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Message from the Dean, School of Graduate Studies



Welcome dear readers!

The Dean of Graduate Studies Bugema University has the pleasure to welcome readers both academicians and non-academicians to the second edition of the Academic Journal of the School of Graduate Studies: Bugema University. It is unquestionable fact that our School of Graduate Studies has progressed both in curriculum development and action research that have given a distinguished recognition amongst the local and international academic Authorities, Institutions and Universities. This is evidenced by the Charter Award by the Republic of Uganda and the recognition by International Board of Education (IBE).

In the academic world the benefits of research can never be over-emphasized or under estimated. We continually witness massive technological changes brought about by the innovative mind of mankind. Man is driven to research in an attempt to solve problems that face his society. It is, therefore, incumbent upon any institution of higher learning or any business entity to engage into serious research if ever it will make a difference.

The School of Graduate Studies is focused to maintain the university motto: “Excellence in Service” by guiding and developing practical problem solving research. The school provides both theoretical and practical training in the diverse fields of professions ranging from business and management with specifics in HRM, Accounting & Finance, Project Planning & Management, Development studies, Counselling Psychology, Public Health and Education Management.

This journal is multidisciplinary in nature, thus the fields of study mentioned above have equally been represented to give you an opportunity to endeavour in diversity and in its uniqueness. The Board of Editors extend the sincere gratitude to the students: Baraka Kissa and Mulonda Kibukila for calling, and putting the research articles together. Hope the findings in the articles will be of immense importance to the readers. Once again, you’re warmly welcome and enjoy reading.

Paul Katamba, *PhD*

Dean, School of Graduate Studies Bugema University

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PUBLIC PARTICIPATION IN HOUSING POLICY IN TYUTYU HOUSING PROJECT IN THE EASTERN CAPE SOUTH AFRICA: IS IT A MYTH OR REALITY?

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Abstract

This article discusses that public participation is an essential part of human growth in housing delivery in Tyutyu and is the development of self-confidence, pride, initiative, responsibility, cooperation. “Without such a development within the people themselves, all efforts to alleviate their poverty will be immensely more difficult, if not impossible” (Burkey, 1993:56). Housing provision plays a vital role in meeting basic needs; dwellings provide the security required for basic functioning and are thus essential for both human development and the alleviation of poverty.

Keywords: *Public participation, housing, south Africa, tyutyu, policy.*

1. Introduction

South Africa has one of the most progressive constitutions in the world (Buccus et al, 2007). It includes the municipal legislative framework that provides for community participation in decision-making at municipal level. However, findings suggest in practice, citizens have had little experience of this, which is particularly relevant in contexts of severe poverty and failure by the state to provide basic services. This case study demonstrates the challenges faced by the Centre for Public Participation (CPP), a national NGO, when working to influence central government policy on citizen participation. It also explores the role and influence of international donors in promoting this agenda.

Historically, South Africa’s housing process is characterised by the previously disadvantaged being deprived of housing and property rights which led to rental and service boycotts by communities thus challenging the legitimacy of the government of the time.(Khan & Ambert, 2003: 4).The current

housing policy is rooted in the pre-1994 era as the policy was framed “in the course of National Housing Forum negotiations to address what (some influential) stakeholders saw as the threat of ‘uncontrolled’ urbanisation and the ‘perilous politicization’ of housing question” (Khan & Ambert, 2003:4).The emphasis on housing delivery is compounded by the fact that the country’s housing shortage, according to the National Housing Department, was at 2, 2 million in 1997. Due to an ever-increasing population, this figure is estimated to increase by 204000 every year (NHC, 2000b).The housing shortage is the result of the apartheid regime which allocated the provision of housing along racial and class lines .This resulted in a large proportion of South Africans living in informal settlements or receiving inadequate housing, exacerbated by unhealthy living conditions. Many of the problems created by this system still persist today. To address the above mentioned problems, Developmental Local Government is mandated to provide the “Creation of liveable integrated cities, towns and rural areas” (Housing act, 1997a). As housing is a fundamental

right of every citizen, it is government's responsibility to take reasonable measures to progressively realise this right (NHC, 2000b). Because of the recognised housing crisis, the Development Facilitation Act 67 of 1995 was formulated to introduce the measures and procedures to be used to speed up the implementation of development programmes relating to land and thus housing delivery.

The provision of housing is a developmental practice and development cannot prevail without public participation (Roodt, 2001:466). As echoed in the Manila Declaration on People's Participation and Sustainable Development, which took place in 1989 as such "Public participation is an essential part of human growth that is the development of self-confidence, pride, initiative, responsibility, cooperation, Without such development within the people themselves, all efforts to alleviate their poverty will be immensely more difficult, if not impossible. "This process, whereby people learn to take charge of their own lives and solve their own problems, is the essence of development" (Burkey, 1993:56). Apart from the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 the Housing Act, (1997) is the cornerstone of any public housing initiative with regard to legislative requirements. Housing initiatives cannot be considered successful if not executed in compliance with the Housing Act 1997. With public participation, it needs to be realised that each development initiative takes place in a different context and for this reason the right combination of public participation strategies need to be used. Because each situation is different, "[e]ffective, efficient and equitable stakeholder engagement depends largely on selecting the right combination of approaches and techniques for a particular process. There is, however, no single recipe for making this selection – particularly when operating in the context of a multi-cultural, developing country" (DEAT, 2002:14). For the purpose of this study, "stakeholder engagement" as used in the above- mentioned statement would be synonymous with "public participation".

The Tyutyu Village Housing Project, which is located in the Buffalo City Municipality, is an initiative, which was started in 2000 with the aim to alleviate housing shortages in the area. Formerly, the area was made up of mud houses, constructed

by the former Ciskei government. Later on, shacks were added in the area. Originally, these structures were meant to form an agricultural rural village settlement.

Redressing the inherited inequalities of apartheid has established a complex and challenging context for meeting basic needs in contemporary South Africa. Given the physical and political segregation of apartheid, meeting the demand for housing has been a central development challenge since 1994. But even as local government has been drawn into more responsibility in this area, it must do so while managing complex relationships with private-sector actors seeking access to basic service delivery previously associated with the public sector. The result is that not only has the structure of local government been dramatically reformed since 1994, it has also acquired a new responsibility to enable markets to work in the name of poverty alleviation.

The article is structured in broad sections, beginning with the background to the study of the practising housing policy and moving on to the methodology used in gathering primary data .The findings from the fieldwork are presented, along with a discussion, and the issues that arise from the study are recapitulated in the conclusion.

2. The Right to Adequate Housing:

Thus adequate housing is the sum of a number of considerations, including: location, basic infrastructure, affordability, sustainability, right to tenure, and a range of household types. BESSG observed that very few houses completed in 1994–1999 complied with the building regulations.

BESSG found that only 30 per cent of houses built with the subsidy were 30 m² or more. The easiest response to this criticism is to demand greater expenditure on housing. The ANC's RDP (ANC 1994) proposed that national housing expenditure should reach 5 per cent of the national budget within five years. This prescription remains an official government Development in Practice, Volume 14, Number 5, August 2004

From the beginning to qualify for consideration in either of the schemes, subsidy applicants had to conform to a number of criteria.

Applicants had to be South African residents, had to be married or cohabit habitually with another person, had to be legally competent to contract, and had to be able to acquire residential title to a residential property either in the form of ownership, leasehold, or deed of grant.

3. Traditional Authorities:

But if the poorest of the poor find themselves in traditional areas, they are also the furthest removed from the introduction of municipal government and access to services. The first challenge was to identify the traditional areas for the purposes of making boundary determinations for the municipal elections. The Municipal Demarcation Board (MDB) was tasked with this responsibility and faced a difficult job over the course of 1999 and 2000. Some of the difficulties facing the MDB in this task included the fact that there is no complete record of all recognised traditional authority areas, not all traditional authorities are properly and legally defined, some traditional leaders argue that their area of jurisdiction extends beyond the proclaimed area, and some traditional authorities are made up of a number of non-contiguous Parcels of land.

A second challenge was to define the role, if any, of traditional leaders in municipal government. Traditional leaders were dissatisfied with the demarcation process and said that it would erode their powers. Nkosi M. B. Mzimela, Chairperson of the National House of Traditional Leaders, expressed his dissatisfaction with the demarcation process when he explained that ‘the demarcation process is the final step in a process that completely ignores the roles of traditional leadership’ (Mzimela 2001:29). While the MDB maintains that it has Development in Practice, Volume 14, Number 5, August 2004.

This policy framework was the product of extensive negotiations prior to the 1994 elections, and it remains the central component of the government’s housing plan. In addition to subsidy provision, the housing programme offers security of domicile to South Africa’s poor in the hopes of building property markets and equity among the poor. Housing development is premised on an incremental approach, whether through self-building by the occupants themselves or in

association with future access to credit or other developer-driven building schemes. The majority of homes built through the capital subsidy have been developer driven, although the Department of Housing has recently recognised the importance of small-scale savings associations and self-building groups comprised primarily of women-headed households.

Consistent with international experience in this regard, it was hoped that South Africa’s poor would be both beneficiaries as well as active participants in the building process. The result would be sustainable and active communities in place of the often fractured and disempowered settlements generated by apartheid policies. But while the national government has been vocally supportive of this approach, its financial and administrative support in this regard has been relatively minimal.

The scale of poverty (and recalcitrant lending from the formal mortgage sector) in South Africa has meant that the majority of homeless people or residents of informal settlements continue to lack the capacity to meet minimum basic needs. At the launch of the ANC’s housing policy, the minimum subsistence income was calculated to be R970 per month.

The example shows the monthly income distribution in South Africa in 1995. Rising unemployment and a growing income gap has exacerbated these inequalities. For example, the 2001 Census indicated a national unemployment rate of 33 per cent, with more than 40 per cent economically inactive (Statistics South Africa 2003:51).

Thus, in 1995, as the housing programme was being launched, nearly seven million households qualified for some form of housing assistance. Against this background of relative poverty, the government set the goal of building one million homes in the first five years of government, with housing expenditure promised to rise to 5 per cent of the national budget and a model of ‘people-driven’ development challenging the hold of the banks and private-sector developers. This absolute goal of building one million homes was met by 2000, although the backlog in housing (estimated at three million homes) continues to grow.

In practice, both the policy and the process have been more complex than this brief policy summary. But several general points of debate emerge. First, the goal of one million houses proved elusive prior to the 1999 elections but remains an impressive achievement in quantitative terms. Second, housing expenditure has not reached its target; and third, developers rather than communities drive much of the housing process while the recalcitrance of the formal housing finance sector has frustrated ANC attempts to entice and leverage its participation. Fourth, the quality and location of the houses that have been constructed have been criticised as inadequate, and in some instances have been compared unfavourably to the houses built under apartheid.

4. Conceptual and Contextual Issues

In clearly understanding the concept of public participation it is important to cite several definitions that have been given to it by researchers. As defined by Greyling & Manyaka (1999: 1) public participation is a “process leading to a joint effort by stakeholders, technical specialists, the authorities and the proponent who work together to produce better decisions than if they had acted independently” (in DEAT, 2002: 6). From this definition it can be realized that participation is seen as a decision-making process and aims to include the views of stakeholders at all levels of the process (Hoosen, undated: 2). However, According to Beinier, Public participation is engaging openly and respectfully in “give and take” discussions with citizens and/or stakeholders about an impending decision or action (Bernier, 2005: 2). COPR on the other hand defines public participation as the process by which an organization consults with interested or affected individuals, organizations, and government entities before making a decision. Public participation is two-way communication and collaborative problem solving with the goal of achieving better and more acceptable decisions (COPR, 2008: 1). The primary objective of public participation is to demonstrate to the public that the right decisions are being made, on balance for the right reasons. This is because the role of public participation in South Africa cannot be undermined or overrides economic, personal, technological aspirations in the public sector as its past compels the government to correct injustices (Oakley, 1991: 6).

It is important to differentiate public participation from consultation. Looking first at consultation, it involves actively seeking the opinions of interested and affected groups. It is a two-way flow of information, which may occur at any stage of regulatory development, from problem identification to evaluation of existing regulation. It may be a one-stage process or, as it is increasingly the case, a continuing dialogue. Consultation is increasingly concerned with the objective of gathering information to facilitate the drafting of higher quality regulation. On the other hand, participation is the active involvement of interest groups in the formulation of regulatory objectives, policies and approaches, or in the drafting of regulatory texts. Participation is usually meant to facilitate implementation and improve compliance, consensus, and political support. Governments are likely to offer stakeholders a role in regulatory development, implementation and/or enforcement in circumstances in which they wish to increase the sense of “ownership” of, or commitment to, the regulations beyond what is likely to be achieved via a purely consultative approach. However, there are instances where the two are inseparable. For instance public participation usually involves notification (to publicise the matter to be consulted on), consultation (a two-way flow of information and opinion exchange) as well as participation (involving interest groups in the drafting of policy or legislation).

5. Public Participation Theories

Despite theoretical disagreement about the proper definition of and practice of participation, professional literature reflects a consensus a variety of additional techniques can enhance the process and result in more effective and democratic plans. The experience of limited participation during urban renewal and the debate surrounding “maximum feasible participation” in the 1950s and 1960s sparked an intense professional interest in the topic of public participation in planning (Arnstein, 1971: 2). One of the most influential theories on public participation is the one by Arnstein which she describes public participation as a ladder (Arnstein, 1971: 2). Arnstein, a former U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) official, describes public participation as an eight-rung metaphorical ladder. The rungs are organized into three levels: nonparticipation (manipulation and

therapy), tokenism (informing, consultation, placation), and citizen power (partnership, delegated power, citizen control). Interlaced with her description are anecdotal stories describing both flawed participation and successful examples where power was delegated to community representatives (Arnstein, 1971:2).

However, this theory has been criticised for the following grounds. First, it offers little guidance for planners seeking to design processes that conform to the standards proposed. The citizen control section describes one approach as giving grants to grassroots organizations, but Arnstein concedes full neighbourhood self-government seems unlikely in the future. Aside from criticizing the usual methods used by formal planning to incorporate citizen input like public meetings and special committees, Arnstein has little to say about how these processes can be improved. Also the theory has been criticised for providing little provision to those who might disagree that citizen control should be the proper goal of citizen participation. Arnstein's theory radically eliminates any role for the rational or technical expertise of planners, and assumes citizen power will result in good planning decisions (Goodspeed, 2008: 22

The other notable theory on public participation was the one which was put forward by American Planning Association (Jones, 1990: 12). The theory presents a wide variety of outreach methods, data-gathering methods, and participation methods. The theory also provides confidence on the effect of public participation on planning, arguing it is needed not just for ethical reasons but to create better plans that are more likely to be implemented. The hypothesis of the theory was that "Doing things democratically takes more effort and more time, but it is worth it for the quality of product that emerges and the sense of commitment that people will have toward it." (Jones, 1990: 12). The theory is underpinned by the four principles of deprofessionalisation, decentralization, demystification, and democratization (Jones, 1990: 12). Although this theory did not get much criticism, its application was limited because already it puts more emphasis on data collection, a field which is better served through existing literature on research methodology and scientific data collection in general (Brody et al, 2003: 248).

Creighton in his 2005 theory known as the 'public participation benefits theory' (Creighton, 2005: 9) defines participation as informing the public, listening to the public, engaging in problem solving, and developing agreements, within a framework where government officials retain decision-making authority. He argues participation can have a number of benefits, like improved quality of decisions, minimizing cost and delay, consensus building, increased ease of implementation, avoiding worst-case confrontations, maintaining credibility and legitimacy, anticipating public concerns and attitudes, and developing civil society. Creighton further proposes a process of decision analysis, process planning, and implementation planning, and provides a range of possible "tools" to reach and engage citizens. Pointing out more than one-third of U.S. residents get their news online, Creighton notes the following: "This is a new enough area that I have little to offer in the way of advice on how to use these forms of communication more effectively. But it is worth your time to tune in to bulletin boards or list services that focus on topics related to your public participation program and then consider how to use these media to reach audiences you cannot reach through conventional media (Creighton, 2005: 9). Despite the diversity in Creighton's theory and other approaches, some researchers have identified many common themes that exist between them (Brody et al, 2003: 251). A study proposing clearer regulation of participation organizes these themes into five areas.

The 'collaborative approach hypothesis' is another theory on public participation worth mentioning. In this theory, Innes & Booher (Innes & Booher, 2004: 419) urge us to abandon the existing model of participation for a collaborative approach that "should be understood as a multi-way set of interactions among citizens and other players who together produce outcomes." (Innes & Booher, 2004: 419) They argue the legally required methods of public participation, in particular public hearings and review and comment procedures "do not work," and antagonize the public, pit citizens against each other, polarize issues, and discourage participation. Recognizing that "governance is no longer only about government but now involves action and power distributed widely in society," they advocate a set of approaches that are "inclusive of

stakeholders and that put dialogue at their core.” (Innes & Booher, 2004: 420). The authors describe the differences between currently legally required participation methods and their proposed collaborative approaches as “one-way talk vs. dialogue; elite or self-selecting vs. diverse participants; reactive vs. involved at the outset; top-down education vs. mutually shared knowledge; one-shot activities vs. continuous engagement; and the use for routine activities vs. for controversial choices.” While the authors acknowledge the two approaches can coexist, the practical obstacles for replacing the existing techniques with collaborative ones are significant, and their list include everything from open meetings laws, costs of collaborative efforts, and the “hubris of elected officials.”(Innes & Booher, 2004: 422) Their theory suggests the next steps for advocates include “developing an alternative practice framework,” a daunting task that may not be possible given the significant expense and lack of specificity in their proposal (Innes & Booher, 2004: 422). Besides the theories mentioned above, there are several others dealing with public participation. However, the theories above were selected because of their popularity and influence in the study of public participation. However, despite the professional consensus about “good” public participation, its practice ranges according to local preference, availability of funds, and the values of government officials. Despite the proliferation of theory, techniques, and evaluations, the legal requirements of participation remain the same in many communities.

6. Legal Context

In showing that sustainable development cannot do without public participation, there have been several efforts on the part of the South African government and the civil society to create platforms that can enhance public participation at the grassroots. The most common civil society organisations are South African NGO Coalition (SANGOCO), Eastern Cape NGO Coalition, South African Council of Churches (SACC) and the Peoples Budget Coalition (PBC). Deepening progressive civil society participation within a new democratic state meant that many of the common economic and social policy positions held by coalition partners could be channelled through one voice (Thomson, 2009:1). Against this backdrop, PBC was formed to enhance public participation

and monitoring of the national budgetary process, to widen the parameters of debate on economic and social policy in South Africa, and to use the People’s Budget as a tool for mass mobilisation and action. To do this, the PBC aims to increase the effective use of the budget as an instrument for reconstruction and development, and specifically to ensure that the budget is planned and allocated in such a way that it meets the basic needs of the poor. This is done so that it leads to the creation of decent jobs as well as ensuring the majority of people are assisted to get access to basic services and skills, and that it supports democratic and participatory governance.

While the PBC is a high-level civil society initiative, it boasts of being rooted amongst active members of its respective organisations who are in turn elected at the grassroots level thereby ensuring effective public participation. A challenge for the PBC is to ensure that its policy views reflect those of the many ordinary community members, workers, church parishes, and community-based organisations that it represents. The school of thought proposed by scholars like Robert Chambers (1994: 4) that development projects and programmes cannot be overly successful without the public participation of the intended beneficiaries can be found in the examples of development projects that have not been very successful in a local context.

An example of the above situation is that of the Duncan village in East London, where the Buffalo City Municipality is currently involved in a planning initiative aimed at housing the residents of Duncan Village. Much debate exists over the appropriate methods to use in redeveloping this densely populated shack town. Planners are striving to meet the challenges associated with this kind of community redevelopment, such as adequate housing, limited land availability, appropriate urban forms, and government requirements for housing subsidies. However, despite the thoughtfulness of development policies and an increased awareness of local circumstances in Duncan Village, the Buffalo City Municipality has still not been able to implement an effective system of participatory planning (Kay, 2006: 512). As a result, housing and development strategies are still not effectively reaching community based organizations, families

and individuals, and local residents are still not empowered to effect substantial change in their community. This is largely due to a strong desire by the local government to maintain a coherent master plan, a culture of civil resistance within Duncan Village, and an untested local political system.

In response to the challenges planners have encountered when trying to implement redevelopment plans for the shantytowns of South Africa, anthropologist Steven Robins mentions that “although there are no clear and obvious answers to these questions, it is only through further fine-grained ethnographic research in specific sites that planners will get closer to understanding the micro-politics and improvisational strategies” of those who live in these shanty towns (Robins, 2002:1). As the forced removals of Duncan Village were planned at the same time as the construction of the Mdantsane township, the government was unable to remove the entire population of Duncan Village at once because sufficient housing had not been constructed in the new township. In the mean time, African resistance to forced removals grew in intensity throughout the 1960’s and 70’s and eventually disrupted the government’s attempt to relocate residents to Mdantsane (Kay: 2006 Pp 511).

The same problem with implementing projects without proper and extensive public participation can be found in the Coega IDZ project just outside Port Elizabeth, where at first glance quite comprehensive and detailed public participation processes seem to have been conducted (Bond, 1999: 1). However, this is doubtful if one considers the history of the project which is vexed in controversy and public dispute which is threatening to all but stall it (Burger & Bradshaw, 2002: 2). The proposed Coega development is popularly presented as of great necessity in the South African and Eastern Cape context, but at the same time may have far reaching implications for the region, environment and community surrounding it. Since the idea was first raised the proposed project evoked much conflict and controversy because of the absence of consultation with communities who would be in any way affected by the project (Bond, 1999: 3). It is not only the validity of the public participation processes conducted in connection with the project

that was questioned. Other processes questioned include the project’s economic viability, its environmental impact and the public accountability of the concerned development agency (the Coega Development Corporation). Also important is the uncertainty surrounding the commitment of possible foreign investors tied to the IDZ through the arms procurement deal. All this controversy and public disputing have cast serious doubt upon the public participation processes conducted in connection with this project, and it is the aim of this paper to try and find some answers for why that may be the case (Burger & Bradshaw, 2002: 4).

Apart from the theoretical sources that will be used, there will, for the purposes of this paper, mainly use made of information gathered from a wide range of media articles as well as official and unofficial documentation that was produced with regard to the Coega project. Looking at ecological and conservation issues public participation is a legal requirement of an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) process allowing interested and affected parties the opportunity to provide their viewpoints as well as influence the process and decision being made (Republic of South Africa, 2006). This has come at a time in South Africa so as to address apartheid policies that have prevented any form of participation in decision-making processes especially by black people that has led to their marginalization and to grave injustices (Wiseman & Roussouw, 2004: 3). Hence there is a need for including ‘invisible’ stakeholders and marginalized communities to enhance democracy and improve environmental outcomes (Scott and Oelofse, 2005; 2).

Environmental policies and procedures in South Africa make vast reference to the role and importance of public participation as a tool in environmental decision-making. This shows that public participation is a key process for the public to air their views which is critical for the South Durban community. This is due to its history of environmental and social injustice as a result of noxious industries located in close proximity to the community. Industrial development had reshaped the South Durban to be the largest Industrial node in the city known as the ‘South Durban Industrial Zone’. This context sparked community resistance with the coalition of community organizations to

form the South Durban Community Environmental Alliance (SDCEA), being the dominant environmental organization within the region for the past twelve years. SDCEA is currently active in various environmental issues that affect the community and South Durban region. Previous research has also shown that it is a common complaint in South Africa that laws and policies notwithstanding, lack of implementation is the critical issue. The solutions to problems of state action are to be found in robust engagement between oversight bodies and the executive. The absence of a vibrant, independent legislature inhibits the discourse on policy direction and implementation (Scott & Oelofse, 2005: 5). Under optimal circumstances the debate should go beyond Parliament and involve other stakeholders such as civil society organizations including academics and representatives of affected communities themselves. Looking at the laws which have been enacted in South Africa to administer public participation, the Constitution of South Africa can be said to be one of the most important documents urging public participation at all levels of public governance. Section 195 (1) e of the South African constitution states that, "People's needs must be responded to, and the public must be encouraged to participate in policymaking." This is a clear, unambiguous directive to ensure that the South African public is central to policy-making (South Africa, 1996:107). Legally, all South African state departments are required to engage in strategic planning, under legislative mandates providing for departments to set out priorities and indicate how these will be achieved (Open Society Foundation for South Africa: 2007). The strategic plans usually cover a four to six year period and are presented in standardised formats. Both the health and education departments have plans and visions that emphasise access and quality of service. There is, however, a lack of co-ordinated time frames between national departments of government or between similar provincial departments (Open Society Foundation for South Africa: 2007). In other words, there is a need for more alignment and harmonisation of plans at national and/or provincial levels. Ideally, departmental planning should have the benefit of input from a wide range of external and internal stakeholders.

In South Africa, there are various consultative forums that are mechanisms for input into the development of strategic plans. For example, *imbizos* (open meetings with communities) are held in the various provinces and there are regular meetings between the executive counterparts in the various provinces and their respective ministers. The research for this report could not determine whether the inputs made at public participation forums indeed find their way into final policy documents. For example, the Department of Education has a structured way of consulting its external stakeholders, including teachers' unions and parent bodies (Open Society Foundation for South Africa: 2007). The Constitution also provides a framework for the functioning of the public service and the responsibilities of the executive in relation to management of the public finances that is critical for public service delivery.

For the purposes of this study, four statutory instruments are used to show the extent to which the state has tried to incorporate public participation within its legislative framework. The Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) was adopted by parliament in 1999. It is intended to positively impact on budget transparency and participation, providing financial controls and improved accountability. Requirements include regular reporting and the assignment of accountability by national and provincial departments. The PFMA is an important measure for public financial management in South Africa. The PFMA was one of the first pieces of legislation to demand monthly actual expenditure reports from departments to treasuries, and audited financial statements to the legislatures within seven months of the end of the fiscal year. It sought to bring state-owned enterprises under the transparent scrutiny and accountability not yet exercised by the legislature (South Africa, 2000:3).

The Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (Act 56 of 2003) is the only legislation prescribing the need for municipalities to consult all communities falling under their jurisdiction in the course of municipal planning and budgeting (South Africa, 2003a). While the above may be contained in legislation, the actual practice undermines effective consultation. In recent interviews

conducted by NALEDI amongst 77 people in Durban (KwaZulu-Natal), only two people indicated that they participated in the city's budget processes (Thompson, 2009: 3). Most people indicated that they do not know anything about city budget processes. They indicated that the advertisements for the ward meetings to discuss the budget gave insufficient short notice. This means that the budget cycle of the municipality could not possibly be shared with the communities.

The Municipal Systems Act, 2000(Act 32of 2000) contains sections dealing with local community participation in the development of Integrated Development Plans (South Africa, 2000). They guide the local municipality on how to ensure community participation, specifying processes, timelines etc. While legislative provisions are progressive, the reality within many communities is different. The media used to alert communities about meetings are not universally accessible across municipalities, and the notice for such meetings is often too short. The period set aside for consultation with communities is often too short. The timing of these community meetings tends to marginalise large sections of the local community in cases where these are held during the day when employed people are at work. With the aim to secure stakeholder input to the development of a new environmental policy, this process resulted in the adoption of the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) in 1998. As far as its procedural environmental rights are concerned, NEMA is considered one of the most modern and innovative environmental framework statutes in the world. On the national level, the South African government has introduced what is commonly known as the Batho Pele Principles, which are found in the white paper on transforming Public service Delivery (1997b) and epitomises the evolution of public participation in South Africa. Batho Pele means "people first". With these principles the government has established the importance of the south African public and their valued input through participatory means ,and called "for a shift away from inward looking ,bureaucratic systems ,processes and attitudes ,and a search for new ways of working which put the needs of the public first ,is better ,faster and more responsive to the citizen's needs" (White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery ,1997b).The

"people first", bottom –up approach is derived from the recognition that the total dependence on professional to implement development initiatives is grossly inadequate and contributes to greater underdevelopment (Oakley, 1991:4).

7.2 Integrated Development Plans

Municipalities make sure that, within the framework of national policy and provincial guidelines, constituents within their jurisdictional areas have access to adequate housing. Municipalities set aside, plan and manage land for housing and development in line with the housing priorities identified in their integrated development plans (IDPs). They initiate, plan, co-ordinate and facilitate appropriate housing development within their boundaries, aiming to ensure safe and healthy living areas. (Provincial Budgets and Expenditure Review: (2001/02 – 2007/08: 68) Integration and coordination involves the responsibility of local government to align standard visions and goals for all municipalities. This has resulted in what is commonly known as Integrated Development Plans (IDPs), which "provide powerful tools for municipalities to facilitate integrated delivery with their locality" (white paper on Local Government, 1998c).The IDP process is defined as "a participative process to integrate economic, sectoral, spatial, social, institutional, environmental and fiscal strategies in order to support the optimal allocation of scarce resources between sectors and geographical areas and across the population, in a manner that provides sustainable growth, equity and the empowerment of the poor and marginalized..."(White paper on Local Government, 1998c).

IDPs provide developmental objectives for the short, medium and long term and are a compulsory requirement for all local municipalities; nine steps have been formulated for implementing an IDP: An assessment of the current social, economic and environmental reality:

- A determination of community needs through close consultation
- Developing a vision for development in the area
- An audit of available resources, skills and capacities
- A prioritisation of needs in order of urgency and long-term importance

- The development of integrated frameworks and goals to meet these needs
- The formulation of strategies to achieve the goals within the specific time frames
- The implementation of projects and programmes to achieve key goals
- To use the monitoring tools to measure impact and performance
(White paper on Local Government, 1998c).

The most significant aspect of IDPs is the constant element of public participation in partnership with their local municipalities to achieve pre-determined goals. This ensures that the public “owns” the process their development. Without this element of public participation IDPs would fail. Due to this recognised fact, the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 dedicates an entire chapter to public participation (Municipal Systems Act, 2000 a).The Municipal Systems Act (2000a) encourages a culture of development that includes public participation. Municipalities are mandated with the responsibility of creating an environment conducive to public participation in line with the IDPs of the various municipalities. The Act also mandates municipalities to work toward “developmentally oriented planning”, so as to ensure that it is aligned with various sections of the constitution (1996) and the objectives of local government and provides various mechanisms and procedures to accomplish goals (Municipal Systems Act, 2000).Coupled to the Municipal System Act (2000a) is the Municipal Structures Act, 1998. (Act 117 of 1998) which, in terms of public participation, stipulates that a Municipal Council must annually review:

- The needs of a community
- Its priorities to meet those needs
- Its processes for involving the community
- Its organisational and delivery mechanisms for meeting the needs of the community and its overall performance in achieving these objectives.

The various acts mentioned above should all be aligned in such a manner that they work toward housing delivery in an interdisciplinary manner so as to optimise results with the aid of public participation. Integrated development planning, performance management and working together

with local citizens and partners have been identified as tools and approaches for Developmental Local Government (National Capacity Building Strategy for Local Government, 2003:6). In spite of the above-mentioned Acts, the desired results have not always been achieved. The progress which municipalities have made in terms of realising IDP goal has been minimal as 60% of municipalities are still not implementing performance management systems and only 75% of municipalities had completed their IDPs by June / July 2002. (South Africa, 1997). This is a reflection of the lack of capacity within local government and its municipalities as they have yet to consolidate their core systems and structures, which include performance management, IDPS and review of delivery mechanisms (National Capacity Building strategy for local government, 2003:6) Public participation within the IDP process can only be considered successful if everyone within a specific community has had the opportunity to have their interests or opinions heard .it does not necessarily mean the participation of everybody within the entire life cycle of development initiative.

The successes of IDP are dependent on common understanding and interpretation of the concept of public participation as a point of departure .Once this understanding has been established, the public participation strategies can be decided upon within the phases as will be indicated in chapter 3.The South African government has come a long way in addressing past injustices and current legislation is proof of the desire to learn from failed past practices ,but internal capacity needs attention as “it is crucial that the facilitative potential of local authorities’ be developed and exercised to full” (CSIR,2000:26).

8. Conclusion

The study deals with the analysis of citizen participation in Tyutyu Village low-income housing settlement. The delays in service delivery are a dire issue everywhere. Government officials are supposed to involve communities that they wish to assist in their reconstruction and development programmes if they wish to get sustainable results. Consultation is an essential step when dealing with communities, especially in the rural areas. While reflecting on the objectives, the study sought to assess the nature and extent of public participation

in Tyutyu community project against the housing policies and IDP.

According to the study, indications are that the department under study did not involve the beneficiaries. Even the consultation was predominantly top to bottom. It was mainly the authorities who were consulted and had to pass the information on to the lower ranks. The analysis shows that government in its implementation of the Tyutyu housing project did not follow the then statutory instruments on public participation in its housing policy. Furthermore, the delay by the Government to deliver on its mandate and allow the community members to have access to decent houses has led the Tyutyu community members to resist the idea of Tyutyu being given township status and all the benefits that come with such status like improved roads, garbage collection and water reticulation services and street lighting. This highly causes a great inconvenience for those beneficiaries who had expected a social development in the area but had to suffer because of improper management from the government's side. The study outlines below several solutions on how the above problem of non-participation by community members can be resolved.

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GENDER AGENDA FOR REPOSITIONING EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN ZIMBABWE FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract

Education of women is regarded as one of the critical pathways to promote social and economic development. Despite the promulgation of various laws by the Government aimed at creating an enabling environment for the attainment of equity and equality between men and women, global gender related index indicates that gender disparities still characterize all aspects of development in Zimbabwe with female under-representation in the education sector. This paper therefore examined the state of education of women in Zimbabwe and recommends a gender agenda that will pave way for a gender sensitive educational system for sustainable development.

Keywords: *Education, Gender, Women, Zimbabwe.*

1. Introduction

It is a truism that education is the greatest catalyst of change or development in any society. According to the Independent Policy Group (2003), education results in human capital development through capacity building for self-actualization, hence it serves as the key to economic prosperity, technological advancement and political stability. It is also the greatest investment a nation can make for quick development in all sphere of national life, economic, social, political and mental. The principle of distributive justice states that goods, services and opportunities are to be shared equally, fairly and justly to the advantage of all. For this reason, the attainment of equity and equality between men and women need be taken seriously.

The well-being of any nation depends largely on the quality of education given to both male and female genders. The only gateway to women self-reliance, empowerment and well-being is quality education. In view of this, women should urgently and sincerely be educated to any level for quality education has been recognized as the key to both individual and national development. (Mogbo, 2001)

The prospect of female education lies in a West African proverb, which says, “if you educate a man, you educate an individual, but if you educate a woman you educate a nation”. It is therefore not surprising that the girl-child and her right to education are claiming a place of prominence on the human development agenda.

In the past decade, the plight of the girl-child has gained currency in international Conferences. Among these seminar meetings are the world Summit for children (New York,1990), World Conference on Education for All (Jomtien, 1990), 42nd session of the International Conference on Education held in 1990, 6th Conference on Human Rights (Vienna, 1993) the Pan-African Conference on the Education of Girls (Ouagadougou, 1993) and the Fourth World Conference on Women (Beijing, 1995) among others. In particular, these conferences have laid out priority areas for concern such as eliminating all gender stereotyping, improving access and quality of girl child education (German and Kyte (1993),UNESCO/UNICEF (1993), Umbima, (1994),UN (1997).

In most developing countries, despite the convention on the Rights of the girl child (1989) and the UN

Millennium summit, in September 2000, which ensures universal access to Primary education, the girl child still faces discrimination. One of the greatest handicaps is her educationally disadvantage position. Apart from this, parental discrimination in domestic work assignment, health care and intra-family food distribution further exacerbates her situation (Ogidi 1998 in Awoniyi 2006). It is disheartening to note that gender gap exist in favour of males at all levels of the educational system. In fact, the Ouagadougou Declaration and framework of Action on the education of African girls asserts that the problem of girl's opportunity for education looms large as we approach the twenty-first century (Ballara, 1991).

That women are disadvantaged is a fact the World over (UNDP, 1998). The girl- child is discriminated against in the school system, in the curricular, access to educational materials, teachers' attitudes and classroom interaction. Girl – children are therefore not encouraged to develop their self-esteem. When women are denied full access to education, full access to and control of resources and right to leadership opportunities in government and social organization as well as discouraging women access to quality higher education, only limited results are achieved in such a nation (Awoniyi, 2008)

Evidence from sub-Saharan Africa indicates that although there have been improvements in female participation, girls and women's access to education remains limited in several Countries across the region. It is evident that once enrolled, girls are more likely to drop out of school than boys that their academic achievement is poorer than that of boys, that few girls opt for Mathematics, and science related fields of study (Kevin 1995). It is against this background that this paper seeks to examine the status of female (women) education in Zimbabwe, problems inhibiting her full participation in formal education and suggest a gender agenda programme for repositioning education of women in Zimbabwe for sustainable national transformation and development.

2. Importance of Education to Women

Female education is recognized as one of the critical pathways to promote social and economic development .In fact, the World Conference on Education for All held in Jometien, Thailand (1991)

drew the world's attention to the disadvantaged position of girls and women as regards access to educational opportunities and its implication for human development Furthermore, the restricted educational opportunities available to girls and women have hindered their active participation in the affairs of the nation. It is important to note that education is one of the most avenues for opportunity in any nation whereas illiteracy exposes them to ignorance, disease and poverty, which together has constraint, their development and eventually limits the possibility of sustainability development.

According to Ndalolo (1990) the educated women is more likely to improve the capacity of life for the children by allocating more resources (energy, time and money) for them. She is more likely to purchase goods and services for her children such as books, toys and extra lesson. In short, the educated woman who is a product of social change herself is better equipped to socialize her children to survive in the new socio-economic order concomitant with development. Therefore, education does not only prepare the woman, she is in fact educating the nation. The Herbraic word 'train up a child in the way he should go and when he is old he will not depart from it', illuminate the one aim of education that has persisted through the ages, the formation of character.

It has been acknowledge that female education is one of the most important forces of development. King (1991) in Kasomo (2009) observes that an educated mother raises a smaller, healthier and better-educated family, and is herself more productive at home and at the work place.

Education benefits a woman in life-altering ways. An educated woman gains higher status and an enhanced sense of efficacy. She tends to marry later and have greater bargaining power and success in the "marriage market." She also has greater bargaining power in the household after marriage. An educated woman tends to desire a smaller family size and seek the health care necessary to do so. She has fewer and healthier children. An educated woman has high educational and career expectations of her children, both boys and girls. For females, education profoundly changes their lives, how they interact with society, and their economic status. Educating women creates more equitable lives for

women and their families and increases their ability to participate in community decision making and work toward achieving local sustainability goals. (UNESCO-ACEID, 1997).

According to Todaro (1992), “an educated woman is more likely, compared to her counterpart to:

- Bring up healthier children;
- Make a greater economic contribution to the family;
- Be more financially independent (and hence less likely to endure on abusive marriage situation for example);
- Have few children (and hence be in a better position to provide for their needs);
- Have more positive influence on her children’s upbringing, especially bearing in mind that she tends to spend more time with them than the father.” P.889

According to the Zimbabwe Central Statistical Office (2002), women constitute fifty-two percent of population in Zimbabwe. It follows therefore, that in order for the country to develop; there is the need to harness the potential human resources (men and women) within it. A nation that ignores its human resources capacity cannot realize its developmental potential to the fullest. The education of female is one of the critical factors which contribute positively to the national economic and social development.

In spite of the stated importance of education to women, available data showed a lot of sex disparities existing in education in Zimbabwe.

3. The State of Female Education in Zimbabwe

Table 1: Female participation in Tertiary and Higher Education in Zimbabwe

| Category of Institutions | Total Enrolment 2009 | Female Enrolment, 2009 | |
|------------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|------------|
| | | Number | % of Total |
| Universities | 49,645 | 19,621 | 39.52 |
| Polytechnics | 13,217 | 5,853 | 44.28 |
| Teachers Colleges, Primary | 8,390 | 6,026 | 71.82 |
| Teachers Colleges, Secondary | 3,184 | 2,009 | 63.09 |

Zimbabwe’s adult literacy rate of 86% makes it the second highest in the region. However, women constitute 60% of the illiterate adult population and school dropout rate, particularly among female students, remains high. Enrolment at secondary school level, universities and vocational training institution is also significantly lower for females than males. The education and training sector poses a big challenge to the eradication of gender imbalances and inequality since it is foundation of economic and social development. (The National Gender Policy, 2004)

In Zimbabwe, gender disparities characterize all aspects of development, with Zimbabwe ranked at 130 in the global gender related development index according to the Human Development Report 2007/2008, reflecting the generally low status of women with respect to access, control and ownership of economic resources and positions in decision-making processes. This is despite the promulgation of various laws and the signature, ratification and accession to several regional and international declarations, conventions and protocols aimed at creating an enabling environment for the attainment of equity and equality between men and women.

In Zimbabwe gender gap exist in enrolment and completion rates. Variation exists in the percent by which male enrolment exceeds female enrolment by education level across the country. According to the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education (2009), from a historical perspective, females have been under-represented in education and their participation in higher and tertiary education has been a topical issue. The enrolment data for all institutions analyzed by gender is as represented in Table 1

| | | | |
|--------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|
| Total | 74,436 | 33,509 | 45.01 |
|--------------|---------------|---------------|--------------|

Source: Republic of Zimbabwe Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Baseline Data and Statistical Information Situation Analysis (September 2009)

The above table shows that female students were under-represented in all universities and polytechnics where they constituted just over 40 percent of the total enrolment, however enrolment in teachers colleges and in primary teachers colleges reflected a trend towards feminization. The female students constituted 69.4% and 72% of the total

enrolment in the teachers colleges and primary teacher colleges respectively. In general, the percentage of female students in Zimbabwe (45.01%) fell slightly below that of the South Africa Development Community (SADC) region as a whole. This situation calls for concern.

In the same vein, gender issue in staffing presents gender imbalance. The share of female lecturing staff was as low as 32.61%. Female under-representation was highest for lecturing staff in the university and lowest in teachers colleges as shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Percentage of Female Lecturing Staff in Higher Institutions in Zimbabwe

| Category of Institution | % Female Lecturing Staff |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| Universities | 27.6 |
| Polytechnics | 35.76 |
| Teachers Colleges | 40.04 |
| Total/Average | 32.61 |

Source: Republic of Zimbabwe Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Baseline Data and Statistical Information Situation Analysis (September 2009)

Gender gap also exists between male and female lecturing staff as far as academic qualification is concern. Table three below present the trend and it is evident from the table that that females are under-represented and the higher the academic qualification the less the representation of females lecturers. This agrees with the assertion of Barnes, 2005 that there are fewer girls in schools, and that there are more males than females at tertiary level

Table 3: Percentage of Female Lecturing Staff by Qualification in Higher Institutions in Zimbabwe

| Qualification | % Female Lecturing Staff |
|---------------|--------------------------|
| Doctorate | 22.1 |
| Masters | 28.8 |
| Bachelors | 36.5 |
| Others | 37.1 |

Adapted from Republic of Zimbabwe Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Baseline Data and Statistical Information Situation Analysis (September 2009)

With the low enrolment for females and the general under-representation in higher and tertiary education affairs, whatever efforts are directed toward equalizing the gender gap must address the problem confronting the girl-child's lack of effective participation in formal education.

4. Problems Confronting Women Education

According to Chirimuuta (2006), attempts at addressing the gender issues have been registered, the government of Zimbabwe has implemented policies that are geared at balancing up and harmonizing the relationship between men and women, in that a quota system for women representation in parliament was introduced and a gender policy was drafted and adopted. But despite these moves, gender-based problems are on the increase and more challenges are emerging, strongly dictating maximum participation of women in all spheres of human endeavors.

The problem pertaining to gender inequalities within the family, the community at large, religion, politics, industry and commerce, and education, depict the superstructure of the marginalized and paralyzed position of women. Solutions sought to rectify this complex and institutionalized imbalances are merely fleeting in tenure, because they do not address the core sources of the anomalies. Consequently, the same problems recur because the base remains intact, churning out the imbalances generation after generation.

Some of the problems confronting female education have been extensively documented in literature. Kasomo (2009) identified the major impediments against educational advancement of girl's as pregnancy, peer pressure, lack of school fees, lack of parental guidance, intimate boy/girl relationships and forced early marriages. Underlying the disadvantage position of female are economic, socio-cultural and administrative factors. Some of the indentified problems are discussed below.

5. Socio-Economic Factor Influencing Female participation In Education

Sending girls to school entails direct and opportunity cost which are prohibitive to families particular poor families and rural families .The

following are some of the perceptions that underpin the decisions not to enroll or withdraw girls from schools.

- (a) Direct cost of school
- (b) High opportunities cost
- (c) Parent/familial perception of the irrelevant of school for girls.

5.1 Direct cost of Schooling

The increase prohibitive cost of schooling is the major reason parents do offer for not educating or for removing children, particularly girls, from school. Almost all the studies reviewed specify this as a constraint to female education. The trend to shift education cost to parents in the name of cost sharing is especially likely to work against girls' education.

The prohibitive costs of schooling coupled with the economic situation in Zimbabwe in the past few years have affected the ability of communities and household to educate their wards. When decisions have to be made because of financial constraints, girls are more likely than boys to be held back or be withdrawn from school.

5.2 The high opportunity cost of girls' education

Child labour is indispensable to the survival of some households, and schooling represents a high opportunity cost to those sending children to school. While the importance of child labour for agricultural, domestic and marketing tasks has been well documented when it comes to child care, girls are more likely to be involved than boys, and children in the rural areas spend more time working than those in urban areas. Consequently, there are fewer girls in school than their urban peers. (Brook and Cammish 1991)

With the rapid rate of growth in urbanization, the demand for domestic labour in urban areas has already increased. Resources-poor rural households have responded by sending their daughter into the domestic labour market in exchange for regular cash income. This also draws young girls away from school. The current demand for use of house girls by educated folks in Zimbabwe may be responsible for the under-representation of females in the education sector.

5.3 Parental/Familial perceptions of the irrelevance of schooling for girls

Parent/familial attitude have a strong influence on the decision to invest in children's education. The literature highlights ambivalence towards investing in female education, based on many negative perceptions of girls and women; these perceptions need to be challenged. Some parent believes that boys are more intelligent, that they perform better in school and that they are educational investment than girls. As the prime beneficiaries of family assets, boys are favoured in human capital investment decisions. In addition parent worry about wasting money on the education of girls who are likely to get pregnant or married before completing their schooling. There is also a strong belief that, once married, girls becomes part of another family and the parental investment is lost (Davison 1993, Kapakasa 1992).

Some communities and parents hold a negative view of educated girls. Some parents believe that school push girls to prostitution, make them unfaithful to their husbands and make them difficult to control by parents. (Awoniyi, 2006)

5.4 Socio-cultural factors

Socio-cultural expectation of girls and the priority given to their future roles as mothers and wives has a strong negative bearing on their formal educational opportunities. Socio-cultural customs and beliefs influence decision to enroll girls in schools, decision to withdraw them from school, their own decision to drop out of school, their academic performance, and their grade level attainment. Some socio-cultural factors influencing female participation in education are:

- (a)Initiations
- (b)Practice of early marriage
- (c) Religion

5.5 Initiations

Initiations ceremonies are still important in some communities. According to Kapakasa (1992), initiation brings several dilemmas for girls, affecting their school attendance and academic performance and even leading to dropout. The scheduling of

initiation ceremonies does conflicts with the school calendar, leading to absenteeism from school. Initiated girls also find it difficult to return to formal school or concentrate on their studies because their next expectation is marriage. Boys also go through initiation ceremonies but the literature is silent on what effect this has on their education.

5.6 Practice of Early Marriage

The practice of early marriage is one of the major factors militating against the education of the girl-child. In some communities, she is married at an early age of 12 year or less, and while still in primary school, she could be withdrawn for the purpose of getting married. The Demographic Health Survey (DHS) indicates that about 46.2 percent of girls between 15 and 19 have been childbearing already. This practice robs the girl-child of any meaningful opportunities of acquiring formal education (Shuaibu, 1995, Somefun, 1995). The Teacher's Voice in Zimbabwe (2002) reported the case of a certain family where a Form 1 student was forced by relatives to stop schooling and get married in order to acquire money to educate her younger brother.

5.7 Religion

According to Clocloguh and Lewin (1993), religion, especially Islam is usually associated with low female participation in schools. The history of the imposition of formal Western education, which is associated, with Christianity, and the pressure to convert, is still very much an issue in some Islamic religions. It is evident that some parents still have the notion that western education promotes values and behavior for girls that are contrary to cultural norms.

6. Gender Agenda for Female Education

Although efforts have been made by Zimbabwe Government to attain equality, equity and social justice in all sectors of the society and economy, a lot remains to be done as women still lag behind men in political and decision-making positions and in education. Women continue to be marginalized in the economy and the enjoyment of legal and human rights. These disparities between women and men should not be allowed to continue as they pose a serious impediment to sustainable development and

the attainment of equality and equity between women and men.

Zimbabwe as a member of the regional and international communities has signed, ratified and acceded to several declarations, conventions and protocols aimed at creating an enabling environment for the attainment of equity and equality between women and men thus demonstrating her commitment. The Government commitment was demonstrated by drawing up and adopting the National Gender Policy to provide guidelines and institutionalize framework to engender all sectoral policies, programmes and activities at all levels of the society and economy.

The various government actions notwithstanding, situation analysis still reveal that women are disadvantaged educationally. The current situation as far as women education is concern need be improved upon in order to reposition the education of women for sustainable development. The following gender agenda are recommended:

1. Government policies for the attainment of gender equality and equity in education will never succeed if the base of the problem, which is the family and community, remains intact. There is the need to intensify efforts on enlightenment campaign in order to remove the social and cultural barriers against female education.
2. Efforts should be made to retain females in schools once enrolled. This could be achieved by the Government enacting and enforcing laws against the withdrawal of female students from schools.
3. Government should design policies that provides long term solution to replace the affirmative action which pave way for admitting females with lower points into higher institutions in the past thus causing disparity in performance gap.
4. Government should intensify efforts on Distance Learning system to raise the educational level of women without disrupting their family programmes. There should be scholarships for brilliant female students.
5. The current situation in which girls are made to work as housemaids until they are old enough to be married should be discouraged.

This could be achieved through educating families and communities and making them realize the contributions that educated women can make in the society.

6. There is need for action now by educationists in creating gender responsive policies. The crucial task that gender sensitive educators have is not just to research and write papers on gender issues for presentation at workshops (most of which is done for promotion purposes and never translated into action), but to intervene, and to facilitate the implementation of intervention strategies which will socialize, sensitize, and re-acculturate people to make them gender sensitive and gender responsive in all their life activities.
7. The target of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which is to eliminate gender disparity at all level of education not later than 2015 should be pursued with all seriousness by the various tiers of government and organizations
8. More women should be brought into policy decision making so as to serve as encouragement for girls to work harder in schools for academic excellence.
9. Women educationists should see the need of mentoring other women so that they could be inspired to achieve greater height educationally. They need to serve as role model to female students by organizing seminars and workshops aimed at encouraging them educationally
10. All forms of discrimination against women be it political, social, productive resources and violence against women should be addressed. The law of distributive justice should be made to prevail.

7. Conclusion

Education is an asset, it has no substitute. Its opposite is ignorance, which is very costly. Education provides sustainability to any social development, but the female education disadvantaged position endangers the future of the Zimbabwean women empowerment ambition. It is my belief that the implementation of the GENDER AGENDA above will not only make education more accessible to women but will also empower them for effective participation in national development .Our

traditions and cultures that do not encourage women to pursue education should be changed to fit the demands of this new age. Education of the Zimbabwean females must therefore be part of the top priorities in the movement agenda if sustainable national development and transformation is to be achieved.

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RETAIL EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT IN KAMPALA
(A CASE OF SELECTED RETAIL UNITS)

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Abstract

Employee engagement has emerged as potentially important employee performance and organizational management topic, however, the definition and measurement of engagement at work, and more specifically, retail store employee engagement, is poorly understood. The objective of this paper is to examine the current degree of employee engagement in retailing industry in Kampala. The study also focused on measuring the level of job satisfaction, managing stress, relationship with peers/colleagues, distribution of work and work life balance which influence the degree of employee engagement in Retailing Industry in Kampala. The paper assumed that there is no significant difference between the degree of employee engagement by gender and retail formats. Analysis of variance is applied for testing the hypothesis.

Keywords: *Engagement, Work environment, Scoring Scale, Engagement in Retailing*

I. Introduction

Engagement at work was conceptualized by Khan, (1990) [1] as the ‘harnessing of organizational members’ selves to their work roles. In engagement, people employ and express themselves physically, cognitively, and emotionally during role performances. The second related construct to engagement in organizational behaviour is the notion of flow advanced by Csikszentmihalyi (1975, 1990) [2-3]. He defines flow as the ‘holistic sensation’ that, people feel when they act with total involvement. Flow is the state in which there is little distinction between the self and environment. When individuals are in flow state little conscious control is necessary for their actions.

Employee engagement is the level of commitment and involvement of an employee towards organization and its values [4]. An engagement employee is aware of business context, and works with colleagues to improve performance within the job for the benefit of the organization. It is a positive attitude held by the employees towards the organization and its values. The organization must work to develop and nurture engagement which requires a two-way relationship between employer and employee. Thus employee engagement is barometer that determines the association of a person with the organization.

Deepening Employee Engagement

According to a 2011 Blessing white research paper on employee engagement, fewer than 1 in 3 employees (31%) worldwide are actively engaged at work (www.ceoadvantage.com). This response was provided by approximately 11,000 individuals from North America, India, Europe, Southeast Asia, Australia/New Zealand and China. It provides almost any organization in existence today with an opportunity to improve financial results by increasing employee engagement.

So where does one start? In order for people to feel connected to an organization and become more engaged, they must understand the mission and purpose. They must know why the company exists beyond making money and how their performance contributes to the overall success of the organization's goals. Leadership must communicate and inspire a shared vision and ensure alignment of people and their work with the strategic goals of the company. People must feel a part of the organization and its success.

Following are 9 steps organisations can utilize to deepen employee engagement and productivity.

- 1) Hold employees accountable for delivering quality work, hitting targets and meeting deadlines. Show them how their goals connect to the company goals.
- 2) Manage, encourage, motivate, recognize and reward.
- 3) Ensure employees have proper tools and equipment to do their jobs. Utilize technology.
- 4) Provide training and additional learning opportunities. Encourage personal development.
- 5) Expect teamwork; inter and interdepartmentally.
- 6) Live company values and use them in decision making.
- 7) Communicate company strategy and report progress to all employees regularly.
- 8) Seek input from employees. Encourage two-way feedback. Involve employees in decision making.
- 9) Share the vision and provide consistent communications.

In order to reap the benefits of an engaged workforce, all employees must be accountable for their active participation in the process every day. Whether you are an employee, manager or executive, you have a role to play. Individual employees must have a clear understanding of the company's direction, and must take responsibility for determining how their skills and interest can be best aligned for personal and company success. Managers are responsible for coaching and developing strong relationships with employees. Only when managers truly understand the special talents of their employees and what unique things motivate them can they effectively align employees' skills/interest with organizational objectives. Executives are unique in that they significantly impact the level of employee engagement through communication and development of the culture. Executives should be diligent in holding themselves and their peers accountable for high performance and sustainable results; they should expect high levels of trust and authentic leadership.

Definition of Work-Life Balance

"Work" and "Life" have fuzzy definitions in literature (Guest 2002) where work is paid employment and life is everything outside of the formal employment but is usually used to connote the realm of family or home life. The concept is ambiguous and is seen to derive from sexual/gender division of labour and this renders WLB its narrow focus (Ransome 2007). Kossek and Ozeki (1998) highlighted that WLB is equally important for both men and women, and that men are equally burdened by the work and family responsibilities. His conceptualization still remains narrow in that though the earlier rhetoric of WLB for working mothers has been criticized, it still remains in the purview of work and family.

Further, we need to understand what do we imply by "balance"? Is it an equal distribution of work and the rest of life? Is it possible to ensure that at all times there is an equal distribution? If it is, in what terms is the distribution? Is it a distribution of time, energy, emotions? According to Guest (2002), the term Work-Life Balance is in itself a misnomer. Given the fluid nature of needs and responsibilities and their changing nature at different life stages, the division of activity will neither be easy to measure

nor equal, and therefore notions of negotiation, cooperation and compromise, reciprocity and complementarity might be better terms than balance (Ransome 2007). In speaking of a concept of WLB there seems to be an assumption that the scale of balance is tilting more towards the work sphere (that work predominates) and hence the need for a balance with life.

Is WLB a concept that can be objectively defined in terms of number of hours spent at work and with family or is it a felt state, an experience? If it is the latter, how stable is it? Does the feeling of there being a balance or not change dynamically day to day or is it more consistent? Does each individual not define his or her own optimum balance? A person can perfectly experience 'work-family balance', even though work 'weighs more' than family, and in a consistent way in the course of a whole lifetime. Each person experiences balance in a different way (Poelmans *et al* 2008, Muna & Mansour 2009). Moreover, one can have work-life conflict and yet still have WLB depending on how Work-Life Balance is defined (Poelmans *et al* 2008). The feeling of whether there is a balance or not is perceived by the individual. It may not be there in objective terms, if one is to consider the number of hours one is working or the involvement/preoccupation with work even when one is at home. Still, the individual may experience a WLB. Thus, it becomes that particular individual's perception or experience of a balance. Nobody else can define the balance for him/her.

The importance given to work and family in one's life seems to be a crucial determinant of the experience of WLB. Work family conflict is an intermediate state in a continuous process of creating harmony between work, family and personal life (Poelmans *et al* 2008). People strive for meaning and are then willing and capable of tolerating prolonged periods of imbalance and disharmony. Does this not mean that if people find meaning and fulfilment in their work, WLB takes a backseat and no longer remains a pertinent issue? In this sense then, centrality of work or of the rest of life will determine how one perceives one's WLB and where the scale will tilt.

Work Family Conflict & Work Family Enrichment.

Further we find that the domains of "work" and of "life" seem to have a bearing on one another. Only recently has this view been expanded to include the positive spill over as well, which is called work family facilitation (Grzywacz *et al* 2007) or enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell 2006). Further, Friedman and Greenhaus (2000) focus on the conflict-enrichment dimension of family and work life. Conflict shows the incompatibility between the two whereas enrichment reflects the compatibility between them. The major finding of this research may be summarized as below:

Work-family conflict is an obstacle to achieving effectiveness and satisfaction in important life roles.

- 1) Work-family conflict represents the extent to which work and family roles are incompatible and interfere with one another (Greenhaus & Beutell 1985).
- 2) There are two directions of work-family conflict: work-to-family conflict, in which work interferes with family life, and family-to-work conflict, in which family interferes with work life.
- 3) Work-family conflict is an obstacle because when work interferes with family, satisfaction or effectiveness in family life is restricted, and when family interferes with work, satisfaction or effectiveness at work is restricted.
- 4) Therefore, a work-family conflict perspective views work and family as "enemies" (Friedman & Greenhaus 2000).

When it concerns Work family Enrichment, their findings were as under:

- I. Work-family conflict is an obstacle to achieving effectiveness and satisfaction in important life roles.
- II. Conversely, work-family enrichment facilitates the achievement of effectiveness and satisfaction in important life roles.
- III. Work-family enrichment refers to the extent to which experiences in one role improve effectiveness and positive feelings in the other role.
- IV. There are two directions of work-family enrichment: work-to-family enrichment, in

which work enriches family life, and family-to-work enrichment, in which family enriches work life.

- V. Work-family enrichment is a facilitator because when work enriches family, satisfaction or effectiveness in family life is enhanced, and when family enriches work, satisfaction or effectiveness at work is enhanced.
- VI. A work-family enrichment perspective views work and family as "allies" rather than "enemies."

In a similar vein, a Meta analytic review done by Byron (2005) focused on work family conflict as seen in work interference with family (WIF) and family interference with work (FIW). It was found that those with high job involvement tended to have higher WIF than FIW whereas those high on family involvement tended to have the same FIW (and WIF) than those who were low on family involvement. Does this not point to the stronger role work plays in causing a detrimental effect on family? In another review of work family research between 1980 and 2002 it was found that there was an unfavourable relationship between work and family variables. Gender differences in the antecedents of WFC have also been reported unlike in the review done by Byron.

Responsibility of the Organization or the Individual

In the WLB discourse there are two overlapping yet distinct threads. One focuses on human agency and is at the individual level whereas the other focuses on what measures of workplace flexibility are provided by the organization. The critical question is whether WLB is for the individual to achieve and maintain or is it the responsibility of the employer? In the former discourse, research has looked into WLB as a personal choice. In addition, values, worker type, role demand and conflict are some of the elements this domain has emphasized. In the second discourse, research has focused on the family friendly policies offered by organizations including flexible work arrangements. Recently it has been acknowledged and research has looked into the individual differences in the use of flexible work arrangements. Support from spouse at home and boss at the workplace have also been found

important in achieving a WLB. Work Life Imbalance and its consequences on employee health, the home and workplace has also found place in the research in this domain.

The most consistent turnover predictors in research have been job satisfaction (Mobley 1977, Price 1977, Spector 1977), organizational commitment (Huselid & Day 1991, Meyer & Allen 1991, Mowday, Porter & Steers 1982) and turnover intention (Griffeth, Hom & Gaertner 2000, Steel 2002, Tett & Meyer 1993). More recently researchers have investigated the impact of family life on work related behaviour, specifically turnover (Eby et al 2005, Greenhaus & Powell 2003). Yet little research has been conducted on impact of work life on the turnover process (Greenhaus et al 1997). Further Emotional Dissonance has been studied in the Indian context by Mishra and Bhatnagar (2009), but as a moderator to life and work satisfaction and its linkage with employee engagement and turnover intention it has not been investigated.

Earlier research has found WLB to be positively related to both organizational and individual outcomes such as giving the employees flexibility, information, and financial assistance can improve the organization's financial performance and raise employee satisfaction and labour productivity (Perry-Smith & Blum 2000, Konrad & Mangel 2000), employee-organizational commitment and attachment (Wang & Walumbwa 2007) and organizational citizenship behavior (Lambert 2000 cited in Wang & Verma 2009). Many employers continue to strive to create better WLB in order to:

- i. Increase employee commitment and engagement
- ii. Improve retention
- iii. Improve mental health and productivity (Gallinsky 2005).

Further, WLB is also expected to have a positive impact on employee engagement. Employee engagement, in fact, can make or break the business bottom line (Lockwood 2006). Martel (2003:30, 42)

is of the opinion that, in order to obtain high performance in post-industrial, intangible work that demands innovation, flexibility, and speed, employers need to engage their employees. Engaging employees--especially by giving them participation, freedom, and trust--is the most comprehensive response to the ascendant post industrial values of self-realization and self-actualization. Performance data of the best companies in the US, show that in all the practice areas discussed previously, objectives are more easily met when employees are engaged and more likely to fall short when they are not. SHRM Conference (2006) reported the result of a new global employee engagement study showing a dramatic difference in bottom-line results in organizations with highly engaged employees when compared to organizations whose employees had low engagement scores (Bhatnagar 2007: 645). Yet little research has been done on Employee Engagement as an outcome WLB at the individual level.

Further, Rajyadaksha and Smita in 2004 indicated that, in the Indian context, there are very few research studies examining work and family from an organizational perspective. No attempt has been made to answer the question, why in spite of three decades of research on women's studies and working women have Indian organizations not evolved family friendly measures for employees? Clearly to arrive at the answer will require more cross-disciplinary and perhaps even action research on work and family (Rajadhyaksha & Smita 2004). Also, as Delcampo and Hinrichs (2006) describe, national differences in orientations to self and family could be major differences that affect work-family relationships. They state that overwork is likely to be perceived as sacrificing family for one's own career in the US, but as sacrificing self for the family in China. The experience of WLB can vary for individuals in different cultures.

Literature on WLB is vast, branching out in a number of themes. The definition of WLB lacks

clarity; with some viewing it as a balance between work and family and others pressing for the domain of personal space to be included as well. Together, family and the aspect of personal space form the domain of "life". Blurring of the concept due to use of various terms like work family conflict, work family enrichment, work family integration, etc. needs to be dealt with as well. Who this issue is for, is another question that begs an answer. WLB studies have grown leaps and bounds in the last few years, yet currently there is no conceptually based scale for the measurement of work family balance directly (Grzywacz & Carlson 2007). A questionnaire to measure WLB (when seen as a balance between "work" and the "rest of life", including men and women, both single and married, with children and without) has now become critical.

II. Objectives of the study

1. To study work environment in Retail industry
2. To measure the degree of employee engagement in Retail industry

III. Research Methodology

To fulfil the objectives of the study, various tools and techniques are adopted for data collection and analysis as given below.

A. Sample size and Sampling technique

The sample size is 120 employees of the selected retail stores in retailing industry. The respondents are selected from different retail stores such as Super market, Shoprite, Uchumi, Embassy super market, Nakumatt, Capital shoppers and more, and by using convenience sampling method. These stores were classified into large Market and Convenience Stores based on the size of the store space for testing the hypothesis. Large super Market includes Nakumatt, capital shoppers, where as convenience stores include supper super market, embassy, payless, and More.

B. Data Collection and Analysis

The data is collected from primary and secondary data sources. The primary data is collected from the employees who are working in various retail stores in Kampala by administering a structured questionnaire. The secondary data is collected from relevant records of the selected companies, relevant journals, magazines, news papers and related

websites. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) is applied to test the hypothesis.

C. Hypothesis

There is significant difference between the degree of employee engagement by gender and retail formats in Kampala.

D. Scoring Scale for Employee Engagement

| | |
|-----------|----------------------|
| 4.21-5.00 | Very Satisfied |
| 3.41-4.20 | Satisfied |
| 2.61-3.40 | Moderately satisfied |
| 1.81-2.60 | Dissatisfied |
| 1.00-1.80 | Very dissatisfied |

The following is the scoring scale to assess the level of employee engagement that may currently exist in an organization based on the results of retail employees' response to the questionnaire(5).

1.81-2.60

Employee in the organization feel engaged in their jobs and is proud of the organization and its values (mean 2.59)

1.81-2.60 points

Employees feel engaged to a certain degree in their jobs and believe in some of the organization's beliefs and values (mean 2.48)

1.00-1.80 points

There exists a moderate feeling of engagement and support of the organization's values but also negative attitudes concerning these issues as well

depending on the area of concern for employees (mean 1.33).

1.00-1.80

The predominate feeling and attitude in the organization is that of not being engaged in their jobs or supportive of the organization. There is a great deal of negativity about working for the organization and a desire to leave on the part of many employees (mean 1.74)

0-10 points

There is definitely a moral problem in the organization. Employees are not feeling engaged in any way in their jobs nor do they have positive feelings about the organization's principles, values, or commitment to anyone including customers. It is likely in this type of a work environment that employees only come to work for a pay check and bring no real commitment or loyalty to the organization (mean 1.08).

IV. Data Analysis

A structured questionnaire which consists of 15 questions is filled up by the various selected retail employees. First 10 questions are related to employee engagement parameters and the next questions related to working environment at the stores.

Analysis of Variance is applied for testing hypothesis. This session includes work environment and employee engagement in retailing as follows.

Table 1: Work Environment in Retailing

| Parameters | Satisfied | | Total | Not Satisfied | | Total |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|--------|-------|---------------|--------|-------|
| | Male | Female | | Male | Female | |
| Work Assignment | 51 | 30 | 81 | 9 | 10 | 19 |
| Relationship with Peers/ Colleagues | 58 | 37 | 95 | 2 | 3 | 5 |
| Work related Stress | 46 | 34 | 80 | 14 | 6 | 20 |
| Work Life Balance | 26 | 14 | 39 | 35 | 26 | 61 |
| Job Satisfaction | 50 | 33 | 83 | 10 | 7 | 17 |

Primary data

A. Work environment in retailing

Table 1 shows the work environment in retailing industry. The parameters considered for the study is work distribution and assignment, relationship with

peers/colleagues, work related stress, work life and family life balance, and job satisfaction.

The data is classified based on gender and parameters on which retail employees are satisfied or dissatisfied. It is observed that 81% of the total respondents are satisfied on work distribution and

assignment, 95% of the respondents are enjoying relationship with their peers/colleagues, 80% of the respondents are able to manage their work related stress, 83% of the respondents are satisfied with their job, but only 39% of respondents are able to balance their work life and family life. It is also observed that 19% are not satisfied on work distribution and assignment, 5% are not enjoying the relationship with peers/colleagues, 20% of the respondents are not able to manage their work related stress, 17% of the respondents are dissatisfied with their job, 61% of the respondents are not able to balance their work life and family life. The level of satisfaction on work environment is more in case of male than female; whereas the level of dissatisfaction on work environment is more in case of female than male. Male and female are more satisfied on the relationship with peers/colleagues and more dissatisfied on work life balance.

B. Employee Engagement in Retailing

Table 2 shows number of respondents to what extent they are agreed up their degree of different parameters considered for the study in percentage. 49% of the respondents are able to control their job with great extent, 35% reasonable extent, 15% fair extent and 1% a little extent. 43% of the respondents are provided available resources at a great extent, 37 % at reasonable extent, 19 % at fair

extent, and 1% at a little extent by the retail store to perform the job. 61% of the respondents are getting recognition for their performance at a fair extent, 29% at a reasonable extent and only 6% at a great extent in the industry. 38% of the respondents are agreed upon at fair extent for provision of rewards for their work, 30% at a little extent, 12% at a reasonable extent and only 7 % at a great extent in the retail industry in Kampala. 47% of the respondents are felt at fair extent their ideas and suggestions are listened, 26% at a reasonable extent, 17% at a great extent and 10% at a little extent. 47% of respondents agreed upon at a fair extent retail stores give importance to the individual needs, 20% at a reasonable extent, only 8% at a great extent and 20% at a little extent by the retail stores in Kampala. 33% of the respondents are committed towards their services to the same retail store, 19% at a great extent, 29% at a fair extent and 12% at a little extent. 3% of the respondents are not committed to continue the service in the same retail store. 38% of the respondents are agreed up to refer his/her friend or colleague to work in the store, 42% are at fair extent, 15% are at a great extent and 5% are at a little extent. 44% and 44% of the respondents feel that their retail store has strong image in the industry at a fair extent and image in the community at a reasonable extent.

Table 2: Employee Engagement (in %)

| Engagement Parameters | To a great extent (5) | Reasonable extent (4) | Fair extent (3) | Little extent None (2) | None (1) |
|---------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------|------------------------|----------|
| Control over the job | 49 | 35 | 15 | 1 | 0 |
| Availability of tools and resources | 43 | 37 | 19 | 1 | 0 |
| Recognition for performance | 6 | 29 | 61 | 3 | 1 |
| Provision of fair rewards for work | 7 | 12 | 38 | 30 | 13 |
| Recognition for ideas and suggestions | 17 | 26 | 47 | 10 | 0 |
| Importance to the individual | 8 | 20 | 47 | 20 | 3 |

| | | | | | |
|--|----|----|----|----|---|
| needs | | | | | |
| Employee commitment for the next 3 years | 19 | 33 | 29 | 12 | 3 |
| Refer a friend/colleague | 15 | 38 | 42 | 5 | 0 |
| Image of the company in the Industry | 28 | 23 | 44 | 5 | 0 |
| Image of the company in the community | 34 | 46 | 15 | 5 | 0 |

Source: Primary data

C. Hypothesis testing

H0: There is no significant difference between the degree of employee engagement by gender and retail formats in Kampala.

H1: There is significant difference between the degree of employee engagement by gender and retail formats in Kampala.

Table 3: Employee Engagement

| Retail Format | Male | Female | Total Average |
|--------------------|------|--------|---------------|
| Convenience Store | 36.1 | 35.71 | 35.92 |
| Large Super Market | 35.7 | 36.17 | 35.94 |
| Total | 71.8 | 71.88 | 35.93 |

Fig. 2: Employee Engagement in Retailing

By applying Analysis of Variance Two-Way Classification for the above table, it can be observed that, for $F_{0.05}(\text{Gender}) = 161.45$, for $F_{0.05}(\text{Retail Formats}) = 161.45$. The calculated values of F are more than the table values at 5% level of significance. So, the null

V. Conclusions

There is significant difference between;

- The degree of employee engagement by gender and retail formats in Kampala.
- Employees feel engaged at a certain degree in their jobs and believe in some of the organization's beliefs and values in retailing industry in Hyderabad i.e. the degree of

hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted i.e., there is significant difference between the degree of employee engagement by gender and retail format. Hence, Employees feel engaged at a certain degree in their jobs and believe in some of the organization's beliefs and values in retailing industry in Kampala i.e. the level of employee engagement is 71.86%.

retail employee engagement is 71.86% in Kampala.

- The Level of job satisfaction is very high (i.e. 83%) in retailing industry in Kampala.
- In retailing 61% of the employees are not able to balance work life and family life in Kampala.

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ANTECEDENTS OF TEACHER EFFICACY AMONG MATHEMATICS TEACHERS IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN UGANDA

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Abstract

This study was conducted to identify the antecedents of teacher efficacy among Ugandan teachers of mathematics. Seventy-five primary school teachers of mathematics from four districts participated in the study. Teacher efficacy was measured using Teacher Efficacy Scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984). Antecedents that were selected were teachers' gender, level of education, teaching experience, location of school, and school achievement. Means, standard deviations, Hotelling's T-test, analysis of variance, and multivariate analysis were performed to analyze data. Findings indicated that there was statistically significant difference in teacher efficacy with regard to teachers' gender, teaching experience, and location of school. Findings from this study represent a paradox about antecedents of teacher efficacy among teachers in Uganda though it is found very important variable in teaching among Canadian teachers

Introduction

The Nature of Teacher Efficacy

Ashton (1985) asserted that no other teacher characteristic is more powerful than teacher efficacy. Teacher efficacy is conceptualized as the beliefs teachers have about their skills and abilities to achieve desirable learning outcome by students (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Teachers' feelings of efficacy influence their thoughts, choices of activities, the amount of effort they expend, and the extent of their persistence in the face of obstacles (Bandura 1994). Teacher's sense of efficacy consists of two independent dimensions: general teaching efficacy (GTE) and personal teaching efficacy (PTE) (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Woolfolk & Hoy, 1990). General teaching efficacy (outcome expectancy) is the more generalized belief about the relationship between teaching and learning (i.e. teacher's belief regarding

the extent to which they can motivate students to achieve. Personal sense of efficacy, on the other hand, is the teachers' belief about their own effectiveness in teaching such that the teacher believes s/he has the skills and abilities to bring about student learning (i.e. the feeling that with his or her effort, s/he can have an impact on learning and bring about positive student change) (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

Teacher efficacy is believed to be affected by many factors like one's success level, exploratory experiences of an individual, familial organization, peer influences, goal-setting, and formative presence of expectation Woolfolk and Hoy (1990). Studies by Ashton (1986) noted that students' abilities appear to be the single most significant characteristic affecting a teacher's sense of efficacy. Studies by Parkay, Olejnik and Prollen (1990) have examined the effects of school climate variable such as the

proportion of low-achieving students, interaction with colleagues, school integrity, and others as being significant on teacher efficacy. Moore (1994) articulates that efficacy of teachers is also substantially influenced by historical achievement performance of students in mathematics.

Tom and Good (1995) articulated that there are four major sources of teacher efficacy which include: (a) mastery experience (i.e. successes build robust belief in one's efficacy and failures undermine it), (b) vicarious experiences provided by social models (i.e. seeing [people who are similar to oneself succeed by sustained efforts raises one's belief that they, too, have the capability to succeed), (c) social persuasion (ie verbally people can be told that they possess the capabilities required to succeed), and (d) somatic and emotional states pattern (ie people interpret their stress reactions and tensions of vulnerability to poor performance or physical debility

Research on teacher efficacy and teacher training has documented that a number of different teacher's behaviors are associated with efficacy beliefs. Benz, Alderman, Bradley, and Flowers (1992), Cooper and Robinson (1991) and Lent, Lopez and Bieschke (1991) have suggested that teachers who feel less effective may not have been trained and lack motivational strategies. Spector (1990) and Hoy and Woolfolk (1990) reported that personal efficacy was higher among practicing teachers who had taken extra graduate courses in education but Post, Stewart, and Smith (1991) did not find any differences in efficacy between elementary and secondary teachers. There is evidence that teachers' sense of efficacy varies with teaching experiences. Brown (1987) found preservice teachers to have high sense of teaching outcome expectancy (general efficacy) but a low sense of personal teaching efficacy. In another study, Broussard, Book and Byars (1998) compared entry and exit teacher education students with experienced teachers and found that teacher education students were more optimistic and that the sense of efficacy grew

weaker as experience increased. In comparison with experienced teachers, the student teachers rated themselves more effective than experienced teachers. There is evidence to suggest that gender differences exist with regard to teachers' sense of efficacy (Greenwood, Olejnik, & Parkay, 1990). Women tend to manifest lower sense of efficacy than men, thus, failing to fully realize their capabilities and talents in career pursuits. These gender differences in mathematics avoidance have been thought to result from socialized negative attitudes and affective reactions to mathematics.

METHOD

Samples

The sample of practicing teachers ($N = 75$) was randomly drawn from teachers of mathematics in 16 primary schools, male ($n = 60$) and female ($n = 15$). Twenty six of the teachers were from rural schools and 49 from urban schools. The majority of the teachers (85%) had attained the minimum required grade three teacher's certificate, and only 10% of them were untrained. The teaching experience of the participating teachers varied from 1 year to 25 years with the mean being 5.3 years. A sample of 56 pre service teachers was also randomly selected from four teacher training colleges.

Instrument

Teacher efficacy was measured by the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) by Gibson and Dembo (1984). TES is 30-item instruments with 5-point Likert scale of strongly agree (SA) to strongly disagree (SDA). The scale distinguishes between personal and general efficacy with alpha coefficients of .76 and .78 respectively.

Procedure

The Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) was administered to the teachers by the researcher. Permission was obtained from relevant authorities. The purpose of the study was explained to the participants and they were assured of confidentiality of any information

they would provide. Data was analyzed using mean, standard deviation, Hotellings T-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Scores were organized in terms of gender, educational level, years of teaching

experience, school location and achievement level of the school.

Results

The means and standard deviation scores in efficacy are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Teacher Efficacy as a function of teachers' gender, educational attainment, and teaching experience

| Antecedents | n | Teacher efficacy | | | | | |
|----------------------------|----|------------------|------|---------------|------|------------|-------|
| | | General M | SD | Personal M | SD | Total M | SD |
| Gender | | | | | | | |
| Male | 84 | 49.9 | 5.86 | 56.1 | 6.23 | 106.0 | 9.54 |
| Female | 46 | 48.9 | 7.07 | 56.0 | 5.72 | 104.9 | 11.48 |
| Educ. Attainment | | | | | | | |
| Diploma | 8 | 48.9 | 4.36 | 57.1 | 8.4 | 105.3 | 11.96 |
| Grade 3 | 60 | 49.0 | 6.97 | 57.0 | 6.40 | 105.9 | 10.17 |
| Pre-service | 54 | 49.5 | 5.66 | 54.6 | 6.83 | 104.1 | 10.04 |
| Untrained | 8 | 55.1 | 4.64 | 58.4 | 4.84 | 113.5 | 7.89 |
| Years of experience | | | | | | | |
| 10+ | 18 | 56.2 | 6.86 | 56.2 | 6.86 | 102.8 | 11.84 |
| 6-8 | 16 | 57.9 | 6.74 | 57.9 | 6.74 | 105.1 | 9.84 |
| 4-5 | 12 | 55.8 | 8.29 | 55.8 | 8.29 | 104.8 | 11.90 |
| 2-3 | 21 | 57.2 | 5.56 | 57.2 | 5.56 | 106.10 | 9.65 |
| 1 | 7 | 58.7 | 4.71 | 58.7 | 4.57 | 111.6 | 6.16 |
| Pre-service | 56 | 49.8 | 5.74 | 54.9 | 6.83 | 104.6 | .91 |

From Table 1, findings indicate that, in terms of gender male teachers of mathematics were slightly higher in their efficacy and generally more homogeneous than female teachers except in personal efficacy. Hotellings T-test (T^2) showed that there was a statistical significant difference between male and female teachers' sense of efficacy: $T^2(2,127) = .35, p < .05$. No significant difference emerged in their personal efficacy: $t(128) = .01, p > .05$, and general efficacy, $t(128) = .70, p > .05$. The t-test for total efficacy yielded a significant difference, $t(128) = .59, p < .05$. This finding demonstrates that gender of teachers influences their belief about their capability to teach mathematics.

Concerning different levels of educational attainment attained by teachers, mean scores indicated that untrained teachers had the highest (104.1) while Diploma teachers had the lowest (Mean=105.3). Scores in their sense of personal efficacy were generally higher than their sense of general efficacy. Multivariate analysis of yielded statistically significant difference in efficacy of teachers of different levels of training, $F(6, 248) = 2.00, p < .05$. There was no significant difference in personal efficacy, $F(3, 126) = 1.60, p > .05$, and general efficacy, $F(3, 126) = 2.47$. Comparing efficacy of trained and untrained teachers showed that the untrained were higher (Mean=113.5) than the trained teachers and the difference was statistically significant, $F(3, 126) = 2.03, p < .05$.

With regard to teaching experience, mean and standard deviation scores showed that the less the teaching experience of teachers, the higher their sense of efficacy tended to be. Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) yielded statistical significant difference between personal and general efficacy across all the groups, $F(8,134)=.39, p<.05$. There was a significant difference in personal efficacy, $F(4, 69) =.37, p<.05$ and general efficacy, $F(4, 69)=.52, p<.05$ between teachers with different years of teaching experience. Similarly, analysis of

variance (ANOVA showed a statistical significant difference in total efficacy, $F(4,69)=.59, p<.05$. When pre service teachers were compared with field teachers, the Hotellings T-test (T^2) indicated no statistically significant difference in teachers sense of efficacy, ($T^2(2, 127), 2.01, p>.05$, personal efficacy, $(1,128)=3.32, p>.05$ and general efficacy, $F(1,128)=.14, p>.05$. The t-test showed no significant difference between field and pre service teachers' in their total efficacy scores, $t(128) =.91, p>.05$)

Table 2: Teacher efficacy as a function of school location and school achievement level

| | n | Teacher efficacy | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|----|------------------|------|----------|------|-------|-------|
| | | General | | Personal | | Total | |
| Antecedents | | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| School Location | | | | | | | |
| Rural | 17 | 48.2 | 5.37 | 58.8 | 7.60 | 107.0 | 9.49 |
| Urban | 57 | 49.7 | 7.10 | 56.5 | 6.06 | 106.2 | 10.54 |
| School achievement Level | | | | | | | |
| High | 27 | 48.6 | 8.40 | 57.1 | 6.46 | 105.4 | 11.60 |
| Medium | 31 | 48.4 | 4.82 | 56.5 | 6.49 | 104.9 | 9.11 |
| Low | 17 | 52.6 | 6.14 | 57.8 | 6.56 | 110.4 | 9.83 |

In Table 2, mean and standard deviation scores for teachers in rural and urban school are presented. Findings indicate that teachers in rural areas were higher in teacher efficacy (Mean= 107.0, SD=9.49) and also more homogeneous than teachers in urban areas (Mean=106.2, SD10.54). Hotellings T-test (T^2) showed a statistically significant difference: $T^2(2,71)=1.38, p<.05$. The t-test for each dimension also showed a statistical difference between the rural and urban teachers in their sense of personal efficacy $t(72)= 1.64, p<.05$ as well as a general efficacy $t(72)=.59, p<.05$. About achievement level of schools, mean and standard deviation scores showed that teachers who taught in schools with low achievement level reflected the highest efficacy (Mean=110.4,SD=9.83) while those in medium achieving schools had the lowest efficacy (Mean=104.9, 9.11). A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed which showed a significant difference in teachers efficacy

across the schools, $F(4, 138) = 1.21, p<.05$ but not in personal efficacy, $F(2,71)=.20, p>.50$ and general efficacy, $F(2,71)=2.44, p>.05$.

Summary and Conclusion

Then findings that emerged from this study cast mixed doubt about antecedents of teacher efficacy in Uganda. Gender differences in efficacy indicate that being a female teacher impedes one's potential to promote student learning and success in mathematics. This result concurs with Greenwood et al (1990). The study shows that the level of training does not enhance feeling of efficacy in teacher. This result contrasts with Cooper and Robinson (1991), Benz et al (1992), Lent et al (1991) and Hoy and Woolfolk (1990). This lack of difference could be attributed to the general apathy and frustration experienced generally in the teaching profession. ANOVA showed no significant difference in total efficacy scores, $F(2,71)=$

1.64, $p > .05$). Teachers with longer services experience more frustration and become less efficacious. There is a difference in teachers' sense of efficacy by the location of school. Teachers in rural schools are more efficacious than their counterparts in urban. This could be attributed to the cheap life in rural areas. The finding does not corroborate the results of Dembo and Gibson (1985). Level of School attainment was found to have influence on teacher's sense of efficacy. This result shows those teachers are concerned about where they teach. The result contrasts with Ashton and Webb (1984). In conclusion, teacher efficacy in Uganda is influenced by certain variables. This could mean that there are social correlates which have significantly influenced teachers' sense of feeling which might influence their performance. Stability of feeling of efficacy could be explored among all teachers in primary, secondary, tertiary institutions to examine their feelings and more important correlates could be examined.

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control. *Journal of Educational Psychology*,
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CHALLENGES OF WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS IN CENTRAL LUZON STATE UNIVERSITY, PHILIPPINES

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Abstract

This study attempted to determine the challenges faced by women administrators in the Central Luzon state University particularly on socio-cultural roles, career advancement, decision making, and management styles. A total of 39 (68%) administrators from the 58 members of the administrative Council served as the respondents of the study through a purposive sampling procedure, composed of 51.3% females and 48.7% males. Majority (82%) married, 46% with academic rank as professor and 38.5% as associate professor, administrative position as deans, directors and chairs, with a monthly salary of 20,000 to 25,000 Php, and 74.4% with PhD degree. Their field of specialization was in education, agriculture and sciences. Result show that both respondents agree that men and women should share responsibilities to manage the home, and that cultural beliefs influenced ones behavior. However, they indicated that it is not the responsibility of the women to stay at home. The respondents strongly believed that women can tackle, administrative task, can equally advance in her career, can be as decisive as men, can build strong partnership with external constituents, possess strong personality, and have appropriate credentials in the advancement of their career. With regards to decision making, the respondents indicated that women administrators should consult and seek advice from higher positions, but must not be influenced by anyone when making a decision. Moreover, they also posited that a woman administrator can function well, and still can give quality time for her family. With regards to the management style of women they found out that these women emphasized the importance of shared management, taking responsibility of assigned tasks, encouraged everyone to share ideas when making a decision. In the correlation analysis, gender was negatively significant to the socio-cultural roles of women. They perceived that the qualities of women administrators were: good attitudes towards work, interpersonal qualities and professional qualification. However, women administrators' problems as indicated by men were more on personal, household responsibilities and gender bias, while the women noted more on household responsibilities and gender bias. This could be attributed to the fact that some men still do not share a hand in the household responsibilities.

INTRODUCTION

In the past women were relegated to the confines of their homes to take care of the family and home. It is the responsibility of the man to take care of the family however, the scenario of today's lifestyle differs now. It can be observed that there are more and more women are now working to augment the family income. The department of labor and employment (DOLE) recorded that there are about 72% working women overseas.

Women are not only observed as part of the human resources as workers, but they could be seen as active participants in other areas where men dominates as drivers, pilots, firemen and even in the military. You could see also a good number of women as political leaders, entrepreneurs and administrators in business or in academic institutions.

Women administrators are now carving names in their chosen fields, but there are several challenges they are facing, like the problem of balancing the responsibilities in their family and their career. These challenges are inherent to women unlike the men.

Proper administration as described by Gregorio (1984) is one of the great factors of learning, because supervision stimulates the desirable qualities of teachers. The educational system complements and supplements each other. Effective learning which is considered as the primary aim of supervision can not be accomplished under inefficient administration. That administration is interrelated, and that every administration is called supervision, and every supervisor participates in the administrative affairs. Thus, the role of an administrator connotes several activities, as well as challenges particularly among women in their socio cultural role, career advancement, decision making, family relationship and their management style. These women are always assessed not only how they manage their family and career professionally, but

also how they can manage themselves in this competitive world of work.

It is in this context that this study was undertaken to define the challenges that the women are facing as demanded by their responsibilities, in building up their career in the academe, and to be able to compete squarely in the so called men's world as administrators.

Statistics show that of the total number of employed women, 5% occupy administrative, executive, and or managerial positions as compared with 23.6% of the total number of employed men who occupy positions at those levels. In 1997, the total percentage of employed women in management, executive and administrative positions was approximately 9% as compared to 20% of the total number of employed men (Labor Force Statistics, 1997). It is therefore not surprising that many employers prefer to hire men for managerial positions. However, the labor market discrimination theory states that statistical discrimination occurs only when employers perceived that women are more costly to employ for positions (Xie and Akin, (1992). However, Chantaka (2003) mentioned that there are several laws that discriminate women that have been repealed. Moreover she noted that the importance of women in today's modernized world can no longer be ignored. More and more women have emerged as leaders in several areas of societal concern. However, since majority of women workers are in the lower levels of work force, more direct affirmative action will be required to increase gender equity. Women can occupy numerous high ranking positions in public or private organizations, especially those who possess the necessary intelligence and professional qualifications. Aree, (1995) revealed that there were more female officials in the lower level than male officials by 60% but for the higher position from upper level 4, it was noted that the government officials was less than the male in every level. Record also shows that the number of women administrators was few as compared to men administrators.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The respondents of study were 39 (66%) administrators from the total of 58 members of the Administrative Council of the Central Luzon State University. A survey questionnaire was used to gather data to determine the different challenges confronting women administrators today in terms of their socio-cultural roles, leadership styles, management, and career advancement.

The statistical tools used in this study were the frequency counts, percentages, means and Pearson Chi –square correlation analysis to see the difference in the perception of men and women on the challenges faced by women administrators.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents

The socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents such as gender, civil status, academic rank, administrative position, monthly salary, and highest educational attainment, field of specialization, age and length of service were considered in this study. Table 1.presents the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Results show that there were more than fifty percent (51.35%) females while 48.7% male. Majority (82%) married, with an academic rank of Professor (48.8%), and Associate Professor (38.5%). This shows that there were more female respondents during the conduct of the study. Most of them (43.6%) were Deans and Directors, 28.2% were chief of offices and chairs, and 18% as Vice Presidents and Associate Chairs. Most of them (43.6%) received a monthly salary of 20,000- 25,000 Php, while 28% received more than 25,000 Php, which means that most of the respondents were receiving high salary grade.

Majority (74.4%) has PhD degree and 15.4% indicated they have PhD units. Education was their field of specialization (51%) and other related sciences. More than forty five percent (46.6%) belongs to the age range of 50-.57 years old. This shows that the respondents have reached the highest degree and at mature age more than the mean age of 49.9 years old.

It could be noted also that 41% have served the university for 27-34 years, while a significant 23.1% had served for more than 35 years. The data shows that most of the administrators who responded to the study have served considerable time and service to the university.

Table 1.Socio-demographic characteristics of the Respondents

| Gender | Frequency (N=39) | Percent |
|---|-------------------------|----------------|
| Male | 19 | 48.7 |
| T Female | 20 | 51.3 |
| Civil Status | Frequency | Percent |
| Single | 3 | 7.7 |
| Married | 33 | 84.6 |
| Widow | 3 | 7.7 |
| Academic Rank | Frequency | Percent |
| Instructor | 2 | 5.1 |
| Assistant Professor | 3 | 7.7 |
| Associate Professor | 12 | 38.5 |
| Professor | 19 | 48.8 |
| Administrative Position | Frequency | Percent |
| Chair / Chief | 11 | 28.2 |
| Principal | 4 | 10.3 |
| Dean / Director | 17 | 43.5 |
| Others (Assistant Chair, Vice President, Librarian, College Secretary, Etc) | 7 | 18.0 |
| Monthly Salary | Frequency | Percent |
| 10,001 – 15,000 | 4 | 10.3 |
| 15,001 – 20,000 | 7 | 17.9 |
| 20,001 – 25,000 | 17 | 43.6 |
| Above 25,000 | 11 | 28.2 |
| Highest Educational Attainment | Frequency | Percent |
| With MS units | 2 | 5.1 |
| MS | 2 | 5.1 |
| With PhD units | 6 | 15.4 |
| PhD | 29 | 74.4 |
| Field of Specialization | Frequency | Percent |
| Education | 20 | 51.28 |
| Math and Engineering | 5 | 12.84 |
| Sciences | 10 | 25.64 |
| Others (IT, Library Admin,) | 4 | 10.24 |
| Age | | |
| 34-41 | 3 | 7.66 |
| 42-49 | 11 | 28.2 |
| 50-57 | 18 | 46.2 |
| 58-65 | 7 | 17.94 |
| Mean=49.9 | | |
| Length of Service | | |
| 3-10 | 3 | 7.7 |
| 11-18 Mean=24.7 | 3 | 7.7 |
| 19-26 SD= 8.38 | 8 | 20.5 |
| 27-34 | 16 | 41.0 |
| 35 and above | 9 | 23.1 |

The findings is supported by the study of Chorachit (1977) as cited by Pantachai (2007) which indicated that the male principals (administrator) attained lower academic levels than females. **Perceived Challenges of Women Administrators**

Women nowadays are now seen holding high positions in either in public or private offices. Some are managers in business establishment, administrators in educational institutions and other endeavour. However, there are still challenges they were facing at work as well as their responsibilities in their homes. The result in this aspect is on Table 2.

Socio Cultural Roles

With regards to the respondents’ perception on socio cultural roles, both the female and male strongly agree to the statement “men and women must share responsibilities to manage their home with a mean of 4.95 and 4.84 respectively. Likewise the male respondent indicated strongly agree on the item generally cultural beliefs influenced one’s behavior (4.26) while female just agree (3.9). Moreover, they both agree that men are

proud when they are the ones supporting the family with a mean of 3.95 for the male and 3.5 for the female respondents. The male agree that men should be the bread winner while the female was uncertain. However, they disagree on these statements; Women must not work outside the home with a mean of 2.21 and 2.00 respectively. The female respondents strongly disagree 1.75 that it is the responsibility of the woman to stay at home, while the male only disagree (2.05). On the other hand they were both uncertain that there is a general pattern that hinders women from accepting administrative position.

The result may imply that there is still very strong influence of culture to the respondents. That here belief and culture are still practice in there way of life. Wife as in-charge in managing the home.

It is interesting to note that they were uncertain that there is a pattern that hinders women from accepting administrative task. This shows that the respondents’ was not sure that there is existing pattern regarding this aspect. It could imply that there is an avenue and possibility that women could undertake higher position since the country is headed by a woman President.

Table 2: Socio Cultural Roles

| | | Mean | Description |
|--|--------|------|-------------------|
| Men should always be the breadwinners of the family. | MALE | 3.95 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 2.90 | Uncertain |
| Women must not work outside the home due to childcare responsibilities. | MALE | 2.21 | Disagree |
| | FEMALE | 2.00 | Disagree |
| Men and women must share responsibilities to manage their home. | MALE | 4.84 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.95 | Strongly Agree |
| Men are proud when they are the ones supporting the family. | MALE | 3.95 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 3.50 | Agree |
| It is the responsibility of the women to stay at home. | MALE | 2.05 | Disagree |
| | FEMALE | 1.75 | Strongly Disagree |
| There is a general pattern that hinders women from accepting administrative positions. | MALE | 3.11 | Uncertain |
| | FEMALE | 2.70 | Uncertain |
| It is noted that men's power can prevent employment of the women. | MALE | 2.79 | Uncertain |
| | FEMALE | 2.25 | Disagree |
| Traditionally, women's role in the society is that of a mother and housewife. | MALE | 3.89 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 3.00 | Uncertain |
| Generally, cultural beliefs influence ones behavior. | MALE | 4.26 | Strongly Agree |

| | | | |
|---|---------------|------|-----------|
| | FEMALE | 3.90 | Agree |
| The stereotyping of the role of women limits them from being hired to work. | MALE | 3.37 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 2.95 | Uncertain |

Scale:

- 1.00 – 1.79 Strongly Disagree
- 1.80 – 2.59 Disagree
- 2.60 – 3.39 Uncertain
- 3.40 – 4.19 Agree
- 4.18- 5.00 Strongly Agree

With regards to the response of the female respondents that they strongly disagree that it is responsibility of the woman to stay at home, shows that they do not accept that the home is there only place to stay. They can be more productive by having a job or even having a higher position in the work place. This fact is true since the respondents

Career Advancement

The respondents strongly agree that women can equally advance in career as men (4.89 and 4.90), women can tackle administrative task as men, (4.79- Male and 4.90-female), women are equally decisive as men (4.47 and 4.75 respectively), women must build partnership with key external constituents; women must have appropriate credentials to go along with connections, and women must possess strong personality to be an administrator.

However, the male respondents answered disagree (2.53) on the statement that women have lower administrative position though both have same qualification, while the female was uncertain (3.25). This means that the male respondent observed that there are good women administrators in the academe holding administrative post.

are administrators in the academe, they can openly voice out their opinions as part of administrative exercises. They can prove also that they can venture in some areas to help increase the family budget. Go (1993) revealed that majority of the couples in the Philippines still follow the traditional values and division of labor or task allocation with the husband as the breadwinner, and wife as in-charge in managing the home. However, with the changing patterns and lifestyles of the family, there will also be significant changes based on the needs of time, not the traditional expected roles.

The result show that both male and female respondents believed that women have an opportunity to get a good position as an administrator provided they possessed a good and appropriate qualification. Likewise, if they have strong personality, proper connections or have build external partnership like organizations related to their field that may back her up in her struggle to go up or have a good position and career advancement. Chantaka, (2003) also noted in her study about job perspective of women, she found out that Thai society opened its doors to women and give them opportunities to occupy high and important positions. Conkling (2006) posited that women are slowly gaining ground in educational leadership. In the last 20 years, the

Table 3: Career Advancement

| | | Mean | Description |
|--|---------------|-------------|--------------------|
| Women can tackle administrative task just like men. | MALE | 4.79 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.90 | Strongly Agree |
| Women can equally advance in career as the men. | MALE | 4.89 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.90 | Strongly Agree |
| Women are equally decisive as men. | MALE | 4.47 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.75 | Strongly Agree |
| Women cannot advance in position as men because of the traditional role. | MALE | 2.68 | Uncertain |
| | FEMALE | 2.30 | Disagree |
| It is a challenge to women to advance in a male dominated world of work. | MALE | 4.11 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.50 | Strongly Agree |
| There are more women administrators in the academe. | MALE | 3.11 | Uncertain |
| | FEMALE | 3.40 | Agree |
| Women are good administrator managers as men. | MALE | 4.11 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.35 | Strongly Agree |
| Women must strive harder to advance in administrative positions. | MALE | 4.05 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.45 | Strongly Agree |
| Women administrators have lower administrative position than men though they have the same qualifications. | MALE | 2.53 | Disagree |
| | FEMALE | 3.25 | Uncertain |
| Women must build strong partnership with key external constituents. | MALE | 4.26 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.40 | Strongly Agree |
| Women must possess strong personality to be selected as administrators. | MALE | 4.26 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.37 | Strongly Agree |
| Women must have appropriate credentials to go along with connections. | MALE | 4.30 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.50 | Strongly Agree |

Scale:

1.00 – 1.79 Strongly Disagree

1.80 – 2.59 Disagree

2.60 – 3.39 Uncertain

3.40 – 4.19 Agree

4.20 – 5.00 Strongly Agree

number of female principals (Administrators) in the state has increased. More and more women have become superintendents in the last decade, jumping from 3.6% to 11% this year. Likewise, women are different than men. One is not better than the other. A good administrator has the same qualities whether it's a man or a woman, and that listening, caring, being willing to accept people and help them with their problems. One of the challenges that

women administrators faces is that administrators have to be mobile. This means that the women now can advance in their career given the right qualification and position. They can develop their profession and become competent administrators. Moreover, the male counterpart can already accept the challenges and changes in the working environment. Further, those women could also work at par with men given equal opportunity to excel and carved her own career as a good administrator

However, the male respondents answered disagree (2.53) on the statement that women have lower administrative position though both have same qualification, while the female was uncertain (3.25). This means that the male respondent

observed that there are good women administrators in the academe holding administrative post.

The result shows that both male and female respondents believed that women have an opportunity to acquire good position, provided they possessed a good and appropriate qualification. Likewise, if they have strong personality, proper connections or have build external partnership like organizations related to their field that may back her up in her struggle to go up or have a good position and career advancement

Decision Making

The male respondents strongly agree (4.42) that consultation should be that style of administrator in decision making, while the female just agree (4.110). They also agree on the statements One should not be influenced by anybody even a spouse in any administrative decision, one must seek the advice of a person higher than him in decision making (3.74 and 3.40) respectively. But the males were uncertain in term of considering the suggestion of a spouse, and decision making should

be shared with a spouse, however, these statements were responded disagree by the female respondents.

The findings showed that both respondents believed that consultation is a must, and not to be influenced by anyone much more with the spouse when making a decision particularly administrative matters. This means that the respondents knew and understand their responsibilities as administrators. In the study of Chantaka (2003) revealed that the importance of women today in this modern world can no longer be ignored More and more women have emerge as leaders in several areas of social concern. Women now were observed to be holding numerous high ranking positions in public or private organizations, especially those who possessed the necessary intelligence and professional qualification.

Table 4: Decision Making

| | | Mean | Description |
|---|--------|------|----------------|
| An administrator must seek the help of his/her spouse in making administrative decisions. | MALE | 2.63 | Uncertain |
| | FEMALE | 2.85 | Uncertain |
| One must consider the suggestions of a spouse in making decisions for constituents. | MALE | 2.63 | Uncertain |
| | FEMALE | 2.47 | Disagree |
| Decision-making should be shared with a spouse in all aspects. | MALE | 2.68 | Uncertain |
| | FEMALE | 2.45 | Disagree |
| One should not be influenced by anybody even a spouse in any administrative decision. | MALE | 3.74 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 3.40 | Agree |
| One always seek the advice of the person higher than her/him in making decisions. | MALE | 3.74 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 3.40 | Agree |
| Consultation should be the style of administrator in decision-making. | MALE | 4.42 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.11 | Agree |

Scale:
 1.00 – 1.79 Strongly Disagree
 1.80 – 2.59 Disagree
 2.60 – 3.39 Uncertain
 3.40 – 4.19 Agree
 4.20 – 5.00 Strongly Agree

Family Relationship

It could be seen in Table 5 that both male (4.42) and female (4.60) respondents strongly agree on the statement “even I am administrator I can still give quality time for my family, likewise, the female respondents strongly agree (4.3) that despite of numerous functions of a woman administrator, family relationship is still good while the male only agree (3.74). This shows that both male and female respondents understand and recognized that being a woman administrator, is not a problem in having a good relationship in the family. This finding maybe true because the respondents are members of the

Table 5. Family Relationship

| | | Mean | Description |
|--|--------|------|-------------------|
| The relationship with his/her spouse is affected because of administrative function | MALE | 2.74 | Uncertain |
| | FEMALE | 1.79 | Strongly Disagree |
| Household duties affect job performance of women. | MALE | 2.95 | Uncertain |
| | FEMALE | 2.55 | Disagree |
| Women shared more time with the family due to the numerous responsibilities at home. | MALE | 3.05 | Uncertain |
| | FEMALE | 3.40 | Agree |
| Despite the numerous functions of women administrators, family relationship is still good. | MALE | 3.74 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.30 | Strongly Agree |
| Even if I'm an administrator, I can still give quality time for my family. | MALE | 4.42 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.60 | Strongly Agree |

administrative committee in the university, they are expected to be mature and understand the role and contribution of women in the society, particularly, the Philippines. In the study of Viray (2003) on working women in Pantachai, (2007) revealed that despite their numerous roles in and outside the home, they indicated that their family relationship is good, though most of the work at home is still on their shoulders.

It is interesting to note however, the response of the respondents in this statement: “the relationship with spouse is affected because of administrative function, the female strongly disagree (1.79), while the male was uncertain (2.74). This means that the female believed that being an administrator does not affect her relationship with the spouse. On the other hand the male can not discern whether her spouse work affects their relationship.

Scale:
 1.00 – 1.79 Strongly Disagree
 1.80 – 2.59 Disagree
 2.60 – 3.39 Uncertain
 3.40 – 4.19 Agree

4.20 – 5.00 Strongly Agree

In some cases however, working women are observed to undertake tremendous task for the household because they are expected as the core to which the family evolved. Aggarwal et al. (2001)

also posited that quality of life enjoyed by them is important not only for themselves but also the welfare of the family. Moreover, Brown, (2000) indicated a similar pattern of problems encountered by women, that they bear the brunt of household work regardless of marital or employment status.

Management style

With regards to the management styles of women administrators which is the substance of this study, results show that both male (4.47) and female (4.68) respondents strongly agree to the statement, "I want to emphasize the importance of shared management to get things done." This is the highest mean in this category. Likewise to these statements: I expect my constituents to do their task, (4.42-male and 4.45-female); I like to consult my constituents in planning and implementation of program and consider everyone to take responsibility of their assigned task; encourage everyone to share their ideas before making a major decision; and have maximum participation in the affairs of the members. However, the male respondents disagree (2.28) and the female strongly disagree (1.58) on the aspect of preferring to work alone than share my ideas to my constituents.

The findings showed that both the respondents are knowledgeable of the principles of management. They believed that shared management is effective in facilitating work to be done. They consult their constituents when making decision which is very important in management and administration to get maximum result. Recent studies

done on women administrators show that the number of them who are chief /head of school and business has substantially increased in the past 10 years.

However, the result is contrary to the findings of Glass (1995) when he found out that the women administrator are not former teachers and thus found not eligible to become superintendents. That women superintendent perceived some restrictive forces working against women being hired by boards. Most school boards still contain a majority of men in the last two year study. Erkut (2006) confirmed what other researches had observed, the roadblock to women's success is institutional rather than individual. The interviewed leaders however, recognized that over time obstacles to women leadership have diminished but have not disappeared yet.

Table 6: Management Style

| | | Mean | Description |
|---|--------|------|-------------------|
| I rely on power and authority to get things done. | MALE | 3.63 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 3.65 | Agree |
| I expect obedience, discipline and compliance from members | MALE | 4.11 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.45 | Strongly Agree |
| I expect my constituents to do their task | MALE | 4.42 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.45 | Strongly Agree |
| I want everyone to follow orders to facilitate work. | MALE | 4.16 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.15 | Agree |
| I emphasize the importance of shared management to get things done | MALE | 4.47 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.68 | Strongly Agree |
| I prefer to work alone than share my ideas to my constituents | MALE | 2.28 | Disagree |
| | FEMALE | 1.58 | Strongly Disagree |
| I decentralize decision making so members could be able to participate | MALE | 3.89 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.11 | Agree |
| I like to consult my constituents in planning and implementation of program | MALE | 4.32 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.58 | Strongly Agree |
| I consider everyone to take responsibility of their assigned task | MALE | 4.32 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.58 | Strongly Agree |
| I have maximum participation in the affairs of the members | MALE | 3.56 | Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.22 | Strongly Agree |
| I encourage everyone to share their ideas before making a major decision | MALE | 4.32 | Strongly Agree |
| | FEMALE | 4.58 | Strongly Agree |

Scale:

1.00 – 1.79 Strongly Disagree

1.80 – 2.59 Disagree

2.60 – 3.39 Uncertain

3.40 – 4.19 Agree

4.20 – 5.00 Strongly Agree

This means that women now have better opportunity to show their capabilities to become good administrators, manage an educational institution, and be recognized in her own style of management.

Moreover, women's success is institutional rather than individual. The interviewed leaders however, recognized that over time obstacles to women leadership have diminished but have not disappeared yet. This means that women now have better opportunity to show their capabilities to

become good administrators, manage an educational institution, and be recognized in her own style of management

Summary on the Challenges of Women Administrator

To get a clearer view regarding the challenges faced by women administrators. It can be gleaned from Table 7 the summary regarding this aspect. Although the pooled mean was described as they agree in all the five challenges, both male and female respondents agree on career advancement and the management style were the challenges faced by women administrator. However, they were uncertain with regards to socio-cultural roles, decision making and family relationship. This shows that they have some reservation with regards to the

above mentioned items. In general context they both believed that among the items posited as challenges of women administrators, career advancement was the most challenging issue to confront them and also their management style.

The result shows the clear picture that may have challenged women administrators. They believed that to advance in their career they have to be prepared and as decisive as their male counterpart. Their management style should be as objective as possible, and show competence in managing its constituents at all times. Gray and Starke (1988) stated that there is a question of considerable theoretical, practical, and political moment whether women leaders differ from their male counterparts in terms of their likeliness to their becoming leaders. Stamler et al, (1988 pointed out the importance of the control of knowledge, professional organization, academic discipline and the experiences and views of women, while brown and Irby, (1995) stated the importance of support

organization as vehicle for career stages of women administrators. This shows that there are challenges that women faced as administrators as there are also support extended to make her administration stable. It will depend on how she will used and apply these challenges as opportunities to succeed.

Table 7: Summary on the Challenges of Women Administrators

| Challenges | Male | Female | Description |
|----------------------|-------------|---------------|--------------------|
| Socio-cultural roles | 3.26 | 2.99 | Uncertain |
| Career Advancement | 3.96 | 4.17 | Agree |
| Decision Making | 3.30 | 3.11 | Uncertain |
| Family Relationship | 3.38 | 3.32 | Uncertain |
| Management style | 3.95 | 4.09 | Agree |
| Pooled mean | 3.64 | 3.67 | Agree |

Differences between male and female respondents on their Perception of Challenges of Women Administrators

With regards to the differences in perception between male and female respondents of the challenges of women administrators, t-test analysis was used. Result show that only in the socio-cultural roles was significant -.343* at 0.05 level of significance. However, these are not significant in their perception on career advancement, decision making, family relationship, and management style. This finding shows that male and female respondent differs in

their perception on the socio cultural roles of women, but not in the other aspect on women administrators.

This means that culture has a role in the perception of respondents on women administrators. They still nurture the traditional role assigned to men and women. These obstacles maybe embedded in the general organization of work that was neither designed for women. On the other hand, in the study of Pantachai, (2007) found no significant differences in their perception in socio-cultural roles between administrator and subordinates. Sobrichea (1990) noted the prevailing cultural beliefs, values and norms binds women to their traditional roles as house manager, wife and child care.

In terms of other challenges like career advancement, decision making, family relationship and management style challenges. Result shows that both respondents acknowledge, recognized and understand the challenges faced by a woman administrator. This may imply that there are now changes in the pattern on working women. That a new trend or practices in working areas or institution accepts and recognized the contribution of women in a nation development. Or as Kaewpitak, (1986) has noted, both the respondents particularly the administrators themselves observed that these women administrators are doing their duties and responsibilities in their institution. They considered the role as a duty or an obligation which a person in their position should or must take, and is the behavior expected of them.

Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no relationship between men and women administrators in their perception in the challenges faced by them is accepted in terms of socio-cultural roles only, but not in career advancement, decision making, family relationship, and management style.

Table 8: Correlation

| Variables | Socio Cultural Roles | | Career Advancement | | Decision Making | | Family Relationship | | Management Style | |
|-----------|----------------------|---------|--------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|--------------------|---------|
| | R | p-value | R | P-value | R | P-value | R | P-value | R | P-value |
| Gender | -.343* | .032 | .085 ^{ns} | .606 | -.073 ^{ns} | .660 | -.304 ^{ns} | .060 | .251 ^{ns} | .123 |

* Significant at 5% level of significance

^{ns} not significant at 5% level of significance

Qualities of Women Administrator

To determine the perceived characteristics of women administrators, the respondents were asked to indicate what they think are the qualities of a good women administrator. The responses of the respondents were collated, summarized and get the percentage based on frequency (Table 9). Findings indicated that women have good working attitude, good professional qualification, and interpersonal characteristics as indicated by the female respondents. Likewise, the males indicated that women have the professional qualifications, good attitude and interpersonal qualities. Findings

showed that women administrators were observed to work professionally, and have the positive qualifications that are required for their positions. Moreover, the responses of both male and female respondents show that there is a change in the traditional perception on working women. The men tend to observe and understand that these women on a professional context are not their competitor.

The findings may be attributed to the fact that the respondents of the study were administrators themselves, who considered themselves as professional and academicians. That is why their

attitude towards women administrators is more liberal and considered women as their counterpart and as partners in development. In like manner, House (1997) noted the dramatic changes on women in the American Society by having equal opportunity legislation, while Erkut(2006) acknowledged the prominent achievement of women in their chosen

fields or careers. Likewise Conkling, (2006) indicated that the women are gaining their ground in the leadership position as well as the challenges they faced as administrators. These study show that there is already a change in attitude of people towards women who handles her position or being an administrator in any area of endeavor.

Table 9: Perceive Qualities as Women Administrator

| Category | Frequency (N= 20) | Percent (Women) | Frequency (N=19) | Percent (men) |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| Good working attitude | 16 | 80 | 13 | 68.42 |
| Interpersonal Qualities | 10 | 50 | 8 | 42.10 |
| Personal Qualities | 8 | 40 | 6 | 31.57 |
| Professional Qualifications | 15 | 75 | 12 | 63.15 |
| Leadership Style | 4 | 20 | 4 | 21.05 |

Problems of Women Administrators

The problems expected by women administrators were also undertaken in this study. The male respondents indicated that the number one problem faced by women administrators was more on personal, gender bias and leadership. It is worth noting that the female indicated that their problems were: household responsibilities, gender bias and leadership style.

The findings showed that women administrators can not get away with their personal problems, their gender and how they lead. This means that these women were still thinking other things even when they are at their place of work, and these were observed by their male counterparts. With regards to their perceived problems of household responsibility and gender bias, show that they cannot get away with their household responsibilities, because they believed that it is the duty of a woman to take care of the needs of her family. The gender bias was also mentioned by both respondents as one of the problems of women administrators, which may imply that there is a gender bias felt by the administrators. Srisuban,

(1997) noted that even the law provides equality for both men and women, discrimination against them, especially those occupying high position in the government still persist. This is due to the belief that women belongs to the weaker sex, and they believed that society has a low opinion of them.

Pantachai (2007) also revealed that some problems encountered by women principals in Thailand were their socio-cultural roles as well as their role in the family and the home. This was also supported by Sobrichea (1994) when she said that regardless of the status of women, they still have a double role to perform in the society and will continue to do the majority of the domestic work whatever, they can contribute to the family coffer.

Incidentally, household responsibilities still interfere in their agenda. However, it is interesting to note that these administrators do not have much problem with regards to their finances. This maybe attributed to the fact that these women have already reached financial stability having PhDs, Professors and with administrative positions.

Table 10: Problems of Women Administrators

| Problems | Frequency | Percent (Women) | Frequency | Percent (men) |
|----------------------------|------------------|----------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| Personal Problems | 9 | 45 | 10 | 52.63 |
| Gender Bias | 10 | 50 | 7 | 36.84 |
| Financial Problems | 2 | 10 | 4 | 21.05 |
| Household Responsibilities | 12 | 60 | 6 | 31.57 |
| Leadership style | 6 | 30 | 7 | 36.84 |

CONCLUSIONS

In the light of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Majority of the respondents were female, married, with professor rank, deans and directors in administrative position, whose salary was within the range of 20,000-25,000 Php per month, with PhD degree, Education as their field of specialization, between 50-57 years of age, and have served the university from 27-34 years.
2. That the challenges faced by women administrators as perceived by the respondents were more on career advancement and management style;
3. That socio cultural role contribute to the significant differences in perception between male and female administrators;
4. That the qualities of women administrators were: having good attitude, professional qualities , and interpersonal qualities;
5. That the problems of women administrators were more on the personal matters, gender bias and household responsibilities.

RECOMMENDATION

A similar study is encouraged and must include other variables which measures the

challenges faced by women administrators. Respondents from different sectors could also be a good target sample to get their ideas on the challenges of working women particularly those who are holding sensitive positions. This may help women and policy making bodies to get insights what they could do and implement to help working women in general.

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INTRODUCTORY COMPUTER COURSE AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR COMPUTER SKILLS PROFICIENCY LEVELS: THE CASE OF BUGEMA UNIVERSITY

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Abstract

This study can be particularly useful to those universities who may also be interested how their students' perceptions compare to their performance on these assessments and determine how to address the gaps that exist. The sample for this study was undergraduate students enrolled in Bugema University a private university. These students were all enrolled in an introductory computer applications course. This course is the only information technology course required for all students pursuing all degree majors within the University. For the fall First semester 2010/11, twelve sections of this course were taught with a combined total of 45 students. The Perceived Computer Skills Survey utilized in this study is designed to capture demographic Information, computer experience, computer access, computer usage, and students' perception of their computer application skills prior to starting the introductory computer application course. Before the exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course the students' computer skills proficiency had an overall mean of 1.48. However, after the exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course, the students' computer skills proficiency mean increased from 1.48 to 3.32. This increase could be attributed to the reception of the students to new technology in the learning course. Good computer skills proficiency levels shows that the students are being receptive to new computer skills that are being introduced to them. T-test shows a significant increase in the post skills over pre-skills levels.

Keywords: *Computer Application Skills, Proficiency, Student's Perception, Students' Attributes, Internet Access, Computer Access.*

Introduction

As technology advances, its impacts on people's lives have become more visible. Therefore the dependency on technology has increased in time. Computers are of the most outstanding ones of the technological devices which became part of daily routines. To be able to make use of such a facility, recognizing the potential role of computers and being technologically literate are essential.

Computer skills must be improved to become technologically proficient and to prevent the prospect negative situations in the career. In the recent years, education has started to be one of the fields which uses computer based technology intensively. Thus, having computer skills and using computer based technology effectively during the classes have started to become important aspects for teachers. In this study, the author tried to find

out the computer skills of university students and their experience levels of using defined software.

Many faculties expect students to know how they should use a word processor to create and format papers, make use of software for classroom presentations and speeches, use spreadsheet software to prepare charts and graphs, navigate the internet for research, and have the ability to learn and participate in online classrooms using various software (Lahore, 2008). On the other hand, many students do not have the knowledge, memory, learning, intelligence, or expertise to assess what they do and do not know and what they need to learn to succeed in a particular course. Because they essentially “don’t know what they don’t know,” they are unable to recognize their exact level of competence (Kennedy, Lawton & Plumlee, 2002).

Technology is human innovation in action and computer literacy is the basic condition for technology learning environment (Li, 2008). The term “*computer literacy*” is often used as a basis of making decisions regarding a student’s ability to perform specific tasks on a personal computer (Lahore, 2008).

Methodology

Participants

The sample for this study was undergraduate students enrolled in Bugema University a medium sized private university. These students were all enrolled in an introductory computer applications course.

This course is the only information technology course required for all students pursuing all degree majors within the University. For the fall First semester 2010/11, twelve sections of this course were taught with a combined total of 45 students.

Instruments (Survey and Assessment)

The Perceived Computer Skills Survey utilized in this study is designed to capture demographic Information, computer experience, computer access, computer usage, and students’ perception of their computer application skills prior to starting the introductory computer application course. The survey consists of three major sections. The first section of the survey¹, Personal Data, is designed

to capture demographics of the participants. The second section, Computer Experience, is designed to capture students’ access to and experience with computer applications.

The last section, Perceived Degree of Proficiency, is designed to allow students to rate their perceived computer proficiency using a 5-point Likert-scale evaluation where 1- indicates negligible or no skill and 5- indicates expert skill in some specific computer applications areas such as: file operation, word processing applications, spreadsheet applications, presentations, web page development, and applications programming and other skills.

Reliability of the Scale

Having Cronbach Alpha level higher than .70 is enough to consider the scale as a reliable one.

Procedures

Students were given the Skill assessment and computer attitude survey Questionnaires on the first day of class, asked to complete the survey Questionnaires and hand it to the instructor prior to the class ending. Students were informed that the survey was voluntary and would not affect their performance or evaluation in the course.

The same Skills assessment and computer attitude questionnaires were again administered during the last week of class to assess the skill levels and computer attitudes of learners after exposure to the Fundamentals of computers and office applications course at the end of the semester.

Statistical Methodology of the Research

SPSS Statistics Program was used to analyze the data. Descriptive statistics for instance; the frequency, percentage and mean values were used regarding students’ attributes such as attitudes towards computer, having a computer at home, using the computer at the University computer laboratory, as well as rate of Internet use. The changes in students’ attributes after exposure to the Fundamentals of computers and Office Applications were determined using a paired t-test.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Students' attributes

The attributes of students enrolled in Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications (BGCT 111) include the sex, gender,

computer and Internet access at home and school, computer Proficiency, and attitudes towards using computers.

Table 1. Age and gender

| ATTRIBUTE | FREQUENCY(N= 45) | PERCENT |
|----------------|------------------|---------|
| AGE(in years) | | |
| 19 -24 | 26 | 57.8 |
| 25 – 29 | 7 | 15.5 |
| 30 – 34 | 7 | 15.5 |
| 35 – 39 | 4 | 8.8 |
| 40 and above | 1 | 2.2 |
| Mean age = | | |
| 25 | | |
| Range: 19 – 45 | | |
| GENDER | | |
| Male | 24 | 53.3 |
| Female | 21 | 46.7 |

Table 2. Computer and Internet access of the Respondents.

| | BEFORE | | AFTER | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------|---------|---------------------|---------|
| | FREQUENCY (N=45) | PERCENT | FREQUENCY (N=45) | PERCENT |
| Computer at Home | | | | |
| NO | 31 | 68.9 | 28 | 62.2 |
| YES | 14 | 31.1 | 17 | 37.8 |
| Access to computer (hours per week) | | | | |
| 0 hours | 26 | 57.8 | 3 | 6.7 |
| 1 – 4 hours | 18 | 40.0 | 24 | 53.3 |
| 5 – 10 hours | 1 | 2.2 | 12 | 26.7 |
| Above 10 hours | 0 | 0.0 | 6 | 13.3 |
| Access to Internet (hours per week) | | | | |
| 0 hours | 6 | 13.3 | 3 | 6.7 |
| 1 – 4 hours | 28 | 62.2 | 28 | 62.2 |
| 5 – 10 hours | 6 | 13.3 | 10 | 22.2 |
| Above 10 hours | 5 | 11.2 | 4 | 8.9 |

Based on the results of the study, the students enrolled in Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications (BGCT111) class are mostly male, 20 – 30 years old. Before the start of

the study, there are only 3.1% owns a computer at home. Before the exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course, only 2.2% use the computer for 5- 10 hrs per week. Whereas 40 % uses computer at school for 1-4 hrs

per week and 57.8% do not use it at all, after the exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course 53.3 percent use computer at school for only 1-4 hours per week, 26.7% of the students uses it for 5-10 hours per week and 13.3% more than Ten hours a week. It was also found out in the study that before the exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course, 13.3% of the students do not use the internet at all, this reduced to 6.7% after exposure to Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course, 66.2% use internet for only 1-4 hours which remained the same and only

13.3% use internet at school for 5-10 hours before the exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course, this rise to 22.2% after the exposure, and there were 11.2% that use internet for more than 10 hours per week before

exposure this however reduces to 8.9% after exposure to Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course. The results are also an indication that some of the students are exposed to computer even before the exposure to Fundamentals of computers and office applications course. This could have been through formal course or informal learning particularly because of the need to use it for internet access. After the exposure to Fundamentals of computers and office applications course, the increased frequency of various aspects of usage shows that the students' basic skills in using computer has improved further for them through learning using the course, thus a positive perception of their proficiency with higher mean.

Computer Skills Before and After Exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and office Applications Course

Table 2 Skills level before and after exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course.

| <i>Computer skills</i> | Before | | After | |
|-------------------------------------|---------------|-----------------------|--------------|-----------------------|
| | <i>Mean</i> | <i>Std. Deviation</i> | <i>Mean</i> | <i>Std. Deviation</i> |
| Level of overall computer expertise | 2.15 | .824 | 3.31 | .701 |
| Keyboard skills | 1.80 | .814 | 3.46 | .842 |
| Basic computer terminology | 2.00 | .977 | 3.62 | .747 |
| Word processing applications | 1.73 | .939 | 3.42 | .839 |
| Spreadsheets | 1.48 | .786 | 3.22 | .849 |
| Graphic applications | 1.13 | .343 | 3.22 | .997 |
| Statistics Applications (SPSS) | 1.11 | .317 | 3.20 | 1.140 |
| Presentation Applications (PPTS) | 1.33 | .564 | 3.57 | .941 |
| Computer Assisted Instruction | 1.42 | .656 | 3.28 | .944 |
| Authoring Systems | 1.20 | .504 | 2.86 | .967 |
| WindowsXP | 1.46 | .786 | 3.28 | .991 |
| Electronic presentations | 1.44 | .692 | 3.22 | .876 |
| Data base Applications | 1.39 | .659 | 3.33 | .953 |
| World Wide Web or Internet | 1.84 | .975 | 3.46 | 1.035 |
| Software evaluation | 1.42 | .583 | 3.33 | .953 |
| Pooled mean | 1.48 | .395 | 3.32 | .568 |

Legend:

| Scale | Descriptive Equivalent (DE) |
|-------------|-----------------------------|
| 4.21 – 5.0 | Excellent |
| 3.41 – 4.20 | Very good |
| 2.61 – 3.40 | Good |
| 1.81 – 2.60 | Fair |
| 1.00 – 1.80 | Poor |

Computer skills assessment tool measures the confidence and perceived ability of the students towards a given computer competencies. This was measured before the students were exposed to Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course and it was again measured after the students have been exposed to Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course for a semester.

Results in table 1 noted a change in the perceived computer skill levels of students from poor skills before to Good skills in all

competencies after the exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course; this suggests that students became more proficient and confident about their ability to perform the computer related activities.

Results show the perceived proficiency and confidence of the students before and after the exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course. It could be noted that, before the exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course the students' computer skills proficiency had an overall mean of 1.48. However, after the exposure to the Fundamentals of Computers and Office Applications course, the students' computer skills proficiency mean increased to 3.32. This increase could be attributed to the reception of the students to new technology in the learning course. Good computer skills proficiency levels shows that the students are being receptive to new computer skills that are being introduced to them. The fact that there is limited time to learn diverse computer skills, can be the reason for the proficiency levels are generally not reaching excellent levels.

Table 3. Mean and t-value of the students' pre-skills and post-skills

| PRE-SKILLS | POST SKILLS | MEAN | STD. ERROR | t-value |
|------------|-------------|------------|------------|-----------|
| MEAN(N=45) | MEAN(N=45) | DIFFERENCE | DIFFERENCE | |
| 1.48 | 3.32 | -1.83968 | .10401 | -17.687** |

**highly significant .01 level of significance

According to table 3 the study reveals a pre-skills and post skills mean score of 1.48 and 3.32, respectively. T-test shows a significant increase in the post skills over pre-skills levels.

Conclusion

Many universities are faced with similar issues in trying to build strong curriculum and effective pedagogies. As a result, some have implemented initial assessments. This study can be particularly useful to those universities which might also be interested how their students' perceptions compare to their performance on these assessments and determine how to address the gaps that exist. This study indicates that the introductory computer course significantly

contributes to improvement of students' computer skills levels.

Requirements of the business job market and students' knowledge, experience, and self-efficacy of business computer applications is continually changing. Therefore, the continuous evaluation of students' perception and performance in word processing, presentation graphics, spreadsheet and other computer skills is required in order to evaluate the introductory computer applications course. The enhancement and realignment of this course is essential for educators to prepare students for today's global economy.

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GLOBALIZATION AND ACCOUNTING SYSTEM

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Abstract

This paper explores the idea of globalization in economy in general and its role in that process in order to develop new directions for the accounting concepts. Globalization is a reality in today's world. As globalization intensifies the need for complex financial information becomes obvious. Expanding capital markets require analysis of financial statement prepared under diverging accounting standards. Investors believe that the lack of common financial statement increases the risk of an investment and affects the free flow of world capital. A single set of accounting standards would bring great benefits to the investors and would reduce the cost of accessing capital markets around the world. The convergence of accounting standards would assure enhanced comparability, greater reporting transparency, more efficient capital markets.

Keywords: *globalization, convergence, fair value, international accounting*

Introduction

The accounting evolution has always been triggered by the phenomena occurring at the level of the real economy. The economical progress has led to the evolution of the technique and the development of civilization in general. Therefore, the big scientific and technical discoveries have had an impact on the economic evolution, and all this reflected in the evolution of accounting, as subject within the information system of the economics. Even from the oldest times, a lot of initiatives have been identified relating to organizing the accounting, in countries which have managed to establish solid and stable organizations. Thus, accounting has taken shape once with the need to organize certain evidence in Economics, and the economic evolution has always imposed and asked for higher level information on the economic status.

The present is governed by globalization, a phenomenon that defines the global economy. The globalization effect consists in implementing international financial reporting standards across the world. By contrast more and more countries try to benefit from using cultural values and tradition of accounting.

1. The globalization phenomenon and the implications on the economical, political and accounting level

In the last part of the 20th century and in the beginning of the 21st century, a popularized and equally controversial phenomenon has marked and has had a great impact on the economies existing on the global level: namely the globalization.

The term of globalization was proposed for the first time in 1983 by Theodor Eleviu, meaning the convergence of the markets all around the world, which would operate as a sole entity. Starting from this definition, in practice and the special literature there have been a number of opinions on globalization.

Wikipedia, the free online encyclopedia defines globalization as a series of economic, social, technological, cultural and political changes seen as increasing interdependence, integration and interaction between people and companies in disparate locations". The International Monetary Fund defines globalization as the "growing economic interdependence of countries worldwide through increasing volume and variety of cross-border transactions in goods and services, free international capital flows, and more rapid and widespread diffusion of technology".

From an economic point of view, globalization is identified with a series of trends:

- Increase in international trade at a much faster rate than the growth in the world economy
- Increase in international flow of capital including foreign direct investment
- Development of global financial systems

Increased role of international organizations that deal with international transactions Supporters of globalization pretend that this process offers great benefits to the economies of the world such as raising living standards in developing countries, development of new markets and new jobs creation, removing obstacles to international flow of good and capital. Although there are also a lot of opponents, the effects of globalization on the world economy cannot be denied (Gorgan & Gorgan, 2006). On the international level, the present phenomenon is controversial, and there a various for and against opinions. An interesting overview of the reasons in favors and against as related to globalization, is accomplished by Barna in 2003, (as quoted by Ristea et al., 2006). Presented below, for the purpose of creating a picture of the said phenomenon, we shall present a synthesis of the said arguments.

The arguments in favor of globalization are:

- Globalization is a stable support of the economic growth;
- Globalization is a stable support of the global trade;
- Globalization and competitiveness are complementary;
- Globalization enables the getting of all scale advantages, the capitalization of the synergic advantages, the turning into account of the geographical advantages and of those corresponding to its own market power.

The arguments against globalization are:

- The existence of a tendency to increase the inequality of incomes, at the global level, but also inside the countries;
- Globalization causes asymmetric shocks, of the type: social break between the rich and the poor, the duality of work - unemployment, the duality: lack of power in interdependency;
- Globalization is a potential process of disappearance of the state - notion; Globalization, through the transnational companies has suppressed and even eliminated some of the national markets.

The strong and weak points as previously present are capable to enhance the significance of this phenomenon in the contemporary period and the implication exercised by the latter within the most different areas: the environment, technologies, culture and communications, economy etc. Globalization in the economical field has also implications on the accounting level, a fact which triggers the following questions: which is the trend to be followed by the accounting in the future? (Calu, 2005).

The international accounting standards (financial reporting) and the European accounting directives are results of the efforts made by the representatives of various countries for the purpose of attenuating those differences caused by the specific character of the application of the several national accounting regulations. Yet, the common view on the drawing up of the financial standings is a desideratum of all those involved in the process of

the supply and demand of accounting information. From a linear perspective, an approach of accounting from the point of view of the globalization phenomenon generates a reply which seems to be unequivocal: the implications on the accounting level of the phenomenon of the economic globalization are represented by the process of implementation of the international standards for the financial reporting on the global level.

2. The analysis of accounting concepts evolution

Identifying and analyzing the relationships between economical and political mutation across history and the accounting evolution have been a permanent concern for researchers in the last decades. Most of them conclude that the economic development was the factor that propelled the accounting evolution (Collase, 1995, Richard, 1996, Dobro_eanu, 2005). The specific of every historical age (the Antiquity, the Middle Ages and Modern Times) has determined the appearance of accounting mutation, the appearance or disappearance of some concepts.

The historiographic researches reveal the fact that in Antiquity there were a lot of accounting notes, which were present in a primitive form, especially at old peoples having an ancient civilization and economy. From this particular period, there is information from the field of public accounting (the state role), agricultural accounting and bank accounting. In the period of Middle Eve there begins the systematization of notes, an accounting technique is shaped and even a theory elaboration is tried by some. Thus, „In may Italian cities there has been used, even from the 13th century, the single – entry bookkeeping, and in the other cities, the double – entry bookkeeping” (C. G. Demetrescu, 1972, as quoted by Calu, 2005). The first published work presenting the „Venetian art” of the double – entry bookkeeping is the Accounting Treaty of Luca Paciolo (Pacioli), as included in *Summa de arithmetica, geometria, proportioni et proportionalità*. The latter has appeared in 1494. But the double – entry bookkeeping system shall be generalized, in West European Countries, as of the second half of the 19th century, due to various

causes such as: the increase of competition, the increase of the administrators’ information needs, as well as of the new model capacity to calculate the outcomes of the activities and not just the monetary overplus. As related to the evolution in this particular period, Stevelinck (as quoted by Dobro_eanu, 2005) believes that „the phase of the commercial capitalism has inserted in the accounting the patrimony – related concepts and that of the protection of wealth with the help of the accounting books, be the latter either public or secret, the agent accounting, but also the concept of an artificial person, a concept which has imposed itself within the subsequent stage, that of the industrial capitalism, each of the aforementioned phases requiring more and more complex accounting techniques”. The analysis of accounting in the period of the corporatist capitalism (after the years 20-30 of the 20th century) should be done within the existing economic, social and political context. From the accounting point of view, this period is mainly marked by: all the initiatives existing on the global level, for the purpose of creating a plan of accounts (in the West Countries), respectively all the initiatives relating to the improvement of the financial communication, given the fact that, „the 1929 crisis has made the public aware of the lack of any accounting information” (A. Naciri, 1986, as quoted by N. Feleag_, 1995). At the same time, the concept of „true and fair view” has been introduced; more precisely this concept has replaced the previously existing one, namely, „true and correct view”.

Although from a historical point of view, *cash accounting* preceded the *accrual accounting*, nowadays only a few small economic entities from developing countries use the cash accounting. On the other hand the accrual accounting is used by most world businesses. Even if some specialists support the confidence offered by cash accounting (they know exactly when pays occurred), developing financial statements useful in making decision cannot be done without accrual accounting. The IASB conceptual framework states that “in order to reach their objectives, the financial statements must be prepared on an accrual basis”.

Within the context of the remarkable development of economy, accounting specialists face a dilemma as related to assessment in accounting: is the classic model of the historical cost still adequate for the display of the reality within the financial standings or does the model of the fair value have to be enforced?

It is indeed true that accounting based on *historical costs* is one oriented towards the past, which it describes through the distinction between flow and stock (profit and loss account – balance sheet). The historical cost presents, as compared to other bases of assessment, a series of advantages but a large number of limits as well. The main advantage as related to the other bases of assessment is given by its fiability (credibility). Using this basis of assessment enables the offering of objective and checkable information. But during the periods of inflation and deflation, the use of the historical cost is hardly criticized, leading to a series of deformations in the financial standings. The limits of the historical cost are also represented by the its approximate and subjective estimations, especially when it is about the assets depreciation, which estimates are strongly influenced by the interests of those drawing up the financial standings.

For a couple of years, certain courts for accounting normalization (FASB, IASB etc) have consecrated the practice of the fair value in an extensive way, which tends to cover all the balance sheet assets, starting with the financial instruments, investments in real estate assets and ending with the agricultural products (Iona_cu, 2003). The American standard no. 157 Fair Value Measurements, issued by the Financial Accounting Standards Board (FASB) on September 15, 2006 provides enhanced guidance for estimating the fair values of assets and liabilities reported in financial statements. The supporters of *the fair value* bring arguments to the fact that the latter represents a highly superior basis for assessment from the economic point of view than the historical cost. Most of the times, the fair value is not checkable, is not exact, is not faithful and moreover, there is the risk to be misrepresented through subjectivity” (Ristea & Dumitru, as quoted by Lapte_).

The conclusion is that the economical and political evolution influenced the accounting and concepts development. If at the beginning of the Middle Agea cash accounting was appropriate, the development of commerce and banking, the industrial revolution, the transition towards an economy based on services have lead to the need of using accrual accounting. Having analyzed the relation between advantages - inconveniencias we may clearly find the supremacy of advantages. It is obvious and without any doubt that the investors represent the users, if not the main ones, at least the ones appointed as those who need to be privileged, as related to the requirements and the offer of financial information. In this respect, they wish to get informed based on the fair value. Nevertheless, the near future won't bring the abandon of historical cost. In other words, we are heading towards *a mixed model* of balance sheet assessment: the fair value for the negotiable assets and liabilities, respectively the historical cost for the rest of the elements. The future of the fair value needs to be mainly searched in the construction of the consolidated financial standings and not as a singular model for assessment, that replaces the historical cost, but more as a solution for the adjustment of the historical cost, considered by the European Accounting Directives as being the fundamental basis for assessment (Laptes, 2007).

3. The globalization effects over accounting environment

It is clear that nowadays the entire world is affected by *globalization*. Under these circumstances, attention has been paid to the need for the *international harmonization* of the accounting practices. Harmonization stands for the agreement between the national, the European and the International in accounting, by limiting the variations between the accounting systems. This term is especially used as related to the agreement upon the accounting regulations from the European Union member states, through the European Accounting Directives. Harmonization is a process for the increase of the compatibility of accounting practices through delimiting a degree of variations. On the European level, for the purpose of harmonization of the accounting, the European Directives have been gradually adopted by the

European Union member states (Ristea et al., 2006). Moreover, the European Commission with the hope to improve transparency, comparability and quality of the financial standings, has approved the international accounting standards, which are applied for the financial years as of January the 1st 2005, this way compelling all the companies quoted on the European markets, to present their consolidated financial standings in accordance with the said standards. Such an action determines the parallel use in the European Union countries of two sets of accounting standards: both the international and the national ones. The accounting directives shall remain the basic accounting legislation for those companies which are not quoted and shall continue to regulate those fields which are not covered by the IFRS standards.

Through the decision taken by the European Union, which decision has been followed by various similar methods in Russia, Australia and the New Zealand, the trust in the international accounting standards has increased, just as their role as standards for the global economy also increased. The tendency to create a common language in which the financial standings of the companies from many countries of the world should be presented, has also manifested through the signing of an agreement regarding *the convergence* between IAS/IFRS and US GAAP in 2002 between The council for the international accounting standards- IASB and The council for the financial reporting standards-FASB. Within the said agreement, both signatories have undertaken to make best use of their efforts in order to: make it possible for the already existing financial reporting standards to be fully compatible as soon as possible and to coordinate their future working schedules, so that once obtained, the compatibility shall be maintained.

Not all the countries walk at the same pace and with the same speed on the road of the convergence with the international accounting reference. The national accounting standards of the countries with a slower pace usually cover fewer problems that the international accounting standards (Ding, Jeanjean, Stolowy, 2005).

CONCLUSIONS

The globalization, the harmonization and the international accounting convergence stand for the phenomena which tend to be more and more present at the level of the entire world. The application of the international accounting standards has become a necessity in order to ensure the quality of the accounting information. However, many of the world's countries are at present trying to maintain their domestic identity, through the capitalization of the latter's cultural values and of the tradition as related to accounting. This thing can especially be noticed at the level of the individual accounts of the national companies, which apply their own national standards, the latter being the result of the legal, economic, social and cultural particularities. The international harmonizations, followed by the international convergence are significant factors for the development of various new directors regarding the accounting concepts.

For as long as the globalization phenomenon shall remain a reality, the tendency in accounting shall be represented by the implementation of the international standards for financial reporting (IFRS), doubled by the reconciliation, through the accounting convergence, between the opinion as expressed within the American standards for financial reporting as issued by FASB and the IFRS's. Just the implementation of the international accounting standards does not automatically stand for the amelioration of the national accounting system, if at the same time there are no deep changes occurring as related to the policies of economic development, the mechanisms of corporative governance and the operation of the financial market (Ding, Hope, Jeanjean and Stolowy, 2007).

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**LEADERSHIP STYLES OF INSTITUTIONAL HEADS AND THEIR EFFECTS ON
SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT FROM PERSPECTIVE OF TEACHERS IN
SELECTED PRIVATE AND PUBLIC SECONDARY
SCHOOLS IN SENGEREMA DISTRICT,
TANZANIA: A COMPERATIVE STUDY**

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Abstract

The study was conducted in Sengerema district, Tanzania. The purpose of the study is that, based on the inspection reports conducted between of 2005 – 2009 in Sengerema District, there has been a difference in the development between public and private schools in terms of Academic performance, Infrastructure, School surroundings, Culture and the School relationships within and without . The researcher wanted to know the reason for the differences by investigating the leadership styles of institutional heads weather they have effects on school development or not. The researcher sampled six out of thirty four secondary schools; three being public and three private. The respondents were all teachers except six heads of schools and twenty students from each school who were used as informants in the study. It was concluded that the most used leadership style in both public and private schools was democratic with means of **2.53** and **2.25** respectively. The extent of development in both public and private schools had means of **2.81** and **3.00** respectively. This implied more development in private schools than public schools. The differences were mostly appeared in availability of teaching and learning materials, number of teachers, motivation to teachers and discipline among students.

Key Words: Academic development, Autocratic leadership, Culture, Democratic leadership, Development, Infrastructure development, Institutional heads, Leadership, Leadership style, Private school, Public school, Permissive leadership, Professional teachers Relationship, School development ,Staff development, School environment

INTRODUCTION

All over the world, institutional heads are faced with many challenges in running their institutions. As they try to meet these challenges, institutional heads draw their experiences and capabilities as leaders to exert influence over subordinates using different leadership styles. This is due to the fact that institutional heads are held responsible for success and failure of their

institutions. In addition, these leaders are responsible for the performance of the individuals and groups in their respective institutions. However, failure or success cannot be made by leaders alone, subordinates also have part to play and the performance cannot be good without the resources and good leadership. For effectiveness and efficiency, it is necessary for the leaders to exercise the functions of leadership which includes motivation to those who are led, good

communication and encouraging high morale and delegating, ([http://www.leadership-basics.com/leadership-function 5.shtml](http://www.leadership-basics.com/leadership-function-5.shtml)).

Institutional heads are also responsible for school change due to the fact that successful school improvement requires establishing a clear education vision and a shared institution mission, knowing how well a school is accomplishing that mission, identifying areas for improvement, developing plans to change educational activities and programmes and implementing those plans or new programmes effectively (Marzano et al 2006). Institutional heads require the ability of leadership; through leadership, leaders help their institutions and individuals to achieve the institutional goals and objectives

According to Lawrence (1991), it is believed that, when leadership is weak in the area of leadership and staff, curriculum as well as collaboration and communication between schools and families, school development becomes unsuccessful. On the other hand, when there is committed leadership and staff, strong curriculum and instruction as well as high levels of collaboration and communication, there is success in school development.

There have been some arguments among the school stakeholders that there are differences in terms of development between public and private secondary schools in Tanzania. These differences are in school academic performance, infrastructure (buildings and furniture), relationships, school surroundings and culture. These differences have made some people who are well financially to take their children to private schools. Private schools are owned and funded by individuals or groups of people and sometimes the government gives financial support to some of these schools. Public schools are owned and funded by the government as well as the community around. Both types are operated following the government regulations including the employment system whereby only professional teachers are allowed to be employed and school heads should be academically and professionally qualified.

With these arguments, some have suggested that, the differences are due to leadership styles used

by institutional heads whereas others say it is financial and inadequate number of teachers as well as poor relationship between school administration and parents. However, the researcher seeks to carry out the study in Sengerema district, Tanzania, to investigate the differences by looking at the leadership styles of institutional heads and their effects on school development from the perspectives of teachers. The study considered some basic assumptions that; institutional heads in both private and public secondary schools have the required academic and professional qualifications and all public secondary schools were equally aided by the government.

Generally the study intended to investigate leadership styles of institutional heads and their effects on Development in selected public and private secondary schools, in Sengerema District.

The following specifically the study had the following objectives:

1. To determine the institutional heads leadership styles in selected private and public secondary schools in Sengerema district.
2. To assess the level of development in relation to leadership styles in selected public and private secondary schools in Sengerema district.
3. To determine a significant relationship between leadership styles and school development in selected private and public secondary schools in Sengerema district.
4. To find out a significant difference between the development in public and private schools.
5. To identify other factors affecting the development of selected private and public secondary schools in Sengerema district.

The study was supported by contingency theory advanced by Fiedler (1974). This theory is a class of behavioral theory that claims that there is no best way to organize a corporation, to lead a company or to make decisions. Instead the optimal course of action is contingent (dependent) up on the internal or external situation.

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted through correlational descriptive research design in order to determine the relationship and difference between school development in public and private secondary schools. The method used for the study is both quantitative and qualitative.

The study was conducted in Sengerema district. Sengerema is one of eight districts in Mwanza region, Tanzania. The study was conducted in six secondary schools (three being private and the other three being public). The sample consisted of six secondary schools (three being public and three being private). Institutional heads and the students were used in the study as informants. The number of teachers found in each school was as follows:

The questionnaire was self made. This questionnaire was only formulated for teachers who were the main sample in the study and was interpreted using the Mean range of Likert Scale below.

Table 2: Mean Range of Likert Scale

| Description | Mean range | Scale | Interpretation |
|-------------|------------|-------|----------------|
| SA | 3.25-4.00 | 4 | Very high |
| A | 2.50-3.25 | 3 | High |
| D | 1.75-2.50 | 2 | Low |
| SD | 1.00-1.75 | 1 | Very low |

Reliability; if the score was 0.7 or above to ascertain the study. From the pilot study using 20 respondents, the reliability coefficient was $r = 0.803$

After collecting data, analysis of the objectives was done. Objectives 1 and 5 descriptive statistics was used to find mean and frequencies. Objectives 2, 3 and 4 were analyzed using 'T' test as it helped to find out difference between development in public and private secondary schools as well as the level of development in relation to leadership styles. SPSS was used to analyze objectives number 1, 2, 3 and 4. The objective number 5 used qualitative analysis

where the researcher identified the most factors appeared frequently followed by the other factors by ranking. Data were interpreted using the mean range.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The total populations from both public and private secondary schools who receive and returned the questionnaires were 80 respondents.

In analyzing the demographic characteristics of the respondents the following items were considered; sex, education level, marital status and types of school where the respondents was employed to

Majority of the respondents were males, 63 (78.8%) while. females were 17 (20.2%). This implies that more respondents were males.

Table 3: Respondents According to Sex

| Category | Frequency | Percent |
|----------|-----------|---------|
| Male | 63 | 78.75 |
| Female | 17 | 21.25 |

It was found that 36 equivalents to 45% of the respondents under study were diploma holders followed by 23 (28.75%) degree holders, 18 (22.5%) form six and about 3(3.75%) last group had other qualifications. This implies that most of the respondents found in public and private schools had Diploma in Education.

Table 4: Respondents According to Level of Education

| Educational level of respondents | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------------------------|-----------|---------|
| Form six | 18 | 22.5 |
| Diplomas | 36 | 45 |
| Degree | 23 | 28.75 |
| Other qualifications | 3 | 3.75 |

As regards to marital status of the respondents in table 5, married were 41(51.25%) and singles were 39(48.75%). This may imply that, married respondents were more than the single respondents.

Table 5: Total of Respondents According to Marital Status

| Marital status | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|
| Single | 39 | 48.75 |
| Married | 41 | 51.25 |

The respondents involved in the study were; Public 42 (52.5%) and private; 38(47.5%) this did not consider the bigger number of students found in public schools which would need more teachers.

Table 6: Type of School of the Respondents

| Type of school | Frequency | Percent |
|----------------|-----------|---------|
|----------------|-----------|---------|

| | | |
|---------|----|------|
| Public | 42 | 52.5 |
| Private | 38 | 47.5 |

The first objective was to determine the leadership styles of institutional heads in selected private and public secondary schools in Sengerema district. To meet this objective, the study analyzed the application of three main leadership styles in both private and public schools of which the results are shown in table number 7, 8, and 9.

The extent of permissive leadership style in selected private secondary schools had a grand mean of 2.08 whereas in public school, the grand mean was 2.25, this shows that, permissive leadership style was more applied in public secondary schools.

Table 7 Extent of permissive leadership style in selected private and public secondary schools

| Area rated | Private | | Public | |
|--|---------|----------------|--------|----------------|
| | Mean | Interpretation | Mean | Interpretation |
| Most of us know more about our jobs so we are allowed by the school head to carry out decisions in doing our jobs. | 3.00 | High | 2.62 | High |
| No any evaluation of school activities conducted by teachers | 1.54 | very low | 1.79 | Low |
| The leader leaves teachers with freedom and independence to do their own work in the way they think best | 2.38 | Low | 2.48 | Very low |
| The leader is not strict on students And teachers' attendance to classes | 2.10 | Low | 1.67 | Low |
| The leader does not take serious measures against teachers laziness And weakness | 1.97 | Low | 2.25 | Low |
| The leader does not discuss with teachers students and parents about poor academic performance in the School | 1.87 | Low | 2.06 | Low |
| No any feedback to teachers and students given by the leader about The well being of the school | 2.00 | Low | 2.21 | Low |
| The leader does not care seriously about the performance of teachers And students | 1.84 | Low | 2.21 | Low |
| The leader does not care about the | | | | |

| | | | | |
|---|-------------|------------|-------------|------------|
| Proper teaching of students and the School in general | 2.05 | Low | 2.27 | Low |
| Most of the time the leader is an observer of the events. | 2.97 | Low | 2.97 | High |
| Grand mean | 2.08 | Low | 2.25 | Low |

In table 8, the extent of autocratic leadership style in selected private schools had a grand mean of 1.99 whereas in public the grand mean was 2.29,

the scale indicated that the use of autocratic style was low in both private and public; however the style was more used in public schools.

Table 8: Extent of Autocratic Leadership Style

| Area rated | Type of school | | | |
|--|----------------|----------------|-------------|----------------|
| | Private | | Public | |
| | Mean | Interpretation | Mean | Interpretation |
| Teachers opinions are mostly neglected by the leaders | 2.05 | Low | 2.49 | Low |
| The leader limits opportunities and participation of teachers | 2.02 | Low | 2.51 | High |
| The leader sets himself the school goals and objectives | 1.84 | Low | 2.23 | Low |
| The leader dictates work methods to teachers without consultations | 1.79 | Low | 2.04 | Low |
| The leader pushes and forces teachers to work without making discussions | 1.80 | Low | 2.04 | Low |
| The leader emphasizes his/her authority and power when dealing with teachers | 2.75 | High | 2.91 | High |
| The leader does not give subordinates an opportunity to participate in decisions that affect their work, she/he always do the final word | 1.92 | Low | 2.60 | High |
| Responsibilities are not delegated to teachers | 1.90 | Low | 2.53 | High |
| Teachers are given orders and directives | 2.28 | Low | 2.91 | High |
| The leader does not give subordinates an opportunity to participate in decisions that affect their work | 2.07 | Low | 2.72 | High |
| Grand mean | 1.99 | Low | 2.49 | Low |

It was found that, the extent of democratic leadership style in the selected private secondary schools had a grand mean of 3.04 whereby in public, the grand mean was 3.13. This may imply that most plans and decisions in both schools were conducted democratically. Though the usage of the style for

both types of schools was at high scale, the style was more used in public secondary schools.

Table 9: Extent of Democratic Leadership Style

| Areas rated | Types of Schools |
|-------------|------------------|
|-------------|------------------|

| | Private | | Public | |
|---|-------------|----------------|-------------|----------------|
| | Mean | Interpretation | Mean | Interpretation |
| The leader makes most decisions with his subordinates | 2.89 | High | 3.00 | High |
| Teachers and students are involved in running the school | 3.00 | High | 3.18 | High |
| The leader, teachers and students participate in all decision making | 2.89 | High | 3.11 | High |
| The leader seeks advice from teachers and teachers seek advice from the leader | 3.00 | High | 3.06 | High |
| Teachers are consulted on various school affairs including academics and discipline | 3.25 | High | 3.23 | High |
| The leader tries to arouse hopes, expectations | 3.00 | High | 2.91 | High |
| When there are differences in role expectations the leader works with his subordinates to resolve the differences | 3.00 | High | 3.16 | High |
| The leader is friendly and approachable | 3.23 | High | 3.25 | High |
| The leader encourages interactions and participation in decision making | 3.15 | High | 3.34 | Very high |
| Grand mean | 3.04 | High | 3.13 | High |

Table 10 is in line with the objective number one which was to identify the leadership styles of institutional heads in selected private and public secondary schools. The findings on the table indicate that the mostly used leadership styles in private schools was democratic with a mean of 3.04 followed by permissive with a mean of 2.08 and lastly autocratic with a mean of 1.99. In public secondary schools the dominant leadership style was democratic with a mean of 3.13 followed by autocratic with a mean of 2.49 and lastly permissive style with a mean of 2.25. The mean of 3.04 for democratic leadership style in private and 3.13 in public schools seem to be almost similar. This implies that institutional heads in both private and public schools apply democratic style almost equally.

These findings were in line with the ideas given by Tipathi (2004) who supports democratic style which involves the entire group accepting responsibility for goal setting and achievements and that subordinates have considerable freedom of action. The leader shows greater concern for his people than for his production. The leader encourages constructive interrelationships among

his members and reduces intergroup conflicts and tensions.

Table 10: A summary of leadership styles of institutional heads

| Leadership style | Type of school | | | |
|------------------|----------------|------|--------|------|
| | Private | | Public | |
| | Mean | Rank | mean | Rank |
| Permissive | 2.08 | 2 | 2.25 | 3 |
| Autocratic | 1.99 | 3 | 2.49 | 2 |
| Democratic | 3.04 | 1 | 3.13 | 1 |

The second objective was to assess the level of school development in relation to leadership styles in selected private and public secondary schools in Sengerema district.

The findings in table 11 show that, the extent of school development in selected private secondary schools had a grand mean of 2.99 whereas the public ones had 2.91. This indicates that both private and public schools had development but looking at the mean, there was more development in private secondary schools. The most excelled areas in private schools were;

student book ratio with a mean of 2.38 against 2.18 in public schools, teachers attendance to classes 3.43 against 2.81 in public schools, performance above the average of “C” grade 2.51 against 2.44 in public schools, singing and parading regularly 3.53 against 3.34 in public schools, discipline 3.35 against 3.33 in public schools as well as adequate number of teachers 3.64 against 2.46 in public schools.

The excelled areas of development are supported by Aggarwal (1994) who states that learning is the product of the environments. The environments play an important role in the growth and development of the individual. Leadership styles are part of environments which have effects on school development.

Table 11: The level of development in relation to leadership styles

| Areas rated | Type of School | | | |
|---|----------------|----------------|-------------|----------------|
| | Private | | Public | |
| | Mean | Interpretation | Mean | Interpretation |
| There is much improvement in academic affairs as student book ratio is between 1:2 and 1:3 | 2.38 | Low | 2.18 | Low |
| Teachers attendance to classes is good | 3.43 | High | 2.95 | High |
| Four tests and ten exercises for each subject are given to the students per term. | 2.97 | High | 2.81 | High |
| The overall percentage of the school performance for the last two years in the national form four exams is above “c” grade | 2.51 | High | 2.44 | Low |
| All essential buildings including sixteen classrooms. Sixteen teachers houses, thirty toilet chambers (12 for males, 16 female students and 02 for workers) are available | 2.05 | Low | 2.09 | Low |
| The surrounding community participates in the school development activities, example construction and attending parent meetings at school. | 2.38 | Low | 2.95 | High |
| When the head of school calls parents for their children welfare, they positively respond. | 3.10 | High | 3.25 | High |
| There is a joint security between the school and the surrounding community | 2.82 | High | 2.97 | High |
| Teachers’ meetings and the students’ baraza are conducted according to the school calendar | 3.02 | High | 3.09 | High |
| There is freedom of giving ideas/opinions in the school meetings. | 3.25 | High | 3.46 | Very high |
| Singing and parading are normally done in our school | 3.53 | Very high | 3.34 | Very high |
| Various sports and games in and out of the school are highly practiced | 3.48 | Very high | 3.51 | Very high |
| General school discipline for both teachers and students is good | 3.35 | Very high | 3.32 | Very high |
| Our school has adequate number of teachers | 3.64 | Very high | 2.46 | Low |
| Grand total | 2.99 | High | 2.91 | High |

The third objective was to determine the significant relationship between leadership styles and

school development in selected private and public secondary schools in Sengerema district.

All leadership styles were computed using T-test as a statistical tool in both private and public; the grand mean for democratic leadership style in both private and public was 3.09, autocratic 2.20 and permissive 2.17.

Using the formula; “when critical t value < computed t value; null hypothesis is rejected. The null hypothesis number one which states that, there is no significant relationship between the leadership styles and development of an institution was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. This indicated that, there is a relationship between leadership styles and school development. Democratic leadership style had a mean of 3.09 which according to the scale indicates high development whereas autocratic and permissive leadership styles had means of 2.2 and 2.17 respectively which indicate low development. This

also shows that, more development was found in democratic leadership style, followed by autocratic and lastly permissive style. This was also in line with the informants who said that, in order for the school to develop, democratic leadership should be applied whereby planning and decision making for major issues is being done by the majority hence every one becomes part of the decisions.

This is supported by Sumbye (2009) who argues that all leadership styles can be useful in terms of bringing development in any organization depending on the situation of the organization, but democratic leadership style is more useful. . The findings in table 12 indicate that there was a significant relationship between the leadership styles and school development in selected private and public secondary schools.

Table 12: Determining the relationship between leadership styles and school development

| Type of school | Leadership style | Means | Computed t value | Critical t value | Interpretations |
|--------------------|------------------|-------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|
| Private and Public | Permissive | 2.17 | 3.48 | 2.079 | Significant |
| | Autocratic | 2.20 | 3.725 | 2.073 | Significant |
| | Democratic | 3.09 | 2.321 | 2.093 | Significant |

The fourth objective was to find out a significant difference between the development in private and public secondary schools in Sengerema district. The findings presented in table 13 shows that the grand mean total development for private secondary schools was 2.99 whereas public secondary schools had 2.91

Therefore, using the formula, when computed t-value (F ratio) < critical t-value (F critical) = homogeneity. It means that there was almost equal development in both private and public secondary schools.

Using the formula; when t-critical > computed t-value the null hypotheses is accepted; therefore, the null hypothesis (number two) which

states that “there is no significant difference between development in public and private secondary schools was accepted. This was different from the ideas given by informants. The majority of the informants clearly stated that private secondary schools are better in having adequate teachers, attendance of teachers to classes as well as financially. In addition; basing on questionnaire, interview and an appendix, there were statements and frequencies showing other factors affecting school development, the differences noted were in availability of teachers, teaching and learning materials, and teachers’ attendance to classes as well as finance problem. These factors appeared to affect more public school than private schools.

Table 13: Finding out the significance difference between leadership styles and school development

| School | School development (Means) | Computed t-value | Critical t-value | Interpretation |
|---------|----------------------------|------------------|------------------|---------------------------|
| Private | 2.99 | 0.434 | 2.055 | No significant difference |
| Public | 2.91 | | | |

Objective five was to examine other factors affecting school development in public and private secondary schools. The results in table 13 show that there were other factors (a part from leadership styles) which affected school development in both public and private schools; these were as follows; scarcity of books with frequencies 10 in public and 10 in private. This implies that both public and private schools had shortage of books which affected the teaching and learning process.

Inadequate teachers had frequencies 10 in public and 3 in private. This implies that public schools had fewer number of teachers compared to private schools. Shortage of teachers had made some subjects not to be taught.

Inadequate funds had frequencies 10 in public and 4 in private. This shows that public schools had more financial problem than private schools. This led to failure of purchasing essential teaching and learning materials.

Indiscipline among students had frequencies 4 in public and 3 in private. This may imply that both public and private had indiscipline students almost equally. Much time was spent by teachers in dealing with such students instead of teaching.

Lack of motivation had frequencies 4 in public and 2 in private. This indicates that lack of motivation from employers is higher in public than private schools. Motivation would improve working morale among teachers.

Political interference had frequencies 4 in public and none in private schools. This shows that political interference from political leaders had power in public schools where they could dictate the selection of every form one student who reaches the pass mark without considering the school facilities.

Disunity between school administration and parents had frequencies 2 in public and 3 in private schools. This may imply that the extent of disunity between school administration and parents in both public and private schools was almost equal. This had made student administration to be difficult in academics and discipline.

Table 14, Record of Other Factors Affecting School Development

| Areas rated | Respondent (public) | | Respondent (private) | |
|--|---------------------|------|----------------------|------|
| | Frequencies | Rank | Frequencies | Rank |
| 1 Scarcity of books and other teaching materials | 10 | 1.5 | 10 | 1 |
| 2 Inadequate teachers | 10 | 1.5 | 3 | 3.5 |
| 3 Inadequate funds /finance | 10 | 1.5 | 4 | 2 |
| 4 Indiscipline among students | 4 | 4.5 | 3 | 3.5 |
| 5 Lack of motivation | 4 | 4.5 | 2 | 6 |
| 6 Political interference | 4 | 4.5 | 0 | - |
| 7 Disunity between school/administration and parents | 2 | 7 | 3 | 3.5 |

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study was about leadership styles of institutional heads and their effects on development

from the perspective of teachers in the selected public and private secondary schools in Sengerema district, Tanzania. A sample of six secondary schools (three being public and three private) with

80 respondents were used. The data was analyzed descriptively and quantitatively.

Qualitative approach explored traits of individuals and settings that could not be easily described numerically. Quantitative approach was used because numerical data was applied.

The general objective of the study was to investigate leadership styles of institutional heads and their effects on school development from teachers' perspective; with a view of examining the leadership styles and how they affect both private and public secondary schools

The findings revealed that the most used leadership style in public schools was democratic with a mean of 3.13, followed by autocratic with a mean of 2.49 and permissive with a mean of 2.25. In private, the dominating style was democratic with a mean of 3.04 followed by permissive with a mean of 2.08 and lastly autocratic with a mean of 1.99.

Basing on the findings; the following conclusions have been made that democratic leadership style dominates in both public and private schools, followed by autocratic and permissive leadership styles.

In terms of school development, it has been concluded that there is more development in a

It was found that both public and private schools had development. However there were few areas noted with small differences this included student book ratio, teachers' attendance to classes, general school discipline and adequate number of teachers. This was found better in private schools due to closer supervision and monitoring of the schools by school owners.

It was also found that apart from leadership styles, there were other factors affecting school development in both schools, these included; scarcity of books and other teaching and learning materials, inadequate finance, lack of motivation from employer and disunity between school administration and parents. Public schools were also faced by

The hypothesis number 1 says there is no significant relationship between leadership styles and the school development; the findings show that there was relationship between leadership styles and school development. Democratic leadership style indicated higher school development with a mean of 3.09 followed by autocratic with a mean of 2.2 and lastly permissive with a mean of 2.17 in both private and public secondary schools. This is supported by the formula; "when critical t-value < computed t-value, the null hypothesis is rejected and accept the alternative"

The study found that there was no significant difference between the development in public and private schools. The grand mean total development for private school was 2.99 whereby the public secondary schools had 2.91. This is supported by the formula that; when t-critical > computed t-value = homogeneity. This makes the null hypothesis to be accepted. This implies that there is almost equal development in both private and public secondary schools as far as leadership styles are concerned.

school where democratic leadership style is applied followed by autocratic leadership style. Permissive leadership style is found to have less development compared with democratic and autocratic leadership styles.

inadequate number of teachers and political interference whereby political leaders dictate school leaders to register more students than the school capacity and facilities. This affected curriculum implementation.

Recommendations

1. Democratic leadership style needs to be more applied in public and private secondary schools as it involves the majority in planning and implementing, sharing of goals and objectives, hence makes a worker feel part of the school.
2. The government needs to recruit and employ adequate teachers in public schools according to the demand of the school until the desired

ratio of two teachers to forty students is reached.

3. The school disciplinary committee, head of school, teachers and parents need to cooperate in dealing with discipline cases so as to create conducive learning in both public and private secondary school.

4. The Ministry of Education and Vocational Training in Tanzania needs to conduct leadership seminars and workshops regularly to public and private institutional heads to allow sharing of experiences which in turn helps to improve both institutions.

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THE IMPACT OF FOREIGN DIRECT INVESTMENT ON LOCAL COMPANIES IN THE DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO: A CASE STUDY OF CHINA RAIL ENGINEERING CORPORATION (CREC) IN KATANGA MINING.

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Abstract

The prioritizing of FDI in Congo DR will attract Multinational Companies to the country. The increase numbers of these multinational companies have an impact on the hosting countries. This dissertation examines the spill over effect of foreign direct investment on local companies in the Democratic Republic of Congo case study of China Engineering Corporation (CREC).

To come up with the description of the influence of FDI from China to the Congolese mining sector, the researchers ensured the possible effects of FDI in: Technology transfer, Capital Transfer, Creation of new market, knowledge transfer, Economic growth, and increased employment rate. The researchers had three primary objectives and one secondary objective to ascertain attain at the end of the dissertation.

To collect data, the researchers were using an interview guide formed in form of a questionnaire. Telephone (Skype) interview also were used. Three main views were used in analyzing the literature and these are: Positivism, Interpretive or Phenomenology and Realism. Thematic analysis was used to analyze the primary data.

The result gotten indicate that mining companies or companies in mining sector have so far benefited from Chinese FDI in terms of reconstruction and renovation of old mining companies. The benefit in terms of technology transfer, increase productivity, creation of new market is not yet seen because the joint venture is new.

The main problems in the mining sector which affect the FDI in Congo DR are currently: restrictions on the exploration of raw materials, increased types of taxes and political instability. In this short term period Chinese FDI has not yet been beneficial for mining sector in Katanga (Gecamine). However, the mining sector in Katanga will benefit significantly from FDI after a long term period.

The dissertation contains a model, which were created by the researchers through, literature, primary and secondary data. It shows in details how mining companies benefit from the FDI

Key Words: *Foreign Direct Investment, Productivity, Management Skills, Improved Technology, Increase Employment*

Introduction and Literature Review

Developing countries are prioritizing Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) for the bundle of asset that multinational enterprises (MNEs) deploy with their investments. These assets are mostly in intangible and are particularly hard to be found. They include management skills, product design, brand names, technology, channels for marketing products internationally, etc. This situation could lead most of developing countries to favor FDI over other forms of capital inflows

This Issue is very important in our recent world, invest has been classified as one of the determinant of the economic growth. Investment has been seen as a key variable determining economic growth in recent theoretical empirical work. Based on this, we can say that, if FDI fails to contribute to capital formation, there would be great reasons to question its benefit for recipient developing countries. The availability of foreign direct investment (FDI) during financial crises sometimes leads many developing countries to regard it as a private capital inflow.

What policies should host government in developing countries adapt to be able to benefits from FDI and avoid the dangers in order to maximize the contribution of FDI? The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the impact of CREC (China Rail Engineering Corporation) on the DR Congo domestic economy. To describe the influence of CREC Company to the DR Congo economy we studied the profit share ratio policy to determine how much capital is reinvested in the host country, the workers profile, workers mobility were we will determine the number of professional imported and the number of local staff trained this will help us measure the amount of skills, technology passed on from the foreign investors to the local staff.

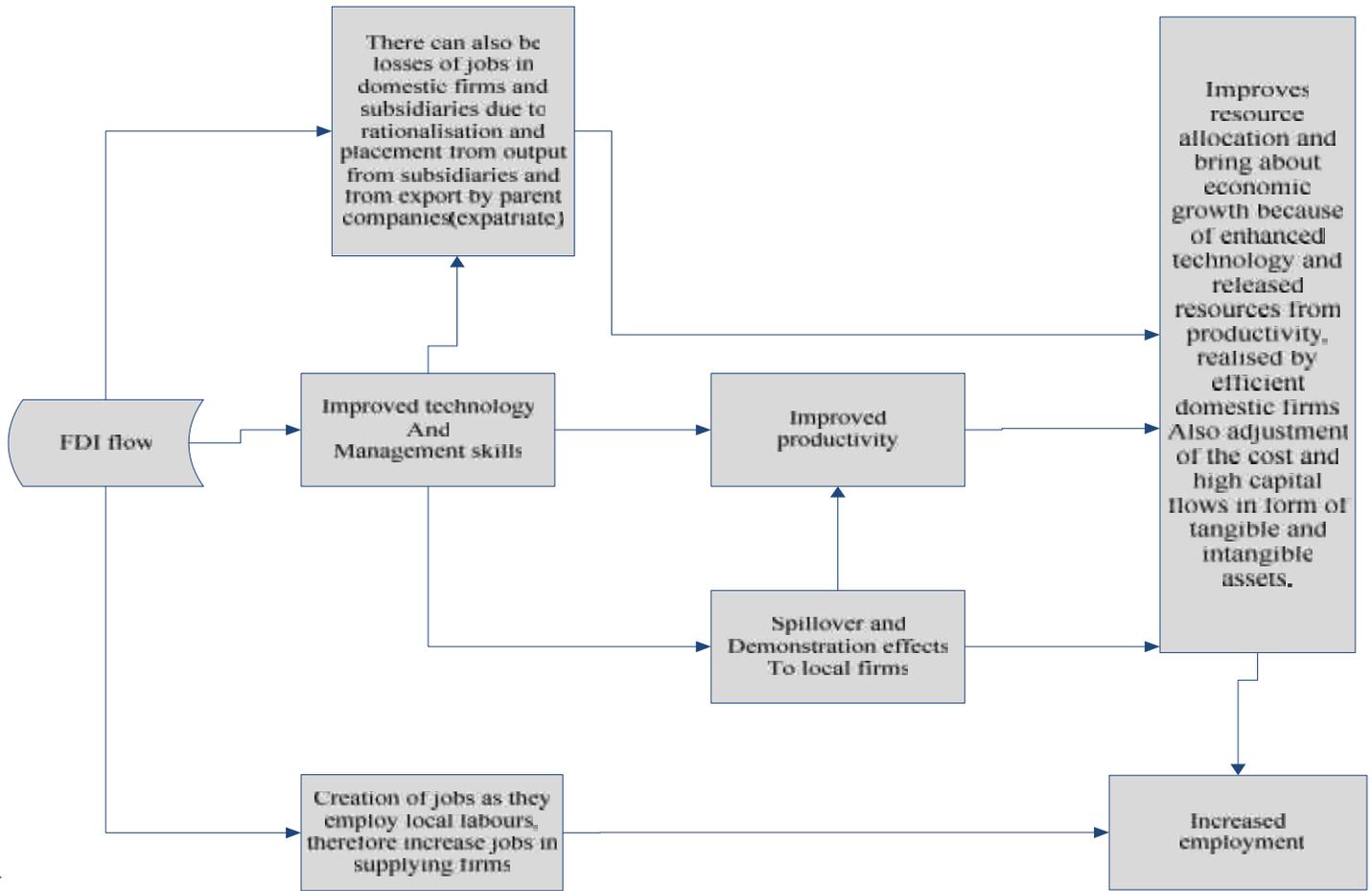
In this study, the researchers assessed the impact of FDI on developing countries; the key question which we have in mind is whether MNEs boost the domestic investment or whether it displaces domestic producer's investment opportunities. Another question may be in investigating if the preference for FDI over other forms of private capital inflows justified. This dissertation sheds some light on this issue by

reviewing recent theoretical and empirical work on the impact of FDI on developing countries' investment and economic growth.

The research paper focused on the topic: Foreign Direct Investment in Africa: An Analysis of China Rail Engineering Corporation in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Katanga. The following specific objectives were met by the researchers

1. To examine the extent to which DRC/Katanga companies in mining sector benefit from the expected increased of FDI
2. To assess the expectations of the mining companies relating to FDI.
3. To assess the current weak characteristics of the sector (Mining Sector in DRC/Katanga)
4. To develop a model for a better understanding of the effect of FDI for DRC/Katanga.

Figure 5: FDI summary



Source: Graph made by Researchers

METHODOLOGY

Since the beginning of research, three main processes of researching as been identified. These are the positivism, realism and interpretism. Positivism is those who emphasises on the physical material world and is based on the facts. The realism is those who are concern with the facts or reality and rejection of the impractical and visionary. Lastly, the interpretism are those who look at the subjective reality as described by Saunders et al (2003). An important example is whether or not issues in the social sciences can and should be studied according to the same procedures and principles as the natural sciences. Therefore the there are different views about the research procedures which dominate the literature such as:

- Positivism

- Interpretivism or Phenomenology
- Realism.

Theory is an indispensable part of a research project. According to Saunders et al (2003), getting an answer to the question of what design to adopt for a research, depends on how clear the theory is at the beginning. They identify two research approaches: Deductive and Inductive approaches.

The research strategy is mainly deductive in nature, because existing theories were examined to see if there are applicable the Congo DR Situation or Mining sector. On the other hand, primary data were collected in form of a survey using interview.

There are different strategies to be used while conducting a research. The most appropriate to answer my research questions and objectives is a survey research. It is most of the time associated with the deductive approach (Saunders at al., 2003).

It is mostly conducted through an interview in form of a questionnaire as it were done in my paper. In my view, this strategy is the most effective in gathering the information needed and may not be as wide-ranging as other research strategies. Telephone interview were also used.

In order to answer my research questions, the hypothesis were based on the review of existing theories. It were tested using the thematic analysis. Generalization was made of the mining sector, through samples of one company which is active in the mining sector. This method is common when testing the existing theories. The survey was conducted through the use of the interview. The chosen method of research enabled the researchers to reflect the companies' prospect about the effect of FDI in the mining sector.

The research used only one company as a case study in mining sector. Mining sector is a sector with a broad range of activities in different regions of DR Congo. For the accomplishment of my study I concentrated on the one located in

Katanga one of the largest region of the country. In general the researchers used purposive sampling for the three types of sample, starting from the choice of the region, the choice of the company and the choice of the respondents in the organization. Purposive sampling allows the researchers to choose cases because they represent some of the key feature contributing to the success of the study.

Since the researchers were interested in the purposive sampling, the company, and the respondent who answered the questions on behalf of the company were chosen purposively. The company top managers were given the questionnaire to answer. There were a total number of two top managers who are directly related to the information needed by the researchers. The two member were selected as the informant. For the company's, this company were selected purposively because it has all the quality of a mining company and it is the main mining company in Katanga/ DRC.

Table 4: Types of research design

| | Exploratory | Descriptive | Causal |
|------------------------|--|---|--|
| Objective | Discover ideas and insights. | Describe market characteristics or functions | Determine cause and effect relationships |
| Characteristics | Flexible Versatile Often the front end of total research design. Qualitative data | Marked by prior formulation of specific hypotheses. Preplanned and structured design. Quantitative data | Control of other mediating variables. Quantitative data |
| Methods | Expert surveys Secondary data Qualitative research | Secondary data surveys panels | Experiments |

Source: Malhotra (2004 p.76)

In the research the main source of data were from primary sources in addition we refer to secondary source for accuracy..

Data were collected using three sources. The first source was the existing literature from different authors and, data about the effect of FDI on mining sector in the developing countries. The second source of data were from a different organization which, concerning the actual situation. The last tool which was used in the data

collection is the Interview in form of questionnaire and this was specifically for the primary data.

For the purpose of this research work, the researchers made use of qualitative data. Qualitative data is the collection of non standardized data which requires classification and is analyzed through the use of conceptualization.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Joint-venture between Gecamine and CREC

The joint-venture alliance between CREC and Gecamines, where CREC holds round 66% of

shares and 34% to Gecamine, this automatically gives a lot of power on CREC over Gecamines, therefore more the decision will be coming from CREC, According to the accounting principle in an acquisition or partnership such as this Joint-venture, the profit or dividend sharing is done according to the responsibility they hold in the firm.

In addition it were agreed that, the distribution of the profit or dividend will be as follows. 60% to be distributed to shareholders, and out of the remaining 40%, 10% will be given to the company and 30% will be reinvested in the sector (Mining DR Congo).

As it were stated above, the CREC company will be operating in the mining sector through its major joint-venture called SOCOMIN, the above is a joint Between the Chinese company CREC and the Congolese Government own mining company GECAMINES, whereby Congo Railway Infrastructure project LTD is a CREC subsidiary.

Table 5: THEMATIC ANALYSIS

| Main Theme | Perceived Benefits | Key Issues |
|--|---|---|
| 1. Past weak characteristics of the sector (Mining Sector in DRC/Katanga) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Market share ➤ International relations ➤ Productivity capacity ➤ Technology | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Number of market where the minerals are exported ➤ Number of country which is in relation with Gecamine due to FDI ➤ Productivity level ➤ Export level ➤ Types of technology used |
| 2. The expectations of the mining companies relating to FDI | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Technology transfer ➤ Capital transfer ➤ Creation of new market ➤ Economic growth ➤ Expansion of market share ➤ Increased employment ➤ knowledge transfer | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Availability of training ➤ Increased sales due to new market share ➤ Increased GDP ➤ Increased number of the employee |
| 3. Extend to which local companies in mining sector benefit from the expected increased of FDI | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ There has been a positive economic impact on the local firms and the government in general | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Increased operating cite ➤ Availability of machines ➤ Creation of new international relations ➤ Creation of new employment opportunities ➤ Improved income due to the increase in the salary paid to the workers ➤ Improved infrastructure in the Gecamine ➤ Contribution to the GDP trough taxes |

Source: Made by researchers

Assessing the past weak characteristics of the sector (Mining sector in DRC/Katanga)

200,000 jobs in the August to November 2008 period (afro News, 2010).

This was due to the financial and economic crisis which hit the central African State hard. The Katanga in the south-eastern part of the sprawling country, a region that predominantly relies on the mining of copper and cobalt, has taken a particularly big blow. While copper lost over 50% of its value, cobalt a mineral that is predominantly used to make rechargeable batteries and alloys, fell from a peak price of \$52 a pound in March to approximately \$18 (Mannak, 2009). Companies in mining sector including the giant GCMN could not take care of these people and had to reduce on the number of the employees.

Past Employment Situation

The national institute of statistics of DR Congo/Katanga recorded a decrease in the number of employee in the mining sector during the past periods. According to the MONUC sources, approximately 52 out of 56 mining companies in Katanga have significantly reduced their output with a view to possible closures and others reduced the number of workers, which resulted in 300,000 job losses and 60,000 more mine workers faced layoffs in the following period. The statistics provided by the Provincial Labor Division had shown that the mining sector shed in excess of

Past technology level

The region did not spend much more money in the new technology system, even compared to other places. Katanga mining sector did not build stock and were therefore unable to create high rate of productivity growth.

The domestic spending on research and development were cat-off. The government's policy towards the technicality lacked efficiency and did not clearly defined objectives. The government did have any plan for the replacement or the acquisition of new machines to be used in the future in order to maintain the productivity in the mining sector. Therefore, it is questionable whether mining were able to generate enough technology to significantly increase the productivity.

Mine copper output in 2001 were 20,988 tons (5% of capacity), down from 39,651 in 1997. Copper were produced exclusively in the Shaba Region (formerly Katanga), shaba meaning "copper" in Swahili. Gécamines holdings in the Copperbelt, in Shaba, contained one of the greatest concentrations of high-grade copper and co-product cobalt resources in the world.

Training of the Employees' (Level of Employees' Know How)

Although the training of employees in an organization is very important for the improvement of productivity, Gecamine could not be able to organize program about the training of employee. However the curtail importance of restoring mining capability in DRC in a way benefit the population and alleviate poverty.

In Katanga and Kasai Oriental, the local economy is dependent on mining. Gecamine being a parastatal operating in Katanga and as mentioned in the previous paragraphs, it were in decline, and one of the first consequences of this is that employees were going without motivation in terms of salary, training, etc. in addition, there were a lot of small at medium companies sub-contracted to Gécamines that were also suffering later.

The infrastructure that Gécamines were implemented in all sectors of social life and professional supervision of its workers were very convincing and so reassuring to not succumb to these temptations aspects of working inside Gécamines.

Past situation of export level

According to the Encyclopedia of nation, Mining were the country's leading industry in 2002, and diamonds, copper, and cobalt ranked first, second, and fourth, respectively, among export commodities. Mining has historically accounted for 25% of GDP and three-quarters of export revenues, in an export-oriented economy; in 2000, the mining sector's share of GDP were 6%, down by 21% from 1996. GDP declined by an annual average of 5% from 1998 to 2000.

The extent to which companies in mining sector benefit from the expected increased of FDI:

It were assumed that increased in FDI inflow to domestic country has a positive impact on the local economy, it improves the economy in general and there by promoting economic growth, it can be easily be realized from our previous explanation that Congolese mining companies in particular Gecamine found it hard to operate, due to lack of machines, capital, poor management skills, and lack of new technology and market, this brought the company down close to liquidation. The interview with the majors shows that with the arrival of MNEs which is represented by CREC in my research, there have been a lot of improvement in the mining sector such as availability of machines, increased operating site, creation of new international relations, creation of new employment opportunities, improved income due to the increase in salary, improved infrastructure and contribution to the GDP through taxes and other assets.

It is to be noted that most of the answers from the four different managers we interviewed were similar and each person were referring us to the person in charge for more information.

Actual situation about the operating site

Before the arrival of foreign investor we found out that a number of mining firms in Congo were closing down the exploitation, on the other hands the data collected trough interview with manager both on phone and trough a guided questionnaire, show that since the arrival of the FDI in Katanga, specifically in Gecamine, there have been an increase in the site used by the company. According

to the manager of the company, they have been able to capture new firms within the region which allows them to increase also the productivity. Some of the site includes; renovation of the mining center at Lycee lubusha and the construction of the mining cite for the extraction of mineral in Kambove also one of the towns in Katanga. Now that we have past and present information the difference suggest that increased FDI benefit local firms as well.

Actual international relations

Years before the arrival of foreign investors Gecamine had no open international relation which made it hard for the company to grow and acquire knowledge and technology from other nation, more over they had limited market for export which were mostly few European countries like Belgium. The findings about this variable reveal that, since the signing of the contract between DR Congo and china is still new, and were acquired from the relationship between Zambia and the FDI, but they hope to have some in the near future, We can easily say that the DRC international market is expending and the country is successfully attracting FDI inflow in the sector, as Mr. Richard Itongwa explained during the interview that they are trying to reach the all country by establishing subsidiaries in different province which will help them reach the neighborhood countries as it were the case with Zambia to reach Congo.

About the annual expenditure, income, profit, import, export, number of employee per year starting from the time the company has began business in Congo till 2009

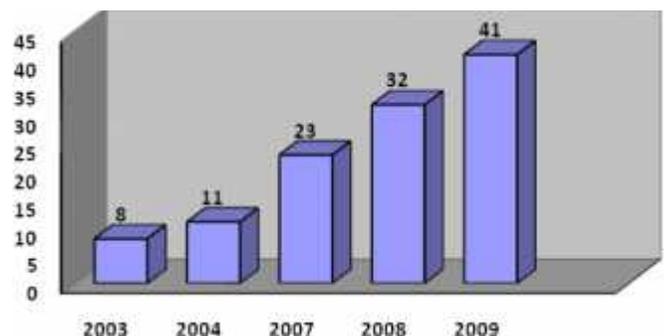
As discussed previously, the past production from Gecamine were getting weak and slowing down, only increasing expenses, with the arrival of foreign investors it promising, because it perceived that they bring new technology and news skills, with the new production machines the situation will surely improve therefore increase income and cut-off benefits, the interview with Mr. Pan Wang about the above variable, He said: “Since our operation in Katanga/ Lubumbashi precisely at Gecmine is new, we started the exploitation in 2008 and we have not

been able to make any profit or income as we have not covered our Initial expenses, also the breakeven point. Also since so far we are still reconstructing the company we have not exported enough from the site, we still at the investment stage.” The statement shows that since the arrival of FDI in Katanga/Lubumbashi precisely at Gecamine in 2008 and they have not yet been able to make any profit or income as they have not covered their Initial expenses, the company is still in the reconstruction phase, the company has not yet been able to extract enough minerals from the cite, they are still at the investment stage, as a total budget of US\$750 million were to be invested in 2009, US\$ 1 billion this year 2010, US\$ 750 million next year 2011 and US\$500 million in 2012, this much will be able to take Gecamine and other local mining firms out of the past situation and produce more in the future

Number of Congolese managers and foreigner employed by the company

It has been discovered that when the company started with Gecamine in 2007, they had one DG (Directeur Generale) this is translated as the General Director. showing managers who are currently in Gecamine, as they started before, and knowing that CREC is an international company with operation all over in Africa and Asia, the top management office is based in China, taking that into consideration the number of employees will be much more than what we have for the purpose of our work we will only need the workers in Congo.

Chat 1: Number of Training per year



Source: Made by the Researchers

About the salary being paid

It were noted that the minimum salary in the Democratic republic of Congo as stated by the government were CDF 550 which were equivalent to \$1 or 1 US Dollar, now the rate is at approximately 900 Congolese Franc for \$1. Furthermore we found out that in the DR Congo the Average salary take home per month is at \$100 in Katanga mining sector. Which is much higher than other provinces but at the same time, it is considered to be about five times lower than the average of what the worker need to maintain a normal home standard living.

But we found out that MNEs salary varies from \$800 to \$55, depending on the position occupied by the employee, this brings the average salary at \$200 to \$400 a month for an average worker which is much higher than the other local companies.

Most Congolese workers usually hold down low-paid manual jobs, irrespective of their Educational attainment even experience, only few of them have posts as administrators or supervisors which are still low paid jobs, while there is a general lack of vocational training, from Mrs. Pauline M the CREC Human Resource Manager.

From the response we got from the manager through the interview, out of the 100% of workers, approximately 28% of them are permanent workers, these are employees who are officially declared and has signed a contract with a secured job, and have an insurance and the company pay taxes, and the remaining 72% are daily workers as shown in the table

About Technology Used

Findings on this variable reviled that they have not had a considerable change in technology; apart from the new and sophisticated machines. This implies that the technological part of it has not experience any significant change since the arrival of the Chinese in Gecamine. As Chinese brings Machines and knowledge they will improve their techniques.

Actual situation about export level

In the interview with Mr. Pan Wang the top manager, said that up to now they have not been able to export anything. They are still in the process of importing tangible and intangible asset for the operations, moreover inconsideration with the task sharing the exploitation of minerals, is still under the responsibility of Gecamine, the Chinese company CREC is just in charge of mine recovery and construction. This means that no improvement have been made so far in terms of export. This is due to the age of the company in Congo/Katanga. She said since they are still at the starting point they need more equipment to run the operation of extracting the minerals, as the past situation shows it Gecmine's exportation accounted for 25% in 1990s then went even down to a point where there were no production anymore with coming of foreign investor and new techniques and equipments the production is expected to increase there for increase export level as well. On the other hands the DR Congo has expended the market; they have more opportunity especially different destination countries for their mining products including all China partners.

Productivity level

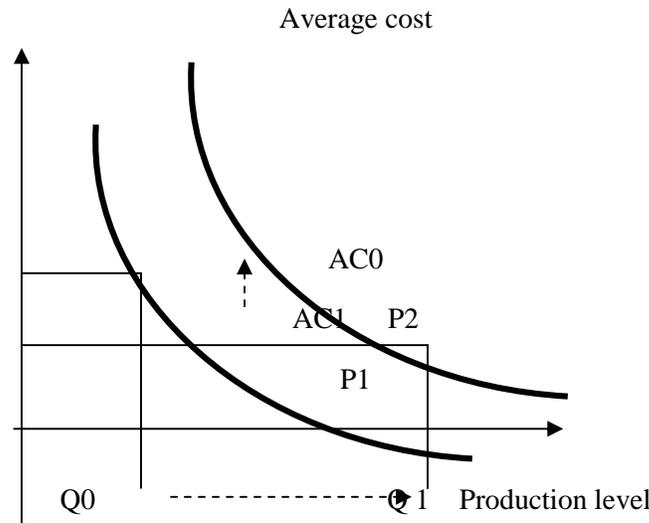
The result to this is so far the same with the one of exporting. It were found out that since the company is still new in the region as said in the previous paragraphs, it is much concern with the recovery and the rehabilitation of the mines not exploitation. It were also found that there exist several mining giants in DRC, and their mining Partners are not as gigantic as the others. This means that since the arrival of Chinese in Katanga as FDI nothing has so far been done in terms of production capacity is concern. Has the number of foreign investor increases in the sector more completion arises; therefore the new companies must put in place sophisticate equipments and machinery to compete in the market this put pressure to local firms to perform to their full capacity and capture the new technique for them to survive the competition.

Mr. Li in addition said that with the rehabilitation of the site and the new equipments and machinery brought, it is expected to decrease the production cost significantly, in terms of time and labor, they expect to produce more with less human capital

compare to the previous production, this is in agreement with economic principle suggesting that when the cost of production decrease the quantity

produced increases, this shift the production curve to the right.

Graph 1: showing relationship between production level and average cost



Source : Made by researchers.

Company’s contribution level to the GDP through taxes

It were discovered that the company has also contributed to the GDP of the country through the payment of tax and other chargeable fees. So it were discovered that there have been a great change because the overall rate of payment (salary) has increased, some companies pays more than \$100 because of the competition his radiuses the level of poverty in one way.

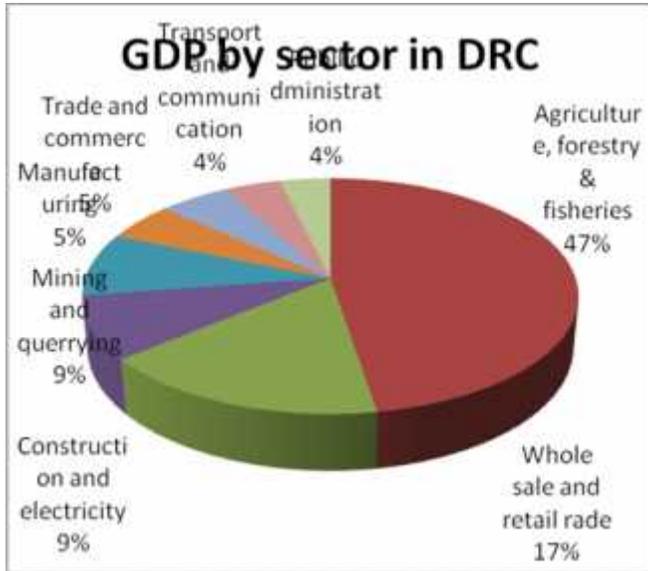
And also since the payment of taxes is done all the time and at a very high rate, this implies that the government officials use it effectively and efficiently it will contribute to the economic growth of the company since the mining sector account about 9% of the GDP.

Mr. Richard Itongwa said: “Yes we suppose there is a great change because firstly when we arrived the overall rate of payment (or maximum average salary) were \$100 this has increased; some companies pays more than \$100 because of the rising competition. Secondly since we are paingy a

lot of taxes, we think that of the government official uses it effectively and efficiently it will contribute to the economic growth of the company since the mining sector account about 9% of the GDP. Taxes we pay to firms like, DGRAD (Direction generale des recettes administrative judiciaire d’hommaniale et participatives), DGDA (Direction general de douane et accises), DGE (Direction generale des entreprises), etc, goes to the government budget.”

This also implies hat Taxes paid by the firm to the above government institutions goes to the government budget this is a form of capital inflow and must have a significant impact on the GDP, and apart from the Taxes paid local company benefit from the tangible asset and equipment and machinery brought by foreign investment this is a capital inflow for the country.

Chat 2: GDP by sector in DRC



Source: Made by researchers

The figure above shows that the mining sector is the third important element in the DR Congo economy after the Agriculture forestry & Fisheries 47%, and Wholesale & retail trade 17%, it account of 9% of the GDP, and the mining sector receives the highest amount of FDI in the country, therefore the increase in FDI increases the economic level as well.

Analysis of the actual situation of market share

Findings about the actual market share of the company shows us that, since the FDI came into Gecamine-Katanga, there have been an increase in terms of market share, But since there are investors in the same sector, which is the mining sector, the competition has been very high. The presence of the competition has made the accumulation of market share difficult. However, the company has put in place strategies which will be used in other to increase the market share and keep a float in the industry.

The actual situation of the infrastructure

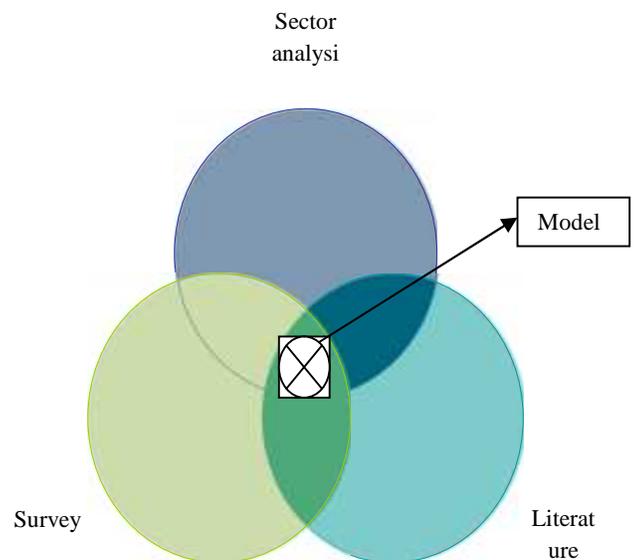
The information collected from the respondent trough interview, reviled to us that since the coming of FDI to Gecamine, much more have been done in terms of infrastructure. The company came up with some project to be implemented in order to improve on the existing DR Congo's infrastructure, table8 in

Appendix B, shows a number of construction project implemented in Katanga for 2009 by CREC and other related foreign investors.

Introduction Model

The model was made by the researchers at the end of the dissertation. It describes the possible development of mining sector in Katanga DR and is based on primary and secondary data. The sector analysis provides an overview of the past situation, it examine the characteristics of the sector, which can be influenced by the presence of FDI.

Figure 6: Combining the three sources



Source: Made by researchers

Overall Summary

This paragraph elaborates the conclusions of the three deferent sources used in the model made by the researchers. The Congolese Mining sector in Katanga DRC were previously characterized by:

- Lack of Technology
- Lack of Capital
- Lack of market share
- Economic growth

- Law employment level
- Power know-how

The entrance of Chinese FDI in Congo have so far affected mining sector in Congo DR in the following some of the mentioned variables.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The research assess the extent to which FDI benefit the host country's local companies, after the Analysis of data we have a clear indication that the mining sector benefit from the increasing FDI inflow though it is not up to the maximum this will be more profitable in the long run. we assumed that FDI result in advanced technology transfer, knowledge and skills transfer, increased employment and salary, increased productivity; the results of my survey meet the assumption in the sense that knowledge and management skills are of great important in the mining sector, the result indicate that with the Joint-venture there is mix of skills by the management working together and in the long run definitely there will be better management skills transfer to local companies, the same apply for advanced technology transfer because the principal technology used in the mining sector is sophisticated equipment and machinery and FDI is surely the easiest ways to obtain new equipments the survey results proves that CREC is bringing in enough equipment for the operation this result in increased productivity, increased exportation, completion which push local firms to work hard to compete in the market; on the other hands contrary to the assumption made in the literature the level of employment increase with the Joint-venture, because Gecamine were not in operation and had a huge downsizing of employment, the arrival of the MNC therefore created employment. Based on the finding we conclude that FDI has a positive impact on local firm and promote economic growth in general.

The FDI expectation in the mining sector; this were discussed in the literature review. Different authors have written about FDI, some said it has a positive impact on local firms and few others said it has a negative impact; findings from the research shows that foreign investors comes up with a lot of opportunities and benefits such as advanced technology,

management skills, employment, capital inflow, which can be profitable to host nation's firms, therefore it up to local companies to put effort to grab the opportunities from MNEs and this depend on the transfer cost, the main expectation from foreign investors is the economic growth and spillover effect to the host nation.

Finally the current weakness of the sector (mining), as it were explained in the literature review, the host country's government has to make the business environment suitable for the investment, this consist of investment regulation, security, etc. The results from the survey show that the mining sector in DR Congo has a lot of weaknesses which will appear in the recommendations s well. It were found that the DR Congo government authority fails to reinforce the foreign investment law, s a result MNEs receive unnecessary taxes, the employment is also been abused people work for more than 8 hours a day and they are not been paid for that, and the main issues is the pollution.

Therefore the research conclude that the positive Impact of FDI depend on both MNEs and the host country's firms, the CREC through Joint-venture with Gecamine can be profitable to local firms if the local firms effectively make use of the numerous opportunities brought by CREC to Gecamine, otherwise the investment will be only profitable to Chine and DR Congo will remain under developed this is seen as an opportunity for the country's development as other countries as India have benefited from FDI inflow.

Recommendations

Recommendation for Congolese Government

The Congolese government should insure that all foreign investors in the mining sector are aware of the regulations and code to insure that the mining legislation and labor laws are respected especially the employment low and the share of benefit and responsibilities in case of any alliance, since it is the host country's obligation to reinforce the law. The DR Congo and their foreign partners should investigate the abuse of employment law, mostly on

the total labor hours per day, the monthly salary and the agreement for training Congolese workers.

Recommendation for the Company

Secondly all FDI in mining companies should comply with the requirement for environmental impact mainly pollution, they should put in place plans to assess and manage environmental impact which must be made available locally and published on websites.

Recommendation for Father Studies

For the future researchers undertaking a similar topic or project, we will recommend him to collect data from different institutions both local and foreign companies and make a statistical analysis to prove mathematically the impact of FDI on local firms. A case study still of Gecamine

Another area of study can be done in factors affecting the development of mining sector in eastern Congo. A case study of selected mining companies

Since the researches were done qualitatively I will suggest that a father research can be done in the same area by using a quantitative approach.

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THE COST OF HUMAN RESOURCES MISMANAGEMENT IN UGANDA

A REVIEW OF CASE LAWS.

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Abstract

The organizations resources are all valuable and organizations spend a bulk of the available efforts to either acquire or maintain them within reasonable efficiency levels. This is not as complex as it is particularly in case of human capital, a resource that moderates other assets. Many management gurus have elaborately emphasizes on management, however the danger could also be candidly driven by cases and situations of mismanagement.

The cases exhibit how mismanaging these resources can be the cause of a myriad of headaches for organizations especially with their escalating costs. Workers are now more informed of their individual and collective roles and responsibilities and consequently their rights in employment. The paper delves into cases and literature that supports the argument, the cases are deliberately based in Uganda so as to emphasis the contextual and geographic setting and applicability.

The recommendations and conclusions are drawn based on the ILO and labor law supplements operating in Uganda or that should otherwise not have been ignored.

Key Words: *Human Resources Management, Personnel Management, Case laws, cost, international labour organization (ILO)*

Introduction

The concept of Personnel management has long evolved into human resources management; there have been different views and practices in people management despite the existing and acceptable theories. There are principles and the laws in the form of Acts of parliament that not only protect but also provide specific guidelines to all that are

directly or indirectly responsible or mandated substantively or procedurally to administer the workforce available in the organization.

Employers forgot that the rising of the profit margins of their companies result from high performance levels incomparable to their fellow competitors is due to the high commitment, self-esteemed, high-morale and total engaged workforce

they have in the company. Their invaluable efforts and contributions created for organizational success have not been measured to recognize their worthiness as a result their efforts and contributions are paid through unfair treatments in human resources process in the workplace.

We need to ask the following questions, how many CEOs have we heard pronounce that people are their company's most important assets? How many mean it? How many actually convert that corporate truism into practice day in day out? therefore, in the course of discussion in this paper, we will see how the above problem unexpectedly welcomed employers into the court chambers and heavy costs incurred therewith, which are obvious detrimental to the organizations image and performance. Robert Reich a renowned manager once said "your most precious possession is not your financial assets. Your most precious possession is the people you have working there and what they carry around in their heads, and their ability to work together.

Purpose, Scope and methodology

This paper is focused to address the pitfalls (mismanagement) that Chief Executive Officers (CEOs), Managers, Institutional heads and other officers in charge of managing peoples' affairs in the organization, have been practicing and the costs accrue there from. To accomplish this, critical reviews of the court decisions on human resources have been made.

Case Laws

As it has been said earlier above, the cases are discussed hereunder with reference to some selected human resource functions/processes in mind like Staffing, Benefits, Salary, contracting among other issues.

Salary/Remuneration/Allowances/Incentives

Charles Rwomushana vs. Attorney General of Uganda

In this case the plaintiff sued the defendant for special damages of shs.47, 378,858/= as well as general damages, interest and costs. The claim of the plaintiff is founded on his being employed as a public servant by the Government of Uganda. The plaintiff was appointed by the President of Uganda as Resident District Commissioner; and employed as such; at Pader District as from 22/01/01. The appointment was made under Article 203 (1) of the Constitution of Uganda, and section 70 of the Local Governments Act. Cap 243. The terms of the plaintiff's appointment as Resident District Commissioner were constituted by a monthly salary of shs. 1,710,514/=(fixed), a gratuity calculated at 40% of the basic salary each year, day and night allowances applicable in the Uganda Civil Service, 36 days leave per year, a chauffeur driven car for official travel, two (2) escorts, and free Medical care for self and immediate family. The plaintiff took up the appointment. On 07/11/01, the President pursuant to article 203(1) of the Constitution directed that the plaintiff be re-deployed within the President's office. On 27/06, the plaintiff was re-deployed as head of Political Department of Internal Security Organization, President's office. On re-deployment the plaintiff's salary was reduced to a lower sum of UgSh. 800,000/= and his other allowances and benefits reduced or removed altogether, the act which plaintiff considered contrary to Article 158 of the Constitution of which the Government through AG maintained that the plaintiff could not claim protection from.

Hon. AG Justice Remy Kasule basing on the Constitution argued that, Section 71(3) of the Local Governments Act. Cap 243 provides that:

"The Expenses of the office of the Resident District Commissioner, including salaries, allowances, and

pensions, shall be charged on the Consolidated Fund”.

He continues that the above section brings into application of Article 158 of the Constitution. The article provides:

“Where any salary or allowance of the holder of is charged on the Consolidated Fund, it shall not be altered to his or her disadvantage after he or she has been appointed to that office”.

It follows therefore that an act of re-deployment of the plaintiff from the office of RDC-Pader to Presidents office cannot be interpreted as to result into a contravention of Article 158 of the Constitution but rather the re-deployment of the plaintiff must result in the plaintiff enjoying the protection of Article 158, therefore the plaintiff’s salary and allowances must not be altered to his disadvantage.

Benefits from employment

- **Retirement & Pensions**

David B. Ssentongo & 12 others Vs. Makerere University

In this case Plaintiffs 1-10 were former employees of the defendant. They retired from the service of the defendant on or before 30th June, 1996. Plaintiffs 11-13 were legal representatives of the estates of the persons, who were employees of the defendant and also retired from the defendant’s services on or before 30th June, 1996. They brought the suit jointly and severally seeking a declaration that they and the estates they represent are entitled to pensions from the defendant calculated in accordance with the formula under the In-House Retirement Benefits Scheme and for an order that the same be paid to them accordingly.

It is admitted fact that plaintiffs retired from the service of the defendant before 30th June, 1996, and that they were given “Interim Awards”. It is the

case that the interim award was a ‘stop gap’ measure pending the introduction of a new optimum scheme which would cover them and other future members of staff. The anticipated scheme was subsequently introduced but plaintiffs have been excluded from it without any reason or just cause.

In arriving at the decision, the court agreed that the Interim Award was intended to make the plaintiffs have an expectation of a further award following the formulation of a new pension scheme which the defendant had the power to Institute and did actually institute in October, 1998. The court held that there was no specific minute of council or circular which addresses or tends to address the matter to act as a legitimate basis for the plaintiff’s exclusion from the new schemes. Basing on this decision, the court awarded the following remedies to the plaintiffs;

1. The plaintiffs are entitled to pensions calculated in accordance with the In-House Retirement Benefits Scheme and also be paid such balance of their pensions under new scheme less what was paid to them as Interim Award.
2. The plaintiffs awarded 5,000,000 (Five Million Shillings Only) adequate Compensation to each of them as general damages.

Rajab Kagoro Vs. Makerere University

The plaintiff’s suit against the defendant is for shs.12,408,464/= being outstanding balance on In-House Retirement Benefits Scheme and shs.4,513,955 being outstanding pension arrears dating from Feb 1997 to Dec 2003. He also claims general damages for inconvenience and losses incurred due to breach of contract.

The substance of the plaintiff’s case is that he was an employee of Makerere University in the capacity of driver from 1962 to 1997 when he retired having reached the retirement age of 60 years; that on

retirement he was entitled to a retirement package of shs.22, 197,780/= under In-House Retirement Benefits Scheme in a lump sum; that he was paid shs. 9,789,316/= leaving a balance of shs.12, 513,955/=, and that on top of that, he was to receive a monthly pension of shs 54,383/= which by the time he filed the suit he had not received. Hence his claim of shs.4, 513,955/= as pension arrears for the period of February 1997 to Dec, 2003. In the course of the suit, the defendant paid plaintiff part of the sum claimed thus, 4,513,955/=It was also settled further that, the outstanding balance at 50% as per defense evidence, was only a sum of shs. 9,789,316/= and not shs. 12,408,464/= which the plaintiff claims in the plaint, the amount which is payable in monthly installments of shs. 54, 383/= effective February 1997 till 2012. Favoring the plaintiff, Hon. Justice Yorokamu Bamwine argued, despite the fact that plaintiff had not understood the defendant's complex formula of calculating benefits under the scheme.

This, however, did not warrant him to deny posting of funds on his account by the defendant. Be that as it may, the defendant was supposed to pay him a pension of shs. 54,383/= every month. For seven years the defendant did not pay. Hence, the accumulation of shs. 4,513,955/= by Dec, 2003.The money which was paid in August 2004 when the suit was in court. The failure or refusal by the applicant to pay the pension according to schedule was a breach of the defendants own promise to release payments to the plaintiff on monthly basis. He was inconvenienced and deprived of his source of living. He regularly travelled from his home District of kabarole to Kampala to check on that money.

There was no success until he filed this suit against the defendant. *"I am satisfied that this occasioned damage and loss to him for which he deserves compensation.True,therefore,that although the defendant paid pension arrears of*

shs.4,513,955/=,it is liable to pay damages to the plaintiff to compensate him for inconvenience and loss suffered for the seven years when he was denied his entitlement. I therefore award a sum of shs.2, 000,000/= (Two Million only) adequate compensation to him for the said inconvenience and loss. The award shall attract interest at the commercial rate of 25% per annum from the date of judgment till payment in full. As regards Costs, considering that the plaintiff has achieved partial success, I would order that he be paid half the taxed costs of the suit".

The Honourable Justice A.N.Karokora Vs. Attorney General

The plaintiff in this case, is a retired Justice of the supreme court of Uganda. He retired on 5th November, 2006. He had joined the public service during the month of July, 1963, serving some 520 months until he retired in November, 2006.However, when the commissioner of pensions calculated the plaintiff's pension, he based it not upon 520 months but upon 435 months. Before his retirement, the plaintiff received, as his last monthly emoluments, shs. 4,910,000/= per month or shs. 58,264,000/= per annum.But in calculating his pension, the commissioner based it upon an earlier month salary of shs.2, 775,333/= or shs.33, 264,000/= per annum. The plaintiff prayed for the following reliefs;

- a) An order requiring the defendant to pay the plaintiff the balance of his pension gratuity of shs. 161,706,400/=;
- b) An order requiring the defendant to pay to the plaintiff arrears of his monthly pension;
- c) An order awarding interest on (a) and (b) above, at the commercial rate from the date of filing the suit till payment in full;
- d) An order requiring the defendant to pay the plaintiff a monthly pension of shs.3,404,497/= with immediate effect;

- e) An order awarding general damages to the plaintiff;
- f) An order awarding interest to the plaintiff on the decretal sum from the date of judgment till the date of payment in full;
- g) A declaration that section 9(3) and section 13, of Pensions Act, cap 286, are unconstitutional and void to the extent of they are inconsistent with the constitution and;
- h) An order awarding the costs of this suit to the plaintiff.

Having critically analyzed the evidence adduced in court, Hon. Justice V.F Musoke Kibuuka entered judgment in favor of the plaintiff against the defendant, and ordered subsequently as follows;

- a) An order requiring the defendant to pay the arrears on pension gratuity;
- b) An order requiring the defendant to pay arrears of the plaintiffs monthly pension from Nov,2006 to March,2009;
- c) An order requiring the defendant to pay interest on (a) and (b) above at 8% per annum from Nov,2006 to the date of payment in full;
- d) An order requiring the defendant to pay a monthly pension to plaintiff's last emoluments of shs. 58,264,000/= per annum effective from April,2009;
- e) An order awarding the sum of shs. 36,000,000/= as general damages to the plaintiff;
- f) An order awarding interest on the decretal sum at 8% per annum, from the date of judgment till date of payment in full; and
- g) An order awarding the costs of this suit to the plaintiff.

Absence and Leave

Rex Vs. Karoli

The accused in this matter at hand was fined Rs.8/50 a month's pay for being absent without leave. No evidence was called but accused admitted the offence saying that his wife was sick. Holding the case, Carter, C.J.(As he then was) argued that, he (accused) should have been given an opportunity of establishing this excuse and should not have been punished without consideration of the length of absence and the inconveniences caused thereby. Arriving at the above decision, Carter interpreted section 42 (2) of the Master and Servants Ordinance saying, the law makes it an offence if a servant "shall without leave or other lawful cause, absent himself from his employer's premises or other place proper and appointed for the performance of his work". He adds further that, in the present case it is clear that the accused absented himself, and I think it is to be taken that he admits that he did so without obtaining leave from his employer; but the section makes absence an offence if it is without leave "or other lawful cause" and consequently no offence is committed if a man absents himself without leave if he have other lawful cause so acting.

The learned Magistrate has apparently omitted to consider this point, the conviction is merely for absenting himself without leave, and the record bears no sign of any consideration having been given to the accused's statement that he left because he heard that his wife was ill. *"I accordingly quash the conviction and sentence and direct that the fine be returned the accused; this order is without prejudice to re-trial of the course be considered devisable"*.

Termination & Dismissal

Mugisha Richard Bob Kagoro Vs. Uganda Wildlife Authority

This is an action brought by the plaintiff against the defendant seeking special, general and exemplary damages for wrongful and/or unlawful dismissal from employment under contract and for

compensation under the workers' Compensation Act, Cap 225, interest and costs of the suit.

The plaintiff was employed by the defendant as a driver for four years under a 4 years contract effective 1st August 2004. While on official duty as a driver at his duty station, Queen Elizabeth National Park, Rwenzori, Kasese on the 31st Dec, 2005, and driving the defendant's motor vehicle, Registration number Ug 0231T, land Cruiser, the plaintiff was involved in an accident when an owl bird entered the vehicle causing disturbance to the driver and other occupants. The driver lost control and collided with the bridge at a place called Bugoye and the vehicle fell into the river.

The plaintiff sustained injuries and was hospitalized at Kasese Hospital and subsequently various other places and while on official sick leave in April, 2006, he was verbally dismissed by the defendant allegedly for absenteeism from duty and told to stay away from the defendant's duty stations. He did not get his letter of dismissal until in December, 2006 when he got a dismissal letter dated 28th August, 2006 with the said dismissal having retrospective effect from 27th April, 2006. The plaintiff appealed against the dismissal, and the defendant, by a letter dated 5th January, 2007, revised the effective date of dismissal to 23rd May, 2006. The plaintiff being dissatisfied with defendant's action instituted this suit and prayed to the court for the following reliefs;

- a) General damages for wrongful and/or unlawful dismissal
- b) Special damages of Ush.15,689,170/= (Fifteen Million, Six hundred eighty nine thousand, one hundred seventy shillings only)
- c) Ushs.6,073,830/= (Six million, seventy three thousand, eight hundred thirty shillings only) as compensation under the workers compensation Act, Cap.225

- d) Interest on (a), (b) and (c) above at 25% per annum from the date of filing till payment in full.
- e) Costs of the suit.
- f) Any other with leave of court.

The counsel for the plaintiff referred, *AM Jabi Vs. Mbale Municipal Council (1975) HCB 191* and *C.Ushillani Vs. Kampala Pharmaceuticals Ltd. SCCA No. 6/1998*, arguing, for the view that the reason given for the dismissal has to be justifiable under the law. The plaintiff could only in the instant case have been terminated according to contractual terms and conditions, by being given stipulated notice or by summary dismissal. The plaintiff was summarily dismissed verbally around April, 2006 later formalized in December 2006. Summary dismissal, which is termination without notice or with less notice than the employee is entitled to by a statutory or contractual provision, should only be done where the employee's conduct was so gross that it affects his line of employment. Also in *Hon. Francis Mukama Vs. Uganda Wildlife Authority Civil Suit Bi.290 of 2002* where the court held that;

"I accept the plaintiff's evidence that before the termination he had not been investigated for any wrong doing. This was a contract for a fixed duration i.e. 4 years, It did not provide for termination by notice. He could therefore only be dismissed for a fundamental breach on his part. There was no such breach. The reason assigned for the termination by the defendant was not part of the plaintiff's terms of employment".

Basing on the above argument, Hon. Lady Justice Elizabeth Musoke said;

According to the evidence on record which was never controverted, no investigation took place prior to dismissal. Neither was the plaintiff given a hearing. This went against the principles of natural justice, and violated plaintiff's constitutional right to a fair hearing and the right to a just and fair

treatment in administrative decisions guaranteed by Article 28 and 42 of the constitution of the Republic of Uganda. According to Article 44 (c) the right to a fair hearing cannot be derogated from. The dismissal which flouted the above provisions is retiring nullity. The contract was for a fixed term of 4 years duration. It did not provide for termination by notice. The plaintiff could, therefore, only be dismissed for a fundamental breach on his part. The reason assigned by the defendant for the dismissal was not justified given the circumstances surrounding the plaintiff's absence. The dismissal was therefore wrongful.

The court therefore concluded the case in favor of the plaintiff against the defendant and the following awards were made subsequently;

- a) Special damages for the unexpired period of the contract Ushs.7,072,800/=
- b) Unpaid leave allowance Ushs. 757,800/=
- c) Workman's compensation UShs.5,604,930/=
- d) Exemplary/punitive damages Ushs.5,000,000/=
- e) Interest of 20% per annum on (a), (b) and (c) above from the date of breach, and 15% per annum from the date of filling, till payment in full.
- f) Costs of suit.

Martin Fetaa, Katongole Kiiza Heridai & Manana Samuel Vs. Uganda Revenue authority

The plaintiff's claim in this case against the defendant is for special damages and general damages for wrongful interdiction and termination of employment, interest on the decretal sum and the costs of the suit. The judgment was entered in for the 2nd and 3rd plaintiffs after the withdrawal of the 1st plaintiff.

Hon. Mr. Justice Yorokamu Bamwine agreed with the court decision in *British Home Stores Vs. Burchell (1978) I.R.L.R 379*, where an employee

was dismissed for alleged dishonesty relating to staff purchases. The Employment Appeal Tribunal held that in such cases the employer had only to show that he entertained a reasonable suspicion amounting to a belief in the guilt of the employee of that misconduct at the time. He argues; *"I am of the considered view that the employer's obligation in such a situation is to ensure that the employee has had an opportunity to learn what allegations have been leveled against him and should allow him to put his own side of the story to the employer before any decision is taken. Under the Manual, they were entitled to be informed verbally, if possible, or else in writing. This was not done. I would therefore agree with the submission of the learned counsel for the plaintiffs that failure to adhere to the procedure laid down in the manual amounted to failure to observe the principle of natural justice, alterem partem, and it rendered the interdiction and the resultant termination wrongful"*.

The court thus, entered judgment in favor of the plaintiff as per the above terms against the defendant as follows;

- i. A declaration that the two plaintiffs were wrongly interdicted and subsequently terminated.
- ii. Shs.10, 000,000/= (Ten Million only) as general damages for each of the two plaintiffs.
- iii. Interest on (ii) above for each plaintiff at the commercial rate of 25% per annum from the date of judgment till payment full.
- iv. Half the taxed costs of the suit (in respect of each plaintiff)

Oywello Ceaser Vs. Pader District Local Government

The plaintiff a former employee of the defendant Local Government for Pader District, Instituted this suit seeking a declaration that termination of his employment for lack of qualification was wrongful

as well as general and special damages. Analyzing the evidence, Kasule, J.: argued that

- The defendant has offered no plausible explanation as to why the plaintiff was appointed on promotion when he possessed no qualification
- The defendant failed to adduce evidence to controvert the plaintiff's assertion that as from 06th June, 2005, the District Service Commission, Pader District under minute 48/2005 appointed the plaintiff on promotion to the post of Senior Assistant Probation and Welfare Officer, scale U4 lower.
- The rejection of the plaintiff's appeal by public service commission gives no reasons at all as to why the appeal was not accepted neither stating what qualifications the plaintiff lacked for the post to which he had just appointed on promotion only a month ago.

Basing on the above, the court concluded that the plaintiff was unlawfully retired and thus entered judgment in his favor on the followings terms;

- a) A declaration is hereby issued that the retirement of plaintiff from service was unlawful.
- b) Shs.17,828,690/= acting allowance
- c) Shs. 26,576,320/= lost salary
- d) Shs. 3,000,000/= general damages
- e) Interest at the court rate on the amounts awarded from 8th July,2005, in respect of the sums awarded in (b) and (c) and as from the date of judgment in respect of the sum awarded in (d) till payment in full.
- f) The severance package paid to the plaintiff on retirement is not to be deducted from the sums awarded in the judgment.
- g) Costs of the suit.

Manji Han Saraj Vs. The Nyanza Garage

The plaintiff in this case was engaged as a mechanic by the defendants at a salary of 450/= p.m. An Agreement setting out the terms of the engagement was drawn up on 1st February, 1930. It was agreed that a month's notice was to be given on either side to terminate the agreement. "In March" the plaintiff received verbal notice terminating his services at the end of March. He was not allowed to work after 29th March, 1930. Holding the case, Gray, A.G. J (as he then was) argued;

1. In view of this evidence and of the fact that the defendants kept plaintiff in their service for over three months, it is clear to me that the defendants' allegation against the plaintiff of inefficiency is not supported by any evidence and is without substance.
2. It cannot be denied that notice "In March" to terminate plaintiff's service at the end of March was not a valid notice under the original agreement between the parties.
3. The position therefore as regards wages due to plaintiff is that he is entitled to a further 100/= for the month of April. He was wrongfully dismissed in the middle of May and is clearly entitled to salary at the rate of 450/= p.m for the days he worked in May. As regards the balance of his claim, he is entitled to damages assessed on the principles laid down in contract Act, section 73.
4. It is clear, however, that in absence of evidence to show that the measure of damages was in fact less, a servant, who is wrongfully dismissed in the middle of the month, is entitled to be compensated to the full extent of the wages, to which he would have been broken. In my opinion plaintiff is entitled to full wages for May.

Rex Vs. Ignatius Mayanja

"When a master advances a servant more than a months' wages the servant does not commit an

offence by quitting at the end of the month leaving part of the advance outstanding in the absence of a written contract. Rex vs. Erisa Wataitide 2 U.L.R Pg.272 applied”.

The defendant in the present case gave notice to his employer on the 21st Dec of his intention to terminate his contract of service on the 31st Dec. Thus he was entitled to do and as pointed out in *Rex vs. Erisa Wataitide*, referred to above, even if he had not by that time worked off the advance received from his employer, the latter's only remedy was by civil action; the remedy under section 47 of the ordinance was gone.

Rex Vs. Erisa Wataitide

Where the accused was engaged verbally as a servant on the 29th March, 1918, and was advanced a certain sum which was to be repaid by monthly deductions from his wages and at the end of April received his wages in full and failed to return to his employment. It was held: the contract not being in writing and there being no express or implied renewal of the contract on the part of the accused he could not be convicted under section XLVIII of the Masters and Servants Ordinance, 1913, and, as there was no contract of services in force at the date when the accused left the service, no offence was committed under section XLIII (5) of the Ordinance. Carter, C.J.: In this case the accused has been convicted by the Additional District Magistrate, Mbale, of quitting the service of his employer before working off an advance of wages and has been sentenced under section XLVIII of the Masters and Servants Ordinance, 1913, to a fine of 15 rupees, or in default of payment of fine to one month's rigorous imprisonment.

Retrenchment

George Kamyia Vs. Uganda Electricity Board

The plaintiff claim against the defendant is for amount owing on retrenchment package, UEB Bills,

transport expenses, pension dues and general damages following retrenchment. He was employed by the defendants' Board from 8th February, 1983 as a Messenger and later as Records Clerk. He worked for the defendants Board until 30th March, 1998 when by a letter whose subject was "Restructuring of UEB Unionized Staff", his services were terminated. The same letter entitled him to a retrenchment package of shs.7, 818,544/= arrived at according to formula set out therein. On 8th April, 1998, without withdrawing the earlier letter of retrenchment, a letter of termination of services was issued to him upon which, he was paid a service gratuity of shs.1.193.835/= only and failed to pay him his pension entitlements. He felt aggrieved by the defendant's act and hence this suit. At the hearing, the defendant conceded that since he had been retrenched, he could not be subject of termination of services. Upon admission of the relevant facts by the defendant under O.11.r.6 of the civil procedure rules, the parties invited the court to enter judgment in the plaintiffs favor as follows;

1. Balance on retrenchment Pay: Ushs.6,770,866/=
2. Transport/Repatriation: Ushs. 600,000/=
3. General damages: Ushs. 1,000,000/=
4. Interest on the above, i.e. (1) and (2) at 10% p.a from April 1998 to date: Ushs.5,687,070/=
5. Costs of the suit: Ushs. 4,950,000/=
6. It was agreed that the defendant pays the above sum within a month from the date of judgment. It was also further agreed that plaintiff was pensionable (As per clause 5 (iii) of Standing Instruction No.22)

Human Resource Problems Identified in the Cases

Lack of training/Capacity building: Training among other things, plays an important role to employees capacity to discover, trace, foresee, eliminate and or eradicate problems at their entirety within an organization. This problem is well

manifested in the case of *George Kamywa vs. Uganda Electricity Board* whereby due to failure to adhere to 'the rules of best management practice' led the UEB into huge amount of compensation which could have easily been avoided. Moreover, a doubt is created still to the Human resources officials in their level of understanding the legal instruments specifically governing employment & labor practices in the country.

The case *Rex vs. Karoli* partly addresses the matter as it was only the matter of understanding the interpretation of section 42 (2) of the then Masters and Servants Ordinance and thus avoid the whole burden of pay back and even torture the accused for that matter since the reason of absence was justifiable under the above law. It is hereby advised therefore, that organizations should foster to train their staff regularly on the employment and labor regulatory instruments both local and international and the best practices there from. There should be profound realization that developing people is the key to future survival, investment in people is big investment.

Lack of corporate secretaries (Lawyers):

Corporate secretaries are qualified lawyers who are employed in the organizations for the sake of monitoring the organizations daily practices and protect it from liabilities. These can be practicing advocates or none practicing (in-house) lawyers. One of the very basic requirements for this position is "Bachelors degree in Laws" Latin, Lex Legum Bacallareut (LL.B) from a recognized or accredited Institution. The cases above create an assumption that all organizations, companies, ministries have been taken to court as a result of not having lawyers in their respective places who could have helped them avoid such legal liabilities of some of which are very minor that just needed wisdom and good managerial practice.

Should this contention be true then the organizations in question and others which have not

faced the troubles have every reason to re-think on employing in-house lawyers, the duty which can't be compromised at all in comparison with the costs so far others sustained. It is our belief that there are so many law graduates in the streets dreaming in the day light of unexpected sound or tones of recruitment from nowhere.

Lack of communication: Communication can be defined as the exchange of an information, thought and emotion between individuals of groups; in other words, communication plays a fundamental role in balancing individual and organizational objectives (BOYACI, 1996, p. 3-5). People in organizations typically spend over 75% of their time in an interpersonal situation; thus it is no surprise to find that at the root of a large number of organizational problems is poor communications. Effective communication is an essential component of organizational success whether it is at the interpersonal, intergroup, intragroup, organizational, or external levels (Wertheim, 2007). It is unquestionable fact that the costs entered by the organizations in the above cases partly resulted from neglect and or poor communication on very official matters.

The crux of the matter could be cases where the company's future a huge dilemma, such succession planning makes good communication sense, a very mismanaged practice, the reasons are undoubtedly complex, but there is suspicion that succession planning is a rarity because senior managers don't really care what happens when they go, are too wrapped up in their daily activities to think ahead. Leaders must thus invest in developing the leaders of tomorrow and must communicate directly with those who will follow their footsteps. Being able to pass on the leadership skills to hers requires three things:

- ✓ Teachable point of view-need to be able to talk clearly and convincingly about who you are ,why you exist and how you operate

- ✓ The leader requires a story- the need to write autobiographies and as dramatic storytelling ingredients on how people can learn from one another and,
- ✓ Teaching methodology- great teachers are also great learners, hungry to know and never regard knowledge as static or comprehensive.

Lack of Customer care (Internal and External):

Customer care is a crucial element of business success. Every time you have contacts with your customers you have an opportunity to improve your reputation with them and increase the likelihood of future sales.

The inability to connect with customers/ clients (people) and enjoy it can be costly too because, one should be keen to find out more about these people and their problems. Nowadays market share has declined as an indicator of corporate performance. There is need to refocus on the cash cows and fix eyes on being at the top. Focusing on overall share has the ability to push your company automatically towards schemes that will kill it in the long run. The trick is to allow each unit on its own to strive for number one or two. Building number one or two positions in the relevant markets creates really value

Adrian Morrison and quella of Mercer Management consulting (quoted from Stuart crane’s book “ *the jack Welch way*” have argued that success is dependent on three capabilities, *Strategic anticipation, Identification of the future value creation opportunities and Business design-designing enterprise so that it can be able to seize those opportunities, value growth realization, moving more rapidly and successfully from old business design to new one. Management should think beyond the product to the entire economic equation of the customers use of the product. the other key is to look for problems to solve and have an urge to ask questions and figure out what is really happening.*

Quality and customer service are not perfectly learnt from mountains of books and other literature. When we look around we realize that customer excellence remains elusive, the problem others argue , is that the “industrialization of services “overlooks the degree of personal interaction (intimacy) required to provide service excellence(kolesar,peter et al 1998).their argument is that survive is doing work to your customer as a result that it requires a high level of contact, communication and coordination with our customers. To do this they propose the need to:

- ✓ *Condense the interaction with customers to involve the minimum numbers of people and processes*
- ✓ *know your customer - understand and practice*
- ✓ *Promote value enhancing self servicing- use of technology to allow customers to do more for themselves*
- ✓ *Provide one stop shopping by providing other associated services*
- ✓ *Engineer competence into service delivery- service competence **must** be institutionalized with systems built around service excellence rather than relying the competency of individuals*
- ✓ *Let customers design the product-customers increasingly require the flexibility to tailor a bundle of products or services to their specific needs and*
- ✓ *Build long term customer relationships-most customers do not want feigned friendships from their service providers, they simply demand competent, hassle free delivery of only those services they value all at reasonable prices*

This is the move from industrialized service to customer intimacy

Lack of Human Resource Information System

(HRIS): Gallagher (1997) argues that HRIS can influence effectiveness in four ways: Firstly, with emphasis on increased productivity from the workforce, recruitment, short term working, temporary, and less redundancies. Secondly, it deals with the increasing demands made by legislation, which related to HR practices and the increased need to produce statistics for government. The third factor was the rate of the development of computer technology. The final factor was the increased availability of HRIS at lower costs. The professional body argued that effective HRIS use leads to efficiency (CIPD, 1999). Briefly, HIRS has the following benefits, time and cost saving. The above cases i.e. In *David B. Ssentongo & 12 others Vs. Makerere University*, the cost of compensation would have been avoided if the defendant having established a new scheme, could have just installed it into the University HIRS for the sake of processing terminal benefits of the plaintiffs and communicate them for their timely payment. In *Rajab Kagoro Vs. Makerere University* and in the case of *The Honourable Justice A.N.Karokora Vs. Attorney General* there was no reason for the defendant to enter into such huge liability of compensating plaintiffs should an effective HRIS be in place. Organizations should make sure that HRIS is installed for effective and efficiency in managing human resources.

Personal Interests (malice, Bias, ill will etc):

Among the things that an organization must make sure that they deal away with is bringing about personal interests into the business which in this study have really cost organizations in return. It should be remembered that managing ‘stones’ doesn’t need skills, professionalism or adherence to the laws regulating employer-employee relationship

but managing human resources do. The following cases clearly demonstrate the ill will or malice in the hearts of people. In *David B. Ssentongo & 12 others Vs. Makerere University* the defendant ‘unreasonably’ excluded plaintiffs in the newly established scheme (In-House Retirement Scheme) which they have been eagerly expecting it, the act which forced the defendant to pay Ugs.5,000,000 each plaintiff and obviously with the terminal benefits under that new scheme.

The above decision is not far from that made in *Rajab Kagoro Vs. Makerere University* in which after failure on the part of defendant to release payments to plaintiff the court granted a sum of Ugs. 2,000,000 with interests as general damages for the said inconvenience and loss. The ill will intentions can be seen in *Oywello Ceaser Vs. Pader District Local Government* as the defendant failed to give plausible reasons to the court as to why the plaintiff was promoted to the post which he holds not qualification, secondly, why the public service commission rejected plaintiffs appeal and the court awarded plaintiff among others, Ugs.3, 000,000 with interest as general damages. This is similarly in the cases of *Mugisha Richard Bob Kagoro Vs. Uganda Wildlife Authority* and *Manji Han Saraj Vs. The Nyanza Garage*.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the selected case laws we make the following informed recommendations under the following classes of Human resource aspects; every industry has its own heroes and Jack Welch of GE an American giant with mammoth resource (276,000 workforce and total assets to the tune of 304 billion, he opines that human potential is unlimited, the idea flow from the human spirit is absolutely unlimited.

Reward packages for performance should be geared to individual as well as corporate achievements and ensure that they are carefully monitored and

differentiated from business to business and person to person.

Developing people (human resource) has for long been left to business schools or training institutes but it is too important a task to be delegated. There is an urgent need to leverage from people competitiveness, and make them instrumental in cultural change than making them victims. Continuous improvement of leadership abilities, business acumen and organisational effectiveness of professionals could be the first fuel for corporate revolution.

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COMPETENCY-BASED LEARNING PROGRAMS: THE MAJOR ORGANIZATIONAL DRIVE FOR PERFORMANCE AND SURVIVAL

Shandler, D. (2000). Competency and the Learning Organisation.

A BOOK REVIEW

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Abstract

This is Donald (2000) Book Review. The book is entitled “Competency and the Learning Organization”. The author of the above book is trying to guide readers through the process of developing competency models which are required by many companies to drive organization performance. In order to keep learning, organisations should therefore adopt and implement competency-based learning (CBL) curriculum, a key to positive attitude, knowledge, skills, and innovativeness. The content of this review includes the following sections: The introduction, distinguishes between competency-based training (CBT) curriculum, focusing mainly on an individual’s immediate job-related need and competency-based learning (CBL) a lifelong learning for future competency. The statement of problem, points out that, due to the traditional instructive learning techniques, many organisations often practice CBT whose extrinsic motivators are awards like grades, certificates and parental praises. The purpose of the study is to examine the relationships between desired business achievement definitions, critical reflection on how to acquire the identified or defined output, increased responsibility-the behaviour that produces desired business results, learning to learn, continuous self-directed learning and competency-based learning (CBL). Critical reflection on the desired business achievement leads to increased responsibility behaviour. Increased responsibility behaviour leads to learning to learn. Learning to learn leads to continuous self directing learning. Behaviour (increased responsibility) leads to continuous self directing learning. Learning to learn leads to competency-based learning (CBL). Also continuous self directing learning leads to competency-based learning (CBL). The conclusion and recommendation emphasize that with competency-based learning (CBL) well achieved, organizations can promote lifelong learning which is required for competency and performance.

Keywords: *Competency Based Learning, Organisational Performance, Makerere University*

Introduction

In this dynamic-competitive era, organizations and individuals require competency to survive. Competency relate to work in terms of tasks, results and output. They are clusters of a major part of one’s job (role or responsibility) that correlates with performance on the job. Competency can be

measured against well-accepted standards and can be improved through training and learning. Some organizations employ competency-based training (CBT) curriculum, focusing mainly on an individual’s immediate job-related need. Others use competency-based learning (CBL). CBL is a lifelong learning for future competency. Hence,

successful business leaders prefer to employ CBL program for greater improvement in performance and survival.

For example, almost after 100 years in business, Sears depended mainly on correspondence CBT programs to improve on performance. Instead, its performance consistently declined. Sears's leadership then realized that a remarkable turnaround was needed. In 1995, Arthur Martinez the new CEO for the Sears Merchandise Group redefined the workforce. He promoted self-esteem, increased responsibility and life enrichment. In this, he established CBL as the core of Sear's new approach. Consequently, Sears generated more than \$1 billion in pre-tax profit and its revenue increased by 25% in 1998. Due to that, Sears recently came back as one of the world's largest and most enduring retailers.

For future competency and survival, organisations and individuals should adopt and implement CBL curriculum.

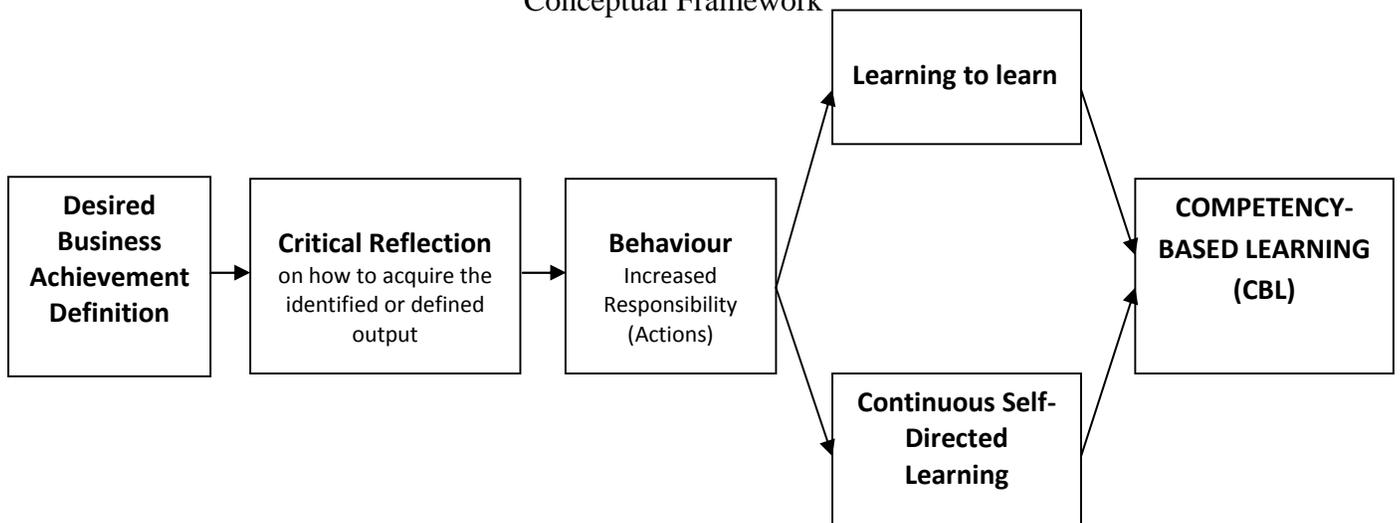
Problem Statement

CBL is a lifelong learning for future competency. To attain that, organisations ought to define the desired business achievement or desired results by identify the required output. This then promote critical reflection on how to acquire the identified or defined output, increased responsibility, the behaviour that produces desired business results, hence learning to learn, and continuous self-directed learning. However, due to the traditional instructive learning techniques, many organisations often practice CBT whose extrinsic motivators are awards like grades, certificates and parental praises. Being that these extrinsic motivators are acquired once and for all, CBT does not encourage lifelong learning future competency.

Purpose of the Study

The study seeks to examine the relationships between desired business achievement definitions, critical reflection on how to acquire the identified or defined output, increased responsibility-the behaviour that produces desired business results, learning to learn, continuous self-directed learning and competency-based learning (CBL).

Conceptual Framework



Desired Business Achievement and Critical Reflection

In these rapidly changing times, it is essential that organizations identify and define the desired business achievement (desired output). When defined, it will serve as the goal aimed at or

something steadfast of a fundamental importance, the foundation of a renewed culture, and the behavior to be communicated to their employees. According to Fisher, this can be provided through the communication of corporate values and principles. If the corporation continuously stress the

sanctity (sacredness) of its key values at all levels of the organisation, they eventually take root.

The desired achievement definitions and the communication of corporate values are very important because they help to define the organisation and guide the organization on how to conduct itself with its employees, customers and shareholders around the world. In fact they are the essence of the organization's brand. Organisations should emphasize the competency, how it relates to achieving job goals, and the role of both the competency and the job goals in achieving organisation goals. They should therefore involve the learners and make them responsible for their defined achievement.

The HON company began its competency-based learning model by identifying the business results it expected from each job category.

These values and desired business achievement (goals) are the statements any organization should take seriously; they are the organization's responsibility to be good worldwide corporate citizen and that they should live and do business by these fundamental values. These must be understood clearly and therefore calls for critical reflection on what they are and their implications.

Individuals and organisation's critical reflection on the desired business achievement (desired output) fosters consideration and contemplation on the content knowledge, learning needs such as integrating learning that emphasises process or making connections and linkages that create or reshape the organisation's framework.

For example, after The HON Company had identified her business results expected from each job category, the learning team identified the knowledge, skill, and attributes members must have to be outstanding performers. This was done through critical reflection, and from which the organisation assessed and analyzed how to acquire the identified or defined output so that everyone works together as one worldwide organization.

This therefore suggests that desired business achievement definitions lead to critical reflection on how to acquire the identified or defined output. It is from this critical reflection that the behaviour of increased responsibility can be attained.

Critical Reflection and Increased Responsibility Behaviour

After defining the individuals or organization desired achievement or desired output, there is a need to contemplate and deliberate on what these desired business achievement are and their implications. This is what is referred to as critical reflection.

In the aspect of critical reflection on the knowledge, skill, and attributes members must have to be outstanding performers. Similar to many individuals and organizations, the following were for example the competencies (knowledge, skill, and attributes) identified and listed for a supervisor who also served as a coach in The HON Company for critical reflection:

Basic Personal Skills (Applied learning, adaptability/change, Planning and Organizing, Written/Oral Communication, Delegation/Follow-up)

- **Applied Learning.** The concept of applied learning is often equated to 'hands on' or practical learning experiences. However, since the 1990's when increased attention was given to the links between education, training and the 'world of work' a broader definition of applied learning has emerged. This broader definition advocates an approach which contextualized learning in a way which empowers and motivates learners, while assisting them to develop key skills and knowledge required for employment, further learning and active participation in their communities. As it is with the Victorian Qualifications Authority (VQA) VCAL Information Sheet (2004), applied learning is being focused on learning, integrating theory and practice and moving learners towards more adult and independent learning. They list eight key applied learning principles that are worth noting here, as they

will be returned to later: Start where learners are at; negotiate the curriculum. Engage in a dialogue with learners about their curriculum; Share knowledge and recognize the knowledge learners bring to the learning environment; Connect with communities and real life experiences, build resilience, confidence and self worth – consider the whole person; Integrate learning – the whole task and the whole person using a range of skills and knowledge and reflecting on the integration that occurs in real life tasks; Promote diversity of learning styles and methods, noting that everyone learns differently and accept that different learning styles require different learning methods, but value experiential, practical and ‘hands on’ ways of learning; Assess appropriately by the use of the assessment method that best ‘fits’ the learning content and context (2004, p. 1).

- **Adaptability/Change.** The effective management of change in the workplace begins even before the change process is implemented. Having a clear picture and reason for making any changes is the first and most critical issue to be critically analyzed and address. Any changes must be justifiable as being in the best interest of the business. The term "change for changes sake" should be kept at the forefront of your mind, as changes of this sort are designed to upset the workplace and the team. If changing any aspect of the workplace or operations is being thought of, then individuals and organizations must be very clear about the following:-The precise nature of the change, why the change is needed, the benefits to the business, the negative aspects of the change, there may be knock-on implications for both the business and employees, the cost of the change, any disruption that will result and any retraining needed. Before a proposed change is thought to be introduced, individuals and organizations should be satisfied that there is a good reason for doing so and that the positives outweigh the negatives.

- **Planning and Organizing.** Effectively plans what is to be achieved, involving all relevant staff members, anticipating important or critical events, identifying resource requirements and assigning responsibility for specific work, including deadlines and performance expectations. Uses information-gathering techniques to analyze situations and identify implications in order to make correct decisions. Have mechanisms to monitor progress and to make changes as required. Ensures staff members' awareness that they will be accountable for achieving the desired results through planned programme evaluation and individual performance appraisal. Ensures that the staff is provided with the necessary tools. What is to be done and how it is to be done is decided in advance. Planning guides us where we should proceed. Planning requires two important resources- time and money. It helps to reduce contingencies in future as we take steps in advance to avoid those risks and uncertainties. If we plan in advance, we achieve Pareto's principle of efficiency, i.e., 80 percent of work gets completed in 20 percent of time. Planning helps in being efficient and effective. Planning is required in all organization and at all management levels. Each organization has a vision. Vision is a roadmap of organization's future. Planning helps the organization to accomplish it's vision. It shortens the gap between where we are and where we want to be. It contributes to organization's success. If we don't plan, we have to face the reality as it comes, else we could have dealt with our priorities. A plan should be simple, clear, flexible and continuous. Organizing is pooling of resources (human, physical, financial) so as to achieve the objectives taking into account the organizational structure and climate.
- **Organization follows planning.** In order to make it happen in an effective way, the official in charge has to supervise the whole process and organize all departments. Organizing converts plans into reality. Plans

govern organizing and tell where organization is heading and how to go there. To get organized, one has to identify what is the best time to do the task and then later schedule the priority task for that time. The resources needed for the task have to be identified then. It should be ensured that the required resources are available in right quantity and right quality. A plan of action should be prepared for what task to be done and at what time. This would help in doing a task efficiently and effectively. Planning and Organizing prepares an organization for meeting future challenges. Hence planning and organizing requires critical reflection as one of the means to achieve the desired business achievement or output.

- **Written/Oral Communication and listening.** Another big responsibility for competency is to know what is happening and where, at any given time. Written/Oral Communication to everyone, or at least point persons from each sub-group is crucial. Each member should also communicate to others, especially when in need of assistance in one particular task. Shandler (2000) pointed out two communication strategies required for critical reflection. These can lead to increased responsibility behaviour in the following ways:
 - **Keep the big pictures in focus for management, stakeholders and to all.** Implementation teams involved in activities – intensive training tasks sometimes lose sight of the bigger picture for themselves and their internal clients. Any CBL performance improvement initiative requires the CBL project team to keep all stakeholders and sponsors informed in every stage of implementation. Communicate the background of the CBL initiative, what the performance objective are and how they will be achieved, and bottom-line projections.
 - **Use status reports for implementation updates.** Effective communication, like performance, is continuous. Efforts at keeping stakeholders aware of the implementation of CBL program must be supported by the continuous communication

activities of the CBL project team. Far too often CBL implementation fail, not because of program quality, but because stakeholders don't know what's going on. According to Shandler (2000), sharing the responsibility of communicating requires critical reflection on what information should be communicated, who should communicate it, how and when this will be communicated. If managers and stakeholders are informed they will follow a carefully developed plan and build credibility by staying on schedule and therefore give a better chance for the programs to succeed.

- **Delegation/Follow-up.** Delegation accelerates success both for individuals and organizations. It is an important key for competency and success. Some of the benefits of quality delegation outlined by Sykes (2006) and require critical reflection and can lead to increased responsibility are:
 - **Multiplying yourself** – The more you delegate, the more you create team members that can accomplish much more in much less time. You are known as someone who gets things done with self-directed teams.
 - **Creating a motivated group** – The more you delegate, the more your team members are motivated because they see you as someone who trusts them and their abilities to get things accomplished. Because your team is motivated, they take more initiative to create solutions, be more creative, and are willing to take on more responsibilities.
 - **Mastering stress and time management skills** – You are forced to prioritize your tasks and realize that there are tasks that you do not need to do, yet would be perfect tasks to develop your team members. By learning how to prioritize your tasks for delegation, you will be less stressed during the workday and go home at the end of the day satisfied that you accomplished more.
 - **Being known as a person who develops people** – The more you delegate, the more

you will be known within the organization as a person who develops people. Remember, even when you think no one is watching, someone is always watching the way you achieve success by developing your people. Whether it's management, other teams, departments or divisions, someone is watching. The word will spread about how well you develop people. The results, management will see you as a developer of people; and other employees, both inside and outside of your organization, will fight to work for you because they know you have a motivated, creative working environment.

- c. Teamwork
- d. Coaching
- e. Conflict Resolution

Anthony Carnevale, writing in an America and the New Economy, also listed the 16 skills like those mentioned above can create increased responsibility behavior or competencies required of the worker in this dynamic-competitive era where organizations and individuals require competency to survive. These increased responsibility behavior or competencies are the “soft,” nontechnical skills which provide competitive edge behaviour or increased responsibility (actions). These are:

- o **Creating opportunities for yourself and others** – By delegating tasks to others, you can then take on more advanced tasks that will prepare you for future opportunities when they become available. Another reason why you delegate tasks is so that you can develop yourself for future promotions, monetary, and career opportunities. For example, if you want to become vice president for your organization and you know that skills B, M, Z are required by all vice presidents, then delegate any management tasks that you have already mastered to your team members so that you can then ask for more “vice presidential” tasks. Also, as a leader, you never want your team members to be with you in the same position forever. Thus, delegating tasks continuously prepares them for opportunities that may come their way.

1. Learning to Learn – the foundation skill
2. The Academic Basics – like reading, writing and computational skills
3. Communication –includes speaking (oral), written and listening skills. Express ideas and facts in a succinct, organized manner and make clear and convincing oral presentations. It also require to consider and respond appropriately to ideas expressed by others
4. Adaptability – includes problem-solving and creativity skills
5. Development Skills – includes self-esteem, motivation and goal setting skills; personal and career development skills
6. Group Effectiveness – includes interpersonal, negotiation and teamwork skills
7. Influencing Skills – includes organizational effectiveness and leadership skills

- o **Advanced Leadership Skills** – leadership skills in the workplace which too requires critical reflection involve influencing others to serve the strategic purpose of an organization or the developmental needs of the organization. In this workers are required to assume leadership roles beyond their own formal assignments.

- a. Team Problem Solving/Decision Making
- b. Result Achievement

Increased Responsibility Behaviour and Learning to Learn

Individuals, organizations, companies and the press are discussing lifelong learning, the need to “learn new things,” and even the mechanics of how individuals impart or acquire knowledge. According to Shandler, (2000), fundamental to these discussions – whether from the perspective of educator, trainer, or instructional designer – are the assumptions that we make about adult learners. As an intrinsic motivator, increased responsibility is a behavior accompanied by self-esteem and life enrichment. It significantly drives learning among

the employees and employers. Increased responsibility also creates the climate for effective learning. People tend to feel committed to a learning activity as they work to the extent that they all participate in the planning activity. Learning needs are perceived by the learners and are determined inclusively with the formal assessment process. These are then translated into learning objectives which become the positive statements of direction and growth. Learning is performance-based and tied to business objectives. The organization values learning processes and help individuals “learn how to learn.” Learning is that part of the work, and a part of everybody’s job description. These are the andragogy implications for the practitioner. It is the science of adult learners who are not extrinsically motivated by grades, certificates, or praises by intrinsically motivated by self-esteem, achievement, increased responsibility and life enrichment. Increased responsibility behavior promotes more responsibility for learning among the adults. They tend to take responsibility for their own professional growth, learning and performance. They learn to learn, a critical new workforce competency. With this employees take a leadership role in using what they learned on the job and also view learning as an integral part of the work process and a source for competitive advantage.

Learning to Learn and Continuous Self Directing Learning

Learning to learn is not only an individual but also a critical workforce competency which involve learning with others, technology-driven learning and a continuous self directing learning. A prospective employee learner tends to go through a four steps learning process as follows:

1. Being introduced to the competency of learning to learn and he or she is shown how it will benefit them all directly.
2. He or she gets to know the advantages and disadvantages of this delivery options.
3. He or she with others get to understand the mechanics of the learning package and implementation.

4. Support the use of a new system, reinforce them and handling general concerns appropriately and accordingly.

The above four steps learning process promotes learning with others. This has continued to have places in many learning organization and in various forms. Some of these forms are: classrooms (instructor-led or group based learning activities), workshops, seminars, and courses. In many organizations, learning to learn leads to self-directing learning (SDL) which occurs in the immediate work area, and in others it may take place in a formal learning centre. SDL can usually occur anytime, anywhere and include self-assessment/self-testing materials, contract-based learning, books, audio tapes, video tapes, correspondence course, home study programs, job aids, projects/assignments, and direct reading. Greater opportunities for telecommunicating also allow the learning to take place at home. In either way, the SDL alternatives are considering the needs of management, supervisors, and learner. Management’s SDL implementation needs are:

- To brief executives with actual materials, explaining how the learning process works and encouraging them to experience it themselves.
- To explain how they can support the administration of the program and the learning itself.
- To demonstrate the relationship of the learning process to the broader competency Curriculum-Based learning curriculum.

Managers will be more interested in supporting these programs if they see the direct linkage to their business goals.

Supervisor’s SDL implementation needs are that they become part of the learning support team effort and can enhance the SDL program’s implementation. Supervisor’s also encourage, motivate and guide learners.

Learners’ SDL implementation needs are that they adopt the comprehensive learning and development strategic plan or process developed and launched by Myer Grace Bros.

The Self-directing learning (SDL) media formats range from paper and pencil to multimedia.

Behaviour (Increased Responsibility) and Continuous Self Directing Learning

Increased responsibility is a behavior accompanied by self-esteem and life enrichment, significantly drives learning among the employees and employers. It is an intrinsic motivator for increased performance through increased responsibility. This creates the climate for effective and a continuous self directing learning that employees tend to feel committed to a learning activity as they work and they feel obliged to participate in the planning activity as described above. Hence increased responsibility behavior leads to self-directing learning (SDL) also explained above.

Learning to Learn and Competency-Based Learning (CBL)

Learning to learn enables individuals, organizations, and ecosystems to change conditioned behavioral routines to be more adaptive, generate and evaluate a wider range of hypotheses about the future; select appropriate mind-tools and environments to enhance their learning, thinking, and implementation capability (Senge, 2007). The learning organization as defined by Pedler M., Boydell T. and Burgoyne J. (2005) is an organization which facilitates the learning of all its members and continuously transforms itself. Schön, Cris and Donald (2000) pointed out two types of organizational Learning:

1. Incremental: learning that is characterized by simple, routine problem solving and that requires no fundamental change to your thinking or system.
2. Radical: breakthrough learning that directly challenges the prevailing mental model on which the system is built.

Learning is the key to competency. It is required by any organization that wants to survive and thrive in this dynamic-competitive era with new knowledge economy. Market champions keep asking learning questions, keep learning how to do things better, and keep spreading that knowledge throughout their organization. This therefore promotes competency-

based learning and provides the catalyst and the intellectual resource to create performance, a sustainable competitive advantage, and survival.

Continuous Self Directing Learning and Competency-based Learning (CBL)

Knowledge organizations obtain competitive advantage from continuous self directing learning, both individual and collective. In organizations with a well established knowledge management system, learning by the people within an organization becomes learning by the organization itself which is competency-based learning. The changes in people's attitudes are reflected in changes in the formal and informal rules that govern the organization's behaviour.

Scratch the surface of a lot of top-line Corporation thinking and you will hear the words core competencies and learning organization used frequently. What it boils down to is the effort to figure out what you do best as an organization and how you make certain that the people working with you have the skills and knowledge that match what you do best. Continuous Self Directing Learning is the key to competency-based learning (CBL).

Conclusion

Customarily, organisations practice competency-based training (CBT). Many business leaders have not yet realized that CBT is often characterized of little knowledge, low attitude, lack of innovativeness, and hence incompetency. With competency-based learning (CBL), organizations can avoid the above mentioned attributes that affect performance. They (organisations) should therefore adopt and implement competency-based learning (CBL) curriculum, a key to positive attitude, knowledge, skills, and innovativeness. These are the major organizational drive for performance and survival.

As it is recommended in the General Electric (GE) individuals and organizations need to keep learning. Don't be arrogant by assuming that you know it all, that you have a monopoly on the truth," says Jack Welch to senior managers of (GE) and to all others. "Always assume that you can learn something from

someone else or from another GE business or even from a competitor especially.

At General Electric (GE) is steeped in a learning culture and it is this fact that makes GE a unique company. As Jack Welch puts it "What sets GE apart is a culture that uses diversity as a limitless

source of learning opportunities, a storehouse of ideas whose breadth and richness is unmatched in world business". At the heart of this culture is an understanding that an organization's ability to learn, and translate that learning into action rapidly, is the ultimate competitive business advantage."

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Competency-Based Learning and the Learning Organization: A Case of Makerere Business School

Donald Shandler,_____,*Competency and the Learning Organization*

About Bugema University-School of Graduate studies

Mission Statement for the University

To offer excellent and distinctive holistic Christian education to prepare our students through training, research and scholarship for productive levels of useful services to God and the society with uncompromising in terrify, honesty and loyalty.

Vision of the School of Graduate studies

A self-sustaining School of Graduate studies producing skilled manpower for diverse development

Mission Statement of the School of Graduate studies

A seventh-day Adventist institution on higher learning providing holistic and sustainable education through imparting quality skills to graduate students and community members for excellence in service.

Objectives

Guided and propelled by the general objective of backstopping Bugema University in undertaking efforts to make more meaningful contribution to the realization of the goals of national development through human resource development, the Bugema University-School of Graduate studies trains its efforts and resources towards the achievement of the following specific objectives:

1. To develop graduate students' ability to undertake research or scholarly work in business administration, development studies, counselling psychology, education management, public health, and international business.
2. To develop highly trained human resources imbued with universal values and professionalism, work and discipline.

3. To offer programs that are responsive to the needs of the learners and of their communities through holistic education.
4. To institutionalize a system of continuing education to sustain professional growth and promote long life learning.
5. To establish an education network through collaborative arrangements, institutional linkages and other appropriate mechanisms to enhance the delivery of education programs and to generate awareness of and support to Bugema University-School of Graduate studies program.
6. To foster a culture of performance excellence, accountability and stewardship consonant with Bugema University's values, objectives, institutional identity and culture.

Goal of the School of Graduate studies

Improve access to post graduate studies among SDA scholars

Values of the School of Graduate studies

1. Commitment
2. Self reliance
3. Team spirit
4. Professionalism and Competence
5. Transparency
6. Equity and fairness

Courses offered by Bugema University-School of Graduate studies (only offered at Kampala Campus & Arua Center on Weekend)

1. Masters of Business Administration (MBA)
 - Finance & Accounting
 - Human Resource Management
 - Entrepreneurship and Strategic Management
 - Procurement & Logistic
 - Project Management
 - Marketing
2. Masters of Science in Counselling Psychology
3. Masters of Art in Development Studies

4. Masters of Art in Educational Management
5. Masters in Public Health
6. Post Graduate Diploma in International Business Management offered in partnership

with Galilee International Management Institute, Israel