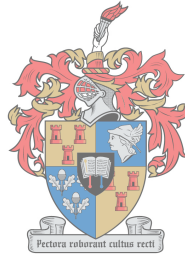# Challenges to the Implementation of Business Process Re-engineering of the Recruitment Process in the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources, Namibia

by

Elizabeth Maraizia Joan Swartz

Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master in Public Administration in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at Stellenbosch University

Supervisor: Dr. Zwelizima Ndevu

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Declaration

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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the implementation of the recruitment process in the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources (MFMR) after business process re-engineering (BPR). The recruitment process was re-engineered due to the sluggish pace at which recruitment was taking place in the Namibian public service.

The study aimed to explore literature on BPR; analyse the legal and regulatory framework within which BPR is applied; describe the application of BPR in the Namibian case study; identify an appropriate research design and methodology to evaluate BPR in the Namibian case; evaluate BPR in the particular case with a view to identifying challenges to and opportunities for implementation; and to consolidate research findings and make recommendations for BPR implementation at the MFMR and other Offices/Ministries and Agencies (OMAs). The researcher used qualitative evaluation implementation design with data being collected through face-to-face interviews with a small selection of stakeholders from the MFMR, the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM) and Fever Tree Consultancy (FTC), as well as document analysis of recruitment at the MFMR.

According to the recruitment policy, the OMAs require 87 days for filling management positions and 57 days for non-management positions after re-engineering. The study found that only two of the MFMR's recruitment for 29 positions were filled within the prescribed timeframe, with the longest taking between five and 771 days beyond the time frame. Among the reasons cited as challenges in the implementation of the recruitment process was the lack of training and education of MFMR staff regarding the re-engineered process; lack of stakeholder involvement in the stages of re-engineering, such as selection, redesign and prioritization; and poor management of change. In addition, the MFMR could not recruit timeously as funding for recruitment was insufficient and office space for new recruits sometimes was inadequate.

The major recommendations are related to the reviewing of the current framework, which was developed and successfully implemented for the issuing of national documents for one ministry, whilst implementation of the recruitment process involved.

Opsomming

Die doel van die studie was om die implementering van die werwingsproses in die Ministerie van Visserye en Mariene Hulpbronne (*MFMR*) ná die herontwerp van die besigheidsproses (*BPR*) te evalueer. Die werwingsproses is herstruktureer weens die lae tempo waarteen werwing in die Namibiese staatsdiens plaasgevind het.

Die studie was daarop gemik om literatuur oor *BPR* te ondersoek die wetlike en regulatoriese raamwerk waarbinne *BPR* toegepas word, te ontleed; die toepassing van *BPR* in die Namibiese gevallestudie te beskryf; 'n toepaslike navorsingsontwerp en metodologie te identifiseer om *BPR* in die Namibiese geval te evalueer; BPR in die spesifieke geval met die oog daarop om uitdagings en geleenthede vir implementering te identifiseer; om navorsingsbevindinge te konsolideer en aanbevelings vir BPR-implementering by die *MFMR* en ander Kantore / Ministeries en Agentskappe (*OMA's*) aan die hand te doen. Die navorser het kwalitatiewe evalueringsimplementeringsontwerp gebruik, met data wat vanaf 'n klein verskeidenheid belanghebbendes uit die *MFMR*, die Kantoor van die Eerste Minister (*OPM*) en Fever Tree Consultancy (*FTC*) deur middel van aangesig-tot-aangesig-onderhoude verkry is, asook met ontleding van dokumentasie betreffende werwing by die MFMR.

Volgens die werwingsbeleid benodig die *OMA's* ná die herontwerp 87 dae om bestuursposisies te vul en 57 dae vir nie-bestuursposte. Die ondersoek het getoon dat slegs twee poste van *MFMR* se werwing vir 29 posisies binne die vasgestelde tydraamwerk gevul was; die langste periode vir die vul van 'n pos was vyf- 771 dae buite die tydraamwerk. Onder die redes wat as uitdagings in die uitvoering van die werwingsproses aangevoer is, was 'n gebrek aan opleiding en onderrig by *MFMR*-personeel rakende die herontwerpte proses; 'n gebrek aan betrokkenheid van belanghebbendes in die stadiums van herstrukturering, soos by seleksie, herontwerp en prioritisering; en swak bestuur van verandering. Daarbenewens kon die *MFMR* nie betyds werf nie, aangesien befondsing vir werwing onvoldoende was en kantoorruimte vir nuwe rekrute soms ook onvoldoende was.

Die belangrikste aanbevelings is verwant aan die hersiening van die huidige raamwerk wat ontwikkel en suksesvol geïmplementeer is vir die uitreiking van nasionale dokumente vir 'n ministerie terwyl die implementering van die werwingsproses voortgaan.

Acknowledgements

The completion of my thesis was a collective effort from my support structures, therefore I have to express gratitude for the support, commitment and encouragement to the following persons for their role in completing the thesis.

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- A special gratitude is extended to my parents Josua and Maria Hoebeb and my sister, Belinda Hoebes whose prayers gave me more strength to complete the research.

- Thank you to all the staff from OPM, FTC and MFMR who assisted me with the coordination of interviews, collection of data as well as literature and sometimes encouragement.

- Lastly, appreciation is extended to Electoral Commission of Namibia, my former employer for financing my studies and Prof Paul Isaak for continuously encouraging me.

Dedication

I would love to dedicate the thesis to my beloved grandmother Elizabeth Loss, who believed in my potential more than I realised.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

1.1. Introduction

This study examined the implementation of the recruitment process after it was re-engineered by the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM). Recruitment in the Namibian public service takes very long and is deemed ineffective. The study focused on the implementation of the recruitment process at the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources (MFMR) in Namibia

The introductory chapter presents a brief background, the rationale and research questions and objectives of the study, as well as the chapter outlines.

1.2. Background and rationale to the study

After independence the government of Namibia initiated administrative reforms for the public service; these reforms were aimed at improving performance, inculcating a culture of professionalism, improve transparency and promoting high-level performance. Similar reforms are being implemented worldwide in the public service, as governments strive to grapple with rapid social, economic, technological and political changes, including the effects of globalisation (Kapachu 2009:1187).

Business Process Re-engineering (BPR) has been implemented since 2006 in the Namibian Public Service; it aims to streamline business processes for effective service delivery and improved performance. Additionally, it was expected that "BPR would complement other reform initiatives such as the performance management system" (Lubinda, n.d.: 5). The reform initiative is spearheaded by the OPM, in the Efficiency and Charter Unit, and stems from the e-Governance policy.

At the start of the BPR initiative the OPM identified 62 functions or functional areas; however, only five Offices/Ministries and Agencies submitted processes for re-

engineering, and trained 250 staff members between 2006 and 2013. Among the processes was the recruitment process. The rationale of the proposed study is to document the implementation of the re-engineered recruitment process, and identify challenges to BPR in the Namibian public service. In essence, the study looked at how the OPM identified processes, redesigning and implemented the recruitment process. It is anticipated that the proposed study would contribute to the debate on public service reform and the implementation of BPR in the public service of Namibia by developing recommendations to address the challenges experienced.

1.3. Theoretical Framework

1.3.1. Business Process Re-engineering: Evolution and Theoretical Perspectives

During the 1970s many corporate businesses in America made large investments in IT with the aim of improving productivity by using computers to automate processes, but this resulted in the productivity paradox of Information Technology (IT). The productivity paradox as explained Brown (2015: 565) is "the question of productivity gains from information technologies", governments are continuously increasing investments in IT in the hopes of increasing productivity, but sometimes the productivity declines. Then in the 1980s there was a move towards quality management when the theory of total quality management (TQM) was being advanced. TQM focused on continuous improvement in quality management and was based on the Japanese ideology of improvement. TQM is defined as "a company-wide effort seeking to install and make permanent a climate where employees continuously improve their abilities to provide on demand products and services that customers will find of particular value" (French, Bell and Zawacki 2005: 29). Carr and Johnsson (1995:16) noted that there was a difference between BPR and TQM; they both are process focused, emphasise teams and shared values, and both use a tool kit for problems solving.

The BPR phenomenon was born in 1990 when Michael Hammer published "Don't Automate, Obliterate" in the *Harvard Business Review*, which combined IT and TQM principles of competitive advantage and continuous improvement and aligned them with

business processes from a cross-functional perspective. In this article Hammer states that BPR should start from scratch, scrapping traditional ways of doing things in order to designing a new way of doing things (Hammer 1990: 104). BPR is defined as "the fundamental rethinking and redesign of the business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical contemporary measures of performance such as cost, quality service and speed" (Hammer and Champy 1993:32). Principles for re-engineering include: organising around outcomes, not tasks; having those who use the output of the process perform the process; treat geographically dispersed resources as though they were centralised; subsume information-processing work into the real; link lateral activities instead on integrating their results; put the decision point where work is performed; and build control into the process (Hammer 1990:108-111). Most other academics such as Zigiaris (2000) and Carr and Johnsson (1995) agree that the application of BPR to processes must start with the alignment of the strategy in the organisation; unproductive uses of time and work should be eliminated; and variations in the procedure and systems identified. In addition BPR must be customer/process focused; people must be empowered; information, training and tools must be provided.

Many writers agree on the generic implementation procedures of BPR, which include preparation and coordination; business diagnosis and measurement; selection of processes for change and modelling; technical design of the solution; personnel adjustments and training; management of change and employee empowerment; introduction of new processes into the business operations; and continuous improvement (Zigiaris 2000:14-17).

Table 1: Re-engineering and other change progammes

	Rightsizing (downsizing)	Restructuring	Automation	TQM	Re-engineering
Assumptions questioned	Staffing	Reporting relationships	Technology applications	Customer needs	Fundamental
Focus of change	Staffing, job responsibilities	Organisation	Systems	Bottom-up improvements in many places	Radical changes over broad core entities
Orientation	Functional	Functional	Procedures	Processes	Processes

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Role of IT	Often blamed	Occasionally	To speed up existing system	Incidental	Key
Improvement goals	Usually incremental	Usually incremental	Incremental	Incremental	Dramatic and Significant
Frequency	Usually one time	Usually one time	Periodic	Continuous	Usually one time

Source: Grover and Malhotra (1997: 198)

Table 1 illustrates how BPR relates to other management processes such as rightsizing, restructuring, automation and TQM. Attaran (2004:593) notes that the challenges with BPR are related to the misunderstanding and misapplication of the term as BPR is confused with TQM, downsizing, restructuring and automation, as illustrated in Table 1.

In Carr and Thomas's book *Best Practices in Re-engineering: What Works and What Doesn't in the Re-engineering Process*, based on a study of 47 businesses, companies should link goals to strategy and manage change. In addition BPR initiatives should be led by project teams, receive ample support from management who manage risks proactively and plan for continuous change.

1.3.2. BPR in the Public Sector

The public sector organisations operate in a very dynamic external environment and, to provide these institutions with a competitive edge, out of the box thinking is required; BPR is one example of such an approach. Johnson and Scholes (2001:271) state that with "the emergence of new public management, public sector organisations have been encouraged to take on principles of the private sector and discard the rigid bureaucracies to become innovative, flexible responsive organisations". The following requirements should be met for BPR to be implemented in the public service, according to Taylor, Snellen and Zuurmond (1997:34) "BPR must be started on a clean slate, processes must be redesigned from scratch". Consideration must be given to the impact of BPR on the organisational design human resources policies and information technology.

Public sector organisations are encouraged to implement BPR in service delivery to improve efficiency, but how does re-engineering work in the public sector? According to

Proctor and Gray (2006:84), BPR in the public sector "can be a very effective tool for introducing cost effective changes into an organisation to the benefit of the organisation and its customers."

It must be noted that not all BPR initiatives are successful. Some challenges faced by the public service when implementing BPR include "lack of management commitment with emphasis on continuity, predictability and fairness, resistance to change, unwillingness to take risks at senior management level and communication with staff" (Harrington, McLoughlin and Riddel 1997:49). Harrington et al (1997:43-50) further indicates that there are degrees of success of BPR, which means that BPR can give an organisation the competitive edge and improve productivity, but it can fail in other areas and not achieve desired outcomes.

A change of organisational culture is required as organisations have to reengineer processes, whilst dependent on the services of other institutions which have not gone through BPR. How effective can the re-engineering exercise be in this case and could this be classified as a challenge to implementing BPR in the public service?

1.3.3. BPR, IT and Change Management

As indicated earlier, re-engineering stems from IT and TQM, then evolved to become more focused on the change management process, but still aimed for quick radical improvement of organisational approaches. Attaran (2004:586) indicates that the relationship between IT and BPR is such that, although IT is an enabler, BPR should be implemented within the capabilities of IT.

The process of introducing change to an organisation is not that different from rearranging furniture; it needs help from a lot of people and requires action that targets different parts of an organisation for action. Therefore the goal of change management is to ensure that the necessary changes of a business process fulfil the following conditions: effectively manage people; informing people of changes; obtaining feedback and constantly

communicating on changes; and training staff on various aspects of changes (Kotter 1996:82).

Davenport (1993:167-197) indicates that there are critical factors to consider that must be understood to manage organisational change associated with process innovation. The change that arises from process innovation are complex and enablers such as IT and people are equally important as management of organisational change.

IT can be used to help and enable BPR implementation by improving speed, storing and retrieving, communicating, controlling process tasks and hence improving quality, monitoring, support decision making, and supporting works functions (Morris and Brandon 1993:203-204). Davenport indicates that IT can be used in the following activities: identification and selecting processes and redesign; identifying enablers for new process design; defining business strategy and process vision; understanding the structure and flow of the current process; designing the new process; prototyping the new process; implementing and operationalising the process and associated systems; communicating ongoing results of the initiative; and building commitment toward the solution at each step (Davenport 1993:200).

1.3.4. BPR Implementation Barriers

Attaran (2004:593-594) states that the barriers to implementing BPR include misunderstanding of the concept, unrealistic objectives, management failure to change, misapplication of the term of BPR, lack of proper strategy, and failing to recognise the importance of people.

Buchanan (1997:51) notes that BPR deals with the re-engineering of processes and focus should be placed on the entire organisation and not only identify processes for re-engineering. He states that there is a need to establish a working balance between individual, occupational and organisational goals considering organisational culture to BPR to a higher state of maturity, as barriers occur in implementation stage.

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Kotter's book *Leading change* (1996) looks at why organisations change initiatives fail and he highlights some success factors that organisations should consider when implementing change. These include allowing "too much complacency, failing to create a sufficiently powerful guiding coalition, underestimating the power of vision, under-communicating the vision by a factor of ten, permitting obstacles to block the new vision, failing to create short-term wins, declaring victory too soon and neglecting to anchor changes firmly in the corporate culture" (Kotter 1996:4-14).

1.3.5. Gap in the Literature

According to Deakins and Makgill (1997:81), BPR was one of "the most eagerly embraced management techniques, although results were far from satisfactory"; this has led to many scholars discussing the challenges and limitations of the theory. Interestingly enough, Deakins and Makgill (1997:104) analysed literature to investigate the decline of BPR and found there was a lack of literature to strengthen BPR and insufficient focus was placed on people and change management; rather the emphasis was on IT as the enabler.

It must be mentioned that there was limited literature on BPR in Africa and Southern Africa, and this made it challenging to assess the implementation of BPR in Africa.

1.4. Research Design
1.4.1. Research Problem

The OPM is the custodian of human resources for the Namibian public service. Human resources can be considered the backbone of the public service as all organisations require people to achieve organisational goals, which highlights the need for effective recruitment. In the absence of effective institutional policies and procedures for recruitment, the public service of Namibia is less likely to achieve the developmental goals outlined in strategic plans.

De Waal identifies six themes that can be used in creating high-performance organisations (HPOs) for the public service: improve the "aura" of public sector managers; strengthen the resoluteness of management; become more innovative to service clients better; improve the performance management process of the organisation; improve process management within the organisation; increase the quality of the workforce" (2010: 91-92). "Technological innovation continues to impact the public sector workplace and public sector has to find new ways to enhance engagement, productivity and high performance" (Manpower n.d.: 1). Namibia, like other public sectors globally, are faced with the challenges caused by changes in the work place. Therefore, to address the challenges, public sector organisations need to develop innovative solutions.

"The first and foremost driver of BPR efforts is therefore the need to be competitive in the areas of cost, quality, lead time, delivery reliability, product characteristics, product support and service and a host of other elements that the ever more sophisticated customer demands" Carr and Johnsson (1995: 6). Currently, the recruitment period of suitable candidates can take up to a minimum of four months and recruitment can extend beyond twelve months. In essence governments' ability to address the developmental challenges is compromised as recruitment is so sluggish. BPR aims towards reducing lead time and focus on improvement. This raises the question of whether there is a correlation between the recruitment process and the success of an organisation. Recruitment helps organisations to bring in the right candidates who will add value to the organisation, so if it done effectively and efficiently, the intended outcome is that effective recruitment will have a positive impact on performance. This indicates that the recruitment process has a direct link to the performance of the public service, because recruitment, selection and staff retention play a key part in the output of the public sector.

Implementing BPR means that the focus shifts to redesigning a process with the purpose of attaining radical change and dramatic improvement as stated by Carr and Johnsson (1995:9). The change is driven by results outcomes which require that the public service organisations improve standards and be classified as HPO's. The strategic alignment of the OPM is to direct OMAs to create an enabling environment and high-performance

culture. Based on De Waal's (2010:81) characterization of HPO's, it is necessary that public sector organisations meet these to improve performance and raise the quality of the workforce.

BPR as one of the reform initiatives in the public sector is being used by the MFMR to improve the working environment. In its efforts to create an HPO and improve performance, the MFMR's implementation of BPR should enable the organisation to rethink, redesign and revisit the recruitment process to eliminate some of the challenges experienced with the current recruitment process. Wärnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2015: 146) state that "unlike work flow analysis, which provides an understanding of how work is being done, re-engineering generates the needed changes in the business process to improve product development customer care and service delivery" as the MFMR intends to do.

1.4.2. Research Question

The main research question for the proposed study is: What are the critical factors for successful implementation of BPR as applied to the recruitment process of the OPM?

1.4.3. Research Objectives

The research objective for the study are as follows:
- To explore literature on business process re-engineering (BPR);
- To analyse the legal and regulatory framework within which BPR is applied;
- To describe the application of BPR in the Namibian case study;
- To identify an appropriate research and design and methodology to evaluate BPR in the Namibian case;
- To evaluate BPR in the particular case with a view of identifying challenges and opportunities for implementation of BPR; and
- To consolidate research findings and make recommendations for improved BPR in the particular case and other Offices/Ministries and Agencies.

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1.4.4. Research Design and Methodology

This section covers the research design and methodology with an implementation evaluative research design and using methodology of interviews and document analysis of primary data. According to Mouton (2001: 158), "evaluation research aims to answer the question whether an intervention has been properly implemented, whether the target group has been adequately covered and the intervention was implemented as designed". This will enable the researcher to gain an insider perspective on the implementation of BPR based on the qualitative nature of the study (Babbie and Mouton 2001: 270).

According to Preskill and Russ-Eft (2005: 3) formative evaluation is "conducted for the purpose of improvement". Therefore, the study will evaluate the implementation of BPR as applied to the recruitment process and identify opportunities and challenges.

The research design will consist of an empirical and a non-empirical component, the latter being the literature review, while the empirical component consists of collecting primary data through administering a questionnaire to the target population.

1.4.5. Data Collection

During the study, data was collected through face to face interviews, using an interview guide for interviews conducted with OPM, FeverTree Consultancy (FTC) and MFMR. The respondents were members of the project team(s) involved in BPR at OPM and FTC and human resource practitioners at MFMR. In addition to this, documentary analysis was conducted by analysing 29 recruitment files, with the aim to assess the period in which vacancies were recruited.

1.4.5.1.   Data Collection Tools

The interview guide was adapted from an existing tool developed by Carr and Johnsson in their book *Best Practices in Re-engineering*. The interview guide was adapted for each

organisation and covered the following sections: background of project, initiation phase, role of consultants, team composition, role of top management, readiness for change, selection and redesigning the process, prioritising and focusing on the process, starting redesign, IT component, transition to implementation, implementation/realisation, education and training, assessment and advice to other government agencies, and focus on pre-implementation of BPR.

1.4.5.2.   Population

The population of the study comprised of persons who were directly involved in the implementation of BPR and re-engineering of the recruitment process. They included the project team from OPM, FTC and the human resource practitioners of the MFMR.

1.4.5.3.   Sampling

"Sampling is a technique employed to select a small group (the sample) with a view to determine characteristics of a large group (the population). If selected, the sample will display the same characteristics or properties as the large group" according to Brynard, Hanekom and Brynard (2014:56). The sampling method used was non-probability sampling and the type of sampling was purposive to include the projects team members, consultants, managers and human resources practitioners. This was due to the fact that only staff who are knowledgeable about BPR and involved in the re-engineering process could be included.

1.4.6. Data Analysis and Interpretation of Results

The data analysis was qualitative in nature and proceeded after data was collected. This included an element of linking theory with data collected; this is because in qualitative data collection theory and analysis are intertwined. The data was processed using coding. According to Babbie (2010:400), coding "is the classification or categorising of individual pieces of data – coupled with some kind of retrieval system".

However, some generic procedures were also applied, which included the preparation of data for analysis, exploring the data, analysing the data, representing the data analysis, interpreting the results and validating the results.

1.5. Ethics

The respondents were informed of ethical issues and organisation and individual permission was sought from OPM, FTC and MFMR to participate in the research.

In addition, interviews were managed in confidential manner and data handled with principles of non-disclosure.

1.6. Reliability and Validity

The reliability and validity of the research tool was ensured by first conducting a pilot run with one respondent to assess the appropriateness of the interview guide. The outcome of the pilot was to improve the guide before application.

In addition, Mouton (2001:7) advises that records be kept of all data collected, manage interview and record all interactions with population as part of quality assurance. In the case of the interviews for the study, records are kept in accordance to the requirements of the University of Stellenbosch for ethics and no interviews were recorded as permission was not granted by the respondents.

1.7. Outline of Chapters

The study consists of seven chapters; of which chapter 1 presents the background of the study, research objectives and research problems. Chapter 2 gives an overview of literature and analyses the application of BPR, managing of change, BPR and IT, re-design of processes, highlights challenges of BPR in public sector. Chapter 3 describes the policy and regulatory framework which stems from the constitution to laws and policy

regulating recruitment and BPR such as e-Governance policy, labour Act and Public Service Act. In chapter 4, the researcher discusses the case study which explains the institutional and historical framework of BPR as well as the recruitment process. Chapter 5 covers the methodology, looking at aspects of research design, population, sampling criteria for selection, the interview as data-collection method, analysis of data and issues of ethics, validity and reliability. Data analysis and presentation of results is outlined in chapter 6 and, lastly, chapter 7 is the presentation of the findings, recommendations and conclusion of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review on Business Process Re-Engineering

2.1 Introduction

Organisations have implemented various reform initiatives in an attempt to gain a competitive advantage for survival and improving performance. Since the 1990s business process re-engineering (BPR) has been a popular management approach that has enabled organisations to introduce change with the aim of moving away from current business practices through process innovation. According to Hammer (quoted in Kai 1994: 12), BPR is defined as "the fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical contemporary measures of performance, such as cost, quality, service and speed". This results in organisations redesigning processes radically and dramatically to improve performance, cost and quality, consequently improving organisational efficiency and effectiveness.

Research shows that BPR emerged in North America, where it was popularised by consulting agencies, books, articles in journals written predominately by Hammer and Champy and Davenport, (quoted in Melão and Pidd, 2000:106). Initially the concept was implemented primarily by private sector organisations, but later the public sector followed suit, with the application of its principles and methodologies to improve public sector service delivery. BPR requires organisations to challenge the status quo of how they do business. Internal and external environmental factors and pressures, such as globalisation and innovation, required public sector organisations with limited resources to find new ways to meet the demands of the citizenry. As a result, public sector organisations started to replace outdated work processes with streamlined processes that produced efficient and effective goods and services.

This chapter intends to explore literature on business process re-engineering (BPR) in order to improve the understanding of BPR, assess why organisations re-engineer, identify challenges or barriers with BPR implementation, provide an overview of some

public sector reforms paradigms and related management concepts, applicability of BPR to the public sector and discuss the enablers of BPR.

2.2 The Need for Business Process Re-engineering

The intention of this section is to determine why organisations choose to re-engineer their operations, as well as to determine the benefits gained from BPR and identify the type of organisations that use BPR and when.

The importance of BPR must first be emphasised before any consideration can be given to the abovementioned aims. BPR is considered important as it promises to initiate major changes with less effort, which is important for organisational survival. Hence, BPR is simpler than most management approaches, as it requires that adjustments be made to processes that aim "to facilitate the match between market opportunities and corporate capabilities, and in doing so, ensure corporate growth" (O'Neill and Sohal 1999: 572). This means that re-engineering is used for the sake of organisational survival through continuous improvement. Al-Mashari, Irani and Zairi (2001: 452) state that re-engineering deals with the pressure "related to competitiveness and improving standards. In doing so, the organisation gets rid of the old ways of the past [and] introduces new ways that need to be incorporated in the processes".

Studies have shown that "BPR can create higher customer satisfaction, increase productivity build flexibility in business processes and improve organisational integrity, which shall lead to competitive advantage for the firm" (Smith, Meade, Wolf and Song 2013:48). Increasing of productivity was proven by Hammer (1990:105) when he illustrated that the use of BPR at the Mazda production plant reduced the staff required for accounts payable, whilst the Ford production plant needed 400 accounts payable officers to perform the same function. Ford used computers to initially increase the speed of processing accounts payable, but the process remained slow and cumbersome, but after re-engineering the process, productivity improved, making the change radical. Although BPR application is more prominent in the private sector, it does add value to

service delivery in the public sector. Public sector organisations' focus is on improving efficiency and effectiveness, and finding the means to redesign outdated public sector processes (Rinaldi, Motanari and Botani 2015: 419), making BPR a valuable reform tool. This claim is supported by Fragaso (2015: 283), who states that "reforms aim to reverse well-known deficiencies, especially the quality of services, their effectiveness and management efficiency". Consequently, BPR's goal is to gain a competitive advantage in organisations, irrespective of which sector it is applied to, as BPR intends to aid organisations to achieve their goals and objectives. According to Attong and Metz, the need for change is important, because as an "organization moves forward to achieve its vision and goals, it plans, prioritizes and affects actions" (2012:19).

Zigaris states that organisations must have a "minimum number of employees (20, at least 4 in management positions); strong management commitment to new ways and innovation; and a well-informed IT infrastructure" (2000:13). Despite the fact that there are measurable outcomes to re-engineering, such as customer cost reduction, improved productivity and service quality, there are criteria for re-engineering which must be met before an organisation embarks on BPR. In addition, Zigiaris (2000:13) points out that companies facing problems such as "high operational costs; low quality offered to customers; high level of bottleneck; processes at peak season; poor performance of middle-level managers; inappropriate distribution of resources and jobs in order to achieve maximum performance".

Zigaris (2000) claim is supported by Hammer and Champy (1993) (quoted in O'Neill and Sohal 1999:573) identify three kinds of companies that undertake re-engineering: "companies that find themselves in deep trouble, companies that are not in trouble but whose management can see trouble coming; companies that are in peak condition". This indicates that organisations do not re-engineer solely on the basis of benefits accrued, but based on a need for continued existence. Therefore, when organisations are faced with major threats, risks or opportunities, they are prompted to initiate a reform agenda such as indicated in Table 1.

Influential writers such as Grover and Malhotra (1997) and O'Neill and Sohal (1999) have presented the results of BPR as applied to American companies such Ford, Mutual Benefit Life, Xerox and Detroit Edison. The results showed radical and dramatic changes that led to improved productivity. These changes were initiated through a combination of consultant programmes which engaged the idea of "redesigning business processes to improve quality by using process control, adapting to economic pressures to ensure companies are flexible and responsive, the productivity paradox effects, the popularising of the articles and books on BPR and the aggressive adoption of BPR as consultants started to use these results for repackaging of BPR" (Grover and Malhotra 1997:196).

Halachmi (1996:12) states that for organisations to improve organisational effectiveness BPR encourages "searching for radical improvement in business processes enabled by exploiting the powers of information technology; breaking away from the antiquated ways and processes of business operations and starting with a clean slate; viewing (and reviewing) the fundamental business processes from a cross-functional perspective; eliminating activities (or merging them with others, if elimination is not possible) through the use of information technology where possible; questioning whether the process is necessary and what it intends to achieve; searching systematically for radical changes to effect major improvements or breakthroughs in business processes and outcomes, not tasks; developing a customer-focused, results-oriented and team-based approach".

This means that organisations must understand why they are re-engineering, have drivers and enablers for BPR, such as improvements in operational problems related to productivity, quality, performance, cost and service. BPR requires organisations to challenge the status quo in terms of how they do business; however, this requires that organisations identify re-engineering opportunities, manage re-engineering, control risks and maximise benefits and organisational changes to be able to successfully implement BPR and improve performance.

The next section focuses on defining BPR and to clarify any misunderstandings about the concept and delimit the scope of the study.

2.3 Defining Business Process Re-engineering

Like most management approaches, BPR is subjected to confusion around the definition of what it entails. In an attempt to clarify methodology and develop a theoretical framework, different schools of thought have developed around the concept. This section will cover the evolution of BPR and analyse the various definitions that have been proposed.

Defining BPR is no simple tasks; therefore to gain a better understanding of the concept, the evolution of BPR must be understood. All the literature points to the article by Michael Hammer (1990), "Re-engineering work: don't automate, obliterate" published in 1990, which advocated for companies not only to automate work, but rather for them to re-engineer processes completely. It is from this article that the most frequently used definition of BPR is drawn. Books by Hammer and Champy *Re-engineering the Corporation* (1993) and Davenport *Re-engineering Process Innovation* (1990) followed. This hype resulted in many consultants expanding the theory of bringing about change by rethinking and redesigning business processes by effecting some major changes in companies such as FORD, IBM, Xerox. These cases were then taken and benchmarked in various sectors such as manufacturing and production.

Table 2: Definitions of business process re-engineering

Author	Definition/Emphasis
Davenport and Short (1990)	Focused on the analysis and design of workflows and processes within and between organizations.
Hammer and Champy (1993)	Promoted fundamental rethinking and radical redesign of business processes to achieve dramatic improvements in critical, contemporary measures of performance such as cost, quality, service and speed.
Talwar (1993)	Focused on the rethinking, restructuring and streamlining of the business structure, processes, methods of working, management systems and external relationships through which value is created and delivered.
Petrozzo and Stepper (1994)	Believe that BPR involves the concurrent redesign of processes, organizations and their supporting information systems to achieve radical improvements in time, cost, quality and customers regard for the company's product and service.

Lowenthal (1994)	Described the fundamental rethinking and redesign of operating processes and organizational structure, the focus is on the organization's core competencies, to achieve dramatic improvements in organizational performance, as BPR's essential components.

Source: O'Neill and Sohal (1999:573-574)

Table 2 presents early definitions of BPR. Davenport and Short (1990 quoted in O'Neill and Sohall 1999: 573) present a very narrow definition where the focus is merely on process improvement and analysis of workflows and process. Hammer and Champy's (quoted in O'Neill and Sohall 1999: 573) definition underscores the redesign of processes and the changes expected as outcomes reflected directly in cost, speed, performance or quality. Talwar (quoted in O'Neill and Sohall 1999: 573) discusses the streamlining of more aspects besides the processes, including the strategies, management systems and stakeholder relationships. Petrozzo and Stepper (quoted in O'Neill and Sohall 1999: 574) introduce an interesting angle which looks at the concurrent redesigning of processes, organisations and information systems to achieve radical improvements. Lowenthal (quoted in O'Neill and Sohall 1999: 574) focuses on an organisation's core competencies; this would mean that you need to establish why the organisation exists and what intends to achieve and who is responsible for doing that. In a nutshell, as you look at the chronological presentation of the definitions, it seems that they start relatively narrowly, focus on processes, and then expand to take account of the required change. BPR had an impact on various aspects of the organisation and that these mammoth tasks of redesigning must take place concurrently to streamline processes and the analysis must be conducted on the core competencies of the organisation for dramatic changes to take place.

It is interesting to note that the definitions in Table 2 start with a narrow focus in 1990 but have expanded in range by 1994. Although the focus remains on BPR, the viewpoint each offers is slightly different, as if they are all moving towards a consideration of the way that BPR impacts on organisations. Therefore, as indicated by Halachmi (1996:9-10), BPR needs thorough analysis, before implementation, analysis inclusive of the current work processes, determining the extent of change, determining how the change will impact on

the organisation and assessing the results of continuous improvement. This includes structural and organisational changes based on the type of change being effected.

Kai, Grover and Malhotra and Manganelli and Klein (quoted in Fragaso 2015: 383) present four key elements of BPR:

(1) fundamental: this requires that the organisation does an analysis of current practices and decides upon future practices;

(2) radical: this is the degree to which the old practices get changed and/or in extreme cases may be abolished;

(3) dramatic: BPR is a huge task and the effects need to be evident; and

(4) processes: without processes there can be no redesign, therefore making it the most important element.

Grover and Malhotra (1997: 205-206) note in the same vein that IT is a critical enabler and must be viewed as an additional element, although some organisations are still able to re-engineer without or limited use of IT. Although most organizations success with BPR is related to the use of IT as an enabler.

Zigiaris notes that BPR has an impact on the "technological, human resources and organizational dimensions" of an organisation (2000: 2), meaning that there need to be enablers to add value to the organisation, namely IT. Hammer (1990: 104) states that IT should not only be used to speed up work and mechanise old processes, but should be used to analyse the redesigning of process to be able to add value to the organisation. The changes that occur in the organisation based on the definitions could have an effect on more areas that just work flow and analysis.

Despite what is discussed above, Davenport (1993:2) indicates that "re-engineering is only part of what is necessary in the radical change of processes; it refers specifically to the design of the new process". More consideration must be given to

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understanding BPR in a holistic manner, which includes the spectrum of elements presented by Talwar (quoted in O'Neill and Sohal 1999:574) in Table 2.

The question is why an organisation uses BPR, Al Mashari et al. points out that BPR seems to be more attractive as it shows quick results with immediate benefits and increased results and strives towards achieving business excellence (2001:439).

Although a common definition has been identified for the purposes of the study, it is important to differentiate BPR from other management approaches to clarify confusion about their usage and scope.

2.4 BPR and Other Management Approaches

The introduction of BPR follows other reform initiatives or approaches as illustrated by O'Neill and Sohal (1999) see Table 1, making it confusing to distinguish between BPR and these reform initiatives.

Based on challenges experienced with various reform initiatives, it has resulted in the evolution of change management programmes such as rightsizing, restricting, automation, TQM and BPR. It was found that BPR has similar effects on organisations because of the changes it can bring about as illustrated in Table 1.   The main aspects that differentiates BPR from other change management programmes. Among the approaches re-engineering is the only approach that focuses on process, whilst the others range from job responsibilities, organisation and bottom-up improvements. The change in BPR is dramatic, whilst the other change programmes see change occurring in an incremental manner. However, Grover and Malhotra (1997: 197) point out that there are some similarities between BPR and TQM, although TQM involves continuous improvement, whilst BPR requires radical and big changes in business processes (Martonova 2013:56). As Davenport (1993:3) indicates, re-engineering is more than the redesigning of new processes, but requires "envisioning of new work strategies, the actual process design activity, and the implementation of the change in all its complex

technological, human and organizational dimensions". Therefore, it is likely that BPR has an impact on more than one area (process) of the organisation. Smart, Maddern and Maull (2009:493) note that "process thinking has taken a more prominent place with regard to process innovation".

2.4.1   BPR and Public Sector Reforms

In respect to the public sector there have been reforms ideologies starting from bureaucracies, public administration, and new public management moving towards to new public governance including the managing of networks and changing role of managers. All these reforms were developed to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the public sector. As these reforms have been implemented, there were challenges experienced which according to Weerdakkody, Janssen and Dwevedi (2011: 320 - 321) state that this specific challenges relating to in transformational change is similar to those of implementing BPR, especially since both management approaches deal with radical change in the public sector, which can be multifaceted and complex.

As BPR is being used as a reform tool in the public sector, this sub-section emphasises government response to the changing environment and problems of the citizenry. Therefore, the researcher will take a closer look at other management approaches such as new public governance, public value and co-production in efforts of transforming governments.   The change was prompted by economic and fiscal pressures on governments, globalization, and complex social problems.

New Public Governance is seen as a new paradigm shift from traditional public administration and new public management, which advocated for the use of private sector principles in managing the public sector business. Klijn and Koppenjan (2012) state that the major drawback of new public management did not deal with "the complexities, interdependencies and dynamics of public problems solving and service delivery" (2012:187). New public governance based on governance network theory, which in principle states that government service delivery is interdependent and to achieve policy

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outcomes and requires manager(s) to administer the networks to be able provide services, especially complex problems that require more actors and institutional dependency. In new public governance it is presumed that the public sector steps in where the private sector is not able to produce goods and services and allows for citizen engagement or stakeholder participation for integrated service delivery through collaboration between government institutions and stakeholders. Therefore at the end of the day, it is a network of stakeholder providing various input to solve or provide complex services, which the government is unable to provide singlehandedly.

There are elements of co-production in new public governance, as managers are expected to manage and guide the various stakeholders, manage resources for network build trust among stakeholders and develop a steady partnership. According to Klijn and Koppenjan (2012) network management activities include "facilitating interactions, exploring (new) content and organizing interaction between actors. The horizontal nature of network management implies that it is a different activity compared to traditional intra-organizational management" (2012: 191). Koppenjan (2012: 23) also notes "network governance, may have drawbacks such as lengthy deliberations with high transaction costs, resulting in ineffective out-comes and deals that are not transparent", making it complex in itself to manage.

In the case of co-production, Boivard and Loeffler (2012: 1119) argue that "user and community co-production has always been important, but rarely noticed. However, there has recently been a movement towards seeing co-production as a key driver for improving publicly valued outcomes, e.g. through triggering behaviour change and preventing future problems". Co-production tries to change mindsets that government services can be provided by involving the user or user community, instead of only public servants engaging in such activties. User and community co-production is defined by Boivard (quoted in Boivard and Loeffler 2012: 1121) as "the provision of services through regular, long term relationships, between professional service providers and service users or between professionalised services (in any sector) and service users or other members of the community, where all parties make subtantial resource contributions". This means

that users and community members can be involved at different levels of producing services such as "co-planning of policy, co-design of services, co-prooritisation of services, co-financing of services, co-delivery of services, co-assessment of services". The truth is sometimes governments are not able to do everything and need assistance and co-production allows for stakeholder engagement at many levels from input to output according to Boivard and Loeffler (2012:1126). Nevertheless, there are barriers to co-production such as "funding, commissioning barriers, difficulties in generating evidence of value for people, professionals, fundders and auditirs, need to develop the professional skills to mainstream co-production, riskk aversion, political an professional relectance to loose status and control" Boivard and Loeffler 2012:1130).

Co-production deals with realizing the desirable outcomes and the satisfaction of citizens who have seen a collective need, fashioned a public response to that need, and thereby participated in the construction of community. Value added in the public sector has several dimensions: user value, value to wider groups, social environmental value, and political value Boivard and Loeffler (2012: 1129).

All the reform paradigms such as co-production and new public governance aim to improve efficiency and effectiveness of government development, economic or social efforts. Hence it is important for government to assess the value of the reform initiatives against the actual outcomes. Public Value is essentially created when government uses its authority to ensure that "what the public most cares about is addressed effectively and what is good for the public is put in place first" according to Bryson, Crosby and Bloomberg (2014: 446). This means that government plays not only the role of solving societal problems but its manager convener and collaborator. Thus government "plays an active role in helping create and guide networks of deliberation and delivery and help maintain and enhance the overall effectiveness, accountability and capacity of systems; responsive to elected officials, citizens, and an array of other stakeholders, secretion is needed but constrained by law, democratic and constitutional values, and a broad approach to accountability" Bryson et al (2014:446).

This means that governments have to promote reform initiatives such as BPR knowing that it no longer is the only stakeholder in solving complex problems, but must find ways to establish networks, manage the networks, ensure that all stakeholders benefit mutually from initiatives, and obtain input from users and user communities.

Oberoi states that "Reengineering is a popular approach for restructuring efforts of public sector organizations. Initially envisaged as a technique designed to introduce radical changes in improving business operations and competitiveness (Hammer and Champy, 1993), reengineering principles and techniques have currently attracted and influenced policymakers, professionals and scholars in public administration" (2013: 295). This makes BPR more of a strategic management tool for the organistion and the BPR initiative as noted by Taher and Krotov (2016: 157).

According to Weerakkody et al (2011: 320 - 321) transformational change can take place on different levels based on their case study in British and Dutch public services. The British public service introduced technology to implement government service delivery, whilst the Dutch public service reform was geared towards improving back office services to eliminate the administrative burden of the public service through co-production and creation of networks to provide services. Therefore, the public service can introduce change not only by applying a reform tool such as BPR but looking at change barriers and challenges before embarking on the change initiative and identifying paradigms that can guide the implementation of the reform tool.

2.4.2 Understanding Total Quality Management

Chang states that "TQM initial ideas were developed by William Edwards Deming, Joseph Duran and Kaoru Ishikawa in the 1940s. But it was not until the 1980s that the high market pressure, particularly coming from Japanese enterprises, led to a widespread use of TQM" (Chang 2012:47). Then in the 1990s BPR came to the forefront; however, there were still some remnants of TQM, as TQM features predominately in the evolution of BPR.

According to Motwani, Kumar and Jiang (1998:964) BPR "radically departs from other popular business practices like total quality management, lean production, downsizing or continuous improvement". This is because process redesign affects internal organisation aspects such as product delivery, corporate strategy and human resource requirements. Ishikawa (quoted in Martonova 2013:57) states that "TQM is based on the principle of continuous improvement of products and processes aimed at continually satisfying customer expectations regarding quality, cost delivery and service".

As depicted in Table 2, the goal of TQM is to improve quality in products or services as per the customer needs/expectations. Davenport (1993: 61) states that "TQM or continuous improvement means programmes and initiatives which emphasise incremental improvement in work processes and outputs over an open-ended period of time". Since the improvement is incremental, TQM real results become evident only after a long time. Oakland (quoted in O'Neill and Sohal 1999: 575) indicate that the aim of TQM "is to continuously improve performance to satisfy customer requirements". The rationale of TQM, then, is to improve processes by focusing on the quality based on customer requirements and needs, making the customer central to the change programme. Once customer needs are established, this information is used to analyse how the work processes can be incrementally changed to generate more output for the organisation.

The critique of TQM in Al Nofal, Al Omaim and Zairi (n.d.:2) includes factors such as "the focus on internal processes rather than external results, focus on minimum standards, does not require radical organisational reform, it does not demand relationship with outside stakeholders, overemphasis on technical tools and tries one size fits all solution" among others.

However, authors such as Klein (quoted in O'Neill and Sohal 1999:575) suggest that BPR is much more radical than TQM, while others such as Davenport, Harrison and Pratt (quoted in O'Neill and Sohal 1999:575), suggest that TQM and BPR should form an integrated strategic management system within an organisation. "Davenport suggests there is a need to undertake process analysis in order to identify which processes should

be re-engineered, and which should be managed on the basis of continuous improvement" (quoted in O'Neill and Sohal 1999:575). In re-engineering compared to TQM is more radical in the sense it goes beyond the minimum standard to provide total improvement in a specific area or process.

Looked at this way, "TQM and BPR can be considered as two distinct and different approaches capable of coexisting in the same organisation, but used at different times to achieve different levels of performance improvement" (O'Neill and Sohal, 1999: 576). This means that BPR and TQM can function jointly to contribute to a total quality framework that will benefit the whole organisation.

2.4.3 Understanding Business Process Re-engineering

To gain a better understanding we start off by looking at the principles of BPR as presented by Hammer (1990) in his article entitled "Re-engineering work: don't automate, obliterate" as it lays the foundation for the concept of BPR. Hammer developed the concept of re-engineer as the results of other process improvement approaches were not attainable over short periods when compared to the high investment in innovation and technology. It was found that organisations only employed technological solutions, but continued to work based on old work processes. Therefore, he advocate 'obliteration' and not 'automation' (Hammer, 1990). The fundamental principle was re-engineering needed to make radical improvements in performance, speed and cost hence, organisation were advised to use technology to redesign business processes instead of adopting automation with no visible results. Therefore, the processes of doing work had to be thrown out so that the organisation could start over. However, he advocated for seven principles to be considered during re-engineer.

The seven principles of re-engineering are as follows: "organize around outcomes, not tasks; have those who use the output of the process perform the process; subsume information processing work into the real work that produces information; treat geographically dispersed resources as though they were centralized; link parallel

activities instead of integrating results; put the decision point where the work is performed and build control into the process and capture information once and at the source" (Hammer 1990: 104). Halachmi and Boivard (1997: 228-229) sum BPR up as involving "analysis and inductive reasoning as BPR provides a better understanding of issues and problems that the organisation needs to address, and does an analysis to see how the organisation can best address these identified problems and then once the gap is identified between capabilities and issues, the organisation can proceed with the BPR initiative which will address the issues or problems". Therefore, BPR is part of the strategic thinking of an organisation and looks at abolishing processes that that do not add value to the organisation.

In the 1990s the emphasis on TQM shifted to BPR; "re-engineering became a significant management fashion in 1994 because its claims were rationally persuasive and it was seen as representing progress over the existing incremental model of organisational change as exemplified by total quality management" (Graham and Williams 2005:164) as the goal of BPR is to make a breakthrough gain and achieve dramatic improvements, while TQM focuses only on improving quality through continuous improvement based on customer needs or expectations. Halachmi (1996: 12), notes the following elements as part of BPR initiatives: "A complete challenge to the existing situation, radical redesign, strategizing for enhancing value".

BPR is a blending of process management, usage of workflow management systems and applications integration. It requires compliance with business objectives through executive, administrative and supervisory control over processes, resulting in changes in processes, information technology, organizational structures, management and people are included. Thus the outputs of BPR should not only achieve the company's objectives, but also need to satisfy customers' requirements, making BPR a tool to address both customer and organisational objectives (Oberi, 2013: 294).

Success factors of BPR are highlighted as "organization-wide commitment, BPR team composition, business needs analysis, adequate IT infrastructure, effective change

management and ongoing continuous improvement" (Hussein, Bazzi, Dayekh and Hassan 2013: 31). When comparing the principles presented by Hammer and the success factors provided by Hussein et al., it is evident that there are some commonalities in the principles for the management of change. Hammer (1990) looks only at achieving dramatic improvement, but does not state exactly how the organisation-wide commitment will be achieved, hence he coined classical re-engineering.

In terms of the critique of BPR, Al-Mashari et al. identify some problems associated with re-engineering: "BPR appeals to senior managers because it promises the quickest shortcut to success and business excellence; the concept itself has a lot of appeal because it is simple to absorb and its rules are not too complex; BPR promises immediate benefits and major leaps in competitive performance. This is very compatible with a culture of short-termism in the west; BPR is promoted as a better alternative to other modern management concept such as TQM, since it is supposed to be less costly to implement and guarantees real benefits much more quickly; and BPR in most cases refers to the implementation of hard solutions dealing with soft problems, thus suggesting that use of IT for instance will go a long way to making business more effective and securing future competitiveness" (2001: 439).

As academics start looking at the extent to which BPR is successful it became evident that, organisations that have used BPR may want to use TQM to sustain their BPR efforts and encourage the integration of the two approaches. Thus, the recommendation from Martonova (2013: 63) is to start reform with TQM and continue with BPR.

2.4.4   Understanding Business Process Management

According to Underdahl (2011: 5), BPM is an approach designed to produce better processes and entails a collaboration between business units and IT by taking a holistic approach. BPM is considered to be more a holistic approach to process management, as it provides tools to support the analysis of business processes and ensures organisation-wide application. It aims to improve productivity, reduce costs, and meet customer and

business needs, similarly to BPR. Additional benefits from the use of BPM include linking processes to the strategic objectives of an organisation and this ensures that an organisation is process-focused. Therefore BPM empowers organisations to use limited resources in an innovative manner to "increase productivity, speed to market, reaching the global market, achieving compliance and accelerating innovation" (Underdahl 2011: 6). This agility and flexibility allow organisations to meet the needs of the customer and be the winner at the end of the day.

According to Chang (2012: 49), BPM consists of "coordinated tasks, to record, improve and integrate processes of the organisation; thus BPM is considered as a system of linked processes".

Table 3: Tools and techniques of business process management

Principles	Tools
1. Business processes (BP) are central assets of the organisation to meet customer requirements.	1. Establish process-focused organisation structures
2. As assets, BP must be managed explicitly	2. Nominate process owners as they are responsible for the success of their processes.
3. BP must be improved continuously	3. Upper management must support and promote BPM. The process is improved from a bottom-up approach.
4. The use of IT is essential for the success of BPM, as IT delivers information required to manage the BP.	4. Establish IT systems to monitor, control, analyse and improve business processes.
	5. Collaborate with business partners that are involved in common cross-functional organisational business processes.
	6. Train the employees regularly and continuously improve the business process.
	7. Combine process improvement with bonus payments and awards.
	8. Utilise both incremental process improvement measures such as Six Sigma and more radical approaches such as BPR.

Source: Chang (2012: 49-51)

According to Chang (2012: 49-51), BPM is defined based on four principles and eight tools as indicated in Table 3. In this management approach the central focus of the organisation is on processes and the key stakeholders involved in BPM, so the process is designed according to the customers' needs. This requires constant improvement of the business processes and BPM uses IT as an enabler, to manage the business process.

To allow for smooth implementation, the organisation is required to empower the staff so that they are able to own the processes of business improvement. Looking at the principles and tools utilised for BPM, according to Chang, one can compare them and note that it seems that BPR is only part of BPM, as there are once again some subtle differences.

Al-Mashari et al. (2001:450) note that BPR must adopt a more holistic approach which includes a number of elements. To encompass that approach "BPR strategy must be developed in the light of internal threats and opportunities and risks; there is a need to create a knowledge base culture in the institution; an integrative approach to BPR implementation should include the identification of areas that need improvement and of synchronised strategies to achieve this; BPR should use sound methodologies, tools and techniques for BPR implementation; IT must be used as an enabler as well as support; change management includes technical and structural change, and attention should be devoted to both; and at the onset of the BPR implementation the reorganization should decide on the type of change BPR is geared towards, which can be either continuous or dramatic".

According to the principles for re-engineering by Hammer (1990: 108-111), it is noted that the re-engineering starts off with destroying the processes in place and then, based on outcomes, starts reorganising the process. BPM, on the other hand, deals more with gearing the organisation to become more process focused in a strategic manner.

2.4.5   Understanding Business Process Improvement

Process management deals with strategic thinking, allowing for organisations to assess business processes prior to embarking on process management approaches. Wong, Ahmad, Nasurdin and Mohammad (2013: 559) define BPI as all efforts in an organisation to analyse and continually improve fundamental activities such as manufacturing, marketing communications and major elements of the company's operation. BPI is

defined by Davenport (1993:11) as "an incremental bottom-up enhancement of existing processes with functional borders".

These are the basic 5 steps of BPI: defining, analysing, redesigning, monitoring and controlling of new process in the organisation. Attong and Metz (20:57) state that BPI "is achieved be examining and understanding the why, what and how of the process and demystifying the interaction between the people, process and technology". This is due to the fact that it is expected that, after BPI has been implemented, people are empowered, processes simplified and technology used to simplify complex actions, and the process must take into consideration the organisation's goals and strategic position. Lewin (quoted in Forster 2006:2) developed a holistic framework for change inclusive of three steps: "(1) unfreezing of an existing situation, (2) change takes place, and (3) the refreezing of the new situation". According to Halachmi and Boivard (1997:228) BPR is mostly about analysis and inductive reasoning, as it contributes to better understating of the problems and issues; analysis is done to establish how the organisation can address the problems and issues; the gap between the issues and new possibilities is defined and then the problem solving can start.

A short analysis of BPI, based on the steps of process improvement, shows that there is one major difference and some similarities between BPR and BPI. In BPI an analysis is done of the organisation's goals and strategic vision, but in BPR the analysis is of the process (es) at the current stage; the organisation will then decide the degree of change, which in BPI is incremental and continuous, while BPR advocates for radical and dramatic changes. Thereafter, BPI and BPR both have similarities regarding the use of IT as an enabler, conducting an analysis of the redesigned process and then move on to the implementation stage. Van der Aalst and Van Hee (n.d: 1) state that among the tools and techniques used for BPI are problem solving, process mapping, process flow charting, cause and effect diagrams and control charts which are similar to tools used in BPR, though this will be discussed in the next section.

Attong and Metz (2012:60) have identified four key critical factors for successful BPI: collaboration, facilitation, safety and limited use of consultants. Collaboration between the BPR team and the organisation's staff to ensure a holistic implementation facilitation requires that all the key stakeholders be encouraged to share input for the improvement of processes; safety ensures that the work environment allows for the change to be introduced, controlled and managed; and limited use of consultants promotes ownership of BPI from the perspective of the team that implements the processes, as it is assumed that they have more knowledge on the process than the consultant would.

The next section looks at the tools and techniques used for BPR, as they are important components of BPR implementation.

2.5 BPR Tools and Techniques

This section reviews the tools and techniques for the implementation of BPR, with an emphasis on five tools in particular: process visualisation, change management, benchmarking, simulation and project management.

According to Attong and Metz (2012: 19), change needs to be introduced in a controlled manner. Therefore, before choosing tools and techniques, an organisation must first decide on the degree of change required, and then choose the tools and techniques to be used. Keeping in mind the outcome of BPR, the organisation must decide whether it will require a change in levels of customer satisfaction, or to reduce cost, improve quality of services or products and improve productivity of employees.

O'Neill and Sohal state that "While some authors appear to suggest that tools and techniques are the key, most authors suggest a strategic approach to BPR, and the development of a BPR strategy is the key to success" (1999:575). This again points to a holistic approach to be taken from strategic planning perspective to manage the culture of the organisation as it strives towards implementing change. The claim of O'Neill and Sohal (1999) is supported by De Boer, Muller and Canten (2015:909-910), who state that

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BPR models should indicate strategic alignment, governance, methods, people and culture, making them all inclusive.

Van der Aalst and Van Hee (n.d.: 10) and O'Neill and Sohal (1999: 574-575) indicate that there are several techniques that support BPR initiatives, such as flow charts, decision trees, fishbone diagrams hierarchy charts, data-flow diagrams and business activity maps, process visualisation, process mapping/operational method study, change management, benchmarking and process, customer focus, simulation, project approach, and high-level petri nets.

Fragaso (2015:384) points out that despite the tools and techniques used, there are three critical components to aid successful BPR implementation "BPR must be implemented by a process design team under the auspices of a senior manager; the senior manager must manage the implementation with a team; and the organization must enlist the assistance of a BPR expert". The project management principles are applied throughout from project planning to project termination. The components indicated by Fragaso (2015) are related to the project approach, which requires "the incorporation of project management principles in the planning, design and execution of BPR projects" (Narasimhan and Jayaram 1997: 48).

According to Kai (1994:77-19), process visualisation for BPR occurs "when the organization visualizes the ideal end state of a process and the operations of all its components.

Change management occurs "when the organization takes into account the human aspects of re-engineering, item managing of organizational change" (O'Neill and Sohal 1999: 575). According to Attong and Metz change management is a very important tool as it is used to assist organisations to deal with resistance to change, fear and cultural shifts, empowering employees and creating the sense of ownership with them (2012: 20-26).

Benchmarking has become one of the more popular tools for BPR implementation, according to O'Neill and Sohal (1999) and Juan and Ou-Yang (2004). Benchmarking takes place "when the organization redesigns processes but uses methods tried by other organizations" (O'Neill and Sohal 1999: 575). Juan and Ou-Yang indicate that "it must be implemented when an organisation requires knowledge of the gaps between best practices and a business process for the redesign of business processes" (2004: 1325). This gap analysis is aimed at improving an understanding of the processes and assists in the redesigning of processes.

Simulation is normally used when a BPR project is not easily implementable, but requires something similar to a pilot study to assess performance prior to implementation. Rinalidi et al. (2015: 419) developed a simulation model for BPR implementation with the aim of improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the Italian public administration. The authors explain how the AS-IS (how processes are executed) and TO BE (how processes are re-designed) simulation tools can be used.

Simulations can be used to justify changes before the organisation makes investments in new procedures which may not yield any benefits. Simulations can be an excellent qualitative research tool for generating unique data which can be used for BPR projects. In addition to this, simulation of business processes "can provide insight to into policies, practices procedures, organisation and process flows and consequently brings about a shift in thinking from functional to process organization" (Kovacic and Pecek 2007: 860).

There are many tools on the market for BPR implementation, but some organisations can find it challenging to decide on a BPR tools as there are so many different tools. Therefore, organisations assess how to redesign business processes and then select an integrated set of tools (or a combination of tools) which support the complete process of the organisation (McManus 1997:41).

According to Valiris and Glykas (1999: 75), there are some limitations in existing BPR methodologies, including "lack of a systematic approach that can lead a process through

a series of steps for achievement of process redesign" as a result there is a lack of modelling and analysis. There are differences in the BPR literature between methodologies that concentrate either on process improvement or on process innovation and the focus should be on desired organisational change required.

Fragaso (2015), O'Neill and Sohall (1999) and Valiris and Glykas (1999) indicate there is need for organisations to use mixed methods, which can give an insight into the relationship between organisational structure and organisational processes. Based on these limitations highlighted by Valiris and Glykas (1999), it is evident that BPR needs to adopt a holistic approach; this claim is supported by Fragaso (2015: 383) who indicates that "there is no single or prevailing method around BPR and there are no completely new techniques that could be expected".

The next section will look at organisational processes and will put focus on what should happen when process are being re-engineered.

2.6 Issues affection BPR
2.6.1   Understanding Organisational Processes

This section focuses on organisational process and aims to clarify how they work in organisations; this is relevant to the study because control of processes is central to BPR methodology, tools and approaches.

A process is defined by Davenport (1993:5) as "a specific ordering of work activities across time and place, with a beginning, an end and clearly identified inputs and outputs: a structure for action". Characteristics of processes are as follows: they must have clearly defined boundaries, input and output in terms of the order, value addition, customer, embeddedness and cross-functionality stated by Simon (quoted in Hussein et al. 2013:34). These characteristics relate to the order of activities, how processes add value to products and services, the demands/needs of the customer that influence the process

in a major way, and the process organisational structure that may affect more than one function of the organisation.

Melão and Pidd identify different types of processes, which include core processes, support processes and management processes; they further develop four perspectives on business processes: as deterministic machines, as complex dynamic systems, as interacting feedback loops, and BP as social constructs (2000: 113-120). Grover and Malhotra. O'Neill and Sohal advocate for "systems thinking in understanding workflow, business processes and the impact of feedback" (1999: 576), showing that the processes in organisations are interrelated.

Chang (2012) investigates why organisations move towards becoming process-focused and offers several explanations. Chang indicates organisation's move is based on "the market changing, intense market pressure, and success in the market being reduced to providing services and products in a faster, better and cheaper manner" (2012: 51).

Gunasekeran and Nath (1997: 99) point out that for an organisation to successfully develop BPR, it should include "(a) a holistic view of the organization; (b) an endeavor to accomplish simultaneous changes and improvements on several critical variables such as: cost, quality and lead times, customer and vendor relations; utilization of technology; organizational arrangements; and employee learning and competence development, (c) a dynamic and long-term perspective on the change processes and (d) a development of the work itself and the work-related tasks in terms of influence over change and development processes".

Process orientation is considered as being the most important aspect of BPR, as the focus should move from tasks, people and structures to processes (Kai 1994: 13). Davenport (1993: 3-5) further points out the drivers of process innovation as "competitive pressure, finance, process cost reduction, business culture, improved coordination and management of functional interdependencies". Processes focus on how work is done and are based more on customer requirements than on internal organisational

requirements. Processes focuses on how work is done in an organisation. As BPR gained popularity for organisations in 1990s, so did process management and control. This led organisations to adopt business processes with a view to how they can be modelled in order to improve the performance of the organisations by using IT (Melão and Pidd 2000: 106). When an organisation takes on a process approach, "it implies adopting the customer's point of view, as it aligns its activities and strategy to produce value for the customer" (Davenport 1993: 7).

Customers can be both internal and external and play an important role in processes. Grover and Malhotra state that "By focusing on processes that are important to the customers, an organization can reduce confusion and sub-optimization across functions, enhance customer responsiveness, and increase accountability and importance for the entire organization" (1997: 200).

The generic implementation procedures of BPR include preparation and coordination; business diagnosis and measurement; selection of processes for change and modelling; technical design of the solution; personnel adjustments and training; management of change and employee empowerment; introduction of new processes into the business operations and continuous improvement (Zigiaris 2000: 14-17). Davenport (1993) explains that IT can be used in redesign to improve processes in the following activities: "identification of processes, decide on enablers of new process redesign, define business strategy and process vision, understand the structure and flow of current process, measure the performance of current process, design the new process, prototype the new process, implement and operationalize the process associated systems, communicate ongoing results of the effort and build commitment toward the solution" (1993: 200). O'Neill and Sohal (1999) state that it is best for an organisation to understand current processes before embarking on re-engineering; this can be facilitated by using tools such as flow charting and process mapping. The aim is to depict how the processes are documented and indicate dependencies, i.e. interrelationships. This shows that BPR should be holistic.

2.6.2   Re-engineering Challenge

This section looks at challenges of BPR according to the literature related to the implementation of BPR, and it aims to distinguish how these challenges differ for the public and private sectors. In addition, critical success factors will be presented as well as factors leading to failure.

Grover and Malhotra (1997) and Hammer (1990) have provided examples of how BPR has been implemented and led to the achievement of business excellence. However, O'Neill and Sohall (1997) and Jurisch et al. (2012) state that despite this success, many organisations do not achieve the intended results of BPR.

Grover and Malhotra (1997: 200) state that "re-engineering is a challenge, as it requires out of the box thinking" and various aspects of the organisation must be taken into consideration for the institutionalisation of BPR. The changes that organisations need to deal with include internal and external pressures and, consequently, organisations have instituted a number of changes in an attempt to improve performance whilst managing this change. O'Neill and Sohal (1999: 577) state that re-engineering in an organisation is already a challenge in the sense that it is a complex task to ensure that the re-engineering has benefits for the organisation. Hammer and Champy (quoted in Mekonnen 2011: 13) state that "an estimated 50 to 70 percent of BPR projects fails to achieve dramatic results". This is due to organisations' natural resistance to change. Therefore it is essential, according to Senge (quoted in O'Neill and Sohal 1999:577), that management of the change process includes the coordinating of the activities of complex horizontal processes, specifies boundaries and makes horizontal connections (culture and change), and information that is readily available to all team members to facilitate the learning process.

To clarify the challenges Attaran (2004: 593-594) has identified six key obstacles to BPR implementation: misunderstanding of the concept, unrealistic objectives, management

failure to change, misapplication of the term of BPR, lack of proper strategy, and failing to recognise the importance of people.

O'Neill and Sohal (1999: 577) that classical re-engineering has some problems: "the danger is designing another inefficient system, ignoring the embedded system knowledge accumulation over many years an, and not appreciating the scope of the problem". To address this problem BPR needs "a working balance between individual occupational and organizational goals and the BPR methodology only considers this in the last stage with implementation and integration" Buchanan (1997: 67).   Therefore the classical re-engineering of processes is not beneficial to an organisation.

Other challenges identified range from system integration, expectations of customers, job losses as noted by Deakins and Makgill (1997), Mcmanus (1997) and Narasimhan and Jayaram (1997).

According to Deakins and Makgill, there is a lack of literature that underpins BPR and insufficient focus is placed on people and change management, but focus is directed to IT as the enabler and more emphasis must be placed on implementation issues (1997:104).

McManus states that "BPR offers an immense challenge to system integrators and requires a new approach to systems development, one which is based pro-actively applying information technology to improve business processes. This is accomplished by: adopting business perspective; improving business and organisation knowledge, viewing processes across organisation boundaries, proposing creative business solutions; developing advance business tools for BPR and participating as a member of cross functional team"(1997: 41).

Kotter (1996:4-14) states that "too much complacency, failing to create a sufficiently powerful guiding coalition, underestimating the power of vision, under-communicating the vision by a factor of ten, permitting obstacles to block the new vision, failing to create

short-term wins, declaring victory too soon and neglecting to anchor changes firmly in the corporate culture".

Attong and Metz (2012: 24-26) state that in attempting to manage change, specific tools that will outlive the project lifecycle of BPR. The change management plan must focus on people and cultural issues. The project team must try to manage the fears of the staff to avoid resistance to change and advocate for the staff to embrace the BPR efforts. If it is found that there is some resistance to change, then the project team has to uncover the root causes of resistance before proceeding with BPR efforts. One of the major tools used for change management would be constant communication used to empower staff and to keep them informed and create a sense of ownership.

2.6.3 BPR in the Public Sector - Challenges

Public sector organisations operate in a very dynamic external environment and to provide these institutions with a competitive edge, out of the box thinking is required. Organisations in the public sector strive for innovation to improve efficiency and effectiveness; that is why this section focuses on BPR implementation challenges in the public sector.

Reyes (quoted in Oberoi 2013:292- 293) highlights some generic challenges of the public sector such as "the burdens of rising expectations, growing populations, conditions of turbulence and declining resources, on the one hand, and the themes of globalization, competitiveness, market and enterprise dynamics, decentralization, governance, the information age, and the rise of new technologies. This demands that governments find elaborate techniques in managing organizations to mediate this transition, and reengineering has been offered as among the more prominent systems of mapping and adapting to the realities of this new and complex order". This manifests that the public sector operates in a very complex environment complete with wicked problems related to political and socio-economic problems. In an attempt to address these problems, public sectors have experimented varies management approaches, such as new public

management, new public governance, co-production, collaboration and moved away from traditional public administration.

Al-Mashari and Zairi (1999: 91-99) look at the hard and soft factors that lead to the success or failure of BPR implementation. The success factors include the management of change as part of the culture to accept change, revising reward and motivation systems, effective communication, empowerment, human involvement, training and education, stimulating the organisation's receptiveness to change, committed and strong leadership, champions and sponsorships, management of risks, adequate job integration, effective BPR teams, appropriate job definitions and allocation of responsibilities, aligning the BPR strategy the with corporate strategy, effective planning and use of project management techniques, adequate resources, appropriate use of methodology, external orientation and learning, effective use of consultants, building a BPR vision, effective process redesign, integrating BPR with other improvement approaches, an adequate identification of BPR values, adequate alignment of IT infrastructure and BPR strategy, building an effective IT infrastructure, adequate IT investment and sourcing decisions, adequate measurement of IT infrastructure effectiveness in BPR, proper IS integration, the effective re-engineering of legacy IS, increasing the IT function competency, effective use of software tools.

Before we discuss the challenges of BPR, let us first look at the success factors for the public and private sectors as highlighted by Jurisch, Ikas, Wolfgang, Wolf and Krcmar (2012: 6) in Table 4.

Table 4: Illustration of the differences between public and private sector organisations

Dimensions	Situation in the private sector	Situation in the public sector	Consequences for public BPR initiatives
Functions	- pursuit of profit and business growth - aligned IT and business strategy - Part of a mostly vertical supply chain	- execution of laws and policies - Stability and risk aversion - Controlling of compliance with laws - Part of a mostly horizontal supply chain	- Radical changes frequently unfeasible - BPR must be verified for legal compliance
Processes	- Process initiated by customer - Customer-supplier relationship - Profit-driven processes - Full control over own process structure	- Processes based on legal regulations, laws and policies - Little control over process structure	- BPR as top-down process - Radical changes frequently unfeasible - BPR must be verified for legal compliance
Organisational structure	- Company sizes and structures highly variable - Affinity for recruiting [right?] - Different authority and autonomy levels	- Mandatory tasks and responsibilities - Management under political observation - Rigid hierarchies	- Formal decision-making - Top-down support as prerequisite - Need for approval by all stakeholders involved - Involvement of internal experts across departments is challenging - Insufficient exchange of experiences regarding past BPR projects between administrations(ample potential for trans-institutional knowledge management platforms)
Economic Feasibility	- Freedom in allocating funds and controlling investments - Accountable to shareholders - Motivation to minimise costs	- Fiscal limitations - Pre-defined resources - Governmental authorisation - Actions are subject to public scrutiny (public accountability) - Motivation to keep costs within budget (budget functions is a threshold value)	- Inflexible financial budgets - Resources (know-how, IT.) tend to be limited and may cause failure during early stages of the project - Acceptance of BPR efforts questionable once budgets are met and cost pressures decrease.
Political feasibility	- No dependencies - Internal financing - Consultation and agreement with cost centres (internal pricing)	- Strict governmental and political restrictions - Feasibility of changes and amendments to laws and guidelines	- Proposed changes might face resistance by decision makers and other stakeholders(especially when cross-functional departments are involved) - Political feasibility should be ensured early in process as laws and regulations may prohibit planned measures.
Expectations from BPR	- Increase business volume - Obtain market leadership - Cost savings	- Efficient use of resources - Identify redundancies in order to unify and automate processes - Alleviate cost of bureaucracy and cut down red tape - Improve service accessibility and usability	- Customer perspective matters, yet it does not represent the primary concern

Source: Jurisch et al. (2012: 6)

An analysis of Table 4 show the major differences between the public and private sectors, in terms of functions, processes, organisational culture, economic feasibility, political feasibility and expectations for BPR. It is interesting to note that organisations in the public sector use BPR to "identify redundancies in order to unify and automate processes, efficient use of resources, alleviate cost, and improve service accessibility and usability" Jurisch et al. (2012:6). Compared to the private sector, the focus in the public sector is mainly on value enhancement arising from customers' needs. The differing characteristics between the public and private sector make it more challenging for public sectors to implement BPR.

Halachmi states that it imperative that a public sector organisation fully understands BPR concept before embarking on a BPR project; re-engineering must be tailor-made to fit the capacity and needs of the organisation, which may depend on the capacity of the organisation to undertake BPR and ways must be sought to absorb the opportunity costs (1996: 9-17).

In the public sector, despite BPR being implemented, organizational changes are only achievable to a certain limit. It is stated by (2007: 122) that "governmental organizations have a unique culture and face many challenegs due to social obligations and higher legislative and public accountability. The objectives of government are less clear, clients and stakeholders are more diverse and numerous and concepts such as quality are more complex". If the BPR project fails, this should not affect the existence of the organisation.

Thong et al (quoted in Mmereki and Kgomotso 2013: 33-34) state that public sector organisations should consider the lessons before embarking on re-engineering. The lessons are that "public organizations are highly resistant to change; social and political changes are the main pressures for re-engineering; organisations must use a group of neutral staff members to form the core re-engineering team; performance measures should be simple and highly focused on the end result; the entity should commit sufficient time and resources to train staff; the roll-out of BPR throughout the organizations should be planned carefully; and all staff should be educated and prepared for the changes through an intensive communication program".

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Change management in itself is another process and the change agents (managers) need to acquire or possess skills to manage the BPR initiatives successfully such as project management and collaboration.

According to Stemberger et al (2007: 122) there are change-inhibiting factors in the public sector: "the constraints imposed by bureaucracy (that is, red tape), the greater levels of interdependence across organisational boundaries, more frequent turnover of top-level administrators, greater resistance to change from employees, and management having less authority than do their private sector counterparts". These factors as well as the lessons from Thong et al need to be considered to improve the implementation of BPR.

Mmereki and Kgomotso (2013) stated that in the BPR was implemented in Botswana hospitals to improve the service time for patients. The lessons were as follows: organizational resistance as hospital staff were not prepared for the implementation and considered BPR as an additional task. This resulted in the resistance to change and organizational creation of new culture. The hospital management lacked training on implementing BPR and the change agent was moved from duty stations once results were realised, thereafter there was a lack of management monitoring of progress of implementation. In addition manager lacked skills to manage the project and consultants were underutilised. Continuity was an afterthought and so the reform effort collapsed as there was no plan for continuity. Funds were not allocated to BPR initiative, though the departments were expected to achieve the recommendations and not all departments used the same systems making it challenging for BPR implementation" Mmereki and Kgomotso (2013: 34-35).

Oberi (2013:300) states that among the factors that are challenging for BPR implementation is lack of knowledge and skill in change management and lack of the requisite knowledge and skill to properly plan and manage BPR projects. These two factors are closely linked on the strategy used to implement the BPR in the public sector organization. Factors inhibiting change as stated by Stemberger et al (2007) are all issues that are outside the scope of the government and require adaptation by the public organisations. However, strategy and structure according to Johnsen (2015:

245) is a factor that can aid the implementation of public sector reform and is under the direct control of management. Therefore, it is imperative that management develop strategy that would improve organisation performance. This will require that the factors highlighted by Mmereki and Kgomotso (2013) be considred in the decion-making regarding the BPR initiative to succeed.

2.6.4   The Redesign Process

This section will focus on how re-engineering is done. The redesign process focuses on how re-engineering can be done. According to Grover and Malhotra (1997), this includes the preparation, which involves gaining consensus to undertake the re-engineering, rethinking the processes, creation of new process and making provision for technical design, social designing and implementing the new process. This section focus on what the redesigning of processes entails (1997: 201-205), meaning that an organisation has to analyse the current process to determine what the proposed process would entail. In support, Davenport (1993) points out the analysis should "Describe the current workflow, measure the process in terms of the new process objectives, assess the process in terms of the new process attributes, identify problems with, or shortcomings of, the process, identify short-term improvements in the process, and assess the current information technologies of the organisation (1993:139) for and improved understanding of BPR. Consequently the analysis will include the elimination of non-value adding activities and simplification of processes.

Critical to the redesign is the composition of the re-engineering team (Davenport (1993), O'Neill and Sohall (1999), Al-Mashai and Zairi (1999) and Attong and Metz (2012). This group of people is responsible for gathering information about the process and they manage all activities up until the point of implementation. Davenport notes that the BPR project team is involved in the following activities: they "brainstorm design alternatives, assess feasibility, risk and benefits of design alternatives and select the preferred process design prototype the new process design, and develop a migration strategy and implement a new organizational structure and systems" (1993: 154). This stage of redesigning is very important as Al-Mashari and Zairi (1999:103) note that one of the major problems related to the failure of BPR projects is ineffective process

redesign: "this includes missing process understanding and orientation, missing process owners, inadequate determination of scope of change, inadequate focus on core processes, re-engineering the wrong process and narrowly defined processes".

There are important concerns raised by Attong and Metz (2012) and Gunasekaran and Nath (1997) for consideration before embarking on process improvement projects. These include the need for organisations to review previous BPR efforts and conduct a situational analysis to review these issues and use lessons learned to increase the likelihood of success Attong and Metz (2012: 83). Gunasekaran and Nath (1997: 92) explain that "a thorough understanding of current practices, procedures and enablers of change is required for re-engineering. Meaning that re-engineering should not take place haphazardly but should be a planned initiative, with the aim to improve process radically. The lack of understand why BPR is introduced can also result in the failure of BPR, therefore it is important that the organisation has a proper understating of the current practices and procedures and enablers of change.

Furthermore, Kiraka and Manning (2005) indicate that there could be some difficulties experienced with identifying processes and with the managing of the process approach (2005: 289). This is because processes are sometimes not visible in organisations. The reasons why it may be difficult to identify processes include "processes tend to fall into the 'cracks' between functions and process boundaries are often not defined" (Kiraka and Manning 2005: 289-290). The solution to this problem is to use workflows and process maps in outlining the processes based on existing work. Kumar and Strehlow (2004:856) indicate that part of the initial responsibility of the BPR project team is the generation of a process flow chart, identification of problems areas, and analysis and discussion of problems, to enable the team to identify the process and improve understanding of the current work flow of the process.

The project team's composition, according to Attong and Metz should, should include a senior manager, staff involved in the process being re-engineered, experts from support systems such as IT, finance and HR, as they are responsible for the project, including its scope, execution, completion and implementation (2012: 86-89). Tools provided to the team should include a team charter, project plan, risk and opportunity

register, budget, a record of lessons learnt and a documentation plan, which are used throughout the six stages to improve the business processes Attong and Metz (2012: 85).

Central to BPR in redesigning of the process (es) is obtaining information from the people who are directly involved with the processes. Zigaris (2000: 9) notes that the team must be trained to re-engineer and then the affected staff should be trained to ensure that the introduction of the redesigned process to the rest of the organisation is carried out efficiently.

As indicated earlier BPR, is a long-term management approach, although the results are visible over the short term; this is because BPR has an immediate impact on various aspects of an organisation as the improvement required is continuous, which means it has a spill-over effect.

2.6.5 Information Technology - Enabler of BPR

It has been mentioned that IT is an enabler of BPR and in this section we explore what the literature has to say on this topic. This is important to the study, as BPR deals partly with automation and IT is used to automate tasks.

IT has the potential to transform government structures and improve the quality of government services by improving operational efficiency by reducing costs and increasing productivity and provide better quality services by government agencies (Kovacic and Pecek 2007: 858). Government entities are faced with political, structural and cultural challenges during BPR implementation. Reyes states that IT, though an enabler, despite the huge investments does not yield results. In general, this could raise serious concerns and results in BPR not being a very popular strategy in the public sector. Public sector projects remain participative in nature with greater emphasis on consultation and consensus. One of the major differences "is that public sector BPR projects can face greater restrictions in terms of providing resources for improvements, even in circumstances where there is evidence that an investment is justified" (McIntosh 2003: 341).

The redesign of the process is made easier by enablers such as IT and other organisational aspects. This means that in addition to the tools and techniques used by organisations, IT can aid in automating the processes and improvements made by re-engineering across functional processes, and this has an impact on the organisational structure (Grover and Malhotra 1997: 205-206).

As indicated by Hammer (1999: 176), "poorly designed processes are not improved by simulating them on a computer". Hammer (1990) also states that computers must be used to redesign and not just to automate existing processes (1990: 104), which was the case when automation started. Companies used technology in organisations, to speed up existing processes instead of improving productivity. This proves that re-engineering partly stems from the automation of work processes by companies to improve the quality of products and services, but automation did not yield the expected results. In the move towards radical improvement BPR used IT as an enabler (Attaran 2004: 586). Morris and Brandon (1993: 203-204) stated that IT can be used in "improving speed, storing and retrieving, communicating, controlling process tasks and improving quality, monitoring, support decision making and supporting works" in an organisation.

In terms of BPR, IT can be used in the "identification and selecting of processes and redesign, identifying enablers for new process design, defining business strategy and process vision, understanding the structure and flow of the current process designing the new process, prototyping the new process, implementing and operationalising the process and associated systems, communicating ongoing results of the effort and build commitment toward the solution at each step" (Davenport 1993:200). More specifically, with the processes mapping, IT can be used to reduce the number of activities to carry out in the process, according to Grover and Malhotra (1997: 206).

Gunesekeran and Nath (1997: 95) indicate that IT brings some benefits, as "IT can save time and improve accuracy in exchanging information about company goals and strategies. IT removes much of the human error inherent in complex and repetitive tasks. It saves money as it reduces errors and the time to takes to accomplish tasks.

It provides a competitive advantage by helping a company's position and capitalise on the trends, so it should be the first to market a new product".

Besides the benefits that IT brings to BPR, Al-Mashari and Zairi (1999:95) indicate that the IT component of the institution must meet certain requirements for it to be successful. These requirements include "adequate, should be aligned to BPR strategy, sufficiently funded, be integrated with the information systems, increase IT function competency and effectively use of software tools". Therefore a claim can be made that "IT is an important element in the integration" (Gunasekeran and Nath 1997: 93) of BPR into an organisation.

However, IT is faced with challenges which can result in failure of the BPR implementation related to the IT infrastructure. BPR is an expensive initiative and it is expected that similar investment is made in IT; thus a lack or insufficient funding or experienced IT staff, insufficient infrastructure, improper IS integration (non-compatibility with information systems) and failure to use IT as enabler can be detrimental to BPR implementation (Al-Mashari and Zairi 1999: 104 -112).

Ramirez, Melville and Lawler (2010: 418) state that "information technology plays an important, complementary role in process redesign. The information capabilities enabled by IT make technology investment an important complement to work practices associated with organizational change". Therefore, if IT is utilised properly, it can aid in defining and analysing processes, eliminate non-value-adding activities, implement improvements and assist in monitoring the implementation of redesigned processes, therefor making it an enabler of BPR.

Re-engineering triggers changes of many kinds, including in IT requirements, and these must be refashioned in an integrated way. "In other words re-engineering is a tremendous effort that mandates change in many areas of the organization" (Hammer 1990: 112). The impact of BPR on organisational aspects is assumed to take place automatically as a result of the redesign of business processes. A structured methodology is a "stage-wise process consisting of certain essential components such as strategizing and goal setting, feasibility analysis, process analysis, understanding customer requirements, performance and measurement, designing improvements

prototyping and process mapping and instituting organisational change to implement the new process" (Sikdar and Payyashi 2014: 973).

Change management is required because the organisation will have to re-engineer processes in the organisation whilst this organisation is still dependent on the services of other institutions which have not gone through BPR; the question thus arises of how effective can the re-engineering exercise be in this case and could this be classified as a challenge in implementing BPR in the public service. Attong and Metz state that the project team must be able to anticipate and manage the manner in which the organisation reacts to the implementation of new process (2012: 19).

2.6.6   Risks perceived in embarking on a BPR programme

BPR involves radical change to several systems in the organisation. The risks associated with the acceptance of change in the organisational structure include deploying IT with little familiarity, large investments in new resources needed for the new process, loss of personnel and loss of earning (Al-Mashari and Zairi 1999: 91). Therefore, continuous risk assessment is needed throughout the implementation process to deal with any risk in its initial state and to ensure the success of the re-engineering efforts. Anticipating and planning for risk is important for dealing effectively with any risk when it emerges.

O'Neill and Sohal (1999) have identified two types of risks in the implementation of BPR: technical risk and organisational risks. "The technical risk, which is a fear that the process of change will not work, and the organizational risk, by far the greatest risk, which is the possibility of corporate culture reaction against the changes" (1999:579). The question is how companies assess what the impact of modest and radical changes will have on the organization corporate culture Attong and Metz (2012), indicate that in terms of the organisational risks, fear of change by people should be managed by the project team through constant engagement, provision of rewards, explanation of how the change will affect different units or staff and developing a sense of ownership among staff (Attong and Metz 2012: 12-25).

Companies and organisations are advised to improve communications at an early stage with employees to obtain support for the BPR project and to pilot the programme before full implementation and develop a communication strategy.

In order to address implementation challenges Mmereki and Kgomotso (2013: 36-37) recommend to the Botswana government the following; "change initiatives restraining forces should be reduced prior to implementation by preparing institutions for culture change. The top management of an organization needs to be committed and should take a lead in implementing the BPR effort and provide employees financial and other resource. Training of BPR "champions", middle managers, and the BPR team will help the team to successfully implement BPR recommendations with understanding. Also, there is need to have an empowered champion to drive the change. The change agents need to be properly trained so as to be able to carry out their mandate. They need skills in project management. The BPR team needs to benchmark with public sector organizations that have successfully implemented BPR. In order to gain wider employee buy-in, top management should communicate all forthcoming BPR activities and the benefits of that to all employees on time".

Risk can also be managed so that at each stage of BPR implementation, organisations should utilise tools such as a risk and opportunity register to anticipate the challenges and identify risks and opportunities that may affect or be available for the team (Attong and Metz 2012: 96).

2.7 Deductions

The purpose of this section is to analyse the contentions presented in this chapter and outline the approach to be used in the study.

In terms of the definition of BPR, the study will use the definition by Hammer (1990) as the study focuses on BPR in its totality, although the literature has shown that BPM has become more relevant due to the fact that it is considered to be a more holistic approach.

It was found that organisations use BPR for reasons related to performance; some wish to improve performance, improve productivity, reduce cost, address customer needs and gain a competitive advantage. However, public sector organisations re-engineer for different reasons: "efficient use of resources, identify redundancies in order to unify and automate processes, alleviate cost of bureaucracy and cut red tape, improve service accessibility and usability" (Jurisch et al. 2012: 6). The major difference between re-engineering efforts in the public and private sector is their rationale for implementing BPR. In the public sector BPR is used with the aim of reforming the way in which services and goods are provided; however, in the private sector BPR is used to gain a competitive advantage in markets, whilst addressing customer needs.

In relation to the approach to management, BPR contains elements of TQM, BPI and BPM, this is evident as BPR has aspects of quality is normally built into processes, redesigning deals with improvement, though not incremental, but based on the need of an organisation, processes could only be improved. BPM takes cognisance of the fact that process redesigning is really an inclusive project and requires consideration from analysing the organisation's strategic direction to the fact that the redesigning may have an impact on the structural and procedural aspects of the organisation.

The study will use a mixed methods approach including simulation and process mapping as tools and techniques for the study. Simulation allows for the process to be analysed in a controlled environment before the organisation embarks on BPR. The advantages of simulation and process mapping are mainly related to conducting an analysis without disturbing the status quo of an organisation. This means that the proposed process can be compared to the current process through simulations and the results can be used to plan the actual design, whilst taking into consideration the feedback from the simulation and process mapping.

Rinaldi et al. (2015:422) presents a typical procedure of BPR to consist of 5 steps namely as "preparing for re-engineering; mapping and analysis analysing the AS-IS process, design TO-BE process; implement the re-engineered; improving

continuously". This generic procedure would be applicable in the private and public sector to ensure success of the implementation of the BPR.

Halachmi and Boivard (1997: 230) state that the success of BPR initiatives depends on the strategic capability of an organisation; this means that an organisation must have the capacity to re-engineer before BPR initiatives start as well as during the implementation. The evidence indicates that the challenges associated with BPR deal with understanding the requirements of BPR and its implications; BPR advocates for major change and organisations need to prepare accordingly. In all the management approaches presented in this paper, all proceeded with an analysis of the process or the organisation. This indicates that there needs to be good understanding of the BPR and its implications. Once BPR is implemented, the cultural change must be managed, and so must the processes which are redesigned, which may be internal and external. An important aspect of re-engineering is the team that will spearhead the process. It is imperative that the team have a sense of ownership as it can be used to implement the BPR initiative and at the same time sensitise internal and external stakeholders. Therefore, the management of change is important. As explained by Chang (2012), and the fears that the staff may face must also be addressed.

The use of IT in BPR is very important, as the organisations have to try to use technologies to improve performance. Hammer has indicated that investments in technology were becoming too expensive, but in the case that IT is used as an enabler of BPR, the results are evident. So BPR needs to use IT to radically redesign the processes through application of its tools and techniques.

Like with the use of IT or in the event that any new product is launched, an organisation expects to go through some growing pains, but these can be avoided if the organisation conducts a risk assessment. It was found that the common risk associated with BPR implementation deals with clarifying the concept in terms of understanding what the BPR project entails. It is important that an organisation analyses why it is embarking on the project, what it entails, what the issues and problems are. The BPR team also needs to ensure that the relevant staff are informed, so the development of a communication plan is imperative to ensure that staff

concerns are addresses and to avoid organisational resistance. All stakeholders should equally gain an equally good understating of the BPR initiative.

Once an organisation has decided why it want to re-engineer, and understands the process and the concept, re-engineering can start. But careful consideration must be given to tools, techniques as well as factors inhibiting change. It is advisable that an organisation should only re-engineer based on an analysis of its own needs, issues and problems, as there are no generic models or approaches.

2.8 Summary

Organisations re-engineer for survival and to remain competitive and in the process improve processes to achieve specific organisational objectives. There is no agreement on the definition of BPR; the focus should be on what constitutes BPR, as there should be consensus on the redesign of processes. As a result of this confusion about definition, it can be said that to some extent BPR is related to the management approaches of BPM, BPI and TQM and public sector reform paradigms. The tools and techniques used in BPR are so extensive that this paper was not able to cover all of them, and this can be considered as an area of future research. The generic tools were simulation, process mapping and benchmarking, which all help with the understating of processes in an organisation.

This chapter has noted that there are several challenges to BPR in terms of financial, technical, political and functional issues. It is important that organisations conduct an analysis to ensure that these challenges are addressed. The understating of the challenges and success factors are part of the main responsibilities of managers, who must provide management support for BPR to reap the benefits.

BPR in the public sector and the private sector are different in many ways, mainly related to the mandates of the organisations and their leadership. Furthermore BPR has been identified as a major enabler in all stages of the organisation, including risk management. The role of management is critical in so far as senior managers must

spearhead the process; there is a need that they also anticipate the risks of BPR. This is an important function as there are huge investments made into BPR projects.

BPR is an approach which need more study and experimenting and "public managers and policy makers must adapt techniques to the idiosyncratic needs and peculiarities of their organizations …. and engage in critical thinking to address the problems faced by the public sector" (Oberi 2013:301).

Chapter 3: Legal and Regulatory Framework for Business Process Re-engineering in the Namibian Public Service

3.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to analyse the legal and regulatory framework within which BPR is applied. This objective will be achieved by summarizing the legal and policy framework of the Namibian public service which guides the process of recruitment and BPR in the public sector. In addition there will be an effort to establish a common understanding of the use of these instruments and highlight their applicability to the study.

Namibia gained its independence on 21 March 1990 and the Constitution of Namibia made provision for the establishment of the public service in Chapter 13, Article 112. The public service aimed to provide goods and services, enforce legal and regulatory instruments, allocate and manage resources in an efficient and effective manner. According to Tanzi (2000:7), the public sector has five roles: "establish rules and institutions aimed at enforcement of contracts and protection of property rights; it must provide a legal and regulatory framework that reduces transaction costs for those who operate in the market and it must promote efficiency through strategic market intervention in case of market failure or through the production of some essential information; it must provide public goods and deal with obvious cases of externalities which cannot be resolved by negotiations between the involved private parties and complementing the market where it fails; it must provide macroeconomic stabilisation and it must promote a distribution of income that is consistent with the prevailing view of society. It must also provide some safety nets for those in danger or falling below the officially established line". As countries' economies become complex, there need to be institutions to regulate and provide certain services, which can only be provided by the state, and to achieve this, the state needs to employ suitable and qualified candidates to execute the roles of the state.

The agenda of the Namibian government at independence was to redress past injustices which resulted from the discriminatory laws of the apartheid regime. These laws and polices discriminated adversely against the majority of the Namibians; therefore the government prioritised redressing these discriminatory laws. According to Roux, black people were prevented from entering the labour market during the apartheid era and received a poor education; this in turn resulted in the low overall educational levels of Namibians (2014: 63).

The legal and policy framework is presented in chronological order, the Constitution of Namibia being the first and then cascading down to policies, with the Recruitment Policy being the last document reviewed.

3.2 Namibian Legal Framework

3.2.1 Namibian Constitution

The International Institute for Democratic and Election Assistance (2014:1) summarises the characteristics of a constitution as "a set of fundamental legal-political rules that: are binding on everyone in the state, including ordinary law-making institutions; concern the structure and operation of the institution of government, political principles and the right of citizens; are based on widespread public legitimacy; are harder to change than ordinary laws (e.g.) a two-thirds majority vote or referendum is needed; as a minimum meet the internationally recognised criteria for a democratic system in terms of representation and human rights".

The Constitution of Namibia intends to provide equal rights for all Namibian citizens irrespective of race, political affiliation, religion and education. Articles 10 and 23 of the Namibian Constitution state that all people are equal and that any practice related to apartheid is illegal. As a result of Namibia's experience with apartheid, the Namibian Constitution and legislation embrace the principles of affirmative action and reconciliation.

The Constitution of Namibia, being the supreme law of the country, provides guiding principles for governing the country, by establishing the executive, judiciary and

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legislative organs of government. The Constitution of Namibia divides the powers of government into these three branches, which operate by providing checks and balances within and between these structures. The Executive consists of the President and the Cabinet, whilst the Legislature comprises Parliament inclusive of the National Assembly and National Council, and the Judiciary consists of the courts of law. In addition, the Constitution of Namibia makes provision for the establishment of regional and local government institutions and constitutional bodies such as the Public Service Commission. The Constitution of Namibia sets the tone for the administration of the public service of Namibia.

The public service has a very important role to play in the state and society, and its main objective is to achieve public sector outcomes, or in general, enhancing and maintaining the well-being of citizens, the execution of the rule of law, good governance, and upholding the principles and values of the Constitution. Therefore, the Constitution makes provision for the establishment of the Public Service Commission, which must ensure that the country has a skilled workforce to achieve its economic, developmental and political goals. The Public Service Commission also has a key role to pay in recruitment process since independence all appointment and transfers are recommended by Public Service Commission to the Prime Minister.

3.2.2   Public Service Commission Act

The Constitution of Namibia, Chapter 13, Article 112 makes provision for the establishment of the Public Service Commission of Namibia as an independent and impartial body. The key functions of the Public Service Commission, as outlined in Article 113 of the Constitution, are to deal with matters related to recruitment, remuneration, restructuring and grievances and disciplinary matters of all government institutions, of all levels of government, including national, regional or local government. Equally important, the Commission has an advisory role, in the provision of advice to the President regarding the suitability and availability of candidates for appointment as Prime Minister, Prosecutor General, Attorney General and Secretary to Cabinet. In relation to this study, the Public Service Commission is a very important body as it ensures that there is a balanced structuring of the public service and

oversees all recruitment in the Namibian public service. Most government institutions are formed by way of promulgation of an Act, or in some cases, they are constitutional bodies, and must execute the functions and mandate of these organisations. Seeing that the public sector needs a skilled, reliable and appropriate workforce, it is imperative to have a body to oversee the recruitment of employees to the entire public service, as the recruitment process is standardised.

The Chartered Institute of Public Financing and Accountancy and the International Federation of Accountants (2013:6) highlight some characteristics of public sector institutions, which include, among others, "having a coordinating and leadership role to draw support from or foster consensus among all sectors and society; possess the power to regulate entities in certain sectors of the economy to safeguard and promote the interests of citizens, residents, consumers and other stakeholders and to achieve sustainable benefits and undertake activities on a basis other than by fair exchange between willing buyers and sellers because they have the ability to exercise sovereign power".

The Public Service Commission Act (Act No. 2 of 1990) defines the scope and operations of the Public Service Commission in terms of recruitment, including appointments and transfers, discharges, discipline and other aspects of the careers of staff in the public service. In addition, the Public Service Commission determines the remuneration and retirement benefits of the public service. The Public Service Commission Act (Act No. 2 of 1990) requires in section 6, (3) (aa) "the appointment of suitable persons to specific categories of employment in the public service, with respect to the balanced structuring thereof" (Republic of Namibia 1990: 5). As a result, the Public Service Commission is responsible for creating an environment conducive for the efficient and effective functioning of the public service and for ensuring that staff placement is procedurally correct, and in accordance with the legal and policy framework and affirmative action plans.

According to Aijala (2001:9-10), many countries are faced with challenges in making the public sector the employer of choice. The challenges include recruiting qualified personnel, retaining young professionals and managing critical skills shortage.

In Namibia long-term strategies have been developed to tackle these problems and more so the mismatch of skills and employment, as stated by the National Planning Commission in the National Human Resources Plan.

Therefore, the PSC required to appoint suitable candidates for employment in the public service, and collectively address the challenges faced by the public sector in terms of recruitment with other Offices/Ministries and Agencies (OMAs). The Public Service Commission has to ensure the public service has the appropriate capacity to adhere to the values of the Constitution of Namibia.

3.2.3 Public Service Act

The public sector is further supported by the Public Service Act (Act No. 13 of 19950), which ensures that the rule of law within the public service is upheld. This study takes place in the realm of the public service recruitment is guided by the Public Service Act (Act No. 13 of 1995).

In November 1995 the Public Service Act (Act No. 13 of 1995) came into effect. The purpose of the Act is to "provide for the establishment, management and efficiency of the Public Service, the regulation of employment, conditions of service, discipline, retirement and discharge of staff members in the public service and other incidental matters" (Republic of Namibia 1995:1). This Act established the public service, which includes all the OMAs and stipulates how they should be managed.

According to the Public Service Act (Act No. 13 of 1995) the public service deals with policy formulation, evaluation and execution of policy and directives in its efforts to serve the Namibian nation by promoting the welfare and lawful interest in a professional and impartial manner (Republic of Namibia 1995: 4). The public service is headed by the Secretary to Cabinet who is responsible to the Prime Minister in accordance to the Public Service Act (Act No 13 of 1995). All other OMAs are headed by Permanent Secretaries responsible to the Secretary to Cabinet. The Permanent Secretaries are responsible for the efficient management and administration of their respective OMAs, including maintenance of discipline, management of government

resources and human resource management. The Secretary to Cabinet, despite being the head of the public service, is required to provide supportive services to the cabinet, cabinet committees, the Public Service Commission and assist the Prime Minister in providing support to the President.

Section 18 (1) - (6) of the Public Service Act (Act 13 of 1995) outlines the conditions in regard to filling of posts in the public service. The Prime Minister is responsible for approving employment in respect to appointments, promotion and transfer based on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission. The appointments can either be permanent and temporary, made on the structure/establishment or additional to the structure/establishment within an OMA. When appointments are made, preference is given to Namibian citizens and persons previously disadvantaged; however "qualifications, experience, level of training, relative, merit, efficiency and suitability of the person or staff members being considered for the appointment should be considered" (Nghidinwa 2007: 127).

After independence Namibia's government had to address the challenges as highlighted by Aijala (2001: 9-10), which came about as a result of the apartheid policies, which led to the adoption of the principles of accountability, transparency and reconciliation. In essence, all legislation in Namibia is based on these premises and that is how the Public Service Act (Act No. 13 of 1995) is directly linked to the Affirmative Action Employment Equity Act (Act No. 29 of 1998) in redressing past injustices.

3.2.4   Affirmative Action Employment Equity Act

There are many reasons why laws are made in a country; among the common reasons for the creation of laws is the protection of citizens or the government. In the case of the Affirmative Action Act Employment Equity Act (Act No 29 of 1998), the law is promulgated to protect citizens against any discriminatory practices in employment. The Act classifies employers and employees, and based on the classification the Act is then applied. More importantly, the Act ensures that previously disadvantaged persons are elevated in terms of employment to positions that they were not able to

hold (Act No. 29 of 1998) prior to independence. The purpose of the Affirmative Action Employment Equity Act is to "achieve equal opportunity in accordance with Article 10 and article 23 of the Namibian constitution; to provide for the establishment of the employment equity commission; to redress through appropriate affirmative action plans the conditions of disadvantage in employment experienced by person in designated groups arising from past discriminatory laws and practices; to institute procedures to contribute towards the elimination of discrimination in employment and to provide for matters incidental thereto" (Republic of Namibia 1998: 1). Articles 10 and 23 of the Constitution deal with equality and freedom from discrimination, and apartheid and affirmative action respectively. This Act is implementable only by an employer identified as a relevant employer. Section 20 of the Affirmative Action Employment Equity Act (Act No. 29 of 1998) states that these employers must give preference to persons previously disadvantaged in terms of employment opportunities.

In Namibia the public service institutions are expected to prepare affirmative action plans once they have been classified as a relevant employers. These plans have to ensure that the workforce is balanced, such that persons classified as previously disadvantaged are given an opportunity to be employed. At the end of each year, the institutions must submit an affirmative action report to the Employment Equity Commission, reporting on how the plan was implemented. Once an institution has complied, then an Affirmative Action Compliance Certificate is issued to such an employer. At the recruitment interview stage, consideration must be given to the Affirmative Action Plan of an OMA prior to making a decision on which candidate to recommend for appointment. The Affirmative Action plan would guide the panellists in terms of giving preference to Namibians who were previously disadvantaged.

Hence, seeing that the public sector is the biggest employer in Namibia, it is key that the OMAs comply with these requirements and avoid unfair direct or indirect discrimination in the recruitment process, as the Affirmative Action Employment Equity Act (Act No. 29 of 1998) places an obligation on the employer to enforce the Act.

Once matters of discrimination during recruitment have been dealt under the Affirmative Action Employment Equity Act (Act No. 29 of 1998), then the organisation can focus on creating an enabling environment by regulating the relationship between employer, employee and the trade unions.

3.2.5   The Labour Act

The purpose of the Labour Act (Act No. 11 of 2007) is to "consolidate and amend the labour law; to establish a comprehensive labour law for all employers and employees; to entrench fundamental labour rights and protections; to regulate basic terms and conditions of employment; to ensure the health, safety and welfare of employees; to protect employees from unfair labour practices; to regulate collective labour relations; to provide for the systematic prevention and resolution of labour disputes; to establish the Labour Advisory Council, the Labour Court, the wages Commission and the labour inspectorate; to provide for the appointment of the Labour Commissioner and the Deputy Labour Commissioner; and to provide for incidental matters" (Republic of Namibia 2007:1).

It is evident that the Labour Act (Act No. 11 of 2007) plays a very important role in the creation of an enabling environment for the workplace which protects both the employee and employer. It provides for the protection of fundamental human rights, basic conditions of employment, and job security, as well as protection against unfair labour practices, and regulates the relationship between, employers, employees and trade unions. Betcherman (2014:1-9) states that it is very important for governments to regulate the labour market to avoid over- or under-regulation. "The appropriate level of regulation, which depends on the country context, lies between the extremes and alleviates market failures and offers some protection to workers without unduly burdening business or imposing major costs on the economy". This makes this Act more of a win-win solution to labour issues, as if it is too stringent it can result in fewer jobs being created and leaving workers unsecured. This view is supported by Roux (2014:65), who states that "labour legislation and minimum wages make labour less attractive as a production factor and this can result in organisations using capital and technology as a production factor".

Therefore the labour laws provide a guideline for setting minimum standards for employees and employers, and the regulation of trade unions and labour institutions. Organisations are encouraged to further develop their own employment standards based on the guidelines of the Labour Act (Act No. 11 of 2007). Just as the Affirmative Action Employment Equity Act, (Act No. 29 of 1998), the Labour Act (Act No. 11 of 2007) redresses past imbalances of the labour market and acts as a guiding tool to minimise risk in the workplace, including ensuring that recruitment is done fairly, transparently and does not allow for discrimination.

It is important that recruitment takes place in a regulated environment; in essence it is really about providing an equal playing field for the employer and the employee. This regulation can be beneficial for all the parties involved. The World Bank Doing Business Index is used to rate a country's competitiveness with respect to the ease of conducting business from 1-190. The World Bank Doing Business Index 2017 indicates that Namibia ranked 108 in terms of enforcing of contracts, starting a business, dealing with construction permits, getting electricity, registering property, getting credit, protecting minority investors, paying taxes, trading across borders, resolving insolvency (World Bank 2017: 227). Since, the public service is the biggest employer and Namibia received such a fairly low ranking, means that the country needs to employ reform initiatives in the various sectors which can impact positively on the output of the respective sectors.

3.3 Namibian Policy and Regulatory Framework

This section outlines the policy and regulatory framework focusing on the development plans and strategies in Namibia's e-governance policy and the recruitment policy.

3.3.1   Vision 2030

The public sector is oriented towards outcomes; for Namibia these outcomes are related to reform initiatives that are presented in the form of long-term development plans. In a sense public sectors are dealing with "public sector reform to improve public sector results by changing the way governments work" (World Bank 2012:1). It must

be noted that public sector reform is not a simple task, as the World bank states that public sector reform is a "pragmatic problem-solving activity, which seeks to improve results by identifying sustainable improvements to the public sector results chain" (2012:1). The public sector in Namibia has introduced some initiatives to improve the way public sector machinery works.

The government has deliberately introduced new ways or plans to execute the government agenda to ensure that the resources are used in an improved manner through the use of innovation and change management. One of the major developmental initiatives by the Namibian government is the introduction of developmental plans as part of public sector reform aimed at national development.

Vision 2030 strives to transform Namibia into an industrialised country by the year 2030 and was the brain child of the first President, his Excellency Sam Nujoma. The plan has been translated into five-year national development plans, which have become the basis of government strategy. The developmental issues or problems identified in Vision 2030 include inequalities in social welfare, peace and political stability, human resources, institutional and capacity building, macro-economic issues, population, health and development, natural resources and environment knowledge, information and technology and factors of the external environment, (Republic of Namibia 2004:38).

Vision 2030 is the overarching development plan for the country and aims to "develop a diversified, competent and highly productive human resources and institutions, fully utilising human potential, and achieving efficient and effective delivery of customer focused services which are competitive not only nationally a, but also regionally and internationally". The reason this objective is important to this study is to show how recruitment can play a role in contributing towards the achievement of Vision 2030 and Namibia's development.

To be able to meet its developmental goals a country needs productive human resources and institutions staffed by skilled public servants who are committed to delivering services by the efficient and effective use of limited government resources.

This means service delivery is highly dependent on the recruitment and selection of competent and skilled staff.

Human resource capacity needs to be taken into consideration at an early stage should government want to implement the plans effectively. In the case of Namibia it is reported in the National Human Resources Plan that Namibia's greatest challenge is a mismatch of skills, meaning that skills the workers possess do not match the demand. The National Human Resource Plan intends to balance out the supply of and demand for labour as the country grows into an industrialised nation based on Vision 2030. Therefore, human resources have a critical role to play in the development agenda of any country, because personnel execute the development plan in accordance with their skill and experience. The assumption is that as the economy grows, so will the demand for skilled professionals; therefore human resource development and institutional building capacity are key for development.

In 1995 the country started implementing Vision 2030, which was followed by four National Development Plans (NDPs); NDP 4 ended in 2016 and NDP 5 commenced in 2017. During the administration of President Hifikepunye Pohamba, NDP 3 and NDP 4 were implemented. However, in 2016 the current President, His Excellency Hage Geingob, launched a plan for his administration which was based on the 2014 Swapo Party manifesto. The plan of action is called the Harambee Prosperity Plan. This plan is equally significant for this study as it works towards reform of the public service and promotes good governance, transparency and accountability.

3.3.2 Harambee Prosperity Plan

In 2016 the third democratically elected President of Namibia, His Excellency Hage Geingob, introduced a development plan for his tenure, called the Harambee Prosperity Plan. The goal of the plan is to ensure that all Namibians benefit from the country's resources and it strive for all Namibians to attain prosperity; for this reason the Harambee Prosperity Plan has a theme 'Prosperity for all'. According to the plan, all Namibians should work together to ensure that there is decent shelter, education, potable safe water and health services for all. The Harambee Prosperity Plan is

cascaded from the National Development Plans, Vision 2030 and the Swapo Party Election Manifesto.

The plan has five pillars: effective governance, economic development, social progression, infrastructure development, and international relations and cooperation. For purposes of this study, the emphasis will be placed on effective governance, with two sub-pillars: accountability and transparency, and improved performance and service delivery. The two sub-pillars deal with aspects of recruitment and government reform such as addressed in BPR. It is stated in the plan that with improved accountability and transparency and an improvement in performance and service delivery of the public service, prosperity can be achieved; and based on the plan the public service is required to adopt a culture of accountability and transparency, starting with public office bearers.

Development plans may give rise to new institutions and these may require human resources to execute the mandate of these organisations. The Harambee Prosperity Plan gave rise to the creation of two new ministries to aid in the implementation of Harambee Prosperity Plan, namely the Ministry of State-Owned Enterprises and Ministry of Poverty Eradication, as reported in *The Namibian,* Staff Reporter (2015:1). In the case of human resource planning, and more specifically recruitment, the public service is expected to cater for the needs emanating from the development plans; these long-term plans allow for strategic planning in terms of resources, whether financial or human, to allow for the growth that is expected during a specific timeframe. Therefore, there seems to be a direct correlation between human resource management and development plans and organisational performance. High-performing organisations have taken a strategic approach to the management of people. The World Health Organisation (2001:4) notes that "Traditionally personnel management has been associated with management-trade union relations, maintaining control of the workforce and ensuring organisational adherence to polices of recruitment, appraisal, training and such like". Therefore strategic planning for human resources has taken a prime position in the development agenda, especially in Namibia.

3.3.3   National Development Plan 5

The National Development Plans (NDPs) and Harambee Prosperity Plan all emanate from Vision 2030. To date the country has had four national development plans; NDP 5 is at an advanced stage and is set to be launched during the course of the year (Republic of Namibia 2017). Therefore, it is essential to look at what government has planned from 2017/2018-2021/2022.

Like Vision 2030, NDP 5 aims to "set out a road map for achieving this rapid industrialisation while adhering to the four integrated pillars of sustainable development: economic progression, social transformation, environmental sustainability and good governance" (Republic of Namibia 2017: vii). Chapter 5 of NDP 5 deal with Good Governance; just as Harambee Prosperity Plan focuses on the two sub-pillars of transparency and accountability, NDP 5 looks at peace, security and the rule of law. It states here that government has to "encourage a 'service mentality' to ensure that public sector reform is accelerated to ensure institutions are responsive to public service needs and demands" (Republic of Namibia 2017:78). Since NDP 5 was developed shortly after the launch of Harambee Prosperity Plan, it carries a similar theme of prosperity for all Namibians.

The study focuses on BPR and since IT is an enabler, hence it is only fair to devote some attention to the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in NDP 5. ICT in the context of NDP 5 is discussed under Chapter 2, which focuses on Inclusive, Sustainable and Equitable Growth. In the age of technology work is made easier by the use of technology and BPR is no exception. NDP 5 states that Namibia is relatively advanced as the country is "ranked 51 out of 138 countries, thereby giving a score of 5.0 out of 7.0 according to the World Economic Forum Global Competiveness Report 2016/2017" (Republic of Namibia 2017: 37). Among the strategies that the government plans to execute is the promotion of e-service and innovation. This strategy is based on the national policy on e-governance, which advocates the use of ICT in all sectors to improve communication and adopting of an integrated system for service delivery. This will mean that government services will be

available on a platform (one-stop news and information hub) and this will require the ICT infrastructure of the country to be upgraded to carry such a system.

NDP 5 addresses development challenges including unemployment, poverty alleviation, infrastructure development, a skills shortage and macro-economic issues. However, National Human Resources Plan deals with developmental challenges related to human resources development such as education, training and matching skills to the demands of the labour market. Therefore to address human resource challenges, the Namibian government has adopted a strategic human resources management approach.

3.3.4   National Human Resources Plan

The National Human Resources Plan spans the period from 2010-2025, and it basically gives an overview of the human resource challenges faced by Namibia. Based on the National Human Resources Plan, it seems that the biggest challenge Namibia faces is the mismatch of skills. After independence the supply of labour did not match the demand, as the majority of the workers were classified as unskilled. The National Human Resources Plan is intended to develop the education and training sectors to be able to meet the demand of the labour market. Since independence the country has relied on skills for development purposes to try and fill the gaps. The National Planning Commission notes that the National Human Resources Plan is expected to contribute towards Vision 2030 to develop a "totally integrated, unified and flexible and high-quality education and training system, for Namibians to balance supply and demand of labour market – achieve full employment" (Republic of Namibia 2012:ii).

In the same vein, if the need for human resources development is not addressed, "Namibia's potential for economic and employment growth is further hindered by the existence of mismatches between supply and demand of skilled workers; the opportunity cost of employment; labour regulations; low level of labour productivity in the manufacturing sector; insufficient investment in sustainable rural development etc." (Republic of Namibia 2012:ii). This takes us back to the World Bank Doing Business Index 2017, where Namibia is ranked number 108 out of 190 countries. This

means that the Namibian public service must find innovative ways to meet the demands of labour and so not hamper development goals.

In terms of reform, the public service has made some improvements in the way the public service should operate in terms of the legal and policy frameworks. The documents discussed so far were more related to recruitment and there seem to be some gaps in terms of legislation/policy framework for utilising BPR. The only document that guides BPR is discussed in the next section.

As the public sector moves from traditional modes of administration to a new public service, there are different types of innovation in the public service necessary for public sector reform. In the age of technology government is moving to provide services in an electronic form, mostly though the internet. Like all the development plans, the e-governance policy aims to improve the efficiency of government service provision at all levels. This moves the country towards its vision of becoming a knowledge-based economy that is technology driven by 2030.

3.3.5   E-Governance Policy and Strategic Action Plan

The e-Government Policy was launched in 2005 with the aim of helping the country adjust to the information age and become a knowledge-based, highly competitive and industrialised nation (Republic of Namibia 2005: iii). The OPM defines e-governance as "the use of Information Communication and Technology in public administrations. Combined with organisational change and new skills, in order to improve public and democratic processes and strengthen support to public policies" (Republic of Namibia 2005: 3-4) in the policy.

The use of ICT would make services more accessible and transparent. The benefits of using e-governance are described in the policy and it is expected that it will create a transparent relationship between citizens and the government.

The e-governance policy intends to develop a platform that enables citizens to engage with the OMAs using ICT technologies such as the internet, World Wide Web, and

wide-area network and mobile computing to bring services closer to citizens. The OPM conducted a readiness assessment; according to the results of the readiness index, "Namibia scored 2.2 out of 4 in terms of Policy, Access Capability and Willingness". According to the OPM, this rating compares well with the United Nations E-readiness Index for 2010 and the World Economic Forum's Index for 2013" (Republic of Namibia 2014:3).

The e-governance policy is supported by the e-governance strategic plan of action, which stipulates which services must be a part of the one-stop shop platform and when it should be available. This policy requires that processes must be reengineered so that government can be in a position to provide efficient and effective services based on the needs and demands of citizens.

The e-Governance Strategic Action Plan has five strategic thrusts: impact and visibility; collaboration and networking; consistency and standardisation; training, education and research; and foundational support. For the purposes of this thesis, the focus will be on "aims to achieve streamlined and efficient government operations, as well as improved online services by 2018" (Republic of Namibia 2014: iv). The thrust area has objectives that are implemented through projects and this can be seen as the implementation plan. Coming back to the impact and visibility of the strategic thrust, the objective is to "bring about citizen-centric service delivery of government services to all customers (communities and business entities) through improvements in internal efficiency and effectiveness in GRN back office operations by undertaking business process re-engineering followed by the computerisation of operations and service delivery" (Republic of Namibia 2014:13). Programmes and projects identified for the impact and visibility thrust area includes the computerisation of the business process re-engineering of various OMAs, and computerisation of their internal operations and service delivery.

The e-Government Strategic Action Plan assessment found that OMAs' websites are largely information centric and poorly updated; it encourages more e-government services to be launched, as their number is clearly inadequate and interaction between citizens and e-government sites could be improved. The OPM is spearheading the implementation of BPR and has identified a number of processes to be reviewed. The

intention is to make government more transparent, accountable and provide services with reduced cost, and at greater speed and higher productivity. However, there are some challenges facing the implementation of the policy, such as lack of legislation to regulate policy, lack of collaboration between departments, insufficient ICT infrastructure in rural areas, and slow standardization and interoperability.

Although implementation has been slow, there are areas where some progress has been made; for instance, the introduction of the Human Resources Capital Management System is at an advanced stage and will be used by the public service to manage human resources in an integrated manner. The system was expected to go online by May 2017, but had not become operational by December 2017. This system would allow for the human resources information and payroll to be integrated and staff would be able to manage their human resource records and update these online. This would also impact on the recruitment process, as staff will be able to apply for positions within the public service and check the status of such applications. This brings government closer to its vision of e-Governance and introducing innovation in the public service.

3.3.6   Recruitment Policy

The recruitment and selection function is guided by the Recruitment Policy and related public service staff rules on recruitment.

Recruitment Policy Framework purpose is to provide guidance on the recruitment of staff members to execute the mandate of various OMAs in line with the Labour Act, Public Service Act (Act No 13of 1995), Affirmative Action Act (Act No 29 of 1998) and mainstream the National Disability Council Act (Act No 26 of 2004) and the HIV/Aids Multi-sectorial Response. The key players in the policy are the Public Service Commission, the Public Service Commission Secretariat, the Directorate Benefits and Industrial Relations, The Directorate Human Resources Planning and Development, the Permanent Secretary, the Human Resources Practitioner and the supervisor. The table below indicates the respective roles.

Table 5: Stakeholders in the recruitment process in the Namibian public service

Role player	Responsibilities
Public Service Commission	Responsible for assessing the level of transparency and fairness in the application of the process.
Public Service Commission Secretariat	Responsible for submitting cases on levels not delegated and deviation from the rules to the Public Service Commission where specific circumstances so require.
Directorate Benefits and Industrial Relations	Responsible for submitting general adjustments, revision and updating of recruitment policy to the Public Service Commission for recommendation and approval of the Prime Minister.
Directorate Human Resources Planning and Development	Responsible for monthly internal advertisements.
Permanent Secretary	Must ensure that recruitment is conducted appropriately, principles of fairness and transparency are upheld, and recruitment is in line with affirmative action plans.
Human Resources Practitioner	Custodian of the recruitment process (driver of the process), must provide expert guidance and support to the supervisor and manager, and must ensure that each step is executed in the shortest period of time.
Supervisor	Must ensure that all the posts under his/her supervision are filled at all times.

Source: Republic of Namibia (2013:2)

The recruitment policy is divided into two parts: advertising, and interview and selection. It advocates that post(s) must be filled as soon as they become vacant and preference must be given to disadvantaged Namibians. The entire process is quite lengthy, as the first part takes about 40 days and the second part takes 46 days. The policy outlines all the steps to be undertaken for both parts and it is important that human resources practitioners ensure that no steps are omitted.

In the case that disadvantaged Namibians do not meet the required skill or qualifications requirements, OMAs are allowed to recruit from outside Namibia, with the approval of the Public Service Commission. There is also provision made for OMAs to request the Public Service Commission to relax requirements and the advertising period as well as grant any request for re-advertising if the need arises.

The policy prescribes the manner in which post must be advertised, giving the options of advertising internally in the internal vacancy circular of the public service circular and externally in the local print media with specified advertising times. All OMAs are to bear costs related to advertising.

Once the advertising phase has been completed, the interview and selection part starts, where the OMAs must identify the most appropriate candidate for appointment. The policy provides guidelines within which interviewing and selection must takes place, if the recommendation to the Public Service Commission is not delegated. Since 2016 the Public Service Commission has started to delegate powers in terms of recruitment and as such the Public Service Commission now only recommends the appointment of Management Cadre Positions (Grades 4 – 1) and all the other position below management cadre (Grades 5 – 15) are now dealt with by OMAs as per Public Service Circular 1 of 2016.

As can be seen, if the powers are not delegated, the recruitment can take up to 86 days, making the recruitment process in the public service very long and tedious. In 2012 the recruitment process was identified as one of the service areas identified for BPR, as it impacts on efficient and effective service delivery in the public service.

3.4 Deductions

Public sector reform has impacted on the outcomes of public services, as these organisations now strive towards efficiency and the focus is no longer so much on accountability. Public sectors are moving away from the traditional public administration as the challenges they face have become more complex. Public administrators willing to innovate can improve effectiveness and efficiency, transform public administration processes, understanding the relation between human resources to public sector transformation and support adaptation, transforming delivery of public services to business and citizens taking account of diversity, the uptake and accessibility of the use of emerging technologies in the public sector, reducing the administrative burden of citizens and businesses; and offering inclusive public services. Public sector reform has become key in the agenda of the Namibian public

service and the discussion to explain the relevance of the legislation, plans and policies is directed accordingly.

At the time of independence to date most of the legislation formulated, including the Constitution, was intended to redress past injustices. However, as this agenda was at the forefront, the Namibian government also had to conform to the trend of new public management as the problems faced by the country had become more complex. Hence the review of the Labour Act in 2007 (Act No 11 of 2007) and the constant improvements of the staff rules for the public service. The Public Service Commission in 2016 issued a directive delegating the function of recommending appointments to the Prime Minister for all job categories below management to the Permanent Secretaries, and as a result only management positions now get recommended by the Public Service Commission. This shows how the Public Service Commission needed to make changes to improve efficiency in the recruitment process.

There is a need to move toward the paradigm of new public governance, Robinson (2015: 9) states that "the new public governance approach emphasizes inter-organizational relationships and the governance processes, in which trust relational capital and relational contracts serve as the core governance mechanism, rather than organisational form and function". Therefore, it should be understood that the re-engineering of processes such as recruitment is a move in that direction for the public service. Public sectors have come to realise that there is a need to understand human resource management in relation to development plans. Human resource functions and activities such as recruitment can now be seen as adding value to the entire outcome of the public service.

In the case of BPR, e-Governance reform in Namibia is taking place at a slower pace in terms of implementation, as it requires more of an interoperability of the projects. Currently the country is facing some challenges in terms of the roll-out of the e-Governance Strategic Action Plan. However, it adds great value to the study as the policy guides the implementation of BPR and other electronic reform initiatives.

The recruitment policy is important for the study as it is the unit of analysis; the policy outlines the actors, the process to be followed, provides the timeframe and specifies how recruitment should be dealt with at each stage. The study will add value as to how the process can be improved through the use of BPR.

3.5 Summary

The legal framework, policies and procedures to ensure the effective management of recruiting in the public service is comprehensive and adequate. It is thus important that there is a common understanding and consistent implementation of the framework. The framework also indicates that the public service of Namibia is development oriented, as public servants are required to implement the framework with a level of transparency and accountability, and apply principles of fairness.

These principles have been carried through from the Constitution right to the Recruitment Policy, ensuring that OMAs apply them in their attempts to place the right people in the right position at the right time. Recruitment has a major influence on the capacity of the public service to achieve its developmental objectives.

Chapter 4: Business Process Re-engineering in the Public Sector: The Namibian Case Study

4.1 Introduction

In determining the issues for inclusion in this chapter, the researcher was guided by the research objectives of describing the application of BPR in the Namibian case study and identifying challenges and opportunities to the implementation of BPR in the Namibian public service. The focus is on BPR as one of the many reform initiatives in the Namibian public service. The context of this study is the Namibian public service, with focus on Office of the Prime Minister (OPM) and Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources (MFMR). The OPM as the office that spearheads business process re-engineering (BPR) and MFMR as one of the Offices/Ministries and Agencies (OMAs) implementing the recruitment process.

It is good to establish the rationale for public sector reform to understand why public sectors choose to reform. Wollmann explains that new public management approaches have guided recent institutional reforms such as "downsizing, agencification, contracting, outsourcing and performance management" (2003:13). Looking at the development agenda guiding the public service, it is evident that public services seek ways to improve performance to gain a competitive and comparative advantage only in areas with identified challenges or shortcomings. Robinson explains that government problems have become more complex and wicked, and require solutions that build capacity supported by collaboration across organisations and require building capacity to address, manage and cope with problems in a collaborative way across organisations from within and outside government (2015: 12). The reform is required because of the way in which public sectors have to deal with problems and opportunities that have become complex and require intricate solutions. The European Commission (2009:17) states that "Governments face pressures to improve from their own citizens, their civil society organisation and domestic business, in addition to demands for change from inward investors and from

international organisations. Therefore, reform is used as a mechanism to drive change in ownership, government and management arrangements of the public sector".

Reform of human resource management with regard to recruitment in the Namibian public service is geared towards addressing the challenges associated with staffing. Recruitment as a core function of human resource management focuses on attracting the right and suitable candidates to join the public sector. "Government's ability to address the development challenges indirectly depends on its ability to recruit select and retain highly competent staff across all levels. This makes recruitment and selection an essential part of government long term efforts to build a capable and skilled public service" as stated by the (Republic of South Africa 2015: i).

This chapter presents the context within which the study takes place, covering the historical and political backgrounds, showing how these factors shaped the Namibian public service, highlighting the institutional framework and enriching the dialogue on BPR and recruitment by presenting the processes and discussing its implementation.

4.2 Historical and Political Background

Namibia became independent on 21 March 1990; prior to this its history can be divided into four periods: pre-colonial history, colonisation, the liberation struggle under South African administration, and post-colonial history. The focus will be particularly on the latter three periods.

Namibia was colonised by the Germans in the mid-19th century but Germany lost control when it was defeated in World War I. "South Africa occupied the German colony of South-West Africa during World War I and administered it as a mandate until after World War II, when it annexed the territory. In 1966 the Marxist South West Africa People's Organisation guerrilla group launched a war of independence for the area that became Namibia, but it was not until 1988 that South Africa agreed to end its administration in accordance with a United Nations peace plan for the entire region. Namibia has been governed by South West Africa People's Organisation since the country won its independence in 1990 (Central Intelligence Agency 2013). South West

Africa People's Organisation has since then been in power by winning a two-thirds majority in all subsequent presidential and National Assembly elections.

Geingob (quoted in Nengomasha, 2009: 23) states that "Under South African occupation, Namibia was divided into 11 separate racial and ethnically-based administrations and governed largely as an extension of the South African Administration".

Kakololo and Aipinge (n.d: 3) point out that "After independence in 1990 reforms were undertaken to unify the eleven ethic administrations into one national public service and to inculcate ethics and professionalism in the public service, enhance the legitimacy of the new institutions and improve service delivery and to the citizens". The unification of the 11 administrations resulted in the launching of a government reform agenda that focused on moving government in a strategic manner to equip public servants with the skills and knowledge to implement developmental outcomes such as Vision 2030, the NDPs and Harambee Prosperity Plan.

Table 6: Public sector reforms in Namibia

Public Sector Reform Initiatives	Description
Wages and Salaries Commission	Award scheme, incentive for good service delivery.
Public Service Charters	Guides and promotes ethical and professional behavior in the public service and is aligned to the African Charter. Each OMA needs to have a customer service charter.
Namibian Public Service Charter	
Customer Service Charters	
Public Awareness Campaigns	Managing public relations of OMAs and regional councils, and educating the public on administrative reforms and public institutions.
E-Governance	Providing government services online to citizens.
Business Process Re-engineering	The re-engineering of identified process as coordinated by the OPM for OMAs to streamline processes and deals with the training of public servants in this area.
Performance Management System	Manage the performance of the OMAs and regional councils based on strategic and annual plans, cascade the annual plans to performance agreements and personal development plans.
Public Service Handbook guide	Handbook providing concise information to public servants on conditions of employment, government structure, service benefits, finance, Information Communication Telecom and public service reform.
Government Services Section	Provision of government services contacts to citizens.
Strategic Generic Training Programme	Training on induction module and the customer care module for operational, supervisory and middle-level management.

Source: Kakolo (No date)

The majority of the reform initiatives for public sector administration are spearheaded by the OPM, therefore OPM is leading administration of the public service. According to Nengomasha, the reform programmes are "principally a reflection of reform conception in Namibia as the OPM intends to undertake to improve delivery of service to the citizens as well as to enhance professionalism for civil servants" (2009:164). Although the reforms indicated in Table 6 have been implemented, Kakololo and Aipinge state that there has been no evaluation of reform initiatives to assess their impact on public service delivery. Wollmann explains that public sector reform should be evaluated to provide a comprehensive picture of how programmes are implemented and assess their impact on the government (2003: 23-24).

In 2007 the forum of Permanent Secretaries adopted the use of BPR in the public service and this resulted in a number of service areas being identified for re-engineering. However, before we discuss how BPR is being implemented in the public service of Namibia, consideration must be given to the institutional framework for the study.

Now that it has been explained how the Namibian public sector came into being and how it operates, the focus of the study shifts to the institutional framework, outlining the key institutions involved in the recruitment process.

4.3 Institutional Framework

Since independence the government has had institutions representing the three branches of government i.e. the executive, the legislature and the judiciary. These institutions are responsible for implementing the legislation, policies and programmes aligned to the national development plans.

The executive power is vested in the President, who is the head of state and government. The Cabinet consist of the President and Vice-President, Prime Minister, Deputy Prime Minister and Minister with various portfolios; at present Namibia has about 26 Ministers responsible for OMAs. These structures comprise part of the public

service that is representative and committed to good government, and capable of providing goods and services to the nation.

In this section the key institutions relating to this study will be explored to provide in-depth understanding of how they implement the recruitment policy and how BPR is advocated in the Namibian public service.

4.3.1 Office of the Prime Minister

The OPM is responsible for public service management, coordinates Cabinet and the Prime Minister, who is the Chief Advisor to the President. The OPM consist of the office of the Prime Minister and the Deputy Prime Minister, five departments, one directorate and two units. They are:

- Prime Minister's Bureau;
- Deputy Prime Minister's Office;
- Department Cabinet Secretariat, Policy Analysis and Coordination;
- Department Administration and IT Management;
- Department Public Service Commission Secretariat;
- Department Public Service IT Management;
- Department Public Service Management;
- Directorate Disaster Risk Management;
- Efficiency and Charter Unit;
- Internal Audit.

In this study the focus will be on the Department of Public Service Commission Secretariat and the Department Public Service Management. The Department Public Service Management is the centre of human resources and management practices, and provides OMAs with a framework for policies, strategies, systems and competencies for good governance. Its objectives are "to develop, implement and advise on human resources policies; to facilitate the development of efficient and effective strategies and systems; to facilitate the development of a capable, competent and progressive workforce; to provide a professional and customer focused service

and to maintain competencies needed for the centre of expertise" (Republic of Namibia 2016).

The Department of Public Service Commission Secretariat "comprises staff members who in terms of Section 9 of the Public Service Commission (Act No. 2 of 1990) which assist the Commission to effectively exercise its powers, perform its functions and carry out its duties. The Department of Public Service Commission Secretariat provides technical and administrative support to the Public Service Commission to enable it to carry out its advisory and recommendatory functions. Its objectives are: to analyse and develop appropriate policies in accordance with the powers, functions and duties of the Public Service Commission on human resources and related matters" (Republic of Namibia 2016). The Public Service Commission Secretariat is responsible for making recommendations to the Prime Minister for staffing matters including recruitment.

4.3.2   Public Service Commission

The Public Service Commission is appointed in accordance with the Constitution of Namibia, Chapter 13 and Article 112, and consists of the Chairperson and five Commissioners, who are appointed on a full-time basis for a period of five years. The Public Service Commission ensures that the provisions of the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995), human resources policy, public service regulations and staff rules are fully complied with for recruitment. The Public Service Commission is then supported administratively by the Department of Public Service Commission Secretariat and the Department of Public Service Management to execute day-to-day functions.

The Public Service Commission is "an independent body of autonomous standing, advising the Prime Minister on procedures and suitability of candidates for management-cadre and general positions other than political appointments on government establishments" (2007:131) states Nghidinuwa. Therefore it is expected that recruitment is done in accordance according to principles of transparency and openness.

The Public Service Commission plays an advisory role; this role is stipulated in Article 113 of the Namibian Constitution, which dictates that the Public Service Commission advises the President on: (1) the appointment of suitable persons to specified job categories of employment in the public service, with special regard to the balancing of the structure thereof; (2) the exercise of adequate disciplinary control over such persons in order to assure the fair administration of personnel policy; (3) the remuneration and the retirement benefits of any such persons; and (4) all other matters which by law pertain to the public service (Republic of Namibia 2017: 12).

There is need to zone in on the line functions of the Public Service Commission to understand how it relates to the study. The Public Service Commission Secretariat provides not only administrative support to the Public Service Commission but also technical. The Public Service Commission consist of the Divisions Personnel Auditing and Staffing. It is headed by an Under-Secretary with support staff specialising in personnel auditing and human resource administration matters. The Staffing Division provides critical and technical knowledge, advice and support to the Public Service Commission regarding appointments, promotions or discharges; comments on and submits draft legislations to Public Service Commission; reviews and submits draft policy on conditions of service to Public Service Commission; constantly reviews and advises the Public Service Commission on its delegation; and ensures that placements are made in an objective and fair manner (Nghidinuwa 2007: 133).

The Public Service Commission has an important role to play in human resource management, as it determines to some degree the government's long-term human resources needs, which has a direct impact on the skills required for the implementation of development plans. The South African Public Service Commission stated that "Government's ability to address the developmental challenges depends on its ability to recruit, select and retain highly competent staff across all levels. This therefore makes recruitment and selection an essential part of government's long-term efforts to build a capable and skilled Public Service. To achieve this, Public Service managers and human resource practitioners must ensure that recruitment and selection processes in their departments are well documented, planned and organised

to attract the most competent people from a diverse range of backgrounds" (Republic of South Africa 2015: i).

4.3.3   Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources

The MFMR is one of the public entities being studied, the calibre of the work force of an organisation determines its capabilities and sustainability. Therefore, the employment manager must have a good understanding of the staffing requirement to be able to recruit accordingly.

The operations of the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources operations for marine and inland resources are governed by the Marine Resources Act (Act 27 of 2000) and the Aquaculture Act (Act 18 of 2002) respectively. The objectives of the Marine Resources Act is to: "provide for the conservation of the marine ecosystem and the responsible utilisation, conservation, protection and promotion of marine resources on a sustainable basis; for that purpose to provide for the exercise of control over marine resources; and to provide for matters connected therewith". The objectives of the Aquaculture Act (Act 18 of 2002) are to "To regulate and control aquaculture activities; to provide for the sustainable development of aquaculture resources; and to provide for related matters". In essence the Ministry focuses on sustainable management of marine and freshwater resources and the protection thereof.

The Ministry is headed by a Minister who is supported by a Deputy Minister. Administratively the Accounting Officer is accountable for the management of operations and finances of the Ministry and is called the Permanent Secretary. The Deputy Permanent Secretary heads the Department of Technical and Operations and Resource Management and is supported by four Directors. The MFMR boasts a staff establishment of 482 staff placed across four Directorates and two Divisions.

The Directorate of Operations is responsible for regulating fishing activities within Namibia's territorial sea zone and the Namibian Exclusive Economic Zone, which are

determined by the President in accordance with Section 5 of the Territorial Sea and Exclusive Economic Zone Act, 1990 (Act No. 3 of 1990). The main function is monitoring, control and surveillance of activities both at sea and onshore, managing the marine and freshwater stocks and resources, and managing the harvesting of marine resources.

The core functions are thus executed by the following Directorates: Resource Management, Operations, Policy Planning, and Economics and Aquaculture. The Directorates receive support services from the Divisions of Information Technology and General Services as presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Directorates in the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources

Directorate/Division	Function
Resource Management	The Directorate provides advice on the state of commercially important marine fish stocks and recommendations on their appropriate yields. Management measures relate to species and fish size limitations, closed seasons, closed areas, and limitations on the types and effectiveness of fishing gear. In addition, the Directorate conducts research on fresh-water fish resources in the interior of Namibia and provides advice on the conservation and management of those resources.
Operations	The Directorate is responsible for regulating fishing activities within the Namibian Exclusive Economic Zone. The main function is the monitoring, control and surveillance of activities both at sea and onshore. The staff of the Directorate are empowered to make arrest if persons are found to violate the Act governing marine and inland fishing, making them responsible for enforcement of fisheries legislation.
Policy Planning and Economics	Policy Planning and Economics Directorate co-ordinates the formulation and implementation of fisheries policies and legislation, and carries out continuous policy and economic research and analyses. Administration of fishing rights and quotas and collection of fees. Analysis and publication of fisheries statistics. Co-ordinates overall planning of the Ministry.
Aquaculture	The Directorate ensures the responsible and sustainable development of aquaculture by facilitating an efficient, coordinated administrative and institutional framework for aquaculture. In addition, the Directorate strives to maintain the genetic diversity and integrity of the aquatic ecosystem. The Directorate is responsible for promoting aquaculture production practices nationwide.
Information Technology	The Division is responsible for the strategic planning of information technology and provision of network infrastructure, IT hardware and software procurement, and project management. In addition, it coordinates and facilitates all IT-related project and services.
General Services	The Division is tasked with the responsibility of providing support services such as procurement, transport, finance management, human resources management and human resources development.

Source: MFMR website

The study focuses on recruitment, which is part of human resources management; this means the focus will be on the General Services Division. It is generally accepted that the departments/divisions that deal with administration may be considered the backbone of an organisation. Therefore it is imperative that the Division of General Services runs smoothly to enable the main Directorates to manage the marine and fresh-water resources of Namibia.

Narrowing the focus to the human resources management, Wärnich, Carell, Elbert and Hatfield state that organisations need to make the right decisions about employees, which is not an easy task but is crucial for their success (2015: 3). In the public sector the human resource function is equally important. According to Cummins and Rees and French (quoted in Republic of South Africa 2015:7), "Recruitment and selection are the most expensive part of human resources management and an essential component of any organisation, because when organisations appoint the right people for the job, train them properly and treat them appropriately, the people not only produce good results but also tend to stay with the organisation longer".

The next section will focus on the recruitment process as prescribed in Public Service Staff Rule B.II known as the recruitment policy framework.

4.4 Recruitment Process

In an increasingly competitive global economy, the success of an organization is dependent on its ability to attract, retain, and engage high-value employees having skills, performance, and motivation helpful in achieving organization's strategic objectives according to Schweitzer & Lyons (quoted in Rehman 2012: 76). Therefore since recruitment carries such high importance make sit it a very demanding, time consuming and an expensive task. When the researcher refers to recruitment reference is made to the "process of searching and attracting the pool of persons having the characteristics and skills required by the vacancies and organizational needs. The existence of this group will allow for the selection of candidates which best meet the requirements" (Ososian and Zaharie 2014: 131).

Pahipa (2015: 150) argues that the "purpose of recruitment is to build a pool of applicants. It represents the first contact a company makes with the potential candidates (future employees). Recruitment, is affected by internal and external factors, among the external factors are labour market conditions, demand and supply of specific skills, unemployment rate, and legal considerations. The main internal factors include recruiting policy of the organization, human resource planning, and decision to have temporary and part-time employees, growth and expansion phase, size of the organization".

The recruitment process includes many activities from the identification of recruitment needs, the description and specification of the job, the consideration of possible alternatives, the selection of the features of the job which will used in sourcing and selection of employees, the identification of potential sources of candidates, the choice of method for recruitment, the choice of information to be collected from candidates, the formulation of job offer, the publication of job offer, the collecting of information about applicants and work with them, the early selection of candidates based on the submitted information, the designing the list of candidates who will be invited to selection process Lorincová (2015: 384). Despite these 12 activities constituting the recruitment process, should also include elements of evaluating the effectiveness of the recruitment process state other scholars.

The recruitment process is governed by the Labour Act (Act 11 of 2007), the Public Service Act (Act 13 of 1995) and the Affirmative Action Act (Act 29 of 1998). OMAs are expected to align recruitment to the strategic plan and be guided by the recruitment policy of the Namibian public service. The recruitment policy is aimed at "promoting the image of the public service through the recruitment process by creating a climate conducive to improving that attractiveness of the public service as employer and satisfying the current and future people resource needs by recruiting persons to the public service that will ensure a professional, dynamic, cost and service based efficiency able to serve the citizens of Namibia" (Republic of Namibia 2013:1). The Republic of Namibia has a recruitment policy framework which provides guidelines on how recruitment should be done; it highlights the stakeholder, the stages of recruitment and the timelines associated with the stages, and it makes provision for

interview guidelines and the related paper work such as the preparation of submissions to Public Service Commission.

Pre-advertising process	Advertise (4weeks)	Post-advertising steps
Post created/post becomes vacant	PS approves	Acknowledge receipt of application as they come in
Supervisor request HR office to advertise post (within 2 days)	Prepare submission and present to PS for appproval (2days)	Scrutinise applications
HR office verify that post exists & is funded (1day)	Confirm with Supervisor	Prepare shortlist (2 weeks)

Figure 1: Pre-Advertising, Advertising and Post-Advertising Steps of Recruitment Process

Source: *Republic of Namibia (2013:8)*

Figure 1 represents the flow of activities, including the pre-advertising, advertising and post-advertising steps. This pre-advertising process should start within two days after a position becomes vacant, but the process as a whole takes nine working days to complete. Thereafter the position is advertised for four weeks and the post-advertising steps take place over two weeks; in total these steps take place over a period of eight weeks, i.e. two months.

Next the HR office must coordinate arrangements for the interview to take place, as depicted in Figure 2.
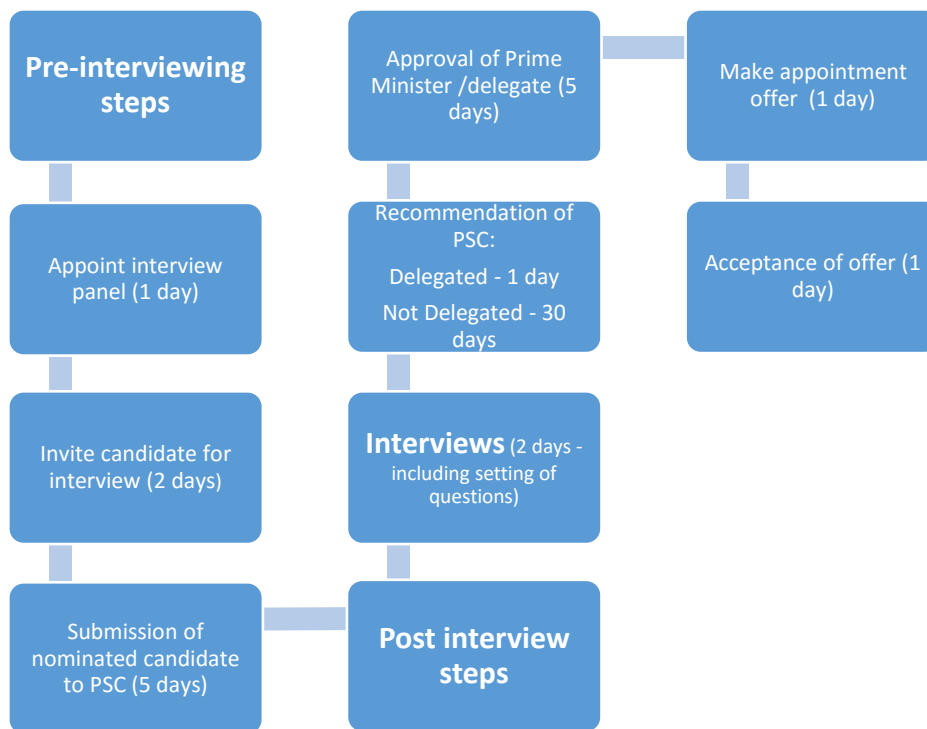
Figure 2: Pre-Interview and Interview and Post –Interview steps of the Recruitment process

Source: Republic of Namibia (2013:9)

The pre-interview steps are crucial, because during this period the human resource office must and coordinate the interviews for the department where vacancy exists. The human resource office in consultation with the supervisor must appoint a panel according to staff rules and invite candidates, all within three working days. Thereafter the interviews must be held over two working days. This is followed by a period of administration, which includes making recommendations to the Public Service Commission, if the position is for management cadre. There is a distinction between recommendations for management and non-management positions, which must be explained. Since 1 May 2016 the Public Service Commission delegated powers, duties and functions for recommendations to the Manager responsible for human resources and the Permanent Secretary of the respective OMAs. This means that only management cadre position(s) are now referred to the Public Service Commission for recommendation, but the position(s) below management are recommended by the human resource manager and appointment is endorsed by the Permanent Secretary.

To the point where the recommendation is required, human resources need to execute certain steps over ten days. Thereafter management cadre position(s) take 37 days until the offer is accepted, whilst non-management cadre position may take only seven days. So in essence delegated positions have additional 17 days included in the recruitment process, whilst non-delegated position require 57 days.

This means that management position(s) need about 87 days to complete the recruitment process and position(s) below management cadre require 57 working days. It must be noted that provision is made for only one day for the acceptance of an offer. This does not take into consideration the period required by public servants to tender their notice either to their current employer or until completion of their studies. Although the policy does makes provision for the notice period, it is not taken into consideration in the recruitment process. This could be a reason to delay the assumption of duty.

The notice period according to the policy is as follows: "one month in the case that it is a promotion within the same OMA and the duty station does not change; two months if the transfer is on promotion from another OMA to another; and a quarter or semester in respect of education or training institutions" (Republic of Namibia 2013: 10).

This section focused on the recruitment process and highlighted the timeframe for recruitment. The discussion will focus next on the BPR process on the public sector; this will give an indication of how the BPR framework, its implementation and the recruitment process have been re-engineered.

4.5 Business Process Re-engineering in the Namibian Public Sector

BPR is considered key in the reform agenda for Namibia as it contributes to the success of public service; as it is expected that BPR improving productivity and efficiency, cut wastage and reduce costs, and improve the efficiency of functional processes in the OMAs.

The public service as discussed in the introduction focuses on public service reform to improve performance. Nengwekhulu (2009:341) indicates, however, that a "shortage of skills has been blamed for the slow pace of service delivery, poor quality of services being rendered. The shortage of skills does occupy a central position in the delivery of public service, skills shortage alone cannot explain public service delivery inertia. However, Robinson (2015: i) states that "Institutionalising effective recruitment and selection in the public service will also serve to enhance the performance of and ensure that government departments achieve their stated organisational objectives. The opposite is also true, poor recruitment and selection practices will in all likelihood impact negatively on the functionality of departments".

In Namibia BPR is seen as a solution to many challenges in the public service, it is linked to public sector reform, and as a result BPR features in key strategic documents such as Harambee Prosperity Plan and the e-governance policy. Since the adoption of BPR in 2007 by the Permanent Secretaries Forum, BPR has been cascaded into OMAs' strategic plans and annual management plans. The forum has also advocated that O/MAs identify a number of processes to be re-engineered that are considered important for public service delivery to citizens.

4.6 Background of business re-engineering in Namibia

This section gives a brief background on how BPR was introduced to the public service of Namibia, starting with the initial training of senior government officials and politicians, and leading up to the re-engineering of the recruitment process and implementation at OMA level.

The United Nations Development Programme funded training on transformation, leadership and team building for Ministers and Deputy Ministers in Namibia in 2005 and 2006. The training aimed to sensitize and build capacity in the public service in order for the senior officials to contribute to the achievement of Vision 2030. During this training the Ministers were introduced to BPR based on the capacity-building methodology of the Southern Africa Capacity Initiative. The Southern Africa Capacity Initiative "provides a holistic framework for addressing the multifaceted socio-

economic and governance challenges countries face in tackling the government challenges" (Brown 2004) and is used by United Nations Development Programme to build the capacity of government by re-engineering processes. Shortly after the training the Prime Minister identified the five pilot ministries: Office of the Prime Minister, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Home Affairs and Immigration, and the Ministry of Trade and Industry to undertake business process re-engineering in certain service areas.

Each of the OMAs listed above was required to identify service areas for re-engineering; in 2006 the OPM selected the Recruitment and Misconduct processes. According to the OPM, "the two processes were identified due to the perceptions that they are taking too long to finalise; and that the Public Service Commission was delaying the outcome of recruitment and misconduct. This in turn impacts on the efficient and effective service delivery in the public service" (Republic of Namibia 2008:1).

In June 2007, after training the BPR team, the re-engineering of the two processes commenced. At the time BPR was spearheaded by the Efficiency Charter Unit of the OPM. The Public Service of Namibia viewed BPR as a reform tool that could fast-track the government's performance to reach Vision 2030 and is believed to complement other reform initiatives such as the Performance Management System. Ultimately BPR is intended to streamline business processes and procedures.

During the period from 2006-2013 about 62 functional areas were identified for re-engineering, 250 staff trained and 12 reports were endorsed by the PS forum.

The report on Recruitment and Misconduct was submitted and to the Permanent Secretary Forum in 2008 with recommendations and were adopted as such. However, implementation of the processes was very sluggish. It was reported by OPM in April 2009 to the Permanent Secretary Forum that the implementation of the two processes by OMAs had not started.

In July 2013 the function was transferred to the Directorate Performance Improvement, due to the fact that BPR as reform tool was to improve performance and as a result was mainstreamed into OMAs strategic plans. After the transfer of the function of BPR, the Directorate Performance Improvement started a new process of identifying functional areas and reviewed the re-engineering of the recruitment process. Table 8 indicates the functional service areas of five OMAs.

Table 8: Functional areas identified for re-engineering by Directorate Performance Improvement in 2014

OMA	Functional Area
Office of the Prime Minister	Hardware and Software Specifications
National Assembly	Information Services to National Assembly
Ministry of Home Affairs and Immigration	Processing of Permits and Visas
Ministry of Lands and Resettlement	Deeds Registration Communal Land Allocation and Registration Land Acquisition Land Resettlement
Ministry of Works and Transport	Capital Project Planning Maintenance Planning

Source: Author

The next section deals with the BPR framework, which explains how BPR is being implemented in the public service of Namibia by the Department Public Service Management and Directorate Performance Improvement.

4.6.1   Business process re-engineering framework

In 2015 the OPM in consultation with the PS forum identified additional functional service areas for re-engineering; these included recruitment, organisational

development in the OPM, registration process of license permits in the Ministry of Agriculture, application process of taxi licences in the Ministry of Public Works, and the registration of veterans in the Office of the Vice-President.

To understand BPR in the Namibian public service, it is best to first present the process whereby BPR is implemented and identify the stakeholders involved. Figure 3 shows the BPR process.
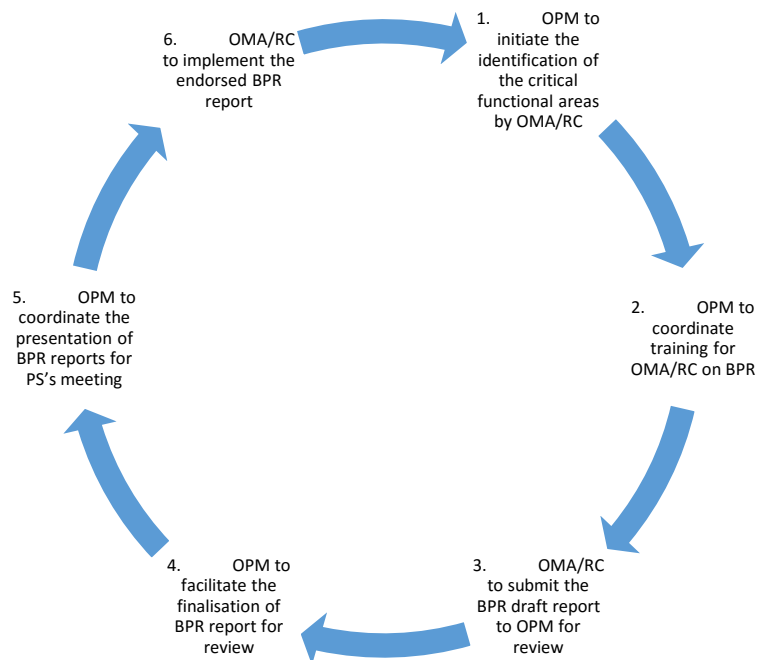
Figure 3: BPR Process in the Public Service of Namibia

Source: Republic of Namibia (2015: 2)

It can be noted that OPM is key role player in initiating, facilitating and coordinating the training and implementation of BPR and providing expertise to the OMAs. Once OMAs are involved in the BPR of functional areas, then the OPM assists in drafting a report, which is presented to the Permanent Secretary forum. The Permanent Secretary Forum plays a critical role in that it endorses the process after it has been re-engineered. Only after that can the functional area as re-engineered be implemented. In addition, the BPR team of Directorate Performance Improvement developed a framework that outlines each step to be undertaken by an OMA as a functional area is being re-engineered.

The manual is a step-by-step guide explaining how to carry out a BPR engagement with OMAs, the OMAs are given guidance on resources required, composition of project team and highlights key activities for BPR engagement. The guide covers nine steps: the project-set-up and governance, identification of all processes, creation of one pagers, prioritisation exercise, AS-IS mapping, guiding principles, TO-BE process mapping, pilot, test and roll-out, and reporting performance.

Table 9: Framework for business process re-engineering in the Namibian public service

	Step	Description
1	Project-set-up and governance:	This step includes project set-up activities such as appointing project team leaders, Developing of terms of reference, conduct analysis of processes, and develop project plan and charters. At this stage the main focus is the scoping exercise of the initiative inclusive of a detailed analysis of project and identification of the outputs.
2	Identification of all processes	The process is identified and is aligned to all linking processes. It involves developing the Life Cycle Overview in order to provide a holistic view of the AS-IS processes taking place within the organisation. The step includes the development of a detailed stakeholder map (internal and external) and allows for BPR team to compare, validate and cross reference the processes with the actual execution.
3	Creation of one pagers	Developing one pagers includes presenting the summarised and categorised processes and sub-processes in the AS-IS format mapping on brown paper. This exercise aids understanding of the processes and determines who is responsible and identify key hand-over points between ministries, directorates and departments.
4	Prioritisation exercise	The step is conducted to rank each process in terms of impact and ease of implementation; this requires that the team must gain consensus from a multi-disciplinary client team on the relative priorities of the processes designated for BPR. Thereafter an agreed upon list of processes is to be executed per wave.
5	AS-IS mapping	The AS-IS mapping involves presenting a presentation of a business process in the organization that details all of the steps taken, highlights all of the interactions, decision points and sources of information. It is supposed to show how BPR changed the processes. During this step it is required that a brown-paper exercise be conducted to produce a graphic representation of daily activities, identifying any duplication of tasks, inefficiencies and extraneous points and gaps. Once the brown-paper exercise is completed, it needs to be critiqued to summarize and document the strengths, findings and opportunities and the OMA must consult with stakeholders on the findings.
6	Guiding principles	The set of criteria needs to be developed (using theories of process improvement such as Lean Thinking, Six Sigma and Toyota Way) for application against the AS-IS process mapping in order to radically redesign the workflow to achieve dramatic improvement in performance. These help the BPR improve processes by systematically applying best practices to each process step during the TO-BE process mapping.
7	TO-BE process mapping	This is the step whereby the TO-BE mapping is radically redesigning the AS-IS process in sufficient detail in order to achieve dramatic improvements in performance, including piloting and testing. It is the step where the principles guiding improvement are applied and requires critical thinking. All the potential changes should be represented to by subject experts of the

		process and new processes should have fewer handover points, should have rigorous quality checks, should empower decision makers and highlight transparency.
8	Pilot, test and roll-out	The step is self-explanatory, as it is required that the TO-BE process mapping must be piloted, making improvements as the pilot plan is being implemented. The adjustments and the final process must be documented in the form of standard operating procedures to be incorporated into the operations of an OMA and accompanied by a comprehensive roll-out plan inclusive of training for the pilot group and all relevant users.
9	Reporting performance	After pilot has been successfully conducted and process produced the required results in the OMA, it is followed by the final step, which is the regular reporting on performance in the implementation of the new process.

In summary, the steps are separated into phases starting with a needs analysis to be conducted by the OMA as depicted in steps 1 and 2; this includes the planning of the project, identification of problems areas and sub-processes, appointing of the team and clarifying roles. Steps 3 –6   deals with the planning for the project using the information from the needs analysis. Step 7 is the actual re-engineering, radically redesigning the process is to improve performance, cut wastage and cost, and eliminate inefficiencies. Step 8 includes the implementation of the re-engineered process by the BPR team and amending it if problems arise and creating Standard Operating Procedures so that the process can be integrated into the OMA. The implementation plan must be comprehensive and include all the sites and resources required for the implementation and the timeframe. The last step is equally important, as it monitors the consistency of the implementation of the new process and makes provision for management to make decisions, if there is any deviation in performance as gauged against the key performance indicators. This requires proper documentation as the progress must be monitored on a daily, weekly and monthly basis.

The next section will look specifically at the how the recruitment process was re-engineered.

4.6.2 BPR and Recruitment Process

After OPM DPI identified the recruitment for re-engineering in 2007, two reports have been submitted to the Permanent Secretaries Forum, in 2008 and in 2015, to present

the re-engineered process. In both cases the reports were adopted and endorsed by the Permanent Secretaries Forum.

Both reports recommended that recruitment be re-engineered; however, the implementation of this process was not finalised in time for the first report in 2008. Based on the non-implementation of the re-engineered recruitment process, the OPM submitted a more comprehensive report for re-engineering and as such the recommendations were implemented. Since 2015 the OPM has re-engineered BPR and this exercise was a result of the cumbersome process of filling of vacancies.

This section focuses on the timeframe of recruitment before and after re-engineering by the OPM. The information provided is extracted from the reports on BPR of the Recruitment Process in the OPM compiled by the Directorate Performance Improvement BPR team.

Firstly, a quick review of the problem of recruitment as faced by the Namibian public service is presented. Based on the report of 2008, OPM informed the PS Forum that the time spent to fill a vacancy can vary from two months to more than a year. This is illustrated in Table 5, which indicates the filling of two vacant posts, Auditor and Accountant. The Recruitment Policy prescribes that the process of filling of vacancies be driven and initiated by the direct supervisor. In the respective cases the assumption was that neither supervisor prioritised the filling of the vacancy as it took over two years to fill both positions, despite the fact that the one position was created and the other vacancy occurred due to a promotion/appointment or transfer. The report states that the cumbersome process of filling vacancies was attributed to the fact that HR was only providing support function to supervisors and was not the driver of the process (Republic of Namibia 2008:8), although the Recruitment Policy is written in light of HR core function.

Table 10: Comparison of filling of vacancies in the Ministry of Health and Social Services

Posts	Vacant (30 days)	Advertised (Running period 30 days)	Closing date	Interviews (within 14 days)	Submission to the PSC (within 14 days)	Recommend ation (within 30 days)	Approval (within 14 days)	Time spent (4 months)
Auditor Grade SP3	Created 01.7.00	11.09.06	13.10.06	28.11.06	05.12.06	07.12.06	08.12.06	3 months

Posts	Vacant (30 days)	Advertised (Running period 30 days)	Closing date	Interviews (within 14 days)	Submission to the PSC (within 14 days)	Recommend ation (within 30 days)	Approval (within 14 days)	Time spent (4 months)
Accountant Grade 2CL2	1.10.03	15.12.05	14.01.06	16.05.06	14.06.06	27.06.06	30.06.06	2 years 6 months

Source: Republic of Namibia (2008:8) BPR

Despite the fact that both these vacancies went through the same steps of the recruitment policy as indicated in Figures 1 and 2, there was a huge difference in the time frame required to fill the vacancies.

The recommendation to re-engineer the recruitment process resulted in the timeframe for filling a vacancy was reduced to an average of 87 days as presented in Table 11.

Table 11: illustration of approved recruitment process after re-engineering

Step	Approved timeframe after BPR(days)
Pre-advertising steps	
Post created/post becomes vacant	No time frame
Supervisor requests HR Office to adverse post	2 days
HR office verifies that post exists and that it is funded	1 day
HR Office prepares advert	1 day
Confirm with supervisor	1 day
Prepare submission and present to PS for approval	2 days
PS approval	2 days
Advertisement (20 working days - 2 weeks)	20 days
Post-advertising steps **(acknowledge receipt of applications as they come in and scrutinise applications)**	
Prepare short list (10 working days - 2 weeks)	10 days

Total no. of days for pre- and post-advertising	39 working days
Pre-Interviewing steps (including setting of questions)	
Appoint interview panel	1 day
Invite candidates for interview	2 days
Interviews	2 days
Post-interviewing steps	**Proposed time-limit**
Submission of candidates to PSC	5 days
Recommendation of the PSC: • Delegated: Prepare recommendation and approval - both in OMA) • Not delegated: Prepare submission to PSC	1 day 1 day
Not delegated: Obtain recommendation from PSC	30 days
Approval of Prime Minister (or delegate)	5 days
Make offer of appointment	1 day
Acceptance of offer	1 day
Total no. of days for recommendation: Delegated: Not delegated:	**8 days 48 days**
GRAND TOTAL	**87 days**

Source: Republic of Namibia (2016:4)

The Department of Public Service Management in 2013 conducted a BPR sensitisation campaign with various OMAs and Regional Councils to solicit commitment and highlight the importance of effective business processes to improve service delivery. Amongst the concerns by OMAs and Regional Councils was the cumbersome nature of the recruitment process. Following the re-engineering, the recruitment policy was revised to limit the number of days for the recruitment process. However, compliance with the recruitment guidelines could only be verified by doing a sample study to actually determine how long certain positions took to be filled. This was done where the filling of 11 posts in different job categories and functional levels of OPM was used as a sample to analyse the implementation of the re-engineered recruitment process.

Table 12 presents the recruitment of 14 positions at the OPM within different job categories and recruited in line with the re-engineered recruitment policy.

Table 12: Comparison of Vacancies filled with actual recruitment with approved periods in terms of Public Service Management Circular No 14 of 2012

No	Department	Job Category	Date Post Became Vacant	Date Advertised*	Assumption Of Duty	Actual Period (Days)	Approved Period (Days)	Variance (Days)	Remarks Major Reasons For Delays Or Timely Response In The Process (Days)
1	DPSM	Director	01/08/2012	10/10/2014	11/05/2015	725	87	638	Date of advertisement 305 days after posts became vacant and assumption of duty, 420 days after post was advertised, instead of 87 days (HR)
2		Deputy Director	01/09/2013	19/07/2013	01/12/2014	309	87	222	Post advertised 40 days before the post became vacant (early retirement) Assumption of duty, 222 days after post was advertised, instead of 87 days (HR)
3		Chief HUMAN RESOURCES PRACTIONERSA		12/08/2013	01/07/2013	258	87	171	Interview date 145 days after closing date of advertisement instead of 30 days (HR)
4	DPSCS	DPS	01/05/2012	01/05/2012	01/08/2013	400	87	313	Assumption of duty 313 days after post became vacant and advertised, instead of 87 days (HR)
5		Director		13/02/2013	01/08/2013	58	87	-29	Compliance (29 days) Recommendation of PSC (8 days)
6		Deputy Director		14/08/2012	01/07/2013	261	87	174	Interview date 139 days after closing date of advertisement, instead of 30 days (HR)
7		Chief Human Resources Practitioners		12/04/2014	01/08/2014	71	87	-16	Compliance (16 days)
8		Human Resources Practitioners		14/02/2014	01/08/2014	136	87	59	Assumption of duty 59 days after recommendation of PSC instead of 30 days (HR)
9	DPSITM	Chief Archivist		31/01/2014	01/09/2014	184	87	107	Interview date 55 days after closing date of advertisement, instead of 30 days and 21 days past notice period for acceptance of offer (HR)
10		Chief Admin Officer		11/03/2014	01/10/2014	186	87	109	Interview date 80 days after closing date of advertisement instead of 30

									days and 12 days past notice period for acceptance of offer (HR)
11	DAITM	Control Admin Officer		17/12/2012	01/05/2013	103	87	26	Interview date 23 days after closing date of advertisement, approval 12 days more than the approved timeframe (HR & PS)
12		Accountant		17/04/2012	01/12/2012	141	87	64	Forwarded to PSC 66 days after the interview (no explanation)
13	POBCS	Private Secretary		20/09/2013	21/07/2014	281	47	234	Interview date 74 days after closing date of advertisement instead of 30 days and 103 days before approval (vetting process)
14	DDRM	Administrative Officer		13/06/2011	01/07/2012	270	87	193	Forwarded to PSC 110 days after the interview instead of 7 days (no explanation) and 54 days more than recommended 30 days for recommendation by PSC (HR & PS)

Source: Republic of Namibia (2016:6)

Recruitment on average must take place within 87 working days, only two vacancies were filled within this time frame (Director: DPSCS (29 days less) and Control Administrative Officer: DAITM (16 days less)) The remaining vacancies were filled with the longest being 725 days from the time post became vacant to being recommend by the PSC. The average period (days) to fill 1 post before BPR was 196 days. The period was reduced to 87 days after re-engineering, meaning that the approved timeframe of the recruitment process was reduced with 56 percentage (109 days). The average period (days) to fill one post in is currently 258 days (without considering the date the posts became vacant) compared to the approved 87 days. Failure to comply with the approved period (87 days) of the process increased recruitment period from 196 days to 258 days after re-engineering. This represents an increase of 25 percentage in the non-compliance (number of days) in comparison to the re-engineered and approved recruitment policy and guidelines. The recruitment process therefore in conclusion did not improve after BPR, based on the statistics mentioned above, as the average period to fill one post currently is 258 days compared to the approved 87 days. The recruitment of the post of Director (Performance Improvement) is a classic example and proof of the reality and challenges, as it took 638 days to fill the post since it became vacant, instead of the approved 87 days" (Republlic of Namibia 2016, p. 8).

Due to the fact that at this juncture BPR did not yield the results that OPM envisaged, they once again embarked on trying to revise the recruitment process. This resulted in OPM developing the BPR manual, which provides the framework that addresses issues such as process analysis, ensuring that there are data for processes, setting up of standard operating procedures, consideration of IT such as the introduction of Human Capital Management System.

4.7 Summary and Conclusion

The trajectory of the recruitment process clearly indicates how intricate public sector reform can be; it provides a good time lime of how the project started and how

government is continuously striving to improve processes and service delivery to citizens.

The Namibian public service was inherited from the previous dispensation and the government was faced with transforming and amalgamating the 11 administrations into one holistic and unified public service. Once this task was completed, the government was required to apply tools that would improve service delivery and that show the Namibian public service started to develop a reform agenda. Public service is a labour-intensive employer and the biggest employer, so the impact of recruitment has to be planned as it impacts on budgets, skills, competencies and the workforce in government trying to reach its goals such as Vision 2030 and Harambee Prosperity Plan. The focus was more on gaining approval of the report and there was little technical support in terms of the monitoring and evaluation during implementation.

The extent of stakeholder involvement was not evident in the reports of the OPM as required by the BPR framework. Therefore, the study must assess if the re-engineering of the recruitment process was effective and identify the challenges in the implementation of BPR in MFMR.

It is important to note that the point of entry into the public service and all public institutions is through some form of structured or unstructured recruitment and selection process. This makes recruitment and selection one of the most critical aspects of human resource management in the public service. In addition, "the link between this aspect of human resource management with employee productivity, organisational performance and people's socio-economic positions makes recruitment and selection susceptible to manipulation and contestations. To address these challenges and to minimise irregular and inconsistent practices" (CSS Africa 2009:3). Therefore it is imperative that there are standard operating procedures for recruitment and selection and documentation of all related processes.

Having recruitment and selection policies and plans in place are not sufficient; the relevance and effectiveness of such policies and plans should be monitored, evaluated and reviewed as stated by Ballantyne, Kaplan and Norton (quoted in CSS

Africa 2009:8). Similarly the process of re-engineering should be monitored to assess its impact on processes.

The output of the re-engineering excises so far has been to reduce the time it takes to fill vacancies within the prescribed timeframe as 87 days. The fact that a management cadre position and a non-management cadre position were able to comply with the re-engineered process gives an indication that the timeframe was not overly ambitious, but the challenges to the recruitment of the other positions should be identified. This study focuses on the challenges to the implementation of the recruitment process and intends to identify these challenges and make recommendations on how to improve the re-engineering of recruitment and implement BPR in OMAs.

Chapter 5: Research Design and Methodology for Evaluation of Business Process Re-engineering of the Recruitment Process in the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology and research design applied to the study, including the data-collection method and sampling techniques, data analysis, issues of validity and reliability, and ethical considerations. The study evaluates the implementation of the recruitment process after the redesigning of the process using BPR. This study will be qualitative and summative in nature and uses an implementation evaluation research design. It aims to understand how the policy was implemented by identifying differences between the planned and the actual implementation. The researcher intends to make use of two methods of data collection: document analysis and interviews. The document analysis will focus on reviewing the recruitment of candidates to fill vacancies that occurred in 2015. The interviews are planned with the staff involved with recruitment and/or business process re-engineering (BPR) at the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM), Ministries of Fisheries and Marine Resources (MFMR) and the consulting company Fever Tree Consultancy (FTC).

5.2 Research Design

The research design will consist of an empirical and non-empirical component, the latter being the literature review, while the empirical component consisted of collecting primary data by conducting face to face interviews with the target population.

According to Francisco, Bitterfoss and Capwell (2001: 21) "Research designs are the overall framework from which you draw inferences about the quality of the data that you collect. Although many interventions use only one research design, you can use a variety of designs if you are using a variety of data collection methods within your

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program". The researcher used two methods of data collection for this study, i.e. document analysis and interviews.

An implementation evaluation research design was chosen for the study with the aim, firstly, to identify critical differences between planned and actual implementation of the recruitment process, secondly, to identify barriers to and facilitators of the implementation, and thirdly, to improve the implementation aspects of the recruitment process in the future.

Babbie and Mouton state that "policies, programmes are evaluated for numerous reasons which include programme management, improvement and refinement, financial accountability, on public demand, to meet accreditation requirements, for purposes of quality assurance and control" (2001: 337). Francisco et al. (2001:20) concur and state that "Qualitative evaluation methods can be used to answer a number of questions such acceptability of programme to population interest, how to addresses needs of stakeholders and recipient, or what should be changed or improved".

The recruitment policy prescribes the steps to be taken when filling a vacancy and the minimum timeframe within which recruitment is expected to be completed. This study evaluates the implementation of the recruitment process and the outcome could add value to the ways in which the public service can improve recruitment. Given that the process has been reengineered, the focus of the study was on to reviewing how that was done in a systematic manner, as suggested by Rossi and Freeman (quoted in Clarke 2011:2) "Evaluation research is the systematic application of social research procedures for assessing the conceptualization, design, implementation, and utility of social intervention programs". Patton (quoted in Clarke 2011:5) states that evaluation research is conducted with the primary intention "to provide information for those responsible for making decisions about the future development of those programmes" through the use of scientific measures. As mentioned by Babbie and Mouton, evaluation research has three purposes: "to make a judgement of merit or worth, to improve programmes and to generate knowledge" (2001: 337).

The researcher believes that this research design has promoted an understating of how the policy was implemented, identified challenges and facilitators of implementation, and validated the results to inform future policy development.

5.3 Research Methodology

The research methodology was devised in such a way as to collect data to demonstrate how the recruitment process was engineered and then implemented. Babbie and Mouton state that "Research methodology focuses on the research process and the kinds of tools and procedures to be used" (2001: 75). The researcher conducted interviews and analysed recruitment files as part of the different research methodology. In research Mukhopadhyay and Gupta (2014:111) state that "interview, observation, case study, ethnographic, action research, archival or document as primary research methods used in qualitative research designs".

Flick states that "Qualitative research is a process of proliferation of different research perspectives and fields of application. Nevertheless, there are common features and issues in this variety. Appropriateness can be seen as a guiding principle across this variety. Qualitative research is located between using methods and taking an attitude" (2011:16).

The advantage of using different data-collection methods is that this allows for and improved understanding of the subject. According to Flick, "qualitative research still remains more than just using one or the other method in order to answer a research question. Qualitative research still is based on specific attitudes – of openness towards who and what is studied, of flexibility in approaching a field and moving in it, of understanding a subject's or a field's structure rather than of projecting a structure into what is studied, and so on" (2011:15). The data-collection methods adopted here (document analysis and interviews) aided the researcher to obtain an improved understanding of the redesigning of the recruitment process, and the documentation aided in the evaluating the implementation of the recruitment process. "Compared to quantitative methods, qualitative research method gives a researcher room to be more

creative both in terms of data collection and analysis" as stated by Mukhopadhyay and Gupta (2014: 111).

In terms of data collection, face to face interviews were the main method of data collection, augmented by the document analysis. The interviews provided the main information obtained from staff with knowledge of either recruitment and/or BPR in the public service from the OPM and MFMR. In addition, interviews were conducted with the consulting agency which spearheaded the redesigning of the recruitment process, FTC. According to Kahn and Cannel (quoted in Muise and Olson 2009: 1), face to face interviews are defined as "a purposeful discussion between two or more people that can help gather valid and reliable data that is relevant to your research objectives". The purpose of using two methods of data collection was to document how the process was reengineered and compare actual implementation to planned implementation, as well as assess and identify challenges to or facilitators of process implementation.

The interviews focused on gaining an understanding of how the process of BPR started, BPR team composition and role of stakeholders involved such as management, consultant and OMAs, as well as assessing how change was managed, planning for implementation, change management, aspects of training, monitoring and impact on the reengineered process. Whilst the document analysis looked at the training manual, project scope document, BPR reports, recruitment policy and how human resources filled positions from different job categories for vacancies occurring in 2015.

5.3.1 Target Population

The target population of this study was the staff from the OPM, MFMR and FTC who engage in BPR activities related to the recruitment process and the implementation of the reengineered recruitment process. The staff were selected based on their technical knowledge and skills in BPR and or recruitment.

To clarify, the population of the study was comprised of persons who were directly involved in the re-engineering as well as the implementation of the recruitment

process. These included the project team from OPM (staff who deal with re-engineering at the Efficiency Charter Unit) and the consultant, the management and human resource practitioners of the MFMR. At the OPM it was the staff based in the Directorate Performance Improvement dealing with BPR, MFMR, the head of human resources and human resource practitioners, and at FTC it was members of the project team.

5.3.2 Sample Recruitment

The study applied purposive sampling, which means, according to Emmel, "to select information rich cases that best provide insight into the research questions and will convince the audience of the research" (2014:2). Purposive sampling is a technique of non-probability sampling in social research, which advocates for choosing a population that can, according to Babbie and Mouton (2001:166), "add value to the research based on the knowledge of the population by the researcher". In addition, Patton (quoted in Emmel, 2014: 3) states that "the (purposeful) sampling strategy must be selected to fit the purpose of the study, the resources available, the questions being asked, and constraints being faced".

In total, four members of the project team from OPM (staff who dealt with re-engineering at the Directorate Performance Improvement) and two staff from FTC, one member of management of MFMR and one human resource practitioner of the MFMR participated in the study. All the respondents were selected based on their knowledge and involvement in either the re-engineering process or the implementation of the recruitment process.

Although the sample is relatively small, but the research feels confident that the participants should have sufficient information based on their involvement with re-engineering and recruitment in the Namibian public service. Therefore it is anticipated that the sample should give sufficient insight into the subject matter.

5.3.3 Methods of collecting data

5.3.3.1   Interview

Data were collected through structured interviews, an approach which, according to Sekaran and Bougie (2013:119), is used when "it is known from on the onset what information is needed. The interviewer has a list of predetermined questions to be asked to respondents either personally, through the telephone or via the computer". Minchiello et al. (quoted in Beale, Cole, Hillege, McMaster and Nagy, 2004: 141) state that interviewing is defined as "conversation with a specific purpose – a conversation between researcher and informant focusing on the informants' perspective of self, life and experience, and expressed in his or her own words. In qualitative research, interviewing is an egalitarian approach that develops research relationships and rapport with participants by focusing on the participants' experiences from their own perspective".

There are some advantages to using interviews for qualitative studies, although interviews are time consuming because of the subsequent lengthy process of transcribing. Gavin states that "the advantages include the interviewer establishing a rapport with respondent(s), providing clarification regarding the research and seeking of clarification by probing on responses to questions by respondents" (2013:126). According to Kavale (quoted in Babbie and Mouton 2001: 290) there are seven stages in the interviewing process: thematising, designing, interviewing, transcribing, analysing, verifying and reporting

The interviews were conducted using a data-collection tool, namely a structured questionnaire, administered by the researcher. The structured questionnaire had been adapted from Carr and Johnnson (1995) from their book *Best Practices in Re-engineering*.

The interview questions focused on BPR implementation background of project, initiation phase, role of consultants, team composition, role of top management, readiness for change, selecting and redesigning the process, prioritising and focusing on the process, starting redesign, IT component, transition to implementation,

implementation/realisation, education and training, assessment and advice to other government agencies, focusing on pre-implementation of BPR.

The respondents were informed about ethical issues such as providing informed consent and the protection of their opinion by adhering to principles of confidentiality and not disclosing respondents' responses publicly.

Gavin (2013: 262) indicates that, after interviews have been conducted, "Firstly we need to transcribe data; this means the entire set, the words spoken, the passes made, and the non-verbal utterances or even gestures. We must provide a complete record of the interview in order to analyse it properly and comprehensively. We cannot examine the content without this, because we will be looking for trends, patterns or themes that occur repeatedly, but also for idiosyncratic instances of just one thing. Doing this effectively will also allow us to record the emphasis the participants give to their answers or the intensity with which they speak".

This required the researcher to organise the qualitative data analysis into meaningful and manageable units in order to search for patterns. According to Gavin (2013: 248) "This is the same as quantitative data analysis: each set of numbers must be reduced and re-synthesised in the same way, but here we have a complex, rich and non-numerical set of data to be examined. Usually this process is inductive in qualitative research, meaning that the patterns or themes will emerge from the data".

5.3.3.2   Interview Guide/Questionnaire

The questionnaire, according to Clarke, is one of the common tools used for collecting data in qualitative research and is a major tool for collecting primary data (2011: 5). However, for purposes of the study an interview guide was developed. The difference lies in the manner in which the interview guide and questionnaire are administered. The guide is set of questions applied to two-way conversation, i.e. the interview itself, whilst a questionnaire is administered in written format.

Separate interview guides were designed for each organisation's respondents, i.e. the MFMR, OPM and FTC had slightly different questions. The OPM is the custodian of public sector reform, so the information required was on the BPR of the recruitment process; however, the consultant provided information purely on BPR, while MFMR focused more on implementation of the recruitment processes. The interview guides are attached to the thesis as Annexures 1, 2 and 3.

Babbie and Mouton (2001: 290) advise that the researcher should be skilled in interviewing to be able to effectively use the interview guide. They advise that the interviewer should adopt the role of a socially acceptable incompetent, meaning that "You should offer yourself as someone who does not understand the situations you find yourself in and need to be helped to grasp even the most basic and obvious aspects of that situation". This attitude is imperative to ensure that the interviewer does not make assumptions about the knowledge of interviewees and the situation that they find themselves in.

Interviews were chosen as the method of data collection as they allow for interaction between the interviewer and respondent as the researcher is investigating the manner in which BPR was reengineered and implemented. This information can be obtained from specific persons who were directly involved in either or both of these processes. Based on the questionnaire developed (interview guide), the interviews took about 45 minutes and covered the themes indicated in Table 12 for the three participating institutions.

Table 13: Outline of the data collection tool – interview guide

MFMR Themes	OPM Themes	FTC Themes
Overall project	Overall project	Overall project
Getting started	Getting started	Getting started
The role of consultants	The role of consultants	The role of consultants
Teams	Teams	Teams
The role of management	The role of management	The role of management
Readiness for change	Readiness for change	Readiness for change
Selecting and Redesigning the process	Selecting and Redesigning the process	Selecting and Redesigning the process
IT component	Prioritising and focusing on the process	Prioritising and focusing on the process
Transition to implementation	Starting Redesign	Starting Redesign

Implementation /Realisation	IT component	IT component
Education and Training	Transition to implementation	Transition to implementation
Transition to renewal /Monitoring progress	Implementation /Realisation	Implementation /Realisation
Monitoring progress and planning for renewal	Education and Training	Education and Training
Benefits/impact on the organisation	Transition to renewal /Monitoring progress	Transition to renewal /Monitoring progress
Assessment and advice to other organisations	Monitoring progress and planning for renewal	Monitoring progress and planning for renewal
	Benefits/impact on the organisation	Benefits/impact on the organisation
	Assessment and advice to other organisations	Assessment and advice to other organisations

Source: Author

In order to allow a more constructive and comparative analysis of the findings, an interview guide was used for respondents from each institution. Gavin (2013: 257) states that "The guided interview involves a basic checklist of relevant topics, but the interviewer has freedom to explore, probe and ask subsequent questions". The researcher had a list of questions based on the themes presented in Table 13. The interview guide overall consisted of 63 questions, which are either open-ended or closed questions. The themes covered the stages of the BPR process from identifying the process to monitoring its progress. The researcher administered all interviews and will use an audio recorder to record the interview to improve the accuracy of the replication of the interview. This allowed the researcher to listen to the interviewee and reduced the need to write and listen at the same time. Permission was sought from the respondents for the use of the tape recorder prior to the interview.

Permission was gained from the MFMR, OPM and FTC to interview the personnel from the institutions. The interviews were scheduled over a two-week period, but took place from 14 August - 03 September 2017. Face to face interviews were held with OPM and MFMR, whilst FTC interview was telephonic as the company is based in Johannesburg, South Africa.

5.3.3.3   Document Analysis

The BPR process was designed with OPM in consultation with OMAs but is implemented across the public service; therefore, as the MFMR is the case study, the

researcher focused on the 2015/2016 financial year and analysed a number of recruitments that took place. The researcher conducted a document analysis to assess how the redesigned recruitment process was implemented in that specific year and looked at job categories filled. The researcher used vacancies from 01 April 2015 until 31 March 2016 and examined how these were filled with respect to the requirements of the reengineered recruitment process. The vacancies included management and non-management cadre positions.

5.4 Data analysis and presentation

Mouton (2001: 98) states that "data analysis takes place after fieldwork, and starts with fieldwork documentation, data capturing and editing and ending with data analysis and interpretation". According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013:276), after data have been obtained "through questionnaires, they need to be coded, keyed in and edited". Coding involves the assigning of a number to each respondent and entering it into a database. Babbie and Mouton (2001: 404) state that "coding is a process of transforming raw data – either manifest or latent content – into categories".

Mouton states that it is important to keep track of fieldwork as it is a "form of quality control" (2001: 107). Therefore in qualitative research it is advisable to keep detailed field notes.

O'Connor and Gibson (No date: 3) state that qualitative data analysis includes "organising the data, finding and organising ideas and concepts, building overarching themes in the data, ensuring reliability and validity in the data analysis and in the findings, and finding possible and plausible explanations for findings".

The results were interpreted in relation to research objectives and the actual implementation of the recruitment process, which formed part of document analysis. Information was grouped according to the sections of the interview guide as presented in Table 13.

The data analysis is qualitative in nature and proceeds after data were collected and entails linking theory with data collected; this is because in qualitative data collection theory and analysis are intertwined.

According to Pidgeon and Henwood (2011:633), many qualitative analytic strategies rely on a general approach known as constant comparative analysis. This entails "developing open-coding schemes to capture the detail, variation and complexity of observations and other material obtained; sampling data and cases on theoretical grounds, and as analysis progresses, to extend the emergent theory ('theoretical sampling') ; constantly comparing data instances, cases and categories for conceptual similarities and differences (the method of 'constant comparison'); writing theoretical memoranda to explore emerging concepts and links to existing theory; continuing to make comparisons and use of theoretical sampling until no new or further relevant insights are being reached ('saturation') ; engaging in more focused coding of selected core categories; tactics to force analysis from descriptive to more theoretical levels (such as writing definitions of core categories and building conceptual models)".

This constant comparative analysis allowed the researcher to compare the respondents' data and compare this data with theory and actual recruitment conducted as emanating from the document analysis.

5.5 Validity and Reliability

Sekaran and Bougie (2013:225) define reliability as "a test of how consistently a measuring instrument measures whatever concept it is measuring and validity is a test of how well an instrument that is developed measures the particular concept it intended to measure". The researcher ensured validity and reliability by piloting the interview guide with one respondent from MFMR and OPM each to assess the appropriateness of the interview guide. This allowed the researcher an opportunity to amend the instrument before application.

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2013: 225), validity can be tested under three broad headings "content, validity and criterion-related validity, and construct validity".

5.6 Ethical Issues

Babbie and Mouton state that "ethical issues arise out of interaction with other people, other beings (such as animals) and the environment, especially where there is potential for, or is, a conflict of interests" (2001: 520).

It was imperative for the researcher to ensure that all interactions with people engaged in the study were proper and in accordance with code of conduct of ethics of the School of Public Leadership. Before data were collected, permission was obtained to engage the institution and staff from OPM, MFMR and FTC. In addition to this, the researcher provided respondents with individual consent forms and information on the background of the study. Sekaran and Bougie (2013: 162) further noted that in terms of data collection it is important that the researcher adopts ethical principles and "also not misrepresent the nature of the study to subjects"; hence respondents were informed of the objectives of the study and their role in it. Thus, it was required that the researcher ensure the anonymity of the respondents and privacy during all stages of the interview and handling of the data. Since ethical behaviour is applicable at every stage of the study, more emphasis was placed on data collection and engaging the respondents in an ethical manner. This meant that the respondent were informed that the researcher planned to use a tape recorder, but all the respondents declined to the use of a tape recorder.

According to Sieber (quoted in Kaiser 2014: 58) "confidentiality refers to agreements with persons about what may be done with their data". This means that in the researcher would has ensure that the data are used for a specific purpose only). Kaiser also notes that "Confidentiality management occurs in three stages: (1) pre-interview, (2) during the interview, and (3) post-interview" (2014: 461). The consent form informed the respondent that the information obtained would not be used for any other purpose besides the study.

Prior to the collection of data the researcher had to obtain permission from the University of Stellenbosch for ethical clearance. The study was granted ethical clearance in May 2017. In meeting these standards the researcher ensured that the participants in the study had given consent and were informed that they could withdraw

from study, if need be. The researcher ensured confidentiality was maintained during and after the interview by managing the processes based on ethical standards. Since interviews were recorded, permission was first obtained from participants and they were informed of anonymity guidelines practiced. It is expected that the data collected are kept for five years once study has been completed.

5.7 Conclusion

An implementation evaluation study was conducted to assess the challenges of implanting BPR in the public service with respect to the recruitment policy. The study is qualitative in nature and data were collected through interviews and document analysis. The population was staff from the OPM, MFMR and FTC. The population was selected based on their technical involvement and knowledge of BPR and the recruitment process. The sample was seven staff from the three institutions, as a result purposive sampling was used and 29 recruitment files documents were analysed for document analysis. Thereafter, data were transcribed and analysed using constant comparative method. Validity, reliability and ethical issues were considered in advance as well as during the data-collection process and after the study

Chapter 6: Presentation of Data Analysis and Findings on the Re-engineering of the Recruitment Process

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study and information gathered as indicated in Chapters 2 and 4, which includes the literature review, policy and legal framework and the case study aimed at implementation of the recruitment policy after the application of business process re-engineering (BPR) at the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources (MFMR). In addition to the documentary analysis of 29 recruitment files, data were collected from the three organisations involved in BPR in the Namibian public service through interviews: MFMR is approached as an organisation that implemented the reengineered process; Fever Tree Consultancy (FTC) was involved as a technical partner, whilst OPM was the lead agency for managing BPR in the public service.

The researcher will present the data collected in relation to the area of study, research objectives and research question of the study. The objective of the study were as follows: to explore literature on business process re-engineering (BPR); to analyse the legal and regulatory framework within which BPR is applied; to describe the application of BPR in the Namibian case study; to identify an appropriate research and design and methodology to evaluate BPR in the Namibian case; to evaluate BPR in the particular case with a view of identifying challenges and opportunities for implementation of BPR; and to consolidate research findings and make recommendations for improved BPR in the particular case and other Offices/Ministries and Agencies.

The researcher used purposive sampling, so only staff who worked with either the recruitment policy in MFMR or the BPR in OPM and FTC would be interviewed. As a result, the total sample was relatively small, amounting to seven staff from the three institutions were interviewed. Nonetheless, the researcher managed to access only seven members, this was a result of high staff turnover at the institutions. The majority of the staff from OPM and FTC who had previously worked on the project had left the

respective organisations and were reluctant to participate in the study. Of the seven respondents who participated in the study, four were from OPM, two from MFMR and one from FTC. To illustrate the actual application of the recruitment policy at the MFMR during the 2015/2016 financial year, the researcher analyses the periods that 29 vacancies were filled.

The researcher makes reference to the institutions, namely FTC, MFMR and OPM, therefore he names of the respondents were withheld for the sake of confidentiality,

6.2 Presentation of Data

The data was collected from 14 August – 03 September 2017 as the researcher conducted interviews. In the sections that follow, the researcher provides an overview of the data collected from the interviews. An interview guide was designed for each organisation: for OPM the guide consisted of 63 questions divided in 15 sections; MFMR had 34 questions divided in eight sections; FTC's guide had 36 questions in 14 sections. Individual appointments were made with the respondents from OPM, MFMR and FTC. Table 14 indicates the staff who were interviewed.

Table 14: Face to face interviews conducted

Institution	Management	Non-Management	Total
OPM	1	3	57%
MFMR	1	1	29 %
FTC	0	1	14 %
Total Population	**2**	**5**	**100 %**

Source: Author (2017)

All these interviews were conducted to gain an understanding of the implementation of the reengineered recruitment process at the MFMR.

The next 15 sections present the data obtained from the interviews with staff listed in Table 14. Responses from the participants are presented under each section for each of the respective organisation. This allowed the researcher to make a comparison of

the responses for each organisation and analyse findings under the respective sections.

6.2.1 Perception of the Overall Project

This section provides the background to BPR in the Namibian Public Service from inception to its current status. In addition, it investigated other processes identified for re-engineering and the approach taken in the public service towards re-engineering of these processes.

The respondents from the OPM indicated that the BPR reform initiative was introduced in 1998 and was in full swing by 2005; by 2008 the recruitment process was identified as one of the processes to be reengineered. By 2013 the process was re-engineered and the timeframe of recruitment amended. The main challenge experienced in this timeframe was that, as the key player, OPM was not able to get OMAs to take ownership of the implementation of the reengineered process. Later in 2013 four additional processes were identified for re-engineering. The processes were (i) organisational development based in the OPM; (ii) taxi permits based in the Ministry of Works and Transport, (iii) veteran registration, based in the Office of the Vice-President; and (iv) issuing of national documents based in the Ministry of Home Affairs and Immigration (MHAI). Among these processes the issuance of national documents was rated the most successful re-engineering initiative. The rationale for implementing BPR in the public service, according to the OPM staff, was to improve service delivery and streamline business processes by reducing lead times, simplifying tasks and improving overall performance in the public service.

The respondent from FTC noted that the company's first engagement with the Namibian public service was linked to the MHAI BPR initiative, when FTC provided technical support. Based on the success of the MHAI initiative, FTC was recommended to assist in re-engineering the recruitment process, which mean that the company was involved in redesigning the framework of the initial re-engineering initiative for the recruitment process.

The MFMR respondents noted that the institution was engaged in BPR in 2005; however, initially senior management such as accounting officers were required to introduce BPR in their respective OMAs. BPR was introduced to the public service according to a directive issued by Cabinet on reform of the public sector. The MFMR respondents indicated that the recruitment process was identified for BPR as there were complaints from stakeholders and the public that it took too long.

The respondents from OPM and MFMR indicate that OPM struggled with buy-in of OMAs to the concept of BPR, giving an impression of lack of ownership despite their identifying the process for re-engineering. Nevertheless, the re-engineering initiative at MHAI has been classified as the most successful. Although OPM struggled with the initial re-engineering of the recruitment process, the success of the second attempt can be attributed to the technical expertise provided by FTC. The outcome of the second re-engineering initiative was that FTC benchmarked the BPR framework of MHAI to the recruitment process of OPM, but respondents reported that OMAs were still experiencing some difficulties with implementation.

6.2.2   Getting started

This section explains how the BPR initiative was started, the events that triggered the use of BPR and the risks associated with re-engineering in the Namibian public service.

The OPM respondents indicated that the events that triggered BPR in the public service can be attributed to poor service delivery, advances in technological developments or changes in legislation. The major risks associated with BPR were lack of financial resources and commitment from management, including politicians. The respondents indicated that the major difference in the respective BPR initiatives for recruitment and the previous ones was in the framework of BPR. The current framework focused on skills transfer and is report-based, although driven by consultants. In the previous initiatives there were no assessments of what cause the bottlenecks in the recruitment process, but the current initiative is inclusive and considered more practical.

The respondent from FTC indicated that the company became involved in BPR in Namibia after it successfully assisted the MHAI to introduce a turn-around by re-engineering the process of issuing national documents. The respondent noted that among the biggest risks of such an initiative is related to scope creep, which when a project exceeds its planned outputs in relation to the resources and outputs. FTC also indicated that there were no fundamental differences in implementing the recruitment process at OPM and the other initiatives.

Based on the data collected, the major trigger for the re-engineering of the recruitment process was the poor service delivery, as alluded to by three of the respondents of OPM; another trigger mentioned was the advances in technology. The risk associated with BPR indicated by OPM is lack of funding and management support. FTC noted that scope creep is the greatest risk experienced by the technical partner. Scope creep can be challenging as is moves the project goals beyond deliverables such as delivery dates and budget. Scope creep can take place at any stage of the initiative and therefore risks must be managed at each stage of the re-engineering initiative.

6.2.3   Role of Consultants

This section assessed the importance of the role and effectiveness of the consultant in respect of the re-engineering of the recruitment process.

The OPM respondents indicated that all re-engineering initiatives were guided by a consultant. The consultant, as technical expert, provided input mainly on methodology (framework), gave direction to management, trained staff, identified bottlenecks, reduced cycle times, applies AS-IS and TO-BE simulation methods and managed the change initiative.

The FTC respondent noted that the role of the consultants was to manage change with stakeholders and to sustain the BPR efforts undertaken.
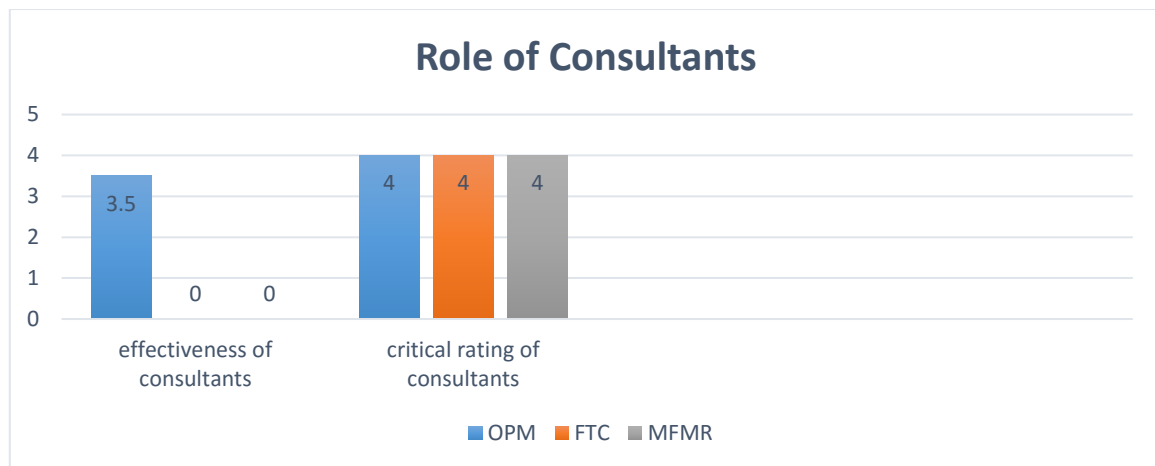
Figure 4: Role of Consultants Rating
Source: Author 2017

The data in Figure 1 relate to rating the effectiveness and the critical role that consultants played in the re-engineering effort. The rating for the critical role is scored with 1 being 'not critical' and 5 being 'extremely critical'. All the institutions rated the role of the consultants at 4. However, in terms of the effectiveness of the consultants, OPM provided a rating of 3.5, with 1 being 'not effective' and 5 being 'extremely effective'.

The responses to the question regarding the role of consultants in the re-engineering initiative was classified as critical by all respondents with a rating of 4, see Figure 4. OPM was dependent on consultants to reengineer the recruitment process, and required guidance from the consultants, but the results show that the consultants were rated 3.5 by OPM making them fairly effective.

6.2.4   Teams

This section investigates how the BPR initiative used teams; to understand the composition of teams and assess the factors that contributed to the team's overall performance during the BPR initiative.

The OPM respondents indicated that the project did make use of teams, which worked according to specified terms of reference (TOR). According to two respondents of the OPM, the team comprised of a project manager, project sponsor, project lead and

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team members; the other two respondents highlighted the roles of team members, which included several aspects: report progress, pilot and test, roll-out process, assess AS-IS mapping and consult process stakeholders. Of the four respondents, three indicated that the TOR included the scope of the project, timeframe and sign-off templates; one respondent was not familiar with the TOR. All respondents indicated that the team received training that focused on the BPR framework, BPR concept and BP mapping modelling and simulation (AS-IS and TO-BE). In terms of the factors that contributed to the team's success, three respondents noted team work and commitment, whilst one indicated political will from OPM Senior Management, Secretary to Cabinet and PSC. In addition to team work and commitment, other success factors were listed as identification of problems and managing bottlenecks, and ensuring implementation as key success factors of teams.

Both respondents from MFMR indicated that the MFMR did not make use of teams. The responsible Division, namely General Services in MFMR, which includes the section Human Resources, was involved in the implementation of the recruitment process. The team of MFMR did not get training on BPR, but training on the implementation of the recruitment policy provided by OPM. The training provided by OPM was to get the BPR initiative established in OMAs, as indicated by one respondent but the other respondent gave no response. In respect to the critical action that the team contributed, one respondent indicated engaging with OMAs, whilst the other noted that OPM needed to engage bigger ministries first, as the OPM was smaller in size and this is where the re-engineered policy was piloted.

The respondent from FTC confirmed that OPM made use of teams based on the TOR; the initial team was constructed by identifying resources from the project sponsor. The respondent noted that the team did receive training focused on the BPR nine-step framework. The factors that contributed to team's success were linked to change management and daily hands-on implementation. Factors that inhibit success were not engaging with the client on a regular basis.
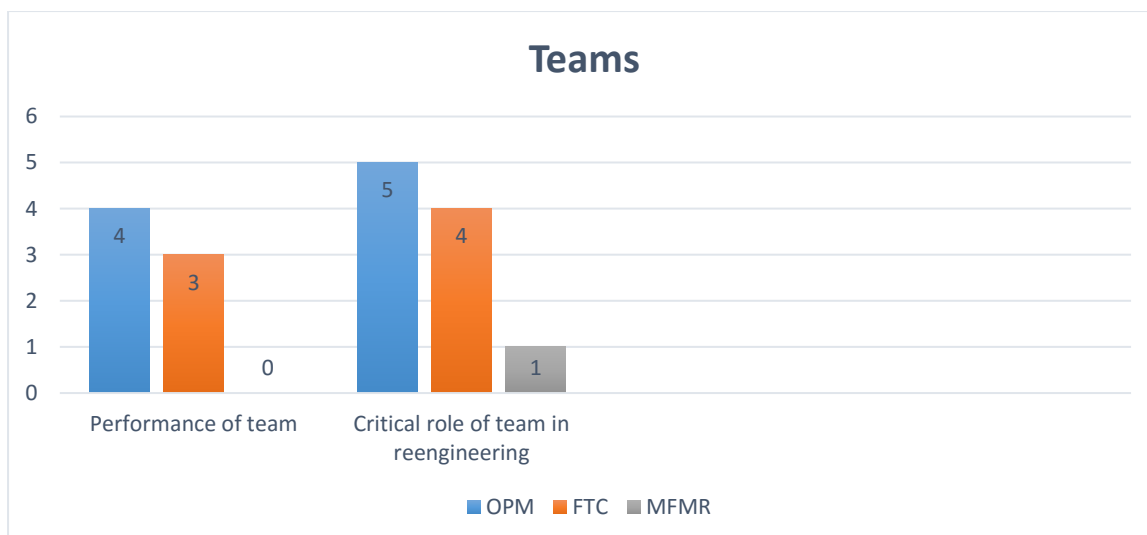
Figure 5: BPR Team Rating
Source: Author 2017

Figure 2 presents the data for the rating on the overall performance of teams, with 1 = 'not well at all' and 5 = 'extremely well', and the critical role with 1 = 'critical' and 5 = 'extremely critical'. The respondents from OPM scored 4 and FTC scored 3 for the overall performance of teams. This disparity is minimal and it can be stated that the team did play an important role in overall performance of the initiative. Therefore, looking at the rating of how critical the role of teams was, it is understandable that they were scored higher by OPM with a score of 5 and FTC, which scored 4. MFMR explained that it was not involved in BPR teams and was not able to provide input on the role of teams.

The use of teams was confirmed by both FTC, though MFMR was later involved in the implementation of the reengineered process. The manner in which teams were used suggests to the researcher that FTC used a project approach to manage the initiative. The roles of the teams were presented by three OPM respondents as follows:

Table 15: Roles of team members indicated by Office of the Prime Minister

Team	Why Selected/Input
Project Sponsor	Ensures project focused on objectives Ensures project achieves forecasted benefits Give approval for work stream to proceed to next project gate
Project Manager	Authority to manage the project on a day-to-day basis Manages the work stream leads Liaison with Project Assurance and Steering Committee Develop and issue work packages
Workstream leads/team lead	Responsible for production of deliverables in accordance with Work Package requirements

| Project assurance | Monitors all aspects of projects performance |
| | Provides advice and guidance to Prime Minister |

6.2.5 Role of Management

The questions in this section were aimed at clarifying the role of management in re-engineering. The questions assessed management involvement in terms of support and guidance in the re-engineering initiative.

The OPM respondents indicated that the role of management of the OPM was mainly to be acting as the key sponsors of the project. The management was defined as PS and Directors of the OPM. The support provided was mostly focused on ensuring that there were technical experts (FTC) appointed and financial resources provided. In other cases the management participated in other activities such as site visits, pilot testing and assessing the progress of the project.

FTC noted that the role of top management was very limited, as they provided little support and guidance, and did not play a critical role in the re-engineering of the recruitment process as top management besides providing resources.
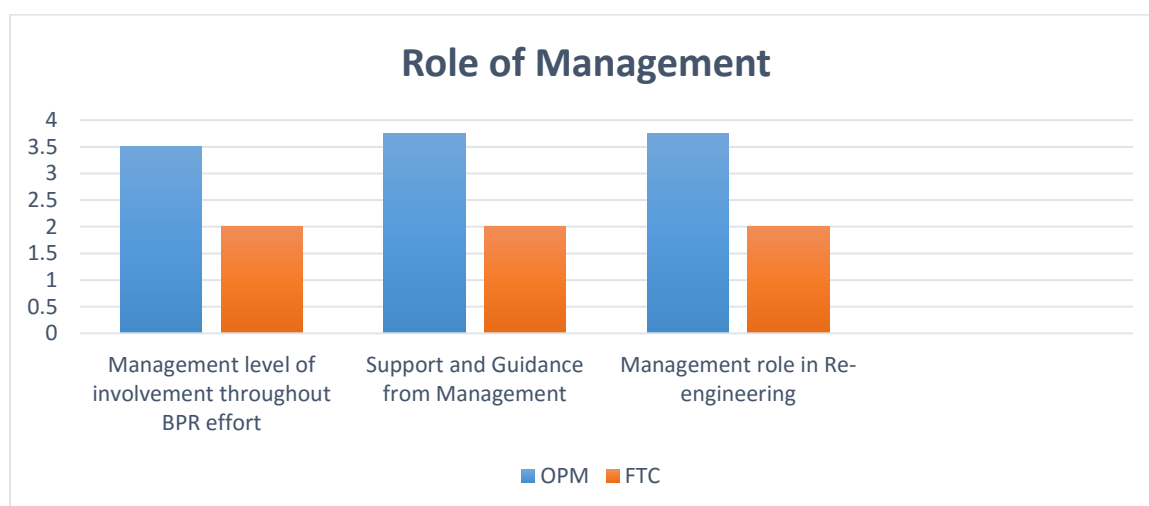
Figure 6: Role of Management Rating

Source: Author 2017

The data in Figure 6 present the ratings provided by FTC and OPM respondents on the role of management in respect of level of involvement, support and guidance, and management's role in re-engineering. The ratings given were as follows: OPM scored

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3,5 and FTC scored 2 for management involvement in BPR, with 1 = 'not involved' and 5 = 'extremely involved'. This conveys the perception that management was involved in the project, but the involvement was limited. In terms of guidance and support from management, the response was similar with OPM scoring 3,5 and FTC scoring 2, noting that management performed slightly above average, scoring 2,75 collectively. Therefore, the institutions rated management's role in re-engineering as fair, since OPM scored 3,75 and FTC scores 2, with 1 = 'not critical at all' and 5 = 'extremely critical'.

The involvement of management is considered critical, according to FTC, as they need to make the decisions related to managing risks and opportunities as well as address challenges promptly. Based on these ratings, it can be concluded that respondents understood the role of management and its level of involvement with respect to the initiative. Theoretically, management needs to be involved in all stages of the initiative and the BPR team must be led by a senior manager, who will be able to sell the project to the entire organisation. The structure of BPR in the public service makes provision for each permanent secretary to lead BPR in their respective OMA.

6.2.6   Readiness for Change

Readiness for change looks at how MFMR was prepared for change and how change was planned and managed by OPM and FTC.

The OPM respondents noted that readiness prior to the start of the BPR effort was not prioritised. The staff of OPM rated the readiness for change at 3, with 1 = 'not very resistant to change' and 5 = 'resistant to change'. This gives the perception that the organisation experienced some resistance to change with the introduction of the BPR initiative, which indicates a fear of change in the organisation. The respondents indicated that there were specific communications and events planned to sensitise staff and management to re-engineering of the recruitment process. The communication tools used were workshops with OMAs and Regional Councils, disseminating information in circulars, training in and familiarisation with the nine - step BPR framework. However, one respondent thought the consultation/sensitisation carried was insufficient. Similar communication tools were used throughout the project

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and this was considered very important by one respondent. The communication tools utilised during the process were considered effective, as it they were rated 3.75, with 1 = 'not effective at all' and 5 = 'very effective'. Despite this, OPM did not achieve organisation readiness prior to the BPR initiative as all respondents felt that this was a critical activity before initiating a BPR attempt and all efforts were directed to managing change during implementation.

MFMR respondents indicated that readiness to change was critical for an organisation prior to BPR. However, the organisation may not have had the right outlook before starting the initiative, as it was more involved in the implementation and not planning. This rating was given to indicate lack of management support and lack of ownership of BPR efforts by MFMR. Of the respondents, one respondent indicated that MFMR had not previously been engaged in any other BPR engagement.

Change management was spearheaded by OPM and FTC, and MFMR implemented the re-engineered policy, based on directives issued by OPM.

The FTC respondent indicated that there was communication with stakeholders throughout the project, though the OPM did not prioritize change management. Based on the results it is evident that the communication was not effective.
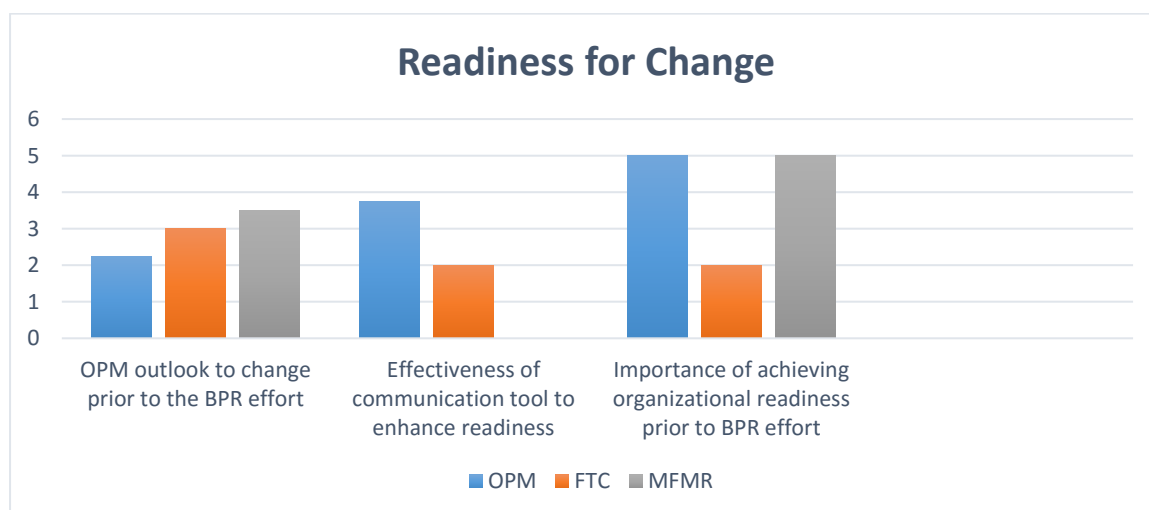
Figure 7: Readiness for Change Rating

Source: Author 2017

The data in Figure 7 represent the ratings regarding the outlook to change prior to the BPR initiative, with 1 = 'not at all' and 5 = 'very effective'; effectiveness of communication tools, with 1 = 'not at all' and 5 = 'very effective'; and importance of organisational readiness, with 1 = 'not at all' and 5 = 'extremely so'. In terms of the outlook OPM scored 2.25, FTC scored 3, whilst OPM scored 3,5. In terms of the effectiveness of communication to enhance readiness OPM scored 3. 75 and FTC 2. The importance of achieving organisational readiness was scored 5 by OPM, 2 by FTC and 5 by MFMR.

The ratings indicate that all three institutions do understand the importance of readiness for change; however, the OPM did not prepare OMAs accordingly and this gives the impression that the tools used for communicating the BPR initiative were ineffective and limited. BPR advocates for radical change and the tools used were generic, so it was not clear if a strategy was developed to manage the change. However, the scores give an indication that the management of change was not prioritised. It is important that change be managed before and during implementation of the change initiative.

6.2.7   Selecting and Redesigning the Process

This section enquires about the methodology used for re-engineering of recruitment by FTC and OPM, as they were the key players, and the level of consultation with the MFMR.

The four respondents from OPM noted that there was no structured or specific BPR methodology used; however, two respondents indicated that OPM management decided on the framework through a consultative process. The consultations took place through formal meetings and communication between OPM and OMAs. The remaining two respondents did not indicate how OPM did selection of the process.

The MFMR was not involved in the selection or redesigning of the recruitment process.

The respondent from FTC indicated that the OPM used a structured methodology, which is reflected in the BPR framework (manual).

The data indicate that OPM respondents had a poor understanding of the BPR methodology, as 50 percent were not certain of the methodology that is described in the manual for BPR. The manual is aimed at organisation-wide re-engineering and can be adapted to each OMAs requirements. The nine - steps include activities to be followed in sequence: 1. Project set-up; 2. Identify all processes; 3. Develop one pagers; 4. Prioritisation exercise; 5. AS-IS process mapping; 6. Guiding principles; 7. TO-BE process mapping; 8 Pilot test and roll-out; and 9. Report performance. The OPM conducted minimal consultation at this stage, and as custodian of the recruitment process, took the lead in selection and redesign of the process. A critical concern was whether the re-engineering team understood the framework. The responses received from the OPM may give an indication that there may be a lack of understanding of BPR among staff, which could result in failure of the BPR initiative. In addition, it would have been advantageous if the implementing agencies such as MFMR were involved at this stage so as to improve understanding of the BPR, the current workflow and prospective workflows.

6.2.8   Prioritisation and Focusing on the Process

This section looked at how the OPM prioritised and focused on the process based on the list of processes submitted by the OMAs.

Two of the OPM respondents noted that prioritisation of re-engineering of the recruitment process was based on the impact that poor service delivery had on the public service. The respondents described that recruitment process in the public service as dysfunctional. The process of prioritisation was managed by top management in government as indicated by one respondent, while one respondent was not sure how the process was prioritised.

This question was not posed to the MFMR and FTC, and as a result the discussion focuses only on OPM. The data collected give the impression that top management gave a directive as indicated earlier, namely that a cabinet directive was issued for recruitment to be reengineered and this was carried out accordingly. This decision emanated from the perception of poor service delivery and increased complaints from

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the public on slow recruitment in the public service. It is important that the public service develop a strategy to improve recruitment to ensure that it is efficient and effective.

6.2.9   Starting Redesign

This section assessed how the OPM started the process of redesign and what knowledge level was required to redesign the recruitment process and what specialised skills were required.

OPM respondents were in agreement that the stakeholders had to acquire comprehensive knowledge on the recruitment process to start the BPR initiative. This was done by analysing the regulatory framework and studying recruitment files to assess the difference between the planned versus the actual recruitment. Of the four respondents, three indicated that the AS-Is mapping (brown-paper method) was used to understand recruitment and identify loopholes in the recruitment process. One respondent noted that there were also interviews with stakeholders to gain information on recruitment. Three respondents indicated that the design process was started using the framework outlined in the BPR manual of the Namibian Public Service, which included, among other things, identification of problems, red flags, time it took, cost and volume work, design change, piloting and testing at OPM, and consultations for refining the process.

FTC respondent noted that after the OPM selected the process, the redesign was done using a structured relevant work stream to resolve the issues identified; this did not require that FTC have knowledge of the recruitment process.

The OPM selected the process and, with the technical assistance of FTC, started redesigning, making OPM the key role player. The key was gaining knowledge on the process and identifying bottlenecks; this was done by applying the methodology and using the AS-IS mapping process, which is a tool of BPR. According to Hammer's (1993) simulation approach, this is a prerequisite before a process is designed, as it can justify changes before the institution makes big investments in BPR. It is normally

followed by the TO-BE process (brown-paper method), which assists with the change in thinking by outlining the process flow of anticipated process.

6.2.10 IT Component

This section assesses the role and usage of IT in the BPR initiative, as well as challenges related to IT.

All respondents from OPM indicated that IT was used for the re-engineering of the recruitment process, but only as an enabler. IT was also used for a parallel system being introduced by OPM known as the Human Capital Management System (HCMS), as noted by one respondent. HCMS is the online management platform of human resources for the public service. The HCMS includes a module for iRecruitment and all aspects of using IT in the BPR initiative are geared towards that.

The simulation TO-BE, according to the one respondent from FTC, includes the use of IT techniques for reducing cycle time. The other respondents indicated IT use was very much limited as the recruitment process was paper based.

In terms of which IT techniques were most useful, two respondents indicated improvement in eliminating bottlenecks and changing hand-over points in the recruitment process, but the other two respondents did not respond on this issue.

In respect to which IT techniques were least useful, no respondents were conversant on the issue. The use of IT was guided mainly by the consultant, according to three respondents who were experienced, proposed changes and trained staff. The fourth respondent gave no response.

The risks and obstacles anticipated by the OPM were related to fear of change among staff and the over-regulation of OMAs in the implementation of the recruitment policy, as indicated by two respondents. One respondent gave no response and the other indicated that the process was driven by OPM. The respondent explained that OMAs did not take ownership of the re-engineered policy, making implementation more challenging. One of the major obstacles that occurred was related to the amendment

of the recruitment policy before BPR and the lack of funding to implement the reengineered policy in big ministries such as the Ministry of Health and Social Services, as indicated by two respondents; the other two respondents provided no responses on the issue of obstacles.

Figure 8 below indicates the rating of the three institutions on the impact of re-engineering on IT systems, with 1 = 'little or no change' and 5 = 'massive change'. The OPM scored 2.5, FTC scored 2, 4 and MFMR scored 2. Collectively this indicates that there was no major change in the IT systems after re-engineering. With regard to IT performance in the re-engineering process the institutions scored as follows: OPM scored 4, FTC scored 4, 5 and MFMR scored 2, with 1 = 'not well at all' and 5 = 'extremely well'. This indicates that IT had a role to play in re-engineering; however, as indicated by respondents, this was merely the role of enabler, meaning that IT was used as a facilitator and not so much as a solution to the challenges faced with the recruitment process. The rating scale for the importance to redesign the process was 1 = 'not well at all' and 5 = 'extremely well'; the institutions scored as follows: OPM scored 4, FTC scored 1, 8 and MFMR scored 3. These scores indicate that the redesign was important to the project results, as the recruitment process was manually managed and was moving towards iRecruitment.
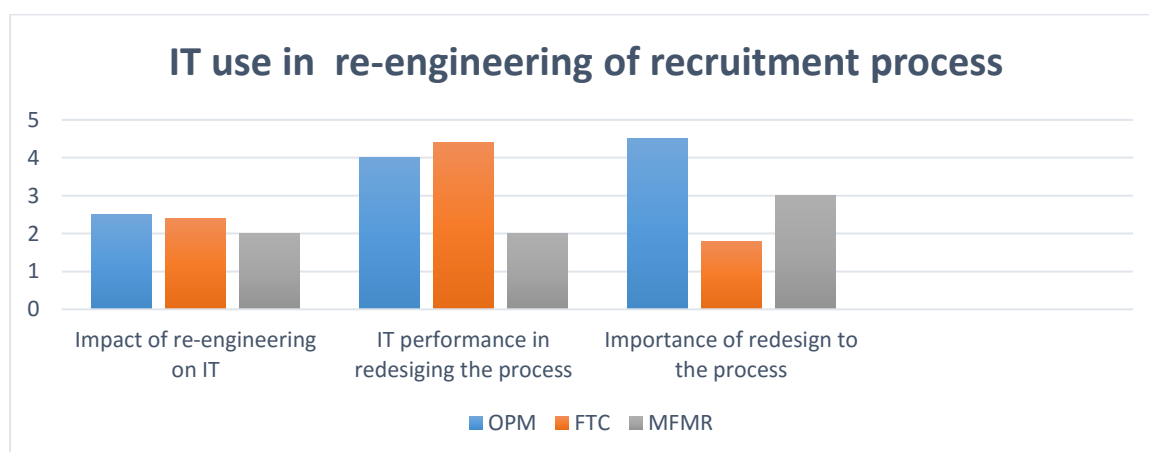
Figure 8: The use of IT in re-engineering for the Recruitment Process Rating
Source: Author 2017

Based on the responses from OPM, IT was regarded as an enabler; the IT techniques used were incorporated into the manual, indicating that IT use did not impact on the recruitment process, as the recruitment process is manual and not automated. The

risk and obstacles identified range from fear of change, policy-related issues, piloting only at OPM and no other OMAs, and the lack of ownership of OMAs of the introduction of BPR. Part of the solution will be the introduction of iRecruitment, which will result in the automation of recruitment; however, IT was used to identify bottlenecks mostly.

6.2.11 Transition to Implementation

Once the planning phase was completed, implementation of the re-engineered process followed and this section looks at the role the OPM, FTC and MFMR played in the implementation.

The OPM respondents indicated that the implementation plan was developed with key stakeholders with specific time frames and responsibilities assigned. The change initiatives were prioritised first, based on quick wins, immediate and long-term change initiatives; the implementation plan was drafted, according to three of the respondents; however, the fourth respondent noted that the implementation plan required changes to the policy before implementation could start. OPM prepared OMAs by arranging information-sharing workshops and disseminating information at the Human Resources Forum of the public service.

The re-engineering had impact on the regulatory framework of the recruitment policy in the sense that it limited the number of days of recruitment to 57 days for delegated positions and 87 days for non-delegated positions. The OPM as the lead agency informed other OMAs through communication tools of the anticipated changes.

6.2.12 Implementation/Realisation

Actual implementation compared with planned implementation was assessed in this section; the questions posed focused on the implementation phase, zeroing in on communication to MFMR and identification of challenges and how they were managed.

The OPM respondents indicated that consultation and communication were among the major tools used to help OMAs implement the reengineered recruitment process. The communication was done in the form of stakeholder consultations, change management presentations, workshops, circulars to OMAs, disseminating information at the HR forum and meetings with OPM to communicate the changed process. Most of the adjustment and refinements to the implementation plan were effected after the piloting and testing, and provision was made for amendments or review of the process according to all the respondents. When asked about the major challenges during implementation, only one respondent indicated that the technical tools did not respond well to the implementation of the recruitment process; the others gave no response.

The respondent from FTC noted that change was effected to the recruitment process, as FTC had to develop a business model for the OPM for implementing the change. All details regarding the BPR initiative were communicated to stakeholders by newsletters and at every step adjustments were made to the process during implementation. The major challenge that occurred during this phase was reconciling the actual implementation with the design phase. These were handled by adjustments by way of scope change.

Firstly, MFMR was prepared for the implementation at the consultations of the HR forum and inputs from OMAs were provided for the adjustment to the recruitment process. Secondly, communication directives to OMAs were based on sensitisation and directives on how to do the implementation. OPM made adjustments as the need arose.

One MFMR respondent indicated that the major challenge that was experienced during implementation was related to ownership and funding, while the other respondent indicated that the challenge was of ownership related to the management of change and the understanding of BPR. This resulted in the recruitment process not being implemented as planned; this was due to the challenges of funding and ownership by the OMAs. The funding was insufficient for daily subsistence allowance and advertisements of vacancies for MFMR; the challenging technical problems were related to political involvement in recruitment, especially for sensitive senior management positions, impacting on the time spent on recruitment for these positions.

Some of these challenges adversely impacted on the implementation of the recruitment process. One of the respondents noted that the that the changes to the recruitment process have not improved the recruitment process, as there were challenges at ministerial level that impacted on the time spent on recruiting for delegated and non-delegated positions.

The implementation of the reengineered recruitment policy was managed by OPM, which took into account design changes in the pilot and testing phase; however, at ministerial level OMAs were faced with other challenges such as lack of funding and political involvement, which makes implementation of the recruitment process challenging. In term of the technical challenges, FTC was able to address challenges that occurred by adjusting the scope of the project.

6.2.13 Education and Training

This section deal with the education and training component of re-engineering, assessing how this was managed for the recruitment process and its reengineered version.

Three of the OPM respondents noted that the amount of training required was more directed for the BPR team and excluded aspects of the recruitment process; 1 of the respondents gave no response.

It was noted by three respondents that the training was insufficient as it excluded OMAs and they proposed that it include best practices in BPR for the public service; one respondent gave no response. Of the three respondents, one respondent suggested that the insufficient training was linked to lack of financial resources.

MFMR respondents indicated that they were not trained on BPR but sensitised to the implementation of the re-engineered recruitment process. This resulted in the non-involvement of OMAs in re-engineering.

Performance of training in BPR effort
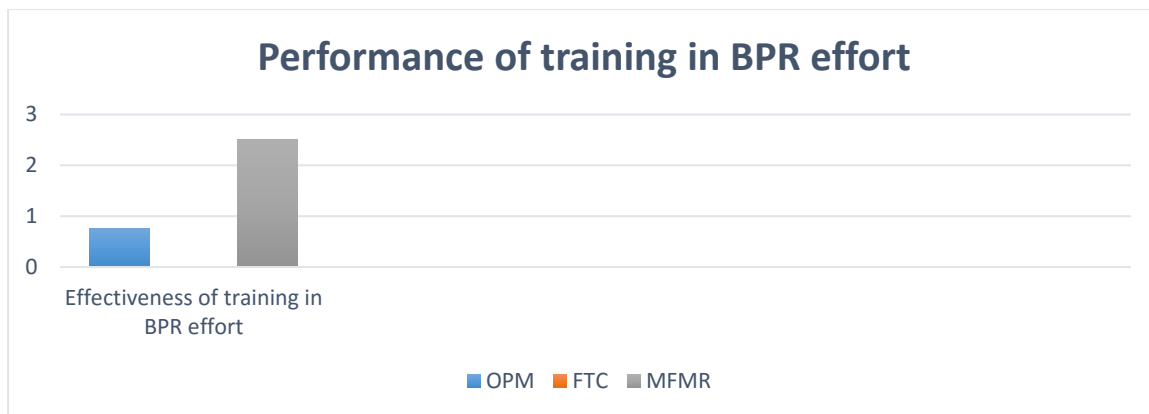
Figure 9: Performance of training in BPR effort
Source: Author 2017

Figure 9 rates the effectiveness of the training for BPR, as rated by OPM and MFMR. OPM scored effectiveness at 2. 5 and MFMR scored 0.75, with 1 = 'not at all' and 5 = 'extremely well' in terms of performance. This means that training was insufficient as reflected in Figure 9.This gives an impression that OPM focused more on education to the OMAs, while training was reserved for the OPM staff/BPR team members.

6.2.14 Monitoring Progress and Planning for Renewal

Any project includes aspects of monitoring to assess implementation and performance; therefore this section assesses how the re-engineering of the recruitment process was planned and managed, including aspects of continuous improvement.

The OPM respondents noted ongoing monitoring of the way that implementation of the recruitment policy was conducted, as the final step in the manual focused on reporting performance. There was a reporting mechanisms devised and OMAs were expected to report to management on implementation. FTC included a reporting framework to ensure that there were accurate statistics for the new process. The reports were used by management to make decisions on remedial action. All respondents from OPM noted that implementation was being monitored.

FTC ensured ongoing monitoring of the implementation by ensuring that a sustainability phase of the project was conducted by providing tools for monitoring and

reporting. FTC indicated that the impact of re-engineering on the structure of the organisation was significantly optimised and the structure rationalised.

MFMR respondents noted that OPM did not continuously evaluate performance of individual OMAs and that there is room for improvement in that area.

The OPM had received the necessary tools from FTC; however, it did not seem to have the capacity to assess individual OMAs' performance on BPR of re-engineering the process.

6.2.15 Benefits/Impact on the Organisation

This section looks at whether BPR yielded any results and assesses the success of the project in relation to the recruitment process.

One respondent from OPM indicated that the difference between this project and that previously done by OPM was in the piloting and testing that took place in the current BPR framework, but not previously. One respondent indicated that for the first time the processes added value to work processes as past efforts were not directed as such, whilst the other two respondents provided no information on this. It was noted that the BPR process did not have a significant impact on the organisation as the framework was standalone and applicable to more than one process.

MFMR – The project impact on organisational recruitment takes very long and needs BPR to be applied comprehensively. Recruitment was done in casual fashion and it is to tighten up the process. Other respondents noted BPR can improve the recruitment process, which needs to change to reap the benefits of effective recruitment.
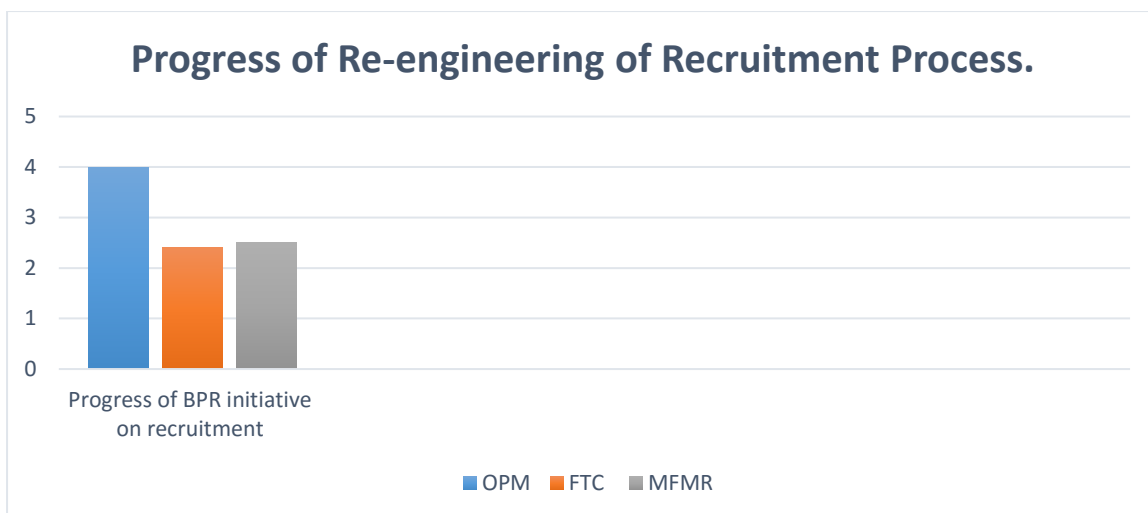
Figure 10: Rating Progress of Re-engineering of Recruitment Process [change in Figure heading as well]

Source: Author 2017

Figure 10 indicates that OPM noted significant progress in the re-engineering of the recruitment process with a score of 4 and FTC scored 2.4 and MFMR scoring 2.5. The rating scale was 1 = 'totally dissatisfied' and 5 = 'totally satisfied' with the progress of re-engineering.

The fact that the OPM took so long to reengineer the recruitment process and experienced many challenges, such as scope creep, which delayed the implementation of the recruitment policy, means that it is understandable that FTC rated the progress below average and MFMR average as there is room for improvement. The OPM as lead agency may have its own judgement on why scoring is so high and this may be due to the effort placed in re-engineering more than one process simultaneously. This is despite the fact that OPM struggled with OMAs not taking ownership of the new processes.

6.2.16 Assessment and Advice to Other Organisations

This section looks at lesson(s) learnt and recommendation(s) made to either of the organisations.

All the respondents from OPM noted that more focus should be placed on monitoring of the implementation and better communication to ensure "buy-in" for change; change management was critical as it facilitates changes in the mindset and attitudes of staff. The respondents proposed that re-engineering initiatives be included in organisation planning, inclusive of budgetary provisions and funds for training.

In terms of OPM respondents the critical "must not do" in re-engineering was to think that all stakeholders will support the change efforts. Not obtaining "buy-in" from those involved, not consulting with management and other stakeholders (ownership) and changing people's mind-set about change can have an adverse impact on the re-engineering initiative.

One of the OPM respondents' stated that the involvement of all affected staff is key and OMAs must ensure management support and commitment, and consult widely before and during the change initiative.

In terms of advice given to OMAs, one respondent noted that institutions need to understand the difference between redesign, re-engineering and improvement, as it is important to understand which methodology must be used.

6.3 Document Analysis of Recruitment Files

Table 16: Vacancies recruited in 2015/2016 financial year in Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources

No	Department/ Directorate/division	Job category	Date post became vacant	Date advertised	Assumption of duty	Actual period for recruitment	Approved Period of recruitment	Variance	Remarks Major reasons for delays or timely response in the process
1	DTOP & RM	Deputy Permanent Secretary	01/08/2008	31/07/2015	08/02/2016	192	87	105	The post was advertised on numerous occasions, interviewed and filled
2	Operations	Director	01/07/2015	22/07/2015	Not filled to date	771 (by 31 August 2017)	87	684	Interview was conducted, but post could not be filled due to technicalities
3	Aquaculture	Director	01/07/2015	22/07/2015	01/09/2016	405	87	318	Request to advertise the position was not submitted timeously to the HR.
4	General Services	Learning Development Officer	20/3/2010	14/08/2015	01/04/2016	229	57	172	Request to advertise the position was not submitted timeously to the HR.
5	General Services	PRO	01/10/2015	14/08/2015	10/02/2016	178	57	127	Request to advertise the position was not submitted timeously to the HR.
6	General Services	Private Secretary to the DPS	Post created when	14/08/205	N/A	703 (by 31 August 2017)	57	646	Post could not be filled due to lack of office space
7	TS	Chief Administrative Officer	01/07/2014	19/09/2015	01/07/2016	296	57	239	Delay from HR Office and the Division as well as unavailability of panel members.
8	Aquaculture	Administrative Officer	21/02/2014	01/04/2015	01/11/2015	214	57	157	Budgetary constraints on DSA
9	Resource Management	Fisheries Biologist, Grade 8	01/05/2015	01/07/2015	01/09/2015	62	57	5	Filled within one month after the required period

10	Resource Management	Fisheries Research Technician, Grade 9	01/05/2015	01/07/2015	01/10/2015	92	57	35	Request to advertise submitted late
11	Resource Management	Senior Fisheries Biologist Grade 6	01/06/2015	29/06/2015	01/02/2016	306	57	249	Budgetary constraints/unavailability of DSA
12	Monitoring Control and Surveillance	Administrative Officer, Grade 12	01/04/2015	06/11/2015	01/01/2016	55	57	-2	Filled timeously
13	Resource Management	Senior Fisheries Biologist, Grade 6	01/01/2015	27/02/2015	01/08/2016	490	57	433	The post advertised twice, interviews conducted twice and in both incidents the candidate[?] could not find suitable candidates; succeeded on third attempt
14	General Services	Internal Audit, Grade 8	01/04/2014	27/02/2015	01/09/2015	521	57	464	The post advertised twice, interviews conducted twice and in both cases the MFMR could not find suitable candidates. The incumbent was appointed after the recommend candidates declined the offer.
15	Resource Management	Fisheries Biologist, Grade 8	01/02/205	27/02/2015	01/08/2015	154	57	97	Request to advertise submitted late
16	Aquaculture	Fisheries Biologist, Grade 8	01/03/2015	27/02/2015	01/09/2015	124	57	67	Request to advertise submitted late
17	General Services	Accountant, grade 8	01/01/2015	27/02/205	21/10/2015	235	57	178	Administrative problems
18	Monitoring, Control and Surveillance	Fisheries Inspector, Grade 11	01/02/2014	06/11/205	01/11/2016	360	57	303	Vacant positions were frozen due to budgetary constraints

19	Policy, Planning and Economics	Chief Policy Analyst, Grade 6	01/10/2015	16/10/2015	To date not filled	685 (by 31 August 2017)	57	628	Due to administrative errors (time lapse), the post was re-advertised on 04/11/2016
20	Policy, Planning and Economics	Policy Analysts, Grade 7	01/10/2015	16/10/2015	To date not filled	685 (by 31 August 2017)	57	628	Due to administrative errors (time lapse), the post was re-advertised on 04/11/2016
21	Aquaculture	Fisheries Research Technician	03/10/205	6/10/2015	04/07/2016	260	57	203	Budgetary constraints on DSA
22	Information Technology	Chief Technician, grade 11	01/12/2015	15/01/2016	01/04/2016	76	57	19	Filled within one month after the required period
23	Resource Management	Senior Fisheries Biologist, Grade 6	01/11/2015	26/02/2016	01/09/2016	187	57	130	Budgetary constraints
24	Resource Management	Fisheries Research Technician, Grade 8	01/09/2015	26/02/2016	01/04/2016	34	57	-23	Filled timeously
25	Resource Management	Fisheries Research technician, Grade 9	01/01/2015	26/02/2016	01/05/2016	64	57	7	Filled within one month later after the required period
26	Resource Management	Fisheries Research technician, Grade 8	01/11/2015	26/02/2016	01/09/2016	187	57	130	Budgetary constraints
27	Resource Management	Fisheries Research	01/10/2015	26/02/2016	01/05/2016	64	57	7	Filled within one month after the required period

		28technician, Grade 9							
28	Aquaculture	Fisheries Research Technician, Grade 9	01/12/2015	26/02/2016	01/08/2016	156	57	99	Budgetary constraints
29	Resource Management	Senior Fisheries Research technician, grade 8	01/09/2014	26/02/2016	Position not filled by 31 August 2017	366	57	309	No suitable candidate could be found

Source: Author 2017

Table 16 depicts the vacancies of the MFMR in 2015/2016 and how these positions were advertised, filled or not.

2015/2016 Vacancies in MFMR

■ Delegated   ■ Non-Delegated
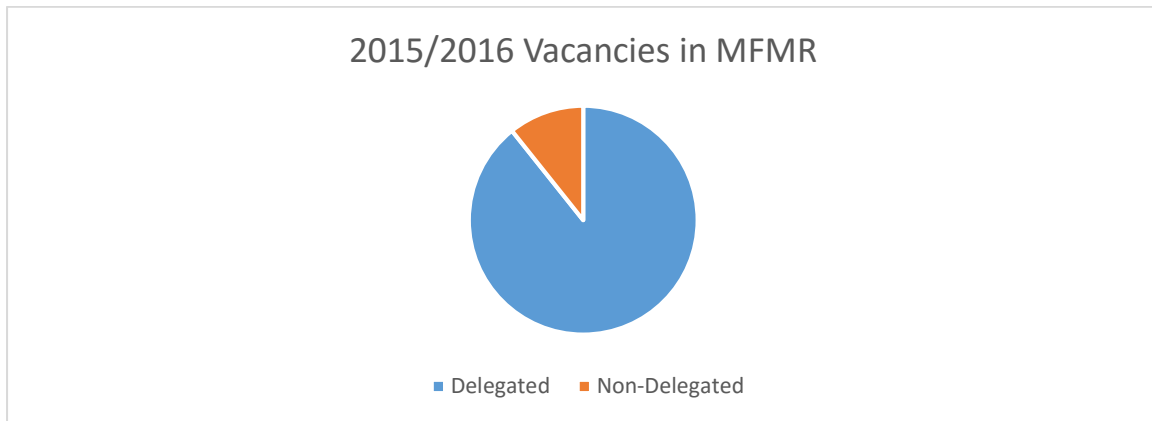
Figure 11: Vacancies in MFMR

Source: Author (2017)

The 29 vacancies consisted of three non-delegated and 26 delegated positions (see Figure 11). The delegated posts (grades 1 - 4) require approval by PSC and can only be recommended by the MFR; however, the non-delegated positions are recommended and filled at MFMR. All the positions below management from grades 5 – 15 are recommended by the HR manager and appointed by the PS. The recruitment policy indicates that the non-delegated positions need to be filled within 87 working days, whilst the delegated positions must be filled within 57 working days.

Recruitment statistics
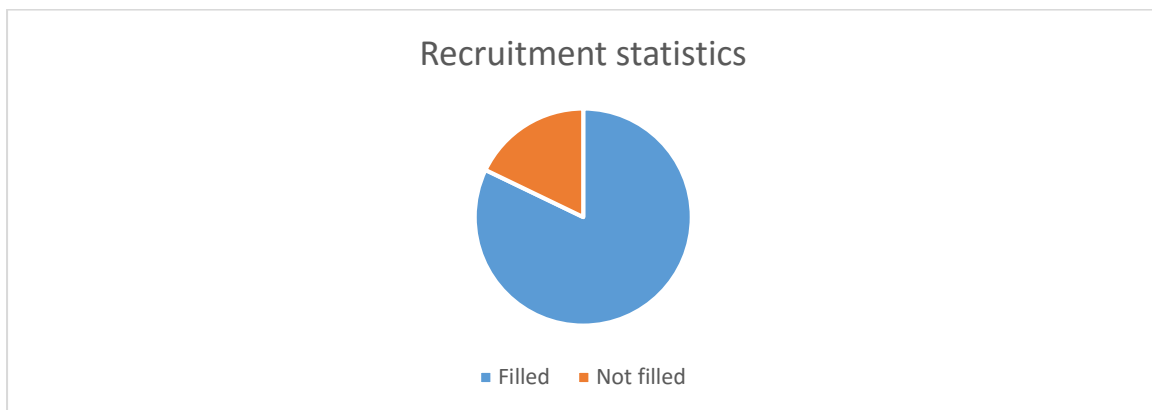
■ Filled   ■ Not filled

Figure 12: Positions filled by 31 August 2017

Source: Author (2017)

As of 31 August 2017, 82 percent of the respective positions were filled and18 percent were not filled, as depicted in Figure 9.

Figure 13: Reasons for delayed recruitment

Source: Author 2017

Figure 13 lists the reasons why recruitment was delayed and highlights the challenges experienced whilst implementing the re-engineered recruitment process.

Of the 29 vacancies, only two were recruited timeously, with two and 23 days respectively remaining. Next only four positions were recruited within a month after the recommend dates, which ranged from 5 to 19 days, since a month has on average 22 working days; together these constitute about 21 percent of the vacancies filled. The longest a position remained vacant was 684 days (by 31 August 2017). It should be noted that none of the non-delegated positions were recruited timeously and the shortest period within which those positions were filled was 192 days, as reflected in Table 16. Table 16 indicates that the MFMR experienced many challenges in filling 27 of the positions as it was unable to recruit staff in the required timeframe.

6.4 Conclusion

The data were collected from interviews conducted with seven staff members of MFMR, OPM and FTC who were involved in the re-engineering of the recruitment process in the Namibian public service. The main topics covered the stages of re-

engineering, including planning for BPR, identification of processes, analysing process (As-Is), redesigning processes (To-Be), implementation of redesigned process, and monitoring the implementation of the process. In addition to the interviews, the recruitment files of the vacancies of the MFMR were examined to assess how the recruitment process was implemented. Despite the challenges observed in the implementation of the recruitment process, there was a commitment from FTC, MFMR and OPM to review the re-engineered recruitment process to improve the efficiency of staffing in the public service.

This chapter presents the data collected and the results achieved based on the research design implemented during the research process. The data collected from the respondents will be analysed in part to the research objectives in Chapter 7.

Chapter 7: Findings, Recommendations and Conclusion for Application of Business Process Re-Engineering in Namibian Public Service

7.1 Introduction

Based on the data collected as reflected in Chapter 6, this chapter reviews the research findings as per the research objectives, however focus will be placed on the consolidation of research findings and recommendations for the improvement of Business Process Re-engineering.

This chapter contains discussion on the findings of the study based on data collected in terms of the research design and methodology as indicated in Chapter 5. The findings will be compared to the literature review presented in Chapter 2, highlight the policy and regulatory environment and the case study as presented in Chapters 3 and 4 respectively. Each sections ends with recommendations to address the problem identified in Chapter 1, which can be summarised as the ineffective recruitment of public servants. The aim of the study was therefore to demonstrate how BPR was implemented in respect of the recruitment process in the Namibian public service.

7.2 Findings

7.2.1 Identification of challenges for Business Process Re-engineering implementation

The main objective of the study was to investigate the challenges faced in Business Process Re-engineering BPR implementation in the recruitment process.

It was important to contextualise the study within other research addressing a similar problem. The literature review showed that there were limited studies that reviewed the application of BPR to the public sector. Despite this, the researcher was able to identify challenges related to the implementation of BPR in the public sector, but more so in the private sector. The challenges emanated from different stages of the re-engineering of the recruitment process, i.e. starting from planning, implementation and

subsequently monitoring of the re-engineering. The study considered the motivating factors of the public sector to engage in BPR, which was partly attributed to the emergence of the doctrines of new public management, new public governance and co-production. New public management encouraged the public sector to adopt private sector principles of management, such as "innovation, flexibility and responsiveness" (Johnson and Scholes 2001: 271), whilst new public governance focused on the networks required to solve complex public sector problems. Consequently, the introduction of BPR to the Namibian public service was part of a response to reform the public service to address specific performance-related problems.

The Namibian public service introduced BPR in 1998 and adopted it in 2007 as a reform initiative, housed first in the Department of Public Service Management and later the Department Performance Improvement at the Office of the Prime Minister (OPM). The reform initiative was more functional from 2008 onwards; however, implementation was sluggish. Many of the respondents pointed out that OMAs were not able to take ownership of the recruitment process, despite the fact that staff were trained in BPR. There is also evidence that BPR was misplaced in the OPM, as the function was first in the Efficiency Charter Directorate and then moved to the Directorate Performance Improvement. The move was necessitated because BPR not only dealt with efficiency but also promoted improved performance in realigning processes. Under Directorate Performance Improvement, it seemed that BPR obtained some success as the Ministry of Home Affairs and Immigration successfully implemented a turn-around strategy in issuing national documents such as passports and national identification documents.

There is evidence showing that the sluggish implementation of BPR in the public sector can be considered as relatively normal for the first few years; as" the actual time-scale of re-engineering projects always exceeded the expected time-scale" O'Neill and Sohal (1998: 834). Among the lessons presented by Mmereki and Kgomotoso (2013: 34 - 35) point that public sector organizations are resistant to change, require sufficient time and resources to implement BPR and there should be sufficient training provided. According to the results, the training to staff was insufficient and impacted on the outcome of the re-engineering exercise.

Could this explain why the OPM showed such poor progress in terms of re-engineering for the processes identified? It is evident from the case study that the OPM identified projects faster than they could re-engineer processes. To date the only project reported to have been successfully re-engineered is the issuing of national documents such as passports and national identification documents by the Ministry of Home Affairs and Immigration.

A recommendation to address this specific challenge is for the OPM to reconsider whether all processes require re-engineering, as indicated by one respondent. The respondent proposed that OPM should assess whether the processes actually require re-design, re-engineering or BPI.

In Chapter 2 the challenges to BPR in the public sector were related to issues of the management of change, effective communication, leadership involvement, education and training and the use of consultants. The literature review also highlighted challenges of re-engineering, especially in the public sector. The study first reviewed the challenges to re-engineering in general, as identified in the section on data collection in Chapter 6, and then in respect of the public sector. The findings indicate that the challenges experienced in general for re-engineering are no different than the challenges in the public sector, the major difference is the context that the challenges occur and how the different sectors react to the challenges. It however should be highlighted that lack of organizational readiness for change and ineffective use of consultants can further impact the results. In relation to the study, the MFMR was not ready to implement the re-engineered process, as the document analysis shows that the recruitment was business as usual. The OPM on the other hand did not use the consultants to assist in the monitoring of the progress of the specific OMA. The reporting mechanism of progress was insufficient.

Introducing drastic change requires meticulous management of the BPR process to achieve the intended results. Therefore it is important to manage change; Attaran (2004: 593-594), highlights the significance of "setting realistic objectives, management of change, misapplication of term of BPR, lack of strategy and failing to recognise the importance of people".

With respect to the case study, it was evident from the data shown in Figure 7 in Chapter 6 that MFRM was not prepared for change, despite the importance of change management as indicated by Kotter (1996). Poor change management is directly related to the use of communication tools. Constant communication with stakeholders, according to Kotter (1996: 4-14), is required to ensure that staff are empowered and develop ownership of the project. The data collected in Chapter 6 confirmed that communication was not prioritised prior to the start of implementation of the re-engineering process at MFMR and stakeholder consultation was limited. The fear of change was cited as one of the challenges related directly to implementation of BPR. Since change management was not prioritised, the management of people and the introduction of changes impacted adversely on the initiative. Among the critical things to avoid, as indicated by a respondent of OPM, is to assume that all stakeholders will buy into the project and this respondent recommended that OPM should direct much more of its BPR focus on the management of change. Transformational change as discussed by Weerdakkody et al (2011), notes that BPR must result in drastic improvement in performance. Transformation focusing on change, meaning that the organization may have to look into managing the culture to ensure that the organisation is able to adapt to the change being introduced.

Furthermore, the training and education provided to MFMR was more in the form of sensitisation as implementation started; the consultants only trained OPM staff. Interestingly enough, the framework developed by the consultant highlighted that the focus should be placed on change management, as it specifically included such a component. The BPR framework highlights eight reasons why BPR initiatives fail, as stated by John Kotter in his book *Leading Change*. The framework indicates an eight-stage process of generating major change. Amongst these stages is constant communication on the nature of the change and specifying the expected role of stakeholders. The OPM did to some extent communicate the changes to MFMR, but MFMR found this was insufficient. Consequently, it is evident that the necessary tool to facilitate the change does exist, but OPM did not prepare the MFMR on change management; however, this was addressed by involving the consultant.

This leads to the recommendation on change management, training and education and communication. OPM as the coordinator of BPR in the public sector needs to

appoint and train coordinators in each OMA, including MFMR, to ensure that the ministry has staff that can thoroughly prepare the institution for BPR under the guidance of the consultant by training staff involved in the implementation of BPR, disseminating information and managing the change process in the institution. This will address challenges of ownership, miscommunication of objectives, and ensure that the BPR strategy includes the views of the OMA.

In terms of the role of management, Figure 6 in Chapter 6 indicated that the OPM noted that management was relatively involved; however, FTC noted that management did not play a key role, except in the provision of resources. Chapter 2 Al-Mashari and Zairi (1999: 91-99), explain that one of the success factors for BPR implementation is strong leadership as champions and sponsors. Management is required to drive the initiative and be accountable for achieving re-engineering goals and ensuring that the BPR team has sufficient resources. Fragaso (2015: 384) notes that mangers must lead the project team, enlist BPR experts and manage the implementation of the BPR process. It is recommended that management involvement be stressed in the BPR framework and that they be made the key stakeholders in the team composition. The framework encourages the practical hands-on application of BPR and so it required that managers not only be overseers but also doers to ensure skills transfer from the highest level. One of the main functions of management is to ensure that the BPR initiative is allocated sufficient resources.

According to the data collected in Chapter 6, among the main challenges in the recruitment process was insufficient funding and lack of management support. The risk associated with BPR regarding lack of funding results in scope creep, which was also listed as a major risk that has a direct impact on project goals. Attong and Metz (2012:96) state that risks must be managed at each stage by using a risk and opportunity register to anticipate challenges.

The OPM achieved positive results with the re-engineering initiative at the MHAI; the same framework used could not yield similar results for the recruitment process. The respondents from all institutions noted that there was no difference in methodology for the two initiatives. However, it was evident that the re-engineering of the national documents was implemented at MHAI only, whilst the re-engineering of the

recruitment process was implemented at all OMAs. This makes it evident that the OPM benchmarked the BPR framework instead of designing a framework that could be implemented at all OMAs. The framework for the recruitment process as result was not tailor-made. It is recommended that "organisations need to work out how they will go about redesigning business processes and then select an integrated set of tools (or combination) which support the complete process of the organisation" (McManus 1997: 41).

The respondents in Chapter 6 (see Figure 4) rated the role of consultants as critical, due to the guidance provided by the consultants in redesigning the process; however, the respondents rated the effectiveness of consultants as being fairly effective. The consultants were involved in developed the framework for MHAI that was used for re-engineering the recruitment process. This framework was benchmarked for the recruitment process, and the researcher is of the opinion that the framework should have been reviewed first before application the recruitment process. As the context of the process at MHAI and OPM differ immensely. The respondents indicated that OPM needed a technical expert for re-designing; however, during implementation their role was restricted due to the practical nature of the framework, which required that the staff would have knowledge on the process and only require guidance on re-engineering matters. Attong and Metz (2012) statement indicating that consultant use should be limited would be advocating for ownership of staff of BPR initiatives, so as to empower staff to ensure continuity of the project and avoid challenges related to ownership as indicated by Mmereki and Kgomotso (2013).

Chapter 3, on the policy and regulatory framework, showed that the main consequence of BPR in the public sector as related to the recruitment policy was to show that "radical changes are not unfeasible" (Jurisch et al 2012: 6). Looking at the documentary analysis, the period of recruitment was reduced from 221 to 87 days generally. It is evident that a drastic change was made on paper on reduction in the recruitment period, however it was not feasible in terms of actual implementation as represented in Table 16 in chapter six and Table 12 in chapter four. However, there is no remedial action for OMAs which still recruit outside the new timeframe. The recommendation is that the OPM has to devise a mechanism to ensure that recruitment within the time frame is feasible and enforceable.

The researcher therefore identified numerous challenges to the implementation of the recruitment process at the MFMR. It is recommended that the OPM review the implementation of the process holistically to include "strategic alignment, governance, methods, people and culture", as argued by De Boer, Muller and Canten (2015: 909-910). The researcher recommends that Ministerial coordinators spearhead BPR in OMAs and that the BPR initiatives be included in the strategic planning to ensure BPR is cascaded down to all the relevant departments and staff, making all accountable for its implementation. This recommendation is based on the fact that the recruitment re-engineering was much larger than anticipated.

7.2.2 Identification of opportunities in Business Process Re-engineering Implementation

In this section the researcher wanted to understand what opportunities and lessons learnt as a result of the application of BPR in other OMAs such as MHAI and the different methodologies used.

In addition to the literature review, the interview guide included questions assessing the status of the project, how it started, how processes were selected and redesigned were used to investigate achieve this objective.

Respondents from OPM and MFMR indicated that BPR was successfully used to reengineer the issuing of national documents; this was after several attempts by the OPM to re-engineer other processes. The company FTC provided technical guidance for this project such as redesigning of the process and developing the framework. The BPR initiative was embarked upon to improve service delivery, streamline business processes, and reduce lead time and complexity in issuing documents. The respondent from FTC noted that due to the success with the MHAI initiative, they were further engaged by OPM for the recruitment initiative. The BPR initiative resulted in the amendment to the recruitment policy which reduced the timeframe for recruitment from 221 days to 87 days.

The factors that triggered BPR were generally describes as poor service delivery, technological developments (in case of MHAI) or changes in legislation. The major

difference of the BPR initiatives at OPM and MHAI is that the later ones made provision for skills transfer whilst the earlier initiatives had no skills transfer. It is evident that the 9-step framework used for MHAI is the same framework used for the OPM recruitment process. The major risk according to FTC was scope creep, whilst OPM pointed out that lack of financial and managerial could hamper BPR implementation.

Therefore the opportunities that can be explored with the implementation of BPR in respect to the recruitment policy are related to the development of a new framework. The challenge, as alluded to earlier, is that the framework was benchmarked and not tailor-made for OMAs, which were expected simply to implement the recruitment policy. OPM needs to consider a structural change for the initiative, which includes incorporating stakeholder empowerment. The data collected in Chapter 6 suggest a number of opportunities, as outlined below.

1. **Cost cutting measures**: Zigaris (2000: 13) argues that companies with "high operational costs, low quality offered to customers, high level of bottleneck processes at peak season, poor performance of middle managers and inappropriate distribution of resources or jobs" should engage in BPR. BPR can also be used to cut the cost of recruitment, though this did not appear in the triggers of BPR provided by respondents. Looking at the documentary analysis in Figure 10 of Chapter 6, it can be noted that there is a wastage of financial resources as 71 percent of positions were not filled timeously for reasons that could have an impact on the recruitment budget. This indicates that OMAs may have needlessly high operational costs for recruitment arising from overtime and re-advertising of vacant positions.

2. **Understanding of the recruitment process**: In the public sector processes are based on legislation, regulations and policies and as such the OMAs have little control over the process, yet they need to understand the process very well and ensure legal compliance (Jurisch et al. 2012: 6). Therefore, it is imperative that all stakeholders first understand the process. However, in the interviews respondents from OPM noted that the training on BPR excluded aspects of the recruitment process and focused merely on BPR methodology. There may thus have been gaps in the understanding of recruitment process, although there was an analysis conducted for the simulation of AS-IS and TO-BE in the re-designing of the process.

3. **Consultant under-utilised**: Figure 4 in Chapter 6 indicates that the consultants were under-utilised. Their role is considered as critical and their input was listed as follows by OPM: guide and manage the initiative, develop framework, train staff, identify bottlenecks, reduce cycle time by applying AS-IS and TO-BE simulation methodology. The consultants should ensure that OPM and OMAs understand BPR, set realistic objectives, manage change, develop a strategy and manage people in the BPR initiative (Attaran 2004: 593-594). The public sector should be able to draw on the expertise of the consultants to improve performance.

4. **Framework re-design**: as indicated earlier, the framework must be re-designed for larger BPR projects, in terms of the size of the OMA which BPR is being implemented. The process of MHAI was implemented only in that OMA, however the recruitment process is being implemented at all OMAs. After the re-design, it is recommended that the initiative be piloted with bigger ministries such as the Ministry of Health and Social Service to test its replicability.

5. **IT under-utilisation**: in the re-engineering of the recruitment process IT was seen as an enabler by all respondents; this means that IT was only used to make adjustments to the process but was not used during the implementation. The recruitment process was paper-based as managed by human resources. The recommendation is to make IT a driver to ensure the IT technology is used to improve the process. In Chapter 3 e-governance public sector reform project is discussed and the way it to automating government services. The OPM as the custodian of HR is busy implementing the HCMS with a component of iRecruitment. Once this module is active, the clients of OMAs will be able to apply for vacancies online and the applications will be managed accordingly. Therefore the recommendation would be that the recruitment process be automated as it can "save time and improve accuracy, removes human error and provide a competitive advantage" (Gunesekeran and Nath 1997: 91).

The custodian of the recruitment process is encouraged to strengthen the legal and policy framework, as there may be inconsistencies with the implementation of the process, seeing that 33 percent of the vacancies were delayed due to administrative or technical errors (see Figure 15 in Chapter 6). Looking more closely at the 33 percent

of the vacancies, it was found that some vacancies have been vacant for over two years.

These technical challenges must be addressed through HR audits and constant monitoring of the recruitment process. In addition, management must lead by monitoring the progress on the implementation of the recruitment process on a regular basis, i.e. monthly.

Opportunities must be explored to ensure that the OPM and its stakeholders, such as MFMR, are able to attain their stated goals.

More opportunities can be identified in terms of the continuation or maintenance of the public sector reform. In its current state, BPR needs more advanced paradigms such as new public governance, public value and co-production. Though recruitment seems like a simple process, it can be relatively complex, looking at the size of the public service of Namibia. The impact of effective recruitment in government can aid public service reform and improve efficiency of public service output. Therefore OPM manages can improve strategic thinking for BPR by developing and managing networks among OMAs and key stakeholders such as future applicants to radically improve performance in recruitment.

7.2.3   Research Recommendations

This section focused on developing recommendations to improve the implementation of BPR in the MFMR. The study recommends:

1. Human resources managers must be encouraged to lead with the implementation of recruitment policy in their respective OMAs; this is expected to promote ownership of the initiative and manager resistance to change;

2. Equally the managers and staff must be trained continuously and communication should be improved to ensure staff and project team members are kept informed and up to date. Management should communicate the implementation of BPR to all the relevant staff in the organisation;

3. As BPR is part of public service reform initiatives, this specific reform be evaluated to ensure its relevance and effectiveness in the public sector of Namibia.

4. Evaluation of BPR initiatives should be conducted. The re-engineering of the recruitment process is a mammoth task; unlike other BPR initiatives, the recruitment process is used by all government entities. Therefore, it is critical that an evaluation should be conducted to determine how the OPM can change the process to reduce not only cost but also the time for recruitment process. In addition, the evaluation should also focus on how the policy framework can be reviewed to ensure consistency in the implementation of the process to eliminate technical and administrative errors. The policy framework should be reviewed to include remedial action for government entities that fail to comply with the recruitment process timeframe.

5. The current recruitment process is paper-based and the re-engineering efforts concentrated on reduction in lead time. If efforts are directed towards time reduction, the OPM may lose an opportunity to automate. Once the evaluation has been conducted, the OPM needs to assess how to use IT as a driver and automate the recruitment process to allow for the use of iRecruitment module on the HCMS. It is also recommended the challenges of BPR be studied to avoid duplication in the implementation of other reform initiatives underway such as e-Governance.

6. To improve managerial and political support, OPM must improve its strategies on communication, education and training so that they are continuous. It is recommended that the managers in OMAs develop re-engineering strategies for raising awareness of staff as part of education and training of the re-engineering framework. In addition, human resource managers should be appointed as coordinators in OMAs to assist with the implementation of the process. The human resource managers should then be empowered to take ownership of the recruitment process in their respective offices and take the responsibility for reporting on progress regularly.

7. Once the re-engineering of the recruitment process has been evaluated, funding of the project should be maintained to ensure that it continuous, as BPR is the initial effort that needs to be followed by continuous improvement. Funding in the case of the study also included making provision to fill vacant positions as they become vacant. One of the major factors hampering the filling of positions was the lack of funding to advertise

or have HR staff travel to the regional offices to conduct interviews as indicated in Figure 15. The capacity of OPM to implement BPR in the public service must be reviewed.

8. The reporting and reviewing of progress should be guided by management and the researcher recommends that the BPR team appoint a senior manager to lead the change management in the organisations. Managers should prioritise change management to ensure that all other stakeholders' value change management equally, as fear of change can hamper the outcome of the re-engineering effort. The communication, education and training components of re-engineering must be driven by principles of change management, as highlighted by Kotter (1996) and Weerdakkody et al (2011).

9. In all the recommendations discussed above, the OPM must elevate the role of the consultant to include evaluation of previous efforts and assist with change management, whilst focusing on skills transfer. It is recommended that the consultants working with the OMAs develop a framework or strategy based on the recruitment policy to guide individual OMAs with the implementation of the recruitment process.

10. The OPM as custodian of the public service should consider reviewing the methodology of public sector reform and empower managers with skills of new public governance, co-production and public value methodologies. Managers need to be retained with these skills to ensure continuity of reform initiatives as well as well as interoperability of systems and integration of services. This is due to the fact that the Namibian public service is fast advancing in the introduction of e-Governance, which may pose additional challenges to systems.

7.3 Limitations

The researcher, was faced with two major limitations during the course of this study. Firstly, the collection of data took over 4 months; ethical clearance was obtained at the end of May 2017 and in June 2017 the researcher contacted OPM, FTC and MFMR to conduct the interviews. However, during this period more time was spent on

obtaining contact details of staff who work directly on the re-engineering of the recruitment process from FTC and OPM. Hence the interviews only commenced mid-August 2017 and ended beginning of September 2017. Generally there were a limited number of staff involved in the implementation of the recruitment process at MFMR and OPM; and most of the staff at FTC had left the organisation including the project coordinator.

Secondly, the accessibility of data such as reports on BPR from OPM was also a strenuous exercise as the manager responsible for BPR was out of office frequently and responses from the manager were delayed. However, the response rates improved toward the end of the study.

Despite these limitations, the study was completed successfully. The literature review showed that there were gaps in the number of studies that reviewed the application of BPR to the public sector and hence future research on re-engineering in the public sector can add value to field of public administration.

7.4 Conclusion

This study shows that BPR is being implemented in the public service; however, with respect to the recruitment process, the implementation is not carried out according to the planned imitative. The major challenge is that the implementing OMAs were not fully engaged during the redesigning of the process; this resulted in a lack of commitment from the OMAs to implement the re-engineered recruitment process.

Generally, respondents indicated that BPR can improve the implementation of the recruitment process, despite the challenges highlighted. There seem to be a number of opportunities that can still be explored, such as the use of IT as driver, ensuring that BPR also cuts the cost of recruitment and reviewing of the framework to accommodate bigger initiatives. Despite these opportunities, respondents were still optimistic that BPR is the management tool to radically change the speed of recruitment in the public service.

The researcher believes if the re-engineering can be cascaded to OMAs to ensure that staff from these institutions have the right understanding of BPR, then results of the initiative will be improved and goals achieved.

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Annexure 1: Interview Schedule for Office of the Prime Minister

Interview Guide: Office of the Prime Minister

Date of Interview: _____

Interview Code: 001 C

Dear Respondent,

My name is Elizabeth Swartz, a student at the University of Stellenbosch, South Africa. I am studying for the Master of Public Administration degree and am particularly interested in carrying out a study entitled *"Challenges of the Implementation of Business Process Reengineering (BPR) of the Recruitment Process in the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources".*

The purpose of the study is to investigate how the recruitment process has been reengineered and identify challenges and develop recommendations that can improve implementation of BPR in the Namibian Public Service.

The information obtained from the participants is imperative as it can aid in identifying challenges and opportunities for development of BPR. As a respondent, I would like to ask you questions, and you are encouraged to be honest and seek clarity where needed. The information that you will be providing will be treated confidentially and anonymously as indicated in the consent form.

Please note that all data collected for this study will become the property of the researcher.

Part A: Overall project

1. When did OPM start with the BPR reform initiative?

Date: _____

2. When was the recruitment process identified for reengineering?
_____
_____
_____
_____

3. Has the OPM reengineered other processes in the Namibian Public Service?
    Delete the inappropriate answer.
Yes/No

3a. If yes, please mention others?

_____
_____
_____
_____

4. Can you explain what is the aim of BPR initiative in the Namibian Public Service?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part B: Getting Started

5. What were the event(s) compelling factor(s) that triggered the initial BPR effort?

_____
_____
_____
_____

6. What was the greatest risk perceived in embarking on a BPR project?

_____
_____
_____
_____

7. What was the major difference between the BPR effort for recruitment and other past BPR efforts, if any?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part C: The Role of Consultants

8. Did the OPM make use of Consultants for the recruitment BPR process?
Delete the inappropriate answer.
Yes / No

9. If any, what role, did consultants or other external parties play in your BPR effort?

_____
_____
_____
_____

10. On a scale to 1-5 (1=not at all, 5=extremely so), how effective were they?

_____
_____
_____

11. Do you think that the OPM could have implemented BPR without the consultant
Delete the inappropriate answer.
  Yes/No

12. On scale of 1-5(1=not critical at all, 5 =extremely critical), how critical was the role consultants (or other external parties) played in the reengineering effort?
_____
_____
_____

Part D: Teams

13. Did you use a project team?
Delete the inappropriate answer.
Yes/No

13a. Explain the composition of the team and roles?

Team Role	Why selected/Input
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

14. Did the team have a Terms of Reference?
Delete the inappropriate answer.
  Yes/No

14a. If so, in brief explain the Terms of Reference?
_____
_____
_____
_____

15. Did the team receive specific preparation or training such as managing innovation, data analysis, and simulation?
Delete the inappropriate answer.
  Yes/No

15a. If yes, what type of training?

_____
_____

16. What factors contributed to the team's success?

_____
_____
_____
_____

17. And conversely, what factors did, or would, inhibit its success?

_____
_____
_____
_____

18. On a scale from 1-5 (1=not well at all, 5=extremely well), how would you rate the overall performance of the reengineering team?

_____
_____

19. On a scale of 1-5 (1=not critical at all, 5= extremely critical) how critical was the team's role in the reengineering effort?

_____
_____

20. If you had to pick one thing that the team did that was most critical to the success of the reengineering efforts what would it be?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part E: The Role of Management

21. Who was the primary sponsor(s) (financially/technically) of the BPR project?

_____
_____

22. On a scale of 1-5 (1=not involved, 5=extremely involved), how would you rate top management's overall **level of involvement throughout** the BPR effort?

_____
_____
_____

23. On a scale of 1-5 (1=performed poorly, 5= performed exceedingly well), how would you rate the overall performance of top management **in supporting and guiding** BPR effort?

_____
_____
_____

24. On a scale of 1-5 (1= not critical at all, 5 extremely critical), how was top management's role in the reengineering effort?

_____
_____
_____

25. What were the two or three most important things that top management contributed to the BPR effort?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part F: Readiness for Change

26. On a scale of 1-5 (1= not very resistant to change; 5=very resistant to change), how would you rate OPM's overall outlook or attitude toward change prior to beginning the BPR effort?

_____
_____
_____

26a. Why did you give this rating?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

27. Were there specific communications or events planned at the **outset** of the BPR program (to create the staff/stakeholder (O/M/A's) awareness or "buy-in")?
Delete the inappropriate answer.
Yes/No

27a. If yes, what were they?

_____
_____
_____
_____

28. Were specific communications or events planned for execution **throughout** project?

_____
_____
_____
_____

29. If you did plan /execute specific communications/events to enhance readiness, on a scale from 1-5 (1= not at all, 5=very effective), how effective were they?

_____
_____
_____
_____

30. On a scale of 1-5 (1= not at all, 5= extremely so), how important is achieving organizational readiness prior to initiating a BPR effort?

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Part G: Selecting and Redesigning the Process

31. Did you use a **structured or specific BPR methodology** in OPM's approach in identifying and focusing on processes for reengineering?

_____
_____
_____
_____

32. Were OMA's consulted in the identification of the recruitment process for reengineering?
Delete the inappropriate answer.
Yes/No

33. If so, how was this consultation done?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part H: Prioritizing and focusing on the process

Now I'd like to ask some questions about how the OPM prioritized the process to be reengineered……

34. How did you **prioritize and focus** on which processes(s) you would reengineer?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part I: Starting Redesign

35. After you selected the process to change, how did OPM embark in the actual design?

_____
_____
_____
_____

36. Did you start your redesign with the approach of gaining a comprehensive knowledge of the recruitment process?
Delete the inappropriate answer.
Yes/No

37. If yes, how was this done?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part J: IT component

38. Did OPM view IT as an "enabler" or "driver" of the reengineering process?
_____
_____
_____
_____

39. On a scale of 1-5 (1=no or little change, 5 = massive change), how would you rate the extent of change that had to take place in your IT system, as part of the project?
_____
_____
_____

40. What specific techniques were used to redesign the recruitment process?
_____
_____
_____
_____

40a. Which did you feel were most useful and why?
_____
_____
_____
_____

40b. Least useful and why?
_____
_____

_____
_____

41. What role, if any, did external consultants play in the redesign?

_____
_____
_____
_____

42. What risks and obstacles did OPM anticipate during this phase?

_____
_____
_____
_____

42a. Which obstacles actually occurred?

_____
_____
_____
_____

43. Looking back, on a scale of 1-5 (1=not well at all, 5=extremely well), how would you rate overall performance in redesigning the process?

_____
_____
_____
_____

44. Again, on scale of 1-5 (1= not well at all, 5 extremely well), how important was the redesign to the overall project results?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part K: Transition to Implementation

45. How was implementation planned?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Specifically, how did OPM prepare O/M/A's to implement the reengineered recruitment process?

_____
_____

_____
_____

Part L: Implementation/Realization

46. Specifically how did you communicate the details of the change process during implementation, if any?

_____
_____
_____
_____

47. Were steps taken to make adjustments and refinements during the implementation?

_____
_____
_____
_____

48. What were the major challenges that occurred during this phase?

_____
_____
_____

48a. How were they handled?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part M: Education and Training

49. Throughout the implementation process, how much staff training and education was required? This could be either for OPM or implementing O/M/A

_____
_____
_____
_____

50. Did the amount of training and education that staff received seem to be adequate, given changes in recruitment process?

_____
_____
_____
_____

51. Was training and education available/provided to the staff as they needed it?
_____
_____
_____
_____

52. On a scale of 1-5 (1=not at all, 5= extremely well) how would you rate the overall performance during the implementation?
_____
_____
_____
_____

53. On a scale of 1-5 (1= not at all, 5= extremely important), how would you rate the importance of what you did in the implementation phase to the ultimate success of the project?
_____
_____
_____
_____

Part N: Monitoring Progress and Planning for Renewal

54. How did you ensure the ongoing monitoring of the implementation?
_____
_____
_____
_____

55. Did the OPM change/continue to evaluate individual performance of the Offices/Ministries/Agencies in terms of achieving BPR goals?
Delete the inappropriate answer.
      Yes/No

55a. If yes, how?
_____
_____
_____

56. Is there a plan for continuous improvement and further change planned for reengineering of the recruitment process?
Delete the inappropriate answer.
Yes/No

56a. If yes, what mechanisms does OPM have in place for making refinements/adjustments?
_____
_____
_____

Part O: Benefits/impacts on the organization

57. What was the major difference between this BPR effort and past major efforts to change business processes?

_____
_____
_____

58. What impact did the recruitment reengineering project have on the structure of the BPR in the public service?

_____
_____
_____

59. On a scale of 1-5 (1=totally dissatisfied, 5= totally satisfied), how would you rate your overall level of satisfaction with the progress, or results, of the recruitment BPR reform initiative?

_____
_____
_____

Part P: Assessment and advice to other organizations

60. What do you feel is the one most critical "must do" (in order to achieve success) in a reengineering effort?

_____
_____
_____

61. What do you feel is the one critical "must not do" (in order to avoid failure) in a reengineering effort?

_____
_____
_____

62. If you had to do this BPR project over again, what would you do differently?

_____
_____
_____

63. What words of advice would you give to O/M/A's undertaking a BPR effort?

_____
_____
_____

Thank you for your participation, it is highly appreciated.

Annexure 2: Interview Schedule for Fever Tree Consultancy

Interview Guide: Fever Tree Consultancy (FTC)

Date of Interview: _____

Interview Code: 001 B

Dear Respondent,

My name is Elizabeth Swartz, a student at the University of Stellenbosch, South Africa. I am studying for the Master of Public Administration degree and am particularly interested in carrying out a study entitled *"Challenges of the Implementation of Business Process Reengineering (BPR) of the Recruitment Process in the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources".*

The purpose of the study is to investigate how the recruitment process has been reengineered and identify challenges and develop recommendations that can improve implementation of BPR in the Namibian Public Service.

The information obtained from the participants is imperative as it can aid in identifying challenges and opportunities for development of BPR. As a respondent, I would like to ask you questions, and you are encouraged to be honest and seek clarity where needed. The information that you will be providing will be treated confidentially and anonymously as indicated in the consent form.

Please note that all data collected for this study will become the property of the researcher.

Part A: Overall project

1.   When did FTC start engaging with OPM on BPR project(s)?
Date: _____

2. If more than one project, please name others?
_____
_____
_____

3. What was the role of FTC in these project(s)?
_____
_____
_____

Part B: Getting Started

4.   What were the event(s) compelling factor(s) that triggered the initial BPR effort of the OPM?

_____
_____
_____

5.   Based on FTC ring, with reengineering, what is the greatest risk perceived in embarking on a BPR program in the public service?
_____
_____
_____

6. In the case that FTC was involved in more than one BPR exercise in the Namibian public service, please indicate what were the major difference between this BPR efforts versus past BPR efforts in the private sector, if any?
_____
_____
_____

Part C: The Role of Consultants

7.   What role, if any, did FTC as consultants or other external parties play in the BPR effort?
_____
_____
_____

8.   On scale of 1-5(1=not critical at all, 5 =extremely critical), how critical is the role of role as consultants (or other external parties) in the reengineering effort?
_____
_____
_____

Part D: Teams

9.   Did OPM use teams?
Please delete inappropriate answer:
Yes/No

9a.If yes, how was the initial project team constructed?
_____
_____
_____
_____

9b. Explain the composition of the team and roles?

Team Role   Why selected/Input

_____   _____

_____   _____

_____   _____

_____   _____

10.   Did the team have a Terms of Reference?
Please delete inappropriate answer:
Yes/No

10a. If so, in brief give summary of Terms of Reference?If so, what was it?
_____
_____
_____
_____

11. Did the team receive specific preparation or training such as managing innovation, data analysis, and simulation?
Yes   _____
No   _____

11a. If yes, what type of training?
_____
_____
_____

12.   What factors contributed to the team's success?

13.   And conversely, what factors did, or would, inhibit its success?

_____
_____
_____

14.   On a scale from 1-5 (1=not well at all, 5=extremely well), how would you rate the overall performance of the reengineering team?
_____
_____

15.   On a scale of 1-5 (1=not critical at all, 5= extremely critical) how critical was the team's role in the reengineering effort?
_____
_____

16. If you had to pick one thing that the team did that was most critical to the success of the reengineering efforts what would it be?

_____
_____
_____

Part E: The Role of Management

17.   On a scale from 1-5 (1=not involved, 5=extremely involved), how would you rate top management's **overall level of involvement** throughout the BPR effort?
_____
_____
_____

18.   On a scale from 1-5 (1=performed poorly, 5= performed exceedingly well), how would you rate the overall performance of top management in **supporting and guiding** BPR effort?
_____
_____
_____

19.   On a scale of 1-5 (1= not critical at all, 5 extremely critical), how was top management's role in the reengineering effort?
_____
_____
_____

20.   What were the two or three most important things that top management contributed to the BPR effort?
_____
_____
_____

Part F: Readiness for Change

21.   On a scale of 1-5 (1= not very resistant to change; 5=very resistant to change), how would you rate the OPM's overall outlook or attitude toward change in relation to the BPR effort?
_____
_____
_____

21a. Why did you give this rating?
_____
_____

22.   Were specific communications or events planned for execution **throughout** project by the OPM?
_____
_____

23.   If these were planned/executed to enhance readiness, on a scale from 1-5 (1= not at all, 5=very effective), how effective were they?

_____
_____
_____

24.   On a scale of 1-5 (1= not at all, 5= extremely so), how important is achieving organizational readiness prior to initiating a BPR effort?

_____
_____
_____

Part G: Selecting and Redesigning the Process

25.   Did FTC use a structured or specific BPR methodology in your approach in identifying and focusing on the areas of improvement?

_____
_____

Part H: Starting Redesign

26.   After OPM selected the process to change, how did FTC embark in the actual design?

_____
_____
_____

27.   Did FTC start the redesign with the approach of gaining a comprehensive knowledge of the recruitment process, as-is or the idea of "wiping the slate clean" and starting over?

_____
_____

Part I: IT component

28.   Did FTC view IT as an "enabler" or "driver" of the reengineering process?

_____
_____

29.   On a scale of 1-5 (1=no or little change, 5 = massive change), how did FTC utilise IT to change the process?

_____
_____

30.   What specific techniques did you use to redesign the process?

_____
_____

30a. Which did you feel were most useful?

_____
_____

_____
_____

30b. Least useful?

_____
_____
_____
_____

30c. And Why?

_____
_____
_____
_____

31.   What was the decision-making processes for choosing validating the redesign plan?

_____
_____
_____
_____

32.   What role, if any, did FTC play in the redesign?

_____
_____

33. Did FTC develop contingency plans?

_____
_____

34.   What risks and obstacles did you anticipate during this phase?

_____
_____

35a. Which obstacles actually occurred?

_____
_____
_____

36. How did these obstacles affect the implementation of the reengineered process.

_____
_____
_____

37.   Looking back, on a scale of 1-5 (1=not well at all, 5=extremely well, how would you rate the overall performance in redesigning the process?

_____
_____
_____

38.   Again, on a scale of 1-5 (1= not well at all, 5 extremely well), how important was the redesign to the overall project results?

_____
_____
_____

Part J: Implementation/Realization

39.   Specifically, how did FTC prepare OPM for implementing changes?

_____
_____
_____
_____

40.   Specifically, how did FTC & OPM plan to communicate the details of the change process during implementation?

_____
_____
_____
_____

41.   Were steps taken to make adjustments and refinements during the implementation?

_____
_____
_____
_____

42.   What were the major challenges that occurred during this phase?

_____
_____
_____
_____

42a. How were they handled?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part K: Education and Training

43.   Throughout the implementation process, how much employee training and education was required?

_____
_____
_____
_____

44.   Did the amount of training and education that employee received seem to be adequate, given the new process?

_____
_____
_____
_____

45.   Was training and education available/provided to the employees as they needed it?

_____
_____
_____
_____

46.   On a scale of 1-5 (1=not at all, 5= extremely well) how would you rate the overall performance during the implementation?

_____
_____
_____

47.   On a scale of 1-5 (1= not at all, 5= extremely important), how would you rate the importance of what you did in the implementation phase to the ultimate success of the project?

_____
_____
_____

Part L: Monitoring Progress and Planning for Renewal

48.   How did FTC ensure the ongoing monitoring of the implementation?

_____
_____
_____
_____

49.   Did the OPM change/continue to evaluate individual performance of the Offices/Ministries/Agencies in terms of achieving goals?
Delete inappropriate answer:
Yes/No

49a. If yes, how?

_____
_____
_____

50.   Is there a plan for continuous improvement and further change in the next few years?
Delete inappropriate answer:
Yes/No

50a.   If yes, what mechanisms did FTC have in place for making refinements/adjustments?
_____
_____
_____

Part M: Benefits/impacts on the organization

51.   What was the major difference between this BPR effort and past major efforts to change business processed?
_____
_____
_____

52.   What impact did the reengineering project have on the structure of the recruitment process in the public service?
_____
_____
_____

53.   On a scale of 1-5 (1=totally dissatisfied, 5= totally satisfied), how would FTC rate your overall level of satisfaction with the progress, or results, of the BPR reform initiative?
_____
_____
_____

Part N: Assessment and advice to other organizations

54.   What do you feel is the one most critical "must do" (in order to achieve success) in a reengineering effort?
_____
_____
_____
_____

55.   What do you feel is the one critical "must not do" (in order to avoid failure) in a reengineering effort?
_____
_____
_____
_____

56.   Would you undertake this project again?

Delete inappropriate answer:
Yes/No

57.   If you had to do this BPR project over again, what would you do differently?
_____
_____
_____
_____

58. What words of advice would you give to other public sectors organizations undertaking a BPR effort?
_____
_____
_____
_____

59. Is there anything else that you would like to share that is important but not covered by questions?
_____
_____
_____
_____

Thank you for your participation, it is highly appreciated.

Annexure 3: Interview Schedule for Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources

Interview Guide: Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources (MFMR)
Date of Interview: _____
Interview Code: 001 C

Dear Respondent,

My name is Elizabeth Swartz, a student at the University of Stellenbosch, South Africa. I am studying for the Master of Public Administration degree and am particularly interested in carrying out a study entitled *"Challenges of the Implementation of Business Process Reengineering (BPR) of the Recruitment Process in the Ministry of Fisheries and Marine Resources"*.

The purpose of the study is to investigate how the recruitment process has been reengineered and identify challenges and develop recommendations that can improve implementation of BPR in the Namibian Public Service.

The information obtained from the participants is imperative as it can aid in identifying challenges and opportunities for development of BPR. As a respondent, I would like to ask you questions, and you are encouraged to be honest and seek clarity where needed. The information that you will be providing will be treated confidentially and anonymously as indicated in the consent form.

Please note that all data collected for this study will become the property of the researcher.

Part A: Overall project

64. When did OPM start engaging MFMR on you join the BPR project of the OPM?
Date   _____

65. What would you so were among the event(s) compelling factor(s) that triggered the initial BPR effort for recruitment process?
_____
_____
_____

66. On a scale of 1-5 (1= not at all compelling, 5=extreme compelling), how compelling was the need to change?
_____
_____
_____

67. At what point were the MFMR engaged to implement the recruitment process?

_____
_____
_____

68. On scale of 1-5 (1=not critical at all, 5 =extremely critical), how critical was   your role (or other external parties) in the reengineering effort?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part B: Teams

69. Did MFMR use a team to implement the recruitment process?
Delete inappropriate answer:
Yes/No

70. Did the team receive specific preparation or training to implement the process?
Delete inappropriate answer:
Yes/No

7a. If yes, what type of training?

_____
_____
_____
_____

71. On a scale of 1-5 (1=not critical at all, 5= extremely critical) how critical was the team's role in the reengineering effort?

_____
_____
_____
_____

72. If you had to pick one thing that the team did that was most critical to the success of the reengineering efforts what would it be?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Part C: Readiness for Change

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73. On a scale of 1-5 (1= not very resistant to change; 5=very resistant to change), how would you rate the MFMR's overall outlook or attitude toward change prior to beginning the BPR effort?

_____
_____

10a. Why did you give this rating?

_____
_____
_____
_____

74. Has the MFMR embarked on other major change efforts?

_____
_____
_____
_____

11a. And were they successful?

_____
_____
_____
_____

75. How was the change planned in relation to the execution of the recruitment process after reengineering?

_____
_____
_____
_____

76. On a scale of 1-5 (1= not at all, 5= extremely so), how important is achieving organizational readiness prior to initiating a BPR effort?

_____
_____

Part D: Selecting and Redesigning the Process

77. Was MFMR involved in redesigning the process?
    Delete inappropriate answer:
    Yes/No

14a. If so, did OPM use a structured or specific BPR methodology in your approach in identifying and focusing on the areas of improvement?

_____
_____

_____
_____

Part E: Implementation/Realization

78. Specifically how was the MFMR prepared for implementing changes?
_____
_____
_____
_____

79. Specifically how did was the implementation of BPR communicated from the OPM?
_____
_____
_____
_____

80. Were steps taken to make adjustments and refinements during the implementation?
_____
_____
_____
_____

81. What were the major challenges that occurred during this phase?
_____
_____
_____
_____

82. Were there any bottlenecks experienced during implementation?
_____
_____
_____
_____

83. Is the recruitment process being implemented as reengineered?
Delete the appropriate answer:
Yes/No

84. If no, please clarify what is being done differently?
_____
_____
_____
_____

85. Have the changes of the recruitment process improved the recruitment process
Delete the appropriate answer:
Yes/No

86. If no, how might the programme be implemented differently?
_____
_____
_____
_____

87. What factors influence the way the programs us implemented?
_____
_____
_____
_____

88. How were they handled?
_____
_____
_____
_____

Part F: Education and Training

89. Throughout the implementation process, were staff trained and educated?
Delete the appropriate answer:
Yes/No

90. Did the amount of training and education that employee received seem to be adequate, given the new recruitment process?
Delete the appropriate answer:
Yes/No

91. On a scale of 1-5 (1=not at all, 5= extremely well) how would MFMR rate the overall performance during the implementation?
_____
_____

92. On a scale of 1-5 (1= not at all, 5= extremely important), how would you rate the importance of what you did in the implementation phase to the ultimate success of the project?
_____
_____

Part G: Progress and Planning for Renewal

93. Did the OPM change/continue to evaluate individual performance of the Offices/Ministries/Agencies in terms of achieving goals?
Delete the appropriate answer:
Yes/No

30a. If yes, how?
_____
_____
_____
_____

94. Would you suggest more change for the recruitment process?
Delete the appropriate answer:
Yes/No

Part H: Benefits/impacts on the organization

95. What impact did the reengineering project have on the structure of the recruitment process in the public service?
_____
_____
_____
_____

96. On a scale of 1-5 (1=totally dissatisfied, 5= totally satisfied), how would you rate your overall level of satisfaction with the progress, or results, of the BPR reform initiative?
_____
_____

97. Is there anything else that you would like to share that is important but not covered by questions?
_____
_____
_____
_____

Thank you for your participation, it is highly appreciated.