Introduction

The constitutional future of South Africa is currently the theme of numerous books, articles and lively debates in the country. Factors being discussed in detail include the fundamental values in South Africa, the impact of violence on the negotiation process, the future government structure, the broadening of democracy, decentralisation and the devolution of power. In the ongoing debate, concepts such as affirmative action, black advancement and equal opportunities are mentioned. Some people discuss the role of the public service in a future South Africa and others predict a total change in the composition of the public service. Rumours are already circulating that 1 500 of the nearly 2 000 top posts in the public service will have to be carefully scrutinised.

This article does not aim to participate in the mainstream debate on the pros and cons of affirmative action, but to explore the possibilities that training for equal opportunities holds for the public service. In doing this, it may provide a
perspective that is less familiar to the participants in the mainstream debate.

As the title of this article is *Training for equal opportunities in the public service*, the main question the researcher has to answer, is: To what extent are people already being trained to promote equal opportunities in the public service? When seeking an answer to this question, it is clear that the object of this study is *training*, with specific reference to the South African Public Service. The primary unit of analysis is the *institutions* that are responsible for or involved in training personnel for the public service. A secondary unit of analysis is the training *policies* of these institutions, with special emphasis on the promotion of equal opportunities.

In order to explicate central concepts and constructs and, possibly, to determine priorities for future research, the researcher has used mainly documentary sources such as articles, books, official reports and conference reports on the subject and also the information obtained in interviews with key officials in the field of public service training. The concept equal opportunities will be discussed briefly in its international and its South African context. This discussion will be followed by an overview of the training environment in South Africa and an in-depth analysis of training in the formal and non-formal institutional framework.

Equal opportunities in the public service

The term *equal opportunities* is one of several terms which are in some way related to the concept *affirmative action*. As is true of each of the other related terms, the term equal opportunities has its own distinct meaning, and also has specific implications for the South African Public Service, which will be discussed together.

Explanation of concepts

The terms *black advancement, affirmative action, equal opportunities* and *managing diversity* are all labels employed to describe the process by which specific people are given the opportunity to participate fully in the organisations and the societies in which they work and live (Human 1991: 11-21). Explanations of terminology will be restricted to the concept equal opportunities as it relates to the concept affirmative action.

The term *affirmative action* was probably first used in the United States of America where it initially occurred in President Kennedy's 1961 Executive Order (EO) 10925 and gained substance after President Johnson's EO 11264 in 1965 (Tummala 1991: 383-411). The term stems from the belief that non-
discrimination alone is not enough, and that something more positive is required to undo past discrimination and to place minorities on an equal footing (Tummala 1991: 383-411). In practice, affirmative action means a new form of discrimination - discrimination in favour of a racial or other social group on the grounds that it would be in the public interest to redress the racial or social inequities that members of the group have suffered (Editorial 1991). It ignores or lowers objective standards in favour of subjective preferences - which constitutes a subtle form of racism (Human 1991: 11-21). In this way affirmative action ironically negates the very principle of equal opportunity for all, as it advocates the preferential treatment of some.

The purpose of affirmative action is apparently to (a) publicly recognise that previous social practices have been discriminatory; (b) reduce collective guilt by admitting past wrongs; (c) dismantle prior patterns of employment discrimination; (d) increase the opportunities of those who were previously subjected to discrimination; (e) prevent the same kind of discrimination in future; and (f) rectify immediately society's social and economic inequalities by applying fairness of consequences rather than fairness of opportunity. In short, to rectify one wrong with another.

The concept of equal opportunities was highlighted by the 1976 Race Relations Act in Britain which identifies training as a mechanism for promoting equal opportunities in employment (Lee 1987: 141). Article 16 of the Constitution of India also provides for equal opportunity in employment (Tummala 1991: 383-411). The aim of training for equal opportunity is to provide special training to members of specific groups, who are either absent from or under-represented in certain areas of work, so that they can catch up with applicants and employees in the more privileged groups. An equal opportunity programme therefore also aims at rectifying the wrongs of the past, but it differs, from affirmative action in the means it applies to reach this ultimate goal. An equal opportunity programme acknowledges the value of objective employment standards and aims at elevating personnel to that standard. Equal opportunities can be made part of an organisation's management style by acknowledging the diversity of its personnel corps and by making provision for employee empowerment, employee advancement and enabling training.

One could wage an endless debate on the distinction between affirmative action and equal opportunities and the pros and cons of each. We suggest a more pragmatic approach. In this context, the following explanation by Williams and Norris (1990: 5) is more appropriate:

"Affirmative action means taking positive steps to recruit, employ, and advance qualified members of historically disadvantaged groups. It does not, however, mean preferential treatment, reverse discrimination, or use of a quota system unrelated to a person's qualifications or job competence."
Seen this way it is immaterial whether one deals with training for affirmative action or training for equal opportunities. At the time of writing there has been no affirmative action programme in the South African Public Service as yet, nor is there any indication of the form it might take, consequently we use the phrase equal opportunities. We wish to emphasise, however, that with reference to training the two phrases are interchangeable.

The concepts of affirmative action and equal opportunities do not constitute magical formulas. In the case of Northern Ireland the expression fair employment opportunities was preferred (Northern Ireland, Fair Employment Act, 1989). In Africa the concept of Africanisation is in vogue, but in Zimbabwe it has been abandoned in favour of the term black advancement mainly because "those who have to be replaced are not transient white foreigners but have settled in the country, are nationals, and consider themselves every bit as African as the black majority (Bennell & Strachan). Bennell and Strachan in fact prefer to use the term black occupational advancement because it avoids the pejorative suggestion that blacks are more backward than whites.

As the scope of this article is restricted to the South African Public Service, it is useful to explain these concepts. In South Africa the public service is classified as part of the exchequer personnel, which is in turn part of the public sector. The public sector consists of (South Africa 1991)

- the exchequer personnel;
- personnel employed by Transnet, the Post Office, Telcom SA, local authorities, agricultural control boards and public corporations.

The exchequer personnel consists of personnel whose improvement in service benefits is financed wholly or partly from the Commission for Administrations's Budget Vote: Improvement of Conditions of Service, and includes the following (South Africa 1991):

- The public service
- Persons employed by the government services of the self-governing territories;
- Persons employed by parastatal institutions, namely the scientific councils, cultural institutions and other such institutions.

For the purpose of this article, we will concentrate on the South African Public Service, which consists of people employed by the departments and administrations as indicated in Schedules 1 and 2 of the Public Service Act, 1984. The public service further consists of (South Africa 1991)
• persons employed in terms of the Public Service Act; and

• persons employed in terms of other acts, such as the Education Acts, the Water Act, the Defence Act, the Police Act and the Prisons Act.

Equal opportunities: implications for the South African Public Service

Before one can even speculate on the implications of equal opportunities for the South African Public Service, a statistical overview on the composition of the public service is necessary. Its broad functional composition as on 30 September 1990, is given in Table 1 and Figure 1 for the different population groups (South Africa 1991).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Broad functions</th>
<th>Whites</th>
<th>Coloureds</th>
<th>Indians</th>
<th>Blacks</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of total corps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Labourers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educators</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing personnel</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other personnel in service departments</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remaining personnel (approximately 500 occupational classes)</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Composition of the South African Public Service on 30 September 1990
The statistics in Table 1 and Figure 1 show that the personnel of the South African Public Service, excluding labourers, is mainly dominated by whites. There are many valid as well as questionable historical reasons for this, but the fact is that the current composition of the public service is in no way a true reflection of that of the South African population (see Figure 2).

One of the reasons for the current composition of the public service is that over the years, disparities arose in the salaries of and employment practices for members of the different population groups because of government policy (South Africa 1987: 20-21). Some measures favoured one population group over the others - such as the basis on which higher salaries were awarded for qualifications or experience. During the 1970's, in accordance with a change in government policy, the systematic phasing out of disparities in salaries commenced, with the cabinet's approval, during general adjustments. All disparities were eliminated with effect from 1 March 1988 (South Africa 1987: 20-21).

Hofmeyer (1988: 33-36) points out that white people are employed in 95 % of the managerial posts in private South African companies and the composition
of the public service is no exception to the rule. With this in mind, one can agree with Human (1991: 11-21) that the development of blacks within white-dominated institutions is one of the greatest challenges facing South Africa today.

The concepts affirmative action and equal opportunities both have specific implications for the future South African Public Service, as indicated by recent statements on the issue by prominent institutions and individuals. In its Interim Report on Group and Human Rights the South African Law Commission (1991) acknowledges that everyone "...has the right to equality before the law, which means, inter alia, that ... no legislation or executive or administrative act shall directly or indirectly favour or prejudice any person on grounds of his or her race, colour, sex, religion, ethnic origin, social class, birth, political and other views or disabilities or other natural characteristics" (1991: 303). In the next paragraph the commission provides for affirmative action by stating that "... the highest legislative body may by legislation of general force and effect introduce such programmes of affirmative action ... to ensure that ... all citizens have equal opportunities..." (1991: 303).

In its working document on a bill of rights the ANC (1990) also states that nothing in the future constitution shall prevent the enactment of legislation or special measures of a positive kind, designed to procure the advancement and the opening up of opportunities for men and women who have been disadvantaged by discrimination in the past. This working document also provides for policies and programmes "... aimed at redressing the consequences of past discriminatory laws and practices" - programmes aimed at achieving speedily the balanced restructuring in non-racial form of the public service, the defence and police forces and the prison service (ANC 1990).

At a conference in March 1991 organised by the Department of Public Administration of Unisa, one of the participants spoke out on the South Africanisation of the public service, for example by affirmative action techniques to an achieve initial restructuring and future recruitment and training policies (Fitzgerald 1991: 78). Robertson (1991: 167) is also convinced that equal opportunity rights are needed to prevent the continued imbalance in the distribution of jobs. Furthermore he states that the imbalance in the distribution of jobs will have to be dealt with through vocational-training schemes because these would be the quickest route to enabling all to benefit from equal opportunity until such time as the effects of a uniform education system filter through (Robertson 1991: 168).

Training

The object of analysis and discussion in this article is training. From the preceding it follows that training is indeed regarded as an important
mechanism for promoting equal opportunities in the public service. In this part I will deal firstly with a variety of explanations of the concept training, secondly with the complex environment of training in South Africa, thirdly with a few formal training institutions and lastly with non-formal training, for example in-service training.

Explaining the concept training

Education and training serve to develop, form, prepare and equip individuals with both general and specialised or career-oriented knowledge, skills, and values to enable them to fulfil themselves as a human beings and properly to meet their civic and occupational responsibilities (National Education 1989: 8; Loxton 1992: Par. 7.2). Training is the process of learning a sequence of programmed behaviours which enable a person to solve a repetitive problem (Robbins 1980: 20). It gives employees an awareness of rules and procedures in order to guide their behaviour (Robbins 1980: 20) and to acquire knowledge and/or motivation in a direction that increases organisational goal achievement (Glueck 1982: 410).

Although training has sometimes been seen as an activity separate from education (Lee 1987), the concept of education and training may be taken to comprise the following areas: (i) informal education, which takes place in situations in life that occur spontaneously; (ii) formal education, which is given in a planned way at recognised institutions, such as schools, colleges, technikons and universities; and (iii) non-formal education, which proceeds voluntarily in a planned but highly adaptable manner in institutions and in situations outside the work situation (Loxton 1992: Par 7.6). This article will deal with only the formal and non-formal aspects of training.

The training environment in South Africa

When one thinks of training for equal opportunities or affirmative action in the public service, one should start with a broad picture of the public service environment, in which training should take place and which requires equality. The picture has three main components, namely population composition, income and illiteracy.

The South African population (excluding the populations of the TBVC states) is made up, in percentages, of 3.1 % Asians, 10.6 % coloureds, 16 % whites and 69.6 % blacks (Figure 2; South Africa 1991: 18). Some 60 % of the blacks and 45 % of the coloureds earn less than the minimum subsistence level (P.C. 6/1984: 45-47, 62, 67). Illiteracy in South Africa is high, standing at about 36 % of the total population (P.C. 6/1984). More than 40 % of black children leave
school before reaching Std. 2 (Loxton 1992: Par. 7.15). With this in mind, it seems inevitable that a large part of the South African population is "...in a state of continuous indigence leading to apathy, a lack of ambition, and to inadequate opportunities for developing skills, interests, verbal and number abilities, and a coherent value system" (Loxton 1992: Par. 7.11).

**FIGURE 2**

**SOUTH AFRICAN POPULATION**

South Africa’s multicultural society is a continuum with a Western-style cultural component and industrial culture at one end, a dwindling presence of traditional cultures at the other and a transitional variety of differing degrees of acculturation in between (P.C. 6/1984: 17-23; Loxton 1991: Par. 6.25.2.9). It is this picture which forms the backdrop for the analysis of training for equal
opportunities in the public service - a backdrop which is perhaps a true reflection of the inherent quantitative and qualitative inequality of South African society. It is these inherent inequalities that challenge success of the formal and non-formal training institutions successful in their training programmes for equal opportunities in the public service.

Formal training: universities and technikons

Formal education and training may be expected to provide the general skills needed for a wide range of jobs and work situations. As mentioned previously, such training is given in a planned way at recognised institutions such as schools, colleges, technikons and universities. One can expect these institutions to lay the foundation for and to assist all students to acquire the basic knowledge and skills they need to fulfill themselves as human beings. The scope of this paragraph is restricted to universities and technikons where training is directly influenced by the state of school education.

Failure in formal schooling is sharply illustrated by the finding that in 1980 40% of the total population in 1980 had received no education whatsoever, while 34% had left primary school at or before the seventh year. Most of these 34% had not achieved functional literacy (Eksteen 1988: 12). This points to the immense task the country faces, of educating adequately and training all those who in future will have to be elevated to their proper place in society (Loxton 1992: Par. 7.17). It follows that a large majority of the South African population does not satisfy the entrance requirements for university and technikon training.

How does one rectify this situation? The University of Natal’s solution may be one example. Its solution is based on the belief that, in the same way that racial discrimination in the context of apartheid in South Africa means giving preference to whites by virtue of being white, so reverse discrimination means giving preference to blacks by virtue of their being black (University of Natal 1989). Both are equally unacceptable to and rejected by that university. Their solution can be described as equal opportunity for all, irrespective of race, colour, creed or sex, on the basis of the potential to succeed, rather than on past performance where the opportunities for achievement have been unequal (University of Natal 1989). The university also provides special help and extra resources to assist the educationally disadvantaged. The students achievement prove that it is possible to help them progress without lowering the fundamental standards of a qualification.

If a student succeeds in registering at a university or technikon, the second phase of the equalisation process begins, namely equality in terms of specific, objective academic standards. The main focus of university and technikon

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training for the public service is training in Public Administration. About 16 universities in South Africa (80% of the total) provide courses in Public Administration (Cloete 1987: 57). The most recent addition is the University of the Witwatersrand which received a sponsorship of R18 million in 1992 from Liberty Life to introduce begin a course in Public and Development Management in order to train public servants for a new South Africa (Boyens 1991: 22).

Technikons in South Africa have been developed to fulfil a long-felt need for the provision of technologists and technicians who are able to operate and repair equipment and are therefore also able to use the available tools as well as the technological knowledge to improve existing equipment and methods of work (Thornhill 1988: 275). Public Administration has been identified as one of the subjects suitable for technikon training programmes (Thornhill 1988: 275). All the technikons in South Africa offer extramural or correspondence courses for the National Diploma in Public Administration for public officials (Cloete 1987; Wessels 1989). The question sometimes arises whether the composition of technikon curriculums and syllabuses duplicates the university programmes (Thornhill 1988: 275) and provides suitable practical training for officials in the public service.

Clearly a formal education system and infrastructure does exist to provide the general skills needed for a wide range of jobs and work situations. It is also clear that many students do not qualify for enrolment owing to their inadequate school results. What is not as clear is to what extent disadvantaged students who do meet the qualifying requirements can afford to enrol at a university or technikon.

The Public Service Bursary Scheme is one of the instruments used in the public service to promote the formal training of personnel or future personnel. This scheme was traditionally administered by the Office of the Commission for Administration on behalf of all the departments but, in order to promote the greater managerial autonomy of departments, it has been administered by individual departments since the beginning of the 1991 academic year (South Africa 1991). Figure 3 shows however that non-white applicants increased from 19,5% in 1986 to 49,9% in 1990. The percentage of non-whites of the total number of successful applicants also grew from 11,5% in 1986 to 22,6% in 1990 (Figure 4; South Africa 1991: 28-29). There was also a continued interest on the part of public servants in improving their academic qualifications. For the 1990 academic year, of the total number of applications received, 64,8% were from whites, 9,7% from coloureds, 7,2% from Asians and 18,3% from blacks. These figures illustrate the non-whites the increasing need for formal training and the constraints imposed by their inability to meet the requirements of the bursary scheme.
FIGURE 3
APPLICATIONS FOR THE PUBLIC SERVICE BURSARY SCHEME

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Blacks</th>
<th>Asians</th>
<th>Coloureds</th>
<th>Whites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>80.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>60.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>57.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>50.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Academic year
- Whites
- Coloureds
- Asians
- Blacks


FIGURE 4
SUCCESSFUL APPLICANTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Blacks</th>
<th>Asians</th>
<th>Coloureds</th>
<th>Whites</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>88.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>72.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>62.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>77.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


SAIPA, 1992, 27(1)
Non-formal training: in-service training

Eksteen (1988: 3) defines non-formal education as being "any organised systematic educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups of the population, adults as well as children". In a developing South Africa, non-formal education should aim at assisting individuals (i) to improve their quality of life, (ii) to acquire minimum essential levels of training, and (iii) to develop their skills through proficiency training (P.C. 6/1984: 129-131).

Proficiency training consists of in-service training, either on the job or off the job. Research shows that intensive on-the-job training produces better results than off-the-job training (Unisa), probably because on-the-job training is directed at imparting to employees, in their own work situation, the technical knowledge, skills, values and attitudes needed to meet their employer-specific requirements (Loxton 1992: Par. 7.63). On-the-job training also provides for immediate feedback on and assessment of performance.

For proficiency training to succeed, it is essential that the management of the specific institution play an important role in defining performance and behaviour expectations (Unisa). These expectations or criteria should be personalised to suit individual developmental requirements.

The most important provider and co-ordinator of non-formal training in the South African Public Service, is the Training Institute which is part of the Office of the Commission of Administration. In the Commission for Administration's Annual Report for 1990, it is clear that developments in the political field have led to an ever-increasing demand for training (South Africa 1991: 34). Apparently the Training Institute also follows the two approaches of training mentioned by Lee, namely management training and proficiency training (South Africa 1991: 34-36).

In its management training the institute gives attention inter alia to the concept of management of diversity and employee empowerment (Reynolds 1991). Managers are trained to acknowledge the existing diversity in the population composition and in the individual abilities of personnel, and to build a healthy team spirit. Furthermore, they are trained to use employee empowerment as part of the process of participative management, and to utilise and develop each member of the team optimally in order to promote equal opportunities for all the members of the personnel corps. In doing so, they strive to utilize the talents and abilities of each member of the team to promote self-activated team actions (Reynolds 1991).

The Training Institute promotes enabling training in its proficiency training. Among other things the institute provides training to officials country-wide in
applying the uniform provisioning administration system and in running the personnel administration system (South Africa 1991: 35). It also co-ordinates occupation-specific training within departments. By providing all the training opportunities, the institute emphasises the team approach - it is the individual manager's duty - to assess each team member in order to rectify by job-specific training the official's shortcomings in job standards (Reynolds 1991).

Race-related training

The above discussion centres mainly on training programmes that improve the position of disadvantaged groups in the work force. It might, however, also be necessary to provide specific race-related training - the phrases equal opportunity training, race relations training, racism awareness training, multicultural awareness training have been used to describe this type of training (CRE 1990: 8). In the United Kingdom this type of training includes

- information sessions on e.g. the Race Relations Act and the CRE Code of Practice;
- guidance on an organisation's equal opportunity policy and how it applies to e.g. selection and appraisal systems;
- guidance on the ways in which racial discrimination occurs and the practices and systems needed to eliminate it;
- sessions which provide information on or an awareness of different cultures and their impact or influence on the workplace;
- racism and awareness or attitudinal training designed to encourage individuals to think about their own prejudices and racism as well as those found more widely in society and in the organisations for which they work;
- management or personnel skill courses on interviewing, selection and appraisal that include equal opportunity and racial discrimination issues.

A great deal of this type of training is being done in the United States and in the United Kingdom. However, one gains the impression that such training is still diffuse. Many agencies, departments and educational institutions are involved, but each acts autonomously. Our opinion on the public service is that there should be a sound basis from the outset. A single body, such as the Commission for Administration, should take full responsibility and it should be comprehensive. This would not prohibit educational institutions from doing the actual training. Some universities in the United Kingdom have embarked
upon race-related training. But overseas material can obviously not be used in South Africa without more ado. Research would have to be done to determine the nature and content of training to fulfil local needs.

Composition of training groups

The composition of training groups for race-related training is not self-evident. In the United States and in the United Kingdom, society is said to be rife with racism and it is regarded as a white problem (Peppard 1983: 152). Such a view may be paternalistic and lead to a discussion which "...tends to degenerate into one on how we white people should do with them" (Peppard 1983: 157). Such a revival of attitudes of racial superiority should be avoided at all costs. Likewise information on cultural differences should not be overemphasised. A great deal of cultural integration has taken place, which might be overlooked in an attempt to provide information on differences. There is moreover a tendency to ascribe ordinary human frailties, such as laziness and clumsiness, to supposed cultural differences.

In South Africa the classification of the problem as a black/white one is in any case not quite true. There are a variety of distinct groups that might need race-related training. In the predicted new South Africa the problem may soon turn out to be a black problem since whites are the minority group.

Acceptable terminology

When formulating a training policy the authorities should also develop a terminology with precise definitions that are acceptable to all concerned. Racial connotations of white, black, minorities, coloured, Asian, tribe and so on have been used in this country to sustain the dominant political ideology for so long that they have connotations that are incompatible with a new political, economic and social approach. These words, or some of them, will have to be redefined "for speakers and trainers, not only to clarify their own minds on the use of words, but to ensure that their groups are clear about the definitions of the terms they are using" (Peppard: 1983: 158).

Conclusion

At this time, when the debate on affirmative action is becoming one of real importance for the future of this country in general and for the public service in particular, it is not inappropriate to discuss methods to promote equal opportunities. The objective analyst of training for equal opportunities in the
South African Public Service should, however, firstly take the following into account:

- The fact that South Africa's population is predominantly black dominated
- The Public Service (excluding the labourers, educators, nursing personnel and the service departments) predominantly white
- The country's high level of illiteracy, poverty and early school drop-outs

Secondly it is clear from the above that an formal education system does exist to provide the general skills needed for a wide range of jobs and work situations. However, many students do not qualify for enrolment at universities or technikons owing to their inadequate school results. From an equal opportunity point of view, one factor needing more research is the extent to which the disadvantaged can afford to enrol at a university or technikon.

Thirdly it follows that non-formal training is arguably the most important method of training to prepare personnel for equal opportunities. The South African Public Service currently trains its managers in participative management techniques in order to utilize and develop the full potential of each member of their personnel corps. Furthermore it promotes proficiency training in order to ensure that its personnel conforms initially to the requirements of its job standards and later to the competitive standards of a higher postlevel.

The present policies and measures for the training of public officials in the South African Public Service do not differentiate between officials from the various population groups consequently there are no special training programmes for officers of the underrepresented groups. It is quite clear that the results of the present policies and measures of promoting equal opportunities for all officials will not rapidly change the composition of the South African Public Service's to reflect the ratios in the country's population.
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