service delivery in municipalities.

It is evident from the definitions examined thus far that for organisations to succeed, the right people must be employed, and employees' skills must be used optimally, meaning that employees must be well managed, organised, led, and controlled.

Human resource management in municipalities in South Africa should therefore rise above personal and political interests, by employing the right people with the right skills and competencies. If this happens, all things being equal, service delivery should improve.

The above reasons lead one to conclude that in the end, organisational performance and success are the result of proper application of human resource management functions. This statement has profound implications for service delivery in municipalities. Simply put, it means that service organisations such as municipalities need to have consistent HRM policies and practices that are designed and implemented in a way that the organisation's human resources are motivated to contribute to the achievement of quality service delivery to all South Africans.

2.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Although quality service delivery is high on the agenda of the South African government, achievement of this seems to remain a problem for most municipalities. This problem has been blamed on human resource incapacity by municipalities. Failure to deliver quality service can be attributed, among other things, to the fact that the HRM practices of municipalities are not up to standard. This observation is consistent with the long-held view by scholars, practitioners, and policy makers that HRM practices and organisational performance are inextricably linked. Thus, for service organisations to deliver quality service to customers, it is essential to have competent and well-managed employees. Unfortunately, proper HRM seems to be a difficult task in municipalities in South Africa.

The literature review has identified legislation and political forces as key factors that impact on HRM practice in municipalities in South Africa. It is clear that there is sufficient legislation, which if followed to the letter, can lead to proper HRM in municipalities. Unfortunately, this does not seem to be the case, as reported abuse of HRM practices seems to be the order of the day. The failure of organisations, including municipalities, to comply with legislation, could be attributed to the politically polarised environments. These political environments could make HRM in municipalities very vulnerable to political interference. Not surprisingly, accusations of nepotism,

undeserved promotions, and so on, all based on political affiliation and other connections, have often been levelled against municipalities.

As postulated in section 1.2.2, from an organisational justice point of view, municipal employees tend to develop low fairness perceptions of their organisations as a result of perceived political interference in HRM practices. The problem is that low employee justness perceptions of municipalities could lead to low levels of employee motivation and commitment, conditions that are enough to make municipal employees develop negative or unacceptable behaviours, which may affect the quality of service they render to customers.

The following chapter reviews literature on employee justness perceptions and its links with HRM practices, in order to comprehend the interplay of these two concepts in the municipal environment, and how this interplay ultimately impacts on employee attitudes, behaviour, and service delivery.

CHAPTER 3: IMPLICATIONS OF EMPLOYEES' JUSTNESS PERCEPTIONS FOR MUNICIPALITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter considered HRM in municipalities in contemporary South Africa. Specifically, the literature review examined the regulatory and political contexts of HRM in South Africa and cascaded it down to South African municipalities. Essentially, HRM practices, organisational justice theory, and organisational performance are inextricably linked. This chapter reveal links between employee justness perceptions of HRM practices and employee attitudes, behaviour, and service delivery.

It is axiomatic to say that organisational survival depends on employees and customers. Maintaining the satisfaction of employees and customers is central to business success and sustainability. An indirect way of fulfilling the mission of enhancing customer satisfaction is to ensure that workers are satisfied. In essence, happy and satisfied workers are mostly productive and deliver high-quality performance. As such, customer loyalty is linked to a psychologically 'healthy' workforce. This approach is based on the belief that satisfied workers make satisfied customers, and satisfied customers will remain loyal to the organisation and contribute towards its prosperity. However, employee justness perceptions influence employees' attitudes towards their jobs and the organisation, as well as their behaviour. Pourezzat and Someh (2009:97) asserted that customer and employee satisfaction to a large extent depends on the fairness of management decisions made regarding them. Garlick (2010:306) stated that creating a positive work environment is associated with favourable employee attitudes towards customers whilst Edmans (2011), as cited in Saadullah and Rezaee (2012:13) indicated that employee satisfaction improved corporate performance. Customers express their dissatisfaction if they encounter poor-quality services. For example, Gull and Iftikhar (2012:254) pointed out that when the service encounter fails, chances are that the customer will either feel dissatisfied or may become angry.

As stated in Chapters 1 and 2, the concern of this study is the apparent poor service delivery in municipalities in South Africa. Considering the views of Greenberg

(1987:101) and many other experts, that organisational justice theory explained people's behaviour, a promising approach to understanding the problem of municipal service delivery seems to be through the lens of organisational justice. This is the view of the current study. Definitions and theories of organisational justice will be discussed in sections 3.3 and 3.4 of this chapter. Employee justness perceptions form an integral part of this study. It is thus essential that the term "perception" be elucidated, and that the effect of perceptions on human behaviour and attitudes is explained.

3.2 PERCEPTION

Perception may be defined as the cognitive process by which people interpret the stimuli they face in the environment; it is the process of selecting, organising, and interpreting environmental information, through which people give meaning to their environment (Pourezzat & Someh 2009:99). McShane and Von Glinow (2010:70) asserted that perception is an important modifier of the cognition processes through which people interpret the stimuli that they are confronted with in their environment. This implies that in organisations, including municipalities, employees' behaviour and attitude towards their work are likely to be influenced by their perceptions.

People use their senses to select and interpret information and to give the information meaning, and this ultimately prompts certain behaviours that are triggered by their perceptions (Pourezzat & Someh 2009:100). Pourezzat and Someh (2009:100) state that what people see is not real; rather, people interpret what they see and consider it to be reality. It could be interpreted that perception is subjective, and given people's varied levels of understanding and knowledge, it is reasonable to expect considerable differences in perceptions of justness. Heidari, Rajaeepoor, Davoodi and Bozorgzadeh (2012:114) stated that people do not behave based on truths, but behave in accordance with their perceptions of reality. Pourezzat and Someh (2009:101) further claimed that every person has a specific interpretation of justness, according to their specific situation. In spite of differences in interpretation of justness, Amirkhani and Pourzzat (2008:20) believed that perception of organisational justice was necessary for efficiency, performance, and personnel satisfaction within organisations. This confirms that employees react to organisational decisions on an almost daily basis, and that their efficiency and performance, as well as their

satisfaction, will be based on their perceptions of such decisions. Positive or negative perceptions of such decisions could influence employees' attitudes and behaviour towards their jobs, as well as the organisation as a whole. According to Chipunza and Samuel (2011:88), organisational justice theory (Greenberg, 1987) and attribution theory (Weiner, 1995) explain people's behaviour as influenced by perceptions of how events have occurred in the past. Based on Greenberg's (1987) organisational justice theory and Weiner's (1995) attribution theory, it would be difficult for a municipality to change people's perceptions of it, even if it happened to change for the better. This implies that past lack of fairness by an organisation could influence current perceptions of the organisation, irrespective of how much the organisation has improved.

It is vital that managers recognise and value their employees. Through collaborative, continuous communication and respect for employees, organisations are likely to provide high standards of performance, and ultimately provide quality service to customers. Considering the high number of customer protests over service delivery in South Africa, one would be tempted to conclude that employee performance is not up to standard in the country. According to Nleya (2011:4), the causes of protest in South Africa have been traced to inadequate service delivery.

It can be concluded from the previous paragraph that employees' justness perceptions could result in negative or unacceptable attitudes and behaviour, depending on whether their perceptions are positive or negative. The way in which HRM functions are carried out in municipalities may be perceived as fair or unfair by employees, and these perceptions could have positive or negative ramifications for the overall performance of municipalities. In this case, HRM justness perceptions in municipalities, as in any other organisation, could be potential determinants of employee attitudes, behaviour patterns, and performance.

3.3 WHAT IS ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE?

Coetzee (2005:365) stated that organisational justice research dates back to the 1960s, and that it was mainly conducted to test propositions about the distribution of payment and other work-related rewards. However, with time, fairness became a major concern for all other facets of HRM. The term 'organisational justice' has had

numerous definitions, a few of which are examined below in order to capture the essence of the concept.

Tatum, Eberlin and Bradberry (2003:1009) regarded organisational justice as the fair and ethical treatment of people in an organisation. Organisational justice theory focuses on people's perceptions of fairness in the workplace (Greenberg 1987; Kang 2007). It attempts to describe and explain the role of fairness and justness in the workplace, and the consequences of fairness and justness, or lack thereof (Dzansi & Dzansi 2010:998). Organisational justice can also be defined as "a behavioural science concept that refers to the perception of fairness of the past treatment of the employees within an organisation held by the employees of that organisation" (Hosmer & Kiewitz, 2005:67). According to Saunders, Thornhill and Lewis (2002:85), organisational justice is concerned with understanding the subjectively-held perceptions of organisational participants that result from the outcomes of decisions taken in the organisation, the procedures and processes used to arrive at these decisions, and the implementation of these decisions. Esterhuizen (2008:56) indicated that justness in an organisational setting could be defined as a focus on the antecedents and consequences of two types of subjective perceptions, namely the fairness of outcome distributions and allocations, and the fairness of the procedures used to determine outcome distributions and allocations.

There is a clear indication from the above definitions that organisational justice is subjective and personal, it is based on experience rather than an objective sense of justice, and, if properly executed, perceptions of organisational fairness may increase. Therefore, organisational justice theory focuses on perceptions of fairness in organisations, by attempting to categorise and explain employee perceptions of (i) the treatment that employees receive, and (ii) how employees feel and react to this treatment. Managers, including municipal managers, may need to create an environment that fosters perceptions of organisational fairness.

Studies by Gilliland (1993:725) and subsequent studies by Fischer (2004:485) on employees of various organisations in the United Kingdom, Germany, United States, and New Zealand have revealed that employees evaluate HRM practices in terms of

justness. These studies showed that (a) individuals evaluate reward allocations in terms of fairness, and that (b) these fairness perceptions, in turn, influence the level of satisfaction and commitment of employees. If justness is perceived to be lacking, people will find ways and means to balance inputs and outputs in a way that will satisfy them, even if such actions will harm the organisation (Greenberg, 1987:45). Therefore, it will be informative to see how organisational justice theory can help in understanding the problem of service delivery in municipalities in South Africa.

3.4 THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

The literature search reveals two main theoretical approaches to understanding or studying organisational justice. While the most popular approach categorises organisational justice into three types, namely *distributive justice*, *procedural justice*, and *interactional justice* (Bakhshi, Kumar & Rani 2009:146) the less popular approach, referred to as Greenberg's (1987) taxonomy of organisational justice, categorises it into two dimensions, namely the *reactive-proactive dimension*, and the *process-content dimension*. In the following sections, the components of the two organisational justice approaches are examined in terms of their nature, their relationship with HRM, and how they are measured.

3.4.1 Distributive justice

Early research into organisational justice was concerned with distributive justice (Bakhshi et al. 2009:26). According to Bakhshi et al., *distributive justice* involves employee perceptions of the fairness of management decisions related to the distribution of outcomes such as pay and promotions. Similarly, Landy and Conte (2010:503) stated that distributive justice is concerned with the perceived fairness or unfairness of organisational allocation of resources and outcomes. Yavuz (2010:696) claimed that distributive justice in organisations is a concept that explains the distribution of all kinds of acquisitions, such as duties, goods, services, opportunities, punishments or rewards, roles, status, wages, and promotion among individuals, based on their similarities and differences. Kang (2007:91) stated that distributive justice focuses on the extent to which individuals perceive an outcome received in return for effort (input) as either fair or unfair. Noruzy, Shatery, Rezazadeh and Hatami-Shirkouhi (2011:843) posited that distributive justice is a form of fairness that

has to do with impartiality in workplace decisions. It focuses on people's beliefs about receiving a fair amount of work-related outcomes and affects workers' feelings of satisfaction with their work outcomes, such as pay and job assignments (Noruzy et al. 2011:843). For distributive justice to be seen as prevalent in any organisational setting, management should show concern for employees by ensuring that fairness prevails when outputs are distributed; in other words, rewards should be shared according to an individual's inputs. One can conclude that distributive justice plays a pivotal role in employee perceptions of justness, equity, and motivation.

Msoroka (2010:7) argued that employees that perceived themselves to be in an inequitable situation will seek to reduce that inequity by distorting inputs and/or outcomes by directly altering them or leaving the organisation. Weller (2009:105) stated that unfair treatment of employees leads to emotional states that result in employee behaviour that will be less cooperative and less productive. This means that employees that experience unfair treatment will likely be hostile towards the organisation and their colleagues, be less cooperative, will underperform, or they might even decide to leave the organisation altogether. It is therefore imperative that organisations strive for fairness, so as to enhance the employees' workplace. Adams' (1963, 1965) theory used the concept of equity to explain distributive justice.

According to Adams (1965:45), employees strive for equity between themselves and other workers. Equity is achieved when the ratio of employee inputs and outputs is equal and the ratio of one's outcomes over one's inputs is equal to that of other employees (Adams 1965:45). Inputs refer to what a person perceives to be contributing (for example, knowledge and effort), while outcomes or outputs are what an individual perceives to get out from what he or she has put in in an exchange relationship (for example, pay and recognition) (Al-Zawahreh & Al-Madi 2012:159). Adams' (1965) thesis claimed that employees expect a fair return for what they contribute to their jobs, a concept referred to as the 'equity norm'. Employees determine what their equitable return should be after comparing their inputs and outcomes with those of co-workers (referred to as social comparison). Employees that perceive inequity will seek to reduce the inequity by distorting inputs or outputs in their own minds (cognitive distortion), by directly altering inputs or outputs. In other words,

Adams' (1965) theory cautions that when the ratio of an employee's outcomes in relation to his or her inputs is compared with the ratio of other employees and is perceived to be disproportionate, this disequilibrium may have detrimental consequences for the achievement of organisational goals. Yavuz (2010:696) supported Adams' (1965) theory by pointing out that people compare the treatment they receive with the treatment others in the organisation receive, and they then make judgements about the level of justness, in accordance with their own perceptions. According to Yavuz (2010:696), these evaluations play a key role in the way members of an organisation perform their organisational duties and responsibilities. It is thus vital that organisations ensure distributive justice to enhance employee performance and consequent organisational performance. The following section describes the means that employers can use to ensure distributive justice in organisations.

3.4.1.1 Ensuring distributive justice

There has been much debate on how distributive justice could be ensured in the workplace. Theorists such as Adams (1963) and Leventhal (1976b) argued that the basis of just rewards should align with the equality rule of distributive justice. Adams (1965), Blau (2009), and Greenberg (1987) argued that just rewards should be equally (equitably) distributed on the basis of, for instance, hard work, and that they should therefore derive from the equity rule – in other words, some should have more than others, depending on their *contribution margin*. Coetzee (2005:66) added that organisations could choose between the contribution rule (the equity rule), the needs rule, or the equality rule to distribute outcomes. Coetzee (2005:66) asserted that decisions based on the equity rule are used to achieve productivity and a high level of performance; in contrast the equality rule is used when the goal is to preserve social harmony, while the needs rule is ideal when the objective is to foster personal welfare. This means that employees will expect fair returns for their contributions to their organisations. Goncalo and Kim (2010:1) claimed that the equity rule and the equality rule have received much attention. The equity rule involves what people are rewarded in direct proportion to their individual contribution. The equality rule dictates that all members of the group receive the same share, regardless of their individual contribution (Goncalo & Kim 2010:1). These authors also believe that the equity rule may indeed promote productivity in groups. Fischer (2004:486) maintained that equity,

or the consideration of work performance, is the most relevant criterion for organisations. This could also be applicable in municipalities where productivity in groups could mean rendering quality service to citizens. If the reports in the popular press are to be taken seriously, one could be drawn into concluding that abiding by the prescriptions of organisational justice, seems to be problematic for municipalities in South Africa, where citizens are continually protesting against the quality of services rendered to them.

A series of experiments by Deutsch (1985) found that although participants expected their own productivity to be higher under the equity rule, their actual performance was not significantly higher than that of participants that followed the equality rule (Goncalo & Kim, 2010:1). Goncalo and Kim (2010:2) claimed that interdependent selves may not be as motivated by the equity rule, since they do not seek opportunities to stand out, but rather prefer to blend in and maintain harmony with other group members. It is evident from this section that the equality rule is contradictory to the equity rule; the norm of this rule is that employees are allocated the same reward, irrespective of their contribution. The two other theories of distributive justice are meritocratic theories and needs-based theories. Meritocratic theories do not seem to be too different from the equity rule, as they both consider the individual's contributions to the organisation. According to Knowles and Lowery (2012:203), meritocratic theories argue that outcomes should be distributed to match individual **merit**, which is usually a combination of talent and hard work, whereas needs-based theories argue that outcomes should be distributed to meet an individual's **needs** (Lewin-Epstein, Kaplan & Levanon 2003:5).

Knowles and Lowery (2012:203) claimed that the meritocratic norm prescribes that individuals' inputs into the social system (that is, their talent and effort) determine the system's output to individuals (that is, economic resources). The mode of distribution is not the main issue, and it can be determined by an organisation. The argument which relates to this study is the issue of fairness when distributing outcomes among employees, irrespective of the mode of distribution used by the organisation. Employees who are undeservingly underpaid would feel angry, and their emotions could result in uncooperative behaviour and could compromise their productivity

(Goncalo & Kim, 2010:1). Adams (1965) theorised that outcomes could also be distributed according to the needs of the recipients; circumstances might lead to the distribution of rewards based on need, which then could be considered fair distribution of outcomes. Lewin-Epstein, Kaplan and Levanon (2003:5) argued that in systems where fostering personal development and well-being are the primary goal, need becomes the key principle of distributive justice. Whether the outcome is perceived as fair or not by recipients will depend on the motivation or desired outcomes of the allocator, and the reasons given for the decision (Lewin-Epstein et al. 2003:5).

Media claims by George (2012) on South African Broadcasting (SABC) suggested that HRM in municipalities often uses controversial criteria in the distribution of outcomes to employees, criteria on the basis of political or other affiliation, such as cadre deployment. These media claims are confirmed in the report by CoGTA (2009:67), which revealed cases of posts being filled on partisan affiliations, without jobs being advertised. The important question is whether employees perceive such decisions to be fair.

3.4.1.2 HRM practices and distributive justice

Distributive justice has been comprehensively defined in the previous section. The inference is that, should employees of any organisation, including municipalities, experience inequity in terms of resource allocation in return for their inputs, this could result in the formation of negative justness perceptions. Negative justness perceptions may consequently lead to undesirable behaviour and attitudes, which may lead to low levels of commitment and performance, and be detrimental to service delivery. Baldwin (2006:1) stated that it would be advisable for organisations to set standardised HR policies, such as predetermined job grades and salary bands, universal training, and development opportunities to avoid favouritism. Baldwin's (2006:1) statements suggested that predetermined HRM practices could promote positive behaviour and attitudes among employees, improve job satisfaction and commitment, and consequently result in an acceptable level of performance.

Whatever the final resolution is of a pay dispute or a grievance over organisational policy, the extent of fairness experienced is distributive justice, as far as HRM is

concerned (Esterhuizen & Martins 2008:71). In performance appraisal, for instance, individuals perceive procedures as most fair when control is vested in the participants; in other words, the more control employees have of the performance appraisal process, the more they will consider the process and the distribution to be fair (Kavanagh, Benson & Brown 2007:134). According to Matlala (2011:13), employee perceptions of fairness and the effectiveness of the performance appraisal system are often shaped by how employees perceive the attitudes of their managers. When employees in any organisation, including municipalities, feel that they are given a fair assessment of their abilities, they are likely to accept the goals of an organisation, exert effort, and stay loyal to the organisation. Therefore, from the perspective of HRM, for organisations to attract high levels of employee commitment, HRM practices should be practised fairly in the organisation, without certain individuals being favoured.

3.4.1.3 Measuring distributive justice

In order to measure distributive justice, one would have to measure the extent to which individuals perceive that they have been treated fairly. The distribution of benefits based on the position of the worker, his or her work experience and skill set, and his or her education and evaluation would be measured through a subjective account of the worker's level of satisfaction and his or her perception of fairness. For the sake of distributive justice, the worker could be asked to rate the extent to which they have been allocated a fair amount of whatever they wanted from that particular transaction (for example, a favourable evaluation, or a pay increase, or benefits).

Distributive justice can be summarised as an attempt to ensure just and fair distribution of outcomes in organisational setting. Employees that perceive unfairness in the distribution of outcomes or resources could be dissatisfied, and consequently be less committed to the organisation. In this regard, Bakhshi et al. (2009:149) reported that distributive justice has been found to be positively correlated with both job satisfaction and employee organisational commitment.

3.4.2 Procedural justice

Understanding procedural justice is critical to ensuring just and fair processes in organisations. It is therefore imperative that the meaning of procedural justice is

explained, at least operationally. The term 'procedural justice', also termed 'fair process effect', was introduced by Thibaut and Walker (1975), and later elaborated by Leventhal (1976a). Kreitner and Kinicki (2008:250) asserted that procedural justice means fairness of the processes that lead to decisions and outcomes. Procedural justice can thus be defined as perceived fairness of the procedures and processes used to determine outcomes and allocate resources and outcomes in the workplace (Ram & Prabhakar 2011:51). Drawing from the definitions of procedural justice given in this paragraph, one can construe, from an HRM perspective, that procedural justice can be defined as employees' perceptions of the fairness of procedures used in HRM decision-making processes and in the allocation of outcomes in organisations. Based on Kreitner and Kinicki's and Ram and Prabhakar's definitions, procedural justice seems appropriate in any organisation, including municipalities, because decisions will be made to decide how outcomes will be distributed, and, naturally, this process would be perceived as either fair or unfair by employees.

The above definitions may possibly mean that municipal employees' justness perceptions could be determined by their experience of the processes and procedures followed to arrive at decisions to distribute outcomes in municipalities. Irrespective of the outcome, whether positive or negative, any decision is likely to be accepted as long as the procedures followed in determining its outcomes are perceived to be fair and just (Poole 2007:730).

3.4.2.1 Ensuring procedural justice

Leventhal (1976a) proposed a theory of procedural justice judgements that provides six criteria for ensuring procedural fairness. Similarly, Bakhshi et al. (2009:146) formulated six procedural criteria. These authors claimed that procedural justice could be promoted by ensuring that decisions (1) are based on accurate information, (2) are applied consistently over time and across people, (3) provide an opportunity for all concerned to voice opinions during decision making, (4) are appealing, (5) are not personally biased on the part of the decision makers, and (6) are made in a moral and ethical manner. To ensure that procedural justice prevails within an organisation, decision makers should take into account the following guidelines:

Firstly, decisions should be based on accurate information. Accurate information can be linked to fairness perceptions – adequate information and feedback in relation to decisions made must be provided in order to promote honesty, transparency, consistency, bias suppression, and equity (Williamson & Williams 2011:62). Weller (2009:110) claimed that lack of explanation for decisions adopted is often regarded by employees as unfair, generating resentment towards management and towards the decision taken.

Secondly, managers need to ensure that decisions are applied consistently across people. Hoy and Tarter (2004:25) maintained that authenticity and procedural justice should guide consistency. Building on this, Hoy and DiPaola (2007:294) suggested that the application of rules, regulations, and policies should be fair, visible, and consistent, yet flexible enough to take account of individual needs and extraordinary circumstances. A just process is one that is applied consistently to all, free from bias, accurate, i representative of relevant stakeholders, and correctable and consistent with ethical norms (Cropanzano, Bowen & Gilliland 2007:38). This implies, from an HRM perspective, that employees will show greater company loyalty if they perceive HRM processes as just.

Thirdly, it is imperative that employees participate in decisions that concern them (Baldwin 2006:2; Weller 2009:110; Feldman & Tyler 2011:4; Coetzee,2005:215; Poole 2007:730). For example, Weller (2009:110) claimed that participation balances power between the employee and the employer. On the other hand, Baldwin (2006:2) is of the view that employees' perceptions of procedural justice are likely to be enhanced if they are given opportunities to present information and voice their concerns before decisions are taken. Feldman and Tyler (2011:4) maintained that employees that are provided with opportunities to participate and to voice their concerns regarding decisions that impact on their workplace, have been found to be more rule-adherent. Employees perceive that procedures should allow them to feel that they have participated in developments that affect them (Coetzee 2005:215). Poole (2007:730) asserted that employees are more likely to perceive a decision to be unfair if they feel that they did not have sufficient voice.

Fourthly, employees should be given the right of appeal if they are dissatisfied with the outcome of decisions taken that affect them. This is an important part of most decision-making processes, as it allows employees to challenge decisions that are perceived as wrong or detrimental to their interests (Weller 2009:110).

Fifthly, with regard to avoidance of personal bias in decision-making, Luo (2007:646) stated that because procedural justice can be influenced by organisational systems or processes, it is imperative for managers to put in place systems that ensure good work relationships, trust, and social harmony between work units.

Sixthly, decision makers need to ensure that decisions are made in a moral and ethical manner. Decision-making in organisations needs to be guided by laws, regulations, and policies. Weller (2009:110) suggested that procedural justice requires that hearings be conducted before an impartial person or panel. For hearings in the workplace conducted by supervisors, senior managers, and panels, this requirement necessitates prior training, to understand the role of fairness and ethics sufficiently. Failure to follow the mentioned guidelines could have detrimental consequences to the organisation. Nowakowski and Conlon (2005:5) and Esterhuizen and Martins (2008:67), for example, stated that when a decision, procedure, or interaction is seen as inappropriate, employees will usually experience a fairness violation. One can deduce from the previous statements that employee participation in decision making is prudent, as it could minimise disputes on how decisions were arrived at, particularly decisions that lead to unfavourable outcomes. Whatever the result of the decision, good or bad, people will always take ownership of the decision if they were involved in the decision-making process. This is confirmed by Weller (2009:109), who asserted that if an employee receives an unfavourable outcome but believes that the decision-making process was fair, the employee will be less likely to challenge the process. Weller (2009:109) cautioned, however, that people, no matter how involved they were in the decision-making process, might still be unhappy with the outcome of the process. In such instances, the employee should be given the right to appeal. This author regards the right to appeal as being an important part of the decision-making process, as it allows employees to challenge decisions that are perceived as wrong or detrimental to their interests. HRM in any organisation, including municipalities, could

promote organisational effectiveness through procedural justice. Perceptions of unfairness could result in counterproductive behaviours, which could be detrimental to the organisation. The following section deals with HRM practices and procedural justice.

3.4.2.2 HRM practices and procedural justice

The dimension of organisational justice is very important to many aspects of HRM; for example, an employee is said to be more likely to find the outcomes of HRM practices fair if the process followed in those practices is perceived to be equitable (Farndale, Hope-Hailey & Kelliher 2010:6). This is because genuinely fair procedures are likely to moderate the impact of negative reactions to undesirable outcomes (Saunders et al. 2002:90). According to Fischer (2004:488), reward allocation procedures and HRM practices are evaluated in terms of justice. Searle Hartog, Deanne, Weibel, Gillespie, Six, Hatzakis, & Skinner, (2011:3) posited that there is a relationship between HRM practices and procedural justice because procedural justice wins employees' trust and faith in the organisation.

South Africans typically have a tenuous relationship between procedural justice and organisational loyalty in their organisations (Cropanzano & Greenberg 1997:86). Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997:86) suggested that South Africans are "stronger in uncertainty avoidance, higher in power distance, more collectivistic, and more feminine in their orientation" as workers, and this makes South African employees less willing to push for formal procedural justice. Procedural fairness could be important to employees of South African organisations, including municipalities, because it will offer them some assurance of fairness of HRM practices. It seems reasonable then to assume that municipalities could enhance perceptions of both procedural justice and distributive justice by involving employees in HRM decision-making, regardless of their political affiliation. Employees tend to uphold high levels of trust in organisations that enforce organisational justice in HR practices. Searle et al. (2011:8) confirmed that employees' trust in their organisation could be enhanced through the use of certain HR practices. Searle et al. (2011:4) emphasised the importance of trust in organisations by indicating that employees who have high trust in their organisations, stay with the organisation longer. He added that employees who trust their

organisations put in more effort and work more cooperatively, while those who do not trust their organisation may be less effective in their work and may display counterproductive behaviour, such as obstructionism or seeking revenge.

3.4.2.3 Measuring procedural justice

Based on the procedural justice theories explored in this chapter, it has been established that the criterion for evaluating whether or not procedural justice has been achieved rests in the opinion of the aggrieved party. Gee, Delva and Takeuchi's (2007:933) study on self-reported unfair treatment concluded that addressing the antecedents of unfair treatment may be a potential route for intervention. One can infer that managers have an obligation to investigate the extent of employees' perceptions of transparency in the organisation, so that potential intervention can be implemented as early as possible.

Measuring the procedural justice process underpins two dimensions, according to Blader and Tyler (2003:749). The two dimensions outlined, namely procedural function and procedural source, are theoretically orthogonal to each other and can be integrated to establish a model that stipulates four types of concerns that people have when judging process fairness. These four types of concerns or judgements are (a) evaluations of formal rules and policies related to how decisions are made in the group (formal decision-making), (b) evaluations of formal rules and policies that influence how group members are treated (formal quality of treatment), (c) evaluations of how particular group authorities make decisions (informal decision-making), and (d) evaluations of how particular group authorities treat group members (informal quality of treatment) (Blader & Tyler, 2003:749).

Rupp (2011:75) believes that employee judgements or assessments are also based on whether the employee is *looking in* (that is, considering their own treatment), *looking around* (that is, considering the climate of justice), or *looking out* (that is, as a third-party observer of others' treatment). 'Looking in' refers to how fairly employees feel they themselves are treated, 'looking around' refers to how social processes between individuals lead to collective perceptions of justice (that is, the climate of justice), and 'looking out' considers third-party observations of justice, from both within

and outside the organisation (Rupp 2011:80). It is thus imperative that organisational managers are cognisant of the fact that employees not only perceive justice from an individual perspective, but also from a collective perspective. Therefore, organisational justice judgements may thus be based on perceptions of treatment of a large social system. Employees feel affirmed if processes followed to arrive at certain decisions that affect them are fair and consistent, and all employees are treated the same.

3.4.3 Interactional justice

The third dimension of organisational justice is often called interactional justice, and is sometimes also referred to as interpersonal justice. According to Fortin (2008:95), this dimension originates from Bies and colleagues (Bies & Moag 1986, Bies & Shapiro 1987), who claimed that "people also judge the fairness of the interpersonal treatment they receive as organisational procedures are enacted". In other words, interactional justice focuses on the quality of interpersonal interactions and considers issues such as respect, sensitivity, honesty or deception, and politeness (Fortin 2008:96). There must always be interaction between stakeholders for organisational justice decisions to be implemented successfully. The importance of the quality of the interpersonal treatment that people receive when procedures are implemented was introduced and given attention to in the literature by Bies and Moag (1986:201). It was later consolidated by other literature, which emphasises the importance of perceptions of respect and propriety (Bakhshi et al. 2009:147).

Luo (2007:647) stated that "individuals' perceptions of the quality of interpersonal treatment received during the enactment of organisational decisions and procedures play a pivotal role in employee justice perceptions". This logic illustrates that the manner in which people are treated during interpersonal interactions could promote either employee commitment or employee withdrawal syndrome. In fact, Little and Nel (2011:2) suggested that failure by organisations to treat employees with outmost respect could compel employees to ultimately dissociate themselves from the organisation.

Greenberg (1990a, 1990b) suggested two types of interactional justice. The first type, *interpersonal treatment*, refers to the degree to which people are treated with

politeness, dignity, and respect by authorities or third parties involved in executing procedures or determining outcomes. The second type, *informational justice*, involves the explanations provided to people. It conveys information about why procedures were used in a certain way, or why outcomes were distributed the way they were (Weller 2009:112). Informational justice relates to the legal principle of natural justice, which holds that the decision-maker must provide reasons for the decision. Folger, Mary and Konovsky (1989:125) and Greenberg (1987:111) have suggested that these types of justice perceptions are important determinants of meaningful organisational outcomes.

3.4.3.1 Ensuring interactional justice

Baldwin (2006:3) identifies key aspects of interactional justice, which can enhance people's perceptions of fair treatment. These are truthfulness, respect, propriety, and justification. The aspect of **truthfulness** states that information given must be realistic and accurate, and must be presented in an open and forthright manner. The aspect of **respect** dictates that employees should be treated with dignity, with no recourse to insults or discourteous behaviour. **Propriety** dictates that questions and statements should never be improper or involve prejudicial elements, such as racism or sexism. With regard to **justification**, when a perceived injustice has occurred, giving a social account, such as an explanation or apology, can reduce or eliminate the sense of anger generated.

3.4.3.2 HRM practices and interactional justice

Interactional justice is very relevant to HRM, because by its nature, HRM in organisations is a practice of people management, implying that employer-employee relationships exist. One can then infer from previous statements that the HR department, like any department in the organisation, interacts with people on a regular daily basis, and hence, there should be interactional justice. HRM also, according to Hung, Ansari and Aafaqi (2004:99), is one area in organisations that influences a number of attitudes and behaviours of employees, such as intent to leave, levels of job satisfaction, and organisational commitment. It can thus be concluded from this section that HR personnel are the people responsible for handing down decisions of HRM practices (such as promotions and performance appraisals), decisions which

must be communicated with a sense of interactional justice. It is up to management to exercise skills in organisational communication to avoid abuse of co-workers or subordinates. It can be deduced from statements by Hung et al. (2004:99) that negative interactional justice perceptions in organisations, including municipalities, could have a negative impact on the attitudes and behaviour of employees, which will, in turn, have detrimental consequences for organisational performance (service delivery, in the case of municipalities).

3.4.3.3 Measuring interactional justice

Interactional justice is typically measured by the extent to which two members of an organisation interact with each other. The extent to which the varying parties are cordial or aggressive with each other, particularly in instances of negative news or disappointing work, helps to determine interactional justice. Gauging this sense of fairness on a metric is extremely subjective, as interactional justice lies in the perspectives of the parties in question, who determine how well they interact with each other. However, if a high sense of interactional justice is measured, both manager and employee are able to behave amicably in the workplace, through the quality of treatment they experience when organisational procedures are implemented (Ladebo, Awotunde & Salaam-Saghir 2008:207).

3.5 CONNECTING DISTRIBUTIVE, PROCEDURAL AND INTERACTIONAL JUSTICES

Three types of organisational justice have been distinguished, namely distributive, procedural and interactional justice. However, Ambrose and Schminke (2009:491) indicated that individuals form impressions of holistic justice within an organisation. According to these authors, making a holistic judgement drives behaviour as an overall sense of fairness. Shapiro (2001:237) pointed out that victims of injustice react to their general experience of injustice, which suggests that judgements are made of overall justice. According to Ambrose and Schminke (2009:492), the seminal work of Leventhal, Karuza and Fry (1980) framed procedural and distributive rules as the foundation of overall justice judgements. Lind and Tyler (1988), as cited in Ambrose and Schminke (2009:491), also acknowledged distributive and procedural justice as components of overall justice by noting that procedural fairness "plays at least as large

a role as distributive fairness in determining overall justice judgments". One can deduce from this section that individuals within organisations can form holistic judgements or impressions of justice, which suggests that employers need to be fair in their system of justice (whether it is distributive, procedural or interactional justice) if they want to keep employees satisfied, committed, and loyal to their organisation. The following section deals with the interrelations between the three types of organisational justice and the implications of these interrelations.

3.5.1 Procedural and distributive justice

Wellner (2009:114) identified several relationships between procedural and distributive justice. According to Wellner (2009:114), if the decision-making process is perceived as unfair, the outcome is likely to be perceived as unfair, regardless of whether it was fair or not. This means that procedural justice is a precursor to distributive justice or the acceptance of the outcome.

In fact, theorists like Blancero (1995:85), Fryxell and Gordon (1989:855), and Kim and Mauborgne (1991:130) went further, in contending that fairness of a process is more important than fairness of the outcome. These researchers argued that regardless of the perceptions of the outcomes of decisions in organisations, the primary factor affecting perceptions of fairness is the process used to make the decision. Blancero (1995:85), Fryxell and Gordon (1989:855), and Kim and Mauborgne (1991:130), as cited in Wellner (2009:115), all claim that the overall judgement of fairness is more strongly affected by the procedures adopted than by the outcomes achieved.

Raja, Abraiz, Tabassum and Jawad (2012:48) asserted that procedural and distributive justices are significant predictors of workplace behaviours and attitudes. By this, these authors imply that employees will engage in positive behaviours and attitudes if they perceive their organisation to be fair in the procedures that it uses to arrive at certain decisions, interactions, and distribution systems.

Thus, from an organisational justice perspective, HR managers in municipalities may enhance work-related attitudes, employee commitment, and performance by treating employees impartially in all justice aspects.

3.5.2 Procedural and interactional justice

There seems to be considerable consensus on the nature of procedural and distributive justice. However, Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001:280) and Wellner (2009:116) raised the question of whether procedural justice and interactional justice could be variations on the same theme. Cropanzano, Prehar and Chen (2002), as cited in Wellner (2009:116), suggested that interactional justice, or interpersonal treatment, is linked to a disputant's perceptions of the process of organisational decision-making – they concluded that it was a form of procedural justice, and not a separate type of justice, and that it should therefore be seen as part of the process of procedural justice. The distribution or allocation process is determined by the people for the people and by the manner in which they interact with and treat each other during the process.

Cropanzano et al. (2002:326) and Wellner (2009:116) postulated that procedural justice refers to the formal aspects of the allocation process, while interactional justice refers to the social aspects of the process. These authors identified that procedural justice is related to employees' associations with the procedural aspects of the decision, and interactional justice is related to employees' associations with aspects related to the manager or supervisor (the social aspects of decision-making, where interactional justice is attributed to the decision-maker rather than to the process).

Based on the above insights, it is fair to conclude that people will perceive interactional-informational justice as fair if they have been treated with respect and dignity. Therefore, employees are likely to consider the process or distribution procedures as fair if they were kept informed and were allowed to participate in matters that concerned them, even if the outcome turned out to be unfavourable.

3.5.3 Distributive, procedural and interactional justice

Wellner (2009:118) regarded the three types of justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional) to be interrelated. Interactional justice appears to be part of the procedural justice framework, and together they form a powerful predictor of acceptance of an outcome (distributive justice), even when that outcome is adverse for the participants (Wellner 2009:118). Moghimi, Kazemi and Samiie (2013:124)

indicated that the direct effect of distributive justice on people's reactions in the workplace is influenced by procedural justice, and there is converging evidence that the effects of procedural justice are most strongly observed when outcomes are unfavourable. Confirming Moghimi et al.'s (2013:124) claims, Warokka, Gallato and Moorthy (2012:23) explained the interrelatedness of the three types of organisational justice thus: interactive-oriented justice is the fairness of the interpersonal treatment that one receives at the hands of an authority figure during the enactment of organisational processes and the distribution of outcomes. Turgut, Tokmak and Gucel (2012:27) concluded that all three types of justice correlate with, among other things, *employee organisational commitment*, and Wan (2011:88) confirmed their correlation with *employee citizenship behaviour*.

The preceding exposition indicates the interrelatedness of the three types of organisational justice. This interrelatedness, as is evident from the above paragraph, implies that when organisations distribute organisational outcomes, affected parties should be involved, thereby ensuring procedural as well as distributive justice. The discussion further indicates that the manner in which those in charge relate to employees during distributive and procedural processes, results in interactional justice. Therefore, one can conclude that the interrelatedness of distributive, procedural and interactional justice can be seen as the holistic enactment of organisational justice.

Baldwin (2006:5) claimed that employees that are affected by injustice in an organisation will ensure that the injustice is brought to the attention of management, and ignorance on the side of management could lead to dissatisfaction, disloyalty, and lower levels of commitment among employees. This is a clear message to municipalities. Baldwin's (2006:5) assertion suggests that the management of municipalities should review their practices and prevent problems by responding timeously to employees' dissatisfaction by providing an explanation. Should this not occur, Baldwin (2006:5) claimed that disgruntled municipal employees could become harmful to the organisation, by being disloyal and showing lower levels of commitment, which will reduce their contribution to the organisation's success.

3.6 OTHER CHARACTERISATIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE

Coetzee (2005:191) pointed out that establishing the justness of a decision, action, or procedure, requires evaluating the decision against two principles, namely *balance* and *correctness*. Comparisons of balance are made when a person compares the reward that he or she has received with the reward received by someone else at the same level or position, proportionate to the value of the inputs of both parties. Greenberg (1987:115) referred to this as distributive justice, whereas. Adams' (1965:165) equity theory referred to it as social comparison. The second principle, referred to as *correctness*, is concerned with the appropriateness of the decision, and it involves the qualities of consistency, accuracy, clarity, and procedural thoroughness (Sheppard, Lewicki & Minton 1992; Coetzee 2005:111). This principle aligns well with Leventhal's (1976a) theory of procedural justice criteria, which states that decision-making processes should be consistent and free from bias, give accurate information, have mechanisms to correct flawed or inaccurate decisions, conform to ethical and moral standards, and ensure that the opinions of those affected are considered. Coetzee (2005:111) contended that as long as procedures are clear and consistently applied, employees will perceive them to be fair.

In South Africa, it is a constitutional right of employees to be treated equally and fairly by their respective organisations. The White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (South Africa 1997a) proposes the following values from the Constitution, which underpin HRM in the public service, and which are directly relevant to this investigation.

Fairness: Actions and decisions must be objective, consistent, equitable, and without prejudice. This implies that HR managers in municipalities should develop practices and processes which promote non-discriminatory decisions, professionalism, ethical values, and integrity.

Equity: Where there has been unfairness, corrective measures must be implemented to ensure that human resource practices are free from discrimination, invisible barriers, and unjustness, which could impede equitable employment opportunities.

Accessibility: Accessibility in relation to employment, management, and information must permeate all human resource practices, subject to the application of the Constitution and any other relevant legislation.

Transparency: All HRM practices in the public service must be open, democratic, and subject to public scrutiny, within reasonable limits. This will allow public institutions to operate in an unrestrained manner, subject to the application of the Constitution and other relevant legislation.

Accountability: Responsibilities for HRM in the public service should be clearly defined, and individual employees should be held accountable for discharging their responsibilities conscientiously, and with probity and integrity.

Participation: Human resources will be managed in compliance with the Labour Relations Act of 1995 (South Africa 1995), on the basis of a cooperative relationship with organised labour. Individual employees will be consulted on all matters affecting their careers and work environment.

Professionalism: HRM will be conducted competently, and will show the highest moral and ethical standards and exemplary behaviour towards the public, juniors, peers, and seniors.

For municipalities to fulfil their constitutional obligation of rendering quality services to citizens, they must first establish relationships with employees based on equality, fairness, and respect. Managa (2012:2) stated that when these obligations are not fulfilled, communities begin to panic and resort to protests. Applying or living by the above values could ensure that equality, fairness, and respect prevail within the municipality. Such a state of affairs could yield positive results by meeting customers' needs, and it could lead to fewer protests.

This section is concluded by drawing from Yavuz's (2010:696) statements that the theory of justice demands that every human being should enjoy fundamental rights. In fact, the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 as amended in 2002 is intended to ensure

employment justice by protecting employees from any form of unfairness and discrimination in the employer-employee relationship. The White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (Department of Public Service and Administration 1997) regulates the entire public service, and its prescriptions should also apply to municipalities. The objective of these two important HRM instruments - the Labour Relations Act and the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service is clearly to ensure employment justice by protecting employees from any form of unfairness and discrimination in the employer-employee relationship. The White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service aims to ensure that service delivery is enhanced in an environment characterised by, among other things, employment justice and fairness.

3.7 ORGANISATIONAL HRM PRACTICES AND JUSTNESS PERCEPTIONS

Employees are the persons that perform essential tasks in organisations. Chew (2004:37) maintained that for people to accomplish their tasks, as well as meet their personal needs, they have to be managed effectively. Managers are faced with the challenge of creating a balance between the needs of the organisation and the needs of the employee, so that both parties benefit from the relationship. A number of basic HRM practices were examined in the previous chapter. These included recruitment and selection, compensation, employee training and development, promotion, performance management and appraisal, disciplinary proceedings and grievance procedures, and career development. Managers in municipalities need to be conscious of fairness and justness perceptions as they engage in these practices. Failure to do so could lead to perceived unjustness or unfairness by municipal employees, and consequent poor delivery of services.

Most of the public protests may be attributed to failure by municipalities to provide public services. The White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (Department of Public Service and Administration 1997) led to the introduction of policies to ensure that service delivery is enhanced within an environment characterised by employment justness, cultural diversity, and transparency. The White Paper further stipulates that public administration should be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel practices based on ability,

objectivity, fairness, and a competent and well-managed workforce, capable of and committed to delivering high-quality service to the people of South Africa.

Coetzee (2005:189) emphasised fairness and its concerns, which have been expressed in HRM practices such as conflict resolution, personnel selection, fair pay in labour disputes, equal opportunities in employee development, and promotion. Aghazadeh (2003), as cited in Hashim (2008:148), stated that the quality of the organisation's employees, their sense of fair treatment, their enthusiasm and satisfaction with their jobs, and their experience, collectively determine an organisation's customer service and reputation.

Taking all of the above into consideration, the following sections discuss how the practice of the major HRM functions can negatively or positively impact on organisational performance in general and municipal service delivery in particular.

3.7.1 Compensation

Employee compensation is one of the major tasks of HRM. Compensation can have several meanings, but generally in HRM, it refers to all the ways in which an organisation may reward employees for the services that they render. The primary inducement offered to employees in exchange for the contributions of labour services in the employment contract is salary, benefits, and incentives (Roberts 2005:34). Anh and Kleiner (2005:105) were of the view that the more the organisation offers, the more employees feel satisfied with their work and in their personal lives, and the more effectively employees perform their jobs. Nel et al. (2011:233) maintained that compensation must attract good employees, retain good workers, and provide all the support needed to keep the employee motivated to perform at his or her best. In this regard, Schuldes (2006:22) claimed that the Hawthorne studies carried out from 1927-1933 demonstrated that there was an immediate increase in performance when the study participants had their pay tied to their performance. This led Schuldes (2006:22) to claim that people are more satisfied with their pay when they feel that it is based on their performance.

Roberts' (2005:114) study also discovered a direct positive relationship between rewards and recognition and job satisfaction and motivation. Compensation, according to Singh (2012:2), has been an extremely important issue for both employers and employees; it is a crucial incentive that is directly or indirectly related to all human needs. Singh (2012:2) added that compensation is a reward for past service to the organisation, and a stimulus to increase performance in the future. Based on Singh's (2012:2) statements, one can conclude that compensation could be used as a reward for exceptional job performance, aimed at eliciting more exceptional performance.

Drawing from organisational justice principles, it would be fruitless to design compensation packages without addressing fairness issues, as this could be adverse to what Nel et al. (2011) confirmed. It could be a favourable scenario for municipalities to also design and implement adequate compensation packages that are meant to attract, motivate, and retain the best employees, which will lead to improved organisational performance, and ultimately quality service delivery. Unfortunately, rightly or wrongly, this is likely to be perceived as unfair by employees of municipalities who may feel that a certain beneficiary has been favoured on a partisan basis. These claims are substantiated by Paradza, Mokwena and Richards (2010:50) in their study of the role of municipal councillors in service delivery at local government level in South Africa.

Paradza et al. (2010:50) pointed out that the Randfontein Local Municipality is divided along party-political lines, and that political leaders who are supposed to lead the municipality are not immune to "politicking", and at times they politicise the allocation of resources required for effective council work. Paradza et al. (2010:50) maintained that this has a negative impact on the functioning of the municipality, and the council itself. From the organisational justice literature explored earlier in this chapter, in such a case it could be inferred that municipal employees could feel unfairly treated because the pay package offered to them is not commensurate with their worth, and because they were deliberately paid on a partisan basis.

Arnold (2005:137) cautioned managers to consider internal equity in pay between employees, jobs, and sections of the organisation, and that when analysing internal

equity issues, they should recognise that employee perceptions of equity are important for organisational success. Arnold (2005:137) added that when employees believe their pay is unfair (whether it is or not), they are likely to consider leaving the organisation, which means high labour turnover, with its detrimental consequences. Managers of municipalities therefore need to ensure that their pay system has internal equity between jobs, by paying employees in accordance with their importance to the municipality, and not on any other basis, such as political affiliation.

It has been found in a US study (Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin 1996) that pay structures that are based on proper distribution rules, such as seniority, length of service, merit, and/or contribution, have strongly evoked employee perceptions of distributive justice, which have led to enhanced job satisfaction, and ultimately improved organisational performance (Ismael et al. 2009:238). Tang and Sarsfield-Baldwin's (1996) study led Ismael et al. (2009) to develop a conceptual framework which emphasises that distributive justice mediates the relationship between pay structure and work attitudes and behaviour. Studies have emphasised pay structures that are based on correct distribution rules. For this reason, it will be appropriate for organisations, including municipalities, to pay employees based on such rules, and nothing else. Otherwise, aggrieved employees could be expected to perceive unjust or unfair treatment. According to Ismael et al. (2009:238), it could be expected that fairness of pay structure will influence employee attitudes and behaviour. The proper management of personnel is therefore critical to the effective and efficient functioning of municipalities, and must be prioritised across all municipal functions (Department of National Treasury 2011:105). The Municipal Systems Amendment Act Act 7 of 2011 seeks to address certain issues, including (1) the appointment and competencies of municipal managers and managers directly accountable to the municipal manager, (2) regulating the employment of municipal employees who have been dismissed or are subject to disciplinary processes by other municipalities, and (3) regulating the duties, remuneration, benefits, and other terms and conditions of employment for municipal managers.

Lind and Tyler's (1988) group-value model, based on a sample drawn from a textile products company in the South-eastern United States, found that delivery of the pay

message from supervisors to subordinates through good interpersonal communication increased employees' feelings of justness regarding the pay system, and this could lead to increased performance in the organisation (Ismail & Junoh 2005:38). These researchers suggested that the processes or procedures followed in deciding on a payment system should be appropriately communicated to affected employees, to ensure justness in employee perceptions and increased employee performance in organisations. Communication about pay systems, as described by Coetzee (2005:191), is an exchange of information and an understanding about pay systems. Ismail and Junoh's (2005:38) and Coetzee's (2005:191) assertions suggest that communication could increase employee understanding and appreciation, as well as credibility of compensation practices in pay administration, thus positively influencing perceptions of procedural and informational justice. Coetzee (2005:191) asserted that procedural and informational justice will prevail if there is communication about pay systems. In the case of municipalities, communication about compensation between the HR division and the employee will ensure that employees are aware of how the pay system has been designed, and how it works. Besides this, communication of the pay structure to municipal employees will make the pay structure public knowledge, and this could discourage any abuse of pay systems by officials in charge.

Compensation is therefore a crucial HR function, because if it is perceived to be unfair by employees, it may affect the justness perceptions of employees and give rise to employer-employee conflicts and disputes, which may affect organisational outcomes.

3.7.2 Performance appraisal

Performance appraisal is a human resource management tool that has received much attention for more than seven decades, and fairness in appraising employees has been identified as an important criterion in judging the effectiveness and usefulness of employees for organisations (Erdogan 2002:566). Erdogan indicated that if not well handled, performance appraisal could have broad negative implications for employee attitudes and behaviour in organisations. Sudin (2011:68) posited that understanding fairness or organisational justice in performance appraisal processes and practices is extremely important for organisations because of the relationship of performance appraisal with employee job satisfaction and employee organisational commitment,

and, consequently, the likelihood that employees could seek other employment. According to Hashim (2008:150), performance appraisal is a formal system of setting work standards, assessing performance, and providing feedback to employees, for the purpose of motivating, correcting, and sustaining them in their performance. Information obtained from a performance appraisal is used to make pay and promotion decisions (Grobler et al. 2011:298). It is a fact that most employees dislike performance appraisals. For example, Baldwin (2006:6) speculates that employees' inherent suspicion in or dislike of being appraised is likely to stem from their perceptions of the way performance reviews are conducted, despite their intrinsic value.

Performance appraisal plays an essential role in the overall success of an organisation. Arnold (2005:137) asserted that effective appraisals should include career counselling and feedback to employees concerning development efforts that should be implemented to improve their promotional opportunities within the organisation. Ikramullah, Shah, Hassan, Zaman and Shah (2011:39) claimed that organisational success or failure could be determined by the means through which employee performance is managed. Baldwin (2006:7) asserted that people want to see their work performance assessed in an accurate and unbiased manner. Walsh (2003:29) indicated that the most important performance appraisal issue faced by organisations is the perceived fairness or unfairness of the system. Organisations therefore need to be cautious when assessing employees' performance. Walsh suggested that the appraisal process can become a source of extreme dissatisfaction when employees believe that the system is biased or political. According to Vasset, Marnburg and Furunes (2010:30), assessment processes are usually perceived to be just if they (1) are transparent and are explained sufficiently, (2) gather evidence, rather than express personal bias, and (3) allow employees to present their own views and point out aspects of the assessment that they have perceived to be unfair or unfortunate.

There is sufficient evidence to suggest that supervisors tend to appraise employees inaccurately and unfairly (Hashim, 2008:155). The findings from a study conducted by Kgantlapane (2009:77) on a performance management system in the Ekurhuleni

Metropolitan Municipality (EMM) revealed that rewards linked to good performance are an aspect that is falling short in the performance management cycle. A relatively high proportion of respondents (employees in this case) do not believe that the performance management of the EMM is fair and equitable (Kgantlapane 2009:77). It is thus tempting to conclude that the politically polarised environment of municipalities increases the tendency for performance appraisal to be biased and open to political interference, and hence municipalities have the potential to be perceived as unfair by employees. It is therefore prudent that HR professionals strive for fair and just performance systems within their organisations. This, according to Aslam, Shumaila, Sadaqat, Bilal and Intizar (2012:5), is imperative because, when employees observe that performance rating and the chances of promotion are not based on just practices but on political and biased motives, and their performance is not truly considered, they become demotivated, and their job satisfaction decreases.

Baldwin (2006:7) suggested that HR professionals seeking to create a fair performance appraisal should, among others things, involve employees in establishing appropriate performance criteria, and should allow employees to express their feelings and opinions in appraisal interviews. It is important that organisations, including municipalities, pay special attention to appraisal interviews if they want their performance appraisal to be considered fair by employees. Baldwin (2006:7) recommended that appraisers produce a written account or summary of the appraisal interview and comment on it. Baldwin (2006:7) further suggested that the interviewer and the interviewee should discuss and attempt to resolve any points of disagreement.

The main objectives of performance appraisal, according to Grobler et al. (2011:288), are evaluative and developmental. To evaluate means to pass judgement, or to determine the worth of something (Grobler et al. 2011:288). The evaluative objective of performance appraisal provides valuable information for personnel decisions, such as pay increases, promotions, demotions, transfers and terminations (Pillai 2012:33). The developmental objective of performance appraisal is concerned with performance feedback, as employees will always want to know how they are performing. According to Grobler et al. (2011:298), employees will want to know how their supervisors feel about their performance. It is important that during the performance interview, or

during the feedback meeting, employees are treated with respect and dignity, irrespective of their performance, thus ensuring interactional justice. Pillai (2012:8) indicated that respect for the individual, procedural fairness, and transparency in decision-making should prevail when governing the operation of the performance management process.

The developmental objective also means that the results of performance appraisals should be used to improve the abilities of employees, and not for mere fault finding. History, however, shows that performance appraisals are loathed by employees, and in South Africa, workers unions, such as the South African Democratic Teachers Union (SADTU), have always viewed performance appraisals in a very bad light. This is evidenced by SADTU's rejection of performance contracts for teachers and principals (Gernetzky 2012:1). This does not detract from the fact that information provided by performance appraisals could help municipalities identify performance and skills gaps which could be bridged though training and development, in order to improve service delivery. Whatever purpose performance appraisal is used for, passing judgement about or establishing the worth of employees can be controversial, unless it is done in a manner that leaves no doubt in the mind of the appraisee of the objectivity, and hence fairness, of the process.

Based on Kgantlapane's (2009:77) findings and Walsh's (2003:29) views, it is judicious that HR practitioners guard against biased, unfair, and unjust performance appraisals, because such appraisals will lead to important decisions being made based on faulty information. Besides this, should employees perceive performance appraisals as being biased, unfair, or unjust, they will have negative justness perceptions, which could have detrimental consequences for organisational performance. Performance-based compensation is the dominant HR practice that organisations use to evaluate and reward the efforts of employees (Vlachos 2009:29), and this is supposed to be the case in municipalities as well. However, Chikulo (2011:10) cautions that the growing culture of political opportunism, infighting and factionalism, corruption, nepotism, and patronage is now so rampant in most local authorities that a recipe has been created for unjustness, employee demotivation, and the ultimate failure of the organisation to achieve its goals.

Distributive, procedural and interactional justices are affected by performance appraisals, because employees naturally expect outcomes to be distributed in accordance with performance, as well as involvement in the processes that determine outcome distribution. Self-assessments could be used by organisations to involve employees in their performance appraisals, thereby enhancing procedural justice. Ikramullah et al. (2011:39) stated that any appraisal system that is associated with dissatisfaction or perceived as unfair or inequitable will be doomed to failure. This seems to be the reason that Ikramullah et al. (2011:39) considered fairness of the performance appraisal to be a critical issue that organisations have to deal with. Interactional justice in performance appraisals implies that employees are treated with respect and dignity throughout the performance appraisal, and also kept informed of proceedings that affect them. It also means giving prompt feedback on performance. Ikramullah et al. (2011:39) stated that interpersonal justice deals with appraisees' perceptions of their treatment by a supervisor, and procedural justice is associated with fairness perceptions of the standards followed and the methods and processes used in appraising performance.

HR practitioners in organisations, including municipalities, would promote employee justness perceptions of their municipalities if they heeded the advice of Tatlah, Saeed and Iqbal (2011:15). These authors argued that performance appraisal has implications for *interactive-procedural justice*. They point out that the HR manager could do several things to ensure that organisational appraisal methods are perceived as fair: the *interpersonal treatment* of the employee should reflect politeness and respect for the appraisee by the assessor, and there should be the opportunity for two-way communication. They also recommended that employers provide explanations (*informational justice*) on how certain decisions were arrived at. Tatlah et al. (2011), citing Cropanzano and Wright (2003:4-6), suggested that individuals perceive an appraisal system as fair when the employer provides useful information about the employee's performance and the assessment procedures that the employer has used. Performance appraisal in organisations, including municipalities, could provide the opportunity for HR officials to promote the justice image of their organisations through the manner in which people are treated in interpersonal interactions in the workplace.

3.7.3 Conflict management and disciplinary and grievance procedures

People sometimes deviate from expected behaviours or conduct, and organisations have to address such behaviours, hence the need for disciplinary proceedings. Discipline is aimed at teaching employees how to behave and how not to misbehave within the context of getting the work done in an organisation (Nel et al. 2011:679). King (2011:1) asserted that workplace discipline means regulating the employees and making them abide by the rules, policies, and guidelines of the company. Grobler et al. (2011:525), on their part, defined discipline as an action to motivate an employee to comply with the company's performance standards. It can be concluded from this section that proper behaviour and the enforcement of acceptable patterns of behaviour will result in the realisation of expected or set performance standards, making it reasonable for discipline to be enforced in organisations for organisational well-being.

A disciplinary proceeding is one HR function where employees want to see justice prevail when the proceeding is undertaken. In the context of this thesis, the *Code of Conduct for Public Servants*, issued by the Department of Public Service and Administration supports Grobler et al.'s (2011:525) and Baldwin's (2006:7) recommendations that disciplinary and grievance procedures should be aimed at settling grievances promptly, amicably, fairly, and objectively, and, as far as possible, at the point of origin.

Baldwin (2006:7) pointed out that employees normally desire to make their voice heard and to have their point of view considered during disciplinary proceedings. Interactional and procedural justice need to prevail when handling disciplinary proceedings. According to Baldwin (2006:7), employees need to be well informed about the procedures followed and treated with dignity and respect, even though they are facing disciplinary action. This implies that managers, who create opportunities for employees to be heard and treat them with politeness, dignity, and respect, are likely to attract positive attitudes and behaviour. If employees feel that they have been treated too harshly or they have been allowed little or no input into the disciplinary process, they could take steps to redress the perceived injustice in ways that could be damaging to the organisation (Baldwin, 2006:7). HR managers of municipalities should therefore heed the advice of Baldwin (2006:7) in ensuring that disciplinary processes

are not only fair, but are seen to be fair by employees who do not belong to the same party as they do.

HR managers in municipalities will always need to settle conflicts and resolve disputes, because conflicts and disputes are always present where people work in teams. According to Chikulo (2011:10), municipal environments are marred by political infighting and factionalism, an environment which could create fertile ground for conflict. The way in which conflicts are resolved in organisations such as municipalities will be what matters most, as conflicts are unavoidable. Generally what matters most are justness perceptions during conflict management, disciplinary proceedings, and grievance procedures.

In terms of employer-employee conflict, Baldwin (2006:8) cites the study by Lind, Greenberg, Scott and Welchans (1998), which identified several factors that are considered to constitute fair treatment in the eyes of employees. These factors include, among other things, showing dignity and respect, and providing a full and honest explanation, as well as an adequate period of notice.

One could appreciate that dignity, respect and honest explanation would create the right climate for interactional justice, and the consequent result will most likely be accepted by the affected parties. However, rejection of a disciplinary decision is also potentially positive, as it could push organisations to review and re-examine themselves, to improve on their practices and correct anomalies. One would assume that acceptance of a decision does not, in itself, make the decision just or fair. At times people accept decisions not because of the appropriateness and justness of the decision, but to save themselves from further embarrassment, to protect their reputation, to avoid unnecessary legal costs, and for fear of creating enemies in their work environment. Baldwin (2006:8) stated that even employees that are not affected by terminations could have little or no confidence in the justice system of the organisation, as they could believe that their 'turn' is still going to come one day, and this could impact negatively on their attitude towards their job. Chipunza (2009:158) claimed that if affected employees have received unfair treatment, survivors are more likely to exhibit negative attitudes, reduced work performance, and lowered

commitment; thus, workplaces where justness perceptions are positive will be more attractive, predictable, and fair.

3.7.5 Recruitment and selection

Selection and hiring of aspirant employees is one HR function that may spark a lot of discomfort with employees, and even job applicants. Baldwin (2006:9) speculated that current workers may develop negative attitudes and perform poorly if they see that their organisation is dealing unfairly with the selection of new staff. Ali, Gibbs and Camp (2000), as cited in Hashim, Gibbs and Camp (2009), mentioned that in hiring, priority should be given to qualified individuals. The issue of justness is prevalent in all HRM activities, and in the recruitment and selection of employees favouritism and nepotism have always influenced hiring decisions. Chikulo (2011:16) stated that the lack of capacity skills in municipalities has been exacerbated by appointments based on political patronage, rather than on skills and expertise. While South Africa does not lack legislation aimed at promoting justness and fair play in recruitment and selection, HRM practices, particularly recruitment and selection of municipal employees, need to meet public expectations. Nel et al. (2011:264) cautioned that, should an employer decide to encourage existing employees to refer family and friends, this could result in nepotism. In fact, HRM officials in any organisation, including municipalities, should guard against unsanctioned self-serving, divisive, illegitimate, dysfunctional, counterproductive, and politically motivated recruitment and selection practices. According to Buhlungu, Daniel, Lutchman and Lutchman (2007:53), the three main causes of the community mass protests are occurring in South Africa are municipal inefficiency in service delivery, the poor responsiveness of municipalities to citizens' grievances, and the conspicuous consumption entailed by a culture of self-enrichment on the part of municipal councillors and staff. Zengele (2013:61) stated that through cadre deployment, people have been placed in positions for which they are not qualified, which can be seen as a recipe for failure as far as service delivery is concerned.

Baldwin (2006:9) proposed the following important guidelines, which, if followed by municipalities, could go a long way in ensuring that recruitment is conducted fairly,

and could lead to the hiring of qualified and competent individuals who could help municipalities to achieve their service delivery goals:

- Establishment and use of specific selection criteria that clearly map out the job description
- Assessment techniques that can reasonably be seen to measure these criteria
- The opportunity for applicants to demonstrate their job-relevant competencies and to be given reconsideration if they do not perform well the first time round
- Consistent procedures for all candidates applying for the same role
- Opportunities for candidates to express and explain themselves
- Interviewers should have sound interpersonal skills, particularly the ability to refer to candidates' feelings, summarise what they say, listen well, and promote open and honest exchange,
- An explanation of the requirements of the job, together with clear and accurate information about the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation, and
- Advance notice, explanations, justifications, feedback, and a system for filing grievances in the event of dissatisfaction with the process or the outcome.

Procedural and interactional justice could play a pivotal role in hiring decisions. For example, an applicant is likely to view a formal selection interview as fair to the extent that it tests job-related criteria, provides an opportunity to demonstrate competence, is used consistently with all applicants, and treats applicants with respect throughout the interview process (Tatlah, Saeed & Iqbal 2011:15). Bakhshi, Kumar and Rani (2009:147) affirmed that for justice to be seen to have prevailed, interview candidates should be treated with the outmost dignity and respect throughout the interview process, and should be informed of the outcomes of the process and why decisions were taken in a particular manner. As Dzansi and Dzansi (2010) pointed out, no matter how fair or just management thinks organisational policies, procedures and practices are, it seems that what matters most are employee perceptions of fairness and equity. Accordingly, Kreitner and Kinicki (2008:358) advised managers to rely on merit-based and job-related information when making their hiring decisions. Municipalities in South Africa would do well to heed this advice.

3.7.6 Training and development

Hashim (2008:150) defined training and development (T&D) as the process of developing qualities in human resources that will enable them to be more productive, and thus contribute more to organisational goal attainment. Training is one HRM practice that, if well practised, could benefit both the employer and the employee. Vlachos (2009:20) stated that training programmes would increase employee skills and productivity, and reduce job dissatisfaction and employee turnover.

Organisations invest resources in training and developing employees, and naturally expect good returns. Stoffers and Van der Heijden (2009:3) pointed out that T&D make organisations more flexible and effective, and employees are likely to stay with the organisation longer, as they will be satisfied with their empowerment. In addition, their ability to contribute positively increases because of commitment and motivation, which will ultimately affect organisational performance. Examining T&D from an organisational justice perspective, one can conclude that it has implications for distributive justice. For example, T&D is fairly distributed if it is done according to an employee's individual needs, in order to enable him or her to perform his or her duties better. Selection of candidates for T&D in municipalities should be expected to be contested. The fact is that due to political polarisation and resource constraints, only a few candidates can be selected at a time. Those who are not selected may show some dissatisfaction unless they are assured that the selection process was above board. According to Baldwin (2006:2), those not eligible for T&D need to be informed of how the decisions were arrived at, in a transparent and bias-free manner.

3.7.7 Promotion

Promotion may be defined as the upward progression of an employee to a position of greater responsibility and compensation, a signal to employees that growth and advancement are realities within an organisation (Caruth, Caruth & Pane 2009:285). Promotion has the potential of attracting competition and discrimination in organisations, including municipalities, because not everyone can or will receive promotion (Caruth et al. 2009:285). In fact, promotion is one HRM practice that can create much discomfort in organisations if not handled thoughtfully. Staff may feel that they deserve to be promoted as compared to others, and this may lead to the formation

of negative justness perceptions, which will be detrimental to organisational performance. HR managers, therefore, need to make promotion decisions more receptive to those who are not promoted, by having clear promotion policies and criteria (Caruth et al. 2009:286). Primarily, promotions should be open to all employees who can demonstrate they have the necessary competence and/or potential to fulfil the requirements of the job. This is confirmed by Heathfield's (2011:2) assertion that promotion is viewed as a desirable form of recognition for those who make significant and effective work contributions. The South African government, through the Labour Relations Act 66 of 1995 (South Africa 1995), outlines fair and non-discriminatory promotion procedures that should be followed by organisations. For example, fairness, equity, and participation in workplaces are considered in the 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa and supported by the White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Service (Department of Public Service and Administration 1997:11), to ensure justice for all in workplaces. The following paragraphs elaborate on injustice in the workplace, and the consequences thereof.

Williamson and Williams (2011:62) asserted that on the basis of social and organisational 'exchange theory', individuals will compare the ratio of their inputs (for example, education, skills, effort, or experience) to outcomes (for example, pay, promotion, or recognition) with that of a referent other. This is clearly what Adams' (1965) seminal work on equity theory proposed. Meanwhile, Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen (2002), as well as Ramamoorthy and Flood (2004), as cited in Malik and Naeem (2011:93), found that procedural and distributive justice are linked to higher levels of organisational commitment. Williamson and Williams (2011:62) added that organisational injustice has a direct impact on co-worker relationships, resulting in a lack of trust, poor morale, and low productivity. In municipalities where people work in teams, trust and sound co-worker relationships are critical, since, according to Williamson and Williams (2011:62), relationships are grounded in effective teamwork and trust between staff. Baldwin (2006:4) confirmed this by stating that justice within organisations promotes positive attitudes towards job satisfaction, commitment, and trust, which, in turn, breeds healthy and constructive professional and interpersonal behaviour.

Interactional justice (perceptions of decision-makers and justification of decisions made) has also been acknowledged as having an effect on co-worker relationships. Hamman-Fisher (2008:81) noted that when an employee perceives organisational injustice, it may result in negative consequences, such as reduced job performance, reduced cooperation with co-workers, and lower work quality. But managers are the people responsible for enhancing quality of work life for employees, through creating development and promotion opportunities for them. Individual employees are merely responsible for seeking opportunities for development and promotion, in line with their own career aspirations (Department of Public Service and Administration, 1997:7). Managers are also responsible for supporting and encouraging their staff to take advantage of such opportunities, and managers' performance will be assessed on, among other things, whether they have fulfilled this responsibility. The literature confirms that promotion should be achieved only by those who can demonstrate, through competition with others, that they are the most suitable candidate for the position in question (Heathfield 2011:1; Nel et al. 2011; Williamson & Williams, 2011:62). Unfortunately, the prognosis is bad for organisational justice in municipalities in South Africa, as on an almost daily basis municipalities across the country have been accused of unsanctioned self-seeking and nepotism practices in all aspects of HRM (Dzansi & Dzansi 2010). With this state of affairs, it is not surprising that the same municipalities are unable to deliver service at the expected level of quality. From this position, one can safely conclude that (1) HRM practices have consequences for employees' justness perceptions of their municipalities, and (2) employees' justness perceptions of their municipalities may impact on their citizenship behaviour, which, in turn, may have a negative effect on the quality of service delivered by employees on behalf of municipalities.

3.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has reviewed the literature related to the implications of HRM practices for organisational justice. The literature suggests that HRM practices will impact on employees' justness perceptions if the practices are perceived to be unfair. This notion should also apply to employee perceptions of HRM practices in municipalities, as any interference in the HRM practices, decisions or processes of any organisation, including municipalities, which will lead to inequitable distribution of outcomes, has the

potential of jeopardising organisational justice. This is the case if such interference is perceived to be unfair by employees who are not favoured by such decisions, and who will not benefit from such interference. Such interference could also bring the organisation into disrepute and make it unstable.

In the case of municipalities, this could lead to the delivery of services that do not meet customers' needs or demands, hence the high level of customer dissatisfaction, protests, and riots witnessed in municipalities throughout South Africa. The following chapter examines the link between organisational justice, employee organisational commitment, motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour, and ultimately service delivery.

CHAPTER 4: HRM FAIRNESS, EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION, COMMITMENT, CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR AND QUALITY OF SERVICE DELIVERY IN MUNICIPALITIES

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter provided a detailed literature review of the relationship between HRM and organisational justice. The literature review discussed key human resource management functions, HRM trends internationally, and the regulatory and political context of HRM in South Africa. Chapter 3 ended with the conclusion that inappropriate HRM practices can cause employees to form negative justness perceptions of their municipalities, which may impact on their citizenship behaviour, which, in turn, may have negative consequences for the quality of service delivered on behalf of municipalities to citizens.

This chapter reveals the effects of justness perceptions on employee motivation, commitment, citizenship behaviour, and quality of service quality. Hock (2011:29) indicated that job satisfaction is positively correlated with motivation, job involvement, employee citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment, mental health, and job performance. The implication of these findings for municipalities in South Africa is that any inappropriate HRM practices will have dire consequences for the justness perceptions of employees, which, in turn, could result in negative attitudes, that could negatively impact on performance, and consequently on the quality of service delivery of municipalities. Each of the organisational justness perception outcomes is dealt with separately to establish the effect that each of them could have on employees and on the municipality.

4.2 EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

For organisations to accomplish their goals, they must continually find better ways to organise and manage their workers (Hayward 2006:10). Risambessy, Swasto, Thoyib and Astuti (2012:8833) maintained that employees could be a potential source of organisational success if they are managed properly, but would be a liability if inappropriately managed.

Employee performance fundamentally depends on many factors, such as performance appraisals, employee motivation, employee satisfaction, compensation, training and development, job security and organisational structure, but the focus of this study is employee motivation, as this factor has a strong influence on the performance of employees (Muogbo 2013:78). This implies that the performance of employees is typically influenced by how organisations manage the work environment, and how they motivate employees. Muogbo's (2013:78) study on the impact of motivation on organisational performance found that motivation given to workers in an organisation has a significant influence on workers' performance. Motivation is therefore important for organisational success. This means that municipalities must seek to motivate their employees if they are to succeed in providing quality service. This, in turn, implies that an understanding is required of what motivation is. This study contributes to this understanding by exploring in the following section what is meant by motivation.

4.2.1 Defining motivation

Given the multiple ways in which motivation has been conceptualised, an ideal point of departure would be to develop an operational definition of motivation for this study. Different definitions of motivation are explored, after which an operational definition of motivation is provided.

According to Van Wyk (2011:14), motivation is "one's personal choice and persistence of action driven by the attainment of a specific goal". Abbott (2008:5) defined motivation as "the level of effort an individual is willing to apply toward the achievement of a particular goal or motive". Bagraim, Cunningham, Potgieter and Viedge (2007:69) stated that motivation refers to the force within people that arouses, directs, persists and sustains behaviour towards goal achievement. Mills, Mills, Bratton and Forshaw (2006:210) regarded motivation as the individual's desire to direct and sustain energy towards optimally performing to the best of his or her ability, in order to be successful in a work position. Finally, Kachornkittiya, Trichan and Lerkiatbundit (2012:79) suggested that employee motivation could be seen as a mechanism that reflects positive employee interests towards organisational goal attainment.

Examining all of the above definitions, one cannot help but agree with Malik (2010:143) that motivating employees is a necessary step that every organisation that seeks to be successful should take. For municipalities, this implies that motivating employees is vital in order to improve quality of service. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, motivation is defined as *the uncompelled or un-coerced willingness and enthusiasm of employees to perform work to the best of their ability, so that the organisation achieves its goal or goals*. This operational definition implies that motivated municipal employees will willingly and enthusiastically do more for their municipalities to deliver quality service to citizens.

4.2.2 The need to motivate municipal employees

It is clear from the above definitions that motivation could play a major role in municipalities in South Africa, as it significantly affects the productivity of employees and increases profitability through greater creativity and employee commitment. Municipal managers that seek to improve productivity need to stimulate employees' interest to do 'good' for citizens.

The definitions of motivation also imply that municipalities need to be proactive and employ the right strategies to keep employees motivated. Makanyeza, Kwandayi and Ikobe (2013:10) asserted that the main strategy that could be adopted to improve service delivery in municipalities is having a sound human resource policy, which would make provision for employee motivation. But the question remains: are municipal employees in South Africa motivated enough to enable their organisations to fulfil the Constitution's obligations towards citizens?

Motivated employees are needed in the world's rapidly changing and highly competitive workplaces to achieve a set of predetermined goals. Manna (2008:4) claimed that businesses could only be effective through the people that work in them. Manna (2008:4) suggested that for organisations to ensure high levels of performance, they need to provide employees with working conditions that will inspire them to be engaged, go the extra mile, and persist in the face of difficulties. Manna (2008:4) further pointed out that if employees are not motivated, their attitude will be reflected in their job performance. In municipalities, employee attitudes can be revealed through

the quality of service that they deliver to customers. A study by Makanyeza et al. (2013) on Kijiado Local Authority in Kenya showed that the main causes of poor service delivery in municipalities are, among other things, councillor interference and political manipulation, poor human resource management, failure to manage change, lack of employee capacity, poor planning, and poor monitoring and evaluation, all of which are factors that negatively affect employee motivation.

Danish and Usman (2010:159) highlighted motivation of employees as a factor in the achievement of organisational efficiency. Amos, Ristow and Ristow (2004:149) pointed out that achieving the strategic objectives of the organisation requires the manager to motivate individuals to exert high levels of performance.

The above exposition reflects that good management for organisational success includes the ability to motivate people through, among other things, fair HRM practices, such as equal pay for equal work. In fact, Şenol (2011:38) pointed out that if the policy of equal pay for equal work is not applied within an organisation, employees can compare their wages with those of other people doing the same job, and find a reason to lower their motivation. Therefore, as Şenol (2011:38) maintained, to keep municipal employees motivated, the HRM practices of municipalities should be geared towards the principle of equality, by establishing a fair wage system.

Bernard, Mills, Swenson and Walsh (2006:129) proposed that motivation could be measured in terms of individual differences in co-varying categories of behaviours and interests. This proposition implies that people's motives and needs differ, and are not constant. Swanepoel et al. (2007:322) emphasised that managers should value differences and should have the flexibility to vary their approach appropriately, depending on the assessment of employee needs and motives. They should also diagnose and determine what motivates different individuals under different circumstances. For instance, while some municipal employees may be motivated by pecuniary benefits such as financial benefits, some may be more motivated by recognition.

To summarise the current discussion, it is worth noting that, firstly, managers in municipalities need to effectively motivate employees to provide services at desired levels of quality. To achieve this, managers in municipalities need to create a working environment that is conducive, particularly one that has consideration for employees' desires and goals (Brooks 2006:132). Secondly, because of the rapidly changing work environment, organisations want to use the full potential of their human resources to stay ahead of the competition and to survive (Mohsan et al. 2011:226). Municipalities could also make maximum use of their human resource potential to deliver quality service by motivating their employees.

Now that the meaning of motivation has been clarified by means of definitions, and it has been explained why municipalities should motivate their employees, it is deemed a logical progression in the discussion to now reflect on motivation theories, in order to gain insight into what motivates people, and how and why people have to be motivated in their workplaces.

4.2.3 Overview of motivation theories

A number of management scholars, social theorists, and psychologists have studied human motivation and have developed several theories on how and why people should be motivated.

Amos et al. (2004:150) provided a point of departure for categorising motivation. These authors pointed out that theories of motivation can be grouped into two broad categories, namely **content- or needs theories**, and **process theories**. Content theories focus on the values and needs which motivate people; they are primarily concerned with identifying the variables that influence behaviour, and they attempt to explain the specific factors that motivate people (Abbott 2008:6). Process theories disclose how people select behavioural actions to meet their needs and determine whether their choices were successful (Daft & Marcic 2011:423). These authors' views suggest that the content process of motivation focuses on an individual's needs to find what motivates them, while the process theory put emphasis on the actual process of motivation. The difference then is that the content looks at what motivates while the process looks at why and how motivation is carried out.

Some of the well-known theories of motivation are McClelland's (1961) *achievement theory*, Adams' (1963) *equity theory*, Vroom's (1964) *expectancy theory*, Herzberg's et al.'s (1959) *two-factor theory*, Porter and Lawler's (1968) *model of motivation*, Maslow's (1954) *hierarchy of needs*, Schein's (1971) *managers' assumptions of people*, Alderfer's (1967; 1969; 1972) *existence, relatedness and growth (ERG) theory,* Deci and Ryan's (1985) *self-determination theory*.

Each of the above theories offers insight into what motivates people to work harder than they normally would. However, for this study, attention is drawn to the needs theories of Maslow's *hierarchy of needs*, Alderfer's *ERG theory*, and Herzberg's *two-factor theory* and the process theories of Adams' *equity theory* and Vroom's *expectancy theory*.

4.2.2.1 Needs-based motivation theories

Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs

Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs theory provides a framework for managers to understand people's needs and expectations. It was developed in the 1940s and 1950s, and is still used to understand human motivation. Maslow's hierarchy of needs categorises human needs into five levels and assumes that human needs can be grouped hierarchically, where each higher-level need becomes a motivator once an immediate lower-level need has been satisfied. The theory suggests that meeting lower-level needs (foundational needs), such as home, air, food, drink and sleep, serves as a foundational requirement for progression to higher-level needs, such as security of the body, employment, family affiliation, and so on. Maslow's (1954) theory assumes that people continually want things, they always want more, and what they want depends on what they have achieved, which implies that once people's needs have been reasonably satisfied, they may be able to reach the last and highest level of satisfaction (Amos et al. 2004:151). On this basis, Amos et al. (2004:151) postulated that Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory is based on a satisfaction-progression assumption: as the lower-level needs are substantially fulfilled, the next higher-level needs increase in strength, and thus become powerful motivators.

Nel et al. (2011:290) explained that if a person's safety needs have not been met, they will not be motivated by opportunities to fulfil their status needs. Physiological, safety and social needs must be fulfilled before one can join an organisation. The fourth and fifth levels of needs are probably the levels that provide the best opportunities for employee motivation, as they are functions of the type of work people do, rather than the working conditions, such as the quality of interaction and remuneration (Amos et al. 2004:151). The researcher found that information could also play an important role in motivating employees in organisations, hence it is discussed in this section. Rad (2010:40) stated that information offered at different hierarchical levels in organisations could be a source of motivation.
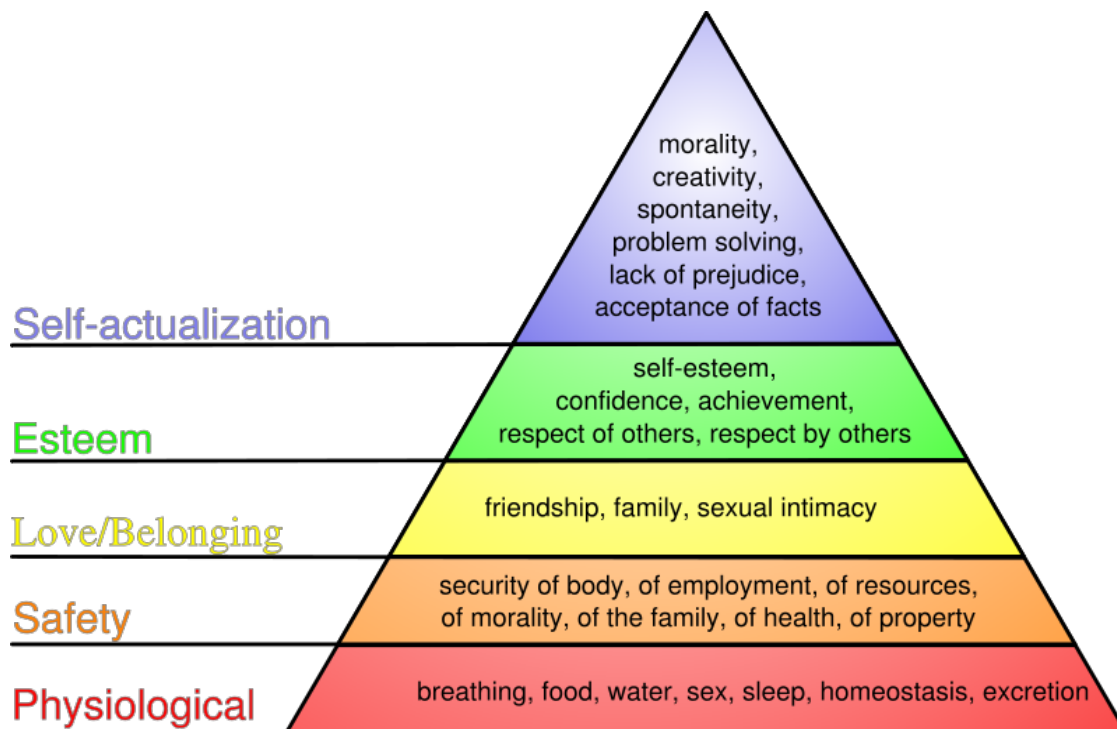
Figure 4.1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs
Source: Maslow (1954)

The implications of Maslow's hierarchy of needs are enormous for municipal HRM. As with employees in all workplaces, the employees in municipalities are at different levels on Maslow's hierarchy of needs. It is thus up to municipal officials to identify at which level each employee is on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, in order to motivate employees appropriately.

The following section deals with Alderfer's (1969) ERG theory, its relationship to Maslow's theory of motivation, and how managers could draw from this relationship to motivate their employees to achieve superior performance in the workplace.

Alderfer's (1969) ERG theory

Clayton Alderfer (1969) reworked Maslow's hierarchy of needs to align it more closely with empirical research. Alderfer's theory is called the existence, relatedness and growth theory, or ERG theory (Koonitz & Weihrich 2008:291). Alderfer (1969) recategorised Maslow's hierarchy of needs into three simpler and broader groupings of needs, namely existence needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs. **Existence needs** include the need for basic material necessities. In short, they include an individual's physiological and physical safety needs. **Relatedness needs** include the aspiration that individuals have for maintaining significant interpersonal relationships (whether with family, peers, or superiors) and acquiring fame and recognition. Maslow's social needs and his external esteem needs fall under this category of needs. **Growth needs** include need for self-development and personal growth and advancement (Koonitz & Weihrich, 2008:291). Maslow's self-actualisation needs and his internal esteem needs fall under this category of needs. Table 4.1 depicts the similarities between Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Alderfer's ERG theory. Alderfer's ERG theory provides for the satisfaction of basic requirements for existence, or survival. These requirements correspond to Maslow's physiological and safety needs, such as the need for a safe working environment, food, clothing, shelter, and so on. The second grouping in Alderfer's theory is relatedness. It is concerned with satisfying interpersonal relationships, and this level corresponds with Maslow's social needs and the external component of Maslow's esteem classification. Lastly, Maslow's and Alderfer's developmental needs, Alderfer's growth needs, and Maslow's internal esteem needs and self-actualisation needs provide for people's desire for personal growth and development.

Table 4.1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs versus Alderfer's ERG theory

Maslow's hierarchy of needs	Alderfer's ERG theory
Self-actualisation needs Internal esteem needs	Growth needs
External esteem needs Social needs	Relatedness needs
Safety needs Physiological needs	Existence needs

Source: Author

In contrast to Maslow's theory, which emphasises fulfilling lower-level needs before one can fulfil higher-level needs, the ERG theory proposes that people have multiple needs to satisfy concurrently. ERG theory thus suggests that employers cannot focus on one particular need at a time to satisfy employees' needs; this might not effectively motivate employees. Swanepoel et al. (2007:328) pointed out that two or even three categories of needs could influence behaviour simultaneously. Swanepoel et al. (2007:328) implied that employers could try to satisfy employees' growth needs even if relatedness needs have not been completely satisfied. For example, municipal workers' demands for higher salaries may be caused by unsatisfied needs for recognition and/or growth in their jobs. This scenario is consistent with Alderfer's (1969) principle of frustration-regression. The frustration-regression principle implies that unmet needs may force municipal employees to seek fulfilment of immediate lower needs. The frustration-regression principle impacts on workplace motivation. For example, in accordance with Borkowski's (2009:110) claim, if growth opportunities are denied to some municipal employees on the basis of, say, political affiliation, they may regress to relatedness needs, and may socialise more with co-workers of the same political affiliation, or even leave their job with the municipality to work for another employer in order to satisfy this need. This could deprive municipalities of much-needed service personnel.

Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory
Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) more porpularly refered to simply as Herzberg's (1959) two-factor-theory two-factor theory and also known as the

motivation-hygiene theory, was derived from a study designed to test the concept that people have two sets of needs: their needs as animals to avoid pain, and their needs as humans to grow psychologically. These two sets of needs which influence motivation and job satisfaction Herzberg called hygiene factors (that is, extrinsic or external motivation) and motivators (that is, intrinsic or internal motivation). Hygiene factors, also called maintenance factors, are determinants of job satisfaction and include organisational policy and administration, supervision, salary, fringe benefits, working conditions, status and job security; absence of hygiene factors could serve as demotivators (Abbott 2008:8). Abbott (2008:8) pointed out that hygiene factors are not motivators, as motivators can only make tasks more interesting, and even enjoyable. Motivators include recognition, achievement, responsibility, advancement, professional and personal growth, and even aspects of the job itself (Abbott 2008:8). Organisations needing to motivate employees – municipalities included – should heed Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory. This theory implies that factors such as favourable working conditions, salary, job security, and status are not motivators, but rather determinants of job satisfaction. People are more likely to be motivated by factors such as interesting tasks, recognition, achievement, personal growth, and so on.

Table 4.2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs versus Herzberg's two factor theory

Maslow's hierarchy of needs	Herzberg's two-factor theory
Self-actualisation Ego Social	Motivators
Safety Physiological	Hygiene Factors

Source: Nel et al. (2011:294)

To some extent Maslow's and Herzberg's theories are linked. They both use hierarchical scales that show that one stage must be fully completed before one can advance to the next stage. The two theories both suggest that people are motivated to act in order to fulfil a need or needs, and that satisfied workers are productive. Herzberg's hygiene factors correspond with Maslow's physiological, safety and belongingness needs, that is, they have similar categories (basic pay, work conditions,

and so on). Herzberg's motivators and Maslow's esteem and self-actualisation needs both include the need for recognition, growth, achievement, and so on). Table 4.2 implies that people are motivated to strive for the next level of needs only if the current level is completely fulfilled. These two theories imply that for managers to ensure effectiveness within their organisations, they need to understand what motivates employees within the context of their jobs. This means that managers should pay attention by enabling satisfiers, such as ensuring that workplaces are safe, and people's jobs are meaningful. Managers also need to encourage teamwork by allowing interaction with co-workers, as well as delegating responsibility and involving staff in decision-making processes. The following section discusses process motivation theories, and the impact that they can have on employees' attitudes to their jobs, as well as the organisation as a whole.

4.2.2.2 Process motivation theories

Adams' (1963) equity theory

Adams' (1963) equity theory, as a process theory, explains how a person's motivation to act in a certain way is driven by feelings of equity. It attempts to explain the social comparisons that people make when they compare their inputs, such as work efforts, time spent on work, and qualifications and skills, with the outputs that they receive, such as pay, recognition, promotion (Kreitner & Kinicki 2008:217). Adams' (1963) equity theory attempts to explain how people strive for fairness and justice in social or give-and-take relationships. It states that an employee assesses his or her work inputs against what he or she receives (outputs), and makes comparisons with the ratio of inputs to outputs of other employees. A problem arises when comparison is made and there is a perception of unfairness (inequity). One of the ways in which employees will seek to restore equity in the event of perceived inequity is to change their inputs, that is, their behaviour or attitude (Bagraim 2007:88). Municipal employees, for example, who might perceive unfair distribution of outputs, say salaries, by thinking that the distribution of salaries favours certain employees, are likely to have a negative attitude towards their job and the organisation as a whole. This means that employees expect a balance and fairness between what they and other employees give (inputs) with what they and other employees receive (outputs).

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Adams' (1965) theory, also known as *exchange theory*, states that employees strive for equity between themselves and other workers. Equity theory looks at an individual's perception of the fairness of an employment situation, and suggests that perceived inequalities could lead to changes in behaviour. Equity is achieved when the ratio of employee inputs (skills, effort, experience) and outputs (recognition salary, status) is equal, and the ratio of one's outcomes over inputs is equal to that of other employees (Adams 1965). People will be motivated to give more if the equity rule exists, as they will perceive that the distribution of outcomes is fair, and they will not be motivated to change anything (Nel et al. 2011:333). The researcher notes, however, that people could still be motivated to work as a result of their desire to serve and have an impact on their communities. The motivating factor will then remain their desire to serve. People may also want to know what they will get for their efforts, skills, and so on, which is why they will ask "What's in it for me?" (WIFM) (Marston 2007:1). Rather than there being equity in municipalities in South Africa, however, inequity has been reported in most municipalities, municipal employees' salaries and benefits are not standardised, and disparities among employees of similar ranks are reported to be common in many municipalities (CoGTA 2009:68). If this practice persists, employees' motivation and morale, and the ultimate performance of the organisation, could be low, which could, in turn, impede the quality of service delivery.

People behave or act in certain ways to attract good returns on their positive behaviour or actions. The following section deals with Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory. The theory provides insight into what motivates people to behave or act in certain ways.

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory

People behave in certain ways because of what they expect in return for their behaviour. Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory of motivation holds that the tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of the expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome, and on the degree to which the person desires that outcome (Swanepoel, Erasmus & Schenk 2008:333). Wachira and Kamau (2014:213) argued that a person will exert more effort if he or she believes that there is a reasonable probability or chance that the behaviour will result in a desired outcome. For example, if a municipal employee desires a promotion, and believes that through

meeting certain organisational goals, he or she will obtain a promotion, then that employee will exert high levels of effort to achieve the envisaged promotion. Expectation for promotion will be a motivating factor for increased effort and consequent performance. According to Nel et al. (2011:335), the degree of motivation is dependent on the three variables of attractiveness, performance-reward link, and effort-performance link. Attractiveness is the importance that the person attaches to the rewards that could be achieved by performing a task. Performance-reward link is the degree to which the person believes that performance at a given level will result in the desired outcome or reward. Effort-performance link is the degree to which the person believes that his or her efforts will lead to the performance necessary to achieve the desired result. Theories of motivation have much in common. They reveal that employees join organisations because they have a range of needs that need to be met, and they expect organisations to help them satisfy their needs.

Employees come with knowledge, skills, and energies, and they devote their time to the organisation. In return, they expect some form of remuneration. Researchers such as Blau (2009) term this exchange of skills, knowledge, and energy in return for incentives, or 'social exchange'. The concept of *social exchange* directs attention to the emergent properties in interpersonal relations and social interaction (Blau 2009:4). Blau (2009:4) states that a person for whom another has done a service is expected to express his or her gratitude and return a service when the occasion arises. Blau's theory suggests that "one good turn deserves another", implying that people are likely to perform to the best of their ability if they know that their performance will be reciprocated or appreciated appropriately.

Drawing from process theories of motivation, the researcher assumes that people act in certain ways because they expect their actions and/or behaviour to be appreciated. Employees expect to be appropriately recognised and appreciated for their positive activities and contributions to the organisation. This implies that municipalities that fail to reciprocate for satisfactory employee behaviour or positive activities are likely to demotivate employees. Employees might find it fruitless to act or behave in ways that will favour their municipalities, and they will desist from any activities that might be of benefit to the municipality. However, employees may still act or behave entirely in the

municipality's favour without expecting anything in return. This behaviour, according to Heidari et al. (2012:114), is unique, discretionary behaviour which goes beyond employees' routine duties (so-called 'employee citizenship behaviour', or ECB), which is influential in enhancing the effective functioning of the municipality.

The above discussion of theories of motivation reveals that satisfaction of employee needs increases employee motivation. A common understanding develops around human needs, and how people will strive to meet these needs. These theories show that people have needs, and that these needs are satisfied by having interesting and challenging jobs and the opportunity to grow personally and professionally (Lunenburg 2011:5), recognition, job security, social interaction at work and management support (Devadass 2011:567), and conducive working conditions (Brooks 2006:132), among other things. These theories suggest that municipal managers need to be conversant with applying various theoretical perspectives concerning motivation of people. Each theory of motivation, according to Van Wyk (2011:13), could provide managers of municipalities with insight and contains specific suggestions for better managing of municipal human capital.

It is not advisable to regard any single theory as the most suitable theory, but rather, as advised by Swanepoel et al. (2008:337), managers in municipalities would do well to study all the theories and discover by trial and error the most suitable theory for their particular context. Furthermore, perceptions of injustice in organisations may motivate employees to act or behave in unfavourable ways. Municipal employees may adopt negative attitudes and lower their job performance if they believe that they are unequally or unfairly treated by their municipalities. Lowering job performance and adopting negative attitudes could impact negatively on the overall quality of service delivered by the municipality.

4.2.4 Motivation to deliver quality service in South Africa's municipalities

The previous section on theories of motivation revealed that employee motivation plays a critical role in employee performance, and ultimately organisational performance. Andersen and Serritzlew (2009:2) highlighted the potential for improving public services by ensuring that employees have the right kind of motivation. The

rationale for this is that employees are internal customers, and their satisfaction contributes to the overall satisfaction of customers, and ultimately organisational performance (Ahmad, Wasay & Malik 2012:532). In the service sector, excellent quality of service is the core of customer satisfaction, and motivated employees are essential for improving the quality of service, and consequently retaining the organisation's customers (Ahmad et al. 2012:532). Kachornkittiya, et al. (2012:79) asserted that the most important way to contribute to service efficiency among government employees is to enhance their public service motivation. Thus, motivated municipal employees will provide high-quality service to citizens. This means that municipal employees must be motivated to serve. This raises the issue of *public service motivation (PSM)*.

According to Kachornkittiya et al. (2012:79), public service motivation (PSM), which was first conceptualised in 1982, is regarded as the mechanism through which the behaviour of public sector employees could be directed for the better. Kachornkittiya et al. (2012:79) stated that PSM should be achieved by directing the motivation of public employees more to the public interest. O'Riordan (2013:7) maintained that public sector organisations need to develop an organisational culture that is grounded in PSM. The central factors that help organisations to develop an organisational culture that is supportive of PSM are person-organisation fit and a supportive work environment. According to O'Riordan (2013:7), person-organisation fit theory suggests that performance is enhanced when an employee's values match organisational goals, values and culture. This author further stated that a supportive work environment entails sound communication, effective conflict management, collegiality in the organisation, and the use of incentive systems. Person-organisation fit and a supportive work environment together shape employees' public service motivation and their performance at work (O'Riordan, 2013:7).

In the light of the above assertions, one could ask whether municipal employees in South Africa are motivated enough to provide quality service? In this regard, Buhlungu et al. (2007:53) suggested that municipal employees in South Africa do not have much public service motivation, that they serve themselves more than they serve the citizens of the country, and that they put their interests above the public interest. Manala

(2010:523) blamed greed and corruption among local government employees for disabling service delivery in South Africa. It therefore appears that there is a lack of motivation on the part of municipal employees in South Africa to provide quality service.

Ahmad et al. (2012:532) argued that investing in developing motivated employees is an expense which will benefit the organisation over time, as it will improve employee efficiency and the quality of service delivery. Municipalities should therefore heed the investment theories on PSM, which postulate that employee motivation should be regarded as an investment or input that will yield positive outcomes for the organisation in the long run.

Another powerful motivation theory that municipalities could learn from, proposes that employee motivation should be directed towards quality service to customers. Shahin, Abandi and Javadi (2011:129) maintained that customer satisfaction has been a major goal of business organisations since it was deemed to affect customer retention and the market share of companies. Satisfied customers are regarded as less price-sensitive, less influenced by competitors, inclined to buy additional products and/or services and to stay loyal longer (Shahin et al. 2011:129). The link between motivation and customer satisfaction and retention will now be discussed.

4.2.5 Employee motivation as a source of customer satisfaction and retention
Retaining clients has become an important agenda for organisations. Customer retention not only has long-term benefits for the organisation, but it also offers certain psychological, social and economic benefits to customers (Beatson, Lings & Gudergan 2008:4). According to Beatson et al. (2008:4), the interaction of clients with front-line staff is paramount in determining the quality of the relationship with clients, as clients often do not distinguish between the person providing the service and the organisation. It is thus essential that organisations strive to achieve service excellence through their employees, in order to retain customers. Clients behave in certain ways, depending on the nature of the encounter that they have with the organisation's employees. Chi and Gursoy (2009:245) indicated a direct relationship between employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction. It is therefore a challenge for managers to keep their staff

motivated in such a way that it will impact positively on customer behaviour towards the organisation.

Beatson et al. (2008:6) further affirmed that employee behaviours such as employee citizenship behaviour (ECB), pro-social service behaviour, customer orientation, and service orientation were all linked to positive consumer evaluations of the service encounter with the organisation. Gregg, Grout, Ratcliffe, Smith and Windmeijer (2008:2) defined pro-social behaviour as helpful behaviour intended to benefit people unmotivated by professional obligations. Pro-social behaviour is equated with donation of labour (Gregg et al. 2008:2), which implies that an employee offers his or her labour for the benefit of the organisation, without expecting anything in return, acting on motives of self-sacrifice. Organ (1988:4) defined ECB as individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward systems of the organisation, and which in aggregate promotes efficient and effective functioning of the organisation. It will be shown in Section 4.4.5 that these behaviours are linked to organisational effectiveness and long-term success.

Thakor and Joshi (2005:585) defined customer orientation as a function that helps customers make purchase decisions that satisfy customer preferences. This definition implies that organisations should constantly focus on supporting customers by providing for and satisfying their needs. Focusing on customer needs could enable an organisation to gain the competitive advantage and long-term success. The question is "Are municipalities in South Africa focused on customer needs?" The answer to this question would be no, given the public service delivery protests in South Africa. Nleya (2011:4) posited that service delivery protests imply the existence of a lack of service delivery. Municipalities might need to answer this question by coming up with strategies and policies to improve customer satisfaction. Lastly, Ming, Chung and Paul (2013:56) defined service orientation as an organisation-wide adoption of a basic set of relatively enduring organisational policies, practices and procedures intended to support and reward service-giving behaviours that create and deliver service excellence. In the light of Ming et al.'s definition, one can deduce that service orientation links directly with customer orientation. This means that municipalities should consider how they can improve the services that they deliver to their customers.

4.2.6 Motivation and organisational performance

The theories of motivation explored in this chapter suggest that there is a link between motivation and organisational performance. The motivation theories explored generally predict that performance will increase with increased motivation (Kim 2005:246). Nel et al. (2011:339) confirmed that job satisfaction is positively correlated with important organisational variables, such as productivity, absenteeism, labour turnover, motivation, job involvement, employee citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment, life satisfaction, mental health, and job performance. Warsi, Fatima and Sahibzada (2009:401) indicated that motivation is considered to be essential for good performance, that job performance is typically determined by the motivation to work hard, and that high motivation means greater effort and higher performance. These statements confirm that motivation is critical for high levels of work involvement, improved employee performance, high levels of productivity, and ultimately improvement in organisational performance.

Drawing from the motivation theories discussed in the previous sections, the relatedness needs proposed by Alderfer's (1967; 1969; 1972) ERG theory, the social needs proposed by Maslow's theory (1954), Schein (1972:55) came up with the so-called *managers' assumptions of people.* His theory claimed that people aspire to and are motivated by maintaining interpersonal relationships, and are motivated by social factors present in their workplaces. Schein's (1972:55) claims were confirmed by the Hawthorne Works, in which Elton Mayo conducted experiments that demonstrated the influence of motivation on productivity (Sarkwa 2011:21). It is thus imperative that municipal managers are cognisant of relationships and their impact on productivity and the overall performance of the organisation.

Organisations in contemporary business environments seek to establish a reasonable balance between employee commitment and performance of the organisation (Danish & Usman 2010:159). The following section will discuss employee commitment. Danish and Usman (2010:159) stated that motivation depends on certain intrinsic and extrinsic factors, which, working together, result in fully committed employees.

4.3 EMPLOYEE ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

While motivated employees are, without question, important for organisational goal attainment, as indicated in the previous sections, the literature on motivation and commitment indicates that for organisations to achieve their strategic objectives, they need a committed workforce (Ghazanfar, Chuanmin, Siddique & Bashir 2012:502). It was established from the previous section on motivation that motivation and commitment are related. Lee and Chen (2013:196) confirmed this by stating that employee commitment is highly influenced by the level of motivation, which is essential in evoking a positive employee attitude towards the job. The statement by these authors implies that for employees to be committed to their organisation and work, they first have to be motivated. The following section provides existing definitions of employee commitment, to establish a working definition of the concept.

4.3.1 Defining employee organisational commitment

Shahnawaz and Jafri (2009:80) defined employee organisational commitment as a concept that seeks to capture the nature of the attachments formed by individuals to their employing organisations. Anis, Kashif-ur-Rehman, Ijaz-Ur-Rehman, Khan and Humayoun (2011:7319) claimed that employee commitment is a psychological stabiliser or helpful force that binds individuals to courses of action relevant to the organisation. Wiener and Gechman (1977), as cited in Ugboro (2006:238), contended that the pattern of behaviour resulting from commitment should, firstly, reflect personal sacrifices made for the sake of the organisation, secondly, show persistence, that is, the behaviours should not depend primarily on environmental controls such as reinforcements or punishment, and, thirdly, it should indicate a personal preoccupation with the organisation, such as devoting a great deal of personal time to organisation-related actions and thoughts. Ugboro (2006:236) posited that employee organisational commitment could be viewed as (1) the willingness of an individual to identify with the organisational goals, and the desire not to leave an organisation out of selfish interest or for marginal gains, (2) the willingness to work selflessly and contribute to the effectiveness of an organisation; (3) the willingness to make personal sacrifice, perform beyond normal expectations, and endure difficult times with an organisation, and (4) acceptance of the organisation's values and goals, that is, the internalisation factor.

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Employees have either positive or negative feelings or attitudes about their jobs. Swanepoel et al. (2007:22) pointed out that positive job attitudes are enhanced when people have good feelings about their jobs. Employees might have negative job attitudes as a result of dissatisfaction with their jobs, which will ultimately have an effect on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Nel et al. (2011:502) highlighted high absenteeism and high labour turnover as possible indications of dissatisfaction of employees in the organisation. It is through a positive attitude that employee organisational commitment is enhanced. Swanepoel et al. (2007:23) defined organisational commitment from an attitudinal point of view as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organisation".

Organisational commitment is further conceptualised by three factors, namely "a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and a strong desire to maintain membership of the organisation" (Swanepoel et al. 2007:24).

One can conclude from the above that commitment is an attitudinal issue. It can, for the purposes of this study, be defined as *a strong desire to remain emotionally attached and loyal to the organisation by exerting high-level efforts on behalf of the organisation and identifying with organisational goals and values*.

With the meaning of employee commitment having been explained, the literature will now be explored to shed light on the factors that enhance employee commitment, and the benefits of employee commitment to the employer, as well as the employee.

4.3.2 Overview of employee organisational commitment

Warsi et al. (2009:402) pointed out that when employees are sure that they will grow with their current employers, their level of commitment to stay with the organisation is higher. This statement implies that to make employees satisfied and committed to their jobs, there is a need for strong and effective motivational strategies at the various levels of the organisation.

Suma and Lesha (2013:45) found a strong relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. According to Warsi et al. (2009:402), job satisfaction is mostly determined by how well the organisation meets employees' expectations. Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane and Ferreira (2011:102) maintained that job satisfaction is a result of an individual's perception and evaluation of their job, influenced by their own unique needs, values, and expectations, which they regard as being important to them. Based on this view, it might be correct to assume that should municipalities engage in HRM practices that limit growth opportunities to certain employees, based on some political affiliation, this is bound to elicit negative justness perceptions, which will lead to lack of commitment and a high employee turnover. This means that employee commitment could assist municipalities in their efforts to retain employees. Grant, Dutton and Rosso (2008:899) confirmed this by noting that understanding how organisational commitment develops can assist organisations in their efforts to increase employee retention.

Alnaqbi (2011:51) proposed two basic approaches to commitment, namely commitment-related **attitudes**, and commitment-related **behaviours**. These two approaches differ slightly. In the first approach, commitment is shaped by people's attitudes (either positive or negative) towards either their job or the organisation as a whole. Commitment-related behaviours refer to behaviours which are shaped by attitudes, because people behave in certain ways, depending on their attitude, or how they feel about the job or the organisation (Ugboro 2006:236). Attitudinal commitment represents a state in which an individual identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in order to facilitate organisational goals (Filipova 2007:81). From an organisational justice perspective, one can infer that it is possible to connect attitudinal commitment of municipal employees to HRM practices. It is reasonable to expect employees who have positive justness perceptions of HRM practices of their municipality to identify with that municipality's goals and wishes, and to work hard towards the achievement of such goals, such as high-quality service delivery.

Lee and Chen (2013:197) postulated that employee commitment is related to workers' attachment to or participation in the organisation in which they are employed.

Employee commitment is significant, since it determines whether employees are likely to leave their jobs, on the one hand, or improve performance, on the other hand (Lee & Chen 2013:197). One could therefore conclude that municipal employees with a higher level of organisational commitment have a sense of belonging and identification with the municipality. Therefore, being committed to a municipality increases employees' desire to pursue the municipality's goals and activities, and increases employees' willingness to remain part of the municipality.

Drawing from the organisational justice literature, organisational justice has been viewed as the fair and ethical treatment of people in an organisation. According to Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi (2012:158), if an employee perceives inequity within an organisation, the employee will behave in a way that will seek to correct such perceptions. Equity is defined as justice, and inequity is defined as injustice (Al-Zawahreh & Al-Madi 2012:159). Employees who perceive injustice may lower their productivity, reduce the quality of their job performance, or exhibit counterproductive behaviours. According to Idiakheua and Obetoh (2012:913), counterproductive behaviours are intended to harm the organisation; such actions include improper work, sabotage, theft, absenteeism, misuse of information, delays, and poor-quality work. To guard against counterproductive behaviours by employees, managers in municipalities will have to ensure that equity and justice prevail within their municipalities.

Warsi et al.'s (2009:402) study on private-sector employees in Pakistan showed that work motivation, overall job satisfaction, and organisational commitment were significantly related. As such, organisations would only need to increase and maintain two variables (work motivation and job satisfaction) to achieve a positive effect on organisational commitment. It is reasonable to expect that satisfied employees will be motivated to work harder for organisational goal attainment. Similarly, it is reasonable to expect satisfied employees to want to have a long-term association with the organisation and hence will stay with the organisation as long as they can.

According to Bakhshi et al. (2009:147) and Yavuz (2010:695), organisational commitment has three components or sub-dimensions namely (1) affective commitment, (2) continuance commitment and (3) normative commitment.

Affective commitment (emotional attachment) is defined as the affective desire on the part of individuals employed in an organisation to continue to work in the organisation as a result of identifying with the organisation. Ugboro (2006:235) saw affective commitment as an alignment that employees feel between their organisation and their personal value system and desires. According to Ugboro (2006:235), employee affective commitment could result from creating intrinsically rewarding situations for employees. For example when employees develop the feeling that the organisation considers what is in the best interests of employees when making decisions that affect employment conditions and the work environment; and when employees feel that they are involved in the goal-setting and decision-making processes, they develop strong affective commitment (Ugboro 2006:235). One can logically conclude on the basis of this insight that municipal employees that have an affective commitment to their municipality will work in the best interests of the municipality – because they feel that the municipality considers the best interests of employees when making decisions that affect employment conditions and the work environment.

Continuance commitment, which is based on a cost-benefit analysis made by the employee, can be defined as the state where employees continue to stay in an organisation, with the reasoning that if they leave their job, they will suffer financially, and their job opportunities will be limited. Shahnawaz and Jafri (2009:80) confirmed that continuance commitment refers to a state where employees are bound to their organisation only because of the benefits associated with staying compared to the personal costs associated with leaving. On the basis of this definition, it is fair to conclude that municipal employees that do not identify with their municipality but are simply working there for financial security and will leave if better opportunities arise.

Wang, Indridasson and Saunders (2010:5) defined continuance commitment from an investment perspective, and therefore an economic perspective. For Wang et al. (2010:5), continuance commitment refers to employees' willingness to remain with an

organisation because of personal investment they have made into the organisation. In the work situation, it is evident that personal investment could be in the form of non-transferable investments, such as close working relationships with co-workers, retirement investments, career investments, acquired job skills which are unique to a particular organisation, years of employment in a particular organisation, involvement in the community in which the employer is located, and other benefits that make it too costly for one to leave and seek employment elsewhere (Wang et al. 2010:5). Chipunza (2009:101) asserted that cost-based commitment could be linked to perceived penalties involved in moving to another organisation. This implies that employees that invest considerable time and energy in mastering a specific job skill of a particular organisation may find it difficult to move to another organisation.

Lastly, normative commitment (obligation) is where employees do not leave the job, because they have a moral obligation towards the organisation. It refers to commitment based on a moral belief or obligation that "it is the right and moral thing" to do to remain with the organisation (Shahnawaz & Jafri 2009:80). Such a feeling of obligation often results from what Ugboro (2006:80) characterised as "generalized value of loyalty and duty". There is an almost natural predisposition to be loyal and committed to institutions such as family, marriage, country, religion, and employment organisation, as a result of socialisation that places a premium on loyalty and devotion to institutions.

To summarise, it is clear that employees with a strong affective commitment remain with an organisation because they want to, those with a strong continuance commitment remain because they have to, and those with a strong normative commitment remain because they feel they ought to (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993) as cited in Ugboro (2006:236).

Thus, one can conclude from this section that employees that stay with their particular municipal employer because they are emotionally attached to the municipality are likely to identify with the goals and values of the municipality, and they will remain committed and strive to achieve the municipality's goals, while those who stay because of financial security do not have any interest in the municipality, they are

staying merely to survive, and if better opportunities arise, they are likely to leave the municipality.

Finally, common to all three types of commitment is the view that commitment is a psychological state that (a) characterises the employee's relationship with the organisation, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organisation (Ugboro 2006:236).

4.3.3 Organisational justice, employee commitment, and organisational performance

This study is about employees' perceptions of organisational justice as far as HRM practices in municipalities are concerned. The literature confirms that there is a relationship between organisational justice perceptions and employee commitment, and that positive or negative justice perceptions could have an influence on employee attitudes and performance, and overall organisational performance. It was revealed in the previous chapter that research on organisational justice has shown that employees' organisational justice perceptions link directly with job satisfaction and employee organisational commitment. For example, Bakhshi et al. (2009:148) argued that perceived organisational justice is an important predictor of job satisfaction, as well as organisational commitment. Organisational commitment represents a global, systemic reaction that people have to the company for which they work. Bakhshi et al. (2009:148) claimed that the use of fair decision-making procedures could provide evidence of genuine caring and concern on the part of the organisation for the well-being of employees. The use of fair and just procedures within the organisation will motivate employees to continue their association with the organisation, and to exhibit higher levels of commitment to the organisation.

Farndale, Hope-Hailey and Kelliher (2010:6) confirmed the link between employees' perceptions of justice in HRM and job satisfaction and employee commitment. These authors' claims suggest that perceptions of injustice in HRM practices might lead to employees developing negative attitudes towards their jobs and the organisation. The existence of negative attitudes among employees in an organisation will not bode well for organisational success and long-term growth. Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane and

Ferreira (2011:105) contended that organisational commitment is generally assumed to reduce *abandonment behaviours* (which include tardiness and high labour turnover). In addition, employees who are committed to their organisation may be more willing to participate in "extra-role" activities, such as being creative or innovative, which frequently ensures an organisation's competitiveness in the market (Lumley et al. 2011:105). Lee and Chen (2013:196) stated that employee commitment and job attitude are nowadays considered two of the most important and controversial elements in human resource management, and employee commitment is linked mainly to work values, work motivation, and work involvement. In the light of these claims, management needs to put more effort into ensuring that workers are motivated, satisfied, and committed to the organisations that they serve. Ghazanfar et al. (2012:502) stated that HRM practices could reflect organisational commitment of the organisation's employees, a factor which is believed to influence employees' motivation and desire to put in more effort, so that the organisation can ultimately improve its performance. Employee organisational commitment results in an employee exhibiting positive behaviour. Paino, Thani and Idris (2011:97) pointed out that employee commitment is an acceptance of organisational goals and willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organisation, and it is associated with positive behaviours, such as job performance and attendance.

If managers start dealing with their subordinates in a fair and trustful manner, they can enhance the commitment of employees, and this is bound to result in optimal performance for the organisation, as well as increased productivity (Raja, Abraiz, Tabassum & Jawad 2012:43). A study by Jawad et al. (2012) highlighted the link between organisational justice and employee commitment. That is, commitment and attitudes towards one's organisation are enhanced by employee perceptions of justice in the organisation. Bakhshi et al. (2009:147) found that employees who perceived that they were being treated fairly by their employers were more committed, trustful, and satisfied with the company than when they perceived that they were being treated unfairly.

Based on the literature explored in this chapter on commitment, one can infer that municipal employees, who perceive that they are being treated fairly and justly by their

municipality, are likely to have a positive attitude. They are likely to remain satisfied and committed to the municipality, and they may stay loyal for a longer period. This has unfortunately not been the case in many municipalities in South Africa, where it has been reported that political interference in the recruitment of the workforce has resulted in poor procedures and policies and unfair HRM practices (CoGTA 2009:67).

The thesis statement for this study is that employees that perceive justice in their organisations are more likely to feel satisfied. Because satisfied employees tend to have positive attitudes or feelings about their organisation, they will tend to be committed and motivated to even take on an extra role such as helping out others when there is really no need to and higher levels of performance than expected. It is also posited that perceptions of justice will result in low absenteeism, low staff turnover, and loyalty to the organisation – all of which will benefit the organisation by giving it a competitive edge and making it successful in the long term. It can thus be asserted that organisations with insight into how to manage employees justly and fairly are likely to evoke positive attitudes and positive behaviour from their employees. Therefore, satisfied municipal employees are likely to show work commitment by being loyal to the organisation, going the extra mile, and delivering quality service to citizens.

Studies such as that of Altaf, Afzal, Hamid and Jamil (2011), Ismail, Guatleng, Cheekiong, Ibrahim, Ajis and Dollah (2009), and Weller (2009) should provide municipalities and policy makers with insight into the relationship between perceived organisational justice and work attitude and the formation of employee justice perceptions. Bakhshi et al.'s (2009) study might also help municipalities to have a better understanding of how to retain valuable employees and increase employees' commitment to and satisfaction with their work, thereby improving employee performance.

The following section explores theories about the psychological contract. The researcher has found the concept of the psychological contract, which defines the mutual relationship between the employer and the employee, to be useful, as employees have certain expectations of their employer that are not necessarily

documented, but could have just as much impact on employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace.

4.3.4 Psychological contracts and employee commitment

It was mentioned in Chapter 2 that organisations will achieve their strategic objectives only if they treat their employees fairly. This implies that there will always be a relationship between the employer and the employee. Conway and Briner (2009:32) see this relationship as reciprocal and leading to individual and organisational goal attainment. The employer-employee relationship is governed by what employees perceive as a number of implied and unspoken expectations of their employer, and vice versa (McInnis 2012:8). McInnis (2012:8) stated that these mutual expectations, of which the parties to the relationship may themselves not even be aware, but which nevertheless govern the relationship with each other, formed a *psychological contract*. A psychological contract may also be defined as the employee's beliefs about reciprocal obligations that are entailed in an on-going employer-employee exchange relationship (Conway & Briner 2009:32). According to Anvari, Amin, Ahmad, Seliman and Garmsari (2011:47), the concept of the psychological contract refers to the set of unwritten beliefs held by individual employees, which specifies what each employee is allowed to receive, and what obligations each employee has in their work relationship.

While no attempt has yet been made to arrive at an operational definition of the concept of the psychological contract, it is important to mention that the above definitions have in common the elements of *reciprocity*, *employer-employee exchange relationship*, *fairness*, *goal attainment*, and *mutual expectation*, which appear to be key issues in the *psychological contract*.

Several researchers, such as Cunningham (2008:78), Cable (2008:92), Steyn (2009:4), Anvari et al. (2011:47), and İnce and Gül (2011), appear to have an understanding of the implications of the psychological contract which is pertinent to this study. Cable (2008:92) and Cunningham (2008:78) concurred that when individual employees believed that they are obligated to behave or perform in a particular way, and they also believed that the employer had certain obligations towards them, these

individuals had a psychological contract. Anvari et al. (2011:47) regarded the psychological contract as the employee's beliefs about reciprocal obligations entailed in the employer-employee exchange relationship. Beliefs become contractual when the individual believes that he or she owes the employer certain contributions (such as hard work and loyalty) in return for certain inducements (such as high pay and pay for performance) (Anvari et al. 2011:47). A common element in the above definitions of the psychological contract is that of *reciprocal obligations*. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the psychological contract is defined as *the reciprocal obligations that the employer-employee relationship entails or seems to entail for both employer and employee*.

Formulating theory about the psychological contract is a reasonable approach to understand the attitudes and behaviour of workers in different types of employment (Lee & Chen 2013:202). For example, transformation of talents and knowledge of individual employees into the basic inputs of an organisation occurs as a result of the psychological relationship and the psychological contract between the individual employee and the organisation, beyond the job and the task descriptions (İnce & Gül 2011:134). Furthermore, psychological contracts could develop from the interaction of the individual employee with his or her organisational environment through several means, including HRM practices (Sonnenberg 2006:29).

Coyle-Shapiro (2008:3) argued that the exchange between the two parties of employer and employee needs to provide mutual satisfaction if the relationship is to continue. This entails fairness, as a relationship can only be mutually satisfying if it is seen as fair by both parties. It is therefore prudent to regard the psychological contract as one of the tools that has the potential to enhance employee motivation and commitment, and ultimately the performance of the organisation.

Drawing from Coyle-Shapiro (2008:3), it can be argued that municipal employees that perceive HRM practices as unfair can be expected to develop negative attitudes towards the municipality employing them, thus leading to breach of the psychological contract. Rosen, Chang, Johnson and Levy (2009:203) supported this assertion by saying that when employees believe that the organisation has failed to fulfil obligations

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contained in the psychological contract, breach of the psychological contract occurs. Gharbi and Ayed (2012:1) postulated that the perception of organisational injustice might cause employees to question the degree of trust between the employer and the employee, leading to a breach of the psychological contract and problems in the organisation, such as doubt, mistrust, and antisocial behaviour, for example negative ECB.

Based on the insights provided by the above discussion, the psychological contract relationship seems to have failed in most municipalities in South Africa. CoGTA's (2009) analysis of labour issues in municipalities indicated that the municipal working environment is not attractive, due to the poor human resource management which is prevalent in many municipalities, and which has been one of the main hindrances in service delivery (CoGTA 2009:69). Yet, from the literature it is clear that positive interactions and relationships between employers and employees sustain the psychological contract, and thus positive work attitudes. CoGTA (2009:69) expresses the same sentiments as Argyris (1960:165) that there is an urgent need to facilitate engagement between the employer and the employee in municipalities, so as to stabilise the deteriorating employer-employee relationship, which is manifested in the many protracted labour disputes occurring in the country.

The following section deals with employee commitment and its impact on organisational performance.

4.3.5 Employee commitment and organisational performance

The above sections on employee commitment highlighted that employee commitment shapes employee behaviour. This section deals with employee commitment and its impact on organisational performance. Drenth (2009:12) claimed that there is a link between HRM strategies, such as company-specific education, and individual employee commitment. These strategies could be associated with higher levels of employee affective commitment, as well as higher levels of service behaviour, greater intention to stay with the organisation, and lower absenteeism. Organisations need highly committed employees who will increase organisational effectiveness through high levels of performance. Owoyemi, Oyelere, Elegbede and Gbajumo-Sheriff

(2011:281) posited that developing high organisational commitment among employees is an ideal approach to managing employees. This approach is based on the assumption that it will lead to positive outcomes, such as low labour turnover, low absenteeism, better motivation, and improved performance.

Organisational justice theories establish that justice and fairness in organisations are predictors of job satisfaction and positive employee attitudes and behaviour. This statement is evidenced by Williamson and Williams' (2011:64) study, which showed that organisational justice had a direct effect on commitment and extra-role behaviour. These authors defined extra-role behaviour as behaviour "which benefits the organisation and/or is intended to benefit the organisation, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations". This implies that employees with positive attitudes and behaviour exert greater effort to achieve organisational goals. Positive attitudes and behaviour are characteristics that are likely to benefit and contribute to the success of the organisation. Bakhshi et al.'s (2009:146) research showed links between perceived organisational justice, motivation, commitment, individual work performance and organisational performance. Committed employees engage or perform to the best of their ability, they are self-directed, and engage and perform with little or no supervision (Bakhshi et al. 2009:146). Ugboro (2006:237) maintained that behaviours should not depend primarily on environmental controls such as reinforcements or punishment, but on self-driven forces as well. According to Owoyemi et al. (2011:281), several studies conducted on HRM practices suggest that HRM practices that are anchored in high commitment, increase organisational effectiveness by creating conditions for high motivation and involvement in the organisational activities aimed at achieving organisational goals. Grant, Dutton and Rosso (2008:899) asserted that commitment is associated with favourable outcomes for both employees and the organisation, such as high job performance, attendance, and employee citizenship behaviour, as well as low turnover, stress and work-family conflict.

Adhikari and Gautam (2011:3) postulated that in cases where organisations fail to implement HRM practices appropriately, negative consequences for commitment and compliance are likely to occur, which could lead to organisations facing performance-

related problems, such as poor customer service. Adhikari and Gautam (2011:3) further claimed that a lack of proper HRM practices in organisations leads to lower job involvement, lack of commitment, dissatisfaction in jobs, decreased effort, an increase in the number of accidents, and high labour turnover. These authors suggested that poor HR practices are associated with a number of negative work- and health-related consequences, which could harm both employees and the organisation. Dzansi and Dzansi (2010:999) contended that maintaining high levels of commitment in employees is critical for organisational success, since committed employees would act in the best interests of the organisation, thereby contributing to organisational success in the long term. They elaborated that employee commitment was found to have a profound effect on organisational outcomes in many ways. For example, employee commitment predict critical employee behaviour and employee citizenship behaviour (Chovwen & Ogunsakin 2013:162), both of which are antecedents for an effective organisational setting. Therefore, municipalities that need to increase employee performance, and ultimately their quality of service delivery, need to motivate employees through proper HR practices, to ensure increased commitment by employees to the organisation and to their jobs.

Shahnawaz and Jafri (2009:80) asserted that organisational commitment is a concept that seeks to capture the nature of the attachments formed by individuals to their employing organisations. Tatlah et al. (2011:15) explained that perceptions of fairness related to enhanced employee commitment, employee satisfaction with the organisation, their jobs and their leaders. Such perceptions also relate to employee citizenship behaviour and service behaviours in general, and the steps that employees take to support their employer's interests. Chien and Hung (2008:513) stressed that service behaviour and service performance at organisational level corresponded to service behaviour at the individual level. Chien and Hung (reported data from 271 personal finance specialists and medical assistants to show that customer-oriented behaviour positively correlates with employee citizenship behaviour, and that both forms of behaviour, in turn, are positively correlated with service performance. It is therefore essential that managers in municipalities guard against unfair HRM practices, if they aim to create positive employee attitudes and employee commitment.

Orlowska (2011:12) drew the attention of managers to fair HRM practices and the consequences thereof, by pointing out that certain HR practices have been shown to have an impact on organisational justice perceptions. This author pointed out that, should employees perceive HR practices as unfair, they might display negative attitudes, which could have a negative impact on organisational performance and success.

4.4 EMPLOYEE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (ECB)

Perceptions of organisational justice have been consistently linked to a variety of organisational outcomes, such as employee organisational commitment and ECB (Orlowska 2011:12). Bergeron (2007:1078) regarded individual performance as consisting of two types, namely in-role performance and extra-role performance. In-role performance, also known as task performance, involves behaviours that are directly or indirectly related to the organisation's mission, and they are the behaviours that are usually prescribed by an individual's job description and are thus job-specific (Bergeron 2007:1078). Extra-role performance is distinguished as a special type of individual performance involving behaviours that support the organisation but that are not usually found in an individual's job description. Examples of these behaviours are cooperating with others, volunteering to do additional tasks, orienting new employees, offering to help others accomplish their work, and voluntarily doing more than the job requires (Bergeron 2007:152). Various definitions of ECB will be provided in the following section, to gain an understanding of ECB and its implications for organisations.

4.4.1 Defining employee citizenship behaviour

In today's volatile and competitive business environment, organisations depend mainly on their employees to gain a competitive advantage and remain competitive. Employee contribution is critical to business competitiveness, because in trying to produce more output with more employee input, companies need stable engagement with employees (Bakker & Schaufeli 2008:125). Employee engagement will depend on sound employer-employee relations, employee job satisfaction, and employee citizenship behaviour. Behaviours that employees exhibit can be either beneficial or damaging to the organisation. It has been established from the literature that employee

citizenship behaviour is desirable behaviour that is considered to be good or virtuous. Employees who have positive attitudes towards their organisation and their work are likely to contribute positively towards the achievement of personal and organisational goals. Another advantage of employee citizenship behaviour, according to Nadiri and Tanova (2010:34), is that this behaviour influences customer loyalty due to improved employee customer interaction and improved 'service climate'. It is therefore prudent for municipalities to understand how employee behaviour translates into customer satisfaction and loyalty.

The term 'employee citizenship behaviour' was coined by Dennis Organ and his associates in the early 1980s, and they defined the term as "behavior that (a) goes beyond the basic requirements of the job, (b) is to a large extent discretionary, and (c) is of benefit to the organization" (Lambert 2006:503). ECB has also been defined as "voluntary and discretionary behaviour of individual organisational members that, in the aggregate, is expected to promote overall organisational efficacy" (Dunlop & Lee 2004:68). The concept is further defined as "the voluntary individual action which is not defined clearly in the formal reward and punishment system of the organisation but supporting the effectiveness and efficiency of the organisation as a whole" (İnce & Gül 2011:136). Another definition of ECB is "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation" (Danaeefard, Balutbazeh & Kashi 2010:148). Danaeefard et al. (2010:148) defined ECB as "behaviour that is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organisation; rather the behaviour is a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable".

This study adopts the definition of Danaeefard et al. (2010:148), which defines ECB as "individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation". The definition resonates well with the study's operational definition of motivation, a concept that is closely linked to ECB. As with motivation, this definition implies that an employee of a municipality will be described as having positive ECB if

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that employee, without any compulsion, engages in behaviour that is not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and which promotes the effective functioning of the municipality.

4.4.2 The nature and importance of ECB

Although there are several conceptualisations of ECB, an investigation of the literature shows that the most commonly identified components of ECB are the following: (1) altruism, helpfulness, or selflessness; (2) conscientiousness; (3) chivalry, or sportsmanship, (4) courtesy, and (5) civic virtue.

Altruism, selflessness or **helpfulness** refers to helping others with specific organisation-related issues, or acting in the interests of others, with the belief that unselfish concern for the welfare of others is right and good (Dzansi & Dzansi 2010:999). Liu (2012:93) defined it as involving willingness to act in consideration of the interests of other persons, without ulterior motives. This may involve extra-role behaviours, such as helping out a colleague who has a heavy workload, helping a sick worker, helping others with new equipment, and so on. **Conscientiousness** is a discretionary behaviour that takes people beyond their minimal role and task requirements (Dzansi & Dzansi 2010:999). It means showing great care, attention, and industriousness in carrying out a task or role, particularly towards customers, or doing things according to a sense of right and wrong, particularly towards customers. This component of ECB can be described as extreme organisational commitment, where voluntary and active participation in the organisational life is at its highest. **Chivalry**, also known as **sportsmanship**, includes behaviours such as tolerance for the problems caused by the work, not complaining about distractions by other people, behaving positively in the case of problems, not getting angry with other people who have different ideas, sacrificing for the sake of teamwork, and respecting other people's opinions. In every organisation, troubles are inevitable. It means showing tolerance for less-than-ideal situations, or observing the rules of fair play (Dzansi & Dzansi 2010:999). The fourth component of ECB, namely **courtesy**, is discretionary behaviour or effort to prevent work-related problems with others (Dzansi & Dzansi 2010:999). Lastly, **civic virtue** refers to willingness to responsibly participate in the

organisational life and in the best interests of the organisation (Songür, Basım & Şeşen 2008:93).

There is no doubt that employees who have high levels of the citizenship behaviours described above are likely to take the organisation to higher levels of performance. A high level of employee organisational citizenship is among the most important factors that promote individual and organisational aims, reduce employee turnover, create organisational commitment, and improve employee productivity – such citizenship behaviour could be realised through a managerial system based on organisational justice (İnce & Gül 2011:134). Beneficial ECB actions for the organisation include helping others who have been absent, taking a personal interest in other employees, faithful attendance and punctuality, and following informal rules to maintain order (Zhang, Lee & Zou 2010:300). The task of managers is to ensure that employees have these characteristics in abundance. Fair HRM practices appear to be the best strategy to develop high levels of ECB in employees (Khaliq, Zia-ur-Rehman & Rashid 2011:976).

4.4.3 Organisational justice (OJ) and ECB

The previous sections explored the literature on organisational justice perceptions, employee commitment, job satisfaction, and employee citizenship behaviour. This section discusses the link between organisational justice and employee citizenship behaviour, and their impact on the organisation's overall performance.

Municipal managers and employees have to interact within a just and fair organisational setting for harmony to prevail in municipalities. Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997:58) stated that organisational justice provides a framework within which individuals and institutions could interact. Lavelle, Rupp and Brockner (2007:858) argued that the quality of the social exchange relationship between the employer and the employee is paramount, and fair and just treatment of subordinates by supervisors could contribute to the development of a healthy relationship of social exchange. Thus municipal managers and employees should benefit from each another; their relationship should be based on trust, justice, and fairness. Employees who perceive fairness and feel they are benefiting from their relationship with their

municipality, are likely to exhibit high levels of positive ECB, while those that perceive injustice and unfairness could be expected to display negative ECB.

Bakhshi and Kumar (2009:145) related organisational justice perceptions to job satisfaction, low employee turnover, leadership, organisational citizenship, organisational commitment, trust, customer satisfaction, job performance, avoidance of employee theft, role breadth, control of alienation, and leader-member exchange. Studies on organisational justice conducted by İnce and Gül (2011:134) and Karriker and Williams (2009:34) attested to the relationship between organisational justice, job satisfaction, positive work attitudes, organisational citizenship behaviour, and organisational performance and effectiveness. Organisational justice can therefore be regarded as a key issue for understanding organisational behaviour (Moghimi et al. 2013:121).

When employees react to the way they are treated at work, their motivation to respond cannot be understood adequately without taking into account the perceived fairness of the outcomes and the procedures used to reach the outcomes (Bakhshi et al. 2009:146). The most emphasised cognitive factor which stimulates employee citizenship behaviour is the organisational justice perceptions of employees, where negative justice perceptions lead to negative attitudes towards the organisation and the job. When employees have positive perceptions of organisational justice, they have more positive ECB (Lee, Kim & Kim 2013:61).

4.4.4 Employee citizenship behaviour and organisational performance

The previous sections on ECB argued that ECB is necessary for organisational performance and success. This section explains the connection between ECB and organisational performance.

Negative feelings of organisation members towards procedural justice and distributive justice give rise to absenteeism, low performance, deviance, a low degree of loyalty, and negative employee citizenship behaviours, and consequently poor organisational performance (İnce & Gül 2011:138).

İnce and Gül (2011:134) asserted that positive employee citizenship behaviours improve organisational performance by increasing effectiveness within organisations. These authors suggested that when employees' justice perceptions are positive, their loyalty to the organisation and their willingness to take on extra roles increase, with a corresponding rise in performance, which is reflected in organisational performance. Ariani (2013:48) contended that ECB influenced employee engagement and willingness to exert more effort than expected for the success of the organisation. Nadiri and Tanova (2010:34) argued that ECB is extremely important for employees who have direct contact with the customer, since it leads to better customer evaluation of the quality of service delivery. Furthermore, it is suggested that higher levels of ECB may lead to increased productivity, and consequently higher profitability (Mohammad, Habib & Alias 2011:150). This suggests that higher levels of ECB may cause municipalities to deliver quality service to citizens. Kaur (2011:88) contended that high levels of ECB would lead to increased efficiency of management and employees, increased organisational ability to recruit and retain efficient employees, and improved effectiveness and efficiency of organisational performance.

A study conducted by Subejo, Troena, Thoyib and Aisjah (2013:35) on the impact of employee citizenship behaviour on the employee performance of fire department and disaster management employees in Jakarta, Indonesia, showed that positive ECB improves employee performance.

4.4.5 A summative assessment of the connection between PHF, EOC, MOT, ECB, and QSD

Organisations may need to heed the advice of Kuar (2011:87), who suggested that employees should be made citizens of their organisations by providing specific rights to them, thereby motivating them to contribute to their duties, and ultimately the success of the organisation.

It is evident from the literature explored in this section that perceptions of organisational justice contribute towards ECB. Well-performing organisations are those that are supportive of their employees – they have invested in the job satisfaction and motivation of their employees and they treat employees equally. In a meta-

analysis review of 55 studies, Organ and Ryan found that job satisfaction, perceived fairness, organisational commitment, and leader supportiveness were robust predictors of ECB (Zhang, Lee & Zou 2010:300). Like Zhang et al. (2010:300), Orlowska (2011:12) emphasised the significance of justice perceptions within organisations by pointing out that in the context of the relationship between justice perceptions and ECB, it could be expected that if employees perceived the distribution of outcomes and the procedures used in deciding on the distribution as fair, they would be more inclined to engage in social exchange and exhibit ECB. Therefore, it is fair to conclude that in the context of the justice perception-ECB relationship, municipalities that ensure that employees perceive the distribution of outcomes and procedures as fair will be the ones whose employees exhibit higher levels of ECB. Furthermore, the efforts of managers in municipalities should be directed at effectively and efficiently implementing fair HRM practices, in order to motivate employees, so as to elicit commitment and positive ECB among employees, with the hope that this will translate into better quality of service delivery. This brings the discussion to quality of service delivery, and how quality service delivery could be achieved.

4.5 QUALITY OF SERVICE DELIVERY

Quality has become one of the most important factors in global competition today (Dilber, Bayyurt, Zaim & Tarim 2005:220). Intensifying global competition and increasing demand by customers for better quality have caused more and more companies to realise that they would have to provide quality products and/or services in order to successfully compete in the marketplace (Dilber et al. 2005:220). Denhere, Tafirei, Zivanai, Lovemore and Chingarande (2011:69) asserted that the main reason for businesses to be in the market should be to create value and provide quality service. Therefore, quality of service delivery is one of the best strategies for businesses to survive and stay competitive in the long term.

Municipalities are no different from other service-rendering organisations, as they are also required to provide a number of services to citizens, which must meet certain quality requirements. In fact, provision of quality service by municipalities to citizens is a constitutional mandate that no municipality in South Africa can afford to ignore. This mandate is enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of

1996). Through this Act municipalities are responsible for delivery of services, such as water, sanitation, electricity, refuse removal, and sometimes housing, municipal roads, stormwater drains, primary health care, child care facilities, local tourism, municipal planning, and municipal by-laws (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 2004:4). However, the recent increase in the number of service delivery protests is an indication that municipalities are not coping with delivering services that meet citizens' expectations (Jain 2010; Karamoko 2011). Quality of service delivery is therefore the single most important, or overriding, outcome that each municipality must pursue.

4.5.1 Defining quality of service delivery

Quality of service delivery relates to attributes such as relevance to purpose, whether the service is delivered on time, convenience to users, safety, continuity (minimal breakdown), and responsiveness to the users of the service (Hollands & Mageza 2010:7). According to Munusamy, Chelliah and Mun (2010:400), quality refers to superiority or excellence. Arizon (2010:78) defined quality as "conformance to customer requirements". Taking into consideration Abd-El-Salam, Shawky and El-Nahas' (2013:178) assertion that customers are the real judges of quality, **quality of service delivery is operationally defined as the extent to which citizens of municipalities perceive service as meeting their expectations**. This allows the quality of service delivered by municipalities to be measured through the lenses of citizens as customers.

4.5.2 Customer service expectations

The above operational definition of quality of service delivery indicates the relationship between the service and customer expectations. According to Dilber et al. (2005:220), businesses need to manage customer service if they want to enhance their level of customer satisfaction. They elaborate that the basic concept of service management leads to, among other things, an interest in external consequences, such as consumer behaviour, for example customer satisfaction and customer loyalty. Seth, Deshmukh & Vrat (2004:913) pointed out that service management has a strong impact on business performance, costs, customer satisfaction, customer loyalty and profitability. Van der Walt, Venter, Van der Walt, Phutiagae, Khalo, Van Niekerk & Nealer (2012:115) posited that, in order to improve the quality of service delivery in

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municipalities, managers should to adopt customer-oriented approaches, because service providers should directly address user needs. These statements suggest that municipalities need to meet customer expectations by providing quality service, through the proper management of customer service.

Unfortunately, the meeting of customer expectations has not prevailed in municipalities in South Africa, as customers have repeatedly displayed their dissatisfaction at the services rendered to them by municipalities (Hollands & Mageza, 2010:4). In order to address the problem of poor service delivery in South Africa, municipalities may need to heed the advice of Zakaria, Ngah, Noordin, Sawal and Hussin (2012:143), who posited that service-rendering organisations should focus on customer needs, should try to understand customer needs, and should be conversant with what to do, how to do it, and when to meet such customer needs.

The literature explored in this section confirmed that customers are important stakeholders in any organisation, including municipalities, and that their satisfaction should be a priority to management. Several authors, including Jajaee and Ahmad (2012:220), Agbor (2011:1), Mosahab, Mahamad and Ramayah (2010:73), and Wang and Shieh (2006:197), to mention a few, indicated that quality of service delivery is related to customer satisfaction. It is therefore important that the relationship of quality of service delivery to customer service be explored further. The following section focuses on this relationship, and how it could add value to the entire organisation.

4.5.3 Expected customer service versus quality of service

Ntsikeni (2002:27) provided a useful distinction between quality of service and customer service, while Agbor (2011:11) suggested that they are related. According to Ntsikeni (2002:27), quality of service may be defined as "meeting the requirements of the customer", while customer service may be defined as "the ability of an organisation to constantly and consistently give the customer what they want and need".

Quality of service and customer service can be distinguished from each other on the basis that while customer satisfaction is the extent to which a product's perceived

performance matches a buyer's expectations (Agbor 2011:11), quality of service represents the degree to which the object (entity) satisfies the user's requirements (Batagan, Pocovnicu & Capisizu 2009:374).

Researchers are in agreement that there is a relationship between customer satisfaction and quality of service. For example, Van der Walt et al. (2012:115) agrees with Agbor (2011:11) that quality of service is an antecedent to customer satisfaction.

Taking into consideration the above assertions of Ntsikeni (2002: 27), Agbor (2011:11) and Van der Walt et al. (2012:115), it is clear that service quality and customer service are two variables that cannot be separated if the business aims to satisfy the customer and meet customer needs. This highlights the importance of quality of service, and the need for the organisation to continually provide quality services and/or products to its customers. This leads to the following section, which discusses fulfilling expected customer service.

4.5.4 Approaches to enhancing service quality in municipalities

Various definitions of service quality have been considered in the preceding section and different approaches to service quality linked to these definitions are now considered to accurately conceptualise the service quality concept.

Organisations have no choice but to deliver services that are better than those of their competitors, at an agreed-upon price (Seth et al. 2004:914). Organisations are compelled to improve the service that they render to customers, because of increased customer knowledge and awareness of what prevails in the market, due to the availability of information that has been enabled by the information explosion, due largely to the Internet. Abd-El-Salam et al. (2013:178) highlighted that the willingness of customers to maintain a relationship with an organisation is contingent on their perception of the benefits of a quality relationship, high quality of service, satisfaction with the relationship, and the benefits of a relationship that provides a continuous flow of value. Munusamy, Chelliah and Mun (2010:399) asserted that the greater the quality of service, the greater the customer satisfaction. This implies that if the service rendered to customers meets their expectations with regard to quality, there is a high

probability that they will be satisfied. Satisfied customers tend to stay loyal to the organisation that satisfies them. Archana and Subha (2012:51) confirmed that service quality conditions influence a firm's competitive advantage by retaining customer loyalty, and with customer loyalty come the chances of increased market share. Similarly, Gorji (2011:1743) asserted that the emergence of quality as a top priority in many corporate entities is primarily due to the globalisation of world trade and the competitive pressure brought about by the increasing demands of consumers who want better products and services.

Municipal customers are no different from customers of other organisations. They, too, need quality services from their municipalities. According to Abd-El-Salam et al. (2013:178), service providers (employees) are the organisation's ambassadors as far as customer experience is concerned. This assertion is not far-fetched because employees as service providers are the ones that create the service experience (whether pleasant or unpleasant) in the mind of the customer. Zakaria et al. (2012:142) confirmed that customers not only demand efficiency, effectiveness, economy, and transparency in service delivery, but they also want public agencies to be more responsive to their needs.

Archana and Subha (2012:52) maintained that the different definitions of service quality are all formulated from the customer's perspective, that is, according to what customers perceive are important dimensions of quality. The lesson that municipalities can draw from this is that they must endeavour to make whatever service they offer meet customer expectations. In addition to service outcomes, service quality perceptions also involve evaluation of the service delivery process (Gorji 2011:1743). Therefore, municipalities must ensure that their conceptualisation of service quality includes both the service delivery process and service outcomes.

A firm's ability to serve customer needs, as well as to maintain its competitive advantage, also affects the customer's perception of excellence and service quality (Gorji 2011:1743). Van der Walt et al. (2012:115) indicated that municipal service excellence was only possible if the quality of services were improved. Citizens expect and hope for quality services from municipalities. Municipalities must therefore ensure

that even if their service is rated good, they should aspire to improve it to the next level.

Zakaria et al. (2012:143) cautioned that the legitimacy of the political structure and executive departments of municipalities could be in jeopardy if people believed that municipalities did not provide the level and standard of services that they expected and hoped for. Munusamy et al. (2010:399) conceived of quality of a given service as the result of an evaluation process, since consumers often compare their perception of the service that they receive with the service that they expect. According to the service quality literature explored, it is predicted that customers will judge quality as *low* if performance does not meet their expectations, and quality as *high* when performance exceeds their expectations (Munusamy et al. 2010:399). In this study, although a five-point Likert scale was used, the eventual classification was *low* if performance did not meet citizens' expectations and *high* when performance exceeded or met citizens' expectations.

To conclude this section, the researcher agrees with Batagan et al. (2009:374) that organisations depend on their customers, and that they should therefore understand current and future customer needs, meet customer requirements, and even strive to exceed customer expectations. D'Souza and Sequeira (2011:74) emphasised customer focus, improved service delivery, and quality in service quality management.

Service quality has been found to be one of the foundations of organisational success, as stated in the organisational justice theories discussed in Chapter 3. The same chapter stated that employees' perceptions of organisational justice influence employee motivation, commitment, citizenship behaviour, and quality of service delivery. This means that there is a link between employee justice perceptions and quality of service delivery.

4.5.4 Employee justice perceptions and quality of municipal service delivery

Nakate (2011:45) demonstrated the relationship between quality of service delivery and justice perceptions of HRM practices. The author's 2011 study of organisational justice, employee trust, employee commitment, and service quality in the Uganda

Revenue Authority (URA) confirmed the link between HRM practices and procedures that are perceived to be fair by revenue officers and the quality of service offered to URA customers. Nakate (2011:45) further noted that (1) effective HRM practices were essential to service quality, and (2) employees who were satisfied with the organisational justice in the organisation were more committed to delivering quality service to clients. This implies that fair and just HRM practices enhance service quality. Nakate (2011:45) further found that an equitable exchange relationship between managers and employees motivated employees to act in accordance with organisational norms that emphasise service quality, and that when fair human resource policies and practices were practised, they contributed to revenue officers behaving in such a way that service quality was influenced positively (Nakate 2011:45). Nakate's study therefore suggests that for municipalities to ensure service quality, they first have to practise fair and just HRM practices.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the organisational justice outcome variables of employee motivation, employee organisational commitment, employee citizenship behaviour, and quality of service delivery. The thesis statement for this study is that negative justice perceptions of employees have implications for employee motivation, employee organisational commitment, employee citizenship behaviour, and ultimately organisational performance.

The organisational justice theories discussed in this study revealed that justice and fairness in organisations precede positive employee attitudes and behaviour, and that justice and fairness are antecedents of employee motivation and commitment. This chapter also revealed that employees with positive attitudes, such as high levels of ECB, exert greater effort towards achieving organisational goals. This is evidenced by research which has demonstrated a relationship between perceived organisational justice, motivation, commitment, individual work performance, and organisational performance. According to the literature explored in Section 4.3, committed employees are employees who engage or perform to the best of their ability, they are self-directed, engage and perform with little or no supervision, and exert more effort than they would normally do.

The chapter concludes by asserting that municipalities that fail to implement fair HR practices can expect negative outcomes, such as low employee commitment, low motivation, and other adverse consequences, such as negative ECB, which may ultimately lead to organisational performance-related problems, such as poor quality of service delivery. The discussions in this chapter assert that maintaining high levels of commitment in employees is critical to organisational success. In the light of the sections explored in this chapter, it is believed that committed employees will act in the best interests of the organisation. With regard to the municipal working environment, it can be inferred that municipalities with good insight into fair management of employees are likely to elicit positive attitudes and behaviour from their employees.

CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter revealed the relationship between employees' justness perceptions and organisational success. Justness perceptions can impact either positively or negatively on employee motivation, commitment, and citizenship behaviour, and the overall performance of the organisation. This means that justness, or fairness, in organisations can be antecedents of positive or negative employee attitudes, depending on how employees perceive it. The current chapter follows the literature review chapters and discusses the research methodology employed in the study. The main purpose of this chapter is to discuss the rationale behind the use of the methods and techniques selected for the current study. The discussion starts with an explanation of what research methodology and design are, followed by an explanation of the different approaches adopted in the empirical part of the study.

5.2 PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNINGS OF THE CURRENT RESEARCH

Research philosophies, also known as research paradigms, are patterns of beliefs and practices that regulate inquiry within a discipline, by providing lenses, frames, and processes through which investigation is accomplished (Weaver & Olson 2006:460). There are many approaches, or paradigms, to research, and it is difficult to judge which one is superior. Two popular ways of classifying research paradigms are *positivism* and *interpretivism* (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007:7).

Positivism holds that science or knowledge creation should be restricted to what can be observed and measured, and it tends to rely exclusively on theories that can be directly tested (Bhattacherjee 2012) or hypotheses that must be proved or disproved (Cohen et al. 2007:8; Mack 2010:6). Therefore, positivism agrees that one cannot make meaningful observations without theories, but it insists that in order to qualify as scientific knowledge, research must test theoretical constructs against the reality of empirical facts (Mouton, as cited in Snyman 1997:9). The other research approach, interpretivism, holds that theories can never be proven as true, and that any truth that is produced is simply the actor's or the individual's belief in the truth. Mack (2010:8) maintained that interpretivism was founded on the notion that social reality is always

seen by multiples of people, who interpret events differently, leaving multiple perspectives of an incident. Interpretivism therefore emphasises the ability of the individual to construct meaning (Mack 2010:7), which implies subjective reality.

The above brief discussion has some implications for the current research. Firstly, it means that, broadly speaking, there are two research paradigms to choose from to guide this study, namely the positivist and the interpretivist paradigms. Secondly, it is evident that, consistent with Bhattacherjee's (2012) and Cohen et al.'s (2007:8) assertions, the current research falls under the positivist paradigm, in that a number of hypotheses were formulated for testing (see section 5.4 below). In this study, a theoretical framework was developed to show relationships between variables. These relationships are expressed in the form of hypotheses. Afterwards, the hypotheses were tested against data (empirical facts) collected from the respondents. Thirdly, it becomes clear that a researcher's chosen research paradigm determines the research design. Cooper and Schindler (2008:156) asserted that before any research study can be conducted, an appropriate research design must be clearly crafted and explicated with justification. This leads to the need to briefly explain the research design adopted for the current study.

5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Before describing the research design followed in the current study, it is considered important to first explain what research design means. A research design has been variously defined as: "a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings" (Burns & Grove 2007:270); "a researcher's overall plan for answering the research question or testing the research hypothesis" (Polit & Beck 2012); "a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analysed" (Parahoo 2014:164), to list but a few. Considering these definitions and others not listed here, a research design appears to essentially refer to the roadmap for executing a research project.

Notwithstanding this apparent commonality in what is meant by research design, there are many ways to classify research design – Cooper and Schindler (2008:142) provided a useful way of describing or classifying one's chosen research design

depending on certain descriptors, including: **time dimension** - *cross-sectional* or *longitudinal* study; **method of data collection** – *observational* or *communication* study; **the purpose of the stud**y – *descriptive* or *causal* study; **the degree to which the research question has been crystallised** – *exploratory* or *formal* study.

Considering the discussion in Section 5.2 above which shows that the positivist perspective implies a quantitative approach, the current research can be described as generally following the quantitative design where quantitative data were collected and analysed by statistical techniques (quantitative means) in testing 10 hypotheses. In addition, borrowing from Cooper and Schindler (2008:142), the study can be described as a descriptive design since relationships were described as opposed causality being sought; a cross-sectional as opposed to longitudinal design since data were collected in a short space of time spanning three months; and a formal as opposed to exploratory study because the problem is quite clear enough for hypotheses to be formulated and tested. The following section presents the hypotheses that were tested.

5.4 THE HYPOTHESISED RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE VARIABLES

It has emerged throughout the literature review that effective HRM is essential for the quality of service delivery. To be more precise, fair and humane HRM practices (Brewer & Kellough 2008) were shown to be critical for service organisations such as municipalities if they are to deliver services that meet customer (community) quality requirements. However, effective and fair HRM depends on the causes and conditions that an organisational setting provides (Senyucel 2009:14). The point was made in section 2.5 that in South Africa, municipalities are characterised by political polarisation, and this has exposed the HRM practices of municipalities to practices such as 'jobs for pals' and undeserved promotions. Thus, from an organisational justice perspective, municipal employees might develop low justice perceptions of their organisations as a result of perceived political interference.

Several studies confirmed both a direct and an indirect relationship between HRM practices and quality of service delivery (D'Annunzio-Green, Maxwell & Watson 2002:9; Burke & Cooper 2005:213; Irfan, Mohsin & Yousaf 2009:1223). Zhang

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(2009:55) argued that the service expectations and service perceptions of customers play a very important role in evaluating the quality of service rendered by service organisations. It was pointed out in Section 4.5.2 that, because employees are the people that must render service to communities, their behaviour affects how communities perceive the quality of the service. Kandampully (2007:186) confirmed this by pointing out that no service is truly intangible, because services are almost always accompanied by physical evidence, and physical evidence cues could have a profound impact on a customer's impression in evaluating a service.

Furthermore, it was stated in Chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4 that from an organisational fairness perspective, if HRM activities are perceived to be unfair by service-rendering employees, it may affect the employees' motivation and commitment. A lack of motivation and commitment on the part of employees is likely to lead to development of negative attitudes and behaviour, such as negative employee citizenship behaviour (ECB), which could, in turn, impact negatively on the quality of service that employees deliver to communities. For example, Bagraim's (2007) argument supports Adams' (1963) equity theory of motivation. Bagraim (2007:88) argued that employees might be motivated to change their attitude for the worse if they perceived injustice in, for example, HRM practices. In a similar way, equity theory argues that employees will react negatively if they perceive injustice in their organisations, specifically when employees make comparisons between efforts and rewards, and they perceive unfairness, injustice, or inequity.

It is therefore possible that when municipal employees compare their input/output ratio in terms of HRM practices, and they perceive unfairness, it could lower their motivation, employee organisational commitment (EOC), and ECB.

Meanwhile, EOC is reported to predict ECB (Kreitner & Kinicki 2008:160). Ambreen (2011:41) found that employee commitment is critical, as the success of the organisation is strongly correlated with employee commitment. Employee commitment (EOC) has been found Sanders, Dorenbosch and De Reuver (2008); Kreitner and Kinicki (2008:160); and Van Dyne and Ang (1998) to predict ECB. Fischer (2004) found that employee commitment is critical for organisational success, while Morrison

(1996) identified ECB as the missing link between HRM practices and quality of service delivery (QSD). It is thus contended that ECB will impact on quality of municipal service delivery in municipalities. Based on these facts and the other literature that has been reviewed, Figure 5.1 illustrates the hypothesised relationships between the variables of perceived political interference (PPI), perceptions of HRM fairness (PHF), employee motivation (MOT), employee organisational commitment (EOC), employee citizenship behaviour (ECB), and quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities.
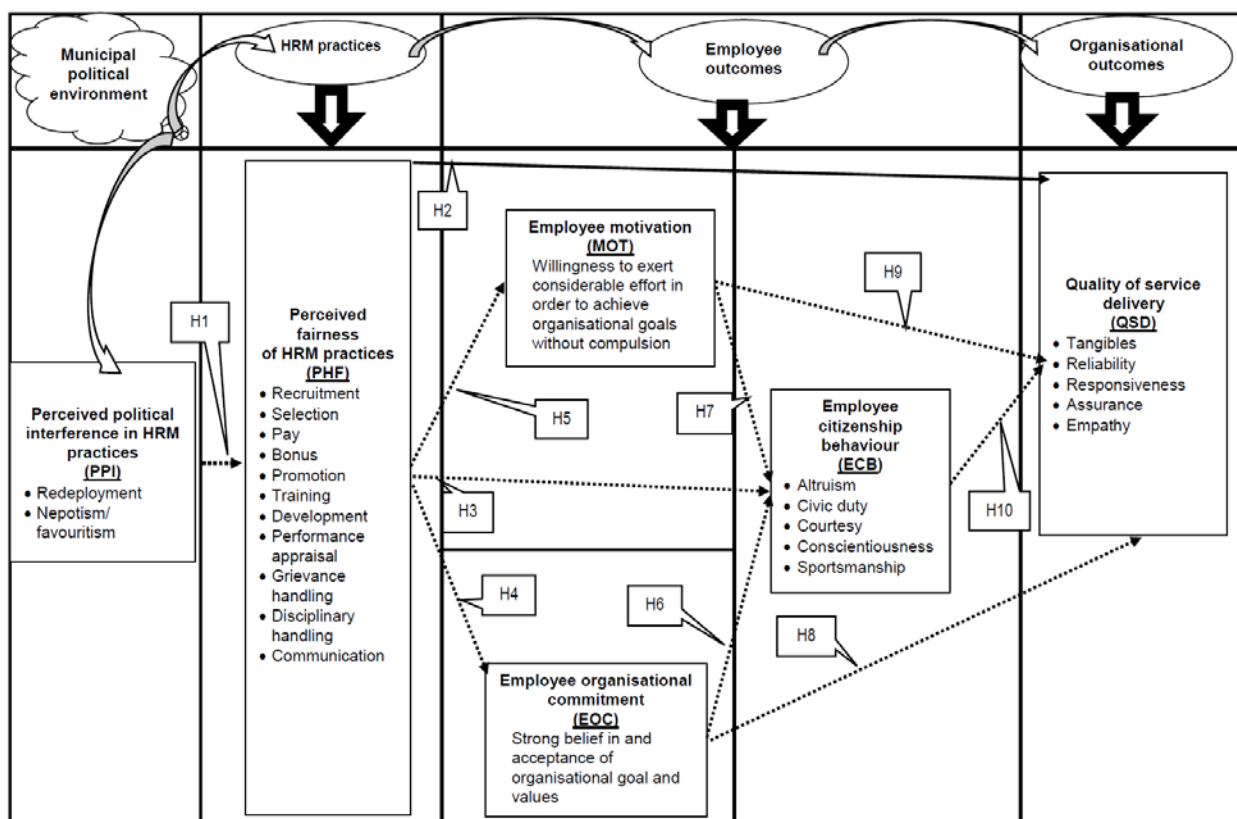
Figure 5.1: The hypothesised relationships between perceived political interference (PPI), perceptions of HRM fairness (PHF), employee organisational commitment (EOC), employee citizenship behaviour (ECB), and quality of service delivery (QSD) by municipalities.

Based on the above conceptual framework, the following ten hypotheses arise, where $H_i o$ stands for the null hypothesis, and $H_i a$ represents the alternative hypothesis, with i taking values from 1 to 10.

Hypothesis 1: $H_1 o$ – Perceived HRM fairness (PHF) will be negatively correlated with perceived political interference (PPI) in HRM practices; $H_1 a$ - Perceived HRM fairness

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(PHF) will **not** be negatively correlated with perceived political interference (PPI) in HRM practices.

Hypothesis 2: **H₂o** – Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities will be positively correlated with perceived HRM fairness (PHF); **H₂a** – Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities will **not** be positively correlated with perceived HRM fairness (PHF).

Hypothesis 3: **H₃o** – Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) will be positively correlated with perceived HRM fairness (PHF); **H₃a** – Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) will **not** be positively correlated with perceived HRM fairness (PHF).

Hypothesis 4: **H₄o** – Employee organisational commitment (EOC) will be positively correlated with perceived HRM fairness (PHF); **H₄a** – Employee organisational commitment (EOC) will **not** be positively correlated with perceived HRM fairness (PHF).

Hypothesis 5: **H₅o** – Employee motivation (MOT) will be positively correlated with perceived HRM fairness (PHF); **H₅a** – Employee motivation (MOT) will **not** be positively correlated with perceived HRM fairness (PHF).

Hypothesis 6: **H₆o** – Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) will be positively correlated with employee organisational commitment (EOC); **H₆a** – Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) will **not** be positively correlated with employee organisational commitment (EOC).

Hypothesis 7: **H₇o** – Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) will be positively correlated with employee motivation (MOT); **H₇a** – Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) will **not** be positively correlated with employee motivation (MOT).

Hypothesis 8: **H₈o** – Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will be positively correlated with employee organisational commitment (EOC); **H₈a** – Citizens'

rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will **not** be positively correlated with employee organisational commitment (EOC).

Hypothesis 9: **H₉o** – Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will be positively correlated with employee motivation (MOT); **H₉a** – Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will **not** be positively correlated with employee motivation (MOT).

Hypothesis 10: **H₁₀o** – Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will be positively correlated with employee citizenship behaviour (ECB); **H₁₀a** – Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will **not** be positively correlated with employee citizenship behaviour (ECB).

5.5 TARGET POPULATION AND SAMPLING

5.5.1 Target population

The target population is the group that is of interest to a researcher, and for which the researcher would like the results of the study to be generalised. The target population that was investigated included all municipalities in the Free State. The primary unit of analysis is each individual municipality. A unit of analysis is the entity or object that is being studied and analysed (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler 2008:224). There is one metropolitan municipality and 19 local municipalities in the Free State, which brings the total number of targeted municipalities to 20 from which a sample of 9 municipalities was drawn (see next section).

In all, there were two sets of respondents. Group 1 comprised of municipal employees, and group 2 was made up of a sample of residents, or customers, from each local municipality.

5.5.2 Sampling technique and sample size

As Campbell and Swinscow (2009:375) asserted, a carefully chosen sample is necessary if one wishes to obtain information that is representative of a particular population, so that accurate inferences can be drawn about the population that the sample represents. Wagner, Kawulich and Garner (2012:87) posited that in

quantitative research it is important to select a sample that will best approximate the characteristics of the population for which inferences will be drawn. Sampling can be grouped into two broad categories: probability sampling, and non-probability sampling. According to Bhattacherjee (2012:66) probability sampling can further be categorised into random sampling and non-random sampling. Random sampling occurs when the selection of sample elements is left to chance, with each population element having an equal chance of being selected (Bhattacherjee 2012:66). While each type of sampling has its advantages and its disadvantages, often random probability sampling appears to be more appropriate for quantitative studies that must use more powerful statistical techniques for data analysis. Generally, random probability sampling is the type of sampling that is used most often.

One of the most difficult aspects of research is to determine the correct sample size. Wagner et al. (2012:87) stated that as the population size increases, the sample size that is required to achieve statistical accuracy decreases. This implies that the sample size will depend on the population size. Wagner et al. (2012:87) also stated that the required sample size for a small population is approximately 30% of the population, while the required sample size for a large population is 10% of the population. Ary, Jacob, Sorensen and Walker (2014:171), however, claim that the most important characteristic of a sample is its representivity, and not necessarily its size. All of these arguments show that sample size determination is ultimately very much of an 'educated' personal choice.

In this study, due to financial and time constraints, the decision was made to limit the number of municipalities to nine randomly selected municipalities out of the population of 20 municipalities. For each municipality, 100 questionnaires were randomly distributed to the inhabitants of four randomly selected towns (25 questionnaires per town or village), so that, in all, 900 questionnaires were sent out to citizens (as customers). For employees, the number of questionnaires was restricted to 540 questionnaires, with 60 employees targeted from each municipality. The response rate is reported in Chapter 6.

5.6 DATA COLLECTION

Structured questionnaires were used to collect data from the respondents. Respondents that were sufficiently literate completed the questionnaires on their own, while respondents that were not sufficiently literate were assisted by trained research assistants to complete their questionnaires.

As stated in Section 5.5.2, there were two respondent groups. Respondent group 1 comprised municipal employees who were required to answer Likert-scale questions on the degree of perceived political interference, fairness/justice in HRM practices, employee motivation, commitment, and citizenship behaviour. Respondent group 2 consisted of a sample of 900 residents/customers from local municipalities, who were required to rate the quality of service they receive from their local municipalities.

5.6.1 Questionnaires used

5.6.1.1 Questionnaire items

The researcher developed two structured questionnaires to collect data from the two sets of respondents. The first questionnaire was intended to be completed by municipal employees (respondent group 1), and the second questionnaire by municipal customers (respondent group 2). Both questionnaires were pre-coded for statistical analysis. Structured questions ask respondents to select an answer from a given set of choices. Chipunza (2009:212) stated that to ensure accuracy of information, the questionnaire should be unbiased, clear, and easy to comprehend, so that those who complete it develop an interest in it and are motivated to complete it. The questionnaire for customers was developed in three languages, namely Afrikaans, English, and Sesotho. According to the Census Statistics of South Africa (2011:14), these three languages are the dominant languages in the Free State Province.

Respondent group 1 consisted of a sample of municipal employees from various levels of management, as well as non-managerial employees who dealt with customers on a daily basis. The questionnaire for employees consisted of items reflecting two independent variables, as well as three dependent variables, namely employee commitment, motivation, and citizenship behaviour, which, if negative, are conditions that are enough to make municipal employees develop negative attitudes and

behaviour, which may affect the quality of service that they render to customers. The two independent variables were perceived political interference in HRM practices, and perceived fairness of HRM practices in municipalities. Fairness in HRM practices in municipalities was based mainly on the theory of organisational justice, which has three components, namely distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice.

The questions in the employees' questionnaire were based on perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactional justice with regard to selected HRM practices. Due to the reluctance of employees to participate in this study, who cited victimisation, the researcher resorted to using a 'ballot box' method. A sealed box was provided for respondents to submit their completed questionnaires, where an opening was made in the box for questionnaires to be dropped into, so that they remained as confidential and anonymous as possible. Table 5.1 reflects the items that were included in the municipal employees' questionnaire.

Table 5.1: Items included in the employees' questionnaire

Sections	Variables investigated
Section A	Biographical information: gender, age, level of education, name of municipality, name of department, job title, period with the municipality, salary before deductions
Section B	Measures employees' perceptions with regard to several human resource management issues
Section C	Measures employees' degree of association with the municipality
Section D	Measures employees' perceptions with regard to how they do their work within the municipality
Section E	Measures employees' perceptions of how far they go beyond their normal duties within the municipality
Section F	Seeks employees' opinions with regard to political/external interference in HRM practices within the municipality
Section G	Seeks employees' perceptions with regard to fairness within the municipality

Section A of the questionnaire required the biographical details of the respondents. Even though the covering letter assured respondents of confidentiality and anonymity of their responses, some respondents voluntarily chose to leave out some biographical details, such as the name of their department and their job title, citing that this information could reveal their identity. The researcher agreed to ensure that the respondents were as comfortable as possible with the whole process.

Section B measured employees' justice perceptions with regard to HRM practices within their municipalities. Perceptions of justice and fairness of HRM practices such

as recruitment and selection, promotion, rewards, performance appraisals, disciplinary and grievance procedures, and training and development were addressed.

Sections C, D and E of the questionnaire investigated the antecedents of justice and fairness, such as motivation, commitment, and citizenship behaviour of HRM practices in Free State municipalities. Section F investigated the perceptions of political interference in selected HRM practices, while Section G examined the overall perceptions of fairness in distributive, procedural and interactional justice procedures within the organisation.

Respondent group 2 consisted of a sample of residents or customers from each selected municipality. They were required to rate the quality of service they receive from their local municipalities. The customers' questionnaire was based on the SERVQUAL model. SERVQUAL is a service quality measuring tool which was pioneered by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry in 1985 (Kumar, Kee & Manshor 2009:1). According to Daniel and Berinyuy (2010:7), if what is perceived is below expectations, the consumer will judge service quality as low, and if what is perceived meets or exceeds expectations, the consumer will rate service quality as high.

The researcher found the SERVQUAL model to be relevant, given the fact that the model measures service quality holistically, since both the tangible and the intangible aspects of service quality are investigated. According to Daniel and Berinyuy (2010:10), tangible aspects of service quality include **physical facilities** and **employee appearance**, and intangible aspects of service quality include **reliability**, or ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately, **responsiveness**, or willingness to help customers and provide prompt service, **assurance**, or knowledge and courtesy of employees, and their ability to inspire trust and confidence, and **empathy**, or caring, i.e. individual attention that the firm affords its customers. Daniel and Berinyuy (2010:11) asserted that the SERVQUAL model is a good scale to use when measuring service quality in various specific industries, but they recommended that the most important dimensions of the model be chosen that fit the particular service being measured, in order to assure reliable and valid results.

According to Daniel and Berinyuy (2010:9), it is essential to understand how consumers perceive service quality, and how these perceptions could affect their repurchase behaviour, because in this way organisations will be able to identify whether gaps exist, and they will be able to take corrective action to improve on their activities. Quinlan (2011:326) asserted that when researching a large sample population, it is impossible to engage every member of the population in in-depth research. Quinlan (2011:326) stated that the data gathered by researchers investigating very large sample tends to be mostly or entirely quantitative, and that questionnaires and scales are structured to ensure that each respondent is asked the same questions, and that questions are simple, clear, concise, and precise. Due to the large sample size used in this study, the questionnaire was found to be a suitable instrument to collect information in an accurate, fast, and economical way.

Respondents were asked to complete the questionnaires themselves; however, research assistants helped respondents who were willing to participate but were unable to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire required respondents to provide demographic information and their experiences with their local municipalities regarding services rendered to them. According to Rattray and Jones (2007:235), researchers use questionnaires to measure knowledge, attitudes, emotions, cognitions, intentions, or behaviour. The researcher found the questions to be suitable, as they revealed the customers' attitudes towards their municipalities, their emotions, and their intentions. Municipal customers showed little or no reluctance to complete the questionnaire. Most respondents voluntarily disclosed their identities, even though the covering letter stated that they were not compelled to do so. Respondents answered questions eagerly; some even inserted questions that had not been asked, and proceeded to answer them.

The questionnaire was divided into sections A and B (see Appendix A for more detail). Section A required respondents to provide their biographical details, and section B measured perceptions regarding the quality of service that they receive from their respective municipalities. A five-point Likert scale was provided in section B for respondents to specify their level of agreement or disagreement on a scale for a series of statements. The scale ranged from 1, 'strongly disagree', to 5, 'strongly agree'.

5.6.1.2 Ensuring credibility of the questionnaire

Research credibility is crucial in determining the stability and quality of the data obtained. Validity and reliability are two research credibility techniques that have been employed in this study. De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport (2007:353) defined credibility as the degree to which findings, and, by implication, the methods that are used to generate the findings, can be trusted. Neuman (2000), as cited in De Vos et al. (2007:353), stated that credibility is "the key to provide readers with enough evidence so that they believe the recounted events and accept the interpretations as plausible".

Ensuring validity

Validity, often called construct validity, refers to the extent to which a measure adequately represents the underlying construct that it purports to measure (Bhattacherjee 2012:58). This implies that researchers should develop a data-gathering instrument that is accurate and that will measure what it is intended to measure. Chipunza (2009:213) asserted that failure to address the issues of precision and accuracy of the measuring instrument would lead to wrong results, and, consequently, flawed conclusions and generalisations. According to Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2007:93), validity can be measured in terms of two separate but related dimensions, namely external validity and internal validity. As stated by Jimenez-Buedo and Miller (2010:301), the concepts of internal and external validity were first conceived by one Donald Campbell and his collaborators as far back as 1963. Whereas internal validity refers to how accurately the data and the conclusions drawn from the data represent what really happened, external validity refers to how accurately the data and conclusions drawn from the empirical data represent what goes on in the larger population (Cooper & Schindler 2011:280). In terms of the types of validity mentioned, the internal validity of the data-collection instrument was measured. Cooper and Schindler (2011:280) revealed three broad types of internal validity, namely content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity. These types of validity are discussed below with the applicable validity issues addressed.

- **Content validity**

A questionnaire is said to have content validity if the number of questions measuring concepts or constructs being measured sufficiently cover the spectrum of facets with which it is meant to be concerned with (Siddiek 2010:137), i.e. whether a measuring device covers the full range of meanings or forms that would be included in a variable being measured (Chipunza 2009:216).

In the current study, a thorough literature review was conducted leading to identification of dimensions and then elements of the constructs under investigation namely: Political Interference, HRM Practices, Organisational Justice, Employee Citizenship Behaviour, Employee Motivation, Employee Commitment, and Quality of Service Delivery. This approached ensured sufficient coverage of the entire domain of concepts (Chipunza 2009:216). Thereafter, each specific element of every construct under investigation was used to compile investigative questions in the questionnaire such that the questions sufficiently covered the whole spectrum of the concepts and constructs to comply with Siddiek's (2010:137) criteria for content validity.

- **Criterion validity**

Criterion validity refers to whether the measure can accurately forecast some future behaviours or whether it is meaningfully related to some other measure of behaviour (Goodwin 2010:132). It is predictive by nature. The measure should be able to examine the relationship between two or more scores on a future criterion. As stated in Section 5.2, the study was designed to be descriptive and not causal hence not predictive (Cooper and Schindler 2008:147). Consequently, predictive validity of the questionnaire was not an issue and thus not pursued.

- **Construct validity**

Construct validity considers whether the test adequately measures some construct, and whether it connects directly with what is now a familiar concept (Goodwin 2010:132). The measuring instrument would be said to be valid if it measured the theoretical construct that it is intended to measure. Chipunza (2009:216) states that it refers to how well the results obtained from the use of an instrument fit the theories from which it was designed. In the current study, a thorough literature review was

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conducted on the key variables under investigation namely: Political Interference, HRM Practices, Organisational Justice, Employee Citizenship Behaviour, Employee Motivation, Employee Commitment, and Quality of Service Delivery. This exercise led to operational definitions for each of the key constructs and concepts. Based on these operational definitions, all important dimensions and elements of the constructs and concepts under investigation were then identified in compliance with Goodwin's (2010:132) and Chipunza's (2009:216) suggestions for ensuring construct validity.

Ensuring reliability

Reliability is the degree to which the measurement of a construct is consistent or dependable (Bhattacherjee 2012:56). In other words, if an instrument is used to measure the same construct multiple times, the results should be the same every time, assuming that the underlying phenomenon is not changing. Mtazu (2009:69) claimed that reliability of results stipulated that if another person or if the same person used the same method at another time, the result should be the same. This implies that a credible data-collecting instrument that seeks information from different people at different times should yield more or less the same results. In this light, the researcher developed a questionnaire to collect data, and care was taken to avoid using ambiguous questions that respondents would find difficult to interpret or to answer.

5.6.1.3 Reliability of the instrument used

Three commonly used techniques for determining the reliability of an instrument are test-retest reliability; split-half reliability (Babbie 2007:145) and internal consistency (Cronbach 1951). These techniques are discussed below.

- ***Test-retest reliability.*** This is the reliability coefficient obtained by the repetition of an identical measure on a second occasion (Krishnaswamy, Sivakumar & Mathirajan 2009:267). To gauge test-retest reliability, the test is administered twice at two different points in time. This kind of reliability is used to assess the consistency of a test across time, assuming that there will be no change in the quality or construct being measured.

- *Split-half reliability.* This method involves dividing the instrument into two equal halves. The scores on these separate 'half instruments' are then compared by means of a correlation coefficient (Whiston 2013:47).

- *Internal consistency reliability* (Cronbach 1951) is a test that measures the internal consistency of an instrument, that is, the degree of similarity among items in an instrument intended to measure a certain construct (Chipunza 2009:218). Internal consistency reliability is measured by a statistical test called Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α). Rubin and Babbie (2010:83) posited that alphas of approximately 0.80 and above indicate that an instrument is reliable.

This study used Cronbach's alpha coefficient to determine the internal consistency of the scale items. The scale items showed excellent internal consistency, as the alpha values were above 0.9 (see Appendix B).

5.6.2 Fieldwork

The questionnaires were distributed to respondents, who completed them on their own. Bhattacherjee (2012:74) maintained that questions should be designed in such a way that respondents are able to read, understand, and respond to them in a meaningful way. Even though care was taken during the construction of the questionnaires, to ensure that instructions and questions were clear and straightforward, the researcher and her field workers were always available in case respondents required assistance as they completed their questionnaires. The researcher found the use of questionnaires appropriate, as data could be collected from large populations, questionnaires enabled respondents to remain anonymous and honest in their responses, and they were economical, i.e. quick to complete, and easy to analyse. A covering letter was attached to the questionnaire to introduce the researcher to the respondents, state the purpose of the study, and assure respondents of the confidentiality of all responses. Rubin and Babbie (2011:383) claimed that the covering letter was an important factor that influenced response rates, as it is what prospective respondents read first, so it should be constructed in such a way that it would motivate respondents and alleviate any resistance they might have about participating in the study.

The researcher wrote letters to all the municipalities in the Free State, seeking permission to conduct the study in their respective jurisdictions. The letters were delivered by the researcher personally, so that she could explain the purpose of the study. Most municipal managers arranged meetings with the researcher to discuss the purpose of the research and obtain clarity on the intended activities and logistical issues involved. Once permission had been granted, the questionnaires were delivered and distributed. The researcher explained the purpose of the interview, why the particular stakeholder had been chosen the expected duration of the interview, whether the information would be kept confidential, and how this would be done.

Due to the wide geographical scope of the study, the researcher appointed research assistants to assist in distributing the questionnaires, completing them, and collecting the completed questionnaires. Research assistants involved in the distribution of questionnaires to customers and the collection of completed questionnaires from them were selected from the sample areas. The reason for this decision was, firstly, economic considerations, as it would involve no or little transport or accommodation costs. Secondly, distribution and collection would be faster, as the people would be working in an environment that they knew well. Mouton (2007:160) claimed that due care should be taken in selecting research assistants, and that preference should be given to fieldworkers who share as many of the characteristics of the sample as possible. Boyce and Neale (2006:6) confirmed this by stating that research assistants that speak the local language should be used. Assistants were instructed to distribute and collect questionnaires at the municipal offices, where customers were waiting in queues to receive service. In order to obtain reliable data, the researcher first had to train the research assistants, to enable them to conduct the survey effectively and efficiently in the allocated areas. Mouton (2007:159) stated that adequate training of experimenters, interviewers, research assistants, and fieldworkers is a precondition for any research to counteract researcher effects. The likelihood of obtaining reliable data is increased when interviewers are given clear instructions regarding the aims of the research project, and the importance of accurate and consistent interviewing is emphasised (Mouton 2007:159).

Upon completion of the fieldwork, the researcher kept the collected data and the details of the contact persons in all the municipalities that participated in the study. On completion of the study, the researcher sent thank you letters electronically to each municipality to express her gratitude.

5.6.3 Ethical approach to fieldwork

There are several ethical issues that may confront the researcher. These include, but are not limited to, informed consent, anonymity, confidentiality, and avoidance of harm. However, it is an acknowledged fact that each study has its own peculiar ethical issues. For this study, the primary ethical issues concerned voluntary participation, informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality.

Cooper and Schindler (2001:112), as cited in Naicker (2008:48), indicated that the goal of ethics in research is to ensure that no one suffers adverse consequences from the research activities. Resnik (2011:2) claimed that the reason ethical norms have to be adhered to is, firstly, that norms promote the aims of research, such as knowledge, truth, and avoidance of error, and, secondly, since research often involves a great deal of cooperation and coordination among many different people in different disciplines and institutions, ethical standards promote the values that are essential to collaborative work, such as trust, accountability, mutual respect, and fairness. The ethical issues of voluntary participation, anonymity, and confidentiality will be discussed in the sections that follow.

5.6.3.1 Ensuring voluntary participation and informed consent

Dattalo (2010:1) asserted that important ethical issues include voluntary participation and informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality, and accountability in terms of the accuracy of analysis and reporting. Bhattacherjee (2012:137) stressed that subjects in a research project must be made aware that their participation in the study will be completely voluntary, that they have the freedom to withdraw from the study at any time without suffering any unfavourable consequences, and that they will not be harmed in any way as a result of their participation or non-participation in the project. The researcher informed participants of the purpose of the study, and that participation in the study would be completely voluntary.

5.6.3.2 Ensuring anonymity and confidentiality

To obtain truthful responses, the researcher ensured that respondents would not be identifiable, by protecting their identities throughout the research process. This was done by observing the dual principles of anonymity and confidentiality. Anonymity and confidentiality are ethical principles that are applied to protect research subjects' interests and future well-being. Rubin and Babbie (2011:82) confirmed that the protection of participants' identities is the greatest concern in the protection of participants' interests and well-being in survey research. Fouka and Mantzorou (2011:6) pointed out that if not able to promise anonymity, the researcher has to ensure confidentiality, which is the management of private information by the researcher in order to protect the identity of the subject. Anonymity implies that the researcher or readers of the final research report or paper cannot identify a given response with a specific respondent (Bhattacherjee 2012:138). The researcher attached the covering letter to the questionnaire to assure the research participants of anonymity and confidentiality.

5.7 DATA ANALYSIS

It is important to explain in detail the procedure followed in the data analysis, because analysis of data collected by means of Likert-type questionnaires often attracts attention. Firstly, by using Likert-type questions, critics could argue that it produced an ordinal scale, which limits the data to non-parametric analysis. Although proponents will contest this, it is not the researcher's intention to enter into this debate. However, to satisfy critics, the initial data gathered was transformed into scalar measures, as recommended by experts such as Vyas and Kumaranayak (2006), Allen and Seaman (2007), and Boone and Boone (2012), to name a few. Each section in the questionnaire contained a number of questions, which enabled the creation of indices, thus ultimately enabling the creation of a Likert scale and allow the researcher to perform parametric analysis (Vyas & Kumaranayak 2006; Allen & Seaman 2007; Boone & Boone 2012).

For example, the questionnaire items that dealt with HRM practices were divided into six sections, namely (1) compensation, (2) performance appraisal, (3) disciplinary and grievance procedures, (4) recruitment and selection, (5) training and development,

and (6) promotion, with a number of Likert-type questions asked in each section. Each of these sections was assessed in terms of distributive, procedural and interactive justice, with several questions posed for each type of justice. Due to the number of questions asked in the questionnaire under each type of justice, it was possible to create indices/scale items (or latent factors) to represent each type of justice. The indices were developed using principal components as latent factors.

Principal component analysis is a statistical technique used to reduce the number of variables in a data set by creating indices (dimension reduction) to represent such data (Vyas & Kumaranayake 2006; Boone & Boone 2012). A set of, say, *k*-variables (or questionnaire items) is combined into a few indices, and such indices are usually arranged in order of importance, by considering their contribution to the total variability of the data (Vyas & Kumaranayake 2006). In this study the most important index, or the first principal component is considered as an adequate representative of a set of questionnaire items. Such indices that represent questionnaire subdivisions are then correlated to assess the interrelationships between variables that address the various research objectives. For example, under HRM practices, 18 indices were created. The summary statistics of the averages of the questions that build each index are presented in Table 6.3. Of importance are the correlations of these indices and other indices (variables), such as perceived political interference, motivation, commitment, citizenship behaviour, and ultimately quality of service delivery.

To illustrate how the indices were created using principal components, the index for the HRM practice item of **distributive compensation** is shown in Table 5.2 below. It can be seen that the distributive compensation index depends fairly evenly on the questionnaire's first eight items (positive sentiments about compensation), with coefficients being in the range of 0.117 to 0.149. The last item has a negative coefficient, which is very small (–0.006), indicating that perceptions regarding favouritism are in contrast to general positive sentiments about compensation, but not in a significant way. The overall index on distributive compensation is therefore not much affected by whether people believe that compensation decisions favour some employees.

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The index for distributive compensation retained 67.53% of the information contained in the original questions asked (the percentage of total variation explained). Other indices were developed in a similar manner, and are presented in Appendix B.

It is important to point out that on the five-point Likert scale a mean below 3 (the median point) would suggest that the overall sentiment was negative, and scores above 3 would be indicative of a positive sentiment. This was the decision criterion used to reach conclusions about each objective/hypothesis.

Table 5.2: Distributive compensation index based on the first principal component

Distributive compensation index	Coefficient	% of total variation	Reliability – Cronbach's alpha
Satisfied with rewards received from municipality	0.149		
I receive sufficient rewards from my municipality, as compared to other employees from other municipalities	0.147		
I receive fair rewards from my municipality	0.152		
My supervisor fairly rewards me	0.141		
Productive workers in my municipality receive good rewards	0.117	67.53%	0.918
I am fairly paid based on my skills	0.146		
I am fairly paid based on my experience	0.146		
My salary is commensurate with my responsibilities and workload	0.145		
Compensation decisions favour some employees	−0.006		

5.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter explained in detail the methodology employed in the empirical study, including the underpinning research philosophy, the research hypotheses, and the data-collection and data-analysis methods used. The following chapter reports on the findings of the study.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 INTRODUCTION

As indicated in Chapters 1 and 5 the purpose of the study was to investigate the impact of human resource management practices on service delivery in selected municipalities across the Free State Province of South Africa. The previous chapters served three purposes. Chapter 1 provided an overview of the entire study whereas Chapters 2, 3 and 4 were devoted to the review of the related literature. Chapter 5 provided a detailed account of the research methodology used in the empirical study. This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study.

6.2 FINDINGS

In this section, the research findings are reported and discussed. It starts with the response rate followed by demographic data and ends with results of the descriptive and inferential statistical analyses.

6.2.1 Response rate

Much effort was invested into ensuring a high response rate. For example, the field workers were allocated a few respondents from municipal customers. In the end, out of the 900 questionnaires sent out to citizens, 821 useful ones were returned yielding 91.2% response rate. Unfortunately, the same high response rate could not be attained as far as municipal employees are concerned. Out of the 540 questionnaires sent out to municipal employees, only 342 completed questionnaires were returned yielding 61.9% response rate.

6.2.2 Demographics

The demographic summaries of the employees and customers are presented in Tables 6.1 and 6.2 respectively. The sample of employees was fairly balanced between males (44.4%) and females (55.6%). All the employees who participated had at least post-school certificates. Most (77.2%) of the employees held non-managerial positions; 10.1% held managerial positions, while 12.7% did not reveal their positions. The demographic summaries of citizens interviewed are presented in Table 6.1B. Like employees, the sample of customers interviewed was fairly balanced between males

(45.9%) and females (54.1%). The majority of the customers had some form of education ranging from Matric to a Doctoral degree accounting for almost 94% with the remainder having below Matric or no education. The majority (55) % of respondents have been receiving service from the municipalities for more than 10 years.

Table 6.1: Employee demographics

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Per cent
Gender	Male	152	44.4
	Female	190	55.6
Age	Below 25 Years	19	5.6
	26 - 35 Years	163	48.1
	36 - 40 Years	74	21.8
	40 and Above	83	24.5
Highest Qualification	Certificate	107	32.0
	Diploma	118	35.3
	Degree	96	28.7
	Master's Degree	3	0.9
	Other	10	3.0
Job Title	Managerial	34	10.1
	Non Managerial	261	77.2
	Not Provided Intentionally	43	12.7

Table 6.2: Citizens/ customers demographics

Characteristic	Category	Frequency	Per cent
Gender	Male	363	45.9
	Female	427	54.1
Age	Below 25	103	13.0
	26 - 35	245	31.0
	36 - 40	156	19.7
	40 and Above	287	36.3
Highest Qualification	Matric Certificate	264	34.2
	Diploma	160	20.7
	Degree	203	26.3
	Master's Degree	72	9.3
	Doctorate	23	3.0
	Below Matric or none	50	6.5
Number of Years receiving service from Municipality	> 1 Year	55	7.0
	1 - 2 Years	47	6.0
	3 - 5 Years	117	14.8
	6 - 10 years	131	16.6
	+ 10 Years	439	55.6

6.2.3 Perceived political interference (PPI) and perceived HRM fairness (PHF)

The summaries for HRM practices indices presented in Table 6.3 show that the average responses ranged from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) with

means that are generally below 3 with the overall mean being 2.682. Based on the decision criteria above, it is clear from the overall mean of 2.682 and the means for the various sections that generally, the respondents were not pleased with HRM practices.

Table 6.3: Summary statistics for the HRM practices

HRM Practice	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Compensation					
Compensation Distribute	288	1.00	5.00	2.485	0.967
Compensation Procedural	305	1.00	5.00	2.475	0.936
Compensation Interactive	335	1.00	5.00	2.486	1.026
Performance Appraisal					
Performance Appraisal Distributive	325	1.00	5.00	2.455	1.126
Performance Appraisal Procedural	308	1.00	5.00	2.457	0.940
Performance Appraisal Interactive	320	1.00	5.00	2.691	0.967
Disciplinary & Grievances Handling					
Disciplinary/Grievances Distributive	323	1.00	5.00	2.766	1.033
Disciplinary/Grievances Procedural	301	1.00	5.00	2.910	0.892
Disciplinary/Grievances Interactive	326	1.00	5.00	2.966	0.979
Recruitment and Selection					
Recruitment and Selection Distributive	322	1.00	5.00	2.846	1.063
Recruitment and Selection Procedural	333	1.00	5.00	2.857	1.075
Recruitment and Selection Interactive	339	1.00	5.00	3.025	1.102
Training and Development					
Training and Development Distributive	327	1.00	5.00	2.620	1.157
Training and Development Procedural	325	1.00	5.00	2.643	1.065
Training and Development Interactive	330	1.00	5.00	3.017	1.028
Promotion					
Promotion Distributive	334	1.00	5.00	2.349	1.109
Promotion Procedural	323	1.00	5.00	2.447	1.091
Promotion Interactive	334	1.00	5.00	2.514	1.037
Overall HRM	**201**	**1.00**	**4.95**	**2.682**	**0.847**

This finding corroborates the unfortunate finding by CoGTA (2009:67) that political interference in recruitment of the workforce in some municipalities of South Africa, has led to unfair HRM practices. For instance CoGTA (2009:68) revealed salary and benefits disparities of municipal employees of similar ranks in South Africa. Such disparities are likely to invoke employee displeasure with HRM practices. According to Ferreira (2012:133), the intention of developing or reforming labour policy and for that matter HRM is ultimately to create a labour environment that is free from conflicts and conducive to constructive and harmonious labour relations. With municipal

employees rating the quality of HRM so low, it is not surprising that squabbles have characterised South Africa's municipal environment.

With regard to perceived political interference (PPI), Table 6.4 indicates that there was an almost overall balance between negative and positive sentiment about political interference as indicated by the mean scores which are close to the median score of 3. The item with the lowest score is in performance appraisal (mean=2.88). This indicates that generally political interference is low in performance appraisal. However, it is interesting to note that respondents had the highest average score for political interference in recruitment and selection (mean=3.35). This indicates politically connected people securing employment with the local municipalities. This finding is consistent with many other research results. For example as indicated in Chapter 2, earlier studies including Mashala (2012:3), the Democratic Alliance (DA) (2012:1), Paradza et al. (2010:40) and CoGTA (2009:67), found evidence of political interference in employee recruitment in municipalities across South Africa.

Table 6.4: Summary statistics for the perceived political interference (PPI)

PPI	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean Political Interference-Recruitment and Selection	333	1.00	5.00	3.35	1.131
Political Influence-compensation	333	1.00	5.00	3.15	1.168
Political Influence-promotion opportunities	335	1.00	5.00	3.00	1.306
Political Interference-Training and Development	330	1.00	5.00	3.23	1.160
Political Influence-performance appraisal	332	1.00	5.00	2.88	1.184
Political Interference- Grievance and Disciplinary Handling	335	1.00	5.00	3.22	1.033
Overall PPI				**3.14**	

Recruitment malpractices specifically mentioned that can be linked to political interference include: nepotism, favouritism, erratic appointments, promotions, posts being filled without advertisement in municipalities, 'jobs for palls' based on political affiliation, as well as the openly admitted to so called 'cadre deployment'. This study goes to confirm these earlier research results that political expediency is a major force impacting on how HRM is practiced in South African municipalities.

The prime purpose of this section is to assess whether political interference affects the general sentiments of employees about fairness of HRM practices. To evaluate this research objective the correlations for the various items under political interference and HRM practices are analysed and these are presented in Table 6.5. The results show that political interference, in most aspects of it, is positively associated with

perception of HR fairness (*p*-values for correlations mostly equal to zero or very small). From a purely research point of view, this is a surprising result, as the positive correlations seem to suggest that higher levels of political interference are associated with positive perception of HRM fairness. However, from a pragmatic point of view, this result can be explained. The point is that probably the employees are not bothered by political interference as they might well have been employed in the municipalities through political connections. In fact, it is quite conceivable that most of the respondents would be sympathisers of the ruling party in the municipalities studied and these were the marginalised people of the past. So, what may seem fair HRM practice to such employees would obviously be the (subjective) one that favoured them getting jobs and not necessarily what would normally (objectively) be regarded as fair HRM practice.

The only non-significant correlations were between PPI on compensation versus recruitment and selection–procedural (r=0.101, p-value=0.07), PPI on compensation versus recruitment and selection–interactional (r=0.068, p-value=0.220) and PPI on promotion opportunities versus recruitment and selection–interactional (r=0.090, p-value=0.105). Although these correlations are significant they have a very small effect (most are below r=0.300).

Table 6.5: Correlations between political interference and perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF)

	Spearman's	Compensation - Distributive	Compensation - Procedural	Compensation - Interactional	Performance appraisal - Distributive	Performance appraisal - Procedural	Performance Appraisal - Interactional	Disciplinary and Grievances- Distributive	Disciplinary and Grievances- Procedural	Disciplinary and Grievances- Interactive	Recruitment and Selection - Distributional	Recruitment and Selection - Procedural	Recruitment and Selection – Interactional	Training and Development -	Training and Development -	Training and Development -	Promotion - Distributive	Promotion - Procedural	Promotion - Interactional
PPI-Recruitment/ Selection	Correlation	.311**	.225**	.211**	.235**	.283**	.340**	.258**	.199**	.283**	.216*	.188**	.162**	.199**	.233**	.211**	.205**	.265**	.296**
	p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.001	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
PPI -compensation	Correlation	.362**	.240**	.195**	.271**	.304**	.398**	.279**	.178**	.262**	.156*	.101	.068	.133*	.230**	.200**	.194**	.257**	.300**
	p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.002	.000	.006	.071	.220	.019	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
PPI-promotion opportunities	Correlation	.384**	.279**	.238**	.303**	.327**	.439**	.279**	.146*	.200**	.154*	.131*	.090	.203**	.276**	.223**	.252**	.323**	.378**
	p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.012	.000	.006	.019	.105	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
PPI - T&D	Correlation	.371**	.247**	.180**	.265**	.308**	.380**	.262**	.149*	.207**	.163*	.142*	.080	.252**	.311**	.248**	.225**	.270**	.298**
	p-value	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.012	.000	.004	.011	.150	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
PPI-performance appraisal	Correlation	.411**	.337**	.300**	.378**	.419**	.458**	.301**	.210**	.252**	.259*	.189**	.184**	.252**	.318**	.210**	.308**	.390**	.381**
	p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
PPI-Grievance/ Disciplinary Handling	Correlation	.299**	.261**	.257**	.267**	.307**	.366**	.370**	.392**	.397**	.328*	.286**	.316**	.259**	.303**	.303**	.267**	.306**	.316**
	p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

6.2.4 Perceived HRM fairness (PHF) and quality of service delivery (QSD)

The prime purpose of this section is to assess if HRM practices affects the general sentiments of citizens about quality of service delivery. To evaluate this research objective the various items under HRM practices and service delivery had to be first calculated. The summaries of HRM practices were presented above in Table 6.3. The summaries for service delivery are presented in Table 6.6. The summaries for service delivery indices presented in Table 6.6 show that the average responses to the questions asked under each section ranged from the lowest score of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) with most of the means that are below 3. Overall, it can be said that generally the respondents were not pleased with service delivery (overall mean is 2.9 which is below the median of 3). Therefore, it can be interpreted to mean that generally, the quality of service delivered by the municipalities surveyed does not meet citizens' expectations. This finding is not at all surprising given the negative public sentiments about poor service delivery by South African municipalities. For example, the recent escalation of service delivery protests is an indication that municipalities are not coping with delivering services that meet citizens' expectations (Jain 2010; Karamoko 2011).

This finding brings to mind Abd-El-Salam, Shawky and El-Nahas (2013:178) who rightfully opined that customers are more demanding and they are judges of quality. In the first place, it may be true that South Africans may be demanding better service from municipalities in the current democratic dispensation, however, providing quality service is the mandate of all South African municipalities. Therefore, municipalities can never shirk that responsibility. Secondly, the rating of service quality was done by citizens and not employees and so, that is what they (the customers) perceive service quality to be – *not up to expectation*. The results is also reminiscent of Denhere et al.'s (2011:69) declaration that an organisation can only remain relevant in the market by providing quality services. By delivering services that do not meet citizen's expectations, municipalities are clearly making themselves irrelevant. As Munusamy, Chelliah and Mun (2010:400) and Hollands and Mageza (2010:7) attested to, quality relates to attributes like relevance to purpose, whether the service is delivered on time, convenience to users and responsiveness to the service-users. This means that services being delivered by municipalities may not be relevant to purpose, are not

being delivered on time and/or are not convenient to users (the bucket system for example). That being the case, it behoves municipalities to get their house in order, because this is their responsibility, bearing in mind that although service quality is 'perceived by customers' it is the responsibility of the service provider to create and deliver the service (Abd-El-Salam, Shawky & El-Nahas 2013:178).

Table 6.6: Summary statistics for the service delivery

Service Delivery Item	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.
Tangibles					
The municipality has modern equipment	805	1.00	5.00	3.075	1.290
Physical facilities are attractive	808	1.00	5.00	3.226	1.310
Employees are always neat in appearance	803	1.00	5.00	3.451	1.231
Service materials visually attractive	798	1.00	5.00	2.996	1.233
Reliability					
Interest in solving customer problem	766	1.00	5.00	2.812	1.307
Things are done right the first time	792	1.00	5.00	2.400	1.229
Services provided as promised	800	1.00	5.00	2.411	1.255
Municipality insists on correct records	797	1.00	5.00	2.755	1.197
Responsiveness					
Customers informed when services will be performed	806	1.00	5.00	2.715	1.313
Customers are given services on time	809	1.00	5.00	2.534	1.322
Employees are always willing to help customers	812	1.00	5.00	2.909	1.317
Employees never too busy to respond to customers request	803	1.00	5.00	2.831	1.307
Assurance					
Employees behaviour helps customers have faith in them	798	1.00	5.00	2.827	1.276
Customers always feel safe dealing with municipality	788	1.00	5.00	2.968	1.257
Employees are always polite to customers	775	1.00	5.00	2.981	1.295
Employees always have knowledge to answer customers	786	1.00	5.00	2.963	1.315
Empathy					
Municipality gives customers individual attention	804	1.00	5.00	3.041	1.256
Operating hours are available to all customers	793	1.00	5.00	3.192	1.253
Municipality has employees who give customers personal care	798	1.00	5.00	2.881	1.235
Municipality has the best interest of customers at heart	799	1.00	5.00	2.717	1.295
Employees understand the specific needs of different customers	802	1.00	5.00	2.939	1.287
Overall Service Delivery	**607**	**1.00**	**5.00**	**2.9017**	**0.905**

To assess if HRM practices affects the general sentiments of citizens about quality of service delivery, the various items under HRM practices and service delivery were analysed and these are presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Correlations between HRM practices and quality of service delivery

		Pearson Correlation	Quality of Service Delivery				
			Reliability	Tangibles	Responsiveness	Assurance	Empathy
HRM Practice (As measured by average employee responses per municipality)	Compensation-Distributive	Correlation	-0.369	-0.372	-0.414	-0.352	-0.314
		p-value	0.328	0.325	0.268	0.353	0.410
	Compensation-Procedural	Correlation	-0.117	-0.233	-0.203	-0.111	-0.042
		p-value	0.764	0.546	0.600	0.777	0.915
	Compensation - Interactional	Correlation	-0.092	-0.183	-0.190	-0.107	-0.015
		p-value	0.814	0.638	0.625	0.784	0.970
	Performance Appraisal - Distributive	Correlation	-0.002	-0.184	-0.078	-0.053	0.027
		p-value	0.996	0.636	0.841	0.892	0.945
	Performance Appraisal - Procedural	Correlation	-0.013	-0.273	-0.113	-0.044	0.036
		p-value	0.974	0.478	0.772	0.910	0.926
	Performance Appraisal-Interactional	Correlation	-0.128	-0.352	-0.225	-0.152	-0.114
		p-value	0.743	0.353	0.560	0.696	0.770
	Disciplinary and Grievances - Distributive	Correlation	-0.111	-0.305	-0.212	-0.184	-0.136
		p-value	0.777	0.424	0.584	0.635	0.727
	Disciplinary and Grievances-Procedural	Correlation	0.017	-0.206	-0.076	-0.105	-0.003
		p-value	0.965	0.595	0.846	0.788	0.995
	Disciplinary and Grievances-Interactive	Correlation	-0.076	-0.137	-0.173	-0.160	-0.124
		p-value	0.847	0.726	0.656	0.681	0.750
	Recruitment and Selection-Distributional	Correlation	0.077	-0.069	-0.025	-0.030	0.092
		p-value	0.843	0.861	0.950	0.938	0.813
	Recruitment and Selection - Procedural	Correlation	0.507	0.162	0.414	0.389	0.484
		p-value	0.163	0.677	0.267	0.301	0.187
	Recruitment and Selection-Interactional	Correlation	0.280	0.070	0.195	0.221	0.266
		p-value	0.466	0.857	0.615	0.567	0.489
	Training and Development - Distributive	Correlation	0.130	-0.123	0.039	0.085	0.189
		p-value	0.740	0.752	0.920	0.827	0.627
	Training and Development-Procedural	Correlation	-0.067	-0.386	-0.171	-0.071	-0.016
		p-value	0.864	0.305	0.659	0.855	0.968
	Training and Development - Interactional	Correlation	-0.054	-0.273	-0.156	-0.064	0.030
		p-value	0.890	0.477	0.689	0.870	0.940
	Promotion-Distributive	Correlation	0.007	-0.206	-0.072	-0.023	0.066
		p-value	0.986	0.596	0.854	0.953	0.866
	Promotion-Procedural	Correlation	0.133	-0.155	0.046	0.082	0.172
		p-value	0.733	0.690	0.906	0.835	0.658
	Promotion-Interactional	Correlation	0.008	-0.185	-0.071	-0.024	0.031
		p-value	0.983	0.634	0.857	0.950	0.936

The results show that statistically, quality of service delivery is not related to perceived fairness in HRM practices at the .05 and .01 levels of significance (P values are greater than these values respectively). However, of practical importance is the fact that there seems to be negative relationships as most of the *Pearson* correlation coefficients are negative. This in itself suggests that the HRM is perceived as fair, with the worst aspect the quality of service delivery. This finding is consistent with observations made

concerning hypothesis 1. It goes to support the view expressed under hypothesis 1 that most of the employees probably belong to the ruling party in the municipality hence would not view actions like cadre redeployment as an HRM malpractice. That being the case, their evaluation of HRM practice fairness might be biased. However, because no statistical significant relationship was found for the two variables, nothing much can be made of this result.

6.2.5 Perceived HRM fairness (PHF) and employee citizenship behaviour (ECB)

The prime purpose of this section is to assess if HRM practices affects the employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) in municipalities. To evaluate this research objective, indices were calculated for the various items under HRM practices and employees ECB. The indices for HRM were presented in Table 6.3. The ECB indices are presented in Table 6.8. It shows that the average responses to the questions asked under each section ranged from the lowest score of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) with all of the means above the median value 3. Therefore, overall, it can be said that generally municipal employees display positive citizenship behaviour (overall mean is 3.6 which is above the median 3). This is a welcome finding. According to Lee, Kim, and Kim (2013:61), when employees exhibit higher levels of ECB, it ultimately leads to positive organisational results. On the other hand, procedural injustice and distributive injustice give rise to absenteeism, low performance, deviance, low loyalty and citizenship behaviours and subsequent low organisational performance (Ince & Gül 2011:138). Given these benefits of good citizenship behaviour, South African municipalities will do well to improve upon their HRM practices.

To assess if perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF) affects employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) in municipalities, the correlations for the various items under PHF and ECB were analysed and these are presented in Table 6.9. It is clear from the results in Table 6.9 that statistically, ECB is related to PHF at the .05 and .01 levels of significance (except for a few instances, P values are in most cases less than these values respectively). Of importance is the positive relationships between ECB and PHF as all of the *Pearson* correlation coefficients are positive.

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Table 6.8: level of employee citizenship behaviour (ECB)

Citizenship Behaviour	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Always help co-workers with my knowledge when they are in need	335	1.00	5.00	3.961	1.062
Always help co-workers with my expertise	334	1.00	5.00	3.946	1.038
Do things for the benefit of the municipality	335	1.00	5.00	3.881	1.118
I always defend my municipality when others criticise it	335	1.00	5.00	3.681	1.212
I always contribute to the municipality's development	332	1.00	5.00	3.642	1.177
attends important meetings voluntarily	332	1.00	5.00	3.280	1.276
Makes suggestions that will benefit municipality	332	1.00	5.00	3.425	1.238
Participates in the discussions with the municipality	334	1.00	5.00	3.156	1.347
Overall OCB	**328**	**1.00**	**5.00**	**3.630**	**0.951**

This is a significant finding because a positive relationship means that the more employees perceive HRM practices as fair, the more these employees display positive ECB. This finding confirms those of Noruzy et al. (2011), Orlowska (2011), Nadiri and Tanova (2010), Bergeron (2007), Organ (1988), who empirically linked ECB to employee fairness/justice perception of their organisations. These researchers concluded that employees, who perceived fairness and felt that they benefited from their relationship with their employers, were likely to exhibit high levels of ECB. Thus it can be inferred that the positive relationship between PHF and ECB is an indication that the more employees perceive their municipalities as being fair in terms of HRM the more likely they will exhibit high levels of ECB. However, the relationships can be described as weak as the correlation coefficients are all below 0.5 (Table 6.9). Nonetheless, the result of this study shows that justice perceptions play an important role in promoting ECB in municipal employees.

Table 6.9: Perceived HRM fairness (PHF) versus employee citizenship behaviour (ECB)

		Pearson Correlations	Always help co-workers with my knowledge	Always help co-workers with my expertise	Do things for the benefit of municipality	Always defend municipality when others criticise it	Always contribute to the municipality's development	Attends important meetings voluntarily	Make suggestions that benefit municipality	Participates in discussions with the municipality	Overall Citizenship Behaviour
						Citizenship behaviour					
Human resources Practices (PHF)	Compensation – Distributive	Corr	0.087	0.125*	0.108	0.133*	0.148*	0.235**	0.139*	0.271**	0.203**
		p-value	0.149	0.037	0.071	0.027	0.014	0.000	0.021	0.000	0.001
	Compensation – Procedural	Corr	0.088	0.118*	0.148*	0.155**	0.146*	00.193**	0.214**	0.307**	0.232**
		p-value	0.131	0.041	0.010	0.007	0.012	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Compensation – Interactional	Corr	0.168**	0.183**	0.187**	0.229**	0.141*	0.202**	0.221**	0.286**	0.279**
		p-value	0.002	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.011	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Performance Appraisal – Distributive	Corr	0.068	0.089	0.049	0.094	0.095	0.185**	0.114*	0.242**	0.156**
		p-value	0.228	0.116	0.382	0.093	0.093	0.001	0.044	0.000	0.006
	Performance Appraisal – Procedural	Corr	0.123*	0.159**	0.144*	0.198**	0.120*	0.254**	0.195**	0.300**	0.256**
		p-value	0.033	0.006	0.013	0.001	0.038	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000
	Performance Appraisal – Interactional	Corr	0.112*	0.129*	0.155**	0.174**	0.103	0.229**	0.164**	0.268**	0.229**
		p-value	0.047	0.022	0.006	0.002	0.069	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.000
	Disciplinary and Grievances- Distributive	Corr	0.058	0.065	0.055	0.102	0.128*	0.111	0.095	0.198**	0.135*
		p-value	0.304	0.249	0.327	0.070	0.024	0.050	0.094	0.000	0.018
	Disciplinary and Grievances- Procedural	Corr	00.255**	0.249**	0.221**	0.165**	0.177**	0.122*	.204**	0.247**	0.293**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.005	0.002	0.038	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Disciplinary and Grievances- Interactive	Corr	0.148**	0.177**	0.160**	0.140*	0.161**	0.141*	0.124*	0.198**	0.218**
		p-value	0.008	0.002	0.004	0.012	0.004	0.012	0.028	0.000	0.000
	Recruitment and Selection – Distributional	Corr	0.275**	0.300**	0.350**	0.235**	0.198**	0.166**	0.287**	0.301**	0.381**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Recruitment and Selection – Procedural	Corr	0.292**	0.332**	0.332**	0.240**	0.416**	0.160**	0.250**	0.282**	0.373**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Recruitment and Selection – Interactional	Corr	0.351**	0.401**	0.400**	0.262**	0.209**	0.193**	0.250**	0.222**	0.425**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Training and Development – Distributive	Corr	0.194**	0.203**	0.168**	0.134*	0.103	0.213**	0.225**	0.271**	0.266**
		p-value	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.017	0.068	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Training and Development – Procedural	Corr	0.224**	0.239**	0.221**	0.170**	0.138*	0.229**	0.230**	0.242**	0.300**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.002	0.014	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Training and Development – Interactional	Corr	0.246**	0.270**	0.255**	0.215**	0.133*	0.186**	0.232**	0.210**	0.315**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.017	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Promotion – Distributive	Corr	0.142*	0.166**	0.172**	0.147**	0.179**	0.183**	0.212**	0.267**	0.256**
		p-value	0.010	0.003	0.002	0.008	0.001	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Promotion – Procedural	Corr	0.123*	0.142*	0.158**	0.134*	0.164**	0.178**	0.209**	0.282**	0.241**
		p-value	0.028	0.011	0.005	0.017	0.003	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Promotion – Interactional	Corr	0.105	0.111*	0.138*	0.121*	0.122*	0.135*	0.205**	0.264**	0.209**
		p-value	0.057	0.044	0.012	0.028	0.028	0.015	0.000	0.000	0.000

6.2.6 Perceptions of HRM fairness (PHF) and employee organisational commitment (EOC)

The prime purpose of this section was to assess if HRM practices affects the organisational commitment of municipal employees. For this to be done, employee commitment indices had to be calculated besides the indices for HRM that had already been calculated and shown in Table 6.3. The summaries for employee organisational commitment (EOC) indices presented in Table 6.10 show that the average responses to the questions asked under each section ranged from the lowest score of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) with all of the means below the median value of 3. Therefore, overall, it can be said that generally employees are not committed to their municipalities. In line with Lee and Chen (2013:197), this low level of commitment is clearly an indication that employees have little or no attachment to their municipalities. The question is what could be the possible cause of this low level of commitment? Perhaps, one can attribute it to the observed PHF also being low (Table 6.3). This assumption is based on Bakhshi et al. (2009:148) who argued that perceived PHF impacts on commitment. According to Bakhshi et al. (2009:148) fair HRM procedures in decision-making leads employees to believe the organisation is genuinely caring and this will in turn motivate employees to continue their association and exhibit higher levels of commitment to their organisation.

Table 6.10: Level of municipal employee commitment

Commitment	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean Affective Commitment	321	1.00	5.00	2.873	1.130
Mean Continuance Commitment	325	1.00	5.00	2.835	1.051
Mean Normative Commitment	329	1.00	5.00	2.910	1.158
Overall EOC				**2.873**	

To evaluate if HRM practices affects the organisational commitment of municipal employees, correlations for the various items under HRM practices and EOC was analysed and these are presented in Table 6.11. The results show that statistically, EOC is related to perceived fairness in HRM practices at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. Of practical importance is the fact that there seems to be positive relationships as all of the *Pearson* correlation coefficients are positive.

Table 6.11: HRM fairness (PHF) versus employee organisational commitment (EOC)

	Pearson Correlations		Employees' Organisational Commitment		
			Commitment - Affective	Commitment - Continuance	Commitment - Normative
Human resources Practices (PHF)	Compensation - Distributive	Correlation	.590**	.483**	.514**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Compensation - Procedural	Correlation	.537**	.445**	.472**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Compensation - Interactional	Correlation	.538**	.474**	.541**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Performance Appraisal - Distributive	Correlation	.521**	.404**	.426**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Performance Appraisal - Procedural	Correlation	.565**	.409**	.484**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Performance Appraisal - Interactional	Correlation	.508**	.407**	.421**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Disciplinary and Grievances- Distributive	Correlation	.444**	.340**	.372**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Disciplinary and Grievances- Procedural	Correlation	.503**	.390**	.453**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Disciplinary and Grievances- Interactive	Correlation	.460**	.422**	.428**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Recruitment and Selection - Distributional	Correlation	.603**	.424**	.558**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Recruitment and Selection - Procedural	Correlation	.619**	.482**	.583**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Recruitment and Selection - Interactional	Correlation	.589**	.440**	.557**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Training and Development - Distributive	Correlation	.580**	.419**	.494**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Training and Development - Procedural	Correlation	.527**	.403**	.481**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Training and Development - Interactional	Correlation	.564**	.464**	.502**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Promotion - Distributive	Correlation	.582**	.450**	.494**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Promotion - Procedural	Correlation	.543**	.465**	.504**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Promotion - Interactional	Correlation	.537**	.483**	.483**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000

This is a significant finding because a positive relationship means that the more employees perceive HRM practices as fair, the more these employees display positive EOC. Furthermore, the relationships can be described as moderate as the correlation coefficients revolve around 0.5 (Table 6.11). This finding is in line with extant literature such as Bakhshi et al. (2009:148), Farndale et al. (2010:6), Jawad et al. (2012) and many others who also found that HRM fairness and EOC are positively related. Given that PHF was recorded as low in this study (Table 6.3), it means that EOC would even have been higher had PHF been high as indicated by Bakhshi et al. (2009:148).

6.2.7 Perceived HRM fairness (PHF) and employee motivation (MOT)

The prime purpose of this section is to assess if HRM practices affects motivation of municipal employees. To evaluate this objective, motivation indices were calculated.

The summaries for employee motivation indices presented in Table 6.12 show that the average responses to the questions asked under each section ranged from the lowest score of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) with most of the means above the median value of 3. In fact, only two out of the six items were below the median value, with the average of the means above the median value. Therefore, overall, it can be said that generally municipal employees are quite motivated. This finding is contradictory to the low commitment found among the same employees. Despite this contradictory result, it would have been informative to know the interaction between MOT and EOC. However, this was not an objective of the study. Instead, the objective was to comprehend the relationship between PHF and MOT. Nevertheless, the high level of motivation should be a source of satisfaction for municipalities since generally, it has been established by several authors that motivated public service employees are important for quality service delivery (Anderson and Serritzlew 2009; Dzansi and Dzansi 2010; Ahmad et al. 2012; Kachornkittiya et al. 2012:79) just to mention a few. More specific to delivery of quality service by municipalities, Ahmad et al. (2012:532) attested that in the service sector, motivated employees are essential for improving the quality of service and subsequently, retaining the organisation's customers.

Table 6.12: Level of municipal employee motivation

Motivation	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mean Motivation – Personal Initiative	327	1.00	5.00	4.139	0.849
Mean Motivation – Work itself	318	1.00	5.00	3.514	1.128
Mean Motivation – Advancement Opportunities	331	1.00	5.00	2.451	1.198
Mean Motivation – Salary	323	1.00	5.00	2.438	1.708
Mean Motivation – Supervision Support	329	1.00	5.00	3.146	1.248
Mean Motivation – co-Workers	330	1.00	5.00	3.610	1.157
Overall MOT				**3.2163**	

To evaluate if HRM practices affects motivation of municipal employees, the correlations for the various items under PHF and MOT were analysed and are presented in Table 6.13.

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Table 6.13: Perceived HRM fairness (PHF) versus employee motivation (MOT)

	Pearson Correlations		Motivation - Personal Commitment	Motivation - Work Itself	Motivation - Advancement Opportunities	Motivation - Salary	Motivation - Supervision Support	Motivation - Co-Workers
Human resources Practices (PHF)	Compensation - Distributive	Corr	.190**	.400**	.624**	.696**	.487**	.208**
		p-value	.002	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Compensation - Procedural	Corr	.233**	.372**	.623**	.637**	.425**	.193**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	Compensation - Interactional	Corr	.227**	.441**	.585**	.566**	.434**	.180**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	Performance Appraisal - Distributive	Corr	.145*	.359**	.592**	.497**	.342**	.091
		p-value	.010	.000	.000	.000	.000	.108
	Performance Appraisal - Procedural	Corr	.246**	.398**	.639**	.494**	.449**	.187**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	Performance Appraisal - Interactional	Corr	.215**	.330**	.587**	.400**	.412**	.153**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.007
	Disciplinary and Grievances- Distributive	Corr	.205**	.303**	.488**	.422**	.377**	.050
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.383
	Disciplinary and Grievances- Procedural	Corr	.332**	.458**	.539**	.487**	.468**	.193**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	Disciplinary and Grievances- Interactive	Corr	.251**	.381**	.477**	.445**	.401**	.132*
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.019
	Recruitment and Selection - Distributional	Corr	.374**	.560**	.623**	.582**	.542**	.217**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Recruitment and Selection - Procedural	Corr	.317**	.543**	.629**	.527**	.534**	.263**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Recruitment and Selection - Interactional	Corr	.360**	.557**	.502**	.472**	.519**	.252**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Training and Development - Distributive	Corr	.225**	.494**	.672**	.561**	.451**	.284**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Training and Development - Procedural	Corr	.251**	.460**	.643**	.553**	.476**	.227**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Training and Development - Interactional	Corr	.309**	.498**	.571**	.461**	.457**	.298**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Promotion - Distributive	Corr	.255**	.446**	.700**	.582**	.503**	.201**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	Promotion - Procedural	Corr	.235**	.457**	.697**	.597**	.477**	.187**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001
	Promotion - Interactional	Corr	.228**	.410**	.639**	.542**	.452**	.226**
		p-value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

The results show that statistically, MOT is related to PHF at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. Of practical importance is the fact that there seems to be positive relationships as all of the *Pearson* correlation coefficients are positive. This finding is consistent with the previous one that found significant positive relationship between PHF and EOC. This is a significant finding because a positive relationship means that the more employees perceive HRM practices as fair, the more these employees display positive EOC. Furthermore, the relationships can be described as strong as most of the correlation coefficients are above 0.5 (Table 6.13). Therefore, it can be said that motivation of municipal employees are strongly positively related to HRM practices of municipalities. Since PHF was recorded as low in this study (Table 6.3), it

means that MOT would even have been higher had PHF been high. This finding fits in well with the *person-organisation fit* theory as espoused by O'Riordan (2013:7). Briefly, according to O'Riordan (2013:7), *person-organisation fit* theory suggests that motivation is enhanced when an employee perceives a supportive work environment which encompasses quality of communication, good conflict management, collegiality and, not least, good and fair incentive systems – issues that are all central to PHF. Therefore, in line with O'Riordan (2013:7), this study shows that fairness perception (PHF) shapes municipal employees' motivation.

6.2.8 Employee organisational commitment (EOC) and employee citizenship behaviour (ECB)

The summaries for OCB indices presented in Table 6.8 above show all the means to be above the median value of 3. In fact, with the overall mean being 3.6, it can be said that generally municipal employees display positive OCB. Firstly this is a finding that should excite municipalities. The reason is that having workers with high levels of ECB or extra-role performance - behaviours that support the organisation but are not normally found in an individual's job description (Bergeron 2007:1078) are an indication that municipal employees are willing to do beyond what duty calls for. It further means that municipal employees are prepared to voluntarily and discretionally behave in ways that promote overall organisational efficacy (Dunlop & Lee 2004:68; Danaeefard et al. 2010:148). This assessment is based on the belief that employees, who possess positive attitudes towards their organisations and their work by having high levels of ECB, are more likely to contribute positively towards achievement organisational goals. Most importantly, according to Nadiri and Tanova (2010:34) high levels of ECB influences customer loyalty due to improved employee customer interaction and an improved ''service climate" which are hallmarks of ECB. Besides, Beatson et al. (2008:4) also asserted that positive ECB by frontline staff is important, as clients often do not differentiate between the person providing the service and the organisation. It is thus of the essence that organisations strive towards service excellence through their employees showing high levels of ECB (Beatson et al. 2008:4). The high level of ECB of municipal employees is therefore good for citizens' perception of municipal service quality.

On the other hand as stated earlier, summaries for employee commitment (EOC) indices presented in Table 6.10 show that municipal employees are not committed to their municipalities (means for all types of commitment below the median). The two indices of ECB and EOC were then analysed to see if any relationship existed between them and if so, what the nature of that relationship was. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 6.14.

The results in Table 6.14 show that statistically, EOC and OCB are related at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. Of practical importance is the fact that there seems to be positive relationships as all of the *Pearson* correlation coefficients are positive. Furthermore, the relationships can be described as moderate as the correlation coefficients lie around 0.3 (Table 6.14). That ECB and EOC for municipal employees are positively related is to be expected. This is mainly because perceptions of organisational justice have been consistently positively linked to EOC and ECB (Bakhshi and Kumar 2009:145; Karriker and Williams 2009:34; Nadiri & Tanova 2010:34; Orlowska 2011:12). Therefore, since the previous section showed positive correlation between PHF and EOC, it is consistent for EOC and ECB to be positively correlated.

Table 6.14: Employee commitment (EOC) versus citizenship behaviour (ECB)

			Citizenship Behaviour								
Commitment	**Pearson Correlation**		I always help co-workers with my knowledge when they are in need	I always help co-workers with my expertise	I do things for the benefit of the municipality	I always defend my municipality when others criticise it	I always contribute to the municipality's development	I attend important meetings voluntarily	I make suggestions that will benefit municipality	I participate in the discussions with the municipality	Citizenship Behaviour
	Commitment - Affective	Corr	0.306**	.343**	.316**	.424**	.379**	.356**	.326**	.312**	.410**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Commitment - Continuance	Corr	0.167**	.202**	.187**	.302**	.274**	.204**	.134*	.123*	.226**
		p-value	0.003	0.000	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.017	0.028	0.000
	Commitment - Normative	Corr	0.286**	.322**	.323**	.404**	.371**	.329**	.253**	.237**	.372**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

6.2.9 Employee motivation (MOT) and employee citizenship behaviour (ECB)

As stated above, the summaries for ECB indices presented in Table 6.8 above show that with all of the means above the median value of 3 in each case, generally, municipal employees display positive ECB as well as are motivated. To see if any relationship exists between MOT and ECB and if so, what the nature of the relationship is, the correlations for the various items under MOT and ECB were analysed and are presented in Table 6.15.

Table 6.15: Employee motivation (MOT) versus employee citizenship behaviour (ECB)

Pearson correlations			I always help co-workers with my knowledge when they are in need	I Always help co-workers with my expertise	I do things for the benefit of the municipality	I always defend my municipality when others criticise it	I always contribute to the municipality's development	I attend important meetings voluntarily	I make suggestions that will benefit the municipality	I participate in discussions with the municipality	Overall employee citizenship behaviour
Motivation	MOT-personal commitment	Corr	.469**	.466**	.496**	.417**	.422**	.352**	.425**	.317**	.523**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	MOT-work Itself	Corr	.480**	.507**	.491**	.471**	.483**	.308**	.399**	.301**	.520**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	Corr	Corr	.129*	.143**	.151**	.257**	.241**	.264**	.214**	.302**	.234**
		p-value	0.019	0.010	0.006	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	MOT-salary	Corr	.190**	.204**	.233**	.285**	.271**	.265**	.234**	.275**	.287**
		p-value	0.001	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	MOT-supervision support	Corr	.393**	.412**	.352**	.313**	.302**	.290**	.267**	.248**	.426**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	MOT-co-Workers	Corr	.472**	.483**	.437**	.409**	.342**	.267**	.334**	.175**	.472**
		p-value	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.000

The results show that statistically, ECB is related to MOT at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. Of practical importance is the fact that there seems to be positive relationships as all of the *Pearson* correlation coefficients are positive. However, the relationships can be described as moderate to weak as the correlation coefficients revolve around 0.4 and 0.3 (Table 6.15). Despite the weak relationship, the result is a significant finding because a positive relationship confirms previous research that the more

employees are motivated, the more they display positive ECB. First of all, it has been established in the literature review in Chapter 4 that motivation is crucial to discretionary job-performance - ECB (Warsi et al. 2009:401; Sarkwa 2011:21). This means that municipalities must endeavour to engage in HRM practices that motivate employees, with the belief that this will lead to higher levels of ECB in employees.

6.2.10 Employee organisational commitment (EOC) and quality of service delivery (QSD)

The prime purpose of this section is to assess if employee commitment (EOC) affects the quality of service delivery (QSD). To evaluate this research objective the correlations for the various items under QSD and EOC were analysed and are presented in Table 6.16. The results show that statistically, EOC and QSD are not related at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. This is a strange finding and contrary to conventional wisdom and normative assertions that committed employees are likely to display a positive ECB which should translate to citizens rating service delivery highly. This finding is difficult to explain.

Table 6.16: Employee organisational commitment (EOC) and quality of service delivery (QSD)

			Service delivery				
Pearson correlations			Reliability	Tangibles	Responsiveness	Assurance	Empathy
Commitment	**Commitment-affective**	Correlation	0.196	-0.062	0.086	0.163	0.259
		p-value	0.614	0.875	0.825	0.675	0.501
	Commitment-continuance	Correlation	-0.249	-0.313	-0.306	-0.256	-0.193
		p-value	0.518	0.413	0.423	0.505	0.619
	Commitment-normative	Correlation	-0.064	-0.092	-0.134	-0.030	0.012
		p-value	0.869	0.814	0.731	0.939	0.976

6.2.11 Employee motivation (MOT) and quality of service delivery (QSD)

The primary purpose of this section is to assess if employee motivation (MOT) affects quality of service delivery (QSD). To evaluate this research objective the correlations for the various items under QSD and MOT were analysed and are presented in Table 6.17. The results show that statistically, QSD is not related to MOT at the .05 and .01 levels of

significance. This study is consistent with the earlier finding that EOC and QSD are not related at the .05 and .01 levels of significance.

Table 6.17: Employee motivation (MOT) and quality of service delivery (QSD)

			Service delivery				
Pearson correlations			Reliability	Tangibles	Responsiveness	Assurance	Empathy
Motivation	Motivation-personal commitment	Correlation	0.358	0.112	0.248	0.382	0.452
		p-value	0.345	0.774	0.519	0.311	0.222
	Motivation-work itself	Correlation	0.370	0.136	0.260	0.327	0.446
		p-value	0.327	0.727	0.500	0.390	0.229
	Motivation-advancement opportunities	Correlation	0.175	-0.048	0.093	0.140	0.233
		p-value	0.652	0.903	0.811	0.719	0.546
	Motivation-salary	Correlation	-0.101	-0.175	-0.146	-0.150	-0.064
		p-value	0.797	0.653	0.708	0.699	0.869
	Motivation-supervision support	Correlation	0.249	0.043	0.198	0.265	0.310
		p-value	0.519	0.913	0.609	0.490	0.416
	Motivation-co-workers	Correlation	0.743[*]	0.548	0.760[*]	0.751[*]	0.792[*]
		p-value	0.022	0.127	0.017	0.020	0.011

Again, this finding like the previous one defies conventional wisdom and normative assertions that motivated employees are likely to display a positive ECB which should translate into citizens rating service delivery highly. Like the earlier case, this finding is difficult to explain.

6.2.12 Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) and quality of service delivery (QSD)

Last but not the least, this section sought to assess if employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) affects quality of service delivery (QSD). To evaluate this research objective the correlations for the various items under QSD and ECB were analysed and are presented in Table 6.18. The results show that overall, statistically, QSD dimensions *reliability*, *tangibles* and *empathy* are not related to ECB at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. This study is consistent with the earlier finding that EOC and QSD and MOT and QSD are not related at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. Again, this finding like the previous ones defies conventional wisdom and normative assertions that positive ECB will translate into citizens rating service delivery highly.

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Table 6.18: Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) and quality of service delivery (QSD)

Pearson correlation			Service delivery				
			Reliability	Tangibles	Responsiveness	Assurance	Empathy
Employee citizenship behaviour	I always help co-workers with my knowledge when they are in need	Correlation	0.090	0.121	0.055	0.106	0.127
		p-value	0.817	0.756	0.888	0.786	0.745
	I always help co-workers with my expertise	Correlation	-0.047	-0.122	-0.088	-0.035	-0.004
		p-value	0.904	0.755	0.822	0.928	0.992
	I do things for the benefit of the municipality	Correlation	0.219	-0.025	0.134	0.144	0.227
		p-value	0.572	0.949	0.732	0.712	0.557
	I always defend my municipality when others criticise it	Correlation	-0.047	-0.206	-0.154	-0.189	-0.085
		p-value	0.904	0.595	0.693	0.627	0.828
	I always contribute to the municipality's development	Correlation	-0.082	-0.243	-0.199	-0.168	-0.097
		p-value	0.834	0.530	0.607	0.665	0.805
	I attend important meetings voluntarily	Correlation	-0.278	-0.280	-0.375	-0.295	-0.224
		p-value	0.468	0.465	0.320	0.441	0.561
	I make suggestions that will benefit the municipality	Correlation	-0.159	-0.466	-0.274	-0.280	-0.153
		p-value	0.683	0.206	0.476	0.466	0.694
	I participate in discussions with the municipality	Correlation	-0.094	-0.216	-0.196	-0.173	-0.113
		p-value	0.810	0.577	0.613	0.656	0.773
	Overall employee citizenship behaviour	**Correlation**	**0.080**	**-0.059**	**0.000***	**0.046***	**0.107**
		p-value	**0.838**	**0.880**	**1.000**	**0.907**	**0.785**

Interestingly, the QSD components *responsiveness* and *assurance* show positive relationship with ECB. This means that the quicker employees respond to complaints and requests and give assurance, the more satisfied the customers will be.

6.3 CHAPTER SUMMARY

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, the purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss the findings/results of the empirical study. This purpose was achieved and can be summarised follows:

Firstly, in terms of demographic data, the study sample for municipal employees was fairly balanced between males (44.4%) and females (55.6%). All respondents had at least post-school certificates with the greatest proportion (64%) having either a diploma or a degree. Most (77.2%) of the respondents held non-managerial positions. Respondents in

managerial positions accounted for only 10.1% while 12.7% of the respondents were unwilling disclose their positions.

Secondly, in order to avoid the usual controversy surrounding the appropriateness of analysing data generated by Likert type questionnaires with parametric statistics, the data generated were first converted into indices so that it met the criteria of being interval (scalar) data. The procedures used in this regard are accepted in the scientific community (Vyas & Kumaranayak 2006; Allen & Seaman 2007; Boone & Boone 2012). This enabled the data to be analysed using means, ANOVA etc.

Thirdly, in terms of the objectives/hypotheses, the analysis produced the following mixed results.

1. Municipal employees perceive little or low levels of political interference (PPI) in HRM practices; however, employees considered HRM practices as generally unfair, in other words PHF was low; and PPI is positively associated with PHF at the .05 and .01 which is against rational expectation.

2. Generally, the quality of service delivered (QSD) by the municipalities surveyed do not meet citizens' expectations; statistically, QSD is not related to PHF at the .05 and .01 levels of significance.

3. Generally, municipal employees display positive citizenship behaviour (ECB); and statistically, ECB is positively related to PHF at the .05 and .01 levels of significance.

4. Generally employees' organizational commitment (EOC) is low in the municipalities; and statistically, EOC has positive relationships with PHF at the .05 and .01 levels of significance – indicating that the higher the levels of PHF in municipal employees the higher their EOC will be.

5. Municipal employees have low levels of motivation (MOT); and statistically, MOT positively is related to PHF at the .05 and .01 levels of significance.

6. Municipal employees display positive ECB - meaning municipal employees are willing to do beyond what duty calls for or alternatively, they are prepared to voluntarily and discretionarily behave in ways that promote overall organisational

wellbeing. Statistically, ECB is positively related to EOC at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. However, the relationship is weak.

7. Statistically, ECB is positively related to MOT at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. However, the relationship is weak.

8. Statistically, EOC and QSD are not related at the .05 and .01 levels of significance.

9. Statistically, QSD is not related to MOT at the .05 and .01 levels of significance.

10. Statistically, QSD is positively related to ECB components *responsiveness* and *assurance* at .05 and .01 levels of significance.

These findings mean that hypotheses 1, 2, 8, 9, and 10 were not supported.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

As stated in earlier chapters, the thesis statement of the current study is that, ***political interference in human resource management (HRM) in South African municipalities will lead to low employee justice perceptions of the HRM practices (PHF) of municipalities and this in turn will lead to low levels of employee commitment (EOC) and motivation (MOT) - conditions that are enough to make municipal employees develop negative or unacceptable organisational citizenship behaviours (ECB) that may affect the quality of service (QSD) municipalities render to customers***. This conceptual framework was pictorially illustrated in Figure 5.1 with the accompanying 10 hypotheses. These hypotheses were then tested and the results reported and discussed in Chapter 6. This chapter presents conclusions and recommendations based on the empirical findings.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS BASED ON THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

To make inferences, Pearson correlation analysis was performed and the results helped to accept or reject the ten hypotheses. On the basis of the Pearson correlation analysis results, the following conclusions were arrived at.

7.2.1 Conclusion on hypothesis 1

H$_1$o - Perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF) will be negatively related to perceived political interference (PPI) in HRM practices; **H$_1$a -** Perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF) will **not** be negatively related to perceived political interference (PPI) in HRM practices. The results in Table 6.5 show that PPI is positively associated with PHF at the .05 and .01 which is against theorised expectation. This means that the null hypothesis is not supported. The alternative hypothesis is therefore accepted. Consequently it is concluded that **perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF) of municipalities is not negatively related to perceived political interference (PPI) in the HRM practices of municipalities. In other words, one cannot rely on employee perception of political**

interference in HRM practices as an indicator of fairness or the lack thereof of the HRM practices of municipalities.

7.2.2 Conclusion on hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2: **H₂o -** Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities will be positively related to perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF); **H₂a** - Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities will **not** be positively related to perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF). The results in Table 6.7 show that QSD is not related to PHF at the .05 and .01 levels of significance which are against theorised expectation. This means that the null hypothesis is not supported. The alternative hypothesis is therefore accepted. Consequently it is concluded that **citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities is not positively related to perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF). In other words, one cannot rely on fairness of HRM practices (PHF) of municipalities to predict the quality of service that the municipality will deliver.**

7.2.3 Conclusion on hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3: **H₃o -** Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) will be positively related to perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF); **H₃a** - Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) will **not** be positively related to perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF). ECB is positively related to PHF at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. This means that the null hypothesis is supported. **Therefore, it is concluded that citizenship behaviour (ECB) of municipal employees is positively related to their perceptions of fairness of HRM practices (PHF) of municipalities. In other words, fair HRM practices of municipalities promote organisational citizenship behaviour in municipal employees.**

7.2.4 Conclusion on hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4: **H₄o -** Organisational commitment (EOC) of employees will be positively related to perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF); **H₄a** - Organisational commitment (EOC) of employees will **not** be positively related to perceived fairness of HRM practices

(PHF). EOC has positive relationships with PHF at the .05 and .01 levels of significance – indicating that the higher the levels of PHF in municipal employees the higher the organisational commitment of employees (EOC). This means that the null hypothesis is supported. **Therefore, it is concluded that organisational commitment of municipal employees (EOC) is positively related to their perceptions of fairness of HRM practices (PHF) of municipalities. In other words, fair HRM practices of municipalities promote organisational commitment in municipal employees.**

7.2.5 Conclusion on hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5: **H₅o -** Employee motivation (MOT) will have a positive relation with perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF); **H₅a** - Employee motivation (MOT) will **not** have a positive relation with perceived fairness of HRM practices (PHF). MOT is positively related to PHF at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. This means that the null hypothesis is supported. **Therefore, it is concluded that the motivation level of municipal employees (MOT) is positively related to their perceptions of fairness of HRM practices (PHF) of municipalities. In other words, fair HRM practices (PHF) of municipalities promote higher levels of motivation (MOT) in municipal employees.**

7.2.6 Conclusion on hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6: **H₆o -** Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) will be positively related to employee commitment (EOC); **H₆a** - Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) will **not** be positively related to employee commitment (EOC). ECB is positively related to EOC at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. This means that the null hypothesis is supported. **Therefore, it is concluded that the Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) is positively related to their organisational commitment (EOC). In other words, higher levels of employee commitment (EOC) promote higher levels of citizenship behaviour (ECB in municipal employees.**

7.2.7 Conclusion on hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7: **H₇o -** Citizenship behaviour (ECB) will be positively related to employee motivation (MOT); **H₇a** - Citizenship behaviour (ECB) will **not** be positively related to

employee motivation (MOT). ECB is positively related to MOT at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. This means that the null hypothesis is supported. **Therefore, it is concluded that the employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) is positively related to employee motivation (MOT). In other words, higher levels of employee commitment (EOC) promote higher levels of citizenship behaviour (ECB in municipal employees.**

7.2.8 Conclusion on hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8: **H_8o -** Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will be positively related to employee commitment (EOC); **H_8a** - Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will **not** be positively related to employee commitment (EOC). EOC and QSD are not related at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. This means that the null hypothesis is not supported. The alternative hypothesis is therefore accepted. **Consequently it is concluded that citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities is not positively related to their organisational commitment (EOC). In other words, one cannot rely on the organisational commitment (EOC) of municipal employees to predict quality of service delivery of municipalities.**

7.2.9 Conclusion on hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9: **H_9o -** Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will be positively related to employee motivation (MOT); **H_9a** - Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will **not** be positively related to employee motivation (MOT). QSD is not related to MOT at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. The alternative hypothesis is therefore accepted. **Consequently it is concluded that citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities is not positively related to employee motivation (MOT). In other words, one cannot rely on the motivation (MOT) of municipal employees to predict quality of service delivery (QSD) of municipalities.**

7.2.10 Conclusion on hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10: **$H_{10}o$ -** Citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) will be positively related to employee citizenship behaviour (ECB); **$H_{10}a$** - Citizens' rating of quality of

service delivery (QSD) will **not** be positively related to employee citizenship behaviour (ECB). QSD is not positively related to ECB components responsiveness and assurance at .05 and .01 levels of significance. **Consequently it is concluded that citizens' rating of quality of service delivery (QSD) in municipalities is not positively related to employee citizenship behaviour (ECB). In other words, one cannot rely on the citizenship behaviour (ECB) of municipal employees to predict quality of service delivery (QSD) of municipalities.**

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Numerous recommendations can be made from the literature and empirical findings of the study. For reporting purposes, the recommendations are classified under two subheadings namely *practice* and *research*. The recommendations are presented in an arbitrary order and not in any order of importance.

7.3.1 Recommendations for practice

Firstly, it is clear from the study that both the organisation and individual employees benefit from training and development. It is important for municipalities in South Africa to regard this view seriously and in particular take Obisi (2011:83) seriously that training and development activities do not only benefit individuals but improve job performance. Obisi's claims imply that municipalities that develop their employees will have satisfied and motivated employees who will contribute to attainment of delivering quality service to citizens. Regarding employee development, municipalities need to refrain from any act of favouritism based on particular party affiliation or any other criteria that can be judged to be unfair.

Secondly, as Brewster et al. (2008:189) argued, it only makes sense that promotion should be based on job-related criteria and that promotion procedures should be free from bias and discrimination against employees. As implied by the White Paper on Human Resources Management in the Public Service (South Africa 1997a), employees should only be promoted if they apply successfully for a vacant position at a higher level, and in competition with others. Grobler et al. (2011:262) cautioned that organisations

should guard against discrimination in promotion and advocated that promotion opportunities should be provided equally to all employees. If perceived to be fair by employees, promotion could improve commitment and job satisfaction. Promotion can only be seen as fair if employees contest for the position, and an appointment is made based on performance and nothing else. Non-compliance with the provisions of the White Paper could promote employee disputes, dissatisfaction of those who feel they were neglected, increased lack of trust, and high levels of employee turnover. The current trends such as cadre redeployment (no matter how much defended), nepotism and discrimination in promotion are untenable for HRM fairness, employee commitment, motivation, and service behaviour and quality service delivery. Municipalities are therefore advised to fully take into consideration the detrimental effects of such practices on service delivery. Perhaps a starting point for this to happen will be to conduct intensive short courses on the theoretical framework guiding this study.

Another important recommendation concerns performance appraisal. As mentioned in the study, performance appraisal systems are meant to improve the level of performance in the workplace. However, such a system must be perceived to be fair else it may prove counterproductive. Municipalities therefore need to be cautious when assessing employees' performance to guard against unethical activities that may render the system unfair.

It is also recommended that municipalities refrain from ignoring employees' misdeeds as it has the potential to retard service delivery. There will always be deviants whose misbehaviours need to attract discipline. Discipline could be a source of misunderstandings and conflicts in organisations, and it calls for management's ability to manage it and enhance employment relationships. In such situations, *positive disciplining* could be employed. From an organisational justice perspective, employees who are aware of unpunished transgressions by other employees will feel that injustice is being done. In accordance with the thesis for this study, unfair justice perceptions will lead to low motivation, low citizenship behaviour and eventually poor service delivery.

Talent management is a concept that municipalities could consider implementing to enhance their HRM practices. Through appropriate talent management practices, municipalities could attract employees to join their workforce. The problem for municipalities will be how to approach talent management without incurring the wrath of employees. From an organisational justice perspective, talent management will need to be handled with care and truthfulness so that the process is seen as fair and just, in order to elicit positive response from employees.

Introduction of ethics training programmes for all, but especially managers, could help to elicit the honesty and self-discipline that has been so lacking in South African municipalities. South African municipalities could learn from the Malaysian experience where values that emphasise honesty and self-discipline have been embedded in HRM practices in Malaysian public service, including municipalities, with encouraging results. For example, these changes in HRM practices have had a great effect on the Malaysian workforce's quit intentions. This approach confirms the views of Blau (2009) and Gould-Williams (2007:1641) that when employees are subjected to fair treatment at work, they are less likely to leave.

It is recommended that HRM officials in municipalities put aside their political differences so that they can work as a team in managing HRM fairly. South African municipalities could learn a lot from the USA example where McDowell and Leavitt (2011:239) reported that many local governments have at least three groups or organisational units that share HRM functions and responsibilities. As mentioned earlier, working together as a team led to successful resolution of seemingly unsolvable HR issues.

South African municipalities should also appreciate and seek long term exchange relationships with employees. In that respect, South African municipalities should heed the views of Gould-Williams and Davies (2005:2) who asserted that positive worker attitudes depended on employees' perceptions of how committed the employing organization is to them. South African municipalities should also heed the views of Tremblaya et al. (2010:407) who argued that HRM practices recognizing individuals'

contributions and encouraging investments in employees is a signal of support and a sign that the organization seeks to establish a fairly long-term exchange relationship with its employees. Therefore, municipalities must care for their employees and recognize their contributions regardless of political affiliation so that they could have satisfied employees who will contribute effectively and productively to the overall accomplishment of delivering quality service to citizens.

Furthermore it is evident from the literature examined in this study that for organisations to succeed the right people must be employed and employees' skills must be used optimised - meaning employees must be well managed, organised, led, and controlled. It is recommended that human resource management in South African municipalities rise above personal and political interests by employing the right people with the right skills and capabilities. With this happening and other things being equal, service delivery should improve.

Lastly, although quality service delivery is high on the agenda of the South African government, seemingly, its achievement remains problematic for most municipalities. This problem has been partially blamed on human resource incapacity of municipalities. In other words, failure to deliver quality service can be attributed to HRM practices of municipalities that are not up to standard. It is recommended that municipalities employ fair and consistent HRM practices that are implemented in a manner that will motivate employees to contribute to the achievement of quality service delivery to all South Africans. Certainly, cadre redeployment and nepotism needs to be frowned upon.

7.3.2 Recommendations for further research

The first suggested future research is to conduct a larger-scale study to involve all provinces.

It is also recommended that instead of perceptions of service quality a more objective measure could include document analysis to establish planned versus actual service delivery.

Further investigation is needed to establish why employees believe there was political interference in HRM practices (PPI) and regarded HRM practices (PHF) as largely unfair but this did not reflect in expected significant relationships among PPI and PHF.

In a similar manner there is need to further explore the MOT versus QSD; EOC versus QSD; ECB versus QSD; and PHF versus QSD relationships as the current study yielded results contradictory to organisational justice theory.

7.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

There are a number of important contributions that this study makes to both theory and practice of HRM.

First and foremost, this study has enriched our theoretical understanding of the concept of organisational justice. It has done so, by applying it for the first time – barring Dzansi and Dzansi (2010) – to HRM in the municipal context and in explaining service delivery problems of South African municipalities.

In terms of practice, although the empirical results only partially supports the theorised PPI, PHF, MOT, EOC, ECB, QSD connections, the research has revealed the important role that fair human resource practices could play in motivating and soliciting organisational commitment and positive citizenship behaviour from municipal employees.

Overall, the research has led to a revised framework based on these findings as captured in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1 depicts the relationships between variables. Perceptions of fairness of HRM practices links directly with positive employee outcomes such as MOT, EOC and ECB and ultimately customer sensitivity among employees.
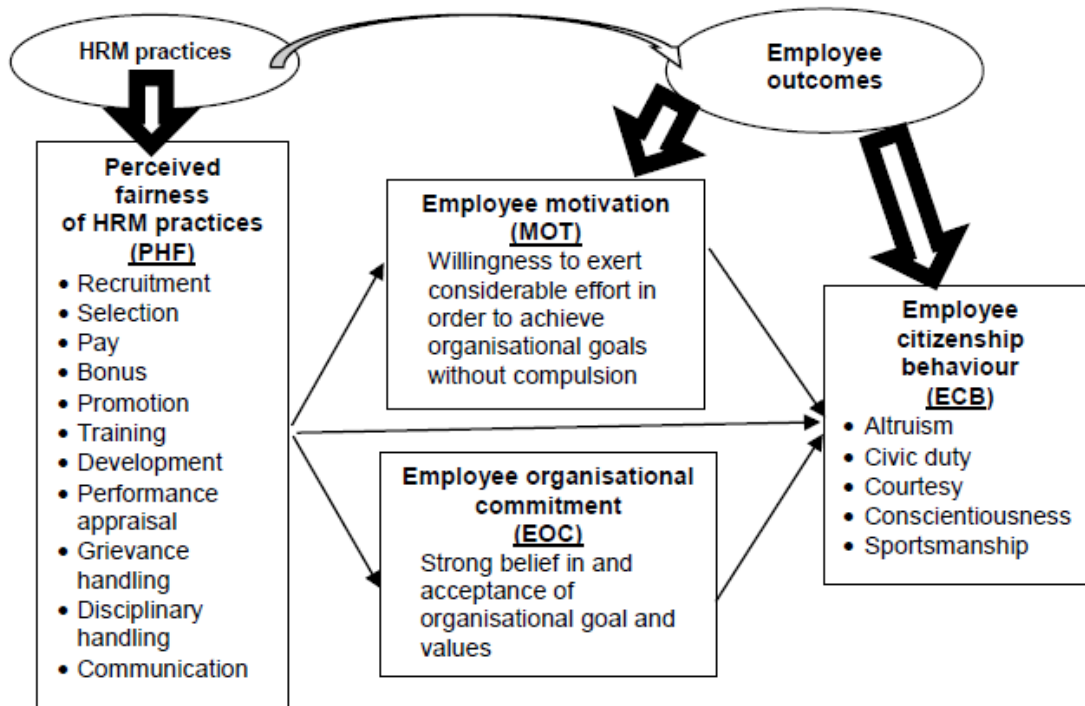
Figure 7.1: Relationship between HRM fairness (PHF) employee commitment EOC), motivation (MOT) and citizenship behaviour (ECB) in municipalities.

7.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This concluding chapter has listed conclusions arrived at based on the results of the study. The chapter shows that organisational justice theory is relevant to quality of service delivery. Recommendations were provided for guiding practice as well as further research. It is hoped that municipalities will take the conclusions and recommendations in good faith and implement them for the sake of improving the service they deliver to citizens.

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APPENDIX A – QUESTIONNAIRE RELIABILITY TEST RESULTS

Compensation - Distributive	Coefficient	% of Total variation	Reliability (Kronbach's Alpha)
Satisfaction with reward receive from Municipality	0.149		
I receive enough reward from my municipality as compared to others from other Municipalities	0.147		
I receive fair reward from my Municipality	0.152		
My supervisor fairly rewards me	0.141		
Productive workers in my municipality receive highest rewards	0.117	67.53%	0.918
I am fairly paid based on my skills	0.146		
I am fairly paid based on my experience	0.146		
My salary is equal to my responsibilities and workload	0.145		
Compensation decisions favour some employees	-0.006		
Compensation - Procedural	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
I was involved in my compensation decisions	0.129		
Compensation decisions are always communicated to employees	0.142		
My municipality offers explanations that I understand when compensation decisions are made	0.157		
My municipality's compensation procedures provide for collecting correct information for decision making	0.160	71.51%	0.942
My municipality's compensation procedures provide opportunities to appeal unfavourable decisions	0.141		
My municipality has generated rules for compensation decisions to be made consistently	0.153		
Steps are taken to deal with employees fairly during compensation decision making	0.157		
My rewards are related to my performance	0.141		
Compensation - Procedural	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Compensation decisions are always justified	0.269		
Compensation decisions are communicated in transparent manner	0.272		
Employees are always treated with dignity during compensation decision making process	0.271	83.79%	0.935
Compensation decisions are always based on correct information	0.280		
Performance appraisal - Distributive	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
The process used to measure employees performance is not biased	0.292		
Happy with the way performance evaluation is done in the municipality	0.353	64.32%	0.901
Performance appraisal reward reflects my performance	0.240		
Satisfied with performance appraisal in the municipality	0.348		

Performance Appraisal - Procedural	Coefficient	% of Total variation	Reliability
Performance targets are clear to all within the municipality	0.123		
Supervisors strive to be honest during performance appraisal	0.132		
Supervisors provide performance feedback on time	0.135		
Explanation on performance rating are provided	0.135		
Explanation on performance rating implications is provided	0.133	73.61%	0.954
Supervisors always explain performance appraisal decision	0.127		
Performance appraisal decisions are made based on correct information	0.134		
Opportunity to appeal unfavourable performance appraisal	0.128		
Supervisor regularly lets me know how I perform my duties	0.119		
Performance Appraisal - Interactional	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Fair treatment during performance appraisals	0.200		
No hurtful statements are made when performance feedbacks are given	0.187		
Performance appraisal allows for additional information	0.204		
Performance appraisal decisions provided on time	0.167	72.05%	0.910
Supervisors relate well with employees during performance appraisals	0.213		
I was comfortable during performance appraisal	0.204		
Disciplinary/Grievances - Distributive	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Grievance procedures are aimed at settling grievances objectively	0.185		
Grievance outcomes always reflect fair resolution	0.211		
Disciplinary outcomes are always fair	0.217		
Disciplinary outcomes are always justified	0.211	71.76%	0.836
Grievance procedures are always free of bias	0.217		
Disciplinary procedures are always free of biases	0.123		
Disciplinary/Grievances - Procedural	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Able to express feelings during grievance procedures	0.132		
Able to express feelings during disciplinary procedures	0.137		
Grievance procedures are always applied consistently	0.134		
Disciplinary procedures are always applied consistently	0.079		
Disciplinary outcomes are always based on correct information	0.132	61.72%	
Employees given opportunity to appeal against unfavourable disciplinary results	0.126		0.901
Disciplinary procedures communicated on time	0.139		
Grievance procedures are always communicated on time	0.139		
Employees' viewpoints considered during grievance handling	0.142		
Employees' viewpoints considered during disciplinary procedure	0.096		

Disciplinary/Grievances - Interactive	Coefficient	% of Total variation	Reliability
Employees feel respected during disciplinary procedures	0.235		
Regular updates with regard to disciplinary procedures	0.250		
Regular updates with regard to grievance procedures	0.250		
Disciplinary procedure decisions explanations are understandable	0.248	62.07%	0.718
Disciplinary procedure decisions explanations are understandable	0.097		
Supervisors avoid improper remarks	0.132		
Recruitment and Selection - Distributive	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Selection procedures are the same for all candidates	0.230		
Interviewees are always asked job related questions	0.220		
Selection procedures enable shortlisted applicants to express themselves	0.227	75.16%	0.917
Municipality is fair in selecting new staff	0.238		
Selection outcomes are always based on merit	0.239		
Recruitment and Selection - procedural	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Selection procedures make it possible for candidates to seek clarification	0.252		
Selection decisions are based on correct information	0.178		
Selection decisions conform to accepted principles and morality	0.260	71.72%	0.855
Rights of applicants are considered when selection decisions are made	0.258		
Job requirements are explained to interviewees	0.223		
Recruitment and Selection - Interactional	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Selection feedback is always given on time	0.352		
Candidates are treated with respect during the selection interview	0.393	78.25%	0.860
I was comfortable during my selection interview	0.384		
Training and Development - Distributive	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Training and development decisions applied for all employees	0.362		
Training and development are done according to each employee's need	0.364	87.12%	0.926
Training and development decisions are made unbiased	0.345		
Training and Development - Procedural	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Opportunity to request for additional information about training and development	0.272		
Employees informed on training and development decisions	0.278		
Employees are given opportunities to have say in Training and development decision making	0.271	84.30%	0.937
Mechanisms to appeal against unfair training and development decisions	0.268		

Training and Development - Interactional	Coefficient	% of Total variation	Reliability
Workers are treated with respect during training and development decision making	0.354		
Training and development decisions are based on correct information	0.352	86.84%	0.924
Employees' right are respected during training and development decision making	0.367		
Promotion - Distributive	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Promotion process is open to all employees who have competence and skills	0.268		
Employees are encouraged by supervisors to take advantage of promotion	0.262	87.84%	0.953
Promotion decisions are made the same way for all employees	0.271		
Promotion procedures are fair and not discriminatory	0.266		
Promotion - Procedural	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Promotion decisions are always based on correct information	0.199		
Employee rights are considered when promotion decisions are made	0.203		
Requirement for promotion are explained to employees	0.204		
Employees always receive promotion feedback on time	0.138	76.10%	0.902
Employees have opportunities to make input into the promotion process	0.201		
Request for clarification or additional information about promotion is possible	0.193		
Promotion - Interactional	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Employees are treated with respect when promotion decision are made	0.344		
Employees always receive clear communication with regards to promotion	0.351	92.15%	0.957
Promotion decisions are always appropriately justified	0.347		
Political Influence - Recruitment/Selection	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Recruitment	0.514	94.76%	0.944
Selection	0.514		
Political Influence - Training/Development	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Training opportunities	0.608	67.72%	0.899
Development opportunities	0.608		
Political Influence - Grievance and Disciplinary Handling	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Grievance handling	0.598	69.93%	0.905
Disciplinary handling	0.598		
Tangibles	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
The municipal has modern equipment	0.295		
Physical facilities are attractive	0.383	53.86%	0.760
Employees are always neat in appearance	0.350		
Service materials visually attractive	0.328		
Reliability	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Interest in solving customer problem	0.296		
Things are done right the first time	0.311	68.08%	0.843
Services provided as promised	0.316		
Municipality insists on correct records	0.289		

Responsiveness	Coefficient	% of Total variation	Reliability
Customers informed when services will be performed	0.374		
Customers are given services on time	0.307	49.97%	0.824
Employees are always willing to help customers	0.345		
Employees never too busy to respond to customers request	0.383		
Assurance	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Employees' behaviour help customers have faith in them	0.305		
Customers always feel safe dealing with municipality	0.295	71.54%	0.888
Employees are always polite to customers	0.309		
Employees always have knowledge to answer customers	0.271		
Empathy	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Municipality gives customers individual attention	0.244		
Operating hours are available to all customers	0.218		
Municipality has employees who give customers personal care	0.247	69.17%	0.888
Municipality has the best interest of customers at heart	0.248		
Employees understand the specific needs of different customers	0.245		
Commitment-Affective	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
I identify myself with this municipality	0.136		
I feel the desire to spend the rest of my time with this municipality	0.139		
I enjoy discussing my municipality with people outside it	0.140		
I really feel as if this municipality's problems are my own	0.140	71.95%	0.943
I feel like part of the family at my municipality	0.154		
I am emotionally attached to this municipality	0.150		
Emotionally attached to municipality	0.158		
Municipality means deal of personal to me	0.161		
Commitment-Continuance	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Staying with Municipality a matter of necessity	0.158		
Obliged to remain with municipality	0.216		
Very hard to leave municipality now	0.228		
Disruption in life if I leave municipality	0.229	63.60%	0.882
Too few options to consider leaving municipality	0.213		
Another municipality might not match overall benefit here	0.203		
Commitment- Normative	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Leaving might not be the right thing to do	0.240		
Would feel guilty to leave municipality	0.241		
Loyalty to the municipality is important	0.216	71.07%	0.897
Jumping from one municipality to another is not the thing to do	0.235		
The feeling of deep sense of moral obligation to remain	0.253		

Motivation- Personal Initiative	Coefficient	% of Total variation	Reliability
Extra hours to get work done to meet deadlines	0.139	69.91%	0.853
I exercise personal discipline and self-control	0.160		
I work harder than	0.073		
I persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task	0.162		
I probably enjoy challenging tasks at work	0.152		
I probably tackle difficult work enthusiastically	0.158		
I pay close attention to important details of my work	0.165		
I take the initiative to solve problems at work	0.164		
Motivation - Work Itself	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
I am interested in my job	0.231	73.82%	0.911
I feel good about my job	0.239		
I have a certain degree of authority in my work	0.224		
I have the chance to use all my talents in my job	0.238		
I have the chance to use all my skills in my job	0.232		
Motivation - Advancement Opportunities	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
All employees have equal training opportunities	0.362	84.19%	0.905
Everyone has an equal chance of being promoted	0.374		
I have the chance to take part when decisions are being made	0.354		
Motivation - Salary	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
My salary is satisfactory in relation to what I do	0.478	60.78%	0.439
I have opportunities to earn additional salary	0.290		
How issues are handled makes me to work hard	0.486		
Motivation - Supervision Support	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
My supervisor is always willing to delegate authority	0.340	86.09%	0.919
My supervisor supports me if there is problems	0.371		
My supervisor can be relied upon for work related support	0.365		
Motivation - Co-workers	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
My co-workers are friendly and nice to work with	0.320	67.65%	0.681
My co-workers are like family to me	0.451		
I enjoy work-related professional relationships at work	0.432		
Citizenship Behaviour	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
I always help co-workers with my knowledge when they are in need	0.834	50.82%	0.920
I always help co-workers with my expertise	0.875		
do things for the benefit of the municipality	0.870		
I always defend my municipality when others criticise it	0.525		
I always contribute to the municipality's development	0.410		
I attend important meetings voluntarily	0.530		
I make suggestions that will benefit municipality	0.814		
I participate in the discussions with the municipality	0.678		
Overall HRM Fairness	**Coefficient**	**% of Total variation**	**Reliability**
Distribution of results after decision-making	0.241	75.98%	0.867
Following procedures in decision-making	0.242		
Communication with employees during decision-making	0.246		
Communication with employees after decision-making	0.162		
Dealing with employees during decision-making	0.245		

APPENDIX B – QUESTIONNAIRE

CUSTOMER QUESTIONNAIRE
CONFIDENTIAL
Your answers to questions and all other information you give will be held in the strictest confidence

Dear respondent,

Thank you for your time and willingness to participate in this research project by agreeing to complete this questionnaire. The aim of the research project is to investigate your' experiences with your local municipality as a customer. Please answer all questions as honestly as possible. It will take you approximately 10 minutes to complete this questionnaire. Your identity will be anonymous and the research results will be used mainly for study purposes. Participation in the research project is completely voluntary. Your responses are important and greatly appreciated.

Please answer the questions below by marking the appropriate box with a cross **[X]**.

Number	Question					
1.	What is your sex?		1. Male		2. Female	
2.	What is your age?	1. Below 25	2. 26 - 35	3. 36 - 40	4. 40 and above	

3.	What is your highest qualification?	1. Certificate	2. Diploma	3. Bachelor degree	4. Master's degree	5. Doctorate	6. Other (specify)

4.	What is the name of your Municipality? (This information will not be released in the findings of the study)					
5.	How long have you been receiving services from this municipality?	1. >1 year	2. 1- 2 years	3. 3 - 5 years	4. 6 – 10 years	5. + 10 years

6.	From the services provided below, tick those that you get from your municipality:			
7.	Refuse removal	Building plan approval	Library services	
8.	Electricity supply	Tourism information	Parks/gardens and recreational services	
9.	Water supply	Municipal roads maintenance	Firefighting services	
10.	Rates bills collection	Traffic and parking control	Street lighting services	
11.	Drainage	Sewerage services	Other (specify)	

The information required here concerns the municipality that serves you. Using the scale below, please indicate your level of **agreement or disagreement** with each of the statements by marking an appropriate box with a cross **[X].**

(1)   =   Strongly Disagree
(2)   =   Disagree
(3)   =   Don't know
(4)   =   Agree
(5)   =   Strongly Agree

Number	Question	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Don't know (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
12.	The municipality has modern looking equipment.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	The municipality's physical facilities are attractive.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Municipality employees are always neat in appearance.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Materials associated with the services rendered by the municipality (such as pamphlets or statements) are visually attractive.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	When a customer has a problem, the municipality will show interest in solving it.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	The municipality always gets things right the first time.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	The municipality provides its services at a time it promises to do so.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	The municipality insists on correct records.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	The municipality employees always inform customers exactly when the services will be performed.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	The municipality employees always give services on time to the customers.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Municipality employees are always willing to help customers.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Municipality employees are never too busy to respond to customers' requests.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	The municipality employees behave in a manner that customers have faith in them.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	The municipality's customers always feel safe with any dealings that they do with the municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	The municipality's employees are always polite with customers.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	The municipality's employees always have the knowledge to answers customers' questions.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	The municipality gives customers individual attention.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	The municipality's operating hours are available to all the customers.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	The municipality has employees who give customers personal care.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	The municipality has its customers' best interest at heart.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	The municipality's employees understand the specific needs of its different customers.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for participating

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EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

CONFIDENTIAL
Your answers to questions and all other information you give will be held in strictest confidence

Dear respondent,

Thank you for your time and willingness to participate in this research project by agreeing to complete this questionnaire. The aim of the research project is to investigate employees' experiences of Human Resources Management practices in their workplaces. Please answer all questions as honestly as possible. The questionnaire is divided into seven sections (sections A to G). It will take you approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Your identity will be anonymous and the research results will be used mainly for study purposes. Participation in the research project is completely voluntary. Your responses are important and greatly appreciated.

Please answer the questions below by marking the appropriate box with a cross **[X]**.

Number	Question					
	What is your sex?	2. Male			2. Female	
	What is your age?	5. Below 25	6. 26 - 35	7. 36 - 40	8. 40 and above	
	What is your highest qualification?	7. Certificate	8. Diploma	9. Degree	10. Master's degree	11. Doctorate / 12. Other
	What is the name of your Municipality? (This information will not be released in the findings of the study)					
	What is the name of your department?					
	What is your job title within the municipality?					
	How long have you been employed within your municipality?					
	6. >1 year	7. 1- 4 years	8. 4 - 8 years	9. 9 – 12 years	10. + 12 years	
	How much do you earn per month before deductions?					
	1. Below R5 000	2. R6 000 – R10 000	3. R11 000 – R15 000	4. R16 000 and above		

Using the scale below, please indicate your level of **agreement or disagreement** with each of the following statements by marking the appropriate box with a cross [x].

(6)   = Strongly Disagree
(7)   = Disagree
(8)   = don't know
(9)   = Agree
(10) = Strongly Agree

Number	Question	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Don't know (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly Agree (5)
1.	I am satisfied with the rewards I receive from my municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I receive enough rewards from my municipality when I consider the rewards that other employees receive elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I feel that the rewards I receive from my municipality are fair.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	My supervisor fairly rewards me when I consider the responsibilities I have.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Productive workers in this municipality receive the highest rewards.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I am fairly paid based on the amount of skills that I have.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I am fairly paid based on the amount of experience that I have.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	My salary is equal to my responsibilities and workload.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Compensation decisions favour some employees.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I was involved when decisions were being made for my compensation.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Compensation decisions are always communicated to affected employees.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	When decisions are made about compensation, my municipality offers explanations that I understand.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	My municipality's compensation procedures provide for collecting correct information for making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	My municipality's compensation procedures provide opportunities to appeal unfavourable decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	My municipality has generated rules so that compensation decisions can be made consistently.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Steps are taken to deal with employees in a fair manner during compensation decision making.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	My rewards are related to my performance.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Compensation decisions are always justified.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Compensation decisions are always communicated in a transparent manner.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	During compensation decision making process, employees are always treated with dignity.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Compensation decisions are always based on correct information.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	The process used to measure employees' performance is not biased.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I am always happy with the way performance evaluations are done within the municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	My performance appraisal rewards accurately reflect my performance.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I am satisfied with the performance appraisal review processes done by the municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Performance targets are clear to all within the municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Employees feel their supervisors strive to be honest in their dealings with them during performance appraisals.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	Supervisors provide employees with performance feedback on time.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Explanation of performance rating decisions is always provided to employees.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Explanation of performance rating implications is always provided to employees.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	My supervisor always explains the performance appraisal decisions that concern me.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Performance appraisal decisions are made based on correct information.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Employees are provided with opportunities to appeal performance appraisal decisions they find unfavourable.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	My supervisor regularly lets me know how I perform my duties.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Employees are fairly treated during performance appraisals.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	My supervisor does not make hurtful statements when giving me performance feedback.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	My municipality's performance appraisal procedures allow for additional information when performance appraisal decisions are being made.	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Supervisors provide employees with performance appraisal decisions on time.	1	2	3	4	5
39.	Supervisors relate well with employees during performance appraisals.	1	2	3	4	5
40.	I was comfortable during my performance appraisal review.	1	2	3	4	5
41.	The grievance procedures are always aimed at settling grievances objectively.	1	2	3	4	5

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42.	Grievance outcomes always reflect a fair resolution.	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Disciplinary outcomes are always fair.	1	2	3	4	5
44.	Disciplinary outcomes are always justified.	1	2	3	4	5
45.	Grievance procedures are always free of bias.	1	2	3	4	5
46.	Disciplinary procedures are always free of bias.	1	2	3	4	5
47.	We are able to express feelings during grievance procedures in this municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
48.	We are able to express feelings during disciplinary procedures in this municipality	1	2	3	4	5
49.	Grievance procedures are always applied consistently.	1	2	3	4	5
50.	Disciplinary procedures are always applied consistently.	1	2	3	4	5
51.	Disciplinary outcomes are always based on correct information	1	2	3	4	5
52.	Employees are always given an opportunity to appeal against unfavourable results arrived at during disciplinary procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
53.	Disciplinary procedures are always communicated on time to affected employees.	1	2	3	4	5
54.	Grievance procedures are always communicated on time to employees.	1	2	3	4	5
55.	Employees' viewpoints are always considered during grievance handling.	1	2	3	4	5
56.	Employees' viewpoints are always considered during disciplinary procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
57.	Employees always feel respected during disciplinary procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
58.	Employees are regularly updated with regards to disciplinary procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
59.	Employees are regularly updated with regards to grievance procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
60.	Explanations regarding the disciplinary procedures used to make decisions are always understandable.	1	2	3	4	5
61.	Explanations regarding the grievance procedures used to make decisions are always understandable	1	2	3	4	5
62.	Supervisors always avoid improper remarks or comments during disciplinary procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
63.	Selection procedures are the same for all candidates applying for the same job.	1	2	3	4	5
64.	Interviewees are always asked job-related questions during selection processes.	1	2	3	4	5
65.	Selection procedures enable shortlisted applicants to express and explain themselves.	1	2	3	4	5
66.	My municipality is fair in selecting new staff for employment.	1	2	3	4	5
67.	Selection outcomes are always based on merit.	1	2	3	4	5
68.	Selection procedures make it possible for candidates to request for clarification about decisions arrived at.	1	2	3	4	5
69.	Selection decisions are based on correct information of those selected.	1	2	3	4	5
70.	Selection decisions conform to accepted principles and morality.	1	2	3	4	5
71.	When selection decisions are made, my municipality always shows concern for the rights of applicants.	1	2	3	4	5
72.	Municipal interviewers always explain the requirements of the job to interviewees.	1	2	3	4	5
73.	Selection feedback is always given on time to all candidates.	1	2	3	4	5
74.	Candidates are treated with respect during the selection interview.	1	2	3	4	5
75.	I was comfortable during my selection interview.	1	2	3	4	5
76.	All training and development decisions are applied in the same way for all employees.	1	2	3	4	5
77.	Training and development is done according to each employee's needs.	1	2	3	4	5
78.	Training and development decisions are made in unbiased manner.	1	2	3	4	5
79.	Employees are always given the opportunity to request for additional information about training and development procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
80.	Employees are always informed on how training and development decisions are arrived at.	1	2	3	4	5
81.	Opportunities are provided to employees to have a say in training and development decision making processes.	1	2	3	4	5
82.	There are mechanisms to appeal against unfair training and development decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
83.	Workers are always treated with respect during training and development decision making processes.	1	2	3	4	5
84.	Training and development decisions are based on correct information.	1	2	3	4	5
85.	Employees' rights are always respected during training and development decision making processes.	1	2	3	4	5
86.	The promotion process is open to all employees who have necessary competences and skills for the job.	1	2	3	4	5
87.	Supervisors support and encourage all employees to take advantage of promotion opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5

88.	Promotion decisions are always made in the same way for all employees at the same level.	1	2	3	4	5
89.	Promotion procedures are fair and non-discriminatory.	1	2	3	4	5
90.	Promotion decisions are always based on correct information.	1	2	3	4	5
91.	When decisions are being made about promotions, my municipality always shows concern for employees' rights.	1	2	3	4	5
92.	Supervisors in each section always explain requirements needed for promotion within the municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
93.	Employees always receive feedback on promotion decisions on time.	1	2	3	4	5
94.	There are always opportunities provided to employees to have input into promotion decision making processes.	1	2	3	4	5
95.	It is possible to request for clarification or additional information about promotion decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
96.	Employees are always treated with respect when promotion decisions are being made.	1	2	3	4	5
97.	Employees always receive clear communication with regards to promotion results that affect them.	1	2	3	4	5
98.	Promotion decisions are always appropriately justified.	1	2	3	4	5
99.	I identify myself with this municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
100.	I feel the desire to spend the rest of my time with this municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
101.	I enjoy discussing my municipality with people outside it.	1	2	3	4	5
102.	I really feel as if this municipality's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5
103.	I feel like "part of the family" at my municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
104.	I am "emotionally attached" to this municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
105.	This municipality has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5
106.	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
107.	Right now, staying with the municipality is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5
108.	I feel obliged to remain with this municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
109.	It would be very hard for me to leave this municipality right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5
110.	Too much in life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave this municipality now.	1	2	3	4	5
111.	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
112.	Another municipality might not match the overall benefits I have here.	1	2	3	4	5
113.	Leaving this municipality would not be the right thing to do.	1	2	3	4	5
114.	I would feel guilty if I had to leave this municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
115.	I believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
116.	Jumping from one municipality to another does not seem to be the thing to do.	1	2	3	4	5
117.	One of the major reasons I continue to be part of this municipality is because I feel a deep sense of moral obligation to remain.	1	2	3	4	5
118.	I put in extra hours to get work done to meet deadlines.	1	2	3	4	5
119.	I exercise personal discipline and self-control.	1	2	3	4	5
120.	I work harder than necessary.	1	2	3	4	5
121.	I persist in overcoming obstacles to complete a task.	1	2	3	4	5
122.	I probably enjoy challenging tasks at work.	1	2	3	4	5
123.	I probably tackle difficult work enthusiastically.	1	2	3	4	5
124.	I pay close attention to important details of my work.	1	2	3	4	5
125.	I take the initiative to solve problems at work.	1	2	3	4	5

This sub-section of the questionnaire concerns satisfaction with your current job. Please indicate whether each of the following statements is descriptive or none descriptive of your current job by marking an appropriate box with a cross [X].

(1)   = Totally none descriptive
(2)   = None descriptive
(3)   = Don't know
(4)   = Descriptive
(5)   = Most descriptive

Number	Question	Totally none descriptive (1)	None descriptive (2)	Don't know (3)	Descriptive (4)	Most descriptive (5)
126.	I am interested in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
127.	I feel good about my job.	1	2	3	4	5
128.	I have a certain degree of authority in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
129.	I have the chance to use all my talents in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
130.	I have the chance to use all my skills in my job.	1	2	3	4	5
131.	All employees have equal training opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
132.	Everyone has an equal chance of being promoted in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
133.	I have the chance to take part when decisions are being made.	1	2	3	4	5
134.	My salary is satisfactory in relation to what I do.	1	2	3	4	5
135.	I have opportunities to earn additional salary.	1	2	3	4	5
136.	The way pay issues are handled in this municipality makes one to work very hard.	1	2	3	4	5
137.	My supervisor is always willing to delegate authority.	1	2	3	4	5
138.	My supervisor supports me if there are problems.	1	2	3	4	5
139.	My supervisor can be relied upon for work related support.	1	2	3	4	5
140.	My co-workers are friendly and nice to work with.	1	2	3	4	5
141.	My co-workers are like family to me.	1	2	3	4	5
142.	I enjoy job-related professional relationships at my work place.	1	2	3	4	5

In this section of the of the questionnaire, we would like to know how far you go beyond your normal duties within the municipality. Using the scale below, please indicate your thoughts by marking an appropriate box with a cross [X].

(1)   =   Not at all
(2)   =   A little
(3)   =   Moderately
(4)   =   A lot
(5)   =   Greatly

Number	Question	Not at all (1)	A little (2)	Moderately (3)	A lot (4)	Greatly (5)
143.	I always help my co-workers with my knowledge when they need me.	1	2	3	4	5
144.	I always help my co-workers with my expertise when they need me.	1	2	3	4	5
145.	I do things for the benefit of the municipality, even if it does not personally benefit me.	1	2	3	4	5
146.	I always defend the municipality when others criticize it.	1	2	3	4	5
147.	I always contribute to the municipality's development.	1	2	3	4	5
148.	I always attend to important meetings within the municipality voluntarily.	1	2	3	4	5
149.	I always make suggestions that will benefit the municipality.	1	2	3	4	5
150.	I always participate in the discussions within the municipality.	1	2	3	4	5

Using the scale below, please indicate the extent to which you perceive the **existence** or **none** existence of external interference in each of the HRM practices listed below by marking an appropriate box with a cross **[X]**. .

(1)   = Totally none existent
(2)   = None existent
(3)   = Don't know
(4)   = Existent
(5)   = Mostly existent

Number	Question	Totally none existent (1)	None existent (2)	Don't know (3)	Existent (4)	Mostly existent (5)
151.	Recruitment	1	2	3	4	5
152.	Selection.	1	2	3	4	5
153.	Compensation.	1	2	3	4	5
154.	Promotion opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
155.	Training opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
156.	Development opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
157.	Performance appraisal.	1	2	3	4	5
158.	Grievance handling.	1	2	3	4	5
159.	Disciplinary handling	1	2	3	4	5

Using the scale below, indicate how **fair** or **unfair** you think your municipality is in the following areas by marking an appropriate box with an **[X]**.

(1)   = Totally unfair
(2)   = Unfair
(3)   = Don't know
(4)   = Fair
(5)   = Very fair

Number	Question	Totally unfair (1)		Unfair (2)	Don't know (3)	Fair (4)	Very fair (5)
160.	Distribution of results after decision making.	1		2	3	4	5
161.	Following procedures in decision making.	1		2	3	4	5
162.	Communication with employees during decision making.	1		2	3	4	5
163.	Communication with employees after decision making.	1		2	3	4	5
164.	Dealing with employees during decision making.	1		2	3	4	5

Thank you for participating.

APPENDIX C – PERMISION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

For brevity, only a few are provided

MANTSOPA
LOCAL MUNICIPALITY
(Incorporating Ladybrand, Tweespruit, Excelsior, Hobhouse & Thaba Patchoa)
(As from 6 December 2000)

Head Office

Private Bag X11 or
P.O. Box 64
LADYBRAND
9745

38 Joubert Street
LADYBRAND
9745

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051-9240655
051-9240657

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9770

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051-9030067

Fax: 051-9030110

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9760

Tel: 051-9730015

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P.O. Box 5
HOBHOUSE
9740

Tel: 051-9830013

Fax: 051-9830152

Hobhouse Way 177
THABA PATCHOA
9771

Tel: 051-9640010

Fax: 051-9640012

File no.:

Contact Person:

Mr S M Selepe

16 October 2013

Professor C Chipunza
Central University of Technology
Free State

PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT AN ACADEMIC SURVEY / STUDY: MRS L W DZANSI

Your letter in the above regard refers.

Permission is hereby granted to Mrs L W Dzansi to conduct her study on "perceptions of human resources practices" within Mantsopa Local Municipality, Ladybrand.

Yours sincerely

S M SELEPE
MUNICIPAL MANAGER
SMS/vv

All correspondence to be addressed to the Municipal Manager

Mafube Municipality

64 J.J. Hadebe Street
P O Box 2
FRANKFORT, 9830

Phone :058 813 1051
Fax   :058 813 3072
E-Mail: info@mafube.gov.za

OFFICE OF THE MUNICIPAL MANAGER

Ref: 4/4/R

Enq: Sipho Radebe

17 September 2013

Faculty of Management Sciences
Central University of Technology
BLOEMFONTEIN
9300

Sir

The letter written on behalf of Mrs. Lineo Dzansi; "**Permission to carry out an academic survey**" (dated 12 Sept 2013) has been received.

The request is granted on condition that:

- There will not be phrases/statements used in your questionnaire that may spark an outrage from the side of the community; media and other government departments.
- Putting together the information may not cause a stir; incite violence; lead to opinions that may lead to tensions; create an impression on colleagues.
- You are prepared; immediately upon receiving the questionnaire; for the municipality to first engage with it (document) and if it happens that there are areas where we feel insensitive those matters can be raised with yourself for clarity.
- We will become a point of distribution and collection for all the questionnaires.
- There are no financial implications on the part of the municipality.
- The municipality will in no way be implicated by any question and that the document becomes the ownership of the University together with the student.
- Upon making final recommendations you will avail the municipality with the findings.
- In an event that the document may be requested by other stakeholders you will be at liberty to make it available e.g CoGTA and the District Municipality.

It is pleasing to have such dealings with the institution since we also have a relationship with regards to our Registration Fees.

We wish your student everything of the best and hope that the responses will be a true reflection of the respondents and in no way do we foresee that as posing a challenge. May her contribution to the body of knowledge also assist government departments as well as other individuals improve on Human Resource Management practices.

Thanking you in advance.

Kind regards

P.I Radebe
Municipal Manager

MASILONYANA
MASEPALA

MUNICIPALITY

MUNICIPAL MANAGER

ADDRESS CORRESPONDENCE TO:

MUNICIPAL MANAGER

RIG ALLE KORRESPONDENSIE AAN:

MUNISIPALE BESTUURDER

MUNISIPALITEIT

MUNISIPALE BESTUURDER

℅ BOX 8, THEUNISSEN, 9410

(057-7330106

22 October 2013

To: **All Departments**
Masilonyana Local Municipality

Sir/Madam

RE: LETTER OF APPROVAL: RESEARCH

Please take note that Me L. Dzansi has been granted a permission to conduct a research in Masilonyana Local Municipality.

It is hoped and trusted that you will find the above in order

Best Regards

D. NTHAU
MANAGER: CORPORATE SERVICES

CC: MR S. MTAKATI: MUNICIPAL MANAGER

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APPENDIX D – PROOF OF LANGUAGE EDITING

COPY § WRITING
SPECIALIST CONSULTANTS

Date: 27/10/2014

CLIENT: Mrs LW Dzansi

I, Dr David Barraclough - an academic editor of twenty years standing - did a

language edit of the D.Tech thesis by Mrs L.W. Dzansi, entitled:

AN ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE PERSPECTIVE ON THE IMPACT OF HUMAN RESOURCE
MANAGEMENT PRACTICES ON THE QUALITY OF SERVICE DELIVERY IN MUNICIPALITIES
IN THE FREE STATE PROVINCE OF SOUTH AFRICA

My amendments related mainly to grammatical and other linguistic aspects, in
order to improve the clarity and readability of the document. I also made
some constructive remarks to improve the content and finalise the referencing

I am a member of the South African Professional Editors' Group.

Yours Sincerely,

Dr D.A. Barraclough
(PhD New South Wales)

PO Box 348, Kloof 3640; cell 081-4047904; fax 086-2186461; info@copywriting.co.za; www.copy-writing.co.za

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